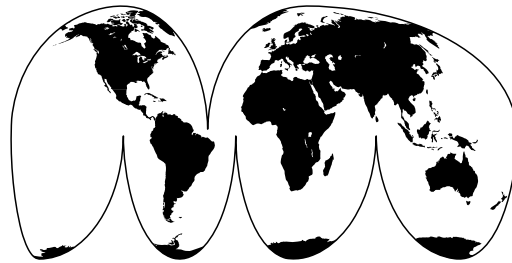


**WORLD MARK
ENCYCLOPEDIA
OF THE STATES,
SEVENTH EDITION**



**Volume 1
Alabama to Montana**

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Worldmark Encyclopedia of the States, Seventh Edition

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PREFACE

In 1980, editor and publisher Moshe Y. Sachs set out to create the *Worldmark Encyclopedia of the Nations*, a new kind of reference work that would view every nation of the world as if through a “world mirror” and not from the perspective of any one country or group of countries. In 1981, a companion volume, the *Worldmark Encyclopedia of the States*, was introduced. It was selected as an “Outstanding Reference Source” by the Reference Sources Committee of the American Library Association, Reference and Adult Services Division. Thomson Gale now offers a revised and updated seventh edition of the *Worldmark Encyclopedia of the States*.

The fitness of the United States of America as a subject for encyclopedic study is plain. No discussion of world politics, economics, culture, technology, or military affairs would be complete without an intensive examination of the American achievement. What is not so obvious is why the editors chose to present this work as an encyclopedia of the *states* rather than of the United States. In so doing, they emphasize the fact that the United States is a federal union of separate states with divergent histories, traditions, resources, laws, and economic interests.

Every state, large or small, is treated in an individual chapter, within a framework of 50 standard subject headings; generally, the more populous the state, the longer the article. The District of Columbia and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico each have their own chapters, and two additional articles describe in summary the other Caribbean and Pacific dependencies. The concluding chapter is an overview of the nation as a whole. Supplementing this textual material are tables of conversions and abbreviations, a glossary, and more than 50 black-and-white maps prepared especially for this encyclopedia.

Publication of this encyclopedia was a collective effort that enlisted the talents of scholars, government agencies, editor-writers, artists, cartographers, typesetters, proofreaders, and many others. Perhaps only those involved in the production of reference books fully appreciate how complex that endeavor can be. Readers customarily expect that a reference book will be correct in every particular; and yet, by the time it has been on the shelves for a few months, a conscientious editor may already have a long list of improvements and corrections to be made in a subsequent edition. We invite you, the reader, to add your suggestions to our list.

Send comments to:

Worldmark Encyclopedia of the States
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The Editors

GUIDE TO STATE ARTICLES

All information contained within a state article is uniformly keyed by means of small superior numerals to the left of the subject headings. A heading such as "Population," for example, carries the same key numeral (6) in every article. Thus, to find information about the population of Alabama, consult the table of contents for the page number where the Alabama article begins and look for section 6 thereunder.

Introductory matter for each state includes:

- Origin of state name
- Nickname
- Capital
- Date and order of statehood
- Song
- Motto
- Flag
- Official seal
- Symbols (animal, tree, flower, etc.)
- Legal holidays
- Time zone

SUBJECT HEADINGS IN NUMERICAL ORDER

1	Location, size, and extent	27	Mining
2	Topography	28	Energy and power
3	Climate	29	Industry
4	Flora and fauna	30	Commerce
5	Environmental protection	31	Consumer protection
6	Population	32	Banking
7	Ethnic groups	33	Insurance
8	Languages	34	Securities
9	Religions	35	Public finance
10	Transportation	36	Taxation
11	History	37	Economic policy
12	State government	38	Health
13	Political parties	39	Social welfare
14	Local government	40	Housing
15	State services	41	Education
16	Judicial system	42	Arts
17	Armed forces	43	Libraries and museums
18	Migration	44	Communications
19	Intergovernmental cooperation	45	Press
20	Economy	46	Organizations
21	Income	47	Tourism, travel, and recreation
22	Labor	48	Sports
23	Agriculture	49	Famous persons
24	Animal husbandry	50	Bibliography
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26	Forestry		

SUBJECT HEADINGS IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

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Climate	3	Location, size, and extent	1
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Communications	44	Mining	27
Consumer protection	31	Organizations	46
Economic policy	37	Political parties	13
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Education	41	Press	45
Energy and power	28	Public finance	35
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Famous persons	49	Social welfare	39
Fishing	25	Sports	48
Flora and fauna	4	State government	12
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Health	38	Taxation	36
History	11	Topography	2
Housing	40	Tourism, travel, and recreation	47
Income	21	Transportation	10
Industry	29		
Insurance	33		

EXPLANATION OF SYMBOLS

A fiscal split year is indicated by a stroke (e.g. 1994/95).
 A dollar sign (\$) stands for US\$ unless otherwise indicated.
 Note that 1 billion = 1,000 million = 10⁹.
 The use of a small dash (e.g., 1990–94) normally signifies the full period of calendar years covered (including the end year indicated).

NOTES

GENERAL NOTE: In producing the seventh edition of *Worldmark Encyclopedia of the States*, the editors were aided by the wealth of information now available from state governments on the World Wide Web. The information included in this volume from postings by state agencies was supplemented by data from The Council of State Governments, the Census Bureau, the Bureau of Economic Analysis, the National Center for Education Statistics, the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the Department of Energy, the National Science Board, the National Center for Health Statistics, the Federal Highway Administration, the Department of Defense, the Department of Veterans Affairs, the Department of the Interior, the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, and a wide variety of additional federal agencies and offices. This state and federal information was indispensable to *Worldmark* editors in revising state articles. Space does not permit listing of the hundreds of additional documents from private sources which were consulted for each state's entry. Listed below are notable sources of data which were used in revising a majority of entries.

MAPS: The maps of the states were produced by the University of Akron Laboratory for Cartographic and Spatial Analysis under the direction of Joseph W. Stoll. The maps originated from the United States Geological Survey 1:2,000,000 Digital Line Graphs (DLG). Additional sources used to determine and verify the positioning of text and symbols include 1990 United States Census Data, USGS 1:500,000 Topographic State Maps, brochures and maps from the state visitor bureaus, and the *Rand McNally United States Road Atlas*. For definitions of abbreviations used on the maps please refer to the section entitled "Abbreviations and Acronyms" appearing on page xi.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES: Recognizing the trend toward use of the metric system throughout the United States, the text provides metric equivalents for customary measures of length and area, and both Fahrenheit and Centigrade expressions for temperature. Production figures are expressed exclusively in the prevailing customary units.

LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT: The lengths of interstate boundary segments and the total lengths of state boundaries appear in roman type when derived from official government sources; italic type indicates data derived from other sources. Discrepancies in the boundary lengths of neighboring states as specified by official sources arise from divergent methodologies of measurement.

FLORA AND FAUNA: Discussions of endangered species are based on the *List of Endangered and Threatened Wildlife and Plants* maintained by the Fish and Wildlife Service of the US Department of the Interior, and on data supplied by the states.

POPULATION: Population figures are from data released by the US Census Bureau's Population Estimates Program as of 2006. These data can be found at <http://eire.census.gov/popest/estimates.php> together with a wide variety of additional economic and demographic data collected by the US Department of Commerce and other related federal agencies. Tables of counties, county seats, county areas, and estimates of county populations as of 2006 accompany the articles on the 14 most populous states; the editors regret that space limitations prevented the publication of such a table for each state. Because of rounding of numbers, county areas in these tables may not equal the total.

LANGUAGES: Examples of lexical and pronunciation patterns cited in the text are meant to suggest the historic development of principal linguistic features and should not be taken as a comprehensive statement of current usage. Data on languages spoken in the home were obtained from "Languages Spoken at Home: 2000" issued online at <http://factfinder.census.gov> by the US Census Bureau.

TRANSPORTATION: Transportation statistics were compiled from the *Transportation Profile* for each of the states and the District of Columbia published by the Bureau of Transportation Statistics, US Department of Transportation.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM: *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States*, published annually by

the Federal Bureau of Investigation and embodying the FBI Crime Index (tabulations of offenses known to the police), was the principal source for the crime statistics cited in the text.

ARMED FORCES: The number of veterans of US military service are as reported by Census Bureau as of 2006. Additional data came from the *State Summary* reports prepared by the Office of Public Affairs, Media Relations, Department of Veterans Affairs.

INCOME: Data on income was extracted in part from *State BEARFACTS 1994 – 2004* published online at <http://www.bea.gov/bea/regional/bearfacts> by the Bureau of Economic Analysis of the US Department of Commerce.

LABOR: Statistics on the labor force and union membership were obtained from Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor and are available online at <http://www.bls.gov>.

ENERGY AND POWER: Data for proved reserves and production of fossil fuels were derived from publications of the American Gas Association, American Petroleum Institute, National Coal Association, and US Department of Energy. Data on nuclear power facilities were obtained from the Nuclear Information and Resource Service and from state sources.

INSURANCE: The principal statistical sources for information on insurance were annual publications of the Insurance Information Institute and the American Council of Life Insurance.

PUBLIC FINANCE: Tables of state government revenues and expenditures were obtained from *2004 State Government Tax Collections* and *State Government Finances: 2004* issued by the US Census Bureau and available online at <http://www.census.gov/govs/www/statetax02.html> and <http://www.census.gov/govs.state>. Additional information came from the official web sites of the individual states.

HEALTH: The principal statistical sources for hospitals and medical personnel were annual publications of the American Dental Association, American Hospital Association, and American Medical Association.

LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS: In most cases, library and museum names are listed in the *American Library Directory* by R. R. Bowker, and the *Official Museum Directory*, compiled by the National Register Publishing Co. in cooperation with the American Association of Museums.

PRESS: Circulation data follow the 2005 *Editor & Publisher International Yearbook*.

FAMOUS PERSONS: Entries are current through July 2006. Where a person described in one state is known to have been born in another, the state of birth follows the personal name, in parentheses.

BIBLIOGRAPHY: Bibliographies are intended as a guide to landmark works on each state for further research and not as a listing of sources in preparing the articles. Such listings would have far exceeded space limitations.

CONVERSION TABLES*

LENGTH

1 centimeter0.3937 inch
1 centimeter0.03280833 foot
1 meter (100 centimeters)3.280833 feet
1 meter1.093611 US yards
1 kilometer (1,000 meters)0.62137 statute mile
1 kilometer0.539957 nautical mile
1 inch2.540005 centimeters
1 foot (12 inches)30.4801 centimeters
1 US yard (3 feet)0.914402 meter
1 statute mile (5,280 feet; 1,760 yards)1.609347 kilometers
1 British mile1.609344 kilometers
1 nautical mile (1.1508 statute miles or 6,076.10333 feet)1.852 kilometers
1 British nautical mile (6,080 feet)1.85319 kilometers

AREA

1 sq centimeter0.154999 sq inch
1 sq meter (10,000 sq centimeters)10.76387 sq feet
1 sq meter1.1959585 sq yards
1 hectare (10,000 sq meters)2.47104 acres
1 sq kilometer (100 hectares)0.386101 sq mile
1 sq inch6.451626 sq centimeters
1 sq foot (144 sq inches)0.092903 sq meter
1 sq yard (9 sq feet)0.836131 sq meter
1 acre (4,840 sq yards)0.404687 hectare
1 sq mile (640 acres)2.589998 sq kilometers

VOLUME

1 cubic centimeter0.061023 cubic inch
1 cubic meter35.31445 cubic feet
(1,000,000 cubic centimeters)1.307943 cubic yards
1 cubic inch16.387162 cubic centimeters
1 cubic foot (1,728 cubic inches)0.028317 cubic meter
1 cubic yard (27 cubic feet)0.764559 cubic meter

LIQUID MEASURE

1 liter0.8799 imperial quart
1 liter1.05671 US quarts
1 hectoliter21.9975 imperial gallons
1 hectoliter26.4178 US gallons
1 imperial quart1.136491 liters
1 US quart0.946333 liter
1 imperial gallon0.04546 hectoliter
1 US gallon0.037853 hectoliter

WEIGHT

1 kilogram (1,000 grams)35.27396 avoirdupois ounces
1 kilogram32.15074 troy ounces
1 kilogram2.204622 avoirdupois pounds
1 quintal (100 kg)220.4622 avoirdupois pounds
1 quintal1.9684125 hundredweights
1 metric ton (1,000 kg)1.102311 short tons
1 metric ton0.984206 long ton

1 avoirdupois ounce0.0283495 kilogram
1 troy ounce0.0311035 kilogram
1 avoirdupois pound0.453592 kilogram
1 avoirdupois pound0.00453592 quintal
1 hundred weight (cwt., 112 lb)0.50802 quintal
1 short ton (2,000 lb)0.907185 metric ton
1 long ton (2,240 lb)1.016047 metric tons

ELECTRIC ENERGY

1 horsepower (hp)0.7457 kilowatt
1 kilowatt (kw)1.34102 horsepower

TEMPERATURE

Celsius (C)Fahrenheit-32 x 5/9
Fahrenheit (F)9/5 Celsius + 32

BUSHELS

	LB	METRIC TON	BUSHELS PER METRIC TON
Barley (US)	48	0.021772	45.931
(UK)	50	0.022680	44.092
Corn (UK, US)	56	0.025401	39.368
Linseed (UK)	52	0.023587	42.396
(Australia, US)	56	0.025401	39.368
Oats (US)	32	0.014515	68.894
(Canada)	34	0.015422	64.842
Potatoes (UK, US)	60	0.027216	36.743
Rice (Australia)	42	0.019051	52.491
(US)	45	0.020412	48.991
Rye (UK, US)	56	0.025401	39.368
(Australia)	60	0.027216	36.743
Soybeans (US)	60	0.027216	36.743
Wheat (UK, US)	60	0.027216	36.743

BAGS OF COFFEE

	LB	KG	BAGS PER METRIC TON
Brazil, Columbia			
Mexico, Venezuela	132.28	60	16.667
El Salvador	152.12	69	14.493
Haiti	185.63	84.2	11.876

BALES OF COTTON

	LB	METRIC TON	BALES PER METRIC TON
India	392	0.177808	5.624
Brazil	397	0.180000	5.555
US (net)	480	0.217724	4.593
US (gross)	500	0.226796	4.409

PETROLEUM

One barrel = 42 US gallons = 34.97 imperial gallons = 158.99 liters = 0.15899 cubic meter (or 1 cubic meter = 6.2898 barrels).

*Includes units of measure cited in the text, as well as certain other units employed in parts of the English-speaking world.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AD—Anno Domini	etc.—et cetera (and so on)	mph—miles per hour
AFDC—Aid to Families with Dependent Children	F—Fahrenheit	MST—Mountain Standard Time
AFL—CIO—American Federation of Labor— Congress of Industrial Organizations	FBI—Federal Bureau of Investigation	Mt.—mount
AM—before noon	FCC—Federal Communications Commission	Mtn.—mountain
AM—amplitude modulation	FM—frequency modulation	mw—megawatt(s)
American Ind.—American Independent Party	For.—forest	n—north
Amtrak—National Railroad Passenger Corp.	Ft.—fort	NA—not available
b.—born	ft—foot, feet	Natl.—National
bc—Before Christ	GDP—gross domestic product	Natl. Mon.—national monument
Btu—British thermal unit(s)	gm—gram	NATO—North Atlantic Treaty Organization
bu—bushel(s)	GMT—Greenwich Mean Time	NCAA—National Collegiate Athletic Association
c.—circa (about)	GNP—gross national product	n.d.—no date
c—Celsius (Centigrade)	GRT—gross registered tons	N.F.—national forest
CIA—Central Intelligence Agency	Hist.—historic	N.P.—national park
cm—centimeter(s)	I—interstate (highway)	N.W.R.—national wildlife refuge
Co.—company	i.e.—id est (that is)	oz—ounce(s)
comp.—compiler	in—inch(es)	PM—after noon
Conrail—Consolidated Rail Corp.	Inc.—incorporated	PST—Pacific Standard Time
Corp.—corporation	Ind. Res.—Indian Reservation	r.—reigned
Cr.—creek	Is.—isle, island	R—Republican
CST—Central Standard Time	Jct.—junction	Ra.—range
cu—cubic	K—kindergarten	Res.—reservoir, reservation
cwt—hundredweight(s)	kg—kilogram(s)	rev. ed.—revised edition
d.—died	km—kilometer(s)	s—south
D—Democrat	km/hr—kilometers per hour	S—Sunday
e—evening	kw—kilowatt(s)	Soc.—Socialist
E—east	kwh—kilowatt-hour(s)	S.P.—senic point
ed.—edition, editor	lb—pound(s)	sq—square
e.g.—exempli gratia (for example)	m—meter(s); morning	St.—saint, state
EPA—Environmental Protection Agency	m ³ —cubic meter(s)	UN—United Nations
est.—estimated	Mem.—memorial	US—United States
EST—Eastern Standard Time	mi—mile(s)	USIA—United States Information Agency
et al.—et alii (and others)	Mil. Res.—military reservation	w—west
	Mon.—monument	W.M.A.—wildlife management area

NAMES OF STATES AND OTHER SELECTED AREAS

	Standard Abbreviation(s)	Postal Abbreviation	Nebraska	Nebr. (Neb.) Standard Abbreviation(s)	NE Postal Abbreviation
Alabama	Ala.	AL			
Alaska	*	AK	Nevada	Nev.	NV
Arizona	Ariz.	AZ	New Hampshire	N.H.	NH
Arkansas	Ark.	AR	New Jersey	N.J.	NJ
California	Calif.	CA	New Mexico	N.Mex. (N.M.)	NM
Colorado	Colo.	CO	New York	N.Y.	NY
Connecticut	Conn.	CT	North Carolina	N.C.	NC
Delaware	Del.	DE	North Dakota	N.Dak. (N.D.)	ND
District of Columbia	D.C.	DC	Ohio	*	OH
Florida	Fla.	FL	Oklahoma	Okla.	OK
Georgia	Ga.	GA	Oregon	Oreg. (Ore.)	OR
Hawaii	*	HI	Pennsylvania	Pa.	PA
Idaho	*	ID	Puerto Rico	P.R.	PR
Illinois	Ill.	IL	Rhode Island	R.I.	RI
Indiana	Ind.	IN	South Carolina	S.C.	SC
Iowa	*	IA	South Dakota	S.Dak. (S.D.)	SD
Kansas	Kans. (Kan.)	KS	Tennessee	Tenn.	TN
Kentucky	Ky.	KY	Texas	Tex.	TX
Louisiana	La.	LA	Utah	*	UT
Maine	Me.	ME	Vermont	Vt.	VT
Maryland	Md.	MD	Virginia	Va.	VA
Massachusetts	Mass.	MA	Virgin Islands	V.I.	VI
Michigan	Mich.	MI	Washington	Wash.	WA
Minnesota	Minn.	MN	West Virginia	W.Va.	WV
Mississippi	Miss.	MS	Wisconsin	Wis.	WI
Missouri	Mo.	MO	Wyoming	Wyo.	WY
Montana	Mont.	MT			

GLOSSARY

ANTEBELLUM: before the US Civil War.

BLUE LAWS: laws forbidding certain practices (e.g., conducting business, gaming, drinking liquor), especially on Sundays.

CAPITAL BUDGET: a financial plan for acquiring and improving buildings or land, paid for by the sale of bonds.

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: punishment by death.

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE: all persons 16 years of age or older who are not in the armed forces and who are now holding a job, have been temporarily laid off, are waiting to be reassigned to a new position, or are unemployed but actively looking for work.

CLASS I RAILROAD: a railroad having gross annual revenues of \$83.5 million or more in 1983.

COMMERCIAL BANK: a bank that offers businesses and individuals a variety of banking services, including the right of withdrawal by check.

COMPACT: a formal agreement, covenant, or understanding between two or more parties.

CONSOLIDATED BUDGET: a financial plan that includes the general budget, federal funds, and all special funds.

CONSTANT DOLLARS: money values calculated so as to eliminate the effect of inflation on prices and income.

CONTINENTAL CLIMATE: the climate typical of the US interior, having distinct seasons, a wide range of daily and annual temperatures, and dry, sunny summers.

COUNCIL-MANAGER SYSTEM: a system of local government under which a professional administrator is hired by an elected council to carry out its laws and policies.

CREDIT UNION: a cooperative body that raises funds from its members by the sale of shares and makes loans to its members at relatively low interest rates.

CURRENT DOLLARS: money values that reflect prevailing prices, without excluding the effects of inflation.

DEMAND DEPOSIT: a bank deposit that can be withdrawn by the depositor with no advance notice to the bank.

ELECTORAL VOTES: the votes that a state may cast for president, equal to the combined total of its US senators and representatives and nearly always cast entirely on behalf of the candidate who won the most votes in that state on Election Day.

ENDANGERED SPECIES: a type of plant or animal threatened with extinction in all or part of its natural range.

FEDERAL POVERTY LEVEL: a level of money income below which a person or family qualifies for US government aid.

FISCAL YEAR: a 12-month period for accounting purposes.

FOOD STAMPS: coupons issued by the government to low-income persons for food purchases at local stores.

GENERAL BUDGET: a financial plan based on a government's normal revenues and operating expenses, excluding special funds.

GENERAL COASTLINE: a measurement of the general outline of the US seacoast. See also TIDAL SHORELINE.

GREAT AWAKENING: during the mid-18th century, a Protestant religious revival in North America, especially New England.

GROSS STATE PRODUCT: the total value of goods and services produced in the state.

GROWING SEASON: the period between the last 32°F (0°C) temperature in spring and the first 32°F (0°C) temperature in autumn.

HOME-RULE CHARTER: a document stating how and in what respects a city, town, or county may govern itself.

INSTALLED CAPACITY: the maximum possible output of electric power at any given time.

MAYOR-COUNCIL SYSTEM: a system of local government under which an elected council serves as a legislature and an elected mayor is the chief administrator.

MEDICAID: a federal-state program that helps defray the hospital and medical costs of needy persons.

MEDICARE: a program of hospital and medical insurance for the elderly, administered by the federal government.

METROPOLITAN AREA: in most cases, a city and its surrounding suburbs.

NO-FAULT INSURANCE: an automobile insurance plan that allows an accident victim to receive payment from an insurance company without having to prove who was responsible for the accident.

NORTHERN, NORTH MIDLAND: major US dialect regions.

OMBUDSMAN: a public official empowered to hear and investigate complaints by private citizens about government agencies.

PER CAPITA: per person.

POCKET VETO: a method by which a state governor (or the US president) may kill a bill by taking no action on it before the legislature adjourns.

PROVED RESERVES: the quantity of a recoverable mineral resource (such as oil or natural gas) that is still in the ground.

PUBLIC DEBT: the amount owed by a government.

RELIGIOUS ADHERENTS: the followers of a religious group, including (but not confined to) the full, confirmed, or communicant members of that group.

RETAIL TRADE: the sale of goods directly to the consumer.

REVENUE SHARING: the distribution of federal tax receipts to state and local governments.

RIGHT-TO-WORK LAW: a measure outlawing any attempt to require union membership as a condition of employment.

SAVINGS AND LOAN ASSOCIATION: a bank that invests the savings of depositors primarily in home mortgage loans.

SERVICE INDUSTRIES: industries that provide services (e.g., health, legal, automotive repair) for individuals, businesses, and others.

SOCIAL SECURITY: as commonly understood, the federal system of old age, survivors, and disability insurance.

SOUTHERN, SOUTH MIDLAND: major US dialect regions.

STOLPORT: an airfield for short-takeoff-and-landing (STOL) aircraft, which require runways shorter than those used by conventional aircraft.

SUNBELT: the southernmost states of the United States, extending from Florida to California.

SUPPLEMENTAL SECURITY INCOME: a federally administered program of aid to the aged, blind, and disabled.

TIDAL SHORELINE: a detailed measurement of the US seacoast that includes sounds, bays, other outlets, and offshore islands.

TIME DEPOSIT: a bank deposit that may be withdrawn only at the end of a specified time period or upon advance notice to the bank.

VALUE ADDED BY MANUFACTURE: the difference, measured in dollars, between the value of finished goods and the cost of the materials needed to produce them.

WHOLESALE TRADE: the sale of goods, usually in large quantities, for ultimate resale to consumers.

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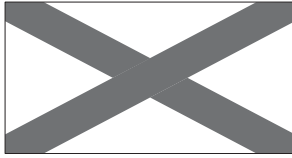
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ALABAMA

State of Alabama



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Probably after the Alabama Indian tribe. **NICKNAME:** The Heart of Dixie. **CAPITAL:** Montgomery. **ENTERED UNION:** 14 December 1819 (22nd). **SONG:** "Alabama." **MOTTO:** *Aldemus jura nostra defendere* (We dare defend our rights). **COAT OF ARMS:** Two eagles, symbolizing courage, support a shield bearing the emblems of the five governments (France, England, Spain, Confederacy, US) that have held sovereignty over Alabama. Above the shield is a sailing vessel modeled upon the ships of the first French settlers of Alabama; beneath the shield is the state motto. **FLAG:** Crimson cross of St. Andrew on a square white field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The map of Alabama, including names of major rivers and neighboring states, surrounded by the words "Alabama Great Seal." **BIRD:** Yellowhammer. **FISH:** Tarpon. **FLOWER:** Camellia. **TREE:** Southern (longleaf) pine. **GEM:** Star Blue Quartz. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Birthdays of Robert E. Lee and Martin Luther King, Jr., 3rd Monday in January; George Washington's/Thomas Jefferson's Birthdays, 3rd Monday in February; Mardi Gras, February or March; Confederate Memorial Day, 4th Monday in April; Jefferson Davis's Birthday, 1st Monday in June; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day/American Indian Heritage Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern south-central United States, Alabama ranks 29th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Alabama is 51,705 sq mi (133,915 sq km), of which land constitutes 50,767 sq mi (131,486 sq km) and inland water, 938 sq mi (2,429 sq km). Alabama extends roughly 200 mi (320 km) E–W; the maximum N–S extension is 300 mi (480 km). Alabama is bordered on the N by Tennessee; on the E by Georgia (with part of the line formed by the Chattahoochee River); on the S by Florida (with part of the line defined by the Perdido River) and the Gulf of Mexico; and on the W by Mississippi (with the northernmost part of the line passing through the Tennessee River).

Dauphin Island, in the Gulf of Mexico, is the largest offshore island. The total boundary length of Alabama is 1,044 mi (1,680 km). The state's geographic center is in Chilton County, 12 mi (19 km) SW of Clanton.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Alabama is divided into four major physiographic regions: the Gulf Coastal Plain, Piedmont Plateau, Ridge and Valley section, and Appalachian (or Cumberland) Plateau. The physical characteristics of each province have significantly affected settlement and industrial development patterns within the state.

The coastal plain, comprising the southern half of Alabama, consists primarily of lowlands and low ridges. Included within the coastal plain is the Black Belt—historically, the center of cotton production and plantation slavery in Alabama—an area of rich, chalky soil that stretches across the entire width of central Alabama. Just to the north, the piedmont of east-central Alabama contains rolling hills and valleys. Alabama's highest elevation, Cheaha Mountain, 2,405 ft (733 m) above sea level, is located at

the northern edge of this region. North and west of the piedmont is a series of parallel ridges and valleys running in a northeast-southwest direction. Mountain ranges in this area include the Red, Shades, Oak, Lookout, and other noteworthy southern extensions of the Appalachian chain; elevations of 1,200 ft (366 m) are found as far south as Birmingham. The Appalachian Plateau covers most of northwestern Alabama, with a portion of the Highland Rim in the extreme north near the Tennessee border. The floodplain of the Tennessee River cuts a wide swath across both these northern regions. The lowest point in the state is at sea level at the Gulf of Mexico. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 500 ft (153 m).

The largest lake wholly within Alabama is Guntersville Lake, covering about 108 sq mi (280 sq km) and formed during the development of the Tennessee River region by the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA). The TVA lakes—also including Wheeler, Pickwick, and Wilson—are all long and narrow, fanning outward along a line that runs from the northeast corner of the state westward to Florence. Wetlands cover about 10% of the state.

The longest rivers are the Alabama, extending from the mid-central region to the Mobile River for a distance of about 160 mi (260 km); the Tennessee, which flows across northern Alabama for about the same distance; and the Tombigbee, which flows south from north-central Alabama for some 150 mi (240 km). The Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, which come together to form the Mobile River, and the Tensaw River flow into Mobile Bay, an arm of the Gulf of Mexico. The Mobile River, which has its source in Tickanetley Creek, Georgia, has a total length of 774 mi (1,246 km) and is the twentieth longest river in the country.

About 450 million years ago, Alabama was covered by a warm, shallow sea. Over millions of years, heavy rains washed gravel, sand, and clay from higher elevations onto the rock floor of the sea

to help form the foundation of modern Alabama. The skeletons and shells of sea animals, composed of limy material from rocks that had been worn away by water, settled into great thicknesses of limestone and dolomite. Numerous caves and sinkholes formed as water slowly eroded the limestone subsurface of northern Alabama. Archaeologists believe that Russell Cave, in northeastern Alabama, was the earliest site of human habitation in the southeastern US. Other major caves in northern Alabama are Manitou and Sequoyah; near Childersburg is DeSoto Caverns, a huge onyx cave once considered a sacred place by Creek Indians.

Wheeler Dam on the Tennessee River is now a national historic monument. Other major dams include Guntersville, Martin, Millers Ferry, Jordan, Mitchell, and Holt.

3 CLIMATE

Alabama's three climatic divisions are the lower coastal plain, largely subtropical and strongly influenced by the Gulf of Mexico; the northern plateau, marked by occasional snowfall in winter; and the Black Belt and upper coastal plain, lying between the two extremes. Among the major population centers, Birmingham has an annual average temperature of 63°F (17°C), with an average July daily maximum of 90°F (32°C) and a normal January daily minimum of 33°F (1°C). Montgomery has an annual average of 65°F (18°C), with a normal July daily average maximum of 92°F (33°C) and a normal January daily minimum of 37°F (2°C). The average in Mobile is 67°F (19°C), with a normal July daily maximum of 91°F (33°C) and a normal January daily minimum of 41°F (5°C). The record low temperature for the state is -27°F (-33°C), registered at New Market, in the northeastern corner, on 30 January 1966; the all-time high is 112°F (44°C), registered at Centerville, in the state's midsection, on 5 September 1925. Mobile, one of the rainiest cities in the United States, recorded an average precipitation of 66.3 in (168 cm) a year between 1971 and 2000.

Its location on the Gulf of Mexico leaves the coastal region open to the effects of hurricanes. In August 2005, Hurricane Katrina swept through the region, causing two deaths in Mobile, extensive flooding, and power outages for over 300,000 people.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Alabama was once covered by vast forests of pine, which still form the largest proportion of the state's forest growth. Alabama also has an abundance of poplar, cypress, hickory, oak, and various gum trees. Red cedar grows throughout the state; southern white cedar is found in the southwest, hemlock in the north. Other native trees include hackberry, ash, and holly, with species of palmetto and palm in the Gulf Coast region. There are more than 150 shrubs, mountain laurel and rhododendron among them. Cultivated plants include wisteria and camellia, the state flower.

In a state where large herds of bison, elk, bear, and deer once roamed, only the white-tailed deer remains abundant. Other mammals still found are the Florida panther, bobcat, beaver, muskrat, and most species of weasel. The fairly common raccoon, opossum, rabbit, squirrel, and red and gray foxes are also native, while nutria and armadillo have been introduced to the state. Alabama's birds include golden and bald eagles, osprey and various other hawks, yellowhammers or flickers (the state bird), and black and white warblers; game birds include quail, duck, wild turkey, and geese. Freshwater fish such as bream, shad, bass, and sucker

are common. Along the Gulf Coast there are seasonal runs of tarpon (the state fish), pompano, redfish, and bonito.

In April 2006, a total of 96 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 79 animals, the Alabama beach mouse, gray bat, Alabama red-belly turtle, finback and humpback whales, bald eagle, and wood stork among them, and 17 plant species.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Under the 1982 Alabama Environmental Management Act, the Alabama Environmental Management Commission was created and the Alabama Department of Environmental Management (ADEM) was established. The ADEM absorbed several commissions, programs, and agencies that had been responsible for Alabama's environment.

The Environmental Management Commission, whose seven members are appointed to six-year terms by the governor and approved by the Alabama Senate, is charged with managing the state's land, air, and water resources. The ADEM administers all major federal environmental requirements including the Clean Air Act, Safe Drinking Water Act, and solid and hazardous waste laws. The most active environmental groups in the state are the Alabama Environmental Council, Sierra Club, League of Women Voters, Alabama Audubon Council, and Alabama Rivers Alliance.

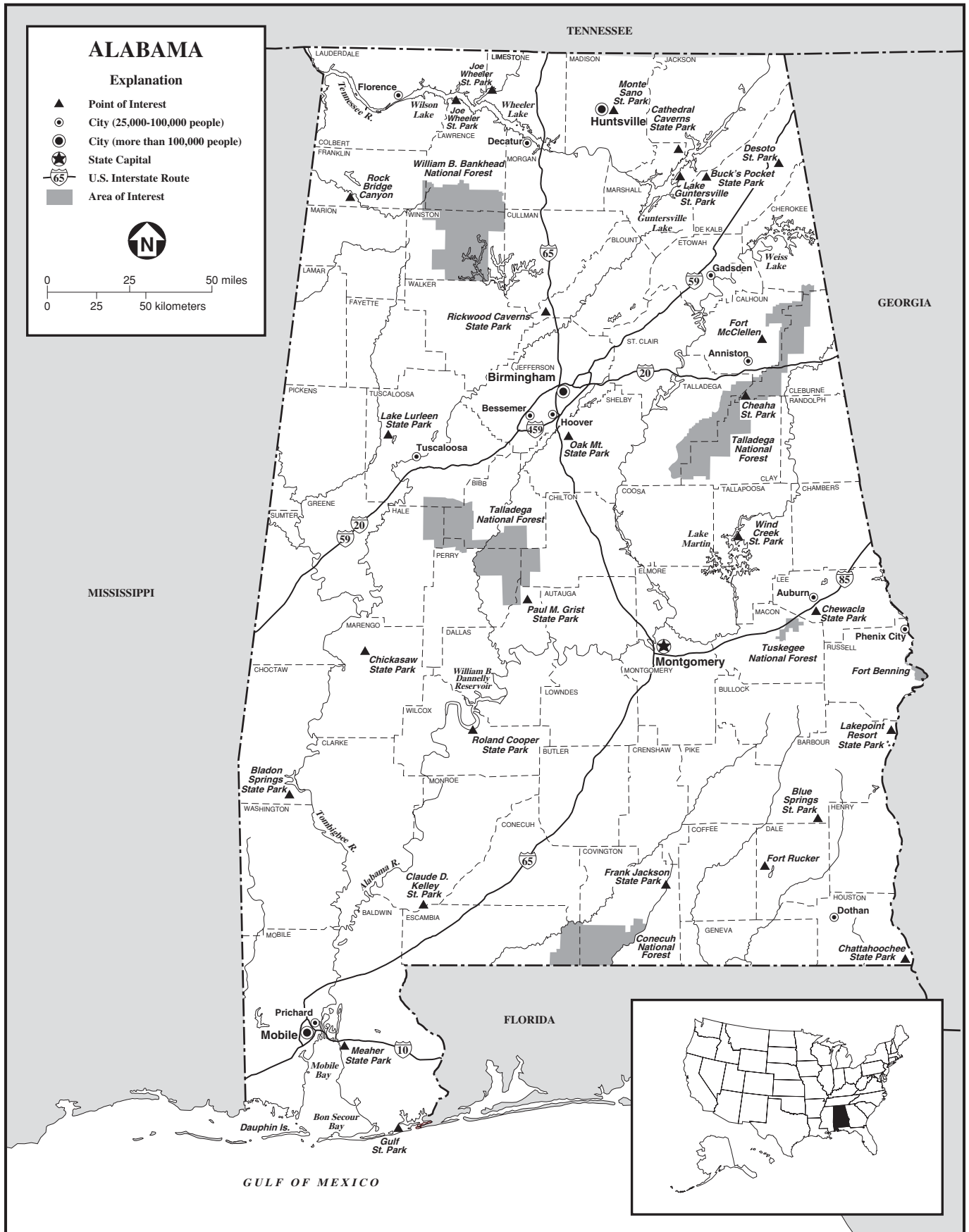
Major concerns of environmentalists in the state are the improvement of land-use planning and the protection of groundwater. Another issue is the transportation, storage, and disposal of hazardous wastes. In 2003, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 258 hazardous waste sites. As of 2006, 13 of these sites were on the National Priorities List; Alabama Plating Co. and Capitol City Plume were proposed sites. One of the nation's five largest commercial hazardous waste sites is in Emelle, in Sumter County. In 2005, the EPA allotted over \$2.6 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Alabama's solid waste stream is about 4.500 million tons a year (1.10 tons per capita). There are 108 municipal landfills and 8 curbside recycling programs in the state. Air quality is generally satisfactory. But in 2003, 118.4 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included over \$20 million for clean water projects.

6 POPULATION

Alabama ranked 23rd in population among the 50 states in 2005 with an estimated total of 4,557,808, an increase of 2.5% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Alabama's population grew from 4,040,587 to 4,447,100, an increase of 10.1%. The population is projected to reach 4,663,111 by 2015 and 4,800,092 by 2025.

In 2004 the median age was 37. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 24.2% of the population, while 13.2% was age 65 or older.

Alabama experienced its greatest population growth between 1810 and 1820, following the defeat of the Creek Nation by General Andrew Jackson and his troops. Population in what is now Alabama boomed from 9,046 in 1810 to 127,901 in 1820, as migrants from older states on the eastern seaboard poured into the territory formerly occupied by the Creek Indians. Thousands of



farmers, hoping to find fertile land or to become wealthy cotton planters, brought their families and often their slaves into the young state, more than doubling Alabama's population between 1820 and 1830. By 1860, Alabama had almost 1,000,000 residents, nearly one-half of whom were black slaves. The Civil War brought Alabama's population growth almost to a standstill, largely because of heavy losses on the battlefield. The total population gain between 1860 and 1870 was only about 30,000, whereas between 1870 and 1970, Alabama's population rose by 150,000–300,000 every decade. During the 1980s the population increased 148,000.

In 2004, Alabama had a population density of 89.3 persons per sq mi. First in size among Alabama's metropolitan areas comes greater Birmingham, which had an estimated 1,082,193 residents in July 2004. Other major metropolitan areas were Greater Mobile, 400,526; Greater Montgomery, 355,181; and Greater Huntsville, 362,459. The city of Birmingham proper was Alabama's largest city, with an estimated 233,149 residents in 2004; Montgomery had 200,983, and Mobile had 192,759.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Alabama's population is largely divided between whites of English and Scotch-Irish descent and blacks descended from African slaves. The 2000 census counted about 22,430 American Indians (up from 17,000 in 1990), or 0.5% of the total population, mostly of Creek or Cherokee descent. Creek Indians are centered around the small community of Poarch in southern Alabama; most of the Cherokee live in the northeastern part of the state, where the Cherokee reservation had 12,294 residents as of 2000. In 2004, 0.5% of Alabama's population was American Indian.

The black population of Alabama in 2000 numbered 1,155,930, or about 26% of the total population. In 2004, the black population of Alabama amounted to 26.4% of the total population. As before the Civil War, rural blacks are most heavily represented in the Black Belt of central Alabama.

In 2000, the Asian population totaled 31,346, or less than 1% of the total, and Pacific Islanders numbered 1,409; in the same year, the population of Hispanic or Latino descent totaled 75,830, up from 43,000 in 1990, an increase from 1% to 1.7% of the total population within the decade. In 2000, Alabama had 6,900 Asian Indians (up from 3,686 in 1990), 4,116 Koreans, and 6,337 Chinese (up from 3,529 in 1990). All told, the foreign born numbered 87,772 (2% of the state's population) in 2000, up from 1% 10 years earlier. Among persons reporting a single ancestry group, the leaders were Irish, 343,254 (down from 617,065 in 1990), and English, 344,735 (down from 479,499 in 1990). In 2004, 0.8% of the population of Alabama was Asian, 2.2% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin, and 0.9% of the population reported origins of two or more races.

Alabama's Cajuns, of uncertain racial origin (Anglo-Saxon, French, Spanish, Choctaw, Apache, and African elements may all be represented), are ethnically unrelated to the Cajuns of Louisiana. Thought to number around 10,000, they live primarily in the pine woods area of upper Mobile and lower Washington counties. Many Alabama Cajuns suffer from poverty, poor health, and malnutrition.

8 LANGUAGES

Four Indian tribes—the Creek, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Cherokee—occupied the four quarters of Alabama as white settlement began, but by treaty agreement they were moved westward between 1814 and 1835, leaving behind such place-names as Alabama, Talladega, Mobile, and Tuscaloosa.

Alabama English is predominantly Southern, with a transition zone between it and a smaller area into which South Midland speech was taken across the border from Tennessee. Some features common to both dialects occur throughout the state, such as *croker sack* (burlap bag), *batter cakes* (made of cornmeal), harp (harmonica), and *snap beans*. In the major Southern speech region are found the decreasing loss of final /r/, the /boyd/ pronunciation of *bird*, *soft peach* (freestone), *press peach* (clingstone), *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), *fire dogs* (andirons), and *gopher* (burrowing turtle). In the northern third of the state are found South Midland *arm* and *barb* rhyming with *form* and *orb*, *redworm* (earthworm), *peckerwood* (woodpecker), *snake doctor* and *snake feeder* (dragonfly), *tow sack* (burlap bag), *plum peach* (clingstone), *French harp* (harmonica), and *dog irons* (andirons).

Alabama has experienced only minor foreign immigration, and in 2000, 96.1% of all residents five years old or older spoke only English at home, a slight decrease over the 97.1% recorded in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	4,152,278	100.0
Speak only English	3,989,795	96.1
Speak a language other than English	162,483	3.9
Speak a language other than English	162,483	3.9
Spanish or Spanish Creole	89,729	2.2
German	14,905	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	13,656	0.3
Chinese	5,271	0.1
Vietnamese	4,561	0.1
Korean	4,029	0.1
Arabic	2,620	0.1
African languages	2,306	0.1
Japanese	2,201	0.1
Italian	2,158	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Although predominantly Baptist today, Alabama was officially Roman Catholic throughout most of the 18th century, under French and Spanish rule. A century passed between the building of the first Catholic Church in 1702 and the earliest sustained efforts by Protestant evangelists. The first Baptist church in the state, the Flint River Church in Madison County, was organized in 1808; the following year, the Old Zion Methodist Church was founded in the Tombigbee area.

During the second decade of the 19th century, settlers from the southeastern states brought the influence of the Great Revival to Alabama, along with the various Methodist, Presbyterian, and Baptist sects that had developed in its wake. The first black church in Alabama probably dates from 1820. As in other southern states, black slaves who had previously attended the churches of their masters formed their own churches after the Civil War. One of

the earliest of these, the Little Zion Methodist Church, was established in 1867 in Mobile. Most freed blacks became Baptists, however.

The vast majority of congregations in the state belong in the category of Evangelical Protestants. As of 2000, the Southern Baptist Convention was the fastest growing and the largest denomination within the state, with 1,380,121 adherents and 3,148 congregations, representing an increase of 83 congregations since 1990. In 2002, an additional 24,454 members joined the Southern Baptist Convention. In 2003, the United Methodist Church claimed 306,289 adherents with 1,505 congregations in all state conferences (which include some congregations in West Florida). In 2004, there were 140,365 Roman Catholics in the state. The Church of Christ had 119,049 adherents in 2000 and 895 congregations. The same year there were an estimated 9,100 Jews. About 45.2% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

The national headquarters of the Women's Missionary Union of the Southern Baptist Conference is located in Birmingham. The organization was founded in 1888 and is one of the largest Protestant women's mission organizations in the world, with about 1 million members.

10 TRANSPORTATION

The first rail line in the state—the Tuscumbia Railroad, chartered in 1830—made its first run, 44 mi (71 km) around the Muscle Shoals from Tuscumbia to Decatur, on 15 December 1834. By 1852, however, Alabama had only 165 mi (266 km) of track, less than most other southern states. Further development awaited the end of the Civil War. Birmingham, as planned by John T. Milner, chief engineer of the South and North Railroad, was founded in 1871 as a railroad intersection in the midst of Alabama's booming mining country; it subsequently became the state's main rail center, followed by Mobile. As of 2003, Alabama had 3,735 total rail mi (6,013 km) of track, of which the state's five Class I railroads accounted for 2,900 rail mi (4,690 km). In that same year, coal accounted for the largest portion of all commodities (by weight) shipped by rail. As of 2006, Amtrak passenger service connected Birmingham, Anniston, and Tuscaloosa with Washington and New Orleans. Other passenger service included a route connecting Mobile with Jacksonville, Florida and New Orleans.

In settlement days the principal roads into Alabama were the Federal Road, formerly a Creek horse path, from Georgia and South Carolina; and the Natchez Trace, bought by the federal government (1801) from the Choctaw and Chickasaw, leading from Kentucky and Tennessee. Throughout most of the 19th century, road building was in the hands of private companies. Only after the establishment of a state highway department in 1911 and the securing of federal aid for rural road building in 1916 did Alabama begin to develop modern road systems.

As of 2004 there were 95,483 mi (151,778 km) of public streets, roads, and highways. In the same year, the state had 1.677 million registered automobiles, 2.778 million trucks of all types, and some 3,000 buses. There were 3.613 million licensed drivers in 2004. Most of the major interstate highways in Alabama intersect at Birmingham: I-65, running from the north to Montgomery and Mobile; and I-59 from the northeast and I-20 from the east, which, after merging at Birmingham, run southwestward to Tuscaloosa and into Mississippi. Route I-85 connects Montgomery with At-

lanta; and I-10 connects Mobile with New Orleans and Tallahassee, FL.

The coming of the steamboat to Alabama waters, beginning in 1818, stimulated settlement in the Black Belt; however, the high price of shipping cotton by water contributed to the eventual displacement of the steamboat by the railroad. Thanks to the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Tennessee River has been transformed since the 1930s into a year-round navigable waterway, with three locks and dams in Alabama. The 234-mi (377-km), \$2-billion Tennessee-Tombigbee project, which opened in 1985, provided a new barge route, partly through Alabama, from the Midwest to the Gulf of Mexico, for which the US Army Corps of Engineers cut a 39-mi (63-km) canal and built 10 locks and dams. This was not only the largest civilian engineering project in the United States during the early 1980s but also by far the largest earth-moving project in US history, displacing more earth than was moved to build the Panama Canal.

The Alabama-Coosa and Black Warrior-Tombigbee systems also have been made navigable by locks and dams. River barges are used to carry bulk cargoes. There are 1,270 mi (2,043 km) of navigable inland waterways and 50 mi (80 km) of Gulf coast. The only deepwater port is Mobile, with a large oceangoing trade. As of 2004, Mobile was the 11th-busiest port in the United States, handling a total of 56.211 million tons. Total waterborne tonnage for the state in 2003 was 72.65 million tons. The Alabama State Docks also operates a system of 10 inland docks; and there are several privately run inland docks.

In 2005, Alabama had a total of 277 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 182 airports, 90 heliports, one STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing), and four seaplane bases. The state's largest and busiest airport is Birmingham International Airport. In 2004, the airport had 1,498,651 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

The region now known as Alabama has been inhabited for some 9,000–10,000 years. The earliest evidence of human habitation, charcoal from an ancient campfire at Russell Cave in northeastern Alabama, is about 9,000 years old. These early peoples, probably descended from humans who crossed from Asia to North America via the Bering Strait, moved from caves and open campsites to permanent villages about AD 1000. Some of their descendants, popularly called Mound Builders, erected huge earthen temple mounds and simple huts along Alabama's rivers, beginning around 1100. Moundville (near Tuscaloosa), one of the most important Mound Builder sites in the southeastern US, includes 20 "platform mounds" for Indian buildings, dating from 1200 to 1500. When the first Europeans arrived, Alabama was inhabited by Indians, half of them either Creek or members of smaller groups living within the Creek confederacy. The Creeks resided in central and eastern Alabama; Cherokee Indians inhabited northeastern Alabama, the Chickasaws lived in the northwest, and the Choctaws settled in the southwest.

During the 16th century, five Spanish expeditions entered Mobile Bay or explored the region now called Alabama. The most extensive was that of Hernando de Soto, whose army marched from the Tennessee Valley to the Mobile Delta in 1540. In 1702, two French naval officers—Pierre Le Moyne, Sieur d'Iberville; and Jean Baptiste Le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville—established Ft. Louis

de la Mobile, the first permanent European settlement in present-day Alabama. Mobile remained in French hands until 1763, when it was turned over to the British under the terms of the Treaty of Paris. Because a British garrison held Mobile during the American Revolution, that city was captured in 1780 by the forces of Spain, an ally of the rebellious American colonists. In 1803, the United States claimed the city as part of the Louisiana Purchase, but in vain. Spanish control of Mobile lasted until the city was again seized during the War of 1812, this time by American troops in 1813. West Florida, including Mobile, was the only territory added to the United States as a result of that war.

At the start of the 19th century, Indians still held most of present-day Alabama. War broke out in 1813 between American settlers and a Creek faction known as the Red Sticks, who were determined to resist white encroachment. After General Andrew Jackson and his Tennessee militia crushed the Red Sticks in 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in central Alabama, he forced the Creek to sign a treaty ceding some 40,000 sq mi (103,600 sq km) of land to the United States, thereby opening about three-fourths of the present state to white settlement. By 1839, nearly all Alabama Indians had been removed to Indian Territory.

From 1814 onward, pioneers, caught up by what was called “Alabama fever,” poured out of the Carolinas, Virginia, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky into what Andrew Jackson called “the best unsettled country in America.” Wealthy migrants came in covered wagons, bringing their slaves, cattle, and hogs. But the great majority of pioneers were ambitious farmers who moved to the newly opened area in hopes of acquiring fertile land on which to grow cotton. Cotton’s profitability had increased enormously with the invention of the cotton gin. In 1817, Alabama became a territory; on 2 August 1819, a state constitution was adopted; and on the following 14 December, Alabama was admitted to statehood. Alabama, then as now, was sparsely populated. In 1819, its residents comprised 1.3% of the US population. That percentage had grown to only 2% in 1980, but by 2004, the percentage had increased to 6.5%.

During the antebellum era, 95% of white Alabamians lived and worked in rural areas, primarily as farmers. Although “Cotton was king” in 19th-century Alabama, farmers also grew corn, sorghum, oats, and vegetables, as well as razorback hogs and cattle. By 1860, 80% of Alabama farmers owned the land they tilled. Only about 33% of all white Alabamians were slave owners. Whereas in 1820 there were 85,451 free whites and 41,879 slaves, by 1860 the number of slaves had increased to 435,080, constituting 45% of the state population. Large planters (owners of 50 slaves or more) made up less than 1% of Alabama’s white population in 1860. However, they owned 28% of the state’s total wealth and occupied 25% of the seats in the legislature. Although the preponderance of the wealth and the population in Alabama was located in the north, the success of Black Belt plantation owners at forging coalitions with industrialists enabled planters to dominate state politics both before and after the Civil War. The planters led the secessionist movement, and most other farmers, fearing the consequences of an end to slavery, eventually followed suit. However, 2,500 white Alabamians served in the Union Army and an estimated 8,000–10,000 others acted as Union scouts, deserted Confederate units, or hid from conscription agents.

Alabama seceded from the Union in January 1861 and shortly thereafter joined the Confederate States of America. The Confederacy was organized in Alabama’s Senate chamber in Montgomery, and Jefferson Davis was inaugurated president on the steps of the capitol. Montgomery served as capital of the Confederacy until May, when the seat of government was moved to Richmond, VA.

Remote from major theaters of war, Alabama experienced only occasional Union raids during the first three years of the conflict. In the summer of 1864, however, Confederate and Union ships fought a major naval engagement in Mobile Bay, which ended in surrender by the outnumbered southern forces. During the Confederacy’s dying days in the spring of 1865, federal troops swept through Tuscaloosa, Selma, and Montgomery. Their major goal, Selma, one of the Confederacy’s main industrial centers, was left almost as heavily devastated as Richmond or Atlanta. Estimates of the number of Alabamians killed in the Civil War range from 25,000 upward.

During Reconstruction, Alabama was under military rule until it was readmitted to the Union in 1868. For the next six years, Republicans held most top political positions in the state. With the help of the Ku Klux Klan, Democrats regained political control of the state in November 1874.

Cotton remained the foundation of the Alabama economy in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. However, with the abolition of slavery it was now raised by sharecroppers—white and black landless farmers who paid for the land they rented from planters with the cotton they harvested. Alabama also attempted to create a “New South” in which agriculture would be balanced by industry. In the 1880s and 1890s, at least 20 Alabama towns were touted as ironworking centers. Birmingham, founded in 1871, became the New South’s leading industrial center. Its promoters invested in pig iron furnaces, coal mines, steel plants, and real estate. Small companies merged with bigger ones, which were taken over, in turn, by giant corporations. In 1907, Birmingham’s Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Co. was purchased by the nation’s largest steelmaker, US Steel.

Another major Alabama enterprise was cotton milling. By 1900, 9,000 men, women, and children were employed in Alabama mills; most of these white workers were farm folk who had lost their land after the Civil War because of mounting debts and low cotton prices. Wages in mills were so low that entire families had to work hours as long as those they had endured as farmers.

The rise in the rate of farm tenancy produced a corresponding increase in social and political unrest. Discontented farmers and factory workers allied during the 1890s in the Populist Party in an attempt to overthrow the Bourbon Democrats, who had dominated Alabama politics for two decades. Although a number of Populists were elected to the Alabama legislature, no Populist candidate succeeded in winning the governorship, primarily because Democrats manipulated the black vote to their own advantage. In 1901, Alabama adopted a new state constitution containing numerous restrictions on voting, supposedly to end vote manipulation and restore honest elections. The tangible result of these new rules was to disenfranchise almost all Alabama black voters and thousands of poor whites. For example, the total number of blacks registered in 14 counties fell from 78,311 in 1900 to 1,081 in 1903. As recently as 1941, fewer than 25% of Alabama adults were registered

voters. In 1960, no blacks voted in Lowndes or Wilcox counties, which were 80% and 78% black, respectively.

As one of the poorest states in the country, Alabama benefited disproportionately from the New Deal. Yet, like other southern states, Alabama viewed the expansion of the national government's role with mixed feelings. Alabamians embraced federal aid, even lobbying for military bases, while seeing federal power as a threat to the "southern way of life," which included racial segregation.

During the 1950s and 1960s, national attention focused on civil rights demonstrations in Alabama, including the Montgomery bus boycott of 1955, the Birmingham and University of Alabama demonstrations of 1963, and the voting rights march from Selma to Montgomery in 1965. The primary antagonists were Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., head of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, and Governor George C. Wallace, an opponent of integration. These black protests and the sometimes violent reactions to them, such as the 1963 bombing of a church in Birmingham in which four young black girls—Denise McNair, Cynthia Wesley, Carole Rosamond Robertson, and Addie Mae Collins—were killed, helped influence the US Congress to pass the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Four former Ku Klux Klansmen were suspects in the church bombing: Robert E. Chambliss, Bobby Frank Cherry, Herman Frank Cash, and Thomas E. Blanton Jr. In 1977, Robert Chambliss was convicted of the murders and was sentenced to a life term. He died in prison in 1985. Suspect Herman Cash died in 1994, without having been charged of the crime. Blanton and Cherry were indicted on four counts each of first-degree and reckless murder in 2000. Cherry was subsequently ruled mentally incompetent to stand trial, but Blanton was convicted of four counts of first-degree murder in 2001, and sentenced to four life terms. Cherry was later deemed competent to stand trial, and in 2002, he was convicted and sentenced to an automatic life term in prison. Cherry died in 2004.

Once the most tightly segregated city in the nation, Birmingham has become thoroughly integrated in public facilities, and in 1979 the city elected its first black mayor, Richard Arrington. The civil rights era brought other momentous changes to Alabama. Hundreds of thousands of black voters are now an important force in state politics. Blacks attend school, colleges, and universities of their choice and enjoy equal access to all public facilities. On the whole, new racial attitudes among most whites have contributed to a vast improvement in the climate of race relations since 1960. Indeed, a significant amount of black support contributed to Wallace's election to a fourth term as governor in 1982. When he died in September 1998 he was given a full state funeral and his family received condolences from black leaders. In 1984 there were 314 black elected officials, including 25 mayors, 19 lawmakers in the Alabama state legislature, and an associate justice of the state supreme court. In 1990, 704 blacks held elective office, and by 2001, the number had increased to 756.

In many respects Alabama has resisted change more successfully than any other state in the Deep South. The state's tax system remains the most regressive in the country. In 1982, the state legislature passed a law prohibiting taxation at market value of land owned by timber companies (timber comprises the state's largest industry). Alabama does not use property taxes to fund schools; instead, public education revenue is derived principally from state income tax (54.6% in 2004) and sales tax (31.9% in 2004). In the

late 1990s, the state worked to increase teachers' salaries and bring other measures in line with national education statistics. Alabama has had one of the highest infant mortality rates in the nation, owing in part to widespread poverty. (Alabama and West Virginia were tied for 43rd out of the 50 states in terms of general health and health care in 2004.) Though Alabama's poverty rate steadily declined during the last decades of the 1900s, it remained among the nation's poorer states. In 1969, 25.4% of Alabamians lived below federal poverty levels. By 1989 the figure dropped to 18.3%, and in 1998, it decreased to an estimated 15%, which was still the 13th-highest rate in the nation. By the end of the millennium, 16% of Alabamians lived in poverty, compared to 12.4% of the US population. Alabama is the only state to tax residents earning less than \$5,000 a year. The poorest families in the state pay about 11% of their earnings in income, sales, and other local taxes.

A strange turn of events in 1986 resulted in the election of the first Republican governor since Reconstruction. The Democratic candidate, state attorney general Charles Graddick, was stripped of his party's nomination by a federal panel because of crossover Republican voting in the Democratic primary. His replacement, Lieutenant Governor Bill Baxley, lost the election to a little-known pro-business Republican and former Baptist preacher, Guy Hunt. Hunt was reelected in 1990 but was confronted early in his second term with accusations of financial misdeeds, including personal use of official resources and mismanagement of public funds. In 1992, Hunt was indicted on 13 separate felony counts. The following year, he was found guilty of fraud and conspiracy charges and forced to resign the governorship, becoming the fourth governor in the nation's history to be convicted of criminal charges while in office.

In 1999, Alabama received the second largest surplus in the history of the state; the \$57 million budget surplus was credited to tight controls over agency spending. In 2003, the state had a \$675 million budget deficit, and Governor Bob Riley proposed a \$1.2 billion tax increase, raising individual and corporate taxes by \$461 million and local and state property taxes by \$465 million. In a September 2003 referendum, Alabama voters rejected Riley's tax increase; only 33% of voters cast their ballots in favor of the plan.

Alabama was severely affected by Hurricane Katrina in August 2005. An original six Alabama counties (Baldwin, Mobile, Washington, Clarke, Choctaw, and Sumter) were declared by President George W. Bush to be federal disaster areas. Later, President Bush approved Governor Riley's request to add more Alabama counties to the federal disaster relief list: residents of Greene, Hale, Pickens, and Tuscaloosa were deemed eligible for individual assistance, and Hale, Jefferson, Marengo, and Tuscaloosa counties were deemed eligible for infrastructure assistance due to storm damage.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Alabama has had six constitutions, the most recent one dating from 1901. By January 2005 that document had been amended 766 times. In 2002, amid calls for a constitutional convention, voters approved a constitutional amendment providing that no constitution could be adopted without voter approval.

Alabama's bicameral legislature consists of a 35-seat Senate and a 105-seat House of Representatives, all of whose members are elected at the same time for four-year terms. Legislative sessions are held each year, convening on the second Tuesday in January in

general election years, on the first Tuesday in March in years following general election years, and on the first Tuesday in February all other years. (There is a legal provision for an organizational session prior to the stated convening date—on the second Tuesday in January for ten calendar days in the year following a general election.) Session length is limited to 30 legislative days in 105 calendar days. Only the governor may call special sessions, which are limited to 12 legislative days in 30 calendar days. Senators must be at least 25 years old; representatives, 21. Legislators must have resided in the state for at least three years before election and in the district for at least one year. Under federal pressure, in 1983 the legislature approved a reapportionment plan, effective in 1986, that was expected to increase black representation. In 2004, Alabama's legislators received a per diem salary of \$10 during regular sessions; each member was also paid \$50 per diem for the performance of his or her duties as a member of any authorized interim legislative committee or subcommittee, and \$75 for attendance for any other legislative business. Legislators in 2004 received living expenses in the amount of \$2,280 per month plus \$50 per day for the three days per week that the legislature actually meets. Legislators' terms of office begin on the day after election and expire on the day after election four years later.

State elected officials are the governor and lieutenant governor (separately elected), secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, auditor, and commissioner of agriculture and industries. The governor, who serves for four years, must be at least thirty years old and must have been a US citizen for ten years and a citizen of the state for seven. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive terms. As of December 2004, Alabama's governor earned a salary of \$96,361, and was entitled to reimbursement of travel expenses.

A bill becomes a law when it is passed by at least a majority of a quorum of both houses and is either signed by the governor, left unsigned for six days (Sundays excluded) while the legislature is in session, or passed over the governor's veto by a majority of the elected members of each house. A bill must pass both houses in the same form. The governor may pocket veto a measure submitted fewer than five days before adjournment by not signing it within 10 days after adjournment. The governor may amend one or more provisions of any bill, but the legislature may override them by a majority vote. The governor does not have the line-item veto.

The submission of a constitutional amendment to the electorate requires the approval of three-fifths of the membership of each house, but such amendments can also be adopted by constitutional convention. Amendments are ratified by a majority vote of the electorate.

Voters in Alabama must be US citizens, state and county citizens, and at least 18 years old. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The major political parties in Alabama are the Democratic and Republican parties, each affiliated with the national party organization. The Republicans are weak below the federal-office level.

Pre-Civil War political divisions in the state reflected those found elsewhere in the South. Small and subsistence farmers, especially in the northern hill country and pine forest areas, tended to be Jacksonian Democrats, while the planters of the Black Belt and the river valleys often voted Whig. After a period of Radical Republican rule during Reconstruction, the Bourbon Democrats, whose party then served largely the interests of wealthy proper-

Alabama Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	ALABAMA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROHIBITION	PROGRESSIVE
1948	11	Thurmond (SRD)	—	40,930	171,443	1,026	1,522
1952	11	Stevenson (D)	275,075	149,231	—	1,814	—
					UNPLEDGED		
1956	11	Stevenson (D)	279,542	195,694	20,323	—	—
					NAT'L STATES' RIGHTS		
1960	11	*Kennedy (D)	318,303	236,110	4,367	—	—
					UNPLEDGED DEMOCRAT		
1964	10	Goldwater (R)	—	479,085	210,782	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.	AM. IND. DEMOCRAT	
1968	10	Wallace (AI)	195,918	146,591	687,664	3,814	10,518
					AMERICAN		
1972	9	*Nixon (R)	256,923	728,701	11,928	8,559	—
					AMERICAN IND.		COMMUNIST
1976	9	*Carter (D)	659,170	504,070	9,198	6,669	1,954
1980	9	*Reagan (R)	636,730	654,192	—	—	—
					LIBERTARIAN		
1984	9	*Reagan (R)	551,899	872,849	9,504	—	—
1988	9	*Bush (R)	549,506	815,576	8,460	3,311	—
							IND. (Perot)
1992	9	Bush (R)	690,080	804,283	5,737	2,161	183,109
1996	9	Dole (R)	662,165	769,044	5,290	—	92,149
						IND. (Buchanan)	IND. (Nader)
2000	9	*Bush, G. W. (R)	692,611	941,173	5,893	6,351	18,323
					IND. (Badnarik)	IND. (Peroutka)	
2004	9	*Bush, G. W. (R)	693,933	1,176,394	3,529	1,994	6,701

*Won US presidential election.

ty owners, business people, and white supremacists, ran the state for the rest of the century, despite a challenge in the 1890s by the Populist Party.

On two occasions, 1948 and 1964, the Alabama Democratic Party bolted the national Democratic ticket, each time because of disagreement over civil rights. Barry Goldwater in 1964 was the first Republican presidential candidate in the 20th century to carry Alabama. In 1968, George Wallace carried Alabama overwhelmingly on the American Independent Party slate.

In the 2004 presidential elections, incumbent president Republican George W. Bush carried the state, winning 62.5% of the vote to Democrat John Kerry's 36.8%. Bush increased his margin of victory in 2004; in 2000, Bush won 57% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 42%. In 2004 there were 2,597,000 registered voters; there is no party registration. The state had nine electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election. US Senator Richard Shelby was reelected as a Democrat in 1992, but switched his affiliation to Republican on 9 November 1994, the day after the Republicans swept into power in the Senate. He was reelected in 1998 and in 2004, when he won 67.5% of the vote. In 1996 Democratic Senator Howell Heflin retired, and his seat was won by Republican Jeff B. Sessions. Sessions was reelected in 2002. Alabama's delegation of US Representatives following the 2004 elections consisted of two Democrats and five Republicans.

During the 20th century, the Democratic Party commanded virtually every statewide office, major and minor. Democrat James Folsom was elected Lieutenant Governor in 1990 and became governor in April of 1993 when Governor Guy Hunt was convicted of illegally using money from his inauguration for personal expenses. Folsom lost his election bid for governor to Fob James Jr. in 1994. James had served as governor of the state from 1979 to 1983 as a Democrat, but he switched party affiliations for the 1994 election and upset Folsom in a narrow victory. In the 1998 election Democrat Don Siegelman was elected to the governor's office. In 2002, Republican Bob Riley was elected governor, after serving six years in the US House of Representatives. The Alabama legislature in 2005 consisted of 25 Democrats and 10 Republicans in the Senate and 63 Democrats and 42 Republicans in the House.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, Alabama had 67 counties, 451 municipalities, and 128 public school districts. There were 525 special districts, including the Northeast Mississippi–Northwest Alabama Railroad Authority, the Alabama Housing Finance Authority, and the Alabama Highway Authority. Counties are governed by county commissions, usually consisting of three to seven commissioners, elected by district. Other county officials include judges of probate, clerk, tax assessor and collector, sheriff, and superintendent of education. The oldest county in the state is Washington, established in 1800. The newest county, Houston, was established in 1903.

Mayor-council is the most common form of municipal government. But until the late 1970s, the predominant form of municipal government, especially in the larger cities, was the commission, whose members are elected either at-large or by district. Partly in response to court orders requiring district elections in order to permit the election of more black officials, after the 1970s there was a trend toward the mayor-council form, although the US Supreme Court ruled in May 1980 that Mobile may elect its public

officials at-large. Elections for municipal officers are held every four years.

An alteration in local government had a significant effect on the racial climate in Birmingham during the 1960s, when the Young Men's Business Club led a movement to change to the mayor-council system, in order to oust a commission (including Eugene "Bull" Connor as public safety commissioner) that for nearly a decade had reacted negatively to every black demand. After a narrow vote in favor of the change, a moderate was elected mayor in April 1963, but the former commissioners then contested the initial vote that had changed the system. At the height of Birmingham's racial troubles, both the former commissioners and the newly elected council claimed to govern Birmingham, but neither did so effectively. When peace came, it was as the result of an unofficial meeting held between local black leaders and 77 of the city's most influential whites, with federal officials serving as mediators. Although the council, like the commissioners, publicly opposed these negotiations, once they were over and the council's election confirmed, the new moderate leadership permitted peaceful racial accommodation to go forward. In addition to the mayor-council and commission forms of administration, some municipalities employ city managers.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 188,349 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Alabama operates under the authority of state statute. The state Director of Homeland Security is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

Alabama's Ethics Commission administers the state's ethics law, makes financial disclosure records available to the public, and receives monthly reports from lobbyists. Educational services are administered primarily by the Department of Education and the Alabama Commission on Higher Education. The Alabama Public Library Service supports and promotes the development of public libraries. The Department of Aeronautics, Department of Transportation, and Public Service Commission (PSC) administer transportation services; the PSC supervises, regulates, and controls all transportation companies doing business in the state. Driver's licenses are issued by the Department of Public Safety.

Health and welfare services are offered primarily through the Department of Public Health, Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation, Department of Veterans Affairs, Department of Youth Services, and Department of Senior Services. Planning for the state's future health-care needs is carried out by the Health Planning and Development Agency.

Public protection services are administered by the Military Department, Department of Corrections, and Department of Public Safety, among other agencies. Numerous government bodies offer resource protection services: the Department of Conservation and Natural Resources, Department of Environmental Management, Alabama Forestry Commission, Oil and Gas Board, Surface Mining Commission, and Soil and Water Conservation Committee.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Alabama Supreme Court is the highest court in the state, consisting of a chief justice and eight associate justices, all elected for staggered six-year terms. It issues opinions on constitutional issues and hears cases appealed from the lower courts. The court of civil appeals has exclusive appellate jurisdiction in all suits involving sums up to \$10,000. Its three judges are elected for six-year terms, and the one who has served the longest is the presiding judge. The five judges of the court of criminal appeals are also elected for six-year terms; they choose the presiding judge by majority vote.

Circuit courts, which encompassed 131 judgeships in 1999, have exclusive original jurisdiction over civil actions involving sums of more than \$5,000, and over criminal prosecutions involving felony offenses. They also have original jurisdiction, concurrent with the district courts, in all civil matters exceeding \$500. They have appellate jurisdiction over most cases from district and municipal courts. A system of district courts staffed by judges who serve six-year terms replaced county and juvenile courts as of January 1977. Municipal court judges are appointed by the municipality.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 25,887 prisoners were held in Alabama's state and federal prisons, a decrease (from 27,913) of 7.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,748 inmates were female, down 12.7% (from 2,003) the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Alabama had an incarceration rate of 556 per 100,000 population.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Alabama in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 426.6 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 19,324 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 182,340 reported incidents or 4,025 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Alabama has a death penalty, which can be carried out by lethal injection or electrocution, depending upon the prisoner's request. From 1976 through May 2006, the state executed 34 persons; there were four executions in 2005. There were no executions from January to April 2006. As of 1 January 2006, there were 190 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Alabama spent \$261,678,684 on homeland security, an average of \$57 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The US Department of Defense had 11,845 active military personnel in Alabama in 2004, and civilian personnel numbered 15,789. The major installation in terms of expenditures was the US Army's Redstone Arsenal at Huntsville. Redstone is the center of the Army's missile and rocket programs and contains the George C. Marshall Space Flight Center of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, which directs all private contractors for the space program. Among the spacecraft developed there were the Redstone rocket, which launched the first US astronaut; *Explorer I*, the first US earth-orbiting satellite; and the Saturn rocket, which boosted the Apollo missions to the moon. In 2004, Redstone had 8,753 civilian employees, the highest number in the state. Other installations include Ft. Rucker (near Enterprise); the Anniston Army Depot; Maxwell Air Force Base (Montgomery), site of the US Air University and Air War Colleges, and national headquar-

ters for the Civil Air Patrol; and Gunter Air Force Base (also in Montgomery). The most military personnel in the state, 5,801, were stationed at Ft. Rucker (Army) in 2004. Reserve and National Guard numbered 4,577. During 2004, Alabama firms received defense contract awards totaling over \$5.8 billion. That year the Defense Department payroll was about \$3.2 billion, including retired military pay.

There were 426,322 veterans of US military service in Alabama as of 2003, of whom 50,383 served in World War II; 47,411 in the Korean conflict; 124,673 during the Vietnam era; and 71,523 in the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$1.3 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Alabama Department of Public Safety employed 680 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

After 1814, Alabama was the mecca of a great migratory wave, mainly of whites of English and Scotch-Irish descent (some with their black slaves) from Virginia, Georgia, and the Carolinas. Since the Civil War, migration to Alabama has been slight. Many blacks left Alabama from World War I (1914–18) through the 1960s to seek employment in the East and Midwest, and the proportion of blacks in Alabama's population fell from 35% in 1940 to 26% in 1998, where it remained through mid-2002. Overall, Alabama may have lost as many as 944,000 residents through migration between 1940 and 1970, but enjoyed a net gain from migration of over 143,000 between 1970 and 1990, and an additional 114,000 in domestic and 13,000 in international migration between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 25,936 and net internal migration was 10,521, for a net gain of 36,457 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the interstate compacts and commissions in which Alabama participates are the Gulf States Marine Fisheries Commission, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern Regional Education Board, Historic Chattahoochee Compact, and the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway Development Authority. In 1997, the state began two new water resources projects: the Alabama-Coosa-Tallapoosa (ACT) River Basin Compact between Alabama and Georgia, and the Apalachicola-Chattahoochee-Flint (ACF) River Basin Compact among Alabama, Florida, and Georgia. The Office of State Planning and Federal Programs coordinates planning efforts by all levels of government. During fiscal year 2005, Alabama received federal grants amounting to \$5.22 billion. For fiscal year 2006, federal grants to Alabama were estimated at \$5.205 billion, and for fiscal year 2007, at \$5.383 billion.

20 ECONOMY

Cotton dominated Alabama's economy from the mid-1800s to the 1870s, when large-scale industrialization began. The coal, iron, and steel industries were the first to develop, followed by other resource industries such as textiles, clothing, paper, and wood products. Although Alabama's prosperity has increased, particularly in recent decades, the state still lags in wage rates and per capi-

ta income. One factor that has hindered the growth of the state's economy is declining investment in resource industries owned by large corporations outside the state. Between 1974 and 1983, manufacturing grew at little more than half the rate of all state goods and services. Industries such as primary metals and apparel, once mainstays of Alabama's economy, were clearly losing importance.

In 2004, Alabama's gross state product (GSP) was \$139.8 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for \$23.4 billion or 16.7% of GSP, followed by real estate, rental, and leasing at \$14.3 billion or 10.2% of GSP, and health care and social assistance at \$9.668 billion or 6.9% of GSP. As Alabama's traditional industries have declined, the role played by small business as an engine for economic growth has increased. As of 2004, of the 86,651 businesses that had employees, an estimated 84,277 or 97.3% were small businesses. However, new business creation did not offset business terminations that year. While an estimated 9,413 new employer businesses were created in 2004, up 4.4% from 2003, business terminations that same year totaled 10,104. There were 325 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 13.2% from the previous year. In 2005, Alabama had one of the nation's highest overall personal bankruptcy filings rates, at 939 (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) per 100,000 people, ranking the state at number two, behind Tennessee.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Alabama had a gross state product (GSP) of \$150 billion which accounted for 1.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 25 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Alabama had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$27,695. This ranked 41st in the United States and was 84% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.1%. Total personal income (TPI) was \$125,329,964,000, which ranked 24th in the United States and represented an increase of 5.7% from 2003, compared to a national change of 6.0%. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.7%. Earnings of persons employed in Alabama increased from \$87,574,951,000 in 2003 to \$93,039,492,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$38,111, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 15.5% of the population was living below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Alabama numbered 2,173,500, with approximately 78,500 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,975,700. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Alabama was 14.4% in December 1982. The historical low was 3.3% in March 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.6% of the labor force was employed in construction;

19.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.9% in financial activities; 10.9% in professional and business services; 10.3% in education and health services; 8.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 18.4% in government. Data for manufacturing was not available.

In 1871, James Thomas Rapier, a black Alabamian who would later serve a term as a US representative from the state, organized the first black labor union in the South, the short-lived Labor Union of Alabama. The Knights of Labor began organizing in the state in 1882. A serious obstacle to unionization and collective bargaining was the convict leasing system, which was not ended officially until 1923, and in practice, not until five years later. In 1888, the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Co. (later taken over by US Steel) was granted an exclusive 10-year contract to use the labor of all state convicts, paying the state \$9–18 per person per month.

Child labor was also exploited. Alabama had limited a child's working day to eight hours in 1887, but a Massachusetts company that was building a large mill in the state secured the repeal of that law in 1895. A weaker measure passed 12 years later limited a child's workweek to 60 hours and set the minimum working age at 12.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 195,000 of Alabama's 1,909,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 10.2% of those so employed, up from 9.7% in 2004, but below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 223,000 workers (11.7%) in Alabama were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Alabama is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law. Unions were especially strong in the northern industrial cities and in Mobile.

As of 1 March 2006, Alabama did not have a state-mandated minimum wage law, leaving employees in that state to be covered under federal minimum wage statutes. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Alabama ranked 25th among the 50 states in farm marketing in 2005 with \$3.89 billion, of which only \$716 million came from crops.

There was considerable diversity in Alabama's earliest agriculture. By the mid-19th century, however, cotton had taken over, and production of other crops dropped so much that corn and other staples, even work animals, were often imported. In 1860, cotton was grown in every county, and one-crop agriculture had already worn out much of Alabama's farmland.

Diversification began early in the 20th century, a trend accelerated by the destructive effects of the boll weevil on cotton growing. In 2004, only 595,000 acres (223,000 hectares) were planted in cotton, compared to 3,500,000 acres (1,400,000 hectares) in 1930. As of 2004 there were some 44,000 farms in Alabama, occupying approximately 8.7 million acres (3.5 million hectares), or roughly 30% of the state's land area. Soybeans and livestock are raised in the Black Belt; peanuts in the southeast; vegetables, livestock, and timber in the southwest; and cotton and soybeans in the Tennessee River Valley.

In 2004, Alabama ranked third in the United States in production of peanuts, with 557,200,000 lb (253,273,000 kg), worth about \$10,311,000. Other crops included soybeans, 6,650,000 bushels, \$36,243,000; corn for fresh market, 23.9 million bushels, \$57,564,000; wheat, 2,880,000 bushels, \$10,224,000; tomatoes for fresh market, 342,000 hundredweight (15.5 million kg), \$11,901,000; sweet potatoes, 380,000 hundredweight (17.3 million kg), \$7.9 million; and pecans, 1,000,000 lb (450,000 kg), \$1.3 million. The 2004 cotton crop of 820,000 bales was valued at \$205,066,000.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The principal livestock-raising regions of Alabama are the far north, the southwest, and the Black Belt, where the lime soil provides excellent pasturage. In 2003 Alabama produced an estimated 522.2 million lb (237.4 million kg) of cattle and calves, valued at \$371.5 million, and an estimated 48.7 million lb (22.1 million kg) of hogs, valued at \$20 million. There were 1,360,000 cattle and an estimated 180,000 hogs and pigs on Alabama farms and ranches in 2004. According to preliminary figures, 18,000 milk cows yielded 252 million lb (114.5 million kg) of milk in 2003.

Alabama is a leading producer of chickens, broilers, and eggs. In broiler production, the state was surpassed only by Georgia and Arkansas in 2003, with an estimated 5.4 billion lb (2.5 billion kg), valued at \$1.8 billion. That year, Alabama ranked fourth in chicken production, with over 76.38 million lb (34.7 million kg), worth \$5.2 million. Egg production totaled 2.19 billion, worth \$295.6 million.

25 FISHING

In 2004, Alabama's commercial fish catch was about 26.6 million lb (12.1 million kg), worth \$37 million. The principal fishing port is Bayou La Batre, which brought in about 19.1 million lb (8.7 million kg), worth \$28.4 million. Alabama ranked fifth in the Gulf region for volume of shrimp landings with a total of 16.1 million lb (7.3 million kg).

Catfish farming is of growing importance. As of January 2005, there were 230 catfish farms (down from 370 in 1990) covering 25,100 acres (10,200 hectares) of water surface, with an average farm size of about 109 acres (44 hectares). In early 2006, Alabama growers had an inventory of 302.4 million stocker-size and 166 million fingerling/fry catfish.

As of 2003, there were 69 processing and 26 wholesaling plants in the state, with a combined total of about 1,649 employees. The commercial fishing fleet had about 1,775 boats and vessels in 2001.

There were 486,877 sport fishing licenses issued in Alabama in 2004.

26 FORESTRY

Forestland in Alabama, predominantly pine, covering 22,981,000 acres (9,302,000 hectares), was over 3% of the nation's total in 2004. Nearly all of that was classified as commercial timberland, and 21,757,000 acres (8,805,000 hectares) privately owned. Four national forests covered a gross acreage of 1,288,000 acres (521,250 hectares) in 2003. Production of softwood and hard-

wood lumber totaled 2.72 billion board feet in 2004 (seventh in the United States).

Alabama has a program in place, called TREASURE Forest, to recognize and certify sustainable forestry management on private lands. This program has already certified over 1.57 million acres (635,000 hectares).

27 MINING

In 2004, Alabama's nonfuel mineral output was valued at \$972 million, according to the US Geological Survey, and consisted entirely of industrial minerals. This was an 8% increase from 2003 and followed a 6.8% increase from 2002 to 2003, making the state 18th out of the 50 states in nonfuel mineral production. In 2004, the state accounted for over 2% of all nonfuel mineral production in the United States. The top four nonfuel mineral commodities in 2004 (by value) were cement, crushed stone, lime, and construction grade sand and gravel. These four products accounted for almost 93% of nonfuel mineral output, with cement and crushed stone alone accounting for 69% of production.

According to figures for 2004, Alabama produced: 4.8 million metric tons of portland cement valued at an estimated \$320 million; 2.12 million metric tons of common clay worth \$29.6 million; 49.1 million metric tons of crushed stone valued at \$303 million; 2.280 million metric tons of lime valued at \$164 million; and 14.7 million metric tons construction sand and gravel valued at \$65.3 million.

Other industrial minerals produced in the state included chalk, building stone (limestone and sandstone), bauxite clays, salt (solution recovery), silicon, and recovered sulfur.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Alabama had 63 electrical power service providers, of which 36 were publicly owned and 23 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, one was federally operated, while the other was investor owned. As of that same year there were nearly 2.340 million retail customers. Of that total, over 1.363 million received their power from the state's only investor-owned service provider. Cooperatives accounted for 499,615 customers, while publicly owned providers had 476,247 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 30.162 million kW, with total production that same year at 137.487 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 92.3% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 76.696 billion kWh (55.8%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear fueled plants in second place at 31.676 billion kWh (23%).

As of 2006, Alabama had two operating nuclear power plants: the Browns Ferry plant, which is operated by the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Joseph M Farley facility, which is operated by the Alabama Power Company's wholly owned subsidiary, the Southern Nuclear Operations Company.

Significant petroleum finds in southern Alabama date from the early 1950s. As of 2004, the state had proven crude oil reserves of 53 million barrels, or less than 1% of all US reserves, while output that same year averaged 20,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, Alabama that year ranked 18th (17th excluding

federal offshore) in reserves and 16th (15th excluding federal offshore) among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Alabama had 824 producing oil wells, accounting for less than 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's three refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 113,500 barrels per day.

In 2004, Alabama had 5,526 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 316 billion cu ft (8.9 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 4,120 billion cu ft (117 billion cu m).

Alabama in 2004, had 49 producing coal mines, 41 of which were surface mines and 8 were underground. Coal production that same year totaled 22,271,000 short tons, up from 20,118,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced, underground mines in 2004 accounted for 16,114,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 341 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Alabama's manufacturing boom began in the 1870s with the exploitation of the coal and iron fields in the north, which quickly transformed Birmingham into the leading industrial city in the South, producing pig iron more cheaply than its American and English competitors. An important stimulus to manufacturing in the north was the development of ports and power plants along the Tennessee River. Although Birmingham remains highly dependent on steel, the state's manufacturing sector has diversified considerably since World War II (1939–45).

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Alabama's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$76.095 billion. Of that total, the manufacturing of transportation equipment accounted for the largest portion, at \$10.047 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$8.557 billion, primary metal manufacturing at \$8.322 billion, food manufacturing at \$8.019 billion, and paper manufacturing at \$6.211 billion.

In 2004, a total of 259,058 people in Alabama were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 200,645 were production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 35,549, with 28,186 actual production workers. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing with 26,868 employees (21,304 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing with 23,394 employees (17,211 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing with 19,269 employees (15,409 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 17,136 employees (14,036 actual production workers); and primary metal manufacturing with 16,438 employees (12,764 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Alabama's manufacturing sector paid \$9.357 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest portion at \$1.145 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$880.272 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at

\$868.126 million; primary metal manufacturing at \$805.290 million; and paper manufacturing at \$709.987 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Alabama's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$43.6 billion from 5,747 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 3,800 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,579 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 376 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$16.4 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$22.3 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$4.8 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Alabama was listed as having 19,608 retail establishments with sales of \$43.7 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (2,978); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,643); clothing and clothing accessory stores (2,379); and food and beverage stores (1,996). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$11.9 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$7.6 billion; food and beverage stores at \$6.08 billion; and gasoline stations at \$4.3 billion. A total of 222,416 people were employed in the retail sector in Alabama for that year.

Exporters located in Alabama exported \$10.7 billion in merchandise during 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Office of Consumer Affairs, established in 1972, was transferred to the Office of the Attorney General in 1979. The major duties of the office are to enforce the state's Deceptive Trade Practices Act and other criminal and civil laws to combat consumer fraud, and to offer programs in consumer education. In response to a myriad of inquiries, complaints, and fraudulent schemes, recent attorneys general have expanded the division's role in their administrations, and it has become one of the most effective arms of the attorney general's law enforcement efforts. The Office of Consumer Affairs also acts as a mediator or negotiator in response to approximately 3,000 consumer complaints received each year, three-quarters of which are registered by residents over age 65.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the state's Attorney General cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Office of the Attorney General's Office of Consumer Affairs is located in the state capitol of Montgomery.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Alabama had 160 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 71 state-chartered and 88

federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Birmingham-Hoover market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 41 institutions and \$19.824 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 4.7% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$10.704 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 95.3%, or \$214.840 billion in assets held.

The median net interest margin (NIM—the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) of the state's insured institutions in fourth quarter 2005 stood at 4.25%, up from 4.12% for all of 2004 and 4.02% for all of 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans compared to total loans stood at 1.59% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 1.99% for all of 2004 and 2.68% for all of 2003.

The regulation of Alabama's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Alabama Banking Department.

3.3 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 6.2 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$188.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$283.5 billion. The average coverage amount is \$30,300 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$986.2 million.

As of 2003, there were 22 property and casualty and 16 life and health insurance companies incorporated or organized in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance amounted to about \$5.95 billion. That year, there were 41,912 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$5.87 billion. There were also 3,169 beach and windstorm insurance policies in force against hurricane and other windstorm damage, with a total value of \$317.69 million.

In 2004, 55% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 26% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged about 20% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. Alabama does not offer extended health benefits in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance extension program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$655.42.

3.4 SECURITIES

Alabama has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 1,050 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,580 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 59 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 28 NASDAQ companies, 17 NYSE listings, and 4 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; Regions Financial ranked first in the state and 354th in the nation with

revenues of over \$6.1 billion, followed by Saks. AmSouth Bancorp, Vulcan Materials, and Torchmark were in the Fortune 1,000. All five of these NYSE companies are based in Birmingham.

3.5 PUBLIC FINANCE

The Division of the Budget within the Department of Finance prepares and administers the state budget, which the governor submits to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year runs from 1 October through 30 September, making Alabama one of only four states in which the fiscal year (FY) does not begin in July. General funds for fiscal year 2006 were estimated

Alabama—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	21,568,441	4,766.51
General revenue	17,616,091	3,893.06
Intergovernmental revenue	6,871,334	1,518.53
Taxes	7,018,242	1,550.99
General sales	1,892,560	418.25
Selective sales	1,783,002	394.03
License taxes	397,429	87.83
Individual income tax	2,243,537	495.81
Corporate income tax	292,051	64.54
Other taxes	409,663	90.53
Current charges	2,667,878	589.59
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,058,637	233.95
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	172,430	38.11
Insurance trust revenue	3,779,920	835.34
Total expenditure	19,544,560	4,319.24
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,164,719	920.38
Direct expenditure	15,379,841	3,398.86
Current operation	10,740,445	2,373.58
Capital outlay	1,644,475	363.42
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,745,203	385.68
Assistance and subsidies	1,013,301	223.93
Interest on debt	236,417	52.25
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,141,319	694.21
Total expenditure	19,544,560	4,319.24
General expenditure	17,621,702	3,894.30
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,164,719	920.38
Direct expenditure	13,456,983	2,973.92
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	7,617,223	1,683.36
Public welfare	4,568,332	1,009.58
Hospitals	1,100,506	243.21
Health	814,615	180.03
Highways	1,199,566	265.10
Police protection	130,234	28.78
Correction	397,943	87.94
Natural resources	237,615	52.51
Parks and recreation	23,014	5.09
Government administration	433,653	95.83
Interest on general debt	236,417	52.25
Other and unallocable	862,584	190.63
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	177,655	39.26
Insurance trust expenditure	1,745,203	385.68
Debt at end of fiscal year	6,363,885	1,406.38
Cash and security holdings	29,992,119	6,628.09

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

at nearly \$7.8 billion for resources and \$6.7 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Alabama were \$7.0 billion. For fiscal year 2007, federal funding for the State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) and the HOME Investment Partnership Program was increased.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Alabama collected \$7,800 million in tax revenues, or \$1,711 per capita, which placed it 44th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 3.0% of the total, sales taxes 26.1%, selective sales taxes 25.1%, individual income taxes 32.5%, corporate income taxes 5.1%, and other taxes 8.3%.

As of 1 January 2006, Alabama had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.0 to 5.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.5%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$1,440,385,000, or \$367 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state as having the lowest property taxes in the nation. Local governments collected \$1,440,385,000 of the total and the state government, \$221,470,000.

Alabama taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 7%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 11%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 42.5 cents per pack, which ranks 39th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Alabama taxes gasoline at 18 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Alabama citizens received \$1.71 in federal spending, which ranks the state sixth-highest nationally.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Alabama seeks to attract out-of-state business by means of tax incentives and plant-building assistance. The Alabama Development Office (ADO) plans for economic growth through industrial development. It also extends loans, issues bonds, and offers other forms of financing to growing companies, to firms that create permanent jobs, and to small businesses. The International Trade Division of the ADO provides a variety of services to help Alabama companies export. In 1987 the Alabama Enterprise Zone Program was passed. As of 2006, 27 Enterprise Zones had been authorized across the state in areas considered to have depressed economies, each zone offering packages of local tax and nontax incentives to encourage businesses to locate in the area. As of 2006, qualified new and expanding businesses in eligible industries were able to receive a corporate income tax credit of up to 5% of capital costs per year for up to 20 years. Small businesses may qualify if they create 15 jobs and invest \$1 million. Other new projects or expansions qualify if they create 20 jobs and invest \$2 million. All companies must pay wages of at least \$8 an hour or have an average total compensation of \$10 per hour. Alabama's target industries in 2006 were automobiles, aviation, electronics, plastics, and wood and wood products. The Alabama Industrial Development Training Institute, within the Department of Education, provides job training especially designed to suit the needs of high-technology industries. Alabama offers zero-interest loans and grants to rural

economic development projects. In an effort to attract new industries or help existing companies grow, the state helps counties and municipalities pay for site improvements, and assists communities in financing infrastructures such as water and sewer lines or access roads. The Alabama Commerce Commission promotes legislation that protects and nurtures the Alabamian economy, including infrastructural projects on the state's roads, bridges, and docks. In 2000, the Alabama Commission on Environmental Initiatives was created by executive order and charged with developing a program for improving the environmental quality of the state. In 2002, a Brownfields Redevelopment Program was introduced.

In September 2005, in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina which devastated the Gulf Coast region, President George W. Bush announced he would create a Gulf Opportunity Zone for Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama. Businesses would be able to double (to \$200,000) the amount they could deduct from their taxes for investments in new equipment. The act also provided a 50% bonus depreciation and made loan guarantees available. Congress passed the Gulf Opportunity Zone Act in December 2005, providing a number of tax incentives to encourage the rebuilding of areas ravaged by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.2 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 14.3 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 83.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 10.4 deaths per 1,000 population, representing the highest rate in the nation for that year. As of 2002, the death rates for all the major causes of death were higher than the national averages. The rates that year (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 294.1; cancer, 216.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 71.3; diabetes, 33.1; and chronic lower respiratory diseases, 51.9. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 4.2 per 100,000 population, lower than the national average of 4.9 per 100,000 population for 2002. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was about 10.3 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 61% of the population was considered overweight or obese, representing the second-highest percentage in the nation (following West Virginia). As of 2004, Alabama ranked seventh in the nation for the percentage of smokers, with about 24.8%.

In 2003, Alabama had 107 community hospitals with about 15,600 beds. There were about 709,000 patient admissions that year and 8.9 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 9,700 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,166. Also in 2003, there were about 228 certified nursing facilities in the state, with 26,369 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 89.4%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 69.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Alabama had 216 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 818 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,971 dentists in the state.

About 26% of state residents was enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5 billion.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 119,000 people received unemployment benefits, with an average weekly unemployment benefit of \$177. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 558,596 persons (222,132 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$91.91 per person. That year, the total benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$616 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Alabama's TANF program is called the Family Assistance Program (FA). In 2004 the state program had 45,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program in fiscal year 2003 totaled \$50 million.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 884,410 Alabamians. This number included 484,310 retired workers, 98,650 widows and widowers, 159,300 disabled workers, 47,110 spouses, and 95,040 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 19.5% of the total state population and 92.6% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$912; widows and widowers, \$823; disabled workers, \$866; and spouses, \$451. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$458 per month; children of deceased workers, \$590; and children of disabled workers, \$261. Also in December 2004, Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 163,002 Alabama residents, averaging \$374 a month. About \$26,000 of state-administered supplemental payments was distributed to 434 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 2,058,951 housing units in Alabama, of which 1,755,332 were occupied. In the same year, about 71.9% of all housing units were owner-occupied. It was estimated that about 96,954 households across the state were without telephone service, 6,757 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 5,212 lacked complete kitchen facilities. About 67.3% of all housing units were detached, single-family homes; 14.6% were mobile homes. The average household had 2.51 members.

Approximately 27,400 new privately owned units were authorized in 2004. The median home value that year was \$94,671. The median monthly housing cost for mortgage owners was \$872, while the median cost for renters was \$519. In September 2005, the state was awarded grants of \$299,963 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$25.8 million in community development block grants. Also in 2006, HUD offered an additional \$74 million to the state in emergency funds to rebuild housing that was destroyed by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma in late 2005.

The Fairhope Single Tax Corporation, near Point Clear, was founded in 1893 by individuals seeking to put into practice the economic theories of Henry George. Incorporated under Alabama law in 1904, this oldest and largest of US single-tax ex-

periments continues to lease land in return for the payment of a rent (the "single tax") based on the land's valuation; the combined rents are used to pay taxes and to provide and improve community services.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 82.4% of Alabamians age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 22.3% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Alabama's public schools stood at 740,000. Of these, 534,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 206,000 attended high school. Approximately 59.9% of the students were white, 36.4% were black, 2.1% were Hispanic, 0.9% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.8% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 734,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 709,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 4.1% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 73,105 students enrolled in 408 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$5.4 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that eighth graders in Alabama scored 262 out of 500 in 2005 compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 246,414 students enrolled in college or graduate school. Minority students comprised 31.5% of total postsecondary enrollment that same year. As of 2005, Alabama had 75 degree-granting institutions. The largest state universities are Auburn University and the three University of Alabama campuses, including Birmingham, Huntsville, and the main campus in Tuscaloosa. Tuskegee University, founded as a normal and industrial school in 1881 under the leadership of Booker T. Washington, has become one of the nation's most famous predominantly black colleges.

42 ARTS

The Alabama State Council on the Arts, established by the legislature in 1966, provides aid to local nonprofit arts organizations. The Alabama Humanities Foundation was established in 1974. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded 10 grants totaling \$1,020,965 to Alabama organizations and the National Endowment for the Arts awarded 18 grants totaling \$910,100 to Alabama arts organizations. The Alabama Center for Traditional Culture, established in 1990, works in conjunction with the state council to promote and preserve local arts and culture. The Alabama Jazz and Blues Federation, also established in 1990, has been very active in offering monthly jam sessions for artists, an annual summer festival, and several concerts throughout the year.

The Alabama Shakespeare Festival State Theater performs in Montgomery and as of 2006 was noted as the sixth-largest Shakespeare festival worldwide. The festival hosts over 300,000 annual visitors that travel from over 60 countries and all 50 states. The Birmingham International Festival (BIF) was founded in 1951 and works to promote mutual understanding among cultures through art, education, and economic development programs. Working to fulfill their mission the BIF highlights a different country each year.

Alabama is also home to the Huntsville Symphony Orchestra, the Montgomery Symphony Orchestra, and the Tuscaloosa Symphony Orchestra. Among several dance organizations in the state, the Alabama Ballet, founded in 1981, is notable for establishing a professional affiliation with the University of Alabama at Birmingham, thus expanding opportunities for both students and audiences of dance.

As of 2006, the Tennessee Valley Old Time Fiddlers Convention was held annually in October at Athens State College. The annual event began in mid-1960s, showcasing "old time" music. Every June, the annual Hank Williams Memorial Celebration is held near the country singer's birthplace at the Olive West Community. As of 2006, there were opera groups in both Huntsville and Mobile.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending September 2001, Alabama had 207 public library systems, with a total of 283 libraries, of which 77 were branches. The state's public libraries that same year had a combined total of 8,801,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 15,988,000. The system also had 269,000 audio and 244,000 video items, 8,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 17 bookmobiles. The University of Alabama had 1,896,687 volumes, while the Birmingham Public Library had 19 branches and 973,936 volumes. The Alabama Department of Archives and History Library, at Montgomery, had 260,000 volumes and several special collections on Alabama history and government. Collections on aviation and space exploration in Alabama's libraries, particularly its military libraries, may be the most extensive in the United States outside of Washington, DC. In 1997 the Alabama Public Library Service and its regional library for the blind and physically handicapped had over 480,000 books, videos, and audiotapes, including more than 25,000 books in Braille. Memorabilia of Wernher von Braun are in the library at the Alabama Space and Rocket Center at Huntsville; the Redstone Arsenal's Scientific Information Center holds over 227,000 volumes and 1,800,000 technical reports. Total income for the public library system in 2003 was \$64,927,000, including \$908,978 in federal grants and \$4,479,963 in state grants. State libraries spent 64.2% of that income on staff.

Alabama had 81 museums in 2000. The most important art museum is the Birmingham Museum of Art. Other museums include the George Washington Carver Museum at Tuskegee Institute, the Women's Army Corps Museum and Military Police Corps Museum at Ft. McClellan, the US Army Aviation Museum at Ft. Rucker, the Pike Pioneer Museum at Troy, the Museum of the City of Mobile, and the Montgomery Museum of Fine Arts. Also in Montgomery are Old Alabama Town and the F. Scott and Zelda Fitzgerald home. Russell Cave National Monument has an archaeological exhibit. In Florence is the W. C. Handy Home; at Tuscumbia, Helen Keller's birthplace, Ivy Green.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 92.2% of Alabama's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 2,301,847 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 53.9% of Alabama households had a computer and 45.7% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 454,546 high-speed lines in Alabama,

408,937 residential and 45,609 for business. A total of 44,371 Internet domain names had been registered in Alabama by 2000.

During 2005, Alabama had 93 major operating radio stations (19 AM, 74 FM) and 22 major television stations. In 2000, 69% of television households in the Birmingham area subscribed to cable television.

45 PRESS

The earliest newspaper in Alabama, the short-lived *Mobile Centinel* (*sic*), made its first appearance on 23 May 1811. The oldest newspaper still in existence in the state is the *Mobile Register*, founded in 1813.

As of 2005 Alabama had 21 morning dailies; 3 evening dailies; and 20 Sunday papers. The following table shows the leading dailies with their 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Birmingham	<i>News*</i> (m,S)	167,889	184,036
	<i>Post-Herald</i> (m)	150,353	
Huntsville	<i>Times*</i> (e,S)	53,145	74,401
Mobile	<i>Register*</i> (m,S)	88,253	111,778
Montgomery	<i>Advertiser</i> (m,S)	48,389	58,429
Tuscaloosa	<i>News</i> (m,S)	34,332	36,205

*Owned by the Alabama Group of Advance Publications

In 2005, there were 97 weekly publications in Alabama. Of these, 73 are paid weeklies, 3 are free weeklies, and 21 are combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (416,280) and free weeklies (192,402) is 608,682. Of the combined weeklies in the United States, the Columbiana/Shelby counties *Reporter* ranked 25th with a circulation of 32,497.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,900 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which 2,063 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National associations with headquarters in Alabama include Civitan International in Birmingham; and Klanwatch and the Southern Poverty Law Center, both in Montgomery. The last-named is one of the major civil rights organizations active in Alabama, along with the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). The League of the South, a national organization founded in 1994 as a political, economic, and civil rights advocacy organization, has its national headquarters in Killen. Two branches of the Ku Klux Klan are also active in Alabama.

The American Council on Alcohol Problems is based in Birmingham, which also hosts the central offices of the fourth district of Alcoholics Anonymous World Wide Services.

State cultural organizations include the Alabama Historical Association and Alabama Preservation Alliance, both in Montgomery. Sports and recreation associations based in the state include the American Baseball Foundation, the National Speleological Society, the Kampground Owners Association, and the Bass Anglers Sportsman Society. Regional wildlife groups include the Alabama Mookie Association, the Alabama Santa Gertrudis Association, and the Alabama National Wild Turkey Federation, which has several chapters throughout the state.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, some 20 million people visited Alabama, spending \$5.5 billion. With a statewide impact of 157,000 jobs, tourism is an important industry for Alabama. An estimated 73% of all tourists choose destinations in one of six counties: Baldwin, Jefferson, Madison, Mobile, Montgomery, and Tuscaloosa. In 2005, the number of visitors to Alabama increased as people fled Louisiana and Florida due to the severe hurricane season.

A top tourist attraction is the Alabama Space and Rocket Center at Huntsville, home of the US Space Camp. Other attractions include many antebellum houses and plantations: Magnolia Grove (a state shrine) at Greensboro; Gaineswood and Bluff Hall at Demopolis; Arlington in Birmingham; Oakleigh at Mobile; Sturdivant Hall at Selma; Shorter Mansion at Eufaula; and the first White House of the confederacy at Montgomery. Racing fans can visit the Talladega Super Speedway and the Motorsports Hall of Fame.

The celebration of Mardi Gras in Mobile, which began in 1704, predates that in New Orleans and now occupies several days before Ash Wednesday. Gulf beaches are a popular attraction and Point Clear, across the bay from Mobile, has been a fashionable resort, especially for southerners, since the 1840s. The state fair is held at Birmingham every October.

During 2004, Baldwin and Jefferson counties were the biggest tourist beneficiaries; home to Alabama's four national park sites, which include Tuskegee Institute National Historic Site and Russell Cave National Monument, an almost continuous archaeological record of human habitation from at least 7000 BC to about AD 1650. Tannehill Historical State Park features ante- and postbellum dwellings, a restored iron furnace over a century old, and a museum of iron and steel. There were some 500,000 visitors to Alabama's state parks that year.

The Alabama Deep Sea Fishing Rodeo at Dauphin Island also attracts thousands of visitors. Alabama's Robert Trent Jones Golf Trail is a major tourist attraction, with seven championship courses located from Huntsville to Mobile.

48 SPORTS

Alabama is home to a number of professional teams in various sports. The Birmingham Power was a member of the National Women's Basketball League until 2005, and the Birmingham Steeldogs are an Arena League 2 football squad. There are minor league baseball clubs in Birmingham, Mobile, and Huntsville, and minor league hockey teams in Birmingham, Huntsville, and Mobile. Two major professional stock car races, Aaron's 499 and the UAW-Ford 500, are held at the Talladega Speedway. Dog racing was legalized in Mobile in 1971. Four of the major hunting-dog competitions in the United States are held annually in the state.

Football reigns supreme among collegiate sports. The University of Alabama finished number one in 1961, 1964, 1965 (against Michigan State), 1978 (against University of Southern California), 1979, and 1992 and is a perennial top-10 entry. Competing in the Southeastern Conference, Alabama's Crimson Tide won the Sugar Bowl in 1962, 1964, 1967, 1978, 1979, 1980, and 1993; the Orange Bowl in 1943, 1953, 1963, and 1966; the Cotton Bowl in 1942 and 1981; the Sun Bowl in 1983 and 1988; and the Independence Bowl in 2001. The Crimson Tide have won a total of 12 national championships and 21 SEC titles. Auburn University, which also com-

petes in the Southeastern Conference, won the Sugar Bowl in 1984; the Florida Citrus Bowl in 1982 and 1987; the Gator Bowl in 1954, 1971, and 1972; and the Sun Bowl in 1968. The Tigers have won 14 bowl games, 6 SEC titles, and have produced 2 Heisman trophy winners (Pat Sullivan and Bo Jackson). The Blue-Gray game, an all-star contest, is held at Montgomery on Christmas Day, and the Senior Bowl game is played in Mobile in January. Additionally, Alabama-Huntsville won National Collegiate Athletic Association Division II hockey championships in 1996, 1997, and 1998.

Boat races include the annual Dauphin Island Race, the largest one-day sailing race in the United States. The Alabama Sports Hall of Fame is located at Birmingham.

Some of the most notable athletes born in Alabama are Willie Mays, Hank Aaron, Jesse Owens, and Bo Jackson.

49 FAMOUS ALABAMIANS

William Rufus De Vane King (b.North Carolina, 1786–1853) served as a US senator from Alabama and as minister to France before being elected US vice president in 1852 on the Democratic ticket with Franklin Pierce; he died six weeks after taking the oath of office. Three Alabamians who served as associate justices of the US Supreme Court were John McKinley (b.Virginia, 1780–1852), John A. Campbell (b.Georgia, 1811–89), and Hugo L. Black (1886–1971). Campbell resigned from the court in 1861, later becoming assistant secretary of war for the Confederacy; Black, a US senator from 1927 to 1937, served one of the longest terms (1937–71) in the history of the court and is regarded as one of its most eminent justices.

Among the most colorful figures in antebellum Alabama was William Lowndes Yancey (b.Georgia, 1814–63), a fiery orator who was a militant proponent of slavery, states' rights, and eventually secession. During the early 20th century, a number of Alabamians became influential in national politics. Among them were US senators John Hollis Bankhead (1842–1920) and John Hollis Bankhead Jr. (1872–1946); the latter's brother, William B. Bankhead (1874–1940), who became speaker of the US House of Representatives in 1936; and US Senator Oscar W. Underwood (b.Kentucky, 1862–1929), a leading contender for the Democratic presidential nomination in 1912 and 1924. Other prominent US senators from Alabama have included (Joseph) Lister Hill (1894–1984) and John Sparkman (1899–1985), who was the Democratic vice presidential nominee in 1952. Alabama's most widely known political figure is George Corley Wallace (1919–98), who served as governor in 1963–67 and 1971–79 and was elected to a fourth term in 1982. Wallace, an outspoken opponent of racial desegregation in the 1960s, was a candidate for the Democratic presidential nomination in 1964; four years later, as the presidential nominee of the American Independent Party, he carried five states. While campaigning in Maryland's Democratic presidential primary on 15 May 1972, Wallace was shot and paralyzed from the waist down by a would-be assassin. In 1976, Wallace made his fourth and final unsuccessful bid for the presidency.

Civil rights leader Martin Luther King Jr. (b.Georgia, 1929–68), winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964, first came to national prominence as leader of the Montgomery bus boycott of 1955; he also led demonstrations at Birmingham in 1963 and at Selma in 1965. His widow, Coretta Scott King (1927–2006), is a native Ala-

bamian. Federal judge Frank M. Johnson Jr. (1918–99) has made several landmark rulings in civil rights cases.

Helen Keller (1880–1968), deaf and blind as the result of a childhood illness, was the first such multihandicapped person to earn a college degree; she later became a world-famous author and lecturer. Another world figure, black educator Booker T. Washington (b.Virginia, 1856–1915), built Alabama's Tuskegee Institute from a school where young blacks were taught building, farming, cooking, brickmaking, dressmaking, and other trades into an internationally known agricultural research center. Tuskegee's most famous faculty member was George Washington Carver (b.Missouri, 1864–1943), who discovered some 300 different peanut products, 118 new ways to use sweet potatoes, and numerous other crop varieties and applications. Among Alabama's leaders in medicine was Dr. William Crawford Gorgas (1854–1920), head of sanitation in Panama during the construction of the Panama Canal; he later served as US surgeon general. Brought to the United States after World War II (1939–45), the internationally known scientist Wernher von Braun (b.Germany, 1912–77) came to Alabama in 1950 to direct the US missile program.

Two Alabama writers, (Nelle) Harper Lee (b.1926) and Edward Osborne Wilson (b.1929), have won Pulitzer Prizes. Famous musicians from Alabama include blues composer and performer W(illiam) C(hristopher) Handy (1873–1958), singer Nat “King” Cole (1917–65), and singer-songwriter Hank Williams (1923–53). Alabama's most widely known actress was Tallulah Bankhead (1903–68), the daughter of William B. Bankhead.

Among Alabama's sports figures are track and field star Jesse Owens (James Cleveland Owens, 1913–80), winner of four gold medals at the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin; boxer Joe Louis (Joseph Louis Barrow, 1914–81), world heavyweight champi-

on from 1937 to 1949; and baseball stars Leroy Robert “Satchel” Paige (1906?–82), Willie Mays (b.1931), and (Louis) Henry Aaron (b.1934), all-time US home-run leader.

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ALASKA

State of Alaska



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: From the Aleut word “*alyeska*,” meaning “great land.” **NICKNAME:** Land of the Midnight Sun; The Last Frontier. **CAPITAL:** Juneau. **ENTERED UNION:** 3 January 1959 (49th). **SONG:** “Alaska’s Flag.” **MOTTO:** North to the Future. **FLAG:** On a blue field, eight gold stars form the Big Dipper and the North Star. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the inner circle symbols of mining, agriculture, and commerce are depicted against a background of mountains and the northern lights. In the outer circle are a fur seal, a salmon, and the words “The Seal of the State of Alaska.” **BIRD:** Willow ptarmigan. **FISH:** King salmon. **FLOWER:** Wild forget-me-not. **TREE:** Sitka spruce. **GEM:** Jade. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Martin Luther King Jr. Day, 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Seward’s Day, last Monday in March; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Alaska Day, 18 October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 3 AM Alaska Standard Time, 2 AM Hawaii-Aleutian Standard Time = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated at the northwest corner of the North American continent, Alaska is separated by Canadian territory from the coterminous 48 states. Alaska is the largest of the 50 states, with a total area of 591,004 sq mi (1,530,699 sq km). Land takes up 570,833 sq mi (1,478,456 sq km) and inland water, 20,171 sq mi (52,243 sq km). Alaska is more than twice the size of Texas, the next largest state, and occupies 16% of the total US land area; the E–W extension is 2,261 mi (3,639 km); the maximum N–S extension is 1,420 mi (2,285 km).

Alaska is bounded on the N by the Arctic Ocean and Beaufort Sea; on the E by Canada’s Yukon Territory and province of British Columbia; on the S by the Gulf of Alaska, Pacific Ocean, and Bering Sea; and on the W by the Bering Sea, Bering Strait, Chukchi Sea, and Arctic Ocean.

Alaska’s many offshore islands include St. Lawrence, St. Matthew, Nunivak, and the Pribilof group in the Bering Sea; Kodiak Island in the Gulf of Alaska; the Aleutian Islands in the Pacific; and some 1,100 islands constituting the Alexander Archipelago, extending SE along the Alaska panhandle.

The total boundary length of Alaska is 8,187 mi (13,176 km), including a general coastline of 6,640 mi (10,686 km); the tidal shoreline extends 33,904 mi (54,563 km). Alaska’s geographic center is about 60 mi (97 km) NW of Mt. McKinley. The northern-most point in the United States—Point Barrow, at 71°23′30″N, 156°28′30″W—lies within the state of Alaska, as does the western-most point—Cape Wrangell on Attu Island in the Aleutians, at 52°55′30″N, 172°28′E. Little Diomed Island, belonging to Alaska, is less than 2 mi (3 km) from Big Diomed Island, belonging to Russia.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Topography varies sharply among the six distinct regions of Alaska. In the southeast is a narrow coastal panhandle cut off from the main Alaskan landmass by the St. Elias Range. This region, featuring numerous mountain peaks of 10,000 ft (3,000 m) in elevation, is paralleled by the Alexander Archipelago. South-central Alaska, which covers a 700-mi (1,100-km) area along the Gulf of Alaska, includes the Kenai Peninsula and Cook Inlet, a great arm of the Pacific penetrating some 200 mi (320 km) to Anchorage. The southwestern region includes the Alaska Peninsula, filled with lightly wooded, rugged peaks; and the 1,700-mi (2,700-km) sweep of the Aleutian islands, barren masses of volcanic origin. Western Alaska extends from Bristol Bay to the Seward Peninsula, an immense tundra dotted with lakes and containing the deltas of the Yukon and Kuskokwim rivers, the longest in the state at 1,900 mi (3,058 km) and 680 mi (1,094 km), respectively. The Yukon River also ranks third among the nation’s longest rivers; its source is McNeil River in Canada. Interior Alaska extends north of the Alaska Range and south of the Brooks Range, including most of the drainage of the Yukon and its major tributaries, the Tanana and Porcupine rivers. The Arctic region extends from Kotzebue, north of the Seward Peninsula, east to Canada. From the northern slopes of the Brooks Range, the elevation falls to the Arctic Ocean. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,900 ft (580 m).

The 11 highest mountains in the United States—including the highest in North America, Mt. McKinley (20,320 ft/6,198 m), located in the Alaska Range—are in the state, which also contains half the world’s glaciers; the largest, Malaspina, covers more area than the entire state of Rhode Island. Ice fields cover 4% of the state. Alaska has more than three million lakes larger than 20 acres (8 hectares), and more than one-fourth of all the inland water wholly within the United States lies inside the state’s borders. The

largest lake is Iliamna, occupying about 1,000 sq mi (2,600 sq km). The lowest point of the state is at sea level at the Pacific Ocean.

The most powerful earthquake in recorded US history, measuring 8.5 on the Richter scale, struck the Anchorage region on 27 March 1964, resulting in 114 deaths and \$500 million in property damage in Alaska and along the US West Coast.

3 CLIMATE

Americans, who called Alaska “Seward’s icebox” when it was first purchased from the Russians, were unaware of the variety of climatic conditions within its six topographic regions. Although minimum daily winter temperatures in the Arctic region and in the Brooks Range average -20°F (-29°C) and the ground at Point Barrow is frozen permanently to 1,330 ft (405 m), summer maximum daily temperatures in the Alaskan lowlands average above 60°F (16°C) and have been known to exceed 90°F (32°C). The southeastern region is moderate, ranging from a daily average of 30°F (-1°C) in January to 56°F (13°C) in July; the south-central zone has a similar summer range, but winters are somewhat harsher, especially in the interior. The Aleutian Islands have chilly, damp winters and rainy, foggy weather for most of the year; western Alaska is also rainy and cool. The all-time high for the state was 100°F (38°C), recorded at Ft. Yukon on 27 June 1915; the reading of -79.8°F (-62°C), registered at Prospect Creek Camp in the northwestern part of the state on 23 January 1971, is the lowest temperature ever officially recorded in the United States.

The annual normal daily mean temperature in Juneau is 41.5°F (5.3°C). Juneau receives an annual average precipitation of 55.2 in (140 cm), with an average of 99 in (251 cm) of snowfall recorded at the airport there each year. The entire southeastern region of Alaska has a wide range of microclimates with varying levels of precipitation; Juneau’s metropolitan area precipitation ranges from 40 in (102 cm) to over 100 in (254 cm) per year. Parts of Alaska are prone to wildfires, which burned about 4.4 million acres statewide in 2005.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Life zones in Alaska range from grasslands, mountains, and tundra to thick forests, in which Sitka spruce (the state tree), western hemlock, tamarack, white birch, and western red cedar predominate. Various hardy plants and wild flowers spring up during the short growing season on the semiarid tundra plains. Some species of poppy and gentian are endangered.

Mammals abound amid the wilderness. Great herds of caribou migrate across some northern areas of the state. Moose move within ranges they establish, but do not migrate seasonally or move in herds as do caribou. Reindeer were introduced to Alaska as herd animals for Alaska Natives, and there are no free-ranging herds in the state. Kodiak, polar, black, and grizzly bears, Dall sheep, and an abundance of small mammals are also found. The sea otter and musk ox have been successfully reintroduced. Round Island, along the north shore of Bristol Bay, has the world’s largest walrus rookery. North America’s largest population of bald eagles nest in Alaska, and whales migrate annually to the icy bays. Pristine lakes and streams are famous for trout and salmon fishing. In

all, 386 species of birds, 430 fishes, 105 mammals, 7 amphibians, and 3 reptiles have been found in the state.

Izembek Lagoon, at the tip of the Alaskan Peninsula, contains what is considered to be the most extensive eelgrass meadow in the world. The area is a staging and nesting ground for hundreds of thousands of migratory birds and ducks. At least 39 species of fish visit the site as a spawning ground.

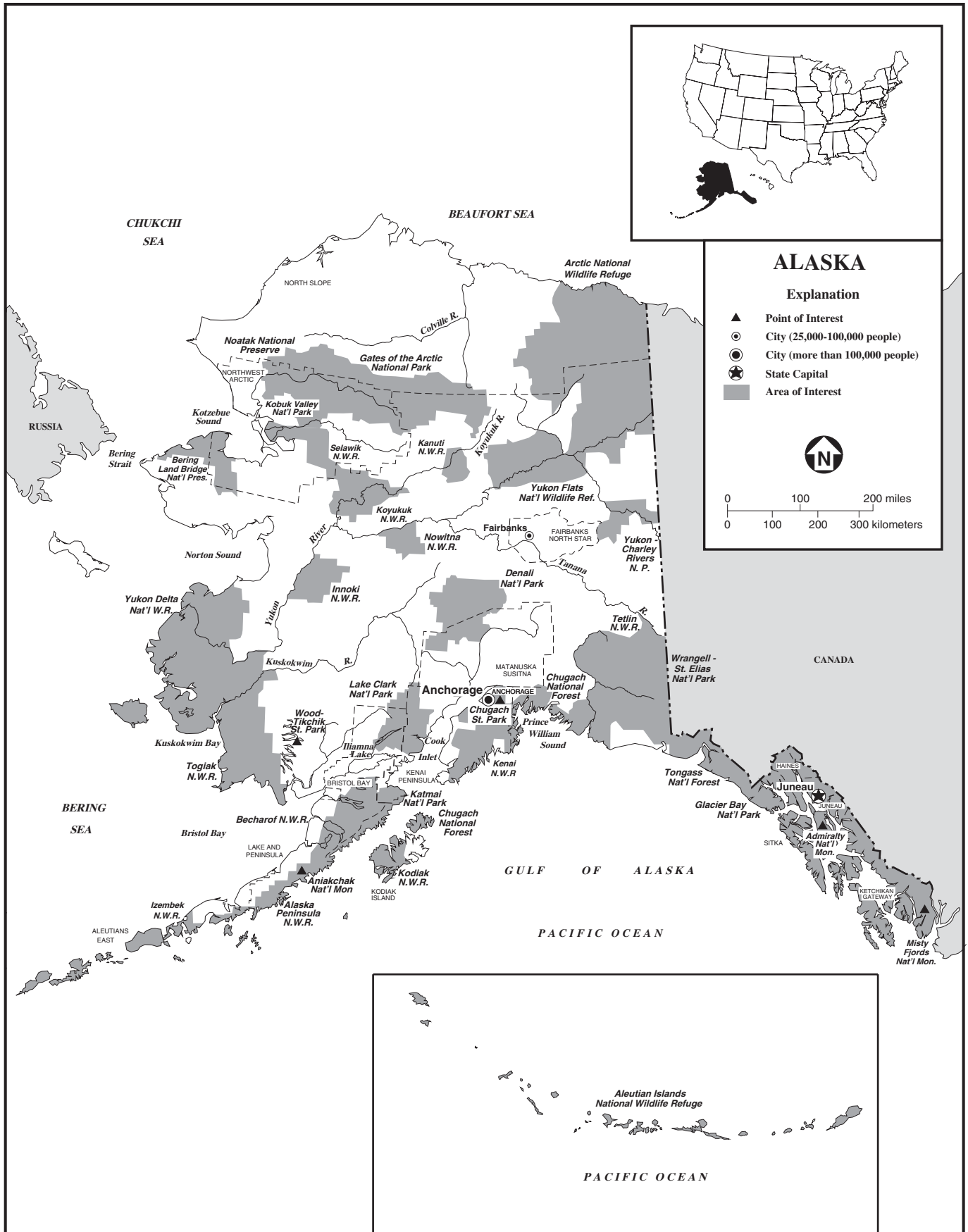
In April 2006, a total of 12 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 11 endangered animals, such as the Eskimo curlew, short-tailed albatross, leatherback sea turtle, Steller sea-lion, and bowhead, finback, and humpback whales. Three species listed as threatened included the spectacled eider, Steller’s auklet, and Steller sea-lion. Numerous species considered endangered in the coterminous US remain common in Alaska, however.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

In 1997, Alaska’s number one environmental health problem was the unsafe water and sanitation facilities in over 135 of Alaska’s communities—mostly Alaska Native villages. The people of these communities must carry their water from streams or watering points to their homes; people must use “honey buckets” or privies for disposal of human waste; and solid waste lagoons are usually a collection of human waste, trash, and junk, infested with flies and other carriers of disease. The government of Alaska, under then-governor Tony Knowles, established a goal of “putting the honey bucket in museums” as of 2005. To accomplish this goal, in 1993 Knowles established the “Rural Sanitation Task Force” to guide the effort and has committed approximately \$40 million per year in state and federal funds to finance new water, sewer, and solid waste facilities. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included over \$49 million for the development and construction of water and wastewater systems.

A tremendous backlog of contaminated sites from World War II (1939–45) military installations exists, and some of these sites many years later were discovered to be the source of contamination of groundwater, drinking water, and fisheries habitat. The US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 86 hazardous waste sites in Alaska in 2003. As of 2006, six of these sites were on the National Priorities List, five of which were military installations. The Standard Steel & Metal Salvage Yard of the US Department of Transportation had been deleted from the list that year. Sites have been identified and prioritized, and an aggressive state/federal cleanup effort is underway. Two former pulp mill sites in southeast Alaska are also the subject of major cleanup efforts. In 2005, the EPA spent \$179,975 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state.

Alaskan wetlands, which cover about 170 million acres, serve as resting and nesting grounds for over 13 million ducks and geese and 100 million shorebirds. Freshwater wetlands, primarily peatlands or marshes, bogs, fens, tundra, and meadows, cover about 110 million acres. Protection of coastal wetlands is shared by local, state, and rural regional governments. Izembek Lagoon National Wildlife Refuge, located at the westernmost tip of the Alaskan Peninsula, was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1986.



The 1989 Exxon Valdez oil spill highlighted the need for better prevention and response abilities. Since then these capabilities have been increased through stronger laws and more clearly defined roles among all the various governments and communities and greatly enhanced state regulatory agency capabilities. State-of-the-art tugs now escort tankers in Prince William Sound; these tankers are constantly monitored to ensure that they stay on course, and their crews have been increased to ensure redundancy of critical positions.

Oil development on the North Slope and in Cook Inlet, mining throughout the state, and timber harvesting largely in the southern regions remain areas of focus for environmental protection, as do winter violations of air quality standards for carbon monoxide in Anchorage and Fairbanks. In 2003, 539.6 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state, the highest amount of any state in the nation.

6 POPULATION

Alaska, with a land area one-fifth the size of the conterminous United States, ranked 47th in population in 2005 with an estimated total of 663,661, an increase of 5.9% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Alaska's population grew from 550,043 to 626,932, or 14%. The state is projected to have a population of 732,544 by 2015 and 820,881 by 2025. Regions of settlement and development constitute less than 1% of Alaska's total land area. The population density was 1.2 persons per sq mi in 2004, making Alaska the nation's most sparsely settled state.

Historically, population shifts in Alaska have directly reflected economic and political changes. The Alaska gold rush of the 1890s resulted in a population boom from 32,052 in 1890 to 63,592 a decade later; by the 1920s, however, mining had declined and Alaska's population had decreased to 55,036. The region's importance to US national defense during the 1940s led to a rise in population from 72,524 to 128,643 during that decade. Oil development, especially the construction of the Alaska pipeline, brought a 78% population increase between 1960 and 1980. Almost all of this gain was from migration.

The state's population is much younger than that of the nation as a whole. The median age was 33.4 in 2004, compared with the national average of 36.2, and only 6.4% of all Alaskans were 65 years of age or older, while 28.7% were under 18 years old (compared with the national average of 25%). Alaska is one of the few states where men outnumber women; as of 2004, women accounted for 48.3% of Alaskan residents.

About half of Alaska's residents live in and around Anchorage, whose population was estimated at 272,687 in 2004. The 2004 estimated population of Fairbanks was 85,930. Less than one-quarter of the population lives in Western Alaska.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

In 2000 Native Americans accounted for 15.6% of Alaska's population—the highest percentage of any state. In 2004, that figure was 15.8% of Alaska's population. American Indians, primarily Athabaskan (14,520) and Tlingit-Haida (14,825) living in southeastern Alaska (Alaska Panhandle), numbered around 29,345 in 2000. There are also small numbers of Tsimshian living in this area. Eskimos (45,919) and Aleuts (11,941), the other native peoples, live

mostly in scattered villages to the north and northwest. Taken together, Alaska Natives were estimated in 2000 to number about 98,043, up from 86,000 (16%) in 1996. The Native Claims Settlement Act of 1971 gave 13 native corporations nearly \$1 billion in compensation for exploration, mining, and drilling rights, and awarded them royalties on oil and the rights to nearly 12% of Alaska's land area.

In 2000, the black population was 21,787, or 3.5% of the total population, down slightly from 22,000 in 1990. In 2004, the black population was 3.6% of the total population. Among those of Asian origin in 2000 were 12,712 Filipinos, 1,414 Japanese, and 4,573 Koreans; in the same year, the total Asian population was 25,116 and Pacific Islanders numbered 3,309. In 2004, the Asian population was 4.5% of the total population. In 2000, of Alaska's total population, about 25,852 individuals was of Hispanic or Latino origin, with 13,334 of those claiming Mexican ancestry (up from 6,888 in 1990). In 2004, 4.9% of the population claimed Hispanic or Latino origin, and 4.7% of the population claimed origin of two or more races. Foreign-born persons numbered 37,170, or 5.9% of the population (up from 4.4% in 1990).

8 LANGUAGES

From the Tlingit, Haida, and Tsimshian groups of lower Alaska almost no language influence has been felt, save for *hooch* (from Tlingit *hoochino*); but some native words have escaped into general usage, notably Eskimo *mukluk* and Aleut *parka*. Native place-names abound: Skagway and Ketchikan (Tlingit), Kodiak and Katmai (Eskimo), and Alaska and Akutan (Aleut).

In 2000, 85.7% of the population five years old and older was reported to speak only English in the home, a decrease over 87.9% recorded in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik. The category "Other Pacific Island languages" includes Chamorro, Hawaiian, Ilocano, Indonesian, and Samoan.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	579,740	100.0
Speak only English	496,982	85.7
Speak a language other than English	82,758	14.3
Speak a language other than English	82,758	14.3
Other Native North American languages	30,121	5.2
Spanish or Spanish Creole	16,674	2.9
Tagalog	8,934	1.5
Korean	4,369	0.8
German	3,574	0.6
Russian	2,952	0.5
Other Pacific Island languages	2,591	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	2,197	0.4
Japanese	1,392	0.2
Chinese	1,295	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

The largest religious organization in the state is the Roman Catholic Church, which had 52,892 members and 78 parishes in 2004; the Anchorage archdiocese reported about 29,693 members. In 2006, the Latter-day Saints (Mormons), reported a statewide membership of 27,600 members, with 73 congregations; a small local temple was built in Anchorage in 1999. As of 2000, the Southern

Baptists have been one of the largest Protestant denominations, with 22,959 adherents and 68 congregations; there were 526 new members in the Southern Baptist Convention in 2002.

Many Aleuts were converted to the Russian Orthodox religion during the 18th century, and small Russian Orthodox congregations are still active on the Aleutian Islands, in Kodiak and southeastern Alaska, and along the Yukon River. The Orthodox Church in America—Territorial Dioceses had 20,000 adherents and 46 congregations in 2000.

The next largest denominations (with 2000 data) include the Assembly of God, 11,638; Independent, Non-Charismatic Churches, 7,600; and Episcopalians, 6,693. There were about 3,525 Jews and 1,381 Muslims. About 65.7% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

10 TRANSPORTATION

The first rail transportation networks in Alaska were constructed to serve mining interests. The 110-mi (177-km) White Pass and Yukon Railway (WP&YRR), originally constructed during the Klondike gold rush and completed in 1900, constituted the key link between tidewater at Skagway, the Yukon River, and the gold fields. Today, this line runs as a summer-only tourist attraction and provides service between Skagway and Fraser, British Columbia. Shortly after the turn of the century, the Guggenheims financed the construction of the Copper River & Northwestern Railway, which connected Cordova and McCarthy to service the Kennicott Copper Mining Company.

Regular passenger and freight railroad service began in 1923, when the Alaska Railroad began operation. The Alaska Railroad links communities between Whittier, Seward, Anchorage, and Fairbanks. As of 2003, this railroad of 466 route mi (750 km) was not connected to any other North American line (although rail-barge service provides access to the rest of the US rail network). The Alaska Railroad was federally operated until 1985, when it was bought by the state government for \$22.3 million. The railroad carries volumes of coal from Healy north to Fairbanks (600,000 tons/year) and south to Seward for export (800,000 tons/year). The railroad also carries large volumes of gravel to Anchorage (more than two million tons from Palmer in the mid-1990s) and petroleum products (more than one million tons from Mapco's North Pole refinery) to Anchorage and various military bases in the area. The railroad is increasing summer passenger travel, often by hauling dome/dining rail cars owned by tour companies.

The Alaska Highway, which extends 1,523 mi (2,451 km) from Dawson Creek, British Columbia, to Fairbanks, is the only total road link with the rest of the United States. In-state roads are few and far between: although Fairbanks, Anchorage, and Seward are linked, Juneau, the state capital, has no road link. In total, there were 14,107 mi (22,712 km) of roads in use in 2004, including more than 1,800 mi (2,896 km) of roads in national parks and forests. During that same year, the state had around 669,000 registered vehicles and 482,532 licensed drivers. The largest public transit system, that of Anchorage, accommodated over three million unlinked passenger trips annually in the mid-1990s.

The Alaska Marine Highway System (AMHS) provides year-round scheduled ferry service to over 30 communities throughout southeast and southwest Alaska. Service extends from Bell-

ingham, Washington, and Prince Rupert, British Columbia. This ferry system extends over 3,500 route mi (5,632 km) and connects communities with each other, with regional centers, and with the continental road system.

Water transport in Alaska is dominated by Valdez, which annually ships about 100 million tons of crude petroleum from the Trans-Alaska Pipeline Terminal. In 2004, total cargo volume for the Port of Valdez totaled 46.758 million tons, making it the 18th-busiest port in the United States. Kenai/Nikishka is the state's second-largest freight-handling port and also has petroleum as its principal commodity. Anchorage is the state's largest general cargo port, with over three million tons per year. In 2004, Alaska had 5,497 mi (8,850 km) of navigable inland waterways. Waterborne shipments for the state in 2003 totaled 65.353 million tons.

Air travel is the primary means of intrastate transportation, with regional carriers serving remote communities. In 2005, Alaska had a total of 678 public- and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 517 airports, 37 heliports, and 124 seaplane bases. The state has three major international airports, at Anchorage, Fairbanks, and Juneau, the state's capital. Anchorage International Airport (AIA) is a major refueling stop for international freight airplanes and is a freight hub for Federal Express and United Parcel Service. In 2004, Anchorage International had 2,439,969 passenger enplanements. Fairbanks International in that same year had 420,394 enplanements, while Juneau International had 377,505.

11 HISTORY

At some time between 10,000 and 40,000 years ago, the ancestors of all of America's aboriginal peoples trekked over a land bridge that connected northeastern Siberia with northwestern America. These early hunter-gatherers dispersed, eventually becoming three distinct groups: Aleut, Eskimo, and Indian.

Agnes passed before overseas voyagers rediscovered Alaska. Separate Russian parties led by Aleksei Chirikov and Vitas Bering (who had sailed in 1728 through the strait that now bears his name) landed in Alaska in 1741. Within a few years, the discoverers were followed by the exploiters, who hunted the region's fur-bearing animals. In 1784, the first permanent Russian settlement was established on Kodiak Island: 15 years later, the Russian American Company was granted a monopoly over the region. Its manager, Aleksandr Baranov, established Sitka as the company's headquarters. In 1802, the Tlingit Indians captured Sitka, but two years later lost the town and the war with the Russian colonizers. Fluctuations in the fur trade, depletion of the sea otter, and the Russians' inability to make their settlements self-sustaining limited their development of the region. Increasingly, the czarist government viewed the colonies as a drain on the treasury. In 1867, as a result of the persistence of Secretary of State William H. Seward, a devoted American expansionist, Russia agreed to sell its American territories to the United States for \$7,200,000. From 1867 until the first Organic Act of 1884, which provided for a federally appointed governor, Alaska was administered first by the US Army, then by the US Customs Service.

The pace of economic development quickened after the discovery of gold in 1880 at Juneau. Prospectors began moving into the eastern interior after this success, leading to gold strikes on Forty

Mile River in 1886 and at Circle in 1893. But it was the major strike in Canada's Klondike region in 1896 that sparked a mass stampede to the Yukon Valley and other regions of Alaska, including the Arctic. The gold rush led to the establishment of permanent towns in the interior for the first time.

Subsequent development of the fishing and timber industries increased Alaska's prosperity and prospects, although the region suffered from a lack of transportation facilities. A significant achievement came in 1914, when construction started on the Alaska Railroad connecting Seward, a new town with an ice-free port, with Anchorage and Fairbanks. Politically there were advances as well. In 1906, Alaskans were allowed to elect a nonvoting delegate to Congress for the first time. Congress granted territorial status to the region in 1912, and the first statehood bill was introduced in Congress four years later.

Mineral production declined sharply after 1914. Population declined too, and conditions remained depressed through the 1920s, although gold mining was helped by a rise in gold prices in 1934. World War II (1939–45) provided the next great economic impetus for Alaska; the Aleutian campaign that followed the Japanese invasion of the islands, though not as pivotal as the combat in other areas of the Pacific, did show American policymakers that Alaska's geography was in itself an important resource. Thus the spurt of federal construction and movement of military personnel continued even after the war ended, this time directed at the Soviet Union—only 40 mi (64 km) across the Bering Strait—rather than Japan.

The US government built the Alaska Highway and many other facilities, including docks, airfields, and an extension of the Alaska Railroad. Population soared as thousands of civilian workers and military personnel moved to the territory. The newcomers added impetus to a new movement for statehood, and the Alaska Statehood Act was adopted by Congress in June 1958 and ratified by Alaska voters that August. On 3 January 1959, President Dwight Eisenhower signed the proclamation that made Alaska the 49th state.

In 1971, the Native Claims Settlement Act provided an extensive grant to the state's natives but also precipitated a long federal-state controversy over land allocations. A major oil field was discovered in 1968, and in 1974, over the opposition of many environmentalists, construction began on the 789-mi (1,270-km) Trans-Alaska Pipeline from Prudhoe Bay to Valdez. The oil that began flowing through the pipeline in 1977 made Alaska almost immediately one of the nation's leading energy producers.

Alaska's extraordinary oil wealth enabled it to embark on a heavy program of state services and to abolish the state income tax. However, state spending failed to stimulate the private sector to the degree expected. Further, the state's dependence on oil—82% of its revenue came from oil industry taxes and royalties—became a disadvantage when overproduction in the Middle East drove the price of oil down from \$36 a barrel at the peak of Alaska's oil boom in 1980–81 to \$13.50 a barrel in 1988. In 1986, the state's revenues had declined by two-thirds. Alaska lost 20,000 jobs between 1985 and 1989. The economy's collapse forced 10,000 properties into foreclosure in those years. At the same time, the state rapidly depleted its oil reserves. In 1981, the Interior Department estimated that 83 billion barrels of undiscovered oil existed. By 1989, that estimate had dropped to 49 billion barrels.

On 24 March 1989, the *Exxon Valdez*, a 987-ft (300-m) oil tanker, hit a reef and ran aground. The tanker spilled 11 million gallons of crude oil. The oil eventually contaminated 1,285 mi (2,068 km) of shoreline, fouling Prince William Sound and its wildlife sanctuary, the Gulf of Alaska, and the Alaska Peninsula. In the settlement of the largest environmental suit in US history brought by the state and federal governments, Exxon was fined \$1.025 billion in civil and criminal penalties. By 1992, Exxon had spent some \$2 billion cleaning up Prince William Sound and paid another \$300 million in compensation for losses. Ten years after the spill, a \$100-million response system was in place to prevent future disasters and every tanker that departed the Valdez terminal in Prince William Sound was escorted by tugboats.

In the early 1990s, oil production in Prudhoe Bay was declining, a development that forced Governor Tony Knowles to implement cutbacks in state spending and brought a renewal of proposals to open areas of the nearly 20-million acre (8.1 million hectare) Arctic National Wildlife Refuge (ANWR) to commercial development. A congressional bill introduced in October 1999 by Alaskan senator Frank Murkowski and backed by the state's other members of Congress, would allow oil and gas, tourism, and residential development in the refuge, which is often called "America's Serengeti" for its wealth and diversity of wildlife. As the Republican-dominated Congress considered the bill in 2000 and after, conservationists rallied against it. In November 2002, Murkowski was elected governor of Alaska and continued his support for oil drilling in ANWR. The US Senate has continually voted to reject drilling in ANWR, but the US House of Representatives has voted in favor. In August 2005, President George W. Bush signed the first national energy legislation in more than a decade, and signaled the law would help wean the United States off foreign sources of oil by encouraging the domestic production of oil and natural gas and the use of cleaner-burning, domestic energy sources such as nuclear power, ethanol, and liquefied natural gas. The legislation dropped an amendment regarding the long-standing contentious issue of drilling in ANWR, which had blocked passage of earlier versions. As early as October 2005, however, the Senate Energy Committee voted to open ANWR to oil drilling as part of a broad budget bill to fund the federal government; the issue is far from being resolved.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Under Alaska's first and only constitution—adopted in 1956, effective since the time of statehood and amended 29 times by January 2005—the House of Representatives consists of 40 members elected for two-year terms; the Senate has 20 members elected for staggered four-year terms. The minimum age is 21 for a representative, 25 for a senator; legislators must have resided in the state for at least three years before election and in the district at least one year. Annual legislative sessions begin in January and are limited to 121 calendar days. Special sessions, limited to 30 calendar days, may be called by a two-thirds vote of the members. As of 2004, legislators' salaries were \$24,012. Legislators receive reimbursement for living expenses at the rate of \$204 per day.

Alaska's executive branch, modeled after New Jersey's, features a strong governor who appoints most cabinet members and judges subject to legislative confirmation. The lieutenant governor (elect-

ed jointly with the governor) is the only other elected executive. The governor must be at least 30 years old, and must have been a US citizen for seven years and an Alaska resident for seven years. The term of office is four years, and the governor is limited to two consecutive terms. The qualifications for the lieutenant governor are the same as for the governor. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$85,766.

After a bill has been passed by the legislature, it becomes law if signed by the governor; if left unsigned for 15 days (Sundays excluded) while the legislature is in session, or for 20 days after it has adjourned; or if passed by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of the combined houses over a gubernatorial veto (to override a veto of an appropriations bill requires a three-fourths vote). Constitutional amendments require a two-thirds vote of the legislature and ratification by the electorate. Voters must be 18 years old (within 90 days of registration), US citizens, and not registered to vote in another state. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

Between 1993 and 1995, the Constitutional Revision Task Force studied alternatives to existing methods of revising the state constitution, recommending the appointment of a permanent advisory commission to submit proposals to the state legislature. In 2002 voters rejected a proposal that called for a constitutional convention.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

When Congress debated the statehood question in the 1950s, it was assumed that Alaska would be solidly Democratic, but this expectation has not been borne out; as of 2004 there were 472,000 registered voters, of which only nearly 16% were Democratic, while 25% were Republican and 59% were unaffiliated or members of other parties.

In 1990, a member of the Alaskan Independent party, Walter J. Hickel, was elected governor. Democrat Tony Knowles won the governorship in the November 1994 election and was reelected in 1998. Two Republicans, Frank Murkowski and Ted Stevens, were reelected to the US Senate in 1998 and 2002, respectively. Murkowski was elected Alaska's governor in 2002; he appointed his daughter Lisa to the US Senate to fill his vacancy when he as-

sumed the office of governor; Lisa Murkowski then won election in the 2004 Senate race, with 48.6% of the vote to Democrat Tony Knowles 45.6%.

In 2004, Alaska's incumbent US Representative, Republican Don Young, was reelected with 71% of the vote. In presidential elections since 1968, Alaskans have voted Republican 10 consecutive times. Alaskans reelected incumbent Republican George W. Bush with 61.8% of the vote in 2004 (an increase from 59% in 2000) to Democrat John Kerry's 35.0%. The state had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election. Alaska's state legislature in 2005 consisted of 8 Democrats and 11 Republicans in the Senate, and 14 Democrats and 26 Republicans in the House. Twelve women held statewide elected office in 2003.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Alaska has 12 borough governments, which function much in the same way that county governments do in other states. Each borough has its own administrative assembly. There are also four consolidated city-borough governments: Anchorage, Juneau, Sitka, and Yakutat. Alaska is divided into 149 municipalities, ranging from the geographically small Bristol Bay (519 sq mi or 1,344 sq km) to the expansive North Slope (87,860 sq mi or 227,557 sq mi). Most municipalities were governed by elected mayors and councils, and there are more than 100 village councils. There are 53 public school districts in Alaska. The state has 14 special districts. For census purposes, Alaska is divided into 27 county equivalents.

In 1971 land claims were settled, returning 44 million acres of federal land to Alaska's native population. Through the US Bureau of Indian Affairs, native communities receive varying levels of assistance including help in setting up villages in accordance with governing laws. In 2002, there were 12 Alaska Native Regional Corporations.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 27,167 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Alaska operates under the authority of the governor and state statute; the adjutant general was designated as the state homeland security adviser.

By law, Alaska's government may contain no more than 20 administrative departments. As of 2006 departments in Alaska were: Administration; Commerce, Community, and Economic Development; Corrections; Education and Early Development; Environmental Conservation; Fish and Game; Health and Social Services; Labor and Workforce Development; Law; Military and Veterans Affairs; Natural Resources; Public Safety; Revenue; and Transportation and Public Facilities. In addition, the state has an ombudsman with limited powers to investigate citizen complaints against state agencies.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Alaska Supreme Court, consists of a chief justice and four associate justices, and hears appeals for civil matters from the 15 superior courts, whose 40 judges are organized among the four state

Alaska Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1960–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	ALASKA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1960	3	Nixon (R)	29,809	30,953
1964	3	*Johnson (D)	44,329	22,930
1968	3	*Nixon (R)	35,411	37,600
1972	3	*Nixon (R)	32,967	55,349
1976	3	Ford (R)	44,058	71,555
1980	3	*Reagan (R)	41,842	86,112
1984	3	*Reagan (R)	62,007	138,377
1988	3	*Bush (R)	72,584	119,251
1992**	3	Bush (R)	78,294	102,000
1996***	3	Dole (R)	80,380	122,746
2000	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	79,004	167,398
2004	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	111,025	190,889

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 73,481 votes.

***IND. candidate Ross Perot received 26,333 votes.

judicial districts, and for criminal matters from the three-member court of appeals. The superior court has original jurisdiction in all civil and criminal matters, and it hears appeals from the district court. The lowest court is the district court, of which there are 56 in four districts. All judges are appointed by the governor from nominations made by the Judicial Council, but are thereafter subject to voter approval. Supreme court justices serve terms of ten years, while court of appeals and superior court judges serve terms of eight years. District judges serve terms of four years.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 4,554 prisoners were held in Alaska's state and federal prisons, an increase from 4,527 of 0.6% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 397 inmates were female, up from 392 or 1.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Alaska had an incarceration rate of 398 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Alaska had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 634.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 4,159 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 22,172 reported incidents or 3,382.8 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Alaska does not have a death penalty.

In 2003, Alaska spent \$207,159,311 on homeland security, an average of \$296 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

A huge buildup of military personnel occurred after World War II (1939–45), as the Cold War with the Soviet Union led the United States to establish the Distant Early Warning (DEW) System, Ballistic Missile Early Warning System, and Joint Surveillance System in the area. Later years saw a cutback in personnel, however, from a high of 40,214 in 1962 to 15,906 in 2002, 9,136 of them in the Air Force. Anchorage is the home of both the largest Army base, Fort Richardson (Anchorage), and the largest Air Force base, Elmendorf (Anchorage). These bases had the most active-duty military personnel and civilian personnel in the state, 7,140 and 1,133, respectively. In the Aleutians are several Navy facilities and the Shemya Air Force Base. In 2004, there were 21,002 active duty military personnel, 1,513 in the National Guard, and 3,527 civilian personnel. Alaska firms received defense contracts worth \$1.2 billion in 2004. In that same year, the Defense Department payroll was about \$1.2 billion, including retired military pay.

There were 67,299 veterans of US military service in Alaska as of 2003, of whom 3,475 served in World War II; 3,612 in the Korean conflict; 23,948 during the Vietnam era; and 15,678 during 1990–2000 (in the Gulf War). Expenditures on veterans amounted to \$230 million in 2004.

The Alaska State Troopers provide police protection throughout the state, except in the larger cities, where municipal police forces have jurisdiction. As of 31 October 2004, the Alaska State Troopers employed 353 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The earliest immigrants to North America, more than 10,000 years ago, likely came to Alaska via a land bridge across what is now the Bering Strait. The Russian fur traders who arrived during the

1700s found Aleuts, Eskimos, and American Indians already established there. Despite more than a century of Russian sovereignty over the area, however, few Russians came, and those that did returned to the mother country with the purchase of Alaska by the United States in 1867. Virtually all other migration to Alaska has been from the continental US—first during the gold rush of the late 19th century and most recently during the oil boom of the 1970s. Between 1970 and 1983, Alaska's net gain from migration was 78,000, but Alaska suffered net losses in domestic migration of over 37,500 from 1985 to 1990, and 21,000 from 1990 and 1998.

Mobility is a way of life in Alaska. Urbanization increased with migration during the 1980s; the urban population increased from 64.5% of the total population in 1980 to 67.5% in 1990. In the 1990s, migration added 17,000 people to the state. In 1998, Alaska admitted 1,008 immigrants. Between 1995 and 1998, the population increased 2.1%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 5,800 and net internal migration was -4,619, for a net gain of 1,181 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Alaska participates with Washington, Oregon, and California in the Pacific States Marine Fisheries Commission. Alaska also belongs to other Western regional agreements covering energy, corrections, radioactive waste, and education. The most important federal-state effort, the Joint Federal-State Land Use Planning Commission, was involved with the Alaska lands controversy throughout the 1970s. The Interstate Oil and Gas Compact was enacted in 1980. In 1990, Alaska also joined the Western States/British Columbia Oil Spill Tax Force. Federal grants to Alaska amounted to \$2.3 billion in fiscal year 2001; following a national trend, they declined markedly thereafter, to \$1.634 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$1.751 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.849 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

When Alaska gained statehood in 1959, its economy was almost totally dependent on the US government. Fisheries, limited mining (mostly gold and gravel), and some lumber production made up the balance. That all changed with development of the petroleum industry during the 1970s. Construction of the Trans-Alaska Pipeline brought a massive infusion of money and people into the state. Construction, trade, and services boomed—only to decline when the pipeline was completed.

One area of growth in the 1980s and early 1990s was the Alaska groundfish industry. Commercial fishing is one of the bulwarks of the Alaska economy. The seafood industry had wholesale values of more than \$3 billion in 1990, and Alaska's fishery accounts for 50% of the total annual US catch. The volume of Alaska groundfish catches rose from 69 million lb (31.3 million kg) in 1980 to 4.8 billion lb (2.2 billion kg) in 1990. Employment in seafood harvesting grew from 45,000 in 1980 to 54,000 in 1991, although the boom has slowed somewhat since.

The tourism industry attracted over 1.1 million visitors in 2000, and contrary to national trends, continued to expand into 2002. The number of inbound cruise ship visitors, for example, increased 14% from summer 2001 to summer 2002. As of 2005, tourism had become the state's second-largest private-sector employer, gener-

ating \$640 million in payroll and 30,700 jobs. Overall, tourism brings in more than \$1 billion annually to the state. Other important industries include timber, mining (including gold, coal, silver, and zinc), and agriculture. From 1997 to 2002, increased environmental regulations and foreign competition from, particularly, Chile and Norway contributed to a decline in employment in the traditional seafood-packing industry of more than 15%. On the other hand, employment in both state and local government and in the hotels and lodging industry increased by almost 15%. Employment in the oil and gas extraction sector increased by about 5% from 1997 to 2002, while employment with the federal government decreased almost 3%. In 2006, rising oil prices, reflecting political instability among suppliers such as Nigeria, Iraq, and possibly Iran, were expected to benefit the Alaskan economy.

In 2004, Alaska's gross state product (GSP) was \$34.023 billion, of which the mining sector (including oil extraction) accounted for \$7.328 billion or 21.5% of GSP, followed by real estate, rental and leasing at \$3.209 billion, or 9% of GSP. The manufacturing sector contributed \$725 million, or just over 2% of GSP in 2004. As in other states, small business plays an important role in the state's economy. In 2004, the state had an estimated 63,497 small businesses. Of the 16,975 firms that year with employees, 16,443 or 96.9% were considered small businesses. However, the creation of new businesses fell 24.3% from 2003 to 2004. Business terminations in 2004 totaled 2,650, up 5.7% from 2003, although business bankruptcies in 2004 fell 47.1% (to 64) that year. In 2005, Alaska had the lowest personal bankruptcy rate in the United States. The combined Chapter 7 and Chapter 13 bankruptcy rate in the state stood at 216 filings per 100,000 people.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Alaska had a gross state product (GSP) of \$40 billion, which accounted for 0.3% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 46 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Alaska had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$34,000. This ranked 17th in the United States and was 103% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.1%. Alaska had a total personal income (TPI) of \$22,363,425,000, which ranked 48th in the United States and reflected an increase of 4.4% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.0%. Earnings of persons employed in Alaska increased from \$17,903,311,000 in 2003 to \$19,099,127,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.7%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$54,627, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.2% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Alaska numbered 342,300, with approximately 24,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 7%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same

period placed nonfarm employment at 313,800. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Alaska was 11.5% in July 1986. The historical low was 5.9% in September 1999. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.1% of the labor force was employed in construction; 20.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.7% in financial activities; 7.5% in professional and business services; 11.4% in education and health services; 9.9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 26% in government. Data for manufacturing was unavailable.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 63,000 of Alaska's 275,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 22.8% of those so employed, up from 20.1% in 2004, above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 66,000 workers (24.1%) in Alaska were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Alaska is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law. It is also one out of only five states with a union membership rate of over 20%.

As of 1 March 2006, Alaska had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$7.15 per hour. In 2004, women accounted for 46% of the employed civilian labor force.

The International Brotherhood of Teamsters is especially strong in the state, covering a range of workers from truck drivers to school administrators.

23 AGRICULTURE

A short but intense growing season provides good potential for Alaska commercial agriculture, although the expense of getting agricultural products to market is a limiting factor. International export opportunities are being developed. Alaska's 620 farms covered 900,000 acres (364,000 hectares) in 2004. Commodities including hay, potatoes, lettuce, cabbage, carrots, beef, pork, dairy products, and greenhouse and nursery items are commonly produced. In 2004, hay production was 28,000 tons, valued at \$6,440,000; potatoes, 177,000 hundredweight (8 million kg), \$3,469,000; and barley for grain, 145,000 tons, \$500,000. The leading farming regions of Alaska are the Matanuska Valley, northeast of Anchorage, and Delta Junction, north of Fairbanks.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Dairy and livestock products account for about 55% of Alaska's agricultural receipts. In 2003, an estimated 16.7 million lb (7.6 million kg) of milk were produced. Milk cows numbered 1,300 in 2003. Meat and poultry production is negligible by national standards.

25 FISHING

In 2005 Alaska was the leading commercial fishing state in terms of volume and value. The total catch was over 5.3 billion lb (2.4 billion kg), valued at over \$1.711 billion. Landings at the port of Dutch Harbor–Unalaska had the highest volume of all US domestic ports (886.4 million lb/402.9 million kg) and the second highest catch in terms of value (\$155 million). The Kodiak port ranked

fourth in the nation in volume (312.6 million lb/142 million kg) and fourth in value (\$91 million).

According to 2004 figures, the salmon catch, the staple of the industry, amounted to 697.8 million lb (317.1 million kg), valued at \$225.3 million and representing 94% of total US salmon landings. The distribution of Alaska salmon landings by species that year was pink, 43%; sockeye, 36%; chum, 14%; coho, 5%; and chinook, 2%. Landings of pollock amounted to 3.4 billion lb (1.5 billion kg), and the Pacific cod catch came to about 586.7 million lb (266.7 million kg). The Alaskan catch of sea herring (at 70.8 million lb/32.2 million kg) accounted for 94% of the Pacific coast catch. Alaska had the nation's third largest catch of dungeness crab, a major export item for the state.

As of 2003, Alaska had 306 processing and wholesale plants with an average of 8,077 employees. In 2002, the commercial fishing fleet had 14,035 boats and vessels.

Anglers are also attracted by Alaska's abundant stocks of salmon and trout. There were about 468,735 sport anglers licensed in Alaska in 2004.

26 FORESTRY

In 2004, Alaska's forested area was 127,380,000 acres (51,550,000 hectares), far more than any other state. However, the area of harvestable timberland was only 11,865,000 acres (4,801,000 hectares). Some 35,875,000 acres (14,519,000 hectares) of forestland were privately held in 2004. Alaska contains the nation's largest national forests, Tongass in the southeast (17.4 million acres—7 million hectares) and Chugach along the Gulf Coast (6.9 million acres—2.8 million hectares).

Timber companies harvest logs from the two national forests, with the majority from the Tongass National Forest. The timber is made available for harvest through a competitive bidding process. Timber removals in 2003 totaled 140 million cu ft.

27 MINING

Preliminary data from the US Geological Survey put the value of Alaska's nonfuel mineral production in 2004 at an estimated \$1.32 billion, up about 22% over 2003 and up almost 2% from 2002 to 2003. Metallic minerals accounted for 94% of Alaska's total nonfuel mineral production in 2004, most of it the result of zinc, lead, and silver production at the Red Dog Mine in the northwestern part of the state and the Greens Creek Mine in southeastern Alaska (southwest of Juneau), and of gold production at the Fort Knox Mine near Fairbanks and the Greens Creek Mine. Overall, Alaska retained its 12th ranked position among the 50 states in total nonfuel mineral output, accounting for 3% of US production.

According to preliminary figures for 2004, Alaska produced 2.8 million metric tons of crushed stone, valued at \$16.5 million, and 10.2 million metric tons of sand and gravel, valued at \$58 million. Gold and silver production in 2002 (the latest year for which data was available) totaled 16,900 kg and 559,000 kg, respectively, and was valued at \$170 million and \$83.1 million, respectively.

Although reported placer gold production was limited, it did reflect an increase in output in 2004 of up to 873 kg. In 2003, reported production totaled 734 kg.

The Alaska Department of Natural Resources (DNR) presents reclamation awards to mining firms for exemplary work in return-

ing disturbed ground to useful condition as required by state law. In 2004, the award was given to two employees from Taiga Mining Co for work on Bear Creek and its Dry and Ida creek tributaries.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Alaska had 73 electrical power service providers, of which 34 were publicly owned, 21 were investor owned and 18 were cooperatives. As of that same year, there were 290,842 retail customers. Of that total, over 207,630 received their power from cooperatives. Publicly owned service providers accounted for 56,553 customers, while investor owned providers had 26,659 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electric-generating plants in 2003 stood at 1.896 million kW, with total production that same year at 6.388 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 89.5% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 3.354 billion kWh (52.9%), came from natural gas-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 1.582 billion kWh (25%). Petroleum fueled plants accounted for 13.4% of all power produced, while coal accounted for 8.7%. Alaska had no nuclear power plants.

As of 2004, Alaska had proven crude oil reserves of 4,327 million barrels, or 20% of all US reserves, while output that same year averaged 908,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, Alaska that year ranked third (second excluding federal offshore) in reserves and in output among the 31 producing states. Alaska had 1,924 producing oil wells and accounted for 17% of all US production. The Trans-Alaska Pipeline runs 789 mi (1,270 km) from the North Slope oil fields to the port of Valdez on the southern coast. Most of Alaska's energy products are produced and refined locally. As of 2005, the state's six refineries had a combined crude distillation capacity of about 374,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Alaska had 224 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 471.899 billion cu ft (13.4 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 8,407 billion cu ft (238.7 billion cu m).

Alaska in 2004, had only one producing coal mine, which was a surface operation. Coal production that same year totaled 1,512,000 short tons, up from 1,081,000 short tons in 2003. The state's sole coal mine was located at Healy.

29 INDUSTRY

Alaska's manufacturing sector is primarily centered on the manufacture of food products, particularly seafood, although there is some petroleum refining, apparel manufacturing, and lumber processing.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Alaska's manufacturing sector had a total shipment value of \$50.680 million. Of that total, the manufacturing of food products accounted for \$31.039 million.

In 2004, a total of 10,262 people in Alaska were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total,

8,696 were actual production workers. In the food manufacturing industry that same year, there were 7,289 production workers, of which 6,486 were actually involved in the production process.

ASM data for 2004 showed that Alaska's manufacturing sector paid \$351.542 million in wages. Of that amount, the food-manufacturing sector accounted for \$207.230 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Alaska's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$3.6 billion from 740 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 393 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 308 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 39 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$1.6 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$1.7 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$181.7 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Alaska was listed as having 2,661 retail establishments with sales of \$7.4 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (458); food and beverage stores (384); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (302); clothing and clothing accessories stores (259); and sporting goods, hobby, book, and music stores (247). In terms of sales, general-merchandise stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$1.8 billion, followed by motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers at \$1.7 billion, and food and beverage stores at \$1.2 billion. A total of 32,984 people were employed by the retail sector in Alaska that year.

During 2005, Alaskan exporters sold \$3.5 billion of merchandise. Many of Alaska's resource products, including the salmon and crab catch, pass through the Seattle customs district. By federal law, Alaskan petroleum cannot be exported to other countries, a provision many Alaskans would like to see repealed. Around one-third of Alaska's manufactured goods were exported to other countries, with paper and food products being major items.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection in Alaska is the responsibility of the Consumer Protection Unit of the Department of Law, which falls under the Office of the Attorney General and provides consumers with information, investigates business and trade practices, and enforces statutes prohibiting unfair, false, misleading, or deceptive acts and practices.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state or federal courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the state's Attorney General cannot represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Consumer Protection Unit are located in Anchorage.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Alaska had seven insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to one state-chartered and eleven federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, Anchorage and Fairbanks each accounted for five and six financial institutions, respectively in 2004. Unlike other states, CUs play a major role in the state's financial industry. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 49.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$3.909 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining \$4.020 billion in assets held.

Alaska's state-chartered banks are under the regulatory authority of the Department of Community and Economic Development's Division of Banking, Securities, and Corporations, including the Denali State Bank and the Northrim Bank. As of 2003, approximately 18.72% of all bank assets in Alaska were held in state-chartered institutions. The state's federally chartered banks are under the regulatory authority of the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency.

As of 2004, the state's median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.88%, up from 4.86% in 2003.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 178,000 individual life insurance policies in force, with a total value of \$27.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$41.2 billion. The average coverage amount is \$156,000 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$80.5 million.

As of 2003, there were no life insurance companies based on Alaska, but seven property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled there. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance amounted to \$1.4 billion in 2004. That year, there were 2,429 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$410.8 million.

In 2004, 52% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 21% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 18% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged are 11% for single coverage and 17% for family coverage, representing one of the lowest employee contribution rates in the country. Alaska does not offer extended health benefits in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance extension program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 375,498 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$50,000 per individual and \$100,000 for all persons injured, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$937.32, which ranked as the tenth-highest average in the nation.

The insurance industry is regulated by the Department of Commerce and Economic Development's Division of Insurance.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Alaska. In 2005, there were 260 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over six publicly traded companies within the state, with over three NASDAQ companies: Alaska Communications Systems Group, Inc.; General Communications, Inc.; and Northern Bank.

The Alaska Securities Act of 1959 serves as the foundation for the regulation of the sale of securities through a triple-tiered system of registration for brokers and dealers, as well as through antifraud provisions.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Alaska's annual budget is prepared by the Division of Budget and Management within the Office of the Governor, and is submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June. Alaska's budget process is by and large timely, as is its financial reporting, with good audit results. The state depends on petroleum-based revenues. In 2006, general funds were estimated at nearly \$3.9 billion for resources and \$3.9 billion for expenditures. In 2004, federal government grants to Alaska were \$3.2 billion. In 2007, federal funding for the construction of an Alaska Region Research Vessel for studying changes in the ocean around Alaska is provided, as well as more funding for the Indian Health Service and Pacific Coastal Salmon Recovery Fund (PCSRF), for tribal efforts at habitat restoration, and funding for the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) Coastal Zone Management Program.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Alaska collected \$1,851 million in tax revenues or \$2,787 per capita, which placed it eighth among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 2.3% of the total; selective sales taxes, 10.3%; corporate income taxes, 31.8%; and other taxes 55.6%.

As of 1 January 2006, Alaska had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Wyoming, Washington, Nevada, Florida, Texas, and South Dakota. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 1.0 to 9.4% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$859,056,000, or \$1,306 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 12th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$811,688,000 of the total and the state government, \$47,368,000.

Alaska does not tax retail sales. However, Alaskan cities and boroughs may levy local sales taxes from 1% to 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. As of 2004, the tax on cigarettes is 160 cents per pack, which ranks seventh among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Alaska taxes gasoline at 8 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

Alaska—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	8,847,705	13,446.36
General revenue	6,625,657	10,069.39
Intergovernmental revenue	2,193,578	3,333.71
Taxes	1,338,707	2,034.51
General sales	—	—
Selective sales	168,392	255.91
License taxes	83,738	127.26
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	339,564	516.05
Other taxes	747,013	1,135.28
Current charges	377,517	573.73
Miscellaneous general revenue	2,715,855	4,127.44
Utility revenue	14,161	21.52
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,207,887	3,355.45
Total expenditure	8,089,240	12,293.68
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,049,706	1,595.30
Direct expenditure	7,039,534	10,698.38
Current operation	4,529,620	6,883.92
Capital outlay	886,846	1,347.79
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,165,261	1,770.91
Assistance and subsidies	206,582	313.95
Interest on debt	251,225	381.80
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,199,170	1,822.45
Total expenditure	8,089,240	12,293.68
General expenditure	6,834,832	10,387.28
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,049,706	1,595.30
Direct expenditure	5,785,126	8,791.98
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,707,847	2,595.51
Public welfare	1,471,607	2,236.48
Hospitals	23,043	35.02
Health	118,307	179.80
Highways	828,835	1,259.63
Police protection	61,681	93.74
Correction	176,642	268.45
Natural resources	247,000	375.38
Parks and recreation	9,527	14.48
Government administration	432,840	657.81
Interest on general debt	242,443	368.45
Other and unallocable	1,515,060	2,302.52
Utility expenditure	89,147	135.48
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	1,165,261	1,770.91
Debt at end of fiscal year	5,730,403	8,708.82
Cash and security holdings	45,325,821	68,884.23

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Alaska citizens received \$1.87 in federal spending, which ranks the state second-highest nationally.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Alaska Industrial Development and Export Authority (AID-EA), a public corporation of the state, provides long-term financing for capital investments and loans for most commercial and industrial activities, including manufacturing, small business, tourism, mining, commercial fishing, and other enterprises. In

1985 its mission was extended to provide financing for infrastructural projects to support private enterprise in Alaska. In 2000, economic development projects included the Gateway Alaska project, which undertook reconstruction of the Ted Stevens Anchorage International Airport and surrounding roads. Under the AIDEA's Conduit Revenue Bond Program, designed to facilitate access to the state bond market, Hope Community Resources in 2002 was able to borrow to expand its facilities for providing services for the developmentally disabled. In 1999, the Rural Development Initiative Fund, created in 1992 to help small businesses not eligible for traditional commercial finance, was transferred to the AIDEA. The AIDEA also has oversight over the Alaska Energy Authority which was created in 1976 and has responsibility for two major programs, the Alaska Rural Energy Plan and the Statewide Energy Plan. The rural population poses a challenge to economic development of the state, which the state government has begun to address by broadening the utilities infrastructure and by subsidizing energy costs. The Alaska Science and Technology Foundation (ASTF), created in 1988, has as its mission the improvement of the state economy through investments in science and technology. The state imposes no taxes on income, sales, gross receipts or inventories. It offers an investment tax credit for the development of gas-processing projects and for the mining of minerals and other natural deposits, except oil and gas.

In 2004, the Office of Economic Development (OED) was established. The OED facilitates economic development and employment opportunities, particularly in rural Alaska. The OED offers specialized assistance in the tourism, fisheries, and minerals development sectors.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 15.6 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 11.7 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 79.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 75% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 4.9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 88.1; cancer, 111.1; cerebrovascular diseases, 24.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 22.1; and diabetes, 13.4. The death rates for heart disease and diabetes represent the lowest in the nation. However, Alaska has the second-highest suicide rate (after Wyoming), with 20.5 per 100,000 residents. The state also has one of the highest rates for accidental deaths at 53.7 per 100,000. The 2002 mortality rate from HIV infection was not available. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was 8.4 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 59.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese, representing the fifth-highest percentage in the nation. As of 2004, about 24.7% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Alaska had 19 community hospitals, with about 1,500 beds. There were about 46,000 patient admissions that year and 1.4 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 800 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,952. Also in 2003, there were about 15 certified nursing facilities in the state, with 821 beds and an overall occupancy rate of

about 76.8%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 69.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the past year. Alaska had 217 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 761 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 490 dentists in the state.

About 21% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 18% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.2 million.

Alaska's Pioneer Homes, operated by the state's Department of Administration, are residential facilities for Alaskans over 65 (with at least one year of residency in the state) that offer five levels of care, from independent living to full medical care, including Alzheimer's disease units. As of 1997, a total of 600 residents were being served at six locations.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 46,000 people received unemployment benefits, with an average weekly unemployment benefit of \$194. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 55,567 persons (20,224 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$120.58 per person. That year, the total benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program totaled \$80.4 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Alaska's TANF program is called the Alaska Temporary Assistance Program (ATAP). In 2004, the state program had 14,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$59 million in 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 63,440 Alaskans. This number included 37,150 retired workers, 5,260 widows and widowers, 9,380 disabled workers, 2,920 spouses, and 8,730 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 9.6% of the total state population and 92.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$920; widows and widowers, \$840; disabled workers, \$868; and spouses, \$419. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$418 per month; children of deceased workers, \$605; and children of disabled workers, \$231. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 10,781 Alaska residents, averaging \$387 a month. About \$4.3 million of state-administered supplemental payments was distributed to 14,980 residents.

In 1979, Alaska became the first state to withdraw its government workers from the Social Security system.

40 HOUSING

Despite the severe winters, housing designs in Alaska do not differ notably from those in other states. Builders do usually provide thicker insulation in walls and ceilings, but the high costs of construction have not encouraged more energy-efficient adaptation to the environment. In 1980, the state legislature passed several measures to encourage energy conservation in housing and in

public buildings. In native villages, traditional dwellings like the half-buried huts of the Aleuts and others have long since given way to conventional, low-standard housing. In point of fact, Alaska's Eskimos never built snow houses, as did those of Canada; in the Eskimo language, the word *igloo* refers to any dwelling.

In 2004, there were an estimated 271,533 housing units, of which 228,358 were occupied. Alaska had the second-smallest housing stock in the nation, (above Wyoming). The same year, about 65.5% of all occupied units were owner-occupied. About 61% of all units were single-family, detached dwellings. It was estimated that about 5,542 units statewide were without telephone service, while 6,017 lacked complete plumbing facilities and 5,489 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.78 members.

From 1970 to 1978, 43,009 building permits were issued, as construction boomed during the years of pipeline building. In 2004, the state authorized 3,100 new privately owned housing units. The median home value was \$179,304. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,421, while the median monthly rental cost was \$808. In September 2005, the state was awarded grants of \$150,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$2.5 million in community development block grants.

The Alaska State Housing Authority acts as an agent for federal and local governments in securing financial aid for construction and management of low-rent and moderate-cost homes.

4¹ EDUCATION

As of 2004, 90.2% of the population 25 years or older had completed high school. Some 25.5% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

Enrollment in public schools was 134,000 in the fall of 2002. Of these, 94,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 40,000 attended high school. Approximately 58.9% of the students were white, 4.7% were black, 3.9% were Hispanic, 6.5% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 26% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 134,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 145,000 by fall 2014, a 7.7% increase during the period 2002–14. There were 6,177 students enrolled in 75 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1.6 billion or \$10,114 per student, the eighth-highest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Alaska scored 279 out of 500 in mathematics, compared with the national average of 278.

The University of Alaska is the state's leading higher-educational institution. The main campus, established in 1917, is at Fairbanks; satellite campuses are located in Anchorage and Juneau. Private institutions include Sheldon Jackson College, Alaska Bible College (a theological seminary), and Alaska Pacific University. The University of Alaska's Rural Education Division has a network of education centers. As of fall 2002, there were 29,546 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised

24.3% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Alaska had eight degree-granting institutions.

4² ARTS

The Alaska Council on the Arts (ASCA), founded in 1966, sponsors tours by performing artists, supports artists' residencies in the schools, aids local arts projects, and purchases the works of living Alaskans for display in state buildings. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded seven grants totaling \$1,077,348 to Alaska organizations. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Arts awarded 11 grants totaling \$698,500 to Alaska arts organizations. Alaska is also a member state of the regional Western States Arts Federation (WESTAF).

Symphony orchestras are located in Fairbanks, Juneau, and Anchorage. The Anchorage Symphony Orchestra was founded in 1945. Anchorage also has a civic opera, incorporated in 1962. The annual Alaska Folk Festival in Juneau (est. 1975) held its 32nd festival in 2006. It is one of the largest cultural/musical festivals in the state, drawing over 10,000 people each year by providing such activities as folk music performances, dance workshops, and family concerts.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Alaska had 86 public library systems, with a total of 103 libraries, of which 17 were branches. The public systems had a combined book and serial publications stock of 2,264,000 volumes and a total circulation of 3,628,000 that same year. The system also had 87,000 audio and 101,000 video items, 3,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and two bookmobiles. Facilities were located in seven boroughs and in most larger towns. Anchorage had the largest public library system, with five branches and 554,686 volumes in 1998. Also notable are the State Library in Juneau and the library of the University of Alaska at Fairbanks (with 954,510 and 60,000 volumes, respectively). Total operating income for the public library system in 2001 was \$23,681,000; including \$787,000 in state grants.

Alaska had 44 museums in 2000. The Alaska State Museum in Juneau offers an impressive collection of native crafts and Alaskan artifacts. Sitka National Historical Park features Indian and Russian items, and the nearby Museum of Sheldon Jackson College holds important native collections. Noteworthy historical and archaeological sites include the Totem Heritage Center in Ketchikan. Anchorage has the Anchorage Museum of History and Art and the Alaska Zoo.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

Considering the vast distances traveled and the number of small, scattered communities, the US mail is a bargain for Alaskans. In 2004, 95.6% of the state's residences had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 307,323 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 72.7% of Alaska households had a computer and 67.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 95,763 high-speed lines in Alaska (80,556 residential and 5,207 for

business). A total of 13,558 Internet domain names had been registered in Alaska as of 2000.

There were 41 major radio stations (13 AM, 28 FM) in 2005, along with 15 television stations. Prime Cable of Alaska is the state's major cable carrier.

45 PRESS

Alaska's most widely read newspaper, among its seven dailies and five Sunday papers, is the *Anchorage Daily News*. Below are the leading newspapers with their circulations.

<i>Anchorage Daily News</i>	(m) 76,231	(S) 82,179
<i>Fairbanks Daily News-Miner</i>	(m) 16,127	(S) 21,557

There are about 30 publishers in Alaska, including the University of Alaska Press, Denali Press, Alaska Geographic, Rainforest Publishers, and Inside Passage Press. *Alaska Business Monthly*, *Alaska* magazine, and *Alaska Outdoors* are popular statewide magazines.

In 2005, there were 18 weekly publications in Alaska, 11 paid weeklies, 2 free weeklies, and 5 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (45,634) and free weeklies (37,949) is 83,583.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,030 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 708 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. The largest statewide organization, the Alaska Federation of Natives, with headquarters in Anchorage, represents the state's Eskimos, Aleuts, and American Indians. The Maniilaq Association, based in Kotzebue, is another tribal organization serving native Eskimos. Alutiiq Heritage Foundation is based in Kodiak. Ketchikan Indian Community is a social services organization for Alaskan natives.

The Alaska Oil and Gas Association is one of several local professional and business associations. Environmental groups include the Alaska Conservation Alliance, the Alaska Conservation Foundation, the Alaska Geographic Society, and the Alaska Wildlife Alliance. Arts and culture are represented in part by the Alaska Historical Society. The International Association for Spiritual Consciousness, which promotes such practices as meditation and yoga, is based in Anchorage.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

With thousands of miles of unspoiled scenery and hundreds of mountains and lakes, Alaska has vast tourist potential. In fact, tourism has become the second-largest private-sector employer in the state. Alaska's tourism industry is estimated at over \$1 billion per year. The industry, directly and indirectly, generates an annual average of 23,000 jobs and \$640 million in payroll (not including employment on cruise ships). In 2004, some 52,000 visitors came from overseas. Alaska had the highest rate of growth in travel and tourism, a rise of 4.3%.

The Far North region of Alaska is home to many native Inuit (Eskimo) groups. The city of Nome is home to the famous Iditarod Trail Sled Dog Race. The Southwest region (Kodiak) exhibits the Russian influence, as seen in its Orthodox churches. Popular cities

visited by tourists are, Juneau, Fairbanks, Ketchikan, and Skagway. Tourists can travel by rail to the interior regions. There are many popular gold-mining sites, nature preserves, historic towns dating from the days of the gold rush, and glaciers.

Cruise travel along the Gulf of Alaska is one of the fastest growing sectors in the tourist trade. Sportfishing and outdoor adventure opportunities have also become popular. Millions of visitors travel to the state's national parks, preserves, historical parks, and monuments, which totaled 52.9 million acres (21.7 million hectares) in 1999. Denali State Park is home to Mt. McKinley, the highest peak in North America. Another popular tourist destination is Glacier Bay National Monument.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Alaska, but there is a minor league hockey team in Anchorage. In addition, college hockey teams, such as the University of Alaska-Fairbanks, are involved at the National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I level. Sports in Alaska generally revolve around the outdoors, including skiing, fishing, hiking, mountain biking, and camping. Perhaps the biggest sporting event in the state is the Iditarod Trail Sled Dog Race, covering 1,159 mi (1,865 km) from Anchorage to Nome. The race is held in March, and both men and women compete. With a \$50,000 purse, it is the most lucrative sled dog race in the world.

Other annual sporting events include the Great Alaska Shoot-out, in which college basketball teams from around the country compete in Anchorage in November, and the World Eskimo-Indian Olympics in Fairbanks in July.

49 FAMOUS ALASKANS

Alaska's best-known federal officeholder was Ernest Gruening (b.New York, 1887-1974), a territorial governor from 1939 to 1953 and US senator from 1959 to 1969. Alaska's other original US senator was E. L. "Bob" Bartlett (1904-68). Walter Hickel (b.Kansas, 1919), the first Alaskan to serve in the US cabinet, left the governorship in 1969 to become secretary of the interior. Among historical figures, Vitus Bering (b.Denmark, 1680-1741), a seaman in Russian service who commanded the discovery expedition in 1741, and Aleksandr Baranov (b.Russia, 1746-1819), the first governor of Russian America, are outstanding. Secretary of State William H. Seward (b.New York, 1801-72), who was instrumental in the 1867 purchase of Alaska, ranks as the state's "founding father," although he never visited the region.

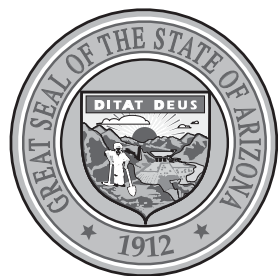
Sheldon Jackson (b.New York, 1834-1909), a Presbyterian missionary, introduced the reindeer to the region and founded Alaska's first college in Sitka. Carl Ben Eielson (1897-1929), a famed bush pilot, is a folk hero. Benny Benson (1913-72), born at Chignik, designed the state flag at the age of 13.

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ARIZONA

State of Arizona



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Probably from the Pima or Papago Indian word *arizonac*, meaning “place of small springs.” **NICKNAME:** The Grand Canyon State. **CAPITAL:** Phoenix. **ENTERED UNION:** 14 February 1912 (48th). **SONG:** “Arizona;” “Arizona March Song.” **MOTTO:** *Ditat Deus* (God enriches). **FLAG:** A copper-colored five-pointed star symbolic of the state’s copper resources rises from a blue field; six yellow and seven red segments radiating from the star cover the upper half. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Depicted on a shield are symbols of the state’s economy and natural resources, including mountains, a rising sun, and a dam and reservoir in the background; irrigated farms and orchards in the middle distance; a quartz mill, a miner, and cattle in the foreground; and the state motto. The words “Great Seal of the State of Arizona 1912” surround the shield. **BIRD:** Cactus wren. **FLOWER:** Blossom of the saguaro cactus. **TREE:** Palo verde. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Martin Luther King Jr./Civil Rights Day, 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln/Washington/Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT. Arizona does not observe daylight savings time.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the Rocky Mountains region of the southwestern United States, Arizona ranks sixth in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Arizona is 114,000 sq mi (295,260 sq km), of which land takes up 113,508 sq mi (293,986 sq km) and inland water 492 sq mi (1,274 sq km). Arizona extends about 340 mi (547 km) E–W; the state’s maximum N–S extension is 395 mi (636 km).

Arizona is bordered on the N by Utah and on the E by New Mexico (with the two borders joined at Four Corners, the only point in the United States common to four states); on the S by the Mexican state of Sonora; and on the W by the Mexican state of Baja California Norte, California, and Nevada (with most of the line formed by the Colorado River). The total boundary length of Arizona is 1,478 mi (2,379 km). The state’s geographic center is in Yavapai County, 55 mi (89 km) ESE of Prescott.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Arizona is a state of extraordinary topographic diversity and beauty. The Colorado Plateau, which covers two-fifths of the state in the north, is an arid upland region characterized by deep canyons, notably the Grand Canyon, a vast gorge more than 200 mi (320 km) long, up to 18 mi (29 km) wide, and more than 1 mi (1.6 km) deep. Also within this region are the Painted Desert and Petrified Forest, as well as Humphreys Peak, the highest point in the state, at 12,633 ft (3,853 m). The mean elevation of the state is approximately 4,100 ft (1,251 m).

The Mogollon Rim separates the northern plateau from a central region of alternating basins and ranges with a general northwest–southeast direction. Ranges in the Mexican Highlands in the southeast include the Chiricahua, Dos Cabezas, and Pinaleno mountains. The Sonora Desert, in the southwest, contains the lowest point in the state, 70 ft (21 m) above sea level, on the Colorado River near Yuma.

The Colorado is the state’s major river, flowing southwest from Glen Canyon Dam on the Utah border through the Grand Canyon and westward to Hoover Dam, then turning south to form the border with Nevada and California. Tributaries of the Colorado include the Little Colorado and Gila rivers. Arizona has few natural lakes, but there are several large artificial lakes formed by dams for flood control, irrigation, and power development. These include Lake Mead (shared with Nevada), formed by Hoover Dam; Lake Powell (shared with Utah); Lake Mohave and Lake Havasu (shared with California), formed by David Dam and Parker Dam, respectively; Roosevelt Lake, formed by Theodore Roosevelt Dam; and the San Carlos Lake, created by Coolidge Dam.

³ CLIMATE

Arizona has a dry climate, with little rainfall. Temperatures vary greatly from place to place, season to season, and day to night. Average daily temperatures at Yuma, in the southwestern desert range from 48° to 69°F (8° to 20°C) in January, and from 81° to 107°F (27° to 41°C) in July. At Flagstaff, in the interior uplands, average daily January temperatures range from 15° to 42°F (-9° to 5°C), and average daily July temperatures range from 50° to 82°F (10° to 27°C). The maximum recorded temperature was 128°F (53°C), registered at Lake Havasu City on 29 June 1994; the minimum, -40°F (-40°C), was set at Hawley Lake on 7 January 1971.

The highest elevations of the state, running diagonally from the southeast to the northwest, receive between 25 and 30 in (63–76 cm) of precipitation a year, and the rest, for the most part, between 7 and 20 in (18–51 cm). Average annual precipitation at Phoenix is about 7.7 in (19 cm). The driest area is the extreme southwest, which receives less than 3 in (8 cm) a year. Snow, sometimes as much as 100 in (254 cm), falls on the highest peaks each winter but is rare in the southern and western lowlands.

The greatest amount of sunshine is registered in the southwest, with the proportion decreasing progressively toward the north-

east; overall, the state receives more than 80% of possible sunshine, among the highest in the United States, and Phoenix's 86% is higher than that of any other major US city.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Generally categorized as desert, Arizona's terrain also includes mesa and mountains; consequently, the state has a wide diversity of vegetation. The desert is known for many varieties of cacti, from the saguaro, whose blossom is the state flower, to the cholla and widely utilized yucca. Desert flowers include the night-blooming cereus; among medicinal desert flora is the jojoba, also harvested for its oil-bearing seeds. Below the tree line (about 12,000 ft, or 3,658 m) the mountains are well timbered with varieties of spruce, fir, juniper, ponderosa pine, oak, and piñon. Rare plants, some of them endangered or threatened, include various cacti of commercial or souvenir value.

Arizona's fauna range from desert species of lizards and snakes to the deer, elk, and antelope of the northern highlands. Mountain lion, jaguar, coyote, and black and brown bears are found in the state, along with the badger, black-tailed jackrabbit, and gray fox. Small mammals include various cottontails, mice, and squirrels; prairie dog towns dot the northern regions. Rattlesnakes are abundant, and the desert is rife with reptiles such as the collared lizard and chuckwalla. Native birds include the thick-billed parrot, white pelican, and cactus wren (the state bird).

In April 2006, a total of 53 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 35 animals (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 18 plant species. Arizona counts the desert tortoise and lesser long-nosed bat among its threatened wildlife. Officially listed as endangered or threatened were the southern bald eagle, masked bobwhite (quail), Sonoran pronghorn, ocelot, jaguar, black-footed ferret, four species of chub, two species of gray wolf, woundfin, Apache trout, Gila topminnow, Gila trout, and southwestern willow flycatcher.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Aside from Phoenix, whose air quality is poorer than that of most other US cities, Arizona has long been noted for its clear air, open lands, and beautiful forests. The main environmental concern of the state is to protect these resources in the face of growing population, tourism, and industry.

State agencies with responsibility for the environment include the State Land Department, which oversees natural resource conservation and land management; the Game and Fish Commission, which administers state wildlife laws; the Department of Health Services, which supervises sewage disposal, water treatment, hazardous and solid waste treatment, and air pollution prevention programs; and the Department of Water Resources, formed in 1980, which is concerned with the development, management, use, and conservation of water. The Department of Water Resources created five zones to monitor water use by about 80% of the population (using about 75% of the state's water). The Rural Arizona Watershed Alliance, representing the remaining 20% of its population who reside in the rural areas making up 85% of Arizona's land mass, has been funded by the legislature since 1999/2000 to undertake statewide planning for water resource use and allocation. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state

included \$9.4 million for safe drinking water projects and a \$7.3 million grant for water pollution control projects.

Legislation enacted in 1980 attempts to apportion water use among cities, mining, and agriculture, the last of which, through irrigation, accounts for the largest share of the state's annual water consumption. Less than 1% of Arizona's land is wetlands. In 2003, 48.2 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state. In 2003, the US EPA database listed 167 hazardous waste sites in Arizona, nine of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Tucson International Airport area. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$4.8 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state.

6 POPULATION

The state ranked 17th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 5,939,292 in 2005, an increase of 15.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Arizona's population grew from 3,665,228 to 5,130,632, the fifth-largest increase and second-largest percentage gain (40%) among the 50 states. The population is projected to reach 7.4 million by 2015 and 9.5 million by 2025.

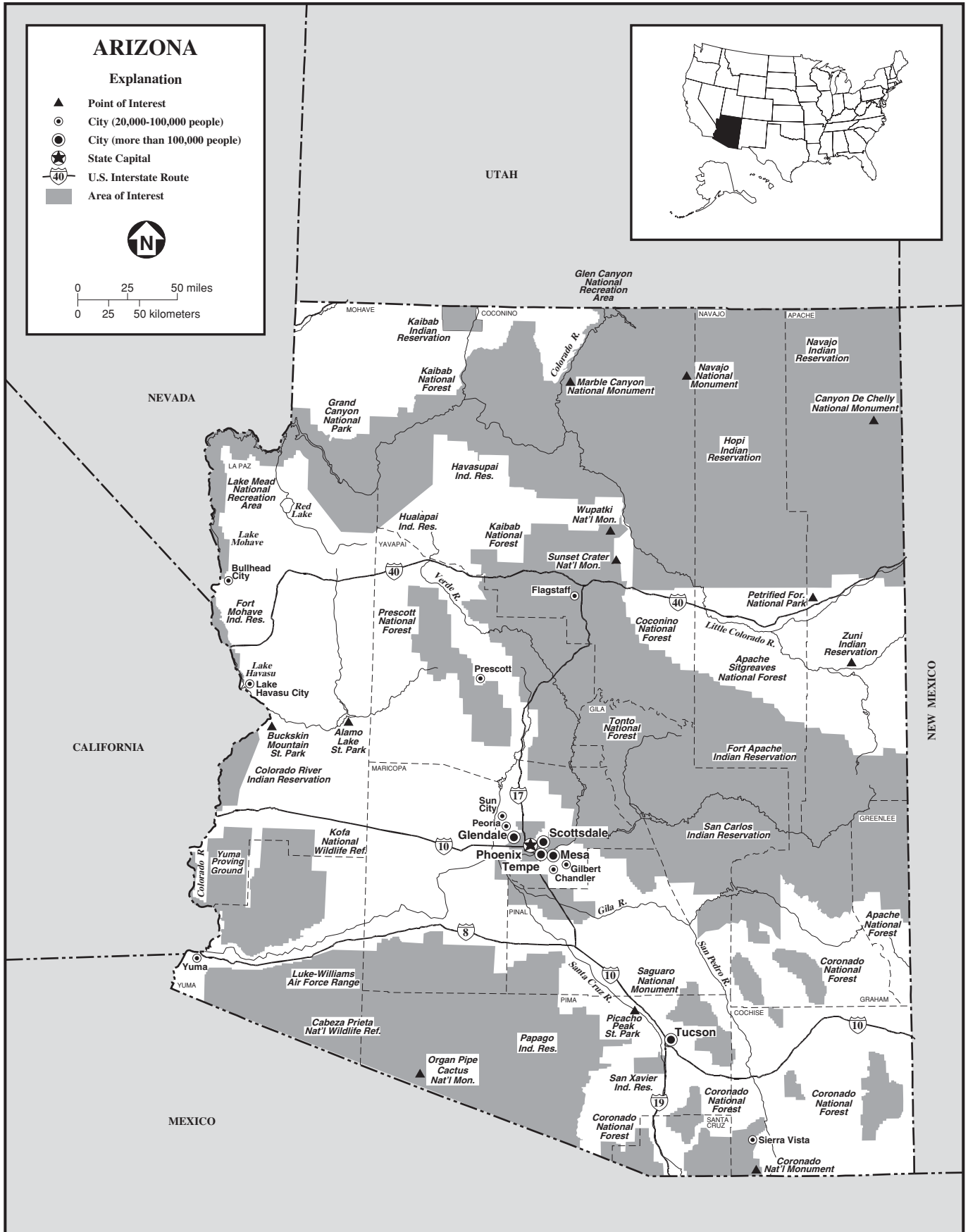
Population density was 50.6 persons per sq mi in 2004. The median age was 34.1. Arizonans who were 65 years of age or older accounted for 12.7% of the population in 2004. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 26.9%.

Three out of four Arizonans live in urban areas. The largest metropolitan area is Phoenix-Mesa-Scottsdale, with a 2004 estimated population of 3,715,360, and Tucson, with an estimated 907,059. The largest cities proper are Phoenix, with a 2004 estimated population of 1,418,041; Tucson, 512,023; Mesa, 437,454; Glendale, 235,591; and Chandler, 223,991. More than half the state's population resides in Maricopa County, which includes every leading city except Tucson. Phoenix was the nation's sixth-largest city in 2004.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Arizona has by far the nation's greatest expanse of American Indian lands: the state's 22 reservations have a combined area of 19.1 million acres (7.7 million hectares), 26% of the total state area. In 2000, Arizona had the nation's third-highest American Indian population, 255,879, or 5% of the state total population. The 5% figure was unchanged in 2004.

The largest single American Indian nation, the Navaho, with a population of 104,565 in 2000, is located primarily in the northeastern part of the state. The Navaho reservation, covering 14,221 sq mi (36,832 sq km) within Arizona, extends into Utah and New Mexico and comprises desert, mesa, and mountain terrain. Herders by tradition, the people are also famous for their crafts. The reservation's total American Indian population in 2000 was 173,631, up 21% from 143,405 in 1990. Especially since 1965, the Navaho have been active in economic development; reservation resources in uranium and coal have been leased to outside corporations, and loans from the US Department of Commerce have made possible roads, telephones, and other improvements. There are at least 12 and perhaps 17 other tribes (depending on definition). After the Navaho, the leading tribes are the Papago in the south, Apache in the east, and Hopi in the northeast. The Hopi reservation had a population of 6,946 in 2000.



The southern part of Arizona has most of the state's largest ethnic majority, a Hispanic and Latino population estimated at 1,295,617 in 2000, or 25.3% of the total population (up from the 1990 figure of 668,000, or 18% of the population). In 2004, the percentage of the population reporting Hispanic or Latino origin had risen to 28% of the total population. There are some old, long-settled Spanish villages, but the bulk of Hispanics (1,065,578) are of Mexican origin. Raul Castro, a Mexican-American, served as governor in 1975–77. There were an estimated 158,873 blacks as of 2000. In 2004, 3.5% of the population was black. Filipinos, Chinese, Japanese, and other Asians made up 1.8% of the population in 2000; by 2004, that figure had risen to 2.1% of the total population. In 2004, 1.5% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

With the possible exception of the Navaho word *hogan* (earth-and-timber dwelling), the linguistic influence of Arizona's Papago, Pima, Apache, Navaho, and Hopi tribes is almost totally limited to some place-names: Arizona itself, Yuma, Havasu, Tucson, and Oraibi. American Indian loan-words spreading from Arizona derive from the Nahuatl speech of the Mexican Aztecs—for example, *coyote*, *chili*, *mesquite*, and *tamale*. Spanish, dominant in some sections, has provided English *mustang*, *ranch*, *stampede*, *rodeo*, *marijuana*, *bonanza*, *canyon*, *mesa*, *patio*, and *fiesta*.

English in the state represents a blend of North Midland and South Midland dialects without clear regional differences, although new meanings developed in the north and east for *meadow* and in the southern strip for *swale* as terms for flat mountain valleys. The recent population surge from eastern states has produced an urban blend with a strong northern flavor. In 2000, 3,523,487 Arizonans—74.1% of all residents five years old and older—spoke only English at home, a decrease from the 79.2% reported in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	4,752,724	100.0
Speak only English	3,523,487	74.1
Speak a language other than English	1,229,237	25.9
Speak a language other than English	1,229,237	25.9
Spanish or Spanish Creole	927,395	19.5
Navajo	89,951	1.9
Other Native North American languages	30,109	0.6
German	25,103	0.5
Chinese	17,111	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	15,663	0.3
Tagalog	10,049	0.2
Vietnamese	9,999	0.2
Italian	8,992	0.2
Korean	7,689	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

The first religions of Arizona were the sacred beliefs and practices of the American Indians. Catholic missionaries began converting Arizona Indians (Franciscans among the Hopi, and Jesuits among the Pima) to the Christian faith in the late 17th century. By the late 18th century, the Franciscans were the main missionary force, and

the Roman Catholic Church was firmly established. In 2004, the state had 906,692 Catholics in 161 parishes.

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons) constitutes the second-largest Christian denomination, with a statewide membership of 346,677 in 701 congregations in 2006, up from 251,974 adherents in 643 congregations in 2000. Mormons were among the state's earliest Anglo settlers. Other major Christian denominations include the Southern Baptist Convention, which had 138,516 statewide adherents in 2000 and reported 3,155 newly baptized members in 2002. The Assemblies of God reported 82,802 members in 2000, while the United Methodist Church had 53,232. Also in 2000, Arizona's estimated Jewish population was 81,675. There were about 11,857 Muslims. There were also about 25 Buddhist and 9 Hindu congregations. About 60% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

The city of Sedona has become known for its community of believers in New Age religious movements.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Until the last decade of the 19th century, the principal reason for the development of transportation in Arizona was to open routes to California. The most famous early road was El Camino de Diablo (The Devil's Highway), opened by the missionary Eusebio Kino in 1699. The first wagon road across Arizona was the Gila Trail (Cooke's Wagon Road), opened in 1846 as a southern route to California: Beale's Road was inaugurated in 1857. Also in 1857, the first stagecoach began operations. Until the coming of the railroads in the 1880s, however, the bulk of territorial commerce was by water transport on the Colorado River. Railroad construction reached its peak in the 1920s and declined rapidly thereafter.

Railroad trackage totaled 1,836 rail mi (2,956 km) in 2003, with 10 railroads operating in the state. The state's two Class I railroads, the Burlington Northern Santa Fe and the Union Pacific, controlled 1,261 rail miles in 2003. In that same year, the top rail commodities (by weight) originating from within the state were glass and stone products, while coal was the top rail commodity (by weight) terminating in the state. As of 2006, Amtrak provided limited passenger service through Flagstaff, Kingman, and other cities in the north, and through Tucson and Yuma on its southern route.

In 2004, the state had 58,112 mi (93,544 km) of public streets and roads. Interstate highways in Arizona totaled 1,168 mi (1,879 km). Of the approximately 3.944 million motor vehicles registered in 2004, there were some 2.038 million automobiles, 1.697 million trucks of all types, and around 1,000 buses. There were 3,783,927 licensed drivers in 2004.

In 2005, Arizona had a total of 299 public- and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 190 airports, 108 heliports, and 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing). The state's leading air terminal was Phoenix Sky Harbor International Airport. In 2004, the airport had total passenger enplanements of 19,336,099, making it the seventh-busiest airport in the United States. Tucson International Airport was Arizona's second-largest airport, with 1,863,790 enplanements in that same year.

11 HISTORY

Evidence of a human presence in Arizona dates back more than 12,000 years. The first Arizonans—the offshoot of migrations

across the Bering Strait—were large-game hunters: their remains have been found in the San Pedro Valley in the southeastern part of the state. By AD 500, their descendants had acquired a rudimentary agriculture from what is now Mexico and divided into several cultures. The Basket Makers (Anasazi) flourished in the northeastern part of the state; the Mogollon hunted and foraged in the eastern mountains; the Hohokam, highly sophisticated irrigators, built canals and villages in the central and southern valleys; and the Hakataya, a less-advanced river people, lived south and west of the Grand Canyon. For reasons unknown—a devastating drought is the most likely explanation—these cultures were in decay and the population much reduced by the 14th century. Two centuries later, when the first Europeans arrived, most of the natives were living in simple shelters in fertile river valleys, dependent on hunting, gathering, and small-scale farming for subsistence. These Arizona Indians belonged to three linguistic families: Uto-Aztecans (Hopi, Paiute, Chemehuevi, Pima-Papago), Yuman (Yuma, Mohave, Cocopa, Maricopa, Yavapai, Walapai, Havasupai), and Athapaskan (Navaho-Apache). The Hopi were the oldest group, their roots reaching back to the Anasazi; the youngest were the Navaho-Apache, migrants from the Plains, who were not considered separate tribes until the early 18th century.

The Spanish presence in Arizona involved exploration, missionary work, and settlement. Between 1539 and 1605, four expeditions crossed the land, penetrating both the upland plateau and the lower desert in ill-fated attempts to find great riches. In their footsteps came Franciscans from the Rio Grande to work among the Hopi, and Jesuits from the south, led by Eusebio Kino in 1692, to proselytize among the Pima. Within a few years, Kino had established a major mission station at San Xavier del Bac, near present-day Tucson. In 1736, a rich silver discovery near the Pima village of Arizona, about 20 mi (32 km) southwest of present-day Nogales, drew Spanish prospectors and settlers northward. To control the restless Pima, Spain in 1752 placed a military outpost, or presidio, at Tubac on the Santa Cruz River north of Nogales. This was the first major European settlement in Arizona. The garrison was moved north to the new fort at Tucson, also on the Santa Cruz, in 1776. During these years, the Spaniards gave little attention to the Santa Cruz settlements, administered as part of the Mexican province of Sonora, regarding them merely as way stations for colonizing expeditions traveling overland to the highly desirable lands of California. The end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th were periods of relative peace on the frontier; mines were developed and ranches begun. Spaniards removed hostile Apache bands onto reservations and made an effort to open a road to Santa Fe.

When Mexico revolted against Spain in 1810, the Arizona settlements were little affected. Mexican authorities did not take control at Arizpe, the Sonoran capital, until 1823. Troubled times followed, characterized by economic stagnation, political chaos, and renewed war with the Apache. Sonora was divided into *partidos* (counties), and the towns on the Santa Cruz were designated as a separate *partido*, with the county seat at Tubac. The area north of the Gila River, inhabited only by American Indians, was vaguely claimed by New Mexico. With the outbreak of the Mexican War in 1846, two US armies marched across the region: Col. Stephen W. Kearny followed the Gila across Arizona from New Mexico to California, and Lt. Col. Philip Cooke led a Mormon battalion

westward through Tucson to California. The California Gold Rush of 1849 saw thousands of Americans pass along the Gila toward the new El Dorado. In 1850, most of present-day Arizona became part of the new US Territory of New Mexico; the southern strip was added by the Gadsden Purchase in 1853.

Three years later, the Sonora Exploring and Mining Co. organized a large party, led by Charles D. Poston, to open silver mines around Tubac. A boom followed, with Tubac becoming the largest settlement in the valley; the first newspaper, the *Weekly Arizonian*, was launched there in 1859. The great desire of California for transportation links with the rest of the Union prompted the federal government to chart roads and railroad routes across Arizona, erect forts there to protect Anglo travelers from the Arizona Indians, and open overland mail service. Dissatisfied with their representation at Santa Fe, the territorial capital, Arizona settlers joined those in southern New Mexico in 1860 in an abortive effort to create a new territorial entity. The outbreak of the Civil War in 1861 saw the declaration of Arizona as Confederate territory and abandonment of the region by the Union troops. A small Confederate force entered Arizona in 1862 but was driven out by a volunteer Union army from California. On 24 February 1863, President Abraham Lincoln signed into law a measure creating the new Territory of Arizona. Prescott became the capital in 1864, Tucson in 1867, Prescott again in 1877, and finally Phoenix in 1889.

During the early years of territorial status, the development of rich gold mines along the lower Colorado River and in the interior mountains attracted both people and capital to Arizona, as did the discovery of silver bonanzas in Tombstone and other districts in the late 1870s. Additional military posts were constructed to protect mines, towns, and travelers. This activity, in turn, provided the basis for a fledgling cattle industry and irrigated farming. Phoenix, established in 1868, grew steadily as an agricultural center. The Southern Pacific Railroad, laying track eastward from California, reached Tucson in 1880, and the Atlantic and Pacific (later acquired by the Santa Fe), stretching west from Albuquerque through Flagstaff, opened service to California in 1883. By 1890, copper had replaced silver as the principal mineral extracted in Arizona. In the Phoenix area, large canal companies began wrestling with the problem of supplying water for commercial agriculture. This problem was resolved in 1917 with the opening of the Salt River Valley Project, a federal reclamation program that provided enormous agricultural potential.

As a creature of the Congress, Arizona Territory was presided over by a succession of governors, principally Republicans, appointed in Washington. In reaction, the populace was predominantly Democratic. Within the territory, a merchant-capitalist class, with strong ties to California, dominated local and territorial politics until it was replaced with a mining-railroad group whose influence continued well into the 20th century. A move for separate statehood began in the 1880s but did not receive serious attention in Congress for another two decades. In 1910, after Congress passed an enabling act that allowed Arizona to apply for statehood, a convention met at Phoenix and drafted a state constitution. On 14 February 1912, Arizona entered the Union as the 48th state.

During the first half of the 20th century, Arizona shook off its frontier past. World War I (1914–18) spurred the expansion of the copper industry, intensive agriculture, and livestock production.

Goodyear Tire and Rubber established large farms in the Salt River Valley to raise pima cotton. The war boom also generated high prices, land speculation, and labor unrest; at Bisbee and Jerome, local authorities forcibly deported more than 1,000 striking miners during the summer of 1917. The 1920s brought depression: banks closed, mines shut down, and agricultural production declined. To revive the economy, local boosters pushed highway construction, tourism, and the resort business. Arizona also shared in the general distress caused by the Great Depression of the 1930s and received large amounts of federal aid for relief and recovery. A copper tariff encouraged the mining industry, additional irrigation projects were started, and public works were begun on Indian reservations, in parks and forests, and at education institutions. Prosperity returned during World War II (1939–45) as camps for military training, prisoners of war, and displaced Japanese Americans were built throughout the state. Meat, cotton, and copper markets flourished, and the construction of processing and assembly plants suggested a new direction for the state's economy.

Arizona emerged from World War II as a modern state. War industries spawned an expanding peacetime manufacturing boom that soon provided the principal source of income, followed by tourism, agriculture, and mining. During the 1950s, the political scene changed. Arizona Republicans captured the governorship, gained votes in the legislature, won congressional seats, and brought a viable two-party system to the state. The rise of Barry Goldwater of Phoenix to national prominence further encouraged Republican influence. Meanwhile, air conditioning improved the quality of life, prompting a significant migration to the state.

But prosperity did not reach into all sectors. While the state ranked as only the 19th poorest in the nation in 1990 (with a poverty rate of 13.7%), by 1998, it ranked sixth-poorest, with a poverty rate of 16.6%. Although the poverty rate in Arizona subsequently declined (to 13.9% in 2004), from 2000 to 2004 the Arizona poverty rate climbed two full percentage points, double the national average.

For many years Arizona had seen its water diverted to California. In 1985, however, the state acted to bring water from the Colorado River to its own citizens by building the Central Arizona Project (CAP). The CAP was a \$3 billion network of canals, tunnels, dams and pumping stations which had the capacity to bring 2.8 million acre-feet of water a year from the Colorado River to Arizona's desert lands, cities, and farms. By 1994, however, many considered the project to be a failure, as little demand existed for the water it supplied. Farmers concluded that water-intensive crops such as cotton were not profitable, and Arizona residents complained that the water provided by the CAP was dirty and undrinkable.

Arizona politics in the recent past have been rocked by the discovery of corruption in high places. In 1988, Governor Evan Mecham was impeached on two charges of official misconduct. In 1989, Senators John McCain and Dennis DeConcini were indicted for interceding in 1987 with federal bank regulators on behalf of Lincoln Savings and Loan Association. Lincoln's president, Charles Keating Jr., had contributed large sums to the Senators' reelection campaigns. In 1990, Peter MacDonald, the leader of the Navajo Nation, was convicted in the Navajo Tribal Court of soliciting \$400,000 in bribes and kickbacks from corporations and individuals who sought to conduct business with the tribe in the

1970s and 1980s. A year later, seven members of the Arizona state legislature were charged with bribery, money laundering, and filing false election claims, the result of a sting operation. The legislators were videotaped accepting thousands of dollars from a man posing as a gaming consultant in return for agreeing to legalize casino gambling.

The most recent in Arizona's series of political scandals was the investigation and 1996 indictment of Governor Fife Symington on 23 counts of fraud and extortion in connection with his business ventures before he became governor in 1991, and his filing of personal bankruptcy. The case went to trial in May 1997. Convicted of fraud, Symington was replaced by secretary of state Jane Hull, also a Republican. In 1998 gubernatorial elections, Hull was elected in her own right. Democrat Janet Napolitano was elected governor in 2002. In 2003, the Arizona Supreme Court decided to individually review the 27 death sentences imposed by judges rather than juries, which was a practice deemed unconstitutional by the US Supreme Court.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The current constitution of Arizona, drafted in 1910 at the height of the Progressive era, contained reform provisions that were very advanced for the time; initiative, referendum, workers' compensation, short terms for elected officials, suffrage for women, and the barring of trusts and monopolies from the state. The constitution was adopted in 1911 and had been amended 136 times by January 2005.

Legislative authority is vested in a 30-member Senate and a 60-member House of Representatives. Legislative sessions are annual, begin in January, and must adjourn no later than the Saturday of the week during which the 100th day of the session falls. Special sessions, which are not limited in duration, may be called by petition of two-thirds of the membership of each house. All senators and representatives serve two-year terms and are chosen at the general election in November of each even-numbered year. A legislator must be a US citizen, at least 25 years old, an Arizona resident for at least three years, and a member of the district for at least a year. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$24,000.

Chief executive officials elected statewide include the governor, secretary of state (the designated successor to the governor, as there is no lieutenant governor), treasurer, attorney general, and superintendent of public instruction, all of whom serve four-year terms. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive terms. The five members of the Corporation Commission, which regulates public services and utilities, are elected for a four-year term with the possibility of reelection to a second consecutive four-year term; the state mine inspector is elected for two years. Candidates for executive office must have been US citizens for at least 10 years, must be at least 25 years old, and must have been a citizen of Arizona for at least 5 years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$95,000.

Bills may originate in either house of the legislature and must be passed by both houses and approved by the governor in order to become law. A two-thirds vote of the elected members in each house is necessary to override the governor's veto. If the governor fails to sign or veto a bill, it becomes law after five days (Sundays excluded) or ten days after the legislature has adjourned. Under the initiative procedure, legislation and proposed constitutional

amendments can be placed on the ballot by petition. The petition must be signed by 15% of total votes cast for all candidates for governor at the last election. Constitutional amendments proposed in the legislature are ratified by a majority vote of the electorate.

In order to vote in Arizona, a person must be 18 years old, a US citizen, a resident of the state for at least 29 days prior to the upcoming election. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incapacitated by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Of Arizona's 17 territorial governors, all of whom were federally appointed, 14 were Republicans and 3 were Democrats. Statehood meant a prolonged period of Democratic dominance. From 1912 through 1950, the state had nine Democratic and three Republican governors; during that period, Republicans held the statehouse for only six years.

Republican Party fortunes improved dramatically after 1950, largely because of the rise to state and national prominence of a conservative Republican, Barry Goldwater, first elected to the US Senate in 1952. From 1951 to 1994, eight Republican governors led the state for a total of 26 years, and five Democratic governors for 18 years. Several Arizona Republicans were appointed to high office during the Richard Nixon years, and in 1973, another Republican, John J. Rhodes, became minority leader in the US House of Representatives. Democrat and former governor Bruce Babbitt was named secretary of the interior for the Bill Clinton administration in 1992.

In 1992, Bill Clinton ended 40 years of Republican presidential victories in Arizona, becoming the first Democratic winner since 1952, with 47% of the vote to Republican Bob Dole's 44% and Independent Ross Perot's 8%. In 2000, the pendulum swung back to the Republican side, with Republican George W. Bush winning 51% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 45% and the Green Party candidate Ralph Nader's 3%. In 2004, Bush won reelection, with

55% of the vote to Democrat John Kerry's 45%. In 2004 there were 2,643,000 registered voters. Of registered voters in 2001, 38% were Democratic, 43% Republican, and 19% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had 10 electoral votes in 2004, an increase over 8 in the 2000 presidential election.

Democrat Dennis DeConcini won reelection to the US Senate in 1988; he retired in 1994, and his seat was won by Republican Jon Kyl, who was reelected in 2000. Republican John McCain was reelected senator in 1992, 1998, and 2004; McCain ran for the presidency in 2000 but dropped his bid. Following the November 1994 election, Arizona's delegation of US Representatives went from three Democrats and three Republicans to one Democrat and five Republicans; in the 109th Congress (2005–06), Arizona's congressional delegation was made up of six Republicans and two Democrats in the House. Arizonans elected a Democrat, Janet Napolitano, as governor in 2002; she was the first female governor to be elected back-to-back behind another female governor, Jane Dee Hull. In 2005, Arizona's state legislature consisted of 18 Republicans and 12 Democrats in the Senate, and 39 Republicans and 21 Democrats in the state House. In 2003 there were 25 women serving in the state legislature.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Each of Arizona's 15 counties has a sheriff, county attorney, county recorder, treasurer, assessor, superintendent of schools, and three or five supervisors, each elected to a four-year term. Counties act as agents of the state.

Other local governmental units are cities, charter cities, and towns (communities with populations under 3,000). Towns generally follow the council-mayor form of government. All of Arizona's largest cities are charter cities. In 2005, there were 87 municipal governments and 305 special districts. The state had 410 school districts.

Each of the 21 Indian reservations in Arizona has a tribal coun-

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	ARIZONA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE
1948	4	*Truman (D)	95,251	77,597	3,310
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	108,528	152,042	—
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	112,880	176,990	—
1960	4	Nixon (R)	176,781	221,241	—
1964	5	Goldwater (R)	237,753	242,535	—
					AMERICAN IND.
1968	5	*Nixon (R)	170,514	266,721	46,573
					AMERICAN
1972	6	*Nixon (R)	198,540	402,812	21,208
1976	6	Ford (R)	295,602	418,642	7,647
1980	6	*Reagan (R)	246,843	529,688	18,784
1984	7	*Reagan (R)	333,854	681,416	10,585
1988	7	*Bush (R)	454,029	702,541	13,351
					IND. (Perot)
1992	8	Bush (R)	543,086	572,086	353,741
1996	8	*Clinton (D)	653,288	622,073	112,072
					GREEN
2000	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	685,341	781,652	45,645
					LIBERTARIAN
2004	10	*Bush, G. W. (R)	893,524	1,104,294	11,856

*Won US presidential election.

cil or board with members elected by the people.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 212,570 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Arizona operates under the authority of the governor; the emergency management director heads the Arizona Office of Homeland Security and is appointed by the governor.

The Arizona Department of Education regulates the school system. The Arizona Board of Regents governs the state's three public universities. A commission for postsecondary education provides students with financial aid, and school information. The Department of Transportation administers the state's highway and air-transport systems, among other functions. The Department of Financial Institutions supervises the financial institutions and enterprises of the state.

The Department of Health Services operates programs for environmental health, behavioral health (including alcohol abuse, drug abuse, and mental-illness treatment facilities), and family health services. The National Guard falls under the jurisdiction of the Department of Emergency and Military Affairs, while prisons and rehabilitation programs are administered by the State Department of Corrections. The Department of Public Safety oversees the state highway patrol.

Natural resources are the responsibility of several agencies, including the Game and Fish Commission, Department of Mines and Mineral Resources, Oil and Gas Conservation Commission, Parks Board, and Department of Water Resources. The Department of Economic Security handles employment services and public-assistance programs.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Supreme Court is the highest court in Arizona and has administrative responsibility over all other courts in the state. The five supreme court justices, appointed by the governor for staggered six-year terms, choose a chief justice and vice-chief justice to preside over the court.

The Court of Appeals, established in 1964, is organized in two geographical divisions which together have 22 judges. Appeals court judges are appointed for terms of six years.

The superior court is the general trial court of the state, and there must be at least one superior court judge in every Arizona county. In 1999, there were 136 superior court judges, plus 2 part-time judges, in the state's 15 counties. In counties with populations over 150,000, superior court judges are appointed by the governor; they hold office for terms ending 60 days following the next regular general election after expiration of a two-year term. Those seeking retention run at the next general election on a nonpartisan ballot. In counties with a population under 150,000, superior court judges are elected by nonpartisan ballot to four-year terms.

Counties are divided into precincts, each of which has a justice court. Every incorporated city and town has a police court. The jurisdiction of justice courts and police courts is limited to minor civil and criminal cases. Local judges are elected for terms of four years.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 32,515 prisoners were held in Arizona's state and federal prisons, an increase (from 31,170) of 4.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,765 inmates were female, up (from 2,656) 4.1% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Arizona had an incarceration rate of 534 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Arizona in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 504.1 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 28,952 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) that same year totaled 306,747 reported incidents or 5,340.5 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Arizona has a death penalty, which can be carried out by lethal injection or lethal gas, depending upon the prisoner's request. However, if the inmate was sentenced prior to 15 November 1992, execution is by lethal gas. From 1976 through 5 May 2006 the state executed 22 persons. As of May 2006, the most recent had been in November 2000. As of 1 January 2006, there were 125 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Arizona spent \$258,260,247 on homeland security, an average of \$49 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, 27,026 active-duty federal military personnel were stationed at five military installations in Arizona, with 5,319 National Guard, and 6,140 civilian employees in the state. Major military installations include the Army's Fort Huachuca at Sierra Vista, with the most military personnel in the state, 7,016. The Air Force's Williams base near Phoenix closed in 1993, but remaining are the Luke and Davis-Monthan bases, near Phoenix and Tucson, respectively. There is also the Marine Corps' Yuma Air Station. Defense Department expenditures in Arizona were approximately \$11.0 billion in 2004, \$8.4 billion for contracts (sixth in the nation), and about \$2.6 billion for payroll, including retired military pay.

There were 555,223 veterans of US military service in Arizona as of 2003, of whom 84,587 served in World War II; 66,564 in the Korean conflict; 155,908 during the Vietnam era; and 83,907 in the Gulf War. On 10 September 1992, Nathan E. Cook, the last veteran of the Spanish-American War (1898–1902), died in Phoenix at the age of 106. In 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures amounted to \$1.4 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Arizona Department of Public Safety employed 1,133 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Arizona's first migrants were the ancient peoples who came from Asia across the Bering Strait more than 12,000 years ago. Hispanic settlers began arriving in the late 17th century. Anglo migration, especially from the South, became significant as the United States developed westward to California, and increased at an even faster rate with the building of the railroads during the 1880s. Migration has accelerated since World War II (1939–45), and Arizona showed a net gain of 519,000 in domestic migration and 96,000 in international migration from 1990 to 1998. Mexico is the main source of foreign immigrants. In the 1980s, half of Arizona's total population increase was from migration; about 530,000 persons moved there during that time. By 1998, Arizona's Hispanic pop-

ulation numbered 963,000; those of Hispanic origin numbered 1,034,000. In 1998, 6,211 immigrants from foreign countries arrived in Arizona, of whom 3,209 were from Mexico. Arizona's total population increased 27.4% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 168,078 and net internal migration was 408,160, for a net gain of 576,238 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Arizona is a signatory to a boundary agreement with California (1963) and Nevada; and to such interstate accords as the Colorado River Compact, Desert Pacific Economic Region Compact, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Upper Colorado River Basin Compact, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Wildlife Violator Compact, and Western Interstate corrections, nuclear, and education compacts.

The most important federal project in the state has been the Central Arizona Project, approved by Congress in 1968 and designed to divert water from the Colorado River to the Phoenix and Tucson areas for agriculture, energy, and other purposes. Federal grants totaled \$6.617 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$7.156 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$7.631 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Mining and cattle-raising were the principal economic activities in Arizona during the territorial period. With the introduction of irrigation in the early 1900s, farming assumed a greater importance. Improvements in transportation later in the 20th century led to the development of manufacturing and tourism.

Arizona's economy compiled an impressive growth record during the 1970s and early 1980s. Between 1973 and 1983, the state population increased by 39% (fourth in the United States). Non-farm wage and salary employment grew by 49% (fifth in the United States), and total personal income by 218% (sixth in the United States). Overexpansion brought a slowdown in the late 1980s, and in the national recession of 1991, Arizona's annual job creation rate dropped from 3% to 0. However, economic recovery was rapid and Arizona's annual job creation rate rose to a peak of about 8% in 1994 and continued above 4% until the recession of 2001, when job growth turned negative, and only grew 0.2% in 2002. In addition to substantial layoffs in the manufacturing, transportation and utilities, and finance, insurance, and real estate sectors, the state budget crunch prompted scheduled layoffs in the government for fiscal 2004. Total assets in Arizona's financial institutions, which had grown from \$38.8 billion in September 1998 to \$65.3 billion by September 2001 (+68.3%), fell to \$46.8 billion (-28.3%) as of September 2002.

In 2004, state gross product (GSP) totaled \$199.953 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest single portion at \$26.327, or 13% of GSP. This was followed by manufacturing, at \$23.55 billion (11.7% of GSP); healthcare services, at \$13.382 billion (6.7% of GSP); and construction, at \$12.273 billion (6% of GSP). Small businesses account for a large portion of Arizona's employed workforce. In 2004, of the 110,153 businesses with employees, 97.2% of that total, or 107,018, consisted of small businesses. For that same year, a total of 12,421 new businesses were formed, down 6.8% from 2003. Business terminations totaled 17,553 in 2004, up 13.3% from the previous year,

although business bankruptcies fell 31.5% to 480 in that year. Personal bankruptcy filing rates in 2005 ranked the state around the middle nationally. In that year, the personal bankruptcy filing rate (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) came to 570 filings per 100,000 people, putting the state 23rd.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Arizona had a gross state product (GSP) of \$216 billion, which accounted for 1.7% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 22 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Arizona had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$28,658. This ranked 39th in the United States and was 87% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.1%. Arizona had a total personal income (TPI) of \$164,495,305,000, which ranked 22nd in the United States and reflected an increase of 8.4% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 7.3%. Earnings of persons employed in Arizona increased from \$114,663,260,000 in 2003 to \$125,262,159,000 in 2004, an increase of 9.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$42,590, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 13.8% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Arizona numbered 2,948,600, with approximately 127,600 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,612,600. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Arizona was 11.5% in February 1983. The historical low was 3.9% in December 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 8.1% of the labor force was employed in construction; 7.0% in manufacturing; 19.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.8% in financial activities; 15.0% in professional and business services; 10.8% in education and health services; 10.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 15.5% in government.

Organized labor has a long history in Arizona. A local of the Western Federation of Miners was founded in 1896, and labor was a powerful force at the constitutional convention in 1910. Nevertheless, the state's workforce is much less organized than that of the nation as a whole.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 145,000 of Arizona's 2,366,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 6.1% of those so employed, down from 6.3% in 2004 and well below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 181,000 workers (7.7%) in Arizona were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Arizona is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Arizona did not have a state-mandated minimum wage law, leaving employees in that state covered under federal minimum wage statutes. In 2004, women in the state accounted for nearly 45% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Arizona's agricultural output (including livestock products) was valued at \$3.18 billion in 2005 (29th in the United States). Cash receipts from crops alone amounted to \$1.7 billion.

In 2004, there were about 10,200 farms covering 24.7 million acres (10.7 million hectares), or about 39% of the state's total area, but only 1,961,000 acres (389,000 hectares), or 1.3% of the state, were actually farmed for crops. Arizona's farmed cropland is intensely cultivated and highly productive. In 2004, Arizona was second among all states in cotton yield per acre (1,371 lb per acre). About 95% of all farmland is dependent on irrigation provided by dams and water projects.

Cotton is the leading cash crop in Arizona. In 2004 the state produced 680,000 bales of Upland cotton on 238,000 acres (96,000 hectares), with a total value of \$163,200,000. Arizona also produced 6,000 bales of American-Pima cotton on 3,000 acres (1,200 hectares) valued at \$2,857,000. Vegetables, especially head lettuce, accounted for a value of \$858,010,000 in 2004. Hay is also an important item; total hay production was 2,119,000 tons in 2004, for a value of \$208,269,000. Other crops are wheat, sorghum, barley, grapes, and citrus fruits.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The total inventory of cattle and calves was an estimated 910,000 in 2005, with a value of \$928.2 million. In 2005, the state had an estimated 100,000 sheep and lambs. In 2004, the state had 136,000 hogs and pigs valued at \$14.9 million.

A total of 3.5 billion lb (1.6 billion kg) of milk was produced in 2003.

25 FISHING

Arizona has no commercial fishing. Sports fishing, however, is popular with residents and tourists. In 2004, the state had about 361,958 licensed sport fishermen. The Alchesay and the Williams Creek National Fish Hatcheries, located on the Fort Apache Indian Reservation in east central Arizona, have played a leading role in the recovery of the threatened Apache trout. Rainbow, cutthroat, brown, and brook trout are raised for stocking, primarily on American Indian lands in Arizona, western New Mexico, and southern Colorado. The coldwater Willow Beach National Hatchery, located downriver from Hoover Dam on the Arizona side of the Colorado River, raises rainbow trout. Approximately 750,000 trout are stocked annually in the Colorado River. The Pinetop Fish Health Center is a federally sponsored research and technology center.

26 FORESTRY

The lumber industry in Arizona began during the 19th century, when the building of the transcontinental railroad created a demand for railroad ties. Production of lumber from Arizona's forests remained strong until the 1990s, when the primary empha-

sis shifted to conservation and recreation. Lumber production in 2004 was 65 million board feet.

The main forest regions stretch from the northwest to the southeast, through the center of the state. Altogether, in 2003 there were 19,427,000 acres (7,862,000 hectares) of forestland in Arizona, over 25% of the state's area and 2.6% of total US forestland. Commercial timberland accounted for only 3,527,000 acres (1,427,000 hectares). National forests covered 11,891,000 acres (4,812,000 hectares) as of 2003. Lumber production remains an important emphasis on the Kaibab, Coconino, and Apache-Sitgreaves National Forests, and on the Hualapai, Navajo, Ft. Apache, and San Carlos Apache Indian Reservations. The Rodeo-Chediski fire in 2002 burned over 400,000 acres (162,000 hectares).

27 MINING

Arizona ranked third in nonfuel mineral production by value in 2004. According to the US Geological Survey, nonfuel mineral production in Arizona during 2004 was valued at \$3.3 billion, up almost 53% from the 2003s total of \$2.18 billion, and up 11.8% from 2002 to 2003. Copper represented about 64% of the nonfuel mineral production by value in 2004, followed by construction sand and gravel, molybdenum concentrates, portland cement, crushed stone, and lime. The sharp increases in nonfuel mineral output by value mostly reflected increasing prices for copper and molybdenum, and to a lesser extent increases in construction sand and gravel, portland cement, and crushed stone. Copper output by volume in 2004, actually fell by around 2.5%, and molybdenum concentrate production increased only 2% that same year, although by value, output was over three times that of 2003.

Production and values in 2004 for the principal minerals are as follows: copper, 723,000 metric tons (\$2.13 billion); construction sand and gravel, 79.6 million metric tons (\$430 million); and crushed stone, 11.1 million metric tons (\$57.2 million).

Arizona continued to lead the country in copper and molybdenum concentrate production in 2004, producing over 62% of all copper mined and produced in the United States. Arizona also ranked second in gemstones (by value); third in perlite, and in construction sand and gravel. The state ranked seventh in silver output and tenth in gold production.

Population growth and freeway construction projects in metropolitan Phoenix have contributed to Arizona's ranking as the nation's third-largest producer of sand and gravel.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Arizona had 45 electrical power service providers, of which 28 were publicly owned and 9 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were federally operated, while five were investor owned. As of that same year there were over 2.422 million retail customers. Of that total, over 1,381,302 received their power from the state's five investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 148,880 customers, while publicly owned providers had 872,381 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 25.510 million kW, with total production that same year at 94.396 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 85.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric pow-

er generated, 38.091 billion kWh (40.4%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear fueled plants in second place, at 28.851 billion kWh (30.3%).

As of 2006, Arizona had one nuclear power-generating plant, the three unit Palo Verde facility near Wintersburg in Maricopa County.

Arizona's fossil-fuel potential remains largely undeveloped, though oil and natural-gas exploration began in the 1980s. As of 2004, the state had proven crude oil reserves of less than 1% of all US reserves, while output that same year averaged 142 barrels per day, most of which came from so-called "stripper wells," wells that produce under 10 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, Arizona that year ranked 31st (30th excluding federal offshore) among the 31 producing states. In 2004 the state had 18 producing oil wells and accounted for less than 1% of all US production. As of 2005, there were no refineries in Arizona.

In 2004, Arizona had six producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 331 million cu ft (9.4 million cu m). There is no data on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

Arizona in 2004, had two producing coal mines, both of which were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 12,731,000 short tons, up from 12,059,000 short tons in 2003.

Energy resource development in the state is encouraged by the Department of Mines and Mineral Resources, Oil and Gas Conservation Commission, and Department of Water Resources.

29 INDUSTRY

Manufacturing, which has grown rapidly since World War II (1939–45), became the state's leading economic activity in the 1970s. Factors contributing to this growth included a favorable tax structure, available labor, plentiful electric power, and low land costs. The major manufacturing centers are the Phoenix and Tucson areas.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Arizona's manufacturing sector covered some 17 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$41.644 billion. Of that total, the manufacturing of computer and electric products accounted for the largest portion, at \$11.587 billion. It was followed by the manufacture of transportation equipment at \$9.437 billion, fabricated metal products at \$3.208 billion, and food manufacturing at \$3.146 billion.

In 2004, a total of 158,004 people in Arizona were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 95,923 were production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 30,334, with 12,981 actual production workers. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing, with 27,129 employees (12,357 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 17,218 employees (12,230 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing with 10,508 employees (7,809 actual production workers); and food manufacturing at 9,386 employees (6,824 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Arizona's manufacturing sector paid \$7.240 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest portion at \$1.994 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$880.272 million and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$688.006 million.

Principal manufacturers of electronic and technology-intensive equipment in Arizona include: Motorola, Allied Signal Aerospace, Honeywell, Hughes Missile Systems Co., and Intel. Intel expanded its operations in Arizona with the construction of a \$1.3 billion plant in 1994. While high-tech manufacturing actually declined in Arizona in 1998 and early 1999, in part because of the Asian financial crisis, the state's low-tech manufacturing improved.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Arizona's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$60.9 billion from 6,651 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 4,154 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,950, and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 547 establishments. Sales data for durable and nondurable goods wholesalers, as well as for electronic markets, agents, and brokers, was unavailable. Most wholesale establishments were concentrated in Maricopa and Pima counties.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Arizona was listed as having 17,238 retail establishments, with sales of \$56.4 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (2,463); clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,426); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,966); and gasoline stations (1,866). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales, at \$16.05 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$8.1 billion; gasoline stations at \$4.9 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$3.7 billion. A total of 268,584 people were employed by the retail sector in Arizona that year.

Exporters located in Arizona exported \$14.9 billion in merchandise during 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection in Arizona is the responsibility of the Public Advocacy Division of the state's Office of the Attorney General. Under the state's Consumer Fraud Act, the Arizona attorney general has primary enforcement powers regarding consumer protection, although enforcement may be delegated to County Attorneys. In addition, private citizens, under the Consumer Fraud Act, may also initiate legal action within one year from the date, from which the claim arises.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's attorney general can initiate civil (but not criminal) proceedings, and is responsible for the administration of consumer protection and education programs and the handling of consumer complaints. However, the Attorney General's Office cannot represent the state before state regulatory agencies and has limited subpoena powers that can only be used in antitrust actions. In those actions, the attorney general can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; can initiate damage actions on behalf

of the state in state courts; can initiate criminal proceedings; and can represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Attorney General's Office has locations in Phoenix and Tucson. County Attorney's Offices are located in the cities of Clifton, Flagstaff, Florence, Globe, Holbrook, Kingman, Nogales, Parker, Prescott, Safford, St. Johns, and Yuma.

3²BANKING

As of June 2005, Arizona had 51 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, along with 28 state-chartered and 35 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Phoenix-Mesa-Scottsdale market area had 65 financial institutions in 2004, followed by Tucson at 21, Prescott at 12, Yuma at 9, and Flagstaff at 8. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 12.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$10.841 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 87.2% or \$74.020 billion in assets held.

Arizona has a high percentage of new banking institutions. As of the fourth quarter of 2005, 11 were less than 3 years old. For the same period, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 5.38%. The state's median annualized return on average assets (ROA) ratio (the measure of earnings in relation to all resources) was 1.19%.

State-chartered financial institutions in Arizona are regulated by the Department of Banking. Nationally or federally chartered financial institutions either are under the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency (banks), the Office of Thrift Supervision, or the National Credit Union Administration. Federally regulated institutions in Arizona include the Bank of America, Bank One, Wells Fargo Bank, Desert Schools Federal Credit Union, and Arizona Federal Credit Union.

3³INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 1.79 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$203.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$309 billion. The average coverage amount was \$113,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$874 million.

As of 2003, there were 50 property and casualty and 262 life and health insurance companies incorporated or organized in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance amounted to \$7.5 billion in 2004. That year, there were 29,078 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$4.97 billion.

In 2004, 48% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 6% held individual policies, and 27% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 18% for single coverage and 30% for family coverage. For family coverage, an average employee contribution rate of 30% was one of the highest in the country. Arizona does not offer extended health benefits in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA), a health insurance extension program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$920.38.

The Department of Insurance regulates the state's insurance industry and examines and licenses agents, and brokers.

3⁴SECURITIES

The Arizona Stock Exchange (AZX), originally established by Steve Wunsch in 1990 as the Wunsch Auction System, was an electronic call market that traded equity securities, including many Arizona-based companies. However, the AZX closed in 2001 due to lack of volume.

In 2005, there were 2,590 personal financial advisers employed in the state. In 2004, there were over 133 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 45 NASDAQ companies, 17 NYSE listings, and 7 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had four Fortune 500 companies; Avnet (Phoenix) ranked first in the state and 212th in the nation with revenues of over \$11 billion, followed by Phelps Dodge (Phoenix), Allied Waste Industries (Scottsdale), and US Airways Group (Tempe), all of which are NYSE companies. PetSmart (Phoenix), a NASDAQ listing, made the Fortune 1,000 list, at 518th in the nation.

3⁵PUBLIC FINANCE

The governor's budgets are prepared in the Office of Strategic Planning and Budgeting (OSP). During the 1990's, Arizona moved from an annual to a biennial budget format. Agency requests are submitted to the OSPB by September 1, and agency hearings are held in November and December. The governor's budget is submitted in January and the legislature is expected to pass the budget in the period January to April. With rebounding tourism dollars, cost cutting, and strong population increases Arizona's fiscal picture has improved. Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at nearly \$9.3 billion for resources and \$8.2 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Arizona were \$8.3 billion. For fiscal year 2007, federal funding for border station improvements was authorized, as was increased funding for research on water purification technology under the Water 2025 program.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, Arizona collected \$11,008 million in tax revenues, or \$1,854 per capita, which placed it 40th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 3.4% of the total; sales taxes, 47.3%; selective sales taxes, 13.5%; individual income taxes, 25.9%; corporate income taxes, 6.4%; and other taxes 3.5%.

As of 1 January 2006, Arizona had five individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.87% to 5.04%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.968%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$4,867,990,000, or \$848 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 35th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$4,521,563,000 of the total and the state government, \$346,427,000.

Arizona taxes retail sales at a rate of 5.60%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as high as 4.50%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 10.10%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 118 cents per pack, which ranks 16th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Arizona taxes gasoline at 18 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Arizona citizens received \$1.30 in federal spending.

Arizona—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	23,753,397	4,138.22
General revenue	18,949,181	3,301.25
Intergovernmental revenue	6,987,389	1,217.32
Taxes	9,606,318	1,673.57
General sales	4,719,642	822.24
Selective sales	1,351,095	235.38
License taxes	289,803	50.49
Individual income tax	2,315,865	403.46
Corporate income tax	525,650	91.58
Other taxes	404,263	70.43
Current charges	1,169,721	203.78
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,185,753	206.58
Utility revenue	25,446	4.43
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	4,778,770	832.54
Total expenditure	21,748,803	3,788.99
Intergovernmental expenditure	7,544,080	1,314.30
Direct expenditure	14,204,723	2,474.69
Current operation	9,930,123	1,729.99
Capital outlay	1,460,258	254.40
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,179,136	379.64
Assistance and subsidies	394,561	68.74
Interest on debt	240,645	41.92
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,627,433	457.74
Total expenditure	21,748,803	3,788.99
General expenditure	19,541,494	3,404.44
Intergovernmental expenditure	7,544,080	1,314.30
Direct expenditure	11,997,414	2,090.14
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	7,149,182	1,245.50
Public welfare	5,162,214	899.34
Hospitals	59,012	10.28
Health	1,133,082	197.40
Highways	1,891,625	329.55
Police protection	188,754	32.88
Correction	790,485	137.72
Natural resources	238,297	41.52
Parks and recreation	167,668	29.21
Government administration	484,420	84.39
Interest on general debt	237,435	41.36
Other and unallocable	2,039,320	355.28
Utility expenditure	28,173	4.91
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,179,136	379.64
Debt at end of fiscal year	6,773,923	1,180.13
Cash and security holdings	38,840,515	6,766.64

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Department of Commerce has primary responsibility for attracting business and industry to Arizona, aiding existing business and industry, and assisting companies engaged in international trade. Its programs emphasize job opportunities, energy conservation, support of small businesses, and development of the film industry. The Commerce and Economic Development Commission (CEDC), a six-member agency chaired by the director of the Department of Commerce, was established in 1989 as the state economic policy and planning board. Its budget is provided by two scratch games in the Arizona lottery. Economic development programs supported at least in part by the state include the Arizona Enterprise Zone (EZ) Program, which offers tax reductions and exemptions for investment in areas where poverty and/or unemployment are high; the Military Reuse Zone (MRZ) program, established 1992, which offers incentives for investments to retool military installations for civilian use; the Tucson Empowerment Zone Tax Incentive Plan, a \$17 billion tax incentive program designed after Tucson won designation by the federal government as an empowerment zone; the Arizona Job Training Program, which designs job training programs; the Economic Strengths Program (ESP), which provides grants for road construction; Waste Reduction Assistance (WRA); the Waste Reduction Initiative Through Education (WRITE); the Private Activity Bonds (PAB) Program, which in 1986 replaced the Industrial Development Bond Program, and which offers finance in favorable terms for the construction of industrial and manufacturing facilities, student loans, housing, private utility projects, and some municipal projects; the Lease Excise Tax Program, which offered tax abatements to businesses that lease, rather than own, city property; and the IT Training Tax Credit, which offered training for up to 20 employees in information technology (IT) skills. As of 2006, the state had also designated seven Foreign Trade Zones (FTZs), which were accorded treatment as territory outside of the state's tax jurisdiction. Other tax incentives offered by Arizona include a 10% Pollution Control Tax credit on real and personal property used to control pollution; a schedule of tax credits for research and development expenditures; and accelerated depreciation for capital investments.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.9 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 16.3 per 1,000 population, the third-highest in the nation (following Utah and Texas). The abortion rate stood at 16.5 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 76.6% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 79% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.8 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 198.9; cancer, 171.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 46.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 47.2; and diabetes, 22.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 3 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 9.8 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.1% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 18.5% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Arizona had 61 community hospitals with about 10,800 beds. There were about 603,000 patient admissions that year and 6.7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 7,300 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,570. Also in 2003, there were about 135 certified nursing facilities in the state, with 16,451 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 80.5%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Arizona had 225 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 522 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 2,976 dentists in the state.

About 27% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state healthcare expenditures totaled \$5.5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 96,000 people received unemployment benefits with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$177. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 550,291 persons (220,498 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$95.98 per person. That year, the total benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$633.8 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Arizona's TANF program is called EMPOWER (Employing and Moving People Off Welfare and Encouraging Responsibility). In 2004, the state program had 115,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on the TANF program totaled \$175 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 888,460 Arizona residents. This number included 578,590 retired workers, 76,490 widows and widowers, 114,250 disabled workers, 49,760 spouses, and 69,370 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.5% of the total state population and 86.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$973; widows and widowers, \$930; disabled workers, \$924; and spouses, \$482. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$467 per month; children of deceased workers, \$605; and children of disabled workers, \$262. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 94,400 Arizona residents, averaging \$406 a month. An additional \$23,000 in state-administered supplemental payments was distributed to 457 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 2,458,231 housing units, of which 2,131,534 were occupied. In the same year, 68.7% of all housing units were owner-occupied. It was estimated that about 101,678 units statewide were without telephone service, 14,897 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 11,543 lacked complete kitchen facilities. About 59% of all units were single-family detached

homes; about 13.2% were mobile homes. The average household had 2.64 members.

From 1980 to 1990, the housing boom in Arizona caused the number of housing units to increase by 55%. About 27.6% of all housing structures in Arizona were built in 1995 or later. In 2004, the median value of a home was \$145,741. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,130; the median cost monthly cost for renters was \$691. Approximately 90,600 new units were authorized in 2004. In September 2005, the state was awarded grants of over \$2 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$12.1 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 84.4% of Arizonans 25 years old and over were high school graduates. Some 28% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The first public school in the state opened in 1871 at Tucson, with 1 teacher and 138 students. In the fall of 2002, total enrollment in public schools was 938,000. Of these, 660,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 277,000 attended high school. Approximately 49.2% of the students were white, 4.8% were black, 37.2% were Hispanic, 2.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 6.6% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 949,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 1,074,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 14.5% during the period 2002–14. There were 46,366 students enrolled in 292 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$6.7 billion or \$6,036 per student, the third-lowest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Arizona scored 274 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 401,605 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 28.8% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Arizona had 74 degree-granting institutions. The leading public higher educational institutions, the University of Arizona at Tucson and Arizona State University (originally named the Arizona Territorial Normal School) at Tempe, were both established in 1885. Thunderbird, The Garvin School of International Management, a private institution, is located in Glendale.

42 ARTS

The Arizona Commission on the Arts was established as a permanent state agency in 1967. The Arizona Humanities Council was established in 1973. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) awarded 18 grants totaling \$977,400 to Arizona arts organizations; the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) awarded 11 grants totaling \$1,241,940. State arts programs are also supported by the Arizona Arts Endowment Fund (also called Arizona ArtShare), which was established in 1996. Arizona is also a member state of the Western States Art Federation (WESTAF).

Arizona has traditionally been a center for American Indian folk arts and crafts. The Arizona State Museum (Tucson), Colorado River Indian Tribes Museum (Parker), Heard Museum of

Anthropology and Primitive Art (Phoenix), Mohave Museum of History and Arts (Kingman), Navajo Tribal Museum (Window Rock), and Pueblo Grande Museum (Phoenix) all display Indian creations, both historic and contemporary. Modern Arizona artists are featured at the Tucson Museum of Art and the Yuma Art Center.

Musical and dramatic performances are presented in Phoenix, Tucson, Scottsdale, and other major cities. One of Arizona's oldest arts organization and one of the longest-running theaters nationwide, the Phoenix Theatre celebrated its 85th season in 2005. Ballet Arizona, based in Phoenix, celebrated 20 years of performance during its 2005/06 season. The Arizona Opera Company and the Arizona Theatre Company perform both in Tucson and Phoenix. As of 2006, there were two major orchestras, the Phoenix Symphony, founded in 1947, and the Tucson Symphony Orchestra, founded in 1928, one of the oldest symphonies in the Southwest. The annual Grand Canyon Music Festival (est. 1984) features the finest in both classical and folk music.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Arizona had 35 public library systems, with a total of 176 libraries, of which 148 were branches. Also that year, the system had a combined book and serial publications stock of 8,760,000 volumes, and a total circulation of 33,066,000. The system also had 364,000 audio and 484,000 video items, 38,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 15 bookmobiles. Principal public libraries included the Phoenix Public Library and the State Library and Department of Archives in Phoenix, and the Arizona Historical Society Library in Tucson. The largest university libraries are located at the University of Arizona and Arizona State University. Total operating income for the public library system amounted to \$118,286,000 in fiscal year 2001, including \$682,000 in federal grants and \$652,000 in state grants.

Arizona has more than 120 museums and historic sites. Attractions in Tucson include the Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona Museum of Art, Arizona Historical Society, Arizona-Sonora Desert Museum, Flandreau Planetarium, and Gene C. Reid Zoological Park. Phoenix has the Heard Museum (anthropology and primitive art), Arizona Mineral Resources Museum, Phoenix Art Museum, Phoenix Zoo, Pueblo Grande Museum, and Desert Botanical Garden. The Museum of Northern Arizona and Lowell Observatory are in Flagstaff. Kitt Peak National Observatory is in Tucson.

Archaeological and historical sites include the cliff dwellings at the Canyon de Chelly, Casa Grande Ruins, Montezuma Castle, Tonto, and Tuzigoot national monuments; the town of Tombstone, the site of the famous O. K. Corral gunfight in the early 1880s; and the restored mission church at Tumacacori National Monument and San Xavier del Bac Church near Tucson.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Over 91.8% of housing units had telephones in 2004. In addition, by June of that same year there were 3,079,657 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 64.3% of Arizona households had a computer and 55.2% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 860,082 high-speed lines in Arizona, 783,322 residential and

76,760 for business. A total of 131,164 Internet domain names had been registered in Arizona as of 2000.

There were 70 major radio stations broadcasting in Arizona in 2005 (15 AM and 55 FM). The state also had 15 major television stations in 2005. In 1999, 59% of Phoenix's 1,390,750 television households received cable.

45 PRESS

The *Weekly Arizonian*, started in 1859, was the first newspaper in the state. The *Daily Arizona Miner*, the state's first daily, was founded at Prescott in 1866. In 2004, *The Arizona Republic* was the 15th largest newspaper in the country, based on daily circulation rates. As of 2005 there were 10 morning dailies and 6 evening dailies; 11 dailies had Sunday editions.

The following table shows 2005 circulations for leading dailies:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Phoenix	<i>Arizona Republic</i> (m,S)	413,268	530,751
Tucson	<i>Arizona Daily Star</i> (m,S)	100,824	161,957
	<i>Citizen</i> (e)	30,090	

In 2005, there were 68 weekly publications in Arizona, including 29 paid weeklies, 27 free weeklies, and 12 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (180,610) and free weeklies (531,432) is 712,042. Tucson's *Shopper*, with a circulation of 328,149, ranked 20th in the nation among publications of its type.

Among the most notable magazines and periodicals published in Arizona were *Phoenix Magazine*, *Phoenix Living*, and *Arizona Living*, devoted to the local and regional life-style; *American West*, dedicated to the Western heritage; *Arizona and the West*, published quarterly by the University of Arizona Library in Tucson; and *Arizona Highways*, a beautifully illustrated monthly published by the Department of Transportation in Phoenix.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,880 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,069 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the organizations headquartered in Arizona are the National Foundation for Asthma (Tucson), the American Bicycle Association (Chandler), the American Federation of Astrologers (Tempe), the American Rock Art Research Association (Tucson), the Muscular Dystrophy Association (Tucson), the Western National Parks Association (Tucson), the Make-A-Wish Foundation of America (Phoenix), Safari Club International (Tucson), and the United States Handball Association (Tucson). The national Fisher-Price Collector's Club is based in Mesa.

The National Native American Cooperative in Tucson and the Association of American Cultures serves local and national members who strive to preserve and promote interest in native arts and cultures. The desert Bluegrass Association is another regional arts association. The Desert Botanical Garden in Phoenix presents tours of the gardens and a museum as well as offering seminars on the flora of arid lands. Offices for the Messianic Jewish Movement International are based in Chandler.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism and travel is a leading industry in Arizona. In 2004, tourism and travel accounted for more than \$13.76 billion in direct

sales. There were 27.8 million domestic visitors and 900,000 from overseas.

There are 22 national parks and monuments located entirely within Arizona. By far the most popular is Grand Canyon National Park. Petrified Forest National Park and Saguaro National Monument are also popular national parks. There are also 14 state parks that regularly attract over a million visitors per year.

Arizona offers excellent camping on both public and private land, and there are many farm vacation sites and dude ranches, particularly in the Tucson and Wickenburg areas. Popular for sightseeing and shopping are the state's American Indian reservations, particularly those of the Navaho and Hopi. Boating and fishing on Lake Mead, Lake Powell, Lake Mohave, Lake Havasu (people can revisit the original London Bridge), the Colorado River, and the Salt River lakes are also attractions. The Hoover Dam is located on the Arizona-Nevada border. The red rock country of Sedona is a popular destination. The nearby city of Jerome is a real ghost town. Winter visitors can ski and enjoy other winter sports in Flagstaff in an area called the Snow Bowl. Biosphere 2 in Oracle is another popular tourist attraction. Tourists interested in architecture can visit Frank Lloyd Wright's workshop, Taliesin West, in Carefree. In the late winter and early spring, many Major League Baseball teams conduct their spring training at camps in Arizona. Visitors can watch practice games and visit with the players. For auto racing fans, NASCAR also has a big presence in Arizona.

48 SPORTS

There are five major professional teams in Arizona, all in Phoenix: the Cardinals of the National Football League, the Suns of the National Basketball Association, the Coyotes of the National Hockey League, the Mercury of the Women's National Basketball Association, and the Diamondbacks of Major League Baseball. The Diamondbacks captured the World Series in 2001. There is a minor league hockey team, also in Phoenix. Several Major League Baseball teams hold spring training in Arizona, and there is a minor league team in Tucson, as well as several rookie league teams throughout the state. There is horse racing at Turf Paradise in Phoenix, and dog racing at Phoenix, Tucson, and Yuma. Auto racing is held at Manzanita Raceway and International Raceway, in Phoenix. Phoenix International Raceway also hosts NASCAR Nextel Cup and Busch Series events. Both Phoenix and Tucson have hosted tournaments on the Professional Golfers Association's nationwide tour.

The first organized rodeo that awarded prizes and charged admission was held in Prescott on 4 July 1988, and rodeos continue to be held throughout the state.

Both Arizona State and the University of Arizona joined the Pacific 10 Conference in 1978. The Sun Devils won the Rose Bowl in their first appearance in 1987, and also appeared in 1997. The Wildcats captured National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I baseball championships in 1975, 1980, and 1986, and the NCAA Division I men's basketball championship in 1997. The men's basketball team at the University of Arizona has reached the NCAA Tournament for 22 consecutive years. The Sun Devils won the baseball championship in 1981. College football's Fiesta Bowl is held annually at Sun Devil Stadium in Tempe, the home stadium for the Arizona State football team.

Other annual sporting events include the Thunderbird Balloon Classic in Scottsdale in November.

49 FAMOUS ARIZONIANS

Although Arizona entered the Union relatively late (1912), many of its citizens have achieved national prominence, especially since World War II (1939–45). William H. Rehnquist (b. Wisconsin, 1924–2005) was appointed associate justice of the US Supreme Court in 1971 and chief justice in 1986; in 1981 Sandra Day O'Connor (b. Texas, 1930) became the first woman to serve on the Supreme Court. Arizona natives who became federal officeholders include Lewis Douglas (1894–1974), a representative who served as director of the budget in 1933–34 and ambassador to the Court of St. James's from 1947 to 1950; Stewart L. Udall (b. 1920), secretary of the interior, 1961–69; and Richard B. Kleindienst (1923–2000), attorney general, 1972–73, who resigned during the Watergate scandal. Another native son was Carl T. Hayden (1877–1972), who served in the US House of Representatives from statehood in 1912 until 1927 and in the US Senate from 1927 to 1969, thereby setting a record for congressional tenure. Barry Goldwater (1909–98), son of a pioneer family, was elected to the US Senate in 1952, won the Republican presidential nomination in 1964, and returned to the Senate in 1968. His Republican colleague, John J. Rhodes (b. Kansas, 1916–2003), served in the US House of Representatives for 30 years and was House minority leader from 1973 to 1980. Raul H. Castro (b. Mexico, 1916), a native of Sonora, came to the United States in 1926, was naturalized, served as Arizona governor from 1975 to 1977, and has held several ambassadorships to Latin America. Morris K. Udall (1922–98), first elected to the US House of Representatives in 1960, contended for the Democratic presidential nomination in 1976.

Prominent state officeholders include General John C. Frémont (b. Georgia, 1813–90), who was territorial governor of Arizona from 1878 to 1883, and George W. P. Hunt (1859–1934), who presided over the state constitutional convention in 1910 and was elected governor seven times during the early decades of statehood. Eusebio Kino (b. Italy, 1645?–1711) was a pioneer Jesuit who introduced missions and European civilization to Arizona. Also important to the state's history and development were Charles D. Poston (1825–1902), who in the late 1850s promoted settlement and separate territorial status for Arizona; Chiricahua Apache leaders Cochise (1812?–74) and Geronimo (1829–1909), who, resisting the forced resettlement of their people by the US government, launched a series of raids that occupied the Army in the Southwest for over two decades; Wyatt Earp (b. Illinois, 1848–1929), legendary lawman of Tombstone during the early 1880s; John C. Greenway (1872–1926), copper magnate and town builder who was a nominee on the Democratic ticket in 1924 for US vice president; and Frank Luke Jr. (1897–1918), a World War I flying ace who was the first American airman to receive the Medal of Honor.

Distinguished professional people associated with Arizona have included James Douglas (b. Canada, 1837–1918), metallurgist and developer of the Bisbee copper district; Percival Lowell (b. Massachusetts, 1855–1916), who built the Lowell Observatory in Flagstaff; and Andrew Ellicott Douglass (b. Vermont, 1867–1962), astronomer, university president, and inventor of dendrochronology, the science of dating events and environmental

variations through the study of tree rings and aged wood. Cesar Chavez (1927–93) was president of the United Farm Workers of America.

Writers whose names have been associated with Arizona include novelist Harold Bell Wright (b.New York, 1872–1944), who lived for an extended period in Tucson; Zane Grey (b.Ohio, 1875–1939), who wrote many of his Western adventure stories in his summer home near Payson; and Joseph Wood Krutch (b.Tennessee, 1893–1970), an essayist and naturalist who spent his last two decades in Arizona. Well-known performing artists from Arizona include singers Marty Robbins (1925–70), and Linda Ronstadt (b.1946). Joan Ganz Cooney (b.1929), president of the Children's Television Workshop, was one of the creators of the award-winning children's program, *Sesame Street*.

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ARKANSAS

State of Arkansas

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: French derivation of *Akansas* or *Arkansas*, a name given to the Quapaw Indians by other tribes. **NICKNAME:** The Natural State. **CAPITAL:** Little Rock. **ENTERED UNION:** 15 June 1836 (25th). **SONG:** "Arkansas." **MOTTO:** *Regnat populus* (The people rule). **COAT OF ARMS:** In front of an American eagle is a shield displaying a steamboat, plow, beehive, and sheaf of wheat, symbols of Arkansas's industrial and agricultural wealth. The angel of mercy, the goddess of liberty encircled by 13 stars, and the sword of justice surround the eagle, which holds in its talons an olive branch and three arrows, and in its beak a banner bearing the state motto. **FLAG:** On a red field, 25 stars on a blue band border, a white diamond containing the word "Arkansas" and four blue stars. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Coat of arms surrounded by the words "Great Seal of the State of Arkansas." **BIRD:** Mockingbird. **FLOWER:** Apple blossom. **TREE:** Pine. **GEM:** Diamond. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Robert E. Lee's birthday, 19 January; Birthdays of Martin Luther King Jr. and Robert E. Lee, 3rd Monday in January; George Washington's Birthday and Daisy Gatson Bates Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans' Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Eve, 24 December; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the western south-central United States, Arkansas ranks 27th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Arkansas is 53,187 sq mi (137,754 sq km), of which land takes up 52,078 sq mi (134,882 sq km), and inland water, 1,109 sq mi (2,872 sq km). Arkansas extends about 275 mi (443 km) E–W and 240 mi (386 km) N–S.

Arkansas is bordered on the N by Missouri; on the E by Missouri, Tennessee, and Mississippi (with part of the line passing through the St. Francis and Mississippi rivers); on the S by Louisiana; on the SW by Texas (with part of the line formed by the Red River), and on the W by Oklahoma. The total boundary length of Arkansas is 1,168 mi (1,880 km). The state's geographic center is in Pulaski County, 12 mi (19 km) NW of Little Rock.

²TOPOGRAPHY

The Boston Mountains (an extension of the Ozark Plateau, sometimes called the Ozark Mountains) in the northwest and the Ouachita Mountains in the west-central region not only constitute Arkansas's major uplands but also are the only mountain chains between the Appalachians and the Rockies. Aside from the wide valley of the Arkansas River, which separates the two chains, the Arkansas lowlands belong to two physiographic regions: the Mississippi Alluvial Plain and the Gulf Coastal Plain. The highest elevation in Arkansas, at 2,753 ft (840 m), is Magazine Mountain, standing north of the Ouachitas in the Arkansas River Valley. The state's lowest point, at 55 ft (17 m), is on the Ouachita River in south-central Arkansas. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 650 ft (198 m).

Arkansas's largest lake is the artificial Lake Ouachita, covering 63 sq mi (163 sq km); Lake Chicot, in southeastern Arkansas, and oxbow of the Mississippi River, is the state's largest natural lake, with a length of 18 mi (29 km). Bull Shoals Lake, occupying 71

sq mi (184 sq km), is shared with Missouri. Principal rivers include the Mississippi, forming most of the eastern boundary; the Arkansas (the sixth longest river in the country), beginning in Colorado and flowing 1,450 mi (2,334 km) through Kansas and Oklahoma and across central Arkansas to the Mississippi; and the Red, White, Ouachita, and St. Francis rivers, all of which likewise drain south and southeast into the Mississippi. Numerous springs are found in Arkansas, of which the best known are Mammoth Springs, near the Missouri border, one of the largest in the world, with a flow rate averaging nine million gal (34 million l) an hour, and Hot Springs in the Ouachitas.

Crowley's Ridge, a unique strip of hills formed by sedimentary deposits and windblown sand, lies west of and parallel to the St. Francis River for about 180 mi (290 km). The ridge is rich in fossils and has an unusual diversity of plant life.

³CLIMATE

Arkansas has a temperate climate, warmer and more humid in the southern lowlands than in the mountainous regions. At Little Rock, the normal daily temperature ranges from 40°F (4°C) in January to 82°F (27°C) in July. A record low of -29°F (-34°C) was set on 13 February 1905 at the Pond weather station, and a record high of 120°F (49°C) was recorded on 10 August 1936 at the Ozark station.

Average yearly precipitation is approximately 45 in (114 cm) in the mountainous areas and greater in the lowlands; Little Rock receives an annual average of 50.5 in (128 cm). Snowfall in the capital averages 5.1 in (12 cm) a year.

⁴FLORA AND FAUNA

Arkansas has at least 2,600 native plants, and there are many naturalized exotic species. Cypress, water oak, hickory, and ash grow in the Mississippi Valley, while the St. Francis Valley is home to

the rare cork tree. Crowley's Ridge is thick with tulip trees and beeches. A forest belt of oak, hickory, and pine stretches across south-central and southwestern Arkansas, including the Ozark and Ouachita mountains. The Mexican juniper is common along the White River's banks. The state has at least 26 native varieties of orchid; the passion flower is so abundant that it was once considered for designation as the state flower, but the apple blossom was finally chosen instead.

Arkansas's native animals include 15 varieties of bat and 3 each of rabbit and squirrel. Common throughout the state are mink, armadillo, white-tailed deer, and eastern chipmunk. The only remaining native population of black bears is found in the White River National Wildlife Refuge and the Trusten Holder Wildlife Management Area. These two sites are part of the Cache-Lower White River area, which has been designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance for the role it plays as a wintering habitat for migratory birds. Among 300 native birds are such game birds as the eastern wild turkey, mourning dove, and bobwhite quail. Among local fish are catfish, gar, and the unusual paddle fish. Arkansas counts 20 frog and toad species, 23 varieties of salamander, and 36 kinds of snake.

In April 2006, a total of 29 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 23 animals (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 6 plant species. The Arkansas Game and Fish Commission lists the leopard darter and fat pocketbook pearly mussel as threatened species. The bald eagle is listed as endangered, along with the Indiana and gray bats, cave crayfish, pink mucket, several species of mussel, pallid sturgeon, least tern, and red-cockaded woodpecker. Among endangered or threatened plants are the Missouri bladderpod, pondberry, eastern prairie fringed orchid, and running buffalo clover. In 1983, Arkansas established the Non-Game Preservation Committee to promote sound management, conservation, and public awareness of the state's nongame animals and native plants.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

In 1949, the Arkansas General Assembly created the Arkansas Pollution Control Commission. This legislation was amended in later years to be known as the Arkansas Water and Air Pollution Control Act. Under an extensive reorganization of state government in 1971, the Arkansas Department of Pollution Control and Ecology (ADPC & E) was created as a cabinet-level agency and the commission was renamed the Arkansas Pollution Control and Ecology Commission. (In 1996, the Arkansas General Assembly voted to change the name of the department to the Arkansas Department of Environmental Quality—ADEQ, effective 31 March 1999.) Although the terms are frequently confused or used interchangeably by persons not connected with either governmental unit, the commission and the department are two separate, but related, entities. The commission, with guidance from the governor and the Arkansas General Assembly, determines the environmental policies for the state, and the department employees are responsible for implementing those policies.

The initial authority to regulate water and air sources has been expanded to open-cut mining, solid waste, hazardous waste, recycling, and underground storage tanks. In 2001, an ADEQ focus

on recycling waste oil resulted in a 91% increase in the amount of waste oil recycled, from 21,189 tons in 2000 to 41,500 tons in 2001. In 2002, ADEQ turned its attention to recycling of wood waste.

In 1987, the state adopted some of the first "ecoregion" water-quality standards in the nation. These standards recognize the distinct physical, chemical, and biological properties of the six geographical regions of the state and establish separate water quality standards within each region. In 2005, federal Environment Protection Agency (EPA) grants awarded to the state included \$8.9 million for safe drinking water projects. A grant in excess of \$4.6 million was awarded for water pollution prevention projects.

The EPA delegated responsibility for its clean-air programs to ADEQ. These programs include New Source Performance Standards (NSPS), National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAPS), Prevention of Significant Deterioration (PSD), and State Implementation Plan (SIP). In 2003, 40.6 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state.

Citizen's groups actively involved with environmental issues include: the Arkansas Native Plant Society, Arkansas Audubon Society, Arkansas Canoe Club, Arkansas Herpetological Society, Arkansas Wildlife Federation, Audubon Society of Central Arkansas, League of Women Voters, Ozark Society, Sierra Club—Arkansas Chapter, and National Water Center. The Arkansas Environmental Federation presents industry's viewpoints on environmental issues.

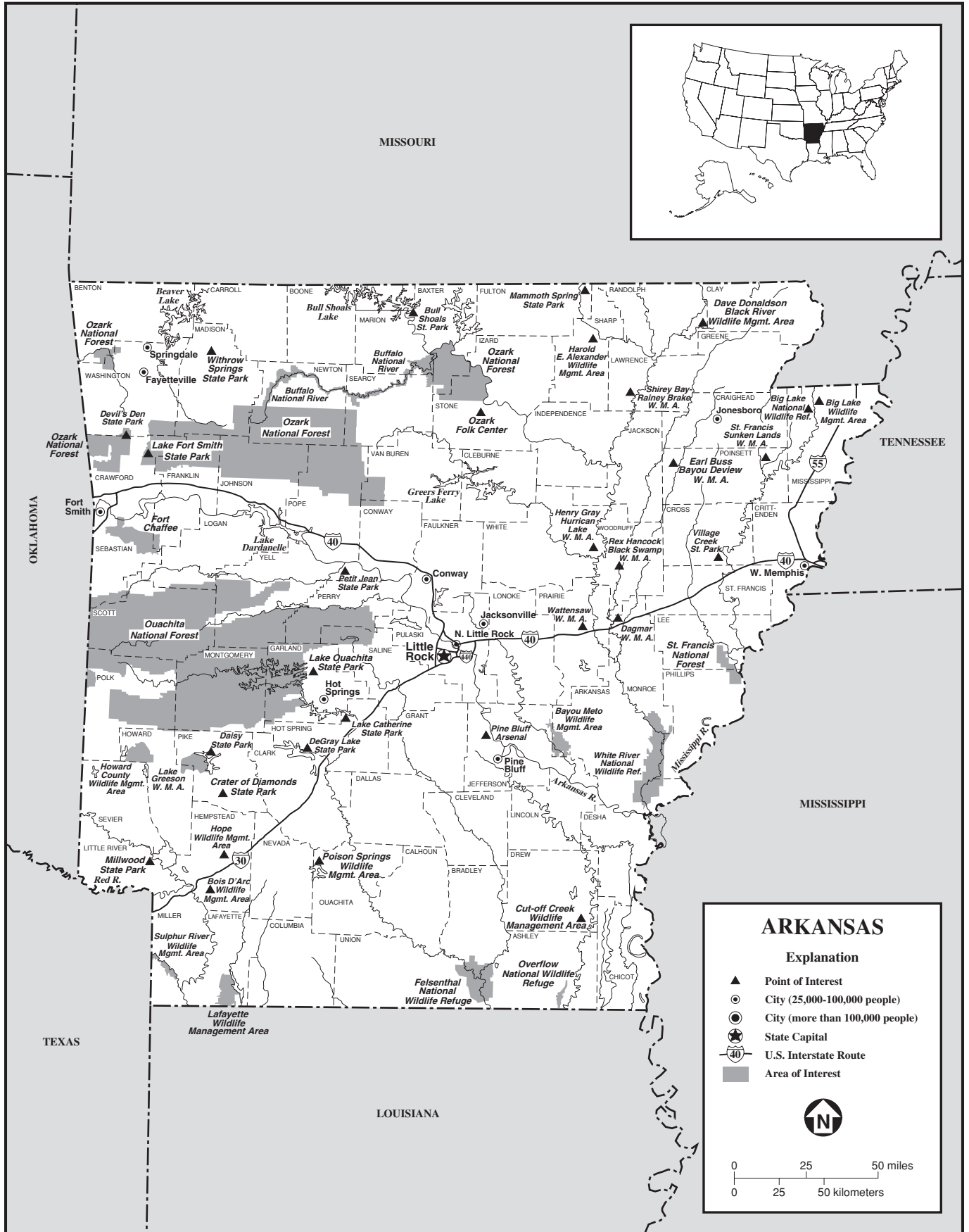
The Buffalo River, designated as a national river, flows through northern Arkansas. One of the wildest areas in the state is the 113,000-acre (46,000-hectare) White River Refuge, which contains more than 100 small lakes. About 8% of the state is wetland. The wetlands of the Cache-Lower White River were designated as Ramsar Wetlands of International Importance in 1989. The site includes two national wildlife refuges, managed by the federal government, and three wildlife management areas, managed by the state. The Arkansas Natural Heritage Commission was established in 1975 for, among other purposes, the preservation of rivers and natural areas and to serve as a source of information on plant and animal species of Arkansas.

In 2003, the EPA database listed 78 hazardous waste sites in Arkansas, 10 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. Jacksonville Municipal Landfill and the Rogers Road Municipal Landfill (also in Jacksonville) were both deleted from the list in 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$6.3 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state.

6 POPULATION

Arkansas ranked 32nd in population in the United States with an estimated total of 2,779,154 in 2005, an increase of 4% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Arkansas's population grew from 2,350,725 to 2,673,400, an increase of 13.7%. The population is projected to reach 2.96 million by 2015 and 3.15 million by 2025. The average population density in 2004 was 52.9 per sq mi.

As of 2004, 13.8% of the population was age 65 or over (compared with a national average of 12.4%), partially reflecting the large number of retirees who settled in the state during the early



MISSOURI

TENNESSEE

OKLAHOMA

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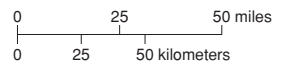
TEXAS

LOUISIANA

ARKANSAS

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 40— U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



1980s. The median age was 36.6, and 24.6% of the population was under 18 years old.

The largest city in Arkansas is Little Rock, which had a 2004 estimated population of 184,081. The Little Rock–North Little Rock metropolitan area had an estimated 636,636 residents in 2004. Other major cities with large populations include Ft. Smith, North Little Rock, Pine Bluff, and Fayetteville.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Arkansas's population is predominantly white, composed mainly of descendants of immigrants from the British Isles. The largest minority group consists of black Americans, estimated at 418,950 in 2000, or 15.7% of the population. That percentage had risen to 15.8% by 2004. The American Indian population was estimated at 17,808 in 2000. In 2004, 0.7% of the population was American Indian. About 86,866 Arkansans, or 3.2% of the total population, was of Hispanic or Latino origin, nearly double the 1990 figure of 44,000 (1.9%). That figure had risen to 4.4% by 2004. In 2000 the Asian population was estimated at 20,220, and Pacific Islanders numbered 1,668. In 2004, the Asian population was 0.9% and Native Hawaiians and other Pacific Islanders made up 0.1% of the total population. The 2000 census listed 3,974 Vietnamese (up from 1,788 in 1990), 3,126 Chinese (1,575 in 1990), 2,489 Filipinos, 3,104 Asian Indians (1,202 in 1990), and 1,036 Japanese. The foreign-born population numbered 73,690, or 2.8% of all Arkansas residents, up from 24,867, or 1%, in 1990. In 2004, 1.2% of the total population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

A few place-names, such as Arkansas itself, Choctaw, Caddo, and Ouachita, attest to the onetime presence of American Indians in the Territory of Arkansas, mostly members of the Caddoan tribe, with the Cherokee the most influential.

Arkansas English is essentially a blend of Southern and South Midland speech, with South Midland dominating the mountainous northwest; and Southern, the southeastern agricultural areas. Common in the east and south are *redworm* (earthworm) and *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly). In the northwest appear South Midland *whirlygig* (merry-go-round) and *sallet* (garden greens).

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Pacific Island languages" includes Chamorro, Hawaiian, Ilocano, Indonesian, and Samoan.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	2,492,205	100.0
Speak only English	2,368,450	95.0
Speak a language other than English	123,755	5.0
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Spanish or Spanish Creole	82,465	3.3
German	7,444	0.3
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	7,312	0.3
Vietnamese	3,467	0.1
Chinese	2,529	0.1
Laotian	2,502	0.1
Tagalog	1,627	0.1
Korean	1,250	0.1
Japanese	1,193	0.0
Other Pacific Island languages	1,185	0.0
Italian	1,106	0.0

In 2000, 2,368,450 Arkansans (95% of the residents five years old or older) spoke only English at home, a decrease from the 97.2% recorded in 1990.

9 RELIGIONS

Although French Roman Catholic priests had worked as missionaries among the American Indians since the early 18th century, the state's first mission was founded among the Cherokee by a Congregationalist, Cephas Washburn, in 1820. When the Cherokee were removed to Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma), the mission moved there as well, remaining active through the Civil War. William Patterson may have been the first Methodist to preach in Arkansas, around 1800, in the area of Little Prairie: the first Methodist circuit, that of Spring River, was organized in 1815. The first Baptist church was likely that of the Salem congregation, begun in 1818 near what is now Pocahontas.

The vast majority of religious adherents in the state belong to Evangelical Protestant congregations. The largest denomination is the Southern Baptist Convention, which had 685,301 adherents in 1,372 congregations in 2000; there were 13,119 newly baptized members in 2002. In 2000, the American Baptist Association had 115,916 adherents and 570 congregations and the Baptist Missionary Association of America had 87,244 adherents and 359 congregations. The Churches of Christ claimed 86,342 adherents in 754 congregations that same year.

The leading mainline Protestant group in 2000 was the United Methodist Church, with 179,383 adherents in 747 congregations. By 2004, however, the United Methodist Church reported a statewide membership of 138,987. The Roman Catholic population of Arkansas in 2004 was 106,051 with 88 parishes. The estimated Jewish population in 2000 was 1,600 people. About 42.9% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Although railroad construction began in the 1850s, it was not until after the Civil War (1861–65) that any lines were completed. The most important railroad, the St. Louis, Iron Mountain, and Southern line, reached Little Rock in 1872 and was subsequently acquired by financier Jay Gould, who added the Little Rock and Ft. Smith line to it in 1882. By 1890, the state had about 2,200 mi (3,500 km) of track. In 1974, trackage totaled 3,559 mi (5,728 km). As of 2003, Arkansas had a total of 3,484 rail mi (5,609 km) of track, of which the three Class I roads that served the state accounted for 2,607 rail miles (4,197 km). In that same year, nonmetallic minerals were the top commodity carried by rail in the state, for shipments originating within the state. For rail shipments terminating within the state, coal (by weight) was the top commodity. As of 2006, Amtrak passenger trains serviced Little Rock, Walnut Ridge, Malvern, Arkadelphia, and Texarkana en route from St. Louis to Dallas.

Intensive road building began in the 1920s, following the establishment of the State Highway Commission and the inauguration of a gasoline tax. By 2004, Arkansas had 98,606 mi (158,755 km) of public roads, streets, and highways. During that same year, there were some 950,000 automobiles and around 938,000 trucks of all types registered in Arkansas. In 2004, there were 1,862,430 licensed drivers in the state.

Beginning in the 1820s, steamboats replaced keelboats and flatboats on Arkansas rivers. Steamboat transportation reached its peak during 1870–90, when it was supplanted by the railroads that were opened during the same two decades. Development of the Arkansas River, completed during the early 1970s, made the waterway commercially navigable all the way to Tulsa. In 2004, Arkansas had 1,860 mi (2,994 km) of navigable inland waterways. Waterborne shipments in 2003 totaled 15.083 million tons.

In 2005, Arkansas had a total of 321 public- and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 238 airports, and 83 heliports. The principal airport in the state is Adams Field at Little Rock. In 2004, the airport had 1,138,249 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

Evidence of human occupation of Arkansas reaches back to about 10,000 BC. The bluff dwellers of the Ozark Plateau were among the first human beings to live in what is now Arkansas, making their homes in caves and beneath overhanging rock cliffs along the banks of the upper White River. Farther south are the remains of another primitive people, the Mound Builders. The most significant of the Stone Age monuments they left are those of the Toltec group in Lonoke County, some 25 mi (40 km) southeast of Little Rock. Eventually, both ancient peoples vanished, for reasons that remain unclear.

Foremost among the American Indian tribes in Arkansas were the Quapaw (meaning “downstream people” or “South Wind people”), agriculturists who had migrated to southern Arkansas in the early 16th century; the Caddo, fighters from Texas, who claimed the western region between the Red and Arkansas rivers; the warlike Osage, who hunted north of the Arkansas River and in present-day Missouri; and the Choctaw. Another prominent tribe, the Cherokee, arrived in the early 19th century, after federal and state authorities had taken their land east of the Mississippi and driven them westward. Nearly all these American Indians had been expelled to what is now Oklahoma by the time Arkansas became a state.

The first Europeans to set foot in Arkansas were Spaniards, led by Hernando de Soto. They crossed the Mississippi River, probably near present-day Helena, in spring 1541, roamed the land for a year or so, and then returned to the mighty river, where De Soto was buried in 1542. More than 100 years later, in 1673, a small band of Frenchmen led by Jacques Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Louis Jolliet, a fur trader and explorer, ended their voyage down the Mississippi at the mouth of the Arkansas River and returned north after being advised by friendly American Indians that hostile tribes lay to the south. Nine years later, Robert Cavalier, Sieur de la Salle, led an expedition from Canada down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, stopping at Indian villages in Arkansas along the way and, on 9 April 1682, claiming all the Mississippi Valley for his king, Louis XIV.

Henri de Tonti, who had been second in command to La Salle, came back to Arkansas in 1686 to claim a land grant at the confluence of the Arkansas and White rivers, a few miles inland from the Mississippi. He left six men there; the log house they built was the beginning of Arkansas Post, the first permanent white settlement in the lower Mississippi Valley. Though tiny and isolated, Arkansas Post upheld the French claim to the Mississippi Valley

until 1762, when France ceded the territory to Spain. Restored to France in 1800, the territory was sold to the United States in the Louisiana Purchase of 1803. White settlers soon began arriving in Arkansas, and in 1806, the Louisiana territorial legislature created the District of Arkansas as a separate entity. When the Louisiana Purchase was further subdivided, Arkansas became part of the Missouri Territory. In 1819, Arkansas gained territorial status in its own right, and its boundaries were fixed by Congress. The territorial capital was moved from Arkansas Post to Little Rock in 1821. By 1835, Arkansas Territory had a population of 52,240, including 9,838 slaves. It was admitted to the Union in 1836 as a slave state, paired with the free state of Michigan in accordance with the Missouri Compromise.

Increasing numbers of slaves were brought into the largely agricultural state as the cultivation of cotton spread. Arkansas, like the rest of the South, was headed for secession, although it waited to commit itself until the Civil War (1861–65) had begun. There was considerable Union sentiment in the state, especially in the hilly northern and western counties, which lacked the large plantations and the slaves of southern and eastern Arkansas. But the pro-Union sympathies crumbled after Confederate guns fired on Ft. Sumter, SC, and the secession convention was held at Little Rock on 6 May 1861. The final vote to leave the Union was 69–1: the lone holdout was Isaac Murphy of Madison County, who became the first Unionist Democrat governor at the end of the war.

The largest Civil War battle fought in Arkansas, and one of the most significant battles of the war west of the Mississippi, was at Pea Ridge, in the northwest corner of the state. After three days of fighting, the Union forces retreated, and then the Confederate forces relinquished the field. By September 1863, the Union Army had taken Little Rock, and the Confederate capital was moved to Washington, in Hempstead County, until the conclusion of hostilities in 1865. Like virtually all white southerners, Arkansas's white majority hated the postwar Reconstruction government and repudiated it thoroughly at the first opportunity. Reconstruction officially ended in 1874, when the reenfranchised white Democratic majority adopted a new state constitution, throwing out the carpetbagger constitution of 1868. The most colorful figure in postwar Arkansas was federal judge Isaac C. Parker, known as the Hanging Judge. From his court at Ft. Smith, he had sole jurisdiction over Indian Territory, which had become a gathering place for the nation's worst cutthroats. Parker and his deputy marshals fought them relentlessly. From 1875 through 1896, the judge hanged 79 men on his Ft. Smith gallows. The struggle was not one-sided: 65 of Parker's deputy marshals were killed.

Industrialization, urbanization, and modernization did not come to Arkansas until after the depression of the 1930s. Following World War II (1939–45), the state became the first in the South to integrate its public colleges and universities. Little Rock's school board decided in 1954 to comply with the US Supreme Court's desegregation decision. Nevertheless, in September 1957, Governor Orval E. Faubus called out the National Guard to block the integration of Central High School at Little Rock. US President Dwight D. Eisenhower enforced a federal court order to integrate the school by sending in federal troops. The 1957 crisis brought years of notoriety to Arkansas, as Faubus, then in his second term, was elected to a third term and then to three more.

By the end of the Faubus administration, the public mood had changed, and the contrast between Faubus and his successor could not have been greater. Winthrop Rockefeller, millionaire scion of a famous family, moved to Arkansas from New York in the early 1950s, established himself as a gentleman rancher, and devoted himself to luring industry into his adopted state and building a Republican Party organization in one of the most staunchly Democratic states in the Union. Elected governor in 1966, Rockefeller thus became the first Republican to capture the Arkansas statehouse since Reconstruction. The specific accomplishments of his two terms were relatively few—he and the Democratic-controlled legislature warred incessantly—but he helped immeasurably in bringing a new image and a new spirit to the state.

Rockefeller's successors have continued the progressive approach he took. Governor Bill Clinton, who became US president in 1992, introduced a number of reforms. These included investment tax credits to help corporations modernize their facilities and thereby to create jobs. Clinton also signed a "bare bones" health insurance law, which dropped state requirements for some of the more costly coverages and thus made health insurance affordable for small businesses. He increased expenditures for education and passed legislation requiring competency tests for teachers. But Clinton, like other governors before him, remained hampered in his efforts to improve Arkansas's economy and standard of living by the state constitutional requirement that any increase in the state income tax obtain approval of two-thirds of the legislature. Arkansas continued to rank among the poorest states in the nation, with a per capita income in 1990 of only \$14,000 (46th among the states). By 1998, its ranking had improved, with 14.8% of its people living below poverty level, making it the 12th poorest state in the nation. In 2002–03, Arkansas had an 18.8% poverty rate; that percentage dropped to 16.4% in 2003–04. The US poverty rate in 2004 was 12.7%, up from 12.5% in 2003. Arkansas's poverty rate contributes to its status as an unhealthy state: Arkansas was ranked 46th on the United Health Foundation's state health ratings in 2004.

In 1994, a federal special prosecutor began to investigate the actions of several members of Little Rock's Rose law firm, in which First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton had been a partner, in connection with the failed Whitewater real estate venture. Governor Jim Guy Tucker resigned from office in July 1996 after his conviction on fraud and conspiracy charges stemming from his bank dealings. In March 2000, independent counsel Robert Ray began filing final reports detailing the six-year investigation into Whitewater, and that September, he issued a report finding that neither President Bill Clinton nor First Lady Hillary Clinton had knowingly participated in any criminal conduct. Susan McDougal, with her husband a controlling partner in the Whitewater land deal, found guilty of fraud in 1996, was pardoned by President Clinton in January 2001, just before he left office.

While the state was rocked by political scandal in the 1990s, it also coped with tragic school shootings. On 24 March 1998, two students (ages 11 and 13) went on a rampage in a Jonesboro school, killing four students and a teacher, and wounding ten others. Another shooting occurred in the small community of Prairie Grove on 11 May 2000, when a seventh-grade student left school in a rage and later engaged in an exchange of gunfire with an officer nearby; both were injured. While the nation wrestled with the

problem of violence in its schools and the issue of gun control, for Arkansas residents it was a problem that was too close to home.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Arkansas's fifth constitution, enacted in 1874, has survived several efforts to replace it with a more modern charter. In November 1980, voters turned down yet another proposed new constitution. In May 1995, the Governor's Task Force for a New Constitution was appointed in anticipation of a proposed 1996 constitutional convention. However, in December 1995, a referendum authorizing the convention was defeated by the voters. The constitution had been amended 91 times by January 2005. Eight of the approved amendments have been superseded and are not printed in the current edition of the constitution. The total adopted does not include five amendments proposed and adopted since statehood.

Arkansas's bicameral legislature, the general assembly, consists of a 35-member Senate and a 100-member House of Representatives. Regular legislative sessions are held in odd-numbered years, begin in January, and are limited to 60 calendar days. Senators serve four-year terms and must be at least 25 years old; representatives serve for two years and must be at least 21. Each legislator must be a US citizen and have resided for at least two years in the state and one year in the county or district prior to election. Legislators' salaries in 2004 were \$13,751 per biennial session.

The executive officers elected statewide are the governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, and attorney general, all of whom serve four-year terms. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive elected terms. The governor and lieutenant governor, who run separately, must be US citizens, be at least 30 years old, and have resided in Arkansas for seven years. As of December 2004 the governor's salary was \$75,296.

A bill passed by a majority in both houses of the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if passed over his veto by a majority of all elected members of each house, or if neither signed nor returned by the governor within five days (Sundays excepted) when the legislature is in session or 20 days (Sundays included) after session adjournment. Under an initiative procedure, 8% of those who voted for governor in the last election may propose a law, and 10% of the voters (for governor at the last election) may initiate a constitutional amendment; initiative petitions must be filed at least four months before the general election in order to be voted upon at that time. A referendum on any measure passed by the General Assembly or any item of an appropriations bill or other measure may be petitioned by 6% of the voters; referendum petitions must be filed within 90 days of the session in which the act in question was passed. A successful referendum measure may be repealed by a two-thirds vote of all elected members of the General Assembly. Constitutional amendments may also be proposed by the General Assembly (and approved by a majority vote of both houses) or by constitutional convention. Proposed amendments must be ratified by a majority of voters.

To vote in Arkansas, one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, a state resident, and not able to claim the right to vote in another jurisdiction. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

Arkansas Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004					
YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	ARKANSAS WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT
1948	9	*Truman (D)	149,659	50,959	40,068
1952	8	Stevenson (D)	226,300	177,155	—
1956	8	Stevenson (D)	213,277	186,287	CONSTITUTION 7,008
1960	8	*Kennedy (D)	215,049	184,508	NAT'L STATES' RIGHTS 28,952
1964	6	*Johnson (D)	314,197	243,264	2,965
1968	6	Wallace (AI)	188,228	190,759	AMERICAN IND. 240,982
1972	6	*Nixon (R)	199,892	448,541	AMERICAN 2,887
1976	6	*Carter (D)	498,604	267,903	—
1980	6	*Reagan (R)	398,041	403,164	LIBERTARIAN 8,970
1984	6	*Reagan (R)	388,646	534,774	2,221
1988	6	*Bush (R)	349,237	466,578	3,297
1992	6	*Clinton (D)	505,823	337,324	IND. (Perot) 99,132
1996	6	*Clinton (D)	475,171	325,416	69,884
2000	6	*Bush, G. W. (R)	422,768	472,940	GREEN 13,421
2004	6	*Bush, G. W. (R)	469,953	572,898	POPULIST PARTY OF ARKANSAS (Nader) 6,171

*Won US presidential election.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The principal political groups in Arkansas are the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, each affiliated with the national party organizations.

Before the Civil War (1861–65), politics in Arkansas were fraught with violence. Republicans ruled during Reconstruction, which officially ended in Arkansas after the constitution of 1874 had been adopted by the new Democratic majority. During the election of 1872, the Liberal Republicans, nicknamed Brindletails, opposed the Radical Republicans, or Minstrels. After the Minstrel candidate, Elisha Baxter, was elected, he proved so independent a governor that some of the party leaders who had supported him attempted to oust him through a court order in April 1874, declaring his defeated opponent, Joseph Brooks, the winner. Supported by a militia of about 300 blacks under white command, Brooks took over the statehouse; Baxter, bolstered by his own 300-man black army, set up his headquarters three blocks away. The so-called Brooks-Baxter War finally ended with President Ulysses S. Grant's proclamation of Baxter as the lawful governor. Baxter did not seek reelection—instead Augustus H. Garland was elected, the first of a long series of Bourbon Democrats who were to rule the state well into the 20th century.

After Reconstruction, blacks in Arkansas continued to vote and to be elected to public office; under what became known as the fusion principle, black Republican and white Democratic leaders in the Plantation Belt often agreed not to oppose each other's candidates. Segregation in public places was still outlawed, and Little Rock was perhaps the most integrated city in the South. During the 1890s, however, as in the rest of the South, Democrats began to pass laws imposing segregation and disfranchising blacks as well

as poor whites. In 1906, the Democrats instituted a nominating primary for whites only.

On the rocky path to progressive government, Arkansans elected several governors who stand out as progressive: George Donaghey (1909–13), Charles Brush (1917–21), Thomas McRae (1921–25), Carl Bailey (1935–39), and Sidney McMath (1948–53). Although elected to the governorship as a progressive in 1954, McMath's protégé Orval Faubus took a segregationist stand in 1957. In subsequent years, poor whites tended to support Faubus, while blacks and more affluent whites opposed him. Faubus's successor, progressive Republican Winthrop Rockefeller, was strongly supported by blacks. Rockefeller was followed by three more progressives, all Democrats: Dale Bumpers, David Pryor, and—after Bumpers and Pryor had graduated to the US Senate—Bill Clinton. In a major upset, Clinton was defeated in 1980 by Republican Frank White, but he recaptured the statehouse in 1982 and won reelection in 1984, 1986, and 1990. Clinton ran for and won the presidency in 1992 with a plurality of 53% in Arkansas. Clinton won presidential reelection in 1996, gaining 54% of the vote, against 37% for Republican challenger Bob Dole and 8% for Independent Ross Perot. In the 2000 presidential election, George W. Bush won 51% of the vote to Al Gore's 45% and 2% for Green Party candidate Ralph Nader; in 2004, Bush was reelected with 54% of the vote to Democrat John Kerry's 37%. In 2004 there were 1,686,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had six electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

On 8 November 1994, Democratic governor Jim Guy Tucker was one of the few of his party nationwide to resist a Republican challenge. However, in 1996 Tucker was forced to resign following his conviction on charges related to the Whitewater prosecution, and the governorship was assumed by Lieutenant Governor Mike

Huckabee. Huckabee was elected in his own right in 1998 and re-elected in 2002.

In 1996, the vacated US Senate seat of Democrat David Pryor was won by US Representative Tim Hutchinson, a Republican. Hutchinson was the first Republican ever to be popularly elected to the US Senate from Arkansas. In 1998 Democrat Blanche Lincoln was voted into office, only the second woman in Arkansas history to be elected to the Senate; she was reelected with 56% of the vote in 2004. Democrat Mark Pryor, son of David Pryor, was elected to the US Senate in 2002. Arkansas's US representatives following the 2006 elections included one Republican and three Democrats. As of 2006, the state legislature had 27 Democrats and 8 Republicans in the Senate, and 72 Democrats and 28 Republicans in the House. As of 2006, there were 23 women serving in the state legislature.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

There are 75 counties in Arkansas, 10 of them with 2 county seats. Each county is governed by a quorum court, consisting of between 9 and 15 justices of the peace, elected for 2-year terms; the county judge, who presides, does not vote but has veto power, which may be overridden by a three-fifths vote of the total membership. Elected county officials, who serve two-year terms, include the sheriff, assessor, coroner, treasurer, and county supervisor. In 2005, Arkansas had 499 municipalities, administered under the mayor-council or city-manager form of government. There were 704 special districts and 310 public school districts.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 105,930 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Arkansas operates under the authority of the governor; the emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

Educational services in Arkansas are administered primarily by the Department of Education and the Department of Higher Education. The State Highway and Transportation Department has primary responsibility for roads, rails, and public transit; the offices of motor vehicle registration and driver services are in the Department of Finance and Administration. The Department of Information Systems governs the state's computer links, while the Department of Parks and Tourism encourages visitors.

Health and welfare services are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Health and Human Services. Public protection is provided primarily through the Department of Emergency Management, State Police, National Guard, and Civil Air Patrol, as well as the Department of Correction, which operates prisons and work-release centers. The Public Service Commission regulates utilities in the state.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Arkansas's highest court is the Arkansas Supreme Court, which consists of a chief justice and six associate justices, elected for stag-

gered eight-year terms. An appeals court of 12 judges, also elected for eight-year terms, was established in 1978.

Arkansas's courts of original jurisdiction are the circuit courts (law) and the chancery courts (equity), of which there are 24 circuits each. In 1999, there were 30 circuit court judges serving four-year terms and 33 chancery probate court judges serving six-year terms. An additional 43 judges were serving both circuit and chancery courts. Courts of limited jurisdiction include justice of the peace, county, municipal, and police courts, and courts of common pleas.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 13,807 prisoners were held in state and federal prisons in Arkansas, an increase from 13,315, or 3.7%, from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 962 inmates were female, up from 866, or 11.1%, from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Arkansas had an incarceration rate of 495 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Arkansas in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 499.1 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 13,737 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 110,464 reported incidents, or 4.13 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Arkansas has a death penalty, which can be carried out by lethal injection or electrocution, depending upon the prisoner's request. As of 1976, the state has executed 27 persons; there was one execution in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, there were 38 death row inmates.

In 2003, Arkansas spent \$105,532,650 on homeland security, an average of \$38 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

As of 2004, there were five military installations in Arkansas, the principal ones being Little Rock Air Force Base with the most active-duty military personnel in the state (6,156), and the Army's Pine Bluff Arsenal, with the most civilian employees (1,065). Military personnel in the state numbered 7,676 in 2004, Reserve and National Guard numbered 2,554, and there were 1,714 civilian employees. Firms in the state received \$493 million in defense contract awards in 2004, while the Defense Department payroll was about \$1.2 billion, including retired military pay.

There were 268,353 veterans of US military service in Arkansas as of 2003, of whom 36,703 served in World War II; 28,509 in the Korean conflict; 79,280 during the Vietnam era; and 42,007 during 1990–2000 (in the Gulf War). US Veterans Administration spending in Arkansas was \$1.0 billion in 2004.

In June 2003, the Arkansas State Police had 559 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Near the end of the 18th century, American Indians from east of the Mississippi, displaced by white settlement, entered the area now known as Arkansas. However, as the availability of cheap land in Louisiana Territory drew more and more white settlers—in particular, veterans of the War of 1812, who had been promised

160-acre (65-hectare) tracts—the Indians were pressured to cross the border from Arkansas to present-day Oklahoma.

After the end of the Mexican War, thousands of Arkansans immigrated to Texas, and others were attracted to California in 1849 by the gold rush. Because of a law passed in 1859 requiring free blacks to leave the state by the end of the year or risk being enslaved, Arkansas's population of free blacks dropped from 682 in 1858 to 144 in 1860. During Reconstruction, the state government encouraged immigration by both blacks and whites. Literature sent out by the Office of State Lands and Migration, under the tenure of William H. Grey, a black leader, described the state as a new Africa. Railroads, seeking buyers for the lands they had acquired through government grants, were especially active in encouraging immigration after Reconstruction. Later immigrants included Italians and, in the early 1900s, Germans.

During the Depression era (1930s) and thereafter, Arkansas lost a substantial proportion of its farm population, and many blacks left the state for the industrial cities of the Midwest and the east and west coasts. The net loss from migration totaled 919,000 between 1940 and 1970. Between 1970 and 1980, however, the state gained 180,000 residents through migration, as the Ozarks became one of the fastest-growing rural areas in the United States. The state experienced a small net decline of 2,000 in migration between 1980 and 1983. Net migration from 1985 to 1990 amounted to a gain of nearly 36,600. Between 1990 and 1998, there were net gains of 106,000 in domestic migration and 9,000 in international migration. In 1998, Arkansas admitted 914 immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased by 8%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 21,947 and net internal migration was 35,664, for a net gain of 57,611 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the many interstate agreements in which Arkansas participates are the Arkansas River Basin Compact of 1970 (with Oklahoma), Arkansas-Mississippi Great River Bridge Construction Compact, Bi-State Criminal Justice Center Compact, Central Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Red River Compact, South Central Interstate Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern Regional Education Board, and Southern States Energy Board. There are boundary agreements with Mississippi, Missouri, and Tennessee. In fiscal year 2005, Arkansas received federal grants totaling \$3.818 billion, an estimated \$3.776 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$4.016 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

During the 19th century, Arkansas's economic growth was hindered by credit problems. When the state's two central banks, the Arkansas State Bank and the Real Estate Bank, failed during the 1840s, the government defaulted on bonds issued by the latter and amended the constitution to prohibit all banking in Arkansas. Although banking was restored after the Civil War (1861–65), the state defaulted on its obligations once more in 1877, this time following a decision by the Arkansas supreme court that \$10 million worth of railroad bonds issued during Reconstruction were

unconstitutional. Not until 1917 did New York banks again accept Arkansas securities.

Cotton dominated Arkansas's agricultural economy until well into the 20th century, when rice, soybeans, poultry, and fish farming diversified the output. Coal mining began in the 1870s, bauxite mining near the turn of the century, and oil extraction in the 1920s. Lumbering developed in the last quarter of the 19th century, reached its peak about 1909, and then declined until the 1920s, when reforestation started. Industrialization was limited however, and resources were generally shipped out of state for processing. Not until the 1950s did Arkansas enjoy significant success in attracting industry, thanks in large part to the efforts of Winthrop Rockefeller.

By the 1990s, principal industries in Arkansas had become manufacturing, dominated by lumber and wood products companies; agriculture; forestry; and tourism. Fifty-seven Fortune 500 parent firms are found in Arkansas, including Wal-Mart Stores, Tyson Foods, Dillard Department Stores, Beverly Enterprises, and Alltel. Other important corporations include Jacuzzi, Rice-land Foods, Maybelline, Whirlpool, International Paper, American Greetings, and Georgia Pacific. Stephens Inc., in Little Rock, is the largest off-Wall Street investment firm in the country. Growth in gross state product (GSP) rose to 6% in 1999, but fell to 2.8% in 2000 and 1.7% in 2001. Contributing to Arkansas's GSP of \$80.902 billion in 2004 were manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$14.85 billion (18.3% of GSP); real estate at \$7.417 (9% of GSP); and healthcare and social assistance at \$6.150 billion (7.6% of GSP). In 2004, of the 61,778 firms that had employees, a total of 60,007, or 97.1%, were small businesses. In addition, the number of self-employed persons in that same year rose 8.6%, from 149,093 in 2003 to 161,842 in 2004. New business rose from 8.3% in 2003 to 7,852 in 2004, surpassing business terminations that same year of 6,481. In addition, business bankruptcies in 2004 totaled 376, down 12.4% from 2003. In 2005, personal bankruptcies (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) totaled 881 per 100,000 people, ranking Arkansas as the seventh in the United States.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Arkansas had a gross state product (GSP) of \$87 billion, which accounted for 0.7% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 34 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Arkansas had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$25,814. This ranked 49th in the United States and was 78% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.1%. Arkansas had a total personal income (TPI) of \$70,987,900,000, which ranked 34th in the United States and reflected an increase of 7.0% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.1%. Earnings of persons employed in Arkansas increased from \$49,196,825,000 in 2003 to \$52,896,830,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$33,948, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same pe-

riod, an estimated 17.6% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Arkansas numbered 1,398,400, with approximately 71,800 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,189,400. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Arkansas was 10.2% in March 1983. The historical low was 4.1% in September 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 16.5% in manufacturing; 20.8% in trade, transportation and public utilities; 4.4% in financial activities; 9.6% in professional and business services; 12.5% in education and health services; 8% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.4% in government.

Chartered in 1865, the Little Rock Typographical Union, consisting of *Arkansas Gazette* employees, was the first labor union in the state. The United Mine Workers (UMW) was established in the Ft. Smith area by 1898; six years later, the UMP led in the founding of the Arkansas Federation of Labor. Between 1904 and World War I (1914–18), a series of progressive labor laws was enacted, including a minimum wage, restrictions on child labor, and prohibitions against blacklisting and payment of wages in scrip. Union strength waned after the war, however, and the labor movement is not a powerful force in the state today.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 54,000 of Arkansas' 1,138,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 4.8% of those so employed. This was unchanged from 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 68,000 workers (6%) in Arkansas were covered by a union or employee association contract, which included those workers who reported no union affiliation. As of 1 January 2006 Arkansas was one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Arkansas had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 45.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Farm marketing's in Arkansas were over \$6 billion in 2005 (11th in the United States), with crops and livestock accounting for about 35% and 65%, respectively. The state is the nation's leading producer of rice and is among the leaders in cotton, soybeans, and grain sorghum.

Cotton was first grown in the state about 1800, along the river valleys. Confined mainly to slaveholding plantations before the Civil War (1861–65), cotton farming became more widespread in the postwar period, expanding into the hill country of the northwest and eventually into the deforested areas of the northeast, which proved to be some of the most fertile farmland in the nation. As elsewhere in the postbellum South, sharecropping by tenant farmers predominated well into the 20th century, until mechanization and diversification gradually brought an end to the

system. Rice was first grown commercially in the early 1900s; by 1920, Arkansas had emerged as a poultry and soybean producer.

During 2004, Arkansas produced 124,425,000 bushels of soybeans, valued at \$690,559,000; 32,860,000 bushels of wheat, worth \$115,010,000; 3,570,000 tons of hay, worth \$166,180,000; and 4,704,000 bushels of sorghum for grain, valued at \$10,142,000. The rice harvest in 2004 was 96,600,000 hundredweight (4.39 million kg), worth \$768,196,000. The cotton crop in 2004, 2,085,000 bales, was worth \$488,390,000.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Poultry farms are found throughout Arkansas, but especially in the northern and western regions. Broiler production accounts for over 40% of the state's agricultural receipts. Arkansas was the second-highest broiler-producing state in the United States in 2003 (after Georgia); 5.4 billion lb (2.5 billion kg) of broilers were valued at \$2 billion.

In 2004, it was estimated that Arkansas produced 3.5 billion eggs. In 2003 Arkansas produced 477 million lb (217 million kg) of turkey, valued at \$176.5 million and 125.9 million lb (57.2 million kg) of chickens, valued at \$8.8 million.

The yield of the state's 29,000 milk cows in 2003 was 352 million lb (160 million kg) of milk. In 2005, Arkansas had an estimated 1.9 million cattle and calves valued at \$1.5 billion. In 2004, Arkansas had an estimated 330,000 hogs and pigs valued at \$32.3 million.

25 FISHING

As of 2005, the state ranked second only to Mississippi in catfish farming. As of 1 January 2005, there were 153 catfish operations covering 31,500 acres (14,300 hectares) of water surface, with 100.6 million stocker-size and 184 million fingerling/fry catfish in early 2006. Some producers rotate fish crops with row crops, periodically draining their fish ponds and planting grains in the rich and well-fertilized soil. Most public fishing areas are frequently stocked with trout. Arkansas had 685,634 licensed anglers in 2004. There are three national fish hatcheries in Arkansas.

26 FORESTRY

Forestland comprised 18,771,000 acres (7,596,000 hectares), 56% of the state's total land area, in 2003. Of that total, 18,373,000 acres (7,435,000 hectares) were commercial timberland. The southwest and central plains, the state's timber belt, constitute one of the most concentrated sources of yellow pine in the United States. Lumber production in 2004 totaled 2.9 billion board feet, third in the United States. Three national forests in Arkansas covered a total of 3,540,000 acres (1,432,638 hectares) in 2003.

27 MINING

According to the US Geological Survey, the value of nonfuel mineral production in Arkansas in 2004 totaled \$518 million, an increase of 13.8% from 2003. Bromine, crushed stone, cement (portland and masonry), and construction sand and gravel were the top four nonfuel minerals produced by value, respectively, and accounted for 92% of all nonfuel mineral output by value in the state

for 2004. Overall, Arkansas accounted for more than 1% of all US nonfuel mineral output.

A total of 32.9 million metric tons of crushed stone were produced in 2004 (valued at \$162 million), as well as 9.37 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel with a value of \$53.5 million.

Arkansas in 2004 continued to be the leading bromine-producing state, accounting for most US production. Michigan was the only other state to produce bromine. Also in that year, Arkansas, remained the only state that produced silica stone. A total of 655 metric tons was produced, with a value of \$3.66 million. The state also ranked fifth in gemstones in 2004, with output valued at \$590,000.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Arkansas had 39 electrical power service providers, of which 15 were publicly owned and 17 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned and three were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were over 1.415 million retail customers. Of that total, over 832,486 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 419,184 customers, while publicly owned providers had 164,252 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 13.548 million kW, with total production that same year at 50.401 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 82.6% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 23.504 billion kWh (46.6%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear fueled plants in second place at 14.869 billion kWh (29.1%). Natural gas-fired plants accounted for 14.5% of all power generated, with hydroelectric and other renewable fueled plants at 3.7%.

As of 2006, Arkansas had one operating nuclear power facility, the Arkansas Nuclear One power plant in Pope County.

As of 2004, Arkansas had proven crude oil reserves of 51 million barrels, or less than 1% of all US reserves, while output that same year averaged 18,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 19th (18th excluding federal offshore) in reserves and 17th (16th excluding federal offshore) among the 31 producing states. In 2004, Arkansas had 6,660 producing oil wells and accounted for less than 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's two small refineries had a crude oil distillation capacity of 76,800 barrels per day.

In 2004, Arkansas had 3,460 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In 2003 (the latest year for which data was available) marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 169.599 billion cu ft (4.8 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 1,835 billion cu ft (52.1 billion cu m).

Arkansas in 2004 had two producing coal mines, one surface and one underground. Coal production that year totaled 7,000 short tons, down from 8,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, the surface mine accounted for 6,000 short tons.

29 INDUSTRY

Manufacturing in Arkansas is diverse, ranging from blue jeans to bicycles, though resource industries such as rice processing and woodworking still play a major role.

According to the US Census Bureau Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, the state's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$54.547 billion. Of that total, the food manufacturing sector accounted for the largest portion, at \$14.064 billion. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing, at \$5.419 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing, at \$4.122 billion; paper manufacturing, at \$3.858 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing, at \$3.844 billion.

In 2004, a total of 193,746 people in Arkansas were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 155,852 were production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 49,972, with 43,043 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing, with 16,558 employees (11,808 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing, with 15,078 employees (12,160 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing, with 15,004 employees (12,287 actual production workers); and machinery manufacturing, with 14,324 employees (10,274 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that the state's manufacturing sector paid \$6.391 billion in wages. Of that amount, the food manufacturing sector accounted for the largest portion, at \$1.259 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing, at \$610.668 million; plastics and rubber products manufacturing, at \$537.290 million; paper manufacturing, at \$524.614 million; and transportation equipment manufacturing, at \$512.188 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, the state's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$34.4 billion from 3,498 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,156 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,152 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 190 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$10.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$17.5 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$6.7 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Arkansas was listed as having 12,141 retail establishments with sales of \$25.6 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,783); gasoline stations (1,695); miscellaneous store retailers (1,404) food and beverage stores (1,354); clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,201); and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (1,095). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$7.09 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$5.2 billion; gasoline stations at \$3.02 billion; and food and beverage stores at \$2.8 billion. A total of 134,197 people were employed by the retail sector in Arkansas that year.

During 2005, exports of goods from the state were valued at \$3.8 billion, ranking the state 36th in the nation.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Under the mandate of Consumer Protection Act of 1971, the Consumer Protection Division (CPD) of the Office of the Attorney General has principal responsibility for consumer affairs. The CPD serves as a central coordinating agency for individual consumer complaints, conducts investigations, acts as an advocate and mediator in resolving complaints, and prosecutes civil cases on behalf of Arkansas citizens.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General can initiate civil (but not criminal) proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; and handle consumer complaints. However, the Attorney General's Office has limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the attorney general can act on behalf of consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and may initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts.

The office of the Consumer Protection Division is located in Little Rock.

3² BANKING

In 1836, the first year of statehood, the legislature created the Arkansas State Bank, and the Real Estate Bank, which were intended to promote the plantation system. Fraud, mismanagement, and the consequences of the financial panic of 1837 ruined both banks and led to the passage in 1846 of a constitutional amendment prohibiting the incorporation of any lending institution in Arkansas. Money grew scarce, with credit being rendered largely by suppliers and brokers to farmers and planters until after the Civil War (1861–65), when the prohibition was removed.

As of June 2005, Arkansas had 163 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 72 credit unions (CUs), all of which were federally chartered. Excluding the CUs, the Memphis market area (which includes portions of Tennessee, Arkansas and Mississippi) had 52 financial institutions in 2004, with deposits of \$26.946 billion, followed by the Little Rock/North Little Rock area, with 37 institutions and \$9.799 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for only 3.6% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$1.584 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 96.4% (\$42.280 billion) in assets held.

As of the early 1980s, the Arkansas usury law imposed a 10% ceiling on interest rates (one of the most rigid in the United States); which the US Supreme Court upheld in 1981. The rise of the federal rate above that limit, beginning in mid-1979, caused a considerable outflow of capital from Arkansas. The Arkansas Usury Law was changed in December 1992 with the Interest Rate Control Amendment, which set the maximum interest rate on general loans at 5% above the Federal Reserve Discount Rate. The Arkansas Supreme Court interpreted the amendment to mean that the rate on consumer loans would be 5% above the discount rate, up to 17%. Although many institutions offered higher interest rates anyway, the ability to do so was formalized in the Financial Mod-

ernization Act of 1999. Opposition to usury came primarily from religious factions and labor unions, but low levels of investment during the 1990s motivated the Arkansas government to change the law. State-chartered banks in Arkansas are regulated by the Arkansas State Bank Department.

In 2005, Arkansas experienced strong economic growth in 2005, which benefited the state's financial community as institutions based in the state experienced record net income growth, due mainly to increased net operating income. In 2004, median net interest margins (NIMs—the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for Arkansas' insured institutions stood at 4.14%, up from 4.13% in 2003.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 1.77 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$83.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$136.2 billion. The average coverage amount is \$47,400 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$461.6 million.

As of 2003, there were 11 property and casualty and 38 life and health insurance companies incorporated or organized in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance amounted to \$3.69 billion in 2004. That year, there were 15,067 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1.3 billion.

In 2004, 46% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 30% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 21% for single coverage and 29% for family coverage. The state offers a 120-day health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.8 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$698.28.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Arkansas. In 2005, there were 570 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,420 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 30 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 14 NASDAQ companies, 9 NYSE listings, and 1 AMEX listing. In 2006, the state had five Fortune 500 companies; Wal-Mart Stores (Bentonville) ranked first in the state and second in the nation with revenues of over \$315 billion, followed by Tyson Foods (Springdale), Murphy Oil (El Dorado), Alltel (Little Rock),

and Dillard's (Little Rock). All five of these companies were listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Under the 1874 constitution, state expenditures may not exceed revenues. The mechanism adopted each biennium to prevent deficit spending is a Revenue Stabilization Act. This Act provides the funding for state appropriations by assigning levels of funding priority to the appropriations. All higher level appropriations must

be fully funded before any lower level appropriations are funded. In the event of insufficient revenues to fund appropriations, each agency reduces its spending to correspond to the general revenues allocated to the agency. Efforts to install a statewide Web-based information system met with technical and training difficulties that had slowly been rectified as of 2006. Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at nearly \$3.8 billion for resources and \$3.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Arkansas were nearly \$4.7 billion. For fiscal year 2007, federal funding for the State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) and the HOME Investment Partnership Program was increased.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Arkansas collected \$6,552 million in tax revenues (\$2,358 per capita), which placed it 18th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 8.5% of the total; sales taxes, 39.3%; selective sales taxes, 13.5%; individual income taxes, 28.6%; corporate income taxes, 4.2%; and other taxes, 5.9%.

As of 1 January 2006, Arkansas had six individual income tax brackets of 1.0–7.0%. The state taxes corporations at rates of 1.0–6.5%, depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$1,100,938,000 (\$400 per capita). The per capita amount ranks the state 49th among the 50 states. Local governments collected \$580,614,000 of the total and the state government, \$520,324,000. Although local property taxes are the lowest in the nation, state property tax collections are unusually high.

Arkansas taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 5.50%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 11.50%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 59 cents per pack, which ranks 32nd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Arkansas taxes gasoline at 21.5 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Arkansas citizens received \$1.47 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

First as chairman of the Arkansas Industrial Development Commission and later as governor of the state (1967–71), Winthrop Rockefeller succeeded in attracting substantial and diverse new industries to Arkansas. In 1979, Governor Bill Clinton formed the Department of Economic Development from the former Arkansas Industrial Development Commission for the purpose of stimulating the growth of small business and finding new export markets. The Arkansas Development Finance Authority was created in 1985 in order to support small-scale economic development of new businesses, mortgages, education, and health care. The Economic Development Commission offers such incentives to new businesses as an Enterprise Zone Program, income tax credit, sales and use tax refunds, among others. In 2003, the legislature passed the Consolidated Incentive Act which combined six previ-

Arkansas—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	14,225,176	5,172.79
General revenue	11,679,719	4,247.17
Intergovernmental revenue	4,041,889	1,469.78
Taxes	5,580,678	2,029.34
General sales	2,149,527	781.65
Selective sales	784,503	285.27
License taxes	187,876	68.32
Individual income tax	1,685,585	612.94
Corporate income tax	181,830	66.12
Other taxes	591,357	215.04
Current charges	1,543,848	561.40
Miscellaneous general revenue	513,304	186.66
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,545,457	925.62
Total expenditure	12,674,325	4,608.85
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,233,499	1,175.82
Direct expenditure	9,440,826	3,433.03
Current operation	7,074,989	2,572.72
Capital outlay	1,005,560	365.66
Insurance benefits and repayments	991,592	360.58
Assistance and subsidies	245,563	89.30
Interest on debt	123,122	44.77
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,528,630	555.87
Total expenditure	12,674,325	4,608.85
General expenditure	11,682,733	4,248.27
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,233,499	1,175.82
Direct expenditure	8,449,234	3,072.45
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	4,730,047	1,720.02
Public welfare	2,995,212	1,089.17
Hospitals	532,800	193.75
Health	316,062	114.93
Highways	1,116,310	405.93
Police protection	79,800	29.02
Correction	351,786	127.92
Natural resources	225,132	81.87
Parks and recreation	83,065	30.21
Government administration	476,279	173.19
Interest on general debt	123,122	44.77
Other and unallocable	653,118	237.50
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	991,592	360.58
Debt at end of fiscal year	3,749,282	1,363.38
Cash and security holdings	18,988,203	6,904.80

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

ous economic development incentive programs into one package, plus added some additional incentives for investment and regional development. The six programs consolidated in the Act were the Enterprise Zone program (Advantage Arkansas), which provides incentives for investments in areas with high poverty and/or unemployment); the Economic Investment Tax Credit program (InvestArk Program); the Economic Development Incentives Act (CreateRebate); the Arkansas Economic Development Act (AEDA), which offers tax reductions for investments of at least \$5 million dollars creating at least 100 new permanent jobs; plus incentive programs for improvements in energy technology and biotechnology. By the act, companies would be allowed to sell tax credits earned in order to realize the benefits earlier. The act seeks to promote regional development by rewarding counties which enter into binding compacts with each other to further economic development.

In 2006, the rubber and plastics industry was a targeted industry for the state, due, in part, to the influx of a large number of automotive parts suppliers to the state. Arkansas is home to approximately 200 plastics and rubber companies. Because of its central location in the country, halfway between Canada and Mexico and between the two US coasts, Arkansas provides a valuable transportation advantage. A billion-dollar program to improve approximately 380 mi (600 km) of interstate highways was scheduled to be completed in 2005.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.6 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 9.8 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 81.3% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 10.2 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 307.4; cancer, 231.8; cerebrovascular diseases, 82.4 (the highest in the nation); chronic lower respiratory diseases, 53.2; and diabetes, 29.3. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 3 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 6.7 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 58.9% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, Arkansas ranked sixth in the nation for the highest percentage of resident smokers, with 25.5%.

In 2003, Arkansas had 88 community hospitals with about 9,900 beds. There were about 388,000 patient admissions that year and 4.6 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 5,700 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,130. Also in 2003, there were about 242 certified nursing facilities in the state with 24,791 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 72.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 60.9% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Arkansas had 205 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 729 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,120 dentists in the state.

About 30% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004; the state had the third-highest per-

centage of Medicare recipients in the nation (following West Virginia and Maine). Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$3 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 85,000 people received unemployment benefits, with an average weekly unemployment benefit of \$228. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 373,764 persons (152,916 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$89.47 per person. That year, the total benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$401.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Arkansas's TANF program is called Transitional Employment Assistance (TEA). In 2004, the state program had 22,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$22 million fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 546,080 Arkansas residents. This number included 310,790 retired workers, 58,020 widows and widowers, 95,960 disabled workers, 28,060 spouses, and 53,240 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 20.1% of the total state population and 93.1% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$888; widows and widowers, \$795; disabled workers, \$846; and spouses, \$429. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$451 per month; children of deceased workers, \$554; and children of disabled workers, \$249. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 87,928 Arkansas residents, averaging \$361 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 1,233,203 housing units in Arkansas, of which 1,099,086 were occupied. In the same year, 65.5% of all housing units were owner-occupied. It was estimated that about 98,716 units were without telephone service, 1,709 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 5,662 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Though most units relied on gas and electricity for heating fuels, about 40,890 households used wood for a primary heating source. About 69% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 12.7% were mobile homes. The average household had 2.43 members.

The Department of Housing and Urban Development awarded \$39.6 million in grants to the Arkansas state program in 2002, including \$24.9 million in community development block grants. About 15,900 new housing units were authorized in 2004. The median home value in 2004 was \$79,006, the lowest in the country. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$773 while the monthly cost for renters was at a median of \$517. In September 2005, the state was awarded grants of \$680,321 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural

housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$19.3 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 79.2% of all Arkansans 25 years of age and older were high school graduates. Some 18.8% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

In some ways, Little Rock was an unlikely site for the major confrontation over school integration that occurred in 1957. The school board had already announced its voluntary compliance with the Supreme Court's desegregation decision, and during Governor Faubus's first term (1955–56), several public schools in the state had been peaceably integrated. Nevertheless, on 5 September 1957, Faubus, claiming that violence was likely, ordered the National Guard to seize Central High School to prevent the entry of nine black students. When a mob did appear following the withdrawal of the National Guardsmen in response to a federal court order later that month, President Dwight Eisenhower dispatched federal troops to Little Rock, and they patrolled the school grounds until the end of the 1958 spring semester. Although Faubus's stand encouraged politicians in other southern states to resist desegregation, in Arkansas integration proceeded at a moderate pace. By 1980, Central High School had a nearly equal balance of black and white students, and the state's school system was one of the most integrated in the South.

Public school enrollment in fall 2002 totaled 451,000. Of these, 319,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 132,000 attended high school. Approximately 69.9% of the students were white, 23.1% were black, 5.3% were Hispanic, 1.1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.6% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 449,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 449,000 by fall 2014, a decrease of 0.5% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 27,500 students enrolled in 189 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$3.5 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Arkansas scored 272 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 127,372 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 21.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Arkansas had 47 degree-granting institutions. The largest institution of higher education in the state is the University of Arkansas at Fayetteville (established in 1871). The state university system also has campuses at Fort Smith, Little Rock, Monticello, and Pine Bluff, as well as a medical school. Student aid is provided by the State Scholarship Program within the Department of Higher Education, by the Arkansas Student Loan Guarantee Foundation, and by the Arkansas Rural Endowment Fund, Inc.

42 ARTS

The Arkansas Arts Council was established in 1971 as one of seven agencies of the Department of Arkansas Heritage, which include

the Arkansas Historic Preservation Program, the Arkansas Natural Heritage Commission, the Delta Cultural Center, the Historic Arkansas Museum, the Mosaic Templars Cultural Center, and the Old State House Museum. Major funding comes from the state and the National Endowment for the Arts. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Arts awarded seven grants totaling \$616,200 to Arkansas arts organizations, and the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded eight grants totaling \$1,739,430 to Arkansas organizations. Arkansas is also affiliated with the regional Mid-America Arts Alliance.

Little Rock is the home of the Arkansas Symphony Orchestra (ASO). The ASO celebrated 41 years of performance with its 2006/07 season. Little Rock is also home to the Arkansas Festival Ballet, the Arkansas Repertory Theater, and the Arkansas Arts Center, which holds art exhibits and classes, as well as children's theater performances.

The best-known center for traditional arts and crafts is the Ozark Folk Center at Mountain View. The Ozark Folk Center offers workshops in music and crafts as well as weekly evening concerts that focus on preserving "mountain music" from the Ozark region. As of 2006, the Annual Arkansas Folk Festival was held in Mountain View in April. The Regional Studies Center of Lyon College at Batesville presents an annual Ozark history and culture program.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In calendar year 2001, Arkansas had 35 public library systems, with a total of 209 libraries, of which 169 were branches. In that same year, the state's public libraries held 5,497,000 volumes of books and serial publications, while total circulation amounted to 10,452,000. The system also had 112,000 audio and 101,000 video items, 5,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and five bookmobiles. Important collections include those of the University of Arkansas at Fayetteville (1,556,572 volumes), Arkansas State University at Jonesboro (544,326), the Central Arkansas Library System of Little Rock (528,982), and the News Library of the Arkansas Gazette, also in Little Rock. The total operating income of the public library system was \$38,704,000 in 2001. Arkansas received \$72,000 in federal grants, while state grants that year came to \$4,106,000. The state spent 59.3% of this income on staff and 17.7% on the collection.

There were 78 museums in 2000 and a number of historic sites. Principal museums include the Arkansas Arts Center and the Museum of Science and History, both at Little Rock; the Arkansas State University Museum at Jonesboro; and the University of Arkansas Museum at Fayetteville, specializing in archaeology, anthropology, and the sciences. Also of interest are the Stuttgart Agricultural Museum; the Arkansas Post County Museum at Gillett, whose artifacts are housed in re-created plantation buildings; Hampson Museum State Park, near Wilson, which has one of the largest collections of Mound Builder artifacts in the United States; the Mid-American Museum at Hot Springs, which has visitor-participation exhibits; and the Saunders Memorial Museum at Berryville, with an extensive collection of firearms.

Civil War battle sites include the Pea Ridge National Military Park, the Prairie Grove Battlefield State Park, and the Arkansas Post National Memorial. The Ft. Smith National Historic Site in-

cludes buildings and museums from the days when the town was a military outpost on the border of Indian Territory.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 88.6% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones, the lowest rate in the nation. In addition, by June of that same year there were 307,323 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 50.0% of Arkansas households had a computer and 42.2% had Internet access, the second-lowest in the nation (after Mississippi) for both categories. By June 2005, there were 258,564 high-speed lines in Arkansas, 236,325 residential and 22,239 for business.

There were 63 major radio stations (7 AM, 56 FM) and 17 major television stations in 2005. A total of 23,195 Internet domain names had been registered in Arkansas as of 2000.

45 PRESS

The first newspaper in Arkansas, the *Arkansas Gazette*, established at Arkansas Post in 1819 by William E. Woodruff, ceased publication in 1991. In 2005, there were 14 morning dailies, 14 evening papers, and 16 Sunday papers. In 1992, Little Rock's two major dailies, the *Arkansas Democrat* and the *Democrat Gazette*, merged.

The following table shows the 2005 circulations of the leading dailies:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Fort Smith	<i>Southwest Times Record</i> (m, S)	37,462	43,322
Jonesboro	<i>Jonesboro Sun</i> (m, S)	23,156	26,481
Little Rock	<i>Arkansas Democrat-Gazette</i> (m, S)	182,391	280,529
Springdale-Rogers	<i>Morning News</i> (m, S)	37,669	43,289

In 2005, there were 97 weekly publications in Arkansas. Of these there are 87 paid weeklies, 2 free weeklies, and 8 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (288,228) and free weeklies (43,482) is 331,710.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,190 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,478 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the national organizations with headquarters in Arkansas are the American Crossbow Association in Huntsville; the American Fish Farmers Federation in Lonoke; and the Ozark Society, the American Parquet Association, the Federation of American Hospitals, and the Civil War Round Table Associates, all located in Little Rock. The national headquarters of the Knights of the Ku Klux Klan is in Harrison.

The Association of Community Organizations for Reform Now (ACORN) was founded in Little Rock in 1970 and has since spread to some 20 other states, becoming one of the most influential citizens' lobbies in the United States. Heifer Project International, a social welfare organization that provides agricultural and community development assistance in third world countries, is headquartered in Little Rock. The Arkansas Arts Council and the Historic Preservation Alliance of Arkansas are based in Little Rock.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, Arkansas received 218,000,000 visitors and generated 57,300 jobs in the travel industry. Pulaski and Garland counties accounted for the most visited by tourists.

Leading attractions in Arkansas are the mineral waters and recreational facilities at Hot Springs, Eureka Springs, Mammoth Spring, and Heber Springs. The Crater of Diamonds, near Murfreesboro, is the only known public source of natural diamonds in North America. For a fee, visitors may hunt for diamonds and keep any they find; more than 100,000 diamonds have been found in the area since 1906, of which the two largest are the 40.42-carat Uncle Sam and the 34.25-carat Star of Murfreesboro. The World's Championship Duck Calling Contest is held at the beginning of the winter duck season in Stuttgart. The city of Hamburg hosts the Armadillo Festival.

In support of the industry, the Arkansas Tourism Development Act of 1999 provides incentives for qualified new or expanding tourism facilities and attractions. The program applies to cultural or historical sites; recreational or entertainment facilities; natural, theme, and amusement parks; plays and musicals; and gardens. To qualify, the project must cost more than \$500,000 and have a positive effect on the state. The state has 14 tourist information centers. In 2002, the state had some 19.9 million visitors with travel expenditures reaching over \$3.9 billion (a 2.8% increase from 2000). The new William Jefferson Clinton Presidential Library in Little Rock has the largest collection of presidential artifacts. The University of Alabama recently opened the Clinton School of Public Service.

48 SPORTS

Arkansas has no major professional sports teams but it does have a minor league baseball team, the Travelers. Oaklawn Park in Hot Springs has a 62-day thoroughbred-racing season each spring, and dog races are held in West Memphis from April through November. Several major rodeos take place in summer and fall, including the Rodeo of the Ozarks in Springdale in early July.

The University of Arkansas has competed in the Southeastern Conference since 1990, when it ended its 76-year affiliation with the Southwest Conference. The Razorback football team won the Cotton Bowl in 1947, 1965, 1976, and 2000; the Orange Bowl in 1978; the Sugar Bowl in 1969; and the Bluebonnet Bowl in 1982. The men's basketball team won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I basketball championship in 1994; won or shared the Southwest Conference championship in 1977, 1978, 1979, 1981, and 1982; and won the Southeastern Conference in 1994 and 2000.

49 FAMOUS ARKANSANS

Arkansas has produced one president of the United States, William Jefferson Clinton (b.1946). Clinton, a Democrat, defeated President George H. W. Bush in the 1992 presidential election and was reelected in 1996. Clinton's wife is the former Hillary Rodham (b.Illinois, 1947). Arkansas has yet to produce a vice president or a Supreme Court justice, although one Arkansan came close to reaching both offices: US Senator Joseph T. Robinson (1872–1937) was the Democratic nominee for vice president in 1928, on the ticket with Al Smith; later, he was Senate majority leader under

President Franklin D. Roosevelt. At the time of his death, Robinson was leading the fight for Roosevelt's bill to expand the Supreme Court's membership and had reportedly been promised a seat on the court if the bill passed. Robinson's colleague, Hattie W. Caraway (b.Tennessee, 1878–1950), was the first woman elected to the US Senate, serving from 1931 to 1945.

After World War II (1939–45), Arkansas's congressional delegation included three men of considerable power and fame: Senator John L. McClellan (1896–1977), investigator of organized labor and organized crime and champion of the Arkansas River navigation project; Senator J. William Fulbright (b.Missouri, 1905–95), chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee; and Representative Wilbur D. Mills (1909–92), chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee until scandal ended his political career in the mid-1970s.

Other federal officeholders include Brooks Hays (1898–1981), former congressman and special assistant to Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson, as well as president of the Southern Baptist Convention, the nation's largest Protestant denomination; and Frank Pace Jr. (1912–88), secretary of the Army during the Truman administration.

General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964), supreme commander of Allied forces in the Pacific during World War II, supervised the occupation of Japan and was supreme commander of UN troops in Korea until relieved of his command in April 1951 by President Harry Truman.

Orval E. Faubus (1910–94) served six terms as governor (a record), drew international attention during the 1957 integration crisis at Little Rock Central High School, and headed the most powerful political machine in Arkansas history. Winthrop Rockefeller (b.New York, 1917–73) was Faubus's most prominent successor. At the time of his election in 1978, Bill Clinton was the nation's youngest governor.

Prominent business leaders include the Stephens brothers, W. R. "Witt" (1907–91) and Jackson T. (1923–2005), whose Stephens, Inc., investment firm in Little Rock is the largest off Wall Street; and Kemmons Wilson (1913–2003), founder of Holiday Inns.

Other distinguished Arkansans are Edward Durrell Stone (1902–78), renowned architect; C. Vann Woodward (1908–99), Sterling Professor Emeritus of History at Yale University; and the Right Reverend John M. Allin (1921–98), presiding bishop of the Episcopal Church of the United States. John H. Johnson (1918–2005), publisher of the nation's leading black-oriented magazines—*Ebony*, *Jet*, and others—is an Arkansan, as is Helen Gurley Brown (b.1922), former editor of *Cosmopolitan*.

Harry S. Ashmore (b.South Carolina, 1916–98) won a Pulitzer Prize for his *Arkansas Gazette* editorials calling for peaceful integration of the schools during the 1957 crisis; the *Gazette* itself won a Pulitzer for meritorious public service that year. Paul Greenberg (b.Louisiana, 1937), of the *Pine Bluff Commercial*, is another Pulitzer Prize-winning journalist. John Gould Fletcher (1886–1950) was a Pulitzer Prize-winning poet. Other Arkansas writers include Dee Brown (b.Louisiana, 1908–2002), Maya Angelou (b.Missouri, 1928), Charles Portis (b.1933), and Eldridge Cleaver (1935–98).

Arkansas planter Colonel Sanford C. Faulkner (1803–74) is credited with having written the well-known fiddle tune "The Arkansas Traveler" and its accompanying dialogue. Perhaps the best-

known country music performers from Arkansas are Johnny Cash (1932–2003) and Glen Campbell (b.1938). Film stars Dick Powell (1904–63) and Alan Ladd (1913–64) were also Arkansans.

Notable Arkansas sports personalities include Jerome Herman "Dizzy" Dean (1911–74) and Bill Dickey (1907–93), both members of the Baseball Hall of Fame; Brooks Robinson (b.1937), considered by some the best-fielding third baseman in baseball history; and star pass-catcher Lance Alworth (b.Mississippi, 1940), a University of Arkansas All-American and member of the Professional Football Hall of Fame.

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CALIFORNIA

State of California



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Probably from the mythical island California in a 16th-century romance by Garcí Ordóñez de Montalvo. **NICKNAME:** The Golden State. **CAPITAL:** Sacramento. **ENTERED UNION:** 9 September 1850 (31st). **SONG:** “I Love You, California.” **MOTTO:** *Eureka* (I have found it). **FLAG:** The flag consists of a white field with a red star at upper left and a red stripe and the words “California Republic” across the bottom; in the center, a brown grizzly bear walks on a patch of green grass. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the foreground is the goddess Minerva; a grizzly bear stands in front of her shield. The scene also shows the Sierra Nevada, San Francisco Bay, a miner, a sheaf of wheat, and a cluster of grapes, all representing California’s resources. The state motto and 31 stars are displayed at the top. The words “The Great Seal of the State of California” surround the whole. **BIRD:** California valley quail. **FISH:** South Fork golden trout. **FLOWER:** Golden poppy. **TREE:** California redwood. **GEM:** Benitoite. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln’s Birthday, 12 February; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Cesar Chavez Day, 31 March; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 4 AM PST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated on the Pacific coast of the southwestern United States, California is the nation’s third-largest state (after Alaska and Texas).

The total area of California is 158,706 sq mi (411,048 sq km), of which land takes up 156,299 sq mi (404,814 sq km) and inland water, 2,407 sq mi (6,234 sq km). California extends about 350 mi (560 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 780 mi (1,260 km).

California is bordered on the N by Oregon; on the E by Nevada; on the SE by Arizona (separated by the Colorado River); on the S by the Mexican state of Baja California Norte; and on the W by the Pacific Ocean.

The eight Santa Barbara islands lie from 20 to 60 mi (32–97 km) off California’s southwestern coast; the small islands and islets of the Farallon group are about 30 mi (48 km) W of San Francisco Bay. The total boundary length of the state is 2,050 mi (3,299 km), including a general coastline of 840 mi (1,352 km); the tidal shoreline totals 3,427 mi (5,515 km). California’s geographic center is in Madera County, 38 mi (61 km) E of the city of Madera.

²TOPOGRAPHY

California is the only state in the United States with an extensive seacoast, high mountains, and deserts. The extreme diversity of the state’s landforms is best illustrated by the fact that Mt. Whitney (14,494 ft/4,419 m), the highest point in the contiguous US, is situated no more than 80 mi (129 km) from the lowest point in the entire country, Death Valley (282 ft/86 m, below sea level). The mean elevation of the state is about 2,900 ft (885 m).

California’s principal geographic regions are the Sierra Nevada in the east, the Coast Ranges in the west, the Central Valley between them, and the Mojave and Colorado deserts in the south-

east. The mountain-walled Central Valley, more than 400 mi (640 km) long and about 50 mi (80 km) wide, is probably the state’s most unusual topographic feature. It is drained in the north by the Sacramento River, about 320 mi (515 km) long, and in the south by the San Joaquin River, about 350 mi (560 km). The main channels of the two rivers meet at and empty into the northern arm of San Francisco Bay, flowing through the only significant break in the Coast Ranges, a mountain system that extends more than 1,200 mi (1,900 km) alongside the Pacific. Lesser ranges, including the Siskiyou Mountains in the north and the Tehachapi Mountains in the south, link the two major ranges and constitute the Central Valley’s upper and lower limits.

California has 41 mountains exceeding 10,000 ft (3,050 m). After Mt. Whitney, the highest peaks in the state are Mt. Williamson, in the Sierra Nevada, at 14,375 ft (4,382 m) and Mt. Shasta (14,162 ft/4,317 m), an extinct volcano in the Cascades, the northern extension of the Sierra Nevada. Lassen Peak (10,457 ft/3,187 m), also in the Cascades, is a dormant volcano.

Beautiful Yosemite Valley, a narrow gorge in the middle of the High Sierra, is the activity center of Yosemite National Park. The Coast Ranges, with numerous forested spurs and ridges enclosing dozens of longitudinal valleys, vary in height from about 2,000 to 7,000 ft (600–2,100 m).

Melted snow from the Sierra Nevada feeds the state’s principal rivers, the Sacramento and San Joaquin. The Coast Ranges are drained by the Klamath, Eel, Russian, Salinas, and other rivers. In the south, most rivers are dry creek beds except during the spring flood season; they either dry up from evaporation in the hot summer sun or disappear beneath the surface, like Death Valley’s Amargosa River. The Salton Sea, in the Imperial Valley of the southeast, is the state’s largest lake, occupying 374 sq mi (969 sq km). This saline sink was created accidentally in the early 1900s when

Colorado River water, via an irrigation canal, flooded a natural depression 235 ft (72 m) below sea level in the Imperial Valley. Lake Tahoe, in the Sierra Nevada at the angle of the California-Nevada border, covers 192 sq mi (497 sq km).

The California coast is indented by two magnificent natural harbors, San Francisco Bay and San Diego Bay, and two smaller bays, Monterey and Humboldt. Two groups of islands lie off the California shore: the Santa Barbara Islands, situated west of Los Angeles and San Diego; and the rocky Farallon Islands, off San Francisco.

The Sierra Nevada and Coast Ranges were formed more than 100 million years ago by the uplifting of the earth's crust. The Central Valley and the Great Basin, including the Mojave Desert and Death Valley, were created by sinkage of the earth's crust; inland seas once filled these depressions but evaporated over eons of time. Subsequent volcanic activity, erosion of land, and movement of glaciers until the last Ice Age subsided some 10,000 years ago and gradually shaped the present topography of California. The San Andreas Fault, extending from north of San Francisco Bay for more than 600 mi (970 km) southeast to the Mojave Desert, is a major active earthquake zone and was responsible for the great San Francisco earthquake of 1906. Damage from that earthquake amounted to \$24 million, with an additional \$350–500 in fire losses (total losses would amount to about \$6 billion in current dollars). More recently, the 1994 earthquake in Northridge caused damage estimated at \$13–20 billion, making it the costliest earthquake in US history.

Because water is scarce in the southern part of the state and because an adequate water supply is essential both for agriculture and for industry, more than 1,000 dams and reservoirs have been built in California. By 1993, there were 1,336 reservoirs in the state. Popular reservoirs for recreation are located along the tributaries of the Sacramento and San Joaquín rivers. Clair Lake Eagle, also known as Trinity Lake, is located on the Trinity River. The reservoir has a surface area of 16,400 acres (6,640 hectares). Lake Shasta, located on the Sacramento River, has a surface area of 15,800 acres (6,397 hectares). Lake Berryessa, located on Putah Creek, has a surface area of 19,250 acres (7,794 hectares). Lake New Melones, located on the Stanislaus River, has a surface area of 12,500 acres (5,061 hectares). The San Luis Reservoir, fed by the California Aqueduct, has a surface area of 12,500 acres (5,061 hectares). Don Pedro Lake, located on the Toulumme River, has a surface area of 13,000 acres (5,263 hectares).

3 CLIMATE

Like its topography, California's climate is varied and tends toward extremes. Generally there are two seasons—a long, dry summer, with low humidity and cool evenings, and a mild, rainy winter—except in the high mountains, where four seasons prevail and snow lasts from November to April. The one climatic constant for the state is summer drought.

California has four main climatic regions. Mild summers and winters prevail in central coastal areas, where temperatures are more equable than virtually anywhere else in the United States; in the area between San Francisco and Monterey, for example, the difference between average summer and winter temperatures is seldom more than 10°F (6°C). During the summer there are heavy

fogs in San Francisco and all along the coast. Mountainous regions are characterized by milder summers and colder winters, with markedly low temperatures at high elevations. The Central Valley has hot summers and cool winters, while the Imperial Valley is marked by very hot, dry summers, with temperatures frequently exceeding 100°F (38°C).

Average annual temperatures for the state range from 47°F (8°C) in the Sierra Nevada to 73°F (23°C) in the Imperial Valley. The highest temperature ever recorded in the United States was 134° (57°C), registered in Death Valley on 10 July 1913. Death Valley has the hottest average summer temperature in the Western Hemisphere, at 98°F (37°C). The state's lowest temperature was -45°F (-43°C), recorded on 20 January 1937 at Boca, near the Nevada border.

Among the major population centers, Los Angeles has an average annual temperature of 65°F (18°C), with an average January minimum of 48°F (9°C) and an average July maximum of 73°F (27°C). San Francisco has an annual average of 57°F (13°C), with a January average minimum of 46°F (7°C) and a July average maximum of 66°F (18°C). The annual average in San Diego is 64°F (18°C), the January average minimum 48°F (8°C), and the July average maximum 76°F (24°C). Sacramento's annual average temperature is 61°F (16°C), with January minimums averaging 38°F (3°C) and July maximums of 93°F (34°C).

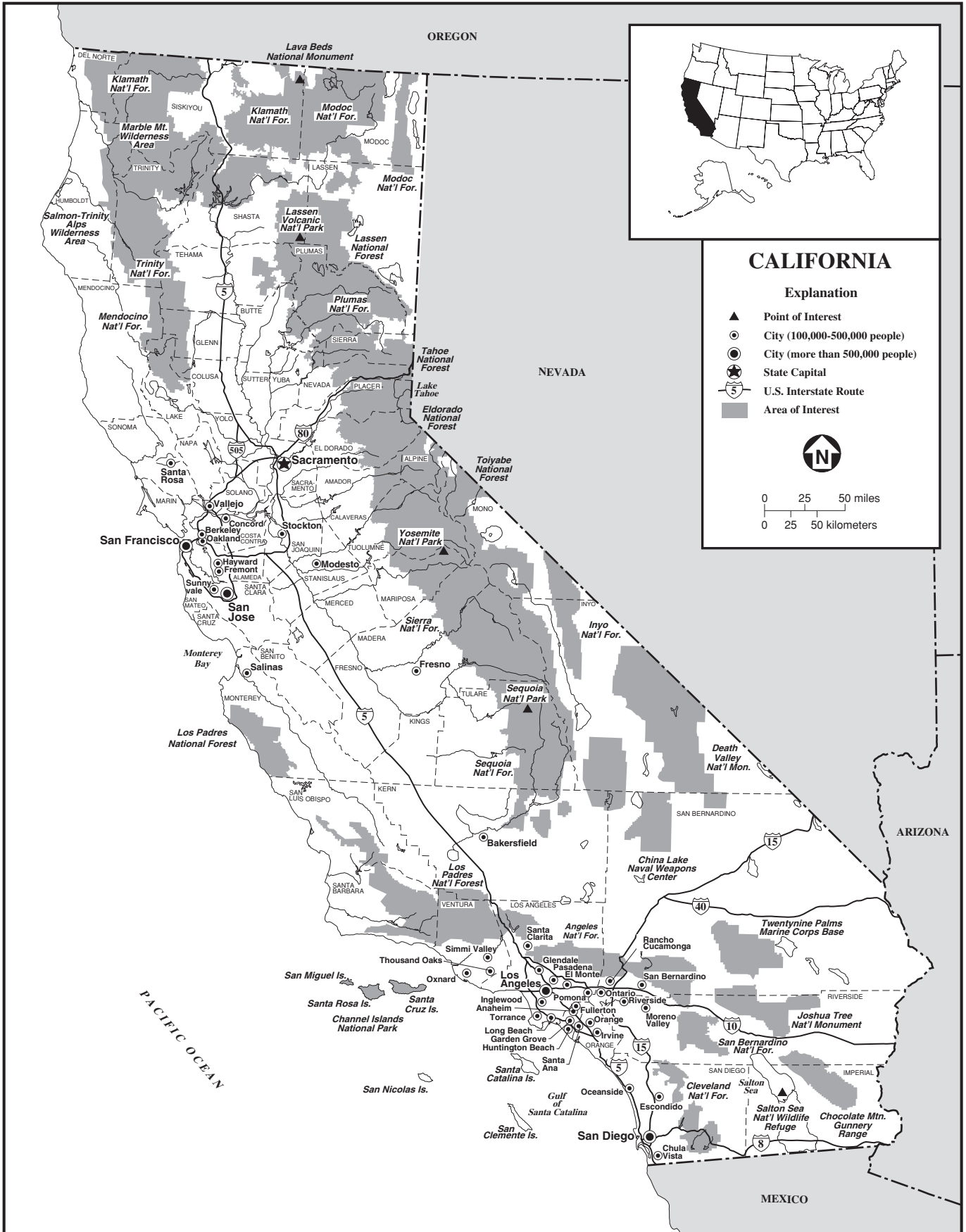
Annual precipitation varies from only 2 in (5 cm) in the Imperial Valley to 68 in (173 cm) at Blue Canyon, near Lake Tahoe. San Francisco has an average annual precipitation of 20.4 in (51 cm), Sacramento 17.4 in (44 cm), Los Angeles 14 in (35 cm), and San Diego 9.9 in (25 cm). The largest one-month snowfall ever recorded in the United States—390 in (991 cm)—fell in Alpine County in January 1911. Snow averages between 300 and 400 in (760 to 1,020 cm) annually in the high elevations of the Sierra Nevada, but is rare in the coastal lowlands.

Sacramento has the greatest percentage (78%) of possible annual sunshine among the state's largest cities; San Diego has 68% and San Francisco 66%. San Francisco is the windiest, with an average annual wind speed of 11 mph (18 km/hr). Topical rainstorms occur often in California during the winter. Part of California are also prone to wildfires. In 2003, wildfires burned in southern California from late October through early November causing 22 deaths. Damage included to 743,000 acres of burned brush and timber and over 3,700 destroyed homes, with a total cost of damage at over \$2.5 billion.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Of the 48 conterminous states, California embraces the greatest diversity of climate and terrain. The state's six life zones are the lower Sonoran (desert); upper Sonoran (foothill regions and some coastal lands); transition (coastal areas and moist northeastern counties); and the Canadian, Hudsonian, and Arctic zones, comprising California's highest elevations.

Plant life in the arid climate of the lower Sonoran zone features a diversity of native cactus, mesquite, and paloverde. The Joshua tree (*Yucca brevifolia*) is found in the Mojave Desert. Flowering plants include the dwarf desert poppy and a variety of asters. Fremont cottonwood and valley oak grow in the Central Valley. The upper Sonoran zone includes the unique chaparral belt, charac-



CALIFORNIA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (100,000-500,000 people)
- City (more than 500,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 5 U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



0 25 50 miles
 0 25 50 kilometers

terized by forests of small shrubs, stunted trees, and herbaceous plants. Nemophila, mint, phacelia, viola, and the golden poppy (*Eschscholtzia californica*)—the state flower—also flourish in this zone, along with the lupine, more species of which occur here than anywhere else in the world.

The transition zone includes most of the state's forests, with such magnificent specimens as the redwood (*Sequoia sempervirens*) and "big tree" or giant sequoia (*Sequoia gigantea*), among the oldest living things on earth (some are said to have lived at least 4,000 years). Tanbark oak, California laurel, sugar pine, madrona, broad-leaved maple, and Douglas fir are also common. Forest floors are carpeted with swordfern, alumroot, barrenwort, and trillium, and there are thickets of huckleberry, azalea, elder, and wild currant. Characteristic wild flowers include varieties of mariposa, tulip, and tiger and leopard lilies.

The high elevations of the Canadian zone are abundant with Jeffrey pine, red fir, and lodgepole pine. Brushy areas are covered with dwarf manzanita and ceanothus; the unique Sierra puffball is also found here. Just below timberline, in the Hudsonian zone, grow the whitebark, foxtail, and silver pines. At approximately 10,500 ft (3,200 m) begins the Arctic zone, a treeless region whose flora includes a number of wild flowers, including Sierra primrose, yellow columbine, alpine buttercup, and alpine shooting star.

Common plants introduced into California include the eucalyptus, acacia, pepper tree, geranium, and Scotch broom. Among the numerous species found in California that are federally classified as endangered are the Contra Costa wallflower, Antioch Dunes evening primrose, Solano Grass, San Clemente Island larkspur, salt marsh bird's beak, McDonald's rock-cress, and Santa Barbara Island Liveforever.

Mammals found in the deserts of the lower Sonoran zone include the jackrabbit, kangaroo rat, squirrel, and opossum. The Texas night owl, roadrunner, cactus wren, and various species of hawk are common birds, and the sidewinder, desert tortoise, and horned toad represent the area's reptilian life. The upper Sonoran zone is home to such mammals as the antelope, brown-footed woodrat, and ring-tailed cat. Birds distinctive to this zone are the California thrasher, bush tit, and California condor.

Animal life is abundant amid the forests of the transition zone. Colombian black-tailed deer, black bear, gray fox, cougar, bobcat, and Roosevelt elk are found. Garter snakes and rattlesnakes are common, as are such amphibians as the water-puppy and redwood salamander. The kingfisher, chickadee, towhee, and hummingbird represent the bird life of this region.

Mammals of the Canadian zone include the mountain weasel, snowshoe hare, Sierra chickaree, and several species of chipmunk. Conspicuous birds include the blue-fronted jay, Sierra hermit thrush, water ouzel, and Townsend solitaire. Birds become scarcer as one ascends to the Hudsonian zone, and the wolverine is now regarded as rare. Only one bird is native to the high Arctic region—the Sierra rosy finch—but others often visit, including the hummingbird and Clark nutcracker. Principal mammals of this region are also visitors from other zones; the Sierra coney and white-tailed jackrabbit make their homes here. The bighorn sheep also lives in this mountainous terrain; the bighorn sheep has been listed as endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service. Among fauna found throughout several zones are the mule deer,

coyote, mountain lion, red-shafted flicker, and several species of hawk and sparrow.

Aquatic life in California is abundant, from the state's mountain lakes and streams to the rocky Pacific coastline. Many trout species are found, among them rainbow, golden, and Tahoe; migratory species of salmon are also common. Deep-sea life forms include sea bass, yellowfin tuna, barracuda, and several types of whale. Native to the cliffs of northern California are seals, sea lions, and many types of shorebirds, including several migratory species.

The Resources Agency of California's Department of Fish and Game is especially active in listing and providing protection for rare, threatened, and endangered fauna. Joint efforts by state and federal wildlife agencies have established an ambitious, if somewhat controversial, recovery program to revitalize the dwindling population of the majestic condor, the largest bird native to the United States.

In April 2006, a total of 303 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 124 animals (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 179 plant species. Endangered animals include the San Joaquin kit fox, Point Arena mountain beaver, Pacific pocket mouse, salt marsh harvest mouse, Morro Bay kangaroo rat (and five other species of kangaroo rat), Amargosa vole, California least tern, California condor, San Clemente loggerhead shrike, San Clemente sage sparrow, San Francisco garter snake, five species of salamander, three species of chub, and two species of pupfish. Eleven butterflies listed as endangered and two as threatened on the federal list are California species. Among threatened animals are the coastal California gnatcatcher, Paiute cutthroat trout, southern sea otter, and northern spotted owl.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Efforts to preserve natural wilderness areas in California go back at least to 1890, when the US Congress created three national parks in the Sierra Nevada: Sequoia, Grant (now part of Kings Canyon), and Yosemite. Three years later, some 4 million acres (1.6 million hectares) of the Sierra Nevada were set aside in national forests. In 1892, naturalist John Muir and other wilderness lovers founded the Sierra Club which, with other private groups of conservationists, has been influential in saving the Muir Woods and other stands of redwoods from the lumbermen's axes. Over the next century, numerous other natural areas were designated national parklands. Among the most recent were Death Valley National Park (1994), Joshua Tree National Park (1994), and "Rosie the Riveter" World War II Home Front National Historical Park (2000).

California is home to four Ramsar Wetlands of International Importance. Bolinas Lagoon, located at Point Reyes peninsula northwest of San Francisco, was designated in 1998, primarily for its role as a wintering habitat for migratory birds. This area is owned and managed jointly by the County of Marin and the Golden Gate National Recreational Area under the Bolinas Lagoon Resource Management Plan, which was developed in 1981 and updated in 1996. Damage and erosion to the area caused by various sport and recreation activities is a primary concern for conservation of this area, as is the threat of oil and sewage spills. Tomales Bay, adjacent to the Point Reyes National Seashore, was designated in 2002. This area supports rare eelgrass beds, a well devel-

oped coastal sand dune system, and over 21,000 migratory birds per year. The site is managed by both private and public ownership through the efforts of the Point Reyes National Seashore, the Golden Gate Recreation Area, and the Marin Agricultural Land Trust. The Grassland Ecological Area in the Central Valley of the San Joaquin River basin was designated in February 2005. This is the largest single freshwater wetland in the state, but the site has been threatened through plans for urban development. Some conservation issues of this site are handled under the Central Valley Project Improvement Act of 1992. The Tijuana River National Estuarine Research Reserve, located near the border of Mexico, was also designated in February 2005. This site is managed through the joint efforts of the US Fish and Wildlife Service and the California State Department of Parks and Recreation.

California's primary resource problem is water: the southern two-thirds of the state account for about 75% of annual water consumption but only 30% of the supply. Water has been diverted from the Sierra Nevada snow runoff and from the Colorado River to the cities and dry areas largely by means of aqueducts, some 700 mi (1,100 km) of which have been constructed in federal and state undertakings. In 1960, California embarked on one of the largest public works programs ever undertaken in the United States when voters approved a bond issue to construct the California Water Project, designed to deliver 1.4 trillion gallons of water annually to central and southern California for residential, industrial, and agricultural use. Other purposes of the project were to provide flood control, generate electric power, and create recreation areas.

Maintaining adequate water resources continued to be a problem in the 1990s. As the result of a US Supreme Court decision, southern California lost close to 20% of its water supply in December 1985, when a portion of the water it had been permitted to draw from the Colorado River was diverted to Arizona. In 1982, California voters turned down a proposal to build a canal that would have delivered water that flows into San Francisco Bay to southern California; no other plans to cope with the impending shortage were approved at that time. In December 1994 the state and federal governments joined together to form the Bay Delta Accord, intended to restore the environmentally threatened San Francisco Bay area through a combination of better conservation efforts and public and private investment. In November 1996 voters approved a bond issue valued at nearly \$1 billion to implement the Accord.

Air pollution has been a serious problem since July 1943, when heavy smog enveloped Los Angeles for the first time; smog conditions in October 1954 forced the closing of the city's airport and harbor. Smog is caused by an atmospheric inversion of cold air that traps unburned hydrocarbons at ground level; perhaps two-thirds of the smog particles are created by automobile exhaust emissions. In 1960, the state legislature passed the first automobile antismog law in the nation, requiring that all cars be equipped with anti-smog exhaust devices within three years. (Federal laws controlling exhaust emissions on new cars came into effect in the 1970s.) The city's smog problem has since been reduced to manageable proportions, but pollution problems from atmospheric inversions still persist there and in other California cities. Nonetheless there is reason for optimism—in 1996, for example, Southern California had the best air quality ever measured in the post-World War II era. A key factor was introduction of a reformulated gasoline

touted as the cleanest-burning in the world, which reduced polluting emissions by 15% when put into use in 1996. The state inspection-and-maintenance program is also being reformed and updated, focusing on the small number of cars linked to as much as 50% of vehicular pollution in the state.

In early 1995, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) approved a California ozone-reduction plan that ordered car manufacturers to design and produce cars that will be 50% to 84% cleaner than the ones sold in 1990. In 1998 new regulations were introduced to give tax credits to Californians who drove very low emission vehicles. In 2001 regulators proposed offering credits for use of a shared fleet of vehicles. California's plan that 10% of the 2003 cars offered for sale would be zero emission vehicles (ZEV) was not realized. In 2003, 57.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state.

State land-reclamation programs have been important in providing new agricultural land and controlling flood damage. One of the earliest such programs, begun shortly before 1900, reclaimed 500,000 acres (200,000 hectares) by means of a network of dams, dikes, and canals in the swampy delta lying within the fork of the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers. In 1887, a state law created irrigation districts in the southeastern region; the Imperial Valley was thus transformed from a waterless, sandy basin into some of the most productive agricultural land in the United States.

Flood control was one of the main purposes of the \$2.6 billion Feather River Project in the Central Valley, completed during the 1970s. Ironically, in the western portion of the Central Valley, farmland is now threatened by irrigation water tainted by concentrated salts and other soil minerals, for which current drainage systems are inadequate. One drainage system, the San Luis Drain, originally intended to carry the water to San Francisco Bay, was stopped short of completion and goes only as far as the Kesterson National Wildlife Refuge, where, according to the US Fish and Wildlife Service, the tainted water has caused birth defects in birds.

In the 1980s, the state legislature enacted stringent controls on toxic waste. California has also been a leader in recycling waste products, for example, using acid waste from metal-processing plants as a soil additive in citrus orchards. In 2003, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 903 hazardous waste sites in California, 93 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. National Priority List sites included 18 military sites, 4 sites in the San Fernando Valley, 4 sites in the San Gabriel Valley, 2 sites owned by Intel Corp., 1 site owned by Hewlett-Packard, and the Jet Propulsion Laboratory of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). California ranks third in the nation for the most National Priority List sites, following New Jersey and Pennsylvania. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$25 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Also in 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$85 million for a safe drinking water revolving loan fund and \$82 million for a water pollution control revolving loan fund.

The California Department of Water Resources is responsible for maintaining adequate groundwater levels, enforcing water-quality standards, and controlling floodwaters. The state Department of Conservation has overall responsibility for conservation and protection of the state's soil, mineral, petroleum, geothermal,

and marine resources. The California Coastal Commission, created in 1972, is designated by federal law to review projects that affect California's coastline, including offshore oil leasing, which has become a source of concern in recent years.

6 POPULATION

California ranked first in population among the 50 states in 2005 with an estimated total of 36,132,147, an increase of 6.7% since 2000. California replaced New York as the decennial census leader in 1970, with a total of 19,971,069 residents, and has lengthened its lead ever since. Between 1990 and 2000, California's population grew from 29,760,021 to 33,871,648, an increase of 13.8%. The population is projected to reach 40.1 million by 2015 and 44.3 million by 2025.

In 2004 the median age was 34.2. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 26.7% of the population while only 10.7% was age 65 or older (lower than the national average of 12.4% at 65 or older).

When Europeans first arrived in California, at least 300,000 American Indians lived in the area. By 1845, the Indian population had been reduced to about 150,000. Although Spanish missions and settlements were well established in California by the late 18th century, the white population numbered only about 7,000 until the late 1840s. The Gold Rush brought at least 85,000 adventurers to the San Francisco Bay area by 1850, however, and the state's population increased rapidly thereafter. California's population grew to 379,994 by 1860 and had passed the 1 million mark within 30 years. Starting in 1890, the number of state residents just about doubled every two decades until the 1970s, when

the population increased by 18.5%, down from the 27.1% increase of the 1960s. However, the total growth rate during the 1980s was 25.7%, reflecting a population increase of over 6 million.

More than 90% of California's residents live in metropolitan areas. The population density in 2004 was 230.2 persons per sq mi, up from 190.8 per sq mi in 1990. Between 1997 and 2002 the largest population growth occurred mainly in the Central Valley and foothill counties, and in Riverside and San Bernardino Counties in Southern California. The five counties of Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and San Diego accounted for 55% of California's total population in 2002, and 52% of the total increase in population since 1997. The city of Los Angeles, ranking as the second-largest city in the nation, had an estimated 2004 population of 3,845,541; San Diego (seventh in the nation), 1,263,756; San Jose (10th), 904,522; San Francisco (14th), 744,230; Long Beach, 476,564; Fresno, 457,719; Sacramento, 454,330; Oakland, 397,976; Santa Ana, 342,715; and Anaheim, 333,776.

Los Angeles, which expanded irregularly and lacks a central business district, nearly quadrupled its population from 319,000 in 1910 to 1,240,000 in 1930, and then doubled it to 2,479,000 by 1960. A major component of the city's population growth was the upsurge in the number of blacks after World War II, especially between 1960 and 1970, when the number of blacks increased from 335,000 to 504,000, many of them crowded into the deteriorating Watts section.

In 1999, the Los Angeles–Long Beach–Santa Ana urban complex, with a total estimated population of 12,925,330, was the second most populous metropolitan area in the United States (after that of New York). Other estimates for that year include the San

California—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Alameda	Oakland	735	1,448,905	Placer	Auburn	1,416	317,028
Alpine	Markleeville	739	1,159	Plumas	Quincy	2,573	21,477
Amador	Jackson	589	38,471	Riverside	Riverside	7,214	1,946,419
Butte	Oroville	1,646	214,185	Sacramento	Sacramento	971	1,363,482
Calaveras	San Andreas	1,021	46,871	San Benito	Hollister	1,388	55,936
Colusa	Colusa	1,153	21,095	San Bernardino	San Bernardino	20,064	1,963,535
Contra Costa	Martinez	730	1,017,787	San Diego	San Diego	4,212	2,933,462
Del Norte	Crescent City	1,007	28,705	San Francisco	San Francisco*	46	739,426
El Dorado	Placerville	1,715	176,841	San Joaquin	Stockton	1,415	664,116
Fresno	Fresno	5,978	877,584	San Luis Obispo	San Luis Obispo	3,308	255,478
Glenn	Willows	1,319	27,759	San Mateo	Redwood City	447	699,610
Humboldt	Eureka	3,579	128,376	Santa Barbara	Santa Barbara	2,748	400,762
Imperial	El Centro	4,173	155,823	Santa Clara	San Jose	1,293	1,699,052
Inyo	Independence	10,223	18,156	Santa Cruz	Santa Cruz	446	249,666
Kern	Bakersfield	8,130	756,825	Shasta	Redding	3,786	179,904
Kings	Hanford	1,392	143,420	Sierra	Downieville	959	3,434
Lake	Lakeport	1,262	65,147	Siskiyou	Yreka	6,281	45,259
Lassen	Susanville	4,553	34,751	Solano	Fairfield	834	411,593
Los Angeles	Los Angeles	4,070	9,935,475	Sonoma	Santa Rosa	1,604	466,477
Madera	Madera	2,145	142,788	Stanislaus	Modesto	1,506	505,505
Marin	San Rafael	523	246,960	Sutter	Yuba City	602	88,876
Mariposa	Mariposa	1,456	18,069	Tehama	Red Bluff	2,953	61,197
Mendocino	Ukiah	3,512	88,161	Trinity	Weaverville	3,190	13,622
Merced	Merced	1,944	241,706	Tulare	Visalia	4,808	410,874
Modoc	Alturas	4,064	9,524	Tuolumne	Sonora	2,234	59,380
Mono	Bridgeport	3,019	12,509	Ventura	Ventura	1,862	796,106
Monterey	Salinas	3,303	412,104	Yolo	Woodland	1,014	184,932
Napa	Napa	744	132,764	Yuba	Marysville	640	67,153
Nevada	Nevada City	960	98,394	TOTALS		156,296	36,132,147
Orange	Santa Ana	798	2,988,072				

Francisco–Oakland–Fremont area, 4,153,870; metropolitan San Diego, 2,931,714; and metropolitan Sacramento, 2,016,702.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

In 2000, California's foreign-born population numbered 8,864,255, or 26% of the state's total population, the largest percentage among the 50 states. Nearly one-third of all foreign-born persons in the United States live in California. Latin Americans account for about half of foreign-born Californians, while Asians account for another third. As of 2002, nearly four-fifths of foreign-born Californians lived in the metropolitan areas of Los Angeles (5.1 million) and San Francisco (1.9 million).

The westward movement of American settlers in the third quarter of the 19th century, followed by German, Irish, North Italian, and Italian Swiss immigrants, overshadowed but did not obliterate California's Spanish heritage. In 2000, 10,966,556 (32.4%) of the state's residents was of Hispanic or Latino origin, up from 7,688,000 (25.8%) in 1990, and more than the total for any other state. In 2004, 34.7% of the total population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. The census of 2000 recorded that the majority—8,455,926, up from 5,322,170 in 1990—were Mexican-Americans; there were also 140,570 Puerto Ricans and 72,286 Cubans. After World War II, the Hispanic communities of Los Angeles, San Diego, and other southern California cities developed strong political organizations. Increasing numbers of Mexican-Americans have won local, state, and federal elective office, though their potential remains unrealized.

In 2000 California had the largest Asian population of any state: 3,697,513 (up from 2,846,000 in 1990), or 10.9% of the state's total population (the second-highest percentage in the nation). In 2004, the Asian population was 12.1% of the total population. In 2000 there were 116,961 Pacific Islanders (including more native Hawaiians than in any state except Hawaii). In 2004, 0.4% of the population was Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. Chinese workers were first brought to California between 1849 and 1882, when the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed by Congress. In 2000 the Chinese constituted the largest group among California's Asian population, numbering 980,642, or 2.9% of the population. The nation's oldest and largest Chinatown is in San Francisco. Although Chinese-Americans, as they prospered, moved to suburban areas, the seats of the powerful nationwide and worldwide merchant and clan associations are in that city. Los Angeles also has a Chinese district.

The Japanese, spread throughout the western seaboard states, were engaged mainly in agriculture, along with fishing and small business, until their removal and internment during World War II. After the war, some continued in market gardening and other family agriculture, but most, deprived of their landholdings, entered urban occupations, including the professions; many dispersed to other regions of the country. In 2000 there were 288,854 Japanese in California, down from 353,251 in 1990.

After the Chinese, the most populous Asian group in California in 2000 was the Filipino community, with 918,678, or 2.7% of the total state population. In 2000 California also had 345,882 Koreans, 447,032 Vietnamese (up from 242,946 in 1990), 314,819 Asian Indians (up from 112,560), 55,456 Laotians, 20,571 native

Hawaiians (down from 43,418 in 1990), 37,498 Samoans, and 20,918 Guamanians.

American Indians and Alaska Natives numbered around 333,346 in 2000 (up from 242,000 in 1990), the greatest number of any state in the country. The figure for American Indians includes Indians native to California and many others coaxed to resettle there under a policy that sought to terminate tribal status. Along with the remaining indigenous tribes in California, there is also a large urban Indian population, especially in Los Angeles, which has more Indians than any other US city. Many of the urban Indians were unprepared for the new kind of life and unable to earn an adequate living; militant Indians have made dramatic, but on the whole unsuccessful, protests aimed at bettering their condition. In 2004, American Indians and Alaska Natives accounted for 1.2% of the population.

Black Americans constitute a smaller proportion of California's population than that of the nation as a whole: less than 7% in 2000. Nevertheless, California still had the fifth-largest black population, numbering 2,263,882. In 2004, 6.8% of the population was black. Considerable migration of blacks took place during World War II, when defense industries on the West Coast offered new opportunities.

8 LANGUAGES

The speakers of Russian, Spanish, and English who first came to what is now California found an amazing diversity of American Indian cultures, ranging from the Wiyot in the north to the Yokuts in the Central Valley and the Diegueño in the south, and of Indian languages, representing four great language families: Athapaskan, Penutian, Kokan-Siouan, and Aztec. Yet, except for place names such as Shasta, Napa, and Yuba, they have not lent any of their words to California speech.

As in much of the West, California English is a composite of the eastern dialects and subdialects brought by the continuing westward migration from the eastern states, first for gold and timber, then for farming, for diversified manufacture, for Hollywood, and for retirement. The interior valley is Midland-oriented, with such retained terms as *piece* (a between-meals lunch), *quarter till*, *barn lot* (barnyard), *dog irons* (andirons), and *snake feder and snake doctor* (dragonfly), but generally, in both northern and southern California, Northern dominates the mixture of North Midland and South Midland speech in the same communities. Northern *sick to the stomach*, for example, dominates Midland *sick at* and *sick in*, with a 46% frequency; Northern *angleworm* has 53% frequency, as compared with 21% for Midland *fishworm*; and Northern *string beans* has 80% frequency, as compared with 17% North Midland *green beans* and South Midland and Southern *snap beans*. Northern *comforter* was used by 94% of the informants interviewed in a state survey; Midland *comfort* by only 21%. Dominant is Northern /krik/ as the pronunciation of *creek*, but Midland *bucket* has a greater frequency than Northern *pail*, and the Midland /greezy/ for *greasy* is scattered throughout the state. Similarly, the distinction between the /wh/ in *wheel* and the /w/ of *weal* is lost in the use of simple /w/ in both words, and *cot* and *caught* sound alike, as do *caller* and *collar*.

There are some regional differences. San Francisco, for instance has *sody* or *soda water* for a soft drink; there the large sandwich is

a *grinder*, while in Sacramento it is either a *poor Joe* or a *submarine*. Notable is the appearance of *chesterfield* (meaning sofa or davenport), found in the Bay region and from San Jose to Sacramento; this sense is common in Canada but now found nowhere else in the United States. Boonville, a village about 100 mi (160 km) north of San Francisco, is notorious for “Boontling,” a local dialect contrived in the mid-19th century by Scotch-Irish settlers who wanted privacy and freedom from obscenities in their conversation. Now declining in use, Boontling has about 1,000 vocabulary replacements of usual English words, together with some unusual pronunciations and euphemisms.

As the nation’s major motion picture, radio, and television entertainment center, Los Angeles has influenced English throughout the nation—even the world—by making English speakers of many dialects audible and visible and by making known new terms and new meanings. It has thus been instrumental in reducing dialectal extremes and in developing increased language awareness.

California’s large foreign-language populations have posed major educational problems. In 1974, a landmark San Francisco case, *Lau v. Nichols*, brought a decision from the US Supreme Court that children who do not know English should not thereby be handicapped in school, but should receive instruction in their native tongue while learning English. California’s Chacon-Moscone law required native-language instruction, but the law expired in 1987. In 1997, a federal judge ruled against an injunction that had blocked English immersion classes in Orange County. The ruling ended the bilingual education program in the school district and opened the possibility for a statewide vote in June 1998 to decide if non-English-speaking students will be permitted to learn English upon entering public schools. On 2 June 1998 California voters enacted Proposition 227, which called for students to be taught English by being submerged in English-language classrooms.

In 2000, 19,014,873 Californians, or 60.5% of the population five years old or over, reported speaking only English at home, down from 68.5% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	31,416,629	100.0
Speak only English	19,014,873	60.5
Speak a language other than English	12,401,756	39.5
Speak a language other than English	12,401,756	39.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	8,105,505	25.8
Chinese	815,386	2.6
Tagalog	626,399	2.0
Vietnamese	407,119	1.3
Korean	298,076	0.9
Armenian	155,237	0.5
Japanese	154,633	0.5
Persian	154,321	0.5
German	141,671	0.5
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	135,067	0.4
Russian	118,382	0.4

9 RELIGIONS

The first Roman Catholics in California were Spanish friars, who established 21 Franciscan missions from San Diego to Sonoma between 1769 and 1823. After an independent Mexican government began to secularize the missions in 1833, the American Indi-

an population at the missions declined from about 25,000 to only about 7,000 in 1840. With the American acquisition of California in 1848, the Catholic Church was reorganized to include the archdiocese of San Francisco. The Church also maintains an archdiocese in Los Angeles.

Protestant ministers accompanied migrant miners during the gold rush, founding 32 churches in San Francisco by 1855. These early Protestants included Baptists, Congregationalists, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Episcopalians; a group of Mormons had arrived by ship via Cape Horn in 1846. The Midwesterners who began arriving in large numbers in the 1880s were mostly Protestants, who settled in southern California. By 1900, the number of known Christians in the state totaled 674,000, out of a population of nearly 1,500,000.

Small Jewish communities were established throughout California by 1861, and in 1880, the Jewish population was estimated at 18,580.

The mainstream religions did not satisfy everybody’s needs, however, and in the early 20th century, many dissident sects sprang up, including such organizations as Firebrands for Jesus, the Psychosomatic Institute, the Mystical Order of Melchizedek, the Infinite Science Church, and Nothing Impossible, among many others.

Perhaps the best-known founder of a new religion was Canadian-born Aimee Semple McPherson, who preached her Foursquare Gospel during the 1920s at the Angelus Temple in Los Angeles, won a large radio audience and thousands of converts, and established 240 branches of her church throughout the state before her death in 1944. She was typical of the many charismatic preachers of new doctrines who gave—and still give—California its exotic religious flavor. The Foursquare Church national office is still located in Los Angeles. Since World War II, religions such as Zen Buddhism and Scientology have won enthusiastic followings, along with various cults devoted to self-discovery and self-actualization.

Nevertheless, the majority of religious adherents in California continue to follow traditional faiths. In 2004, there were 10,496,697 Roman Catholics in 1,070 parishes. The next largest religion is Judaism, with about 994,000 adherents in 425 congregations in 2000. In 2006, the Latter-day Saints reported a statewide membership of 761,763 adherents in 1,386 congregations; new Mormon temples were built in Redlands in 2003 and in Newport Beach in 2005. The largest Protestant churches in the state, as of 2000, include Southern Baptist, 471,119; Assembly of God, 310,522; Presbyterian Church USA, 229,918, and the United Methodist Church, 228,844. In 2000, there were 489 Buddhist, 131, Hindu, and 163 Muslim congregations in the state. About 53.9% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

The Church of Scientology in Los Angeles, established in 1954 by the religion’s founder L. Ron Hubbard, is the religion’s largest facility, which also serves as a training center for leaders. The Church of Scientology reportedly sponsors about 3,200 churches worldwide in 154 countries. There were 11 congregations in the state of California in 2006.

The Crystal Cathedral, opened in 1980 in Garden Grove, California, is the home base for the international Crystal Cathedral Ministries and the internationally televised *Hour of Power*. Dr.

Robert H. Schuller, a minister of the Reformed Church in America, presides over a congregation of over 10,000 members.

The national office of the American Druze Society is in Eagle Rock. A national headquarters for Jews for Jesus is located in San Francisco, and the national headquarters of Soka Gakkai International is in Santa Monica. The international headquarters of the Rosicrucian Fellowship is in Oceanside.

10 TRANSPORTATION

California has—and for decades has had—more motor vehicles than any other state, and ranked second only to Texas in interstate highway mileage in 2004. An intricate 8,300-mi (13,400-km) network of urban interstate highways, expressways, and freeways is one of the engineering wonders of the modern world, but the traffic congestion in the state's major cities during rush hours may well be the worst in the country.

In pioneer days, the chief modes of transportation were sailing ships and horse-drawn wagons; passage by sea from New York took three months, and the overland route from Missouri was a six-week journey. The gold rush spurred development of more rapid transport. The state's first railroad, completed in 1856, was a 25-mi (40-km) line from Sacramento northeast to Folsom, in the mining country. The Central Pacific–Union Pacific transcontinental railroad, finished 13 years later, would give California a direct rail line to the eastern US. In 1876, the Southern Pacific (the successor to the Central Pacific) completed a line from Sacramento to Los Angeles and another line to Texas the following year. Other railroads took much longer to build; the coastal railroad from San Francisco to Los Angeles was not completed until 1901, and another line to Eureka was not finished until 1914. The railroads dominated transportation in the state until motor vehicles came into widespread use in the 1920s.

As of 2003, California had 7,283 rail mi (11,725 km) of track, with over 76% of all railroad right-of-ways in the state operated by Class I railroads, the Burlington Northern Santa Fe Railway and the Union Pacific. As of 2006, Amtrak passenger trains connected the state's major population centers through three east–west routes via its California Zephyr (Chicago to Oakland), Southwest Chief (Chicago to Los Angeles) and Sunset Limited (Los Angeles to Orlando/Jacksonville, Florida) trains, and by four north–south routes that linked: Sacramento with San Jose, Oakland and Auburn (Capitol Corridor); Sacramento/Oakland with Bakersfield (San Joaquins); and Los Angeles to Seattle (Coast Starlight); and ran along the coast from Paso Robles to Los Angeles and San Diego (Pacific Surfliner).

Urban transit began in San Francisco in 1861 with horse-drawn streetcars. Cable-car service was introduced in 1873. A few cable cars are still in use, mainly for the tourist trade. The 71-mi (114-km) Bay Area Rapid Transit System (BART) was completed in the 1970s, despite many mechanical problems and costly delays. BART connects San Francisco with Oakland by high-speed, computerized subway trains via a 3.6-mi (5.8-km) tunnel under San Francisco Bay and runs north–south along the San Francisco peninsula.

Public transit in the Los Angeles metropolitan area was provided by electric trolleys beginning in 1887. By the early 1930s, the Los Angeles Railway carried 70% of the city's transit passengers,

and in 1945, its trolleys transported 109 million passengers. Competition from buses, which provided greater mobility, but aggravated the city's smog and congestion problems, forced the trolleys to end service in 1961. During the late 1980s, plans were developed for a commuter rail transportation system in the Southern California region. In 1992, the first three lines of the Metrolink system began operation. By 1995, six Metrolink lines were serving the counties of Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and Ventura.

California's extensive highway system had its beginning in the mid-19th century, when stagecoaches began hauling freight to the mining camps from San Francisco, Sacramento, and San Jose. In the early 1850s, two stagecoach lines, Adams and Wells Fargo, expanded their routes and began to carry passengers. By 1860, some 250 stagecoach companies were operating in the state. The decline of stagecoach service corresponded with the rise of the railroads. In 1910, at a time when only 36,000 motor vehicles were registered in the state, the California Highway Commission was established. Among its first acts was the issuance of \$18 million in bonds for road construction, and the state's first paved highway was constructed in 1912. The number of automobiles surged to 604,000 by 1920. In 1929, about 1 of every 11 cars in the United States belonged to a Californian. Ironically in view of the state's subsequent traffic problems, the initial effect of the automobile was to disperse the population to outlying areas, thus reducing traffic congestion in the cities.

The Pasadena Freeway, the first modern expressway in California, opened in 1941. During the 1960s and 1970s, the state built a complex toll-free highway network linking most cities of more than 5,000 population, tying in with the federal highway system, and costing more than \$10 billion. Local, state, and federal authorities combined spent over \$9.3 billion on California highways in 1997, nearly \$2 billion of that amount for maintenance. Also in 1997, federal aid to California from the Federal Highway Administration fund totaled about \$2 billion.

By providing easy access to beach and mountain recreation areas, the new freeways, in combination with the favorable climate and low price of gasoline, further encouraged the use of the automobile and led to massive traffic tie-ups, contributed to the decline of public transit, and worsened the coastal cities' air-pollution problems. Los Angeles County claims more automobiles, more miles of streets, and more intersections than any other city in the United States. The greatest inducement to automobile travel in and out of San Francisco was the completion in 1936 of the 8-mi (13-km) San Francisco–Oakland Bay Bridge. The following year saw the opening of the magnificent Golden Gate Bridge, which at 4,200 ft (1,280 m) was the world's longest suspension bridge until New York's Verrazano–Narrows Bridge opened to traffic in 1964.

In 2004, California had 169,791 mi (273,363 km) of public roads. In that same year, the state registered approximately 31.501 million motor vehicles, including 19.057 million automobiles, 11.799 million trucks of all types, and some 36,000 buses. California also leads the nation in private and commercial motorcycle registrations, at around 611,000. There were 22,761,088 licensed California drivers in 2004.

The large natural harbors of San Francisco and San Diego monopolized the state's maritime trade until 1912, when Los Angeles began developing port facilities at San Pedro by building a break-

water that eventually totaled 8 mi (13 km) in length. In 1924, Los Angeles surpassed San Francisco in shipping tonnage handled and became one of the busiest ports on the Pacific coast. In 2004, the port at Long Beach handled 80.066 million tons of cargo, making it the fifth-busiest port in the United States. The port at Los Angeles handled 51.931 million tons in that same year and was the nation's 14th busiest port. Other main ports and their 2004 cargo quantities include: Richmond, 24.743 million tons; Oakland, 15.541 million tons; and San Diego, with 3.170 million tons. In 2004, California had 286 mi (460 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003 waterborne shipments totaled 193.378 million tons.

In 2005, California had a total of 933 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 535 airports, 385 heliports, two STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 11 seaplane bases. California had seven airports that ranked among the top 50 busiest airports in the United States in 2004. The state's most active air terminal that year was Los Angeles International Airport, with a total of 28,925,341 enplanements, making it the nation's third busiest airport, behind Atlanta Hartsfield and Chicago O'Hare International. San Francisco International was the state's second busiest airport with 15,605,822 enplanements, which made it the 13th busiest in the United States. San Diego International, Metropolitan Oakland International, Norman Y. Mineta–San Jose International, Sacramento International, and John Wayne Airport–Orange County were the state's third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh busiest air terminals, and the nation's 29th, 31st, 37th, 41st, and 42nd busiest air terminals, respectively that year.

11 HISTORY

The region now known as California has been populated for at least 10,000 years, and possibly far longer. Estimates of the prehistoric American Indian population have varied widely, but it is clear that California was one of the most densely populated areas north of Mexico. On the eve of European discovery, at least 300,000 Indians lived there. This large population was divided into no fewer than 105 separate tribes or nations speaking at least 100 different languages and dialects, about 70% of which were as mutually unintelligible as English and Chinese. No area of comparable size in North America, and perhaps the world, contained a greater variety of native languages and cultures than did aboriginal California.

In general, the California tribes depended for their subsistence on hunting, fishing, and gathering the abundant natural food resources. Only in a few instances, notably along the Colorado River, did the Indians engage in agriculture. Reflecting the mild climate of the area, their housing and dress were often minimal. The basic unit of political organization was the village community, consisting of several small villages, or the family unit. For the most part, these Indians were sedentary people: they occupied village sites for generations, and only rarely warred with their neighbors.

European contact with California began early in the Age of Discovery, and was a product of the two great overseas enterprises of 16th-century Europe: the search for a western passage to the East and the drive to control the riches of the New World. In 1533, Hernán Cortés, Spanish conqueror of the Aztecs, sent a naval expedition northward along the western coast of Mexico in search of new wealth. The expedition led to the discovery of Baja California (now part of Mexico), mistakenly described by the pilot of the

voyage, Fortún Jiménez, as an island. Two years later, Cortés established a settlement on the peninsula at present-day La Paz, but because Baja California seemed barren of any wealth, the project was soon abandoned. The only remaining interest in California was the search for the western mouth of the transcontinental canal—a mythical waterway the Spanish called the Strait of Anian. In 1542, Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo led a voyage of exploration up the western coast in a futile search for the strait. On 28 September, Cabrillo landed at the bay now known as San Diego, thus becoming the first European discoverer of Alta (or Upper) California.

European interest in the Californias waned in the succeeding decades, and California remained for generations beyond the periphery of European activity in the New World. Subsequent contact was limited to occasional landfalls by Manila galleons, such as those of Pedro de Unamuno (1587) and Sebastián Cermeño (1595), and the tentative explorations of Sebastián Vizcaino in 1602–03.

Spanish interest in California revived during the late 18th century, largely because Spain's imperial rivals were becoming increasingly aggressive. For strategic and defensive reasons, Spain decided to establish permanent settlements in the north. In 1769, José de Gálvez, visitor-general in New Spain, selected the president of the Franciscan missions in Baja California, Father Junípero Serra, to lead a group of missionaries on an expedition to Alta California. Accompanying Serra was a Spanish military force under Gaspar de Portolá. The Portolá-Serra expedition marks the beginning of permanent European settlement in California. Over the next half-century, the 21 missions established by the Franciscans along the Pacific coast from San Diego to San Francisco formed the core of Hispanic California. Among the prominent missions were San Diego de Alcalá (founded in 1769), San Francisco de Asís (1776), Santa Barbara (1786), and San José (1797). During most of the Spanish period, Mission San Carlos Borromeo (1770), at Carmel, was the ecclesiastical headquarters of the province, serving as the residence of the president-general of the Alta California missions.

These missions were more than just religious institutions. The principal concern of the missionaries was to convert the Indians to Christianity—a successful enterprise, if the nearly 88,000 baptisms performed during the mission period are any measure. The Franciscans also sought to bring about a rapid and thorough cultural transformation. The Indians were taught to perform a wide variety of new tasks: making bricks, tiles, pottery, shoes, saddles, wine, candles, and soap; herding horses, cattle, sheep, and goats; and planting, irrigating, and harvesting. In addition to transforming the way of life of the California Indians, the missions also reduced their number by at least 35,000. About 60% of this decline was due to the introduction of new diseases, especially diseases that were nonepidemic and sexually transmitted.

Spain also established several military and civilian settlements in California. The four military outposts, or presidios, at San Diego (1769), Monterey (1770), San Francisco (1776), and Santa Barbara (1783) served to discourage foreign influence in the region and to contain Indian resistance. The presidio at Monterey also served as the political capital, headquarters for the provincial governors appointed in Mexico City. The first civilian settlement, or pueblo, was established at San José de Guadalupe in 1777, with 14 families from the Monterey and San Francisco presidios. The pueblo set-

tlers, granted supplies and land by the government, were expected to provide the nearby presidios with their surplus agricultural products. The second pueblo was founded at Los Angeles (1781), and a third, Branciforte, was established near present-day Santa Cruz in 1797.

During the 40 years following the establishment of the Los Angeles pueblo, Spain did little to strengthen its outposts in Alta California. The province remained sparsely populated and isolated from other centers of Hispanic civilization. During these years, the Spanish-speaking population of 600 grew nearly fivefold, but this expansion was almost entirely due to natural increase rather than immigration.

Spanish control of California ended with the successful conclusion of the Mexican Revolution in 1821. For the next quarter-century, California was a province of the independent nation of Mexico. Although California gained a measure of self-rule with the establishment of a provincial legislature, the real authority still remained with the governor appointed in Mexico City. The most important issues in Mexican California were the secularization of the missions, the replacement of the Franciscans with parish or "secular" clergy, and the redistribution of the vast lands and herds the missions controlled. Following the secularization proclamation of Governor José Figueroa in 1834, the Mexican government authorized more than 600 rancho grants in California to Mexican citizens. The legal limit of an individual grant was 11 square leagues (about 76 sq mi/197 sq km), but many large landholding families managed to obtain multiple grants.

The rancho economy, like that of the missions, was based on the cultivation of grain and the raising of huge herds of cattle. The rancheros traded hides and tallow for manufactured goods from foreign traders along the coast. As at the missions, herding, slaughtering, hide tanning, tallow rendering, and all the manual tasks were performed by Indian laborers. By 1845, on the eve of American acquisition, the non-Indian population of the region stood at about 7,000.

During the Mexican period, California attracted a considerable minority of immigrants from the United States. Americans first came to California in the late 18th century in pursuit of the sea otter, a marine mammal whose luxurious pelts were gathered in California waters and shipped to China for sale. Later, the hide and tallow trade attracted Yankee entrepreneurs, many of whom became resident agents for American commercial firms. Beginning in 1826, with the arrival overland of Jedediah Strong Smith's party of beaver trappers, the interior of California also began to attract a growing number of Americans. The first organized group to cross the continent for the purpose of settlement in California was the Bidwell-Bartleson party of 1841. Subsequent groups of overland pioneers included the ill-fated Donner party of 1846, whose members, stranded by a snowstorm near the Sierra Nevada summit, resorted to cannibalism, which allowed 47 of the 87 travelers to survive.

Official American efforts to acquire California began during the presidency of Andrew Jackson in the 1830s, but it was not until the administration of James K. Polk that such efforts were successful. Following the American declaration of war against Mexico on 13 May 1846, US naval forces, under command of Commodore John D. Sloat and Robert F. Stockton, launched an assault along the Pacific coast, while a troop of soldiers under Stephen W. Ke-

arny crossed overland. On 13 January 1847, the Mexican forces in California surrendered. More than a year later, after protracted fighting in central Mexico, a treaty of peace was signed at Guadalupe-Hidalgo on 2 February 1848. Under the terms of the treaty, Mexico ceded California and other territories to the United States in exchange for \$15 million and the assumption by the United States of some \$3 million in claims by Mexican citizens.

Just nine days before the treaty was signed, James Wilson Marshall discovered gold along the American River in California. The news of the gold discovery, on 24 January 1848, soon spread around the globe, and a massive rush of people poured into the region. By the end of 1848, about 6,000 miners had obtained \$10 million worth of gold. During 1849, production was two or three times as large, but the proceeds were spread among more than 40,000 miners. In 1852, the peak year of production, about \$80 million in gold was mined in the state, and during the century following its discovery, the total output of California gold amounted to nearly \$2 billion.

California's census population quadrupled during the 1850s, reaching nearly 380,000 by 1860, and continued to grow at a rate twice that of the nation as a whole in the 1860s and 1870s. The new population of California was remarkably diverse. The 1850 census found that nearly a quarter of all Californians were foreign-born, while only a tenth of the national population had been born abroad. In succeeding decades, the percentage of foreign-born Californians increased, rising to just under 40% during the 1860s.

One of the most serious problems facing California in the early years of the gold rush was the absence of adequate government. Miners organized more than 500 "mining districts" to regulate their affairs; in San Francisco and other cities, "vigilance committees" were formed to combat widespread robbery and arson. The US Congress, deadlocked over the slavery controversy, failed to provide any form of legal government for California from the end of the Mexican War until its admission as a state in the fall of 1850. Taking matters into their own hands, 48 delegates gathered at a constitutional convention in Monterey in September 1849 to draft a fundamental law for the state. The completed constitution contained several unique features, but most of its provisions were based on the constitutions of Iowa and New York. To the surprise of many, the convention decided by unanimous vote to exclude slavery from the state. After considerable debate, the delegates also established the present boundaries of California. Adopted on 10 October, the constitution was ratified by the voters on 13 November 1849; at the same time, Californians elected their first state officials. California soon petitioned Congress for admission as a state, having bypassed the preliminary territorial stage, and was admitted after southern objections to the creation of another free state were overcome by adoption of the stringent new Fugitive Slave Law. On 9 September 1850, President Millard Fillmore signed the admission bill, and California became the 31st state to enter the union.

The early years of statehood were marked by racial discrimination and considerable ethnic conflict. Indian and white hostilities were intense; the Indian population declined from an estimated 150,000 in 1845 to less than 30,000 by 1870. In 1850, the state legislature enacted a foreign miners' license tax, aimed at eliminating competition from Mexican and other Latin American miners.

The Chinese, who replaced the Mexicans as the state's largest foreign minority, soon became the target of a new round of discrimination. By 1852, 25,000 Chinese were in California, representing about a tenth of the state's population. The legislature enacted new taxes aimed at Chinese miners, and passed an immigration tax (soon declared unconstitutional) on Chinese immigrants.

Controversy also centered on the status of the Mexican ranchos, those vast estates created by the Mexican government that totaled more than 13 million acres (5 million hectares) by 1850. The Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo had promised that property belonging to Mexicans in the ceded territories would be "inviolably protected." Nevertheless, in the early years of statehood, thousands of squatters took up residence on the rancho lands. Ultimately, about three-fourths of the original Mexican grants were confirmed by federal commissions and courts; however, the average length of time required for confirmation was 17 years. During the lengthy legal process, many of the grantees either sold parts of their grants to speculators or assigned portions to their attorneys for legal fees. By the time title was confirmed, the original grantees were often bankrupt and benefited little from the decision.

Despite the population boom during the gold rush, California remained isolated from the rest of the country until completion of the transcontinental railroad in 1869. Under terms of the Pacific Railroad Act of 1862, the Central Pacific was authorized by Congress to receive long-term federal loans and grants of land, about 12,500 acres per mi (3,100 hectares per km) of track, to build the western link of the road. The directors of the California corporation—Leland Stanford, Collis P. Huntington, Charles Crocker, and Mark Hopkins, who became known as the Big Four—exercised enormous power in the affairs of the state. Following completion of the Central Pacific, the Big Four constructed additional lines within California, as well as a second transcontinental line, the Southern Pacific, providing service from southern California to New Orleans.

To a degree unmatched anywhere in the nation, the Big Four established a monopoly of transportation in California and the Far West. Eventually the Southern Pacific, as the entire system came to be known after 1884, received from the federal government a total of 11,588,000 acres (4,690,000 hectares), making it the largest private landowner in the state. Opponents of the railroad charged that it had established not only a transportation monopoly but also a corrupt political machine and a "land monopoly" in California. Farmers in the San Joaquin Valley became involved in a protracted land dispute with the Southern Pacific, a controversy that culminated in a bloody episode in 1880, known as the Battle of Mussel Slough, in which seven men were killed. This incident, later dramatized by novelist Frank Norris in *The Octopus* (1901), threw into sharp relief the hostility between many Californians and the state's largest corporation.

In the late 19th century, California's economy became more diversified. The early dependence on gold and silver mining was overcome through the development of large-scale irrigation projects and the expansion of commercial agriculture. Southern California soon was producing more than 65% of the nation's orange crop, and more than 90% of its lemons. The population of southern California boomed in the 1880s, fueled by the success of the new citrus industry, an influx of invalids seeking a warmer climate, and a railroad rate war between the Southern Pacific and

the newly completed Santa Fe. For a time, the tariff from Kansas City to Los Angeles fell to a dollar a ticket. Real estate sales in Los Angeles County alone exceeded \$200 million in 1887.

During the early 20th century, California's population growth became increasingly urban. Between 1900 and 1920, the population of the San Francisco Bay area doubled, while residents of metropolitan Los Angeles increased fivefold. On 18 April 1906, San Francisco's progress was interrupted by the most devastating earthquake ever to strike California. The quake and the fires that raged for the following three days killed at least 452 people, razed the city's business section, and destroyed some 28,000 buildings. The survivors immediately set to work to rebuild the city, and completed about 20,000 new buildings within three years.

By 1920, the populations of the two urban areas were roughly equal, about 1 million each. As their population grew, the need for additional water supplies became critical, and both cities became involved in bitter "water fights" with other state interests. Around 1900, San Francisco proposed the damming of the Tuolumne River at the Hetch Hetchy Valley to form a reservoir for the city's water system. Conservationist John Muir and the Sierra Club objected strongly to the proposal, arguing that the Hetch Hetchy was as important a natural landmark as neighboring Yosemite Valley. The conservationists lost the battle, and the valley was flooded. (The dam there is named for Michael O'Shaughnessy, San Francisco's city engineer from 1912 to 1932 and the builder of many of California's water systems.) When Los Angeles began its search for new water supplies, it soon became embroiled in a long controversy over access to the waters of the Owens River. The city constructed a 250-mi (400-km) aqueduct that eventually siphoned off nearly the entire flow of the river, thus jeopardizing the agricultural development of Owens Valley. Residents of the valley dramatized their objection to the project by dynamiting sections of the completed aqueduct.

Important movements for political reform began simultaneously in San Francisco and Los Angeles in the early 20th century. Corruption in the administration of San Francisco Mayor Eugene Schmitz led to a wide-ranging public investigation and to a series of trials of political and business leaders. Meanwhile, in Los Angeles, a coalition of reformers persuaded the city to adopt a new charter with progressive features such as initiative, referendum, and recall. Progressive Republican Hiram Johnson won the governorship in 1910, and reformers gained control of both houses of the state legislature in 1911. Subsequent reform legislation established effective regulation of the railroads and other public utilities, greater governmental efficiency, female suffrage, closer regulation of public morality, and workers' compensation.

During the first half of the 20th century, California's population growth far outpaced that of the nation as a whole. The state's climate, natural beauty, and romantic reputation continued to attract many, but new economic opportunities were probably most important. In the early 1920s, major discoveries of oil were made in the Los Angeles Basin, and for several years during the decade, California ranked first among the states in production of crude oil. The population of Los Angeles County more than doubled during the decade, rising to 2,208,492 by 1930. Spurred by the availability and low price of petroleum products and by an ever expanding system of public roadways, Los Angeles also became the most thoroughly motorized and automobile-conscious city

in the world. By 1925, Los Angeles had one automobile for every three persons, more than twice the national average.

Even during the 1930s, when California shared in the nationwide economic depression, hundreds of thousands of refugees streamed into the state from the dust bowl of the southern Great Plains. The film industry, which offered at least the illusion of prosperity to millions of Americans, continued to prosper during the depression. By 1940 there were more movie theaters in the United States than banks, and the films they showed were almost all California products.

Politics in the Golden State in the 1930s spawned splinter movements like the Townsend Plan and the "Ham'n' Eggs" Plan, both of which advocated cash payments for the elderly. In 1934, Socialist author Upton Sinclair won the Democratic gubernatorial nomination with a plan called End Poverty in California (EPIC), but he lost the general election to the Republican incumbent, Frank Merriam.

During World War II, the enormous expansion of military installations, shipyards, and aircraft plants attracted millions of new residents to California. The war years also saw an increase in the size and importance of ethnic minorities. By 1942, only Mexico City had a larger urban Mexican population than Los Angeles. During the war, more than 93,000 Japanese-Americans in California—most of whom were US citizens and American born—were interned in "relocation centers" throughout the Far West.

California continued to grow rapidly during the postwar period, as agricultural, aerospace, and service industries provided new economic opportunities. Politics in the state were influenced by international tensions, and the California legislature expanded the activities of its Fact-Finding Committee on Un-American Activities. The University of California became embroiled in a loyalty-oath controversy, culminating in the dismissal in 1950 of 32 professors who refused to sign an anticommunist pledge. Black-listing became common in the film industry. The early 1950s saw the rise to the US vice presidency of Richard Nixon, whose early campaigns capitalized on fears of communist subversion.

In 1958 Congress decided that some Native American tribes could no longer be considered as such; the move denied these groups—38 of them in California—federal benefits. More than 40 years later, one group, the Miwok, sought to regain official status. Calling themselves the Federated Indians of the Graton Rancheria, the 360 remaining members aimed to restore their culture and heritage. Promising a no-gambling policy, the federation was recognized in 1999 by the US House of Representatives, which said it was righting a wrong. If the bill were approved by the Senate, the tribe would receive health, education, and economic benefits. They could also reclaim tribal lands in northern California, as long as there were no adverse claims to the property.

At the beginning of 1963, California (according to census estimates) became the nation's most populous state; its population continued to increase at a rate of 1,000 net migrants a day through the middle of the decade. By 1970, however, California's growth rate had slowed considerably. During the 1960s, the state was beset by a number of serious problems that apparently discouraged would-be immigrants. Economic opportunity gave way to recessions and high unemployment. Such rapid-growth industries as aerospace experienced a rapid decline in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Pollution of air and water called into question the quality

of the California environment. The traditional romantic image of California was overshadowed by reports of mass murders, bizarre religious cults, extremist social and political movements, and racial and campus unrest. Nevertheless, the state's population has continued to grow. According to government figures, California had a population of 31.6 million in 1995, making it the most populous state in the nation. By 2000, its population was estimated at 33.8 million, and officials believed the state would retain its status of most populated through the year 2025.

The political importance of California's preeminence in population can be measured in the size of its congressional delegation and electoral votes. Defeated in his quest for the presidency in 1960, former vice president Nixon in 1968 became the first native Californian to win election to the nation's highest office. Both Ronald Reagan, governor of the state from 1967 to 1975, and Edmund G. Brown Jr., elected governor in 1974 and reelected in 1978, were active candidates for the US presidency in 1980. Reagan was the Republican presidential winner that year and in 1984.

Assisted by the Reagan administration's military buildup, which invested billions of dollars into California manufacturers of bombers, missiles, and spacecraft as well as into its military bases, the California economy rebounded in the early and mid-1980s, bringing increases in total output, personal income, and employment which surpassed the national average. By the late 1980s and early 1990s, however, a recession and cuts in military spending, combined with existing burdens of expensive commercial and residential real estate, strict environmental regulations, and the effects of a savings and loan scandal, produced a dramatic economic decline. In 1992, the state's unemployment rate climbed to 10.1%. Jobs in the California aerospace and manufacturing sector dropped by 24%. For the first time in the state's history, substantial numbers of Californians migrated—over a million left between 1991 and 1994. Although such factors as air pollution, traffic congestion, and earthquakes were cited as reasons for this exodus, research has shown that most left in search of better job opportunities.

California's economic woes were matched by civil disorders. In 1991, an onlooker released a seven-minute videotape showing a group of police officers beating Rodney King, a black motorist, with nightsticks. The driver had pulled over after giving chase. In a jury trial which took place in a mostly white suburb northwest of Los Angeles, four police officers who had been charged with unnecessary brutality were acquitted. The verdict set off riots in South Central Los Angeles, killing 60 people and causing an estimated \$1 billion in property damage.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, California was also hit by two severe earthquakes. The first, which struck the San Francisco area in 1989, measured 7.1 on the Richter scale. The quake caused the collapse of buildings, bridges, and roadways, including the upper level of Interstate Highway 880 in Oakland and a 30-ft section of the Bay Bridge. As many as 270 people were killed and 100,000 houses were damaged. The quake caused \$5–7 billion worth of property damage. In 1994, an earthquake measuring 6.7 on the Richter scale occurred 20 mi northwest of downtown Los Angeles. Three major overpasses ruptured and 680,000 people were left without electricity. The quake produced \$13–20 million in property damage.

In 1994, anger over illegal immigration led to passage of Proposition 187, which would bar illegal aliens from welfare, educa-

tion, and nonemergency health services. The measure was approved by a 59 to 41% margin. Passage of the measure prompted immediate challenges in the courts by the opposition. The following year, Governor Pete Wilson signed an executive order limiting the application of affirmative action in hiring and contracting by the state. He also approved the elimination of affirmative action in university admissions, a policy implemented by the Board of Regents and effective as of January 1997. After most of Proposition 187 was ruled unconstitutional in a US district court, in 1999 Governor Gray Davis agreed to end the legal battle over the controversial measure. The only part that survived was a provision strengthening the penalties for manufacture and use of false documents to conceal illegal immigrant status. While the governor said he was reluctant to go against the will of the majority of voters, civil rights groups had successfully challenged most of the language in the proposition. Further, by the time Davis agreed to stop defending the measure, federal laws had accomplished much of the intent of Proposition 187. All states were by then required to deny welfare benefits and all health benefits (except emergency care) to anyone who could not verify their presence in the United States was legal.

In November 1996, the California Civil Rights Initiative (Proposition 209) passed with 55% of the vote, banning the use of racial and sex-based preferences in state-run affirmative action programs. Three weeks later, a federal judge blocked the enforcement of the initiative, claiming that it might be unconstitutional. In April 1997, however, a federal appeals court upheld the constitutionality of Proposition 209.

In mid-2000, Governor Gray Davis signed the state's \$99.4-billion budget, which included a \$1.35 billion education reform program. The state's goals for its school system included recruiting 300,000 new teachers by 2010, retaining and rewarding good teachers, placing computers and Internet connections in classrooms, and raising student achievement by awarding state-funded college scholarships to top students. The package was considered one of the most comprehensive education reform plans in the nation.

Some observers believed California's biggest struggle in the 21st century would be over water. In 2000, California and six other states were on the verge of a historic agreement that would give Southern California a 15-year deadline to cut its use of the Colorado River. Municipalities began discussing ways to turn waste water into drinking water. In June Governor Gray Davis, Secretary of the Interior Bruce Babbitt, and Senator Dianne Feinstein announced the CALFED Bay-Delta Program, calling it an "unprecedented effort" between state and federal governments, local agencies, the public, and private businesses to build a framework for managing water. Highlights of the plan included multimillion dollar investments in ecosystem restoration projects, projects to increase water-storage capacity, loan and grant programs for agricultural and urban water use efficiency, water-recycling capitol improvement projects, and improving water supply reliability through integration of storage, conveyance, water-use efficiency, water quality, and water transfer programs.

Beginning in 2000, California experienced an energy crisis that saw electricity prices spike to their highest levels in 2001. Prices went from \$12 per megawatt hour in 1998 to \$200 in December 2000 and \$250 in January 2001, and at times a megawatt hour

cost \$1000. A series of rolling blackouts in various areas occurred during 2001. California subsequently signed \$40 billion in long-term power contracts, which were seen as assuring the state's power supply at reasonable rates, but after the crisis, when electricity rates fell, they proved to be very costly. Governor Davis pledged to fight the energy companies accused of profiting from the crisis, including the Enron Corporation, and in March 2003, the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission issued a ruling that companies would have to pay \$3.3 billion in refunds for gaming the state's energy markets. California claimed it was owed \$9 billion in refunds.

Gray Davis was reelected governor in 2002, but by 2003, his popularity ratings had dropped dramatically, due in part to the state's \$38 billion budget deficit and the 2000–01 energy crisis, and a gubernatorial recall election was approved for 7 October 2003. One hundred thirty-five candidates were certified as candidates in the election, including Hollywood movie star and political novice Arnold Schwarzenegger. Lieutenant Governor Cruz Bustamante, although indicating Davis should stay in office, was running in the election in order to give voters the choice of voting for a strong Democratic candidate. In the first gubernatorial recall in California history, and only the second in US history, Davis was recalled with 55.4% of the vote in favor of the recall. Although dogged by charges of sexual harassment, Republican Arnold Schwarzenegger was elected to replace him.

Once he came to office, Schwarzenegger repealed an unpopular increase in vehicle license fees, and took steps to easing the state's budget woes. He proposed floating \$15 in bonds, urged passage of a constitutional amendment to limit state spending, and promised an overhaul of workers' compensation. In a March 2004 election, Proposition 57, authorizing the \$15 billion bond sale, and Proposition 58, mandating balanced budgets, overwhelmingly passed with 63.3% and 71% in favor, respectively. In April 2004, Schwarzenegger signed a workers' compensation reform bill into law. In September 2005, Schwarzenegger announced he would run for reelection.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The first state constitution, adopted in 1849, outlawed slavery and was unique in granting property rights to married women in their own name. A new constitution, drafted in 1878 and ratified the following year, sought to curb legislative abuses—even going so far as to make lobbying a felony—and provided for a more equitable system of taxation, stricter regulation of the railroads, and an eight-hour workday. Of the 152 delegates to the 1878 constitutional convention, only two were natives of California, and 35 were foreign born; no Spanish-speaking persons or Indians were included. This second constitution, as amended, is the basic document of state government today.

In April 1994 the California Constitutional Revision Commission was appointed to make recommendations to the governor and legislature for constitutional revisions affecting budget process, governmental structure, local government duties, and other areas. The Commission made its final report in 1996, on schedule. As of January 2005, the California constitution had been amended 513 times.

The California legislature consists of a 40-member Senate and an 80-member assembly. Senators are elected to four-year terms, half of them every two years, and assembly members are elected to two-year terms. As a result of a 1972 constitutional amendment, the legislature meets in a continuous two-year session, thus eliminating the need to reintroduce or reprint bills proposed in the first year of the biennium. Each session begins with an organizational meeting in December of even-numbered years; then, following a brief recess, the legislature reconvenes on the first Monday in January (of the odd-numbered year) and continues in session until 30 November of the next even-numbered year. Members of the Senate and assembly must be over 18 years old, and must have been US citizens and residents of the state for at least three years and residents of the districts they represent for at least one year prior to election. Legislative salaries in 2004 were \$99,000 annually, unchanged from 1999.

Bills, which may be introduced by either house, are referred to committees, and must be read before each house three times. Legislation must be approved by an absolute majority vote of each house, except for appropriations bills, certain urgent measures, and proposed constitutional amendments, which require a two-thirds vote for passage. Gubernatorial vetoes may be overridden by two-thirds vote of the elected members in both houses. In the 1973/74 session, the legislature overrode a veto for the first time since 1946, but overrides have since become more common.

Constitutional amendments and proposed legislation may also be placed on the ballot through the initiative procedure. For a con-

stitutional amendment, petitions must be signed by at least 8% of the number of voters who took part in the last gubernatorial election; for statutory measures, 5%. In each case, a simple majority vote at the next general election is required for passage.

Officials elected statewide include the governor and lieutenant governor (who run separately), secretary of state, attorney general, controller, treasurer, and superintendent of public instruction. Each serves a four-year term, without limitation. As chief executive officer of the state, the governor is responsible for the state's policies and programs, appoints department heads and members of state boards and commissions, serves as commander in chief of the California National Guard, may declare states of emergency, and may grant executive clemency to convicted criminals. In general, if the governor fails to sign or veto a bill within 12 days (excluding Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays), it becomes law. A candidate for governor must be at least 18 years old, a five-year citizen of the United States, and a five-year resident of California. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive terms. The governor's annual salary as of December 2004 was \$175,000.

The lieutenant governor acts as president of the Senate and may assume the duties of the governor in case of the latter's death, resignation, impeachment, inability to discharge the duties of the office, or absence from the state. To vote in California, one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a resident of the state. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

California Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	CALIFORNIA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	PROHIBITION
1948	25	*Truman (D)	1,913,134	1,895,269	1,228	190,381	3,459	16,926
					CONSTITUTION		SOC. LABOR	
1952	32	*Eisenhower (R)	2,197,548	2,897,310	3,504	24,692	273	16,117
1956	32	*Eisenhower (R)	2,420,135	3,027,668	6,087	—	300	11,119
1960	32	Nixon (R)	3,224,099	3,259,722	—	—	1,051	21,706
1964	40	*Johnson (D)	4,171,877	2,879,108	—	—	489	—
					AMERICAN IND.		PEACE AND FREEDOM	
1968	40	*Nixon (R)	3,244,318	3,467,664	487,270	—	27,707	—
1972	45	*Nixon (R)	3,475,847	4,602,096	—	AMERICAN	PEOPLE'S	LIBERTARIAN
						232,554	55,167	980
1976	45	Ford (R)	3,742,284	3,882,244	51,096	COMMUNIST	41,731	56,388
						12,766	PEACE AND FREEDOM	
1980	45	*Reagan (R)	3,039,532	4,444,044	—	CITIZENS	60,059	17,797
						9,687	26,297	49,951
1984	47	*Reagan (R)	3,922,519	5,467,009	39,265	NEW ALLIANCE	—	70,105
1988	47	*Bush (R)	4,702,233	5,054,917	27,818	31,181	—	—
						IND. (Perot)	18,597	48,139
1992	54	*Clinton (D)	5,121,325	3,630,574	12,711	2,296,006	GREEN (Nader)	73,600
						697,847	237,016	—
1996	54	*Clinton (D)	5,119,835	3,828,380	—	REFORM	418,707	45,520
					44,987	AMERICAN IND.	PEACE AND FREEDOM	
2000	54	Gore (D)	5,861,293	4,567,429	—	(Peroutka)	GREEN (Cobb)	
					26,645	(Peltier)	40,771	50,165
2004	55	Kerry (D)	6,745,485	5,509,826	—	27,607	—	—

*Won US presidential election.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

As the state with the largest number of US representatives (53 in 2005) and electoral votes (55 in 2004), California plays a key role in national and presidential politics. In 2004 there were 16,557,000 registered voters; an estimated 44% were Democratic, 35% Republican, and 21% unaffiliated or members of other parties.

In 1851, the year after California entered the Union, the state Democratic Party was organized. But the party soon split into a pro-South faction, led by US Senator William Gwin, and a pro-North wing, headed by David Broderick. A political leader in San Francisco, Broderick became a US senator in 1857 but was killed in a duel by a Gwin stalwart two years later. This violent factionalism helped switch Democratic votes to the new Republican Party in the election of 1860, giving California's four electoral votes to Abraham Lincoln. This defeat, followed by the Civil War, demolished Senator Gwin's Democratic faction, and he fled to exile in Mexico.

The Republican party itself split into liberal and conservative wings in the early 1900s. Progressive Republicans formed the Lincoln-Roosevelt League to espouse political reforms, and succeeded in nominating and electing Hiram Johnson as governor on the Republican ticket in 1910. The following year, the legislature approved 23 constitutional amendments, including the initiative, referendum, recall, and other reform measures. Johnson won reelection on a Progressive Party line in 1915. After Johnson's election to the US Senate in 1916, Republicans (both liberal and conservative) controlled the state House uninterruptedly for 22 years, from 1917 to 1939. Democratic fortunes sank so low that in 1924 the party's presidential candidate, John W. Davis, got only 8% of the state's votes, leading humorist Will Rogers to quip, "I don't belong to any organized political party—I am a California Democrat." An important factor in the Progressive Republicans' success was the cross-filing system, in effect from 1913 to 1959, which blurred party lines by permitting candidates to appear on the primary ballots of several parties. This favored such Republican moderates as Earl Warren, who won an unprecedented three terms as governor—in 1946, he won both Republican and Democratic party primaries—before being elevated to US chief justice in 1953.

Political third parties have had remarkable success in California since the secretive anti-foreign, anti-Catholic Native American Party (called the Know-Nothings because party members were instructed to say they "knew nothing" when asked what they stood for) elected one of their leaders, J. Neely Johnson, as governor in 1855. The Workingmen's Party of California, as much anti-Chinese as it was antimonopolist and prolabor, managed to elect about one-third of the delegates to the 1878 constitutional convention. The most impressive third-party triumph came in 1912, when the Progressive Party's presidential candidate, Theodore Roosevelt, and vice presidential nominee, Governor Hiram Johnson, defeated both the Republican and Democratic candidates among state voters. The Socialist Party also attracted support in the early 20th century. In 1910, more than 12% of the vote went to the Socialist candidate for governor, J. Stitt Wilson. Two years later, Socialist congressional nominees in the state won 18% of the vote, and a Socialist assemblyman was elected from Los Angeles. In 1914, two Socialist assemblymen and one state senator were elected. During the depression year of 1934, the Socialist Party

leader and author Upton Sinclair won the Democratic nomination for governor on his End Poverty In California program and received nearly a million votes, while losing to Republican Frank Merriam. Nonparty political movements have also won followings: several southern California congressmen were members of the ultraconservative John Birch Society during the 1960s, and in 1980 the Grand Dragon of the Ku Klux Klan won the Democratic Party nomination for a US House seat. Even when they lost decisively, third parties have won enough votes to affect the outcome of elections. In 1968, for example, George Wallace's American Independent Party received 487,270 votes, while Republican presidential candidate Richard Nixon topped Democrat Hubert Humphrey by only 223,346. In 1992, Ross Perot picked up 20.6% of the vote. In 2000, Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 4% of the vote, or 405,722 votes.

Even with a historic advantage in voter registration, however, the Democrats managed to carry California in presidential elections only three times between 1948 and 1992, and to elect only two governors—Edmund G. "Pat" Brown (in 1958 and 1962) and his son, Edmund G. "Jerry" Brown Jr. (in 1974 and 1978)—during the same period. Three times Californians gave their electoral votes to a California Republican, Richard Nixon, though they turned down his bid for governor in 1962. They elected one former film actor, Republican George Murphy, as US senator in 1964, and another, Republican Ronald Reagan, as governor in 1966 and 1970 and as president in 1980 and 1984. Democratic nominee Bill Clinton garnered 51% of the popular vote in 1996, while Republican Bob Dole received 38% and Independent Ross Perot picked up just under 7%. In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore carried the state, with 54% of the vote to George W. Bush's 42%; in 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 54.6% of the California vote to incumbent president George W. Bush's 44.3%. (Bush won on the national level.) In 1998, Democrat Gray Davis, formerly lieutenant governor, was elected to be the state's 37th governor by 58% of voters. He won reelection in 2002, but was recalled in October 2003, the second governor to be recalled in US history. An electricity crisis in 2001 and a massive state budget deficit in 2003 contributed to his recall. He was succeeded by Republican Arnold Schwarzenegger.

Both US senators in 2005 were women: Democrat Barbara Boxer, who won reelection to a third term in 2004; and Dianne Feinstein, elected in 1992 to replace Senator Pete Wilson (who was elected governor in 1990) and reelected in 1994 to serve her first full (six-year) term. She was reelected once again in 2000, with 56% of the vote. California's delegation of US representatives to the 109th Congress (2005–06) consisted of 33 Democrats and 20 Republicans. Democrat Nancy Pelosi was elected House Minority Leader in 2003. After 2004 elections, the Democrats kept control of the state Senate (25–15) and House (48–32).

Minority groups of all types are represented in California politics. In mid-2003, there were 31 women, 24 Latino members, and 6 black members in the state legislature. Two of the most prominent black elected officials include Los Angeles Mayor Thomas Bradley, who served from 1973–90, and San Francisco Mayor Willie L. Brown Jr., who began his first term in 1996 and won reelection in 1999. Organized groups of avowed homosexuals began to play an important political role in San Francisco during the 1970s.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, California had 58 counties, 475 municipal governments, 2,830 special districts, and 985 public school districts. County government is administered by an elected board of supervisors, which also exercises jurisdiction over unincorporated towns within the county. Government operations are administered by several elected officials, the number varying according to the population of the county. Most counties have a district attorney, assessor, treasurer–tax collector, superintendent of schools, sheriff, and coroner. Larger counties may also have an elected planning director, public defender, public works director, purchasing agent, and social welfare services director.

Municipalities are governed under the mayor-council, council-manager, or commission system. Most large cities are run by councils of from 5 to 15 members, elected to four-year terms, the councils being responsible for taxes, public improvements, and the budget. An elected mayor supervises city departments and appoints most city officials. Other elected officials usually include the city attorney, treasurer, and assessor. Los Angeles and San Francisco have the mayor-council form of government, but in San Francisco, the city and county governments are consolidated under an elected board of supervisors, and the mayor appoints a manager who has substantial authority. San Diego and San Jose each have an elected mayor and city manager chosen by an elected city council.

The state's direct primary law had a salutary effect on local politics by helping end the power of political machines in the large cities. In 1910, Los Angeles voters adopted the nonpartisan primary and overthrew the corrupt rule of Mayor A. C. Harper in favor of reformer George Alexander. At the same time, voters were revolting against bossism and corruption in San Francisco, Sacramento, Oakland, and other cities.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 1,384,276 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in California operates under executive order; a Homeland Security Director is appointed to oversee the state's homeland security activities, which include enhanced highway patrol operations and the California Anti-Terrorism Information Center.

In accordance with the Political Reform Act of 1974, the Fair Political Practices Commission investigates political campaign irregularities, regulates lobbyists, and enforces full disclosure of political contributions and public officials' assets and income.

Educational services are provided by the Department of Education, which administers the public school system. The department, which is headed by the superintendent of public instruction, also regulates special schools for blind, deaf, and disabled children. The University of California system is governed by a board of regents headed by the governor.

Transportation services are under the direction of the California Department of Transportation (CALTRANS), which oversees mass transit lines, highways, and airports. Intrastate rate regulation of pipelines, railroads, buses, trucks, airlines, and waterborne transportation is the responsibility of the Public Utilities Com-

mission, which also regulates gas, electric, telephone, water, sewer, and steam-heat utilities. The Department of Motor Vehicles licenses drivers, road vehicles, automotive dealers, and boats.

Health and welfare services are provided by many state departments, most of which are part of the Health and Human Services Agency. The Department of Health Services provides health care for several millions of persons through the state's Medi-Cal program. The department's public health services include controlling infectious disease, conducting cancer research, safeguarding water quality, and protecting the public from unsafe food and drugs. The department also has licensing responsibility for hospitals, clinics, and nursing homes. Care for the mentally ill is provided through the Department of Mental Health by means of state hospitals and community outpatient clinics. Disabled people receive counseling, vocational training, and other aid through the Department of Rehabilitation. Needy families receive income maintenance aid and food stamps from the Department of Social Services. Senior citizens can get help from the Department of Aging, which allocates federal funds for the elderly. The Commission on the Status of Women reports to the legislature on women's educational and employment needs, and on statutes or practices that infringe on their rights. The Youth Authority, charged with the rehabilitation of juvenile offenders, operates training schools and conservation camps. The Department of Alcohol and Drug Programs coordinates prevention and treatment activities.

Public protection services are provided by the Army and Air National Guard, and by the Youth and Adult Correctional Agency, which maintains institutions and programs to control and treat convicted felons and narcotics addicts. The California Highway Patrol has its own separate department within the Business, Transportation and Housing Agency. This agency also includes the Department of Housing and Community Development. The State and Consumer Services Agency has jurisdiction over the Department of Consumer Affairs, the California State Teachers' Retirement System (CalSTRS), and several other state departments. A state innovation was the establishment in 1974 of the Seismic Safety Commission to plan public safety programs in connection with California's continuing earthquake problem.

Programs for the preservation and development of natural resources are centralized in the Resources Agency. State parks and recreation areas are administered by the Department of Parks. California's vital water needs are the responsibility of the Department of Water Resources. In 1975, as a result of a national oil shortage, the state established the Energy Resources Conservation and Development Commission to develop contingency plans for dealing with fuel shortages, to forecast the state's energy needs, and to coordinate programs for energy conservation (it now exists as the California Energy Commission). The Department of Conservation provides employment opportunities for young people in conservation work.

The Department of Industrial Relations has divisions dealing with fair employment practices, occupational safety and health standards, and workers' compensation. The Employment Development Department provides unemployment and disability benefits and operates job-training and work-incentive programs. The California Environmental Protection Agency (CalEPA) guards the natural environment.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

California has a complex judicial system and a very large correctional system.

The state's highest court is the Supreme Court, which may review appellate court decisions and superior court cases involving the death penalty. The high court has a chief justice and six associate justices, all of whom serve 12-year terms. Justices are appointed by the governor, confirmed or disapproved by the Commission on Judicial Appointments (headed by the chief justice), and then submitted to the voters for ratification. The chief justice also chairs the Judicial Council, which seeks to expedite judicial business and to equalize judges' caseloads.

Courts of appeal, organized in six appellate districts, review decisions of superior courts and, in certain cases, of municipal and justice courts. There were 93 district appeals court judgeships in 1999. All district court judges are appointed by the governor, reviewed by the Commission on Judicial Appointments, and subject to popular election for 12-year terms.

Superior courts in each of the 58 county seats have original jurisdiction in felony, juvenile, probate, and domestic relations cases, as well as in civil cases involving more than \$15,000. They also handle some tax and misdemeanor cases and appeals from lower courts. Municipal courts, located in judicial districts with populations of more than 40,000, hear misdemeanors (except those involving juveniles) and civil cases involving \$15,000 or less. In districts with less than 40,000 population, justice courts have jurisdiction similar to that of municipal courts. All trial court judges are elected to six-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 166,556 prisoners were held in California's state and federal prisons, an increase (from 164,487) of 1.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 11,188 inmates were female, up 5% (from 10,656) from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), California had an incarceration rate of 456 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, California in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 551.8 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 198,070 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 1,227,194 reported incidents or 3,419 reported incidents per 100,000 people. California has a death penalty, which can be carried out by lethal injection or electrocution, depending upon the prisoner's request. From 1976 through 5 May 2006 the state has executed 13 persons; there were 2 executions in 2005 and 1 in 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, there were 649 death row inmates, the most of any state in the nation.

In 2003, California spent \$1,158,362,732 on homeland security, an average of \$34 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

California leads the 50 states in defense contracts received, numbers of National Guardsmen and military veterans, veterans' benefit payments, and funding for police forces.

In 2004, the US Department of Defense had 173,318 active-duty military personnel, 19,026 Reserve and National Guard per-

sonnel, and 49,870 civilian personnel in California. Army military personnel totaled 9,063; the Navy (including Marines), 130,887; and the Air Force, 30,918.

Army bases are located at Oakland and San Francisco, and naval facilities in the San Diego area. There are weapons stations at Concord and Seal Beach, and supply depots at Oakland and San Pedro. The Marine Corps training base, Camp Pendleton, is at Oceanside. The Air Force operates four main bases—Beale Air Force Base (AFB) at Marysville, home for the U-2 reconnaissance aircraft, the T-38 jet trainer, the KC-135 tanker, and the GLOBAL HAWK, the Air Force's high-altitude reconnaissance platform; Edwards AFB at Rosamond, in California's Mojave Desert, which has two unique natural resources that help make it the premier flight test facility in the world; Rogers and Rosamond dry lakebeds; Travis AFB at Fairfield, which handles more cargo and passengers than any other military air terminal in the United States and is the West Coast terminal for aeromedical evacuation aircraft returning sick or injured patients from the Pacific area; and Vandenberg AFB at Lompoc, headquarters for the 30th Space Wing, which manages Department of Defense space and missile testing, places satellites into polar orbit from the West Coast, and is also home to the Western Launch and Test Range (WLTR). There are also numerous smaller installations. In 2004, California companies were awarded \$27.8 billion in defense contracts, the highest in the nation, and amounting to over 13% of the US total. Defense Department expenditures in California that year included another \$15.0 billion for payroll (including retired military pay), second only to Virginia.

There were 2,310,968 veterans of US military service in California as of 2003, of whom 333,489 served in World War II; 253,834 in the Korean conflict; 707,737 during the Vietnam era; and 334,111 during 1990–2000 (in the Gulf War). US Veterans Administration spending in Californian exceeded \$5.6 billion in 2004.

California's military forces consist of the Army and Air National Guard, the naval and state military reserve (militia), and the California Cadet Corps. As of 31 October 2004, the California Highway Patrol employed 7,065 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

A majority of Californians today are migrants from other states. The first great wave of migration, beginning in 1848, brought at least 85,000 prospectors by 1850. Perhaps 20,000 of them were foreign born, mostly from Europe, Canada, Mexico, and South America, as well as a few from the Hawaiian Islands and China. Many thousands of Chinese were brought in during the latter half of the 19th century to work on farms and railroads. When Chinese immigration was banned by the US Congress in 1882, Japanese migration provided farm labor. These ambitious workers soon opened shops in the cities and bought land for small farms. By 1940, about 94,000 Japanese lived in California. During the Depression of the 1930s, approximately 350,000 migrants came to California, most of them looking for work. Many thousands of people came there during World War II to take jobs in the burgeoning war industries; after the war, some 300,000 discharged servicemen settled in the state. All told, between 1940 and 1990 California registered a net

gain from migration of 12,426,000, representing well over half of its population growth during that period.

In the 1990s, California registered net losses in domestic migration, peaking with a loss of 444,186 in 1993–94. Altogether, net losses in domestic migration between 1990 and 1998 totaled 2,082,000 people. During the same period, net gains in international migration totaled 2,019,000. As of 1996, nearly 22% of all foreign immigrants in the United States were living in California, a higher proportion than in any other state. Although the 1970s brought an influx of refugees from Indochina, and, somewhat later, from Central America, the bulk of postwar foreign immigration has come from neighboring Mexico. At first, Mexicans—as many as 750,000 a year—were imported legally to supply seasonal labor for California growers. Later, hundreds of thousands, perhaps even millions, of illegal Mexican immigrants crossed the border in search of jobs and then, unless they were caught and forcibly repatriated, stayed on. Counting these state residents for census purposes is extremely difficult, since many of them are unwilling to declare themselves for fear of being identified and deported. As of 1990, California's foreign-born population was reported at 8,055,000, or 25% of the state's total. As of 1994, the number of undocumented immigrants was estimated at between 1,321 and 1,784—the most any state and close to 40% of the total number thought to be residing in the United States. As of 1998, California was the intended residence of 170,126 foreign immigrants (more than any other state and 26% of the United States total that year), of these, 62,113 were from Mexico.

Intrastate migration has followed two general patterns: rural to urban until the mid-20th century, and urban to suburban, thereafter. In particular, the percentage of blacks increased in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and San Diego between 1960 and 1970 as they settled or remained in the cities while whites moved out, into the surrounding suburbs. In the 1970s and 1980s, the percentage of blacks in Los Angeles and San Francisco decreased slightly; in San Diego, the percentage of blacks increased from 8.9% to 9.4%. By 1997, blacks represented 8.3% of the Los Angeles metropolitan population, 8.8% of the San Francisco metropolitan population, but only 6.4% of the San Diego metropolitan population, a 3% decrease from the 1980s. California's net gain from migration during 1970–80 amounted to about 1,573,000. In the 1980s, migration accounted for 54% of the net population increase, with about 2,940,000 new residents. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased by 9.7%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 1,415,879 and net internal migration was -664,460, for a net gain of 751,419 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Colorado River Board of California represents the state's interests in negotiations with the federal government and other states over utilization of Colorado River water and power resources. California also is a member of the Colorado River Crime Enforcement Compact, California-Nevada Compact for Jurisdiction on Interstate Waters, the Klamath River Compact Commission (with Oregon), and the Tahoe Regional Planning Agency (with Nevada). Regional agreements signed by the state include the Pacific States Marine Fisheries Commission, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Western Interstate Corrections Compact,

and Western Interstate Energy Compact. The Arizona-California boundary accord dates from 1963. California also is a member of the Commission of the Californias, along with the State of Baja California Norte and the territory of Baja California Sur, both in Mexico. During 2005, federal grants to California amounted to \$43.965 billion, the most received by any state. In 2006, California received an estimated \$42.467 billion in federal grants, and an estimated \$43.293 billion in 2007.

20 ECONOMY

California leads the 50 states in economic output and total personal income. In the 1960s, when it became the nation's most populous state, California also surpassed Iowa in agricultural production and New York in value added by manufacturing.

The gold rush of the mid-19th century made mining (which employed more people than any other industry in the state until 1870) the principal economic activity and gave impetus to agriculture and manufacturing. Many unsuccessful miners took up farming or went to work for the big cattle ranches and wheat growers. In the 1870s, California became the most important cattle-raising state and the second-leading wheat producer. Agriculture soon expanded into truck farming and citrus production, while new manufacturing industries began to produce ships, metal products, lumber, leather, cloth, refined sugar, flour, and other processed foods. Manufacturing outstripped both mining and agriculture to produce goods valued at \$258 million by 1900, and 10 times that by 1925. Thanks to a rapidly growing workforce, industrial output continued to expand during and after both world wars, while massive irrigation projects enabled farmers to make full use of the state's rich soil and favorable climate.

By the late 1970s, one of every four California workers was employed in high-technology industry. California has long ranked first among the states in defense procurement, and in 1997, defense contracts awarded to southern California firms surpassed the combined totals of New York and Texas.

From its beginnings in the late 18th century, California's wine industry has grown to encompass more than 700 wineries, which is over 50% of all the wineries in the United States. In addition, the state accounts for approximately 95% of all US wine output, followed by New York and Ohio. California's Central Valley accounts for 75% to 80% of the state's wine output.

A highly diversified economy made California less vulnerable to the national recession of the early 1980s than most other states. During the first half of the 1980s, the state generally outperformed the national economy. In 1984, California enjoyed an estimated increase of 12.1% in personal income and a 6.1% increase in non-agricultural employment, and reduced the unemployment rate from 9.7% to an estimated 7.8%. The boom was short-lived, however. Cuts in the military budget in the late 1980s, a decline in Japanese investment, and the national recession in the early 1990s had a devastating impact on the state, particularly on southern California. Unemployment in 1992 rose to 9.1%, up from 5.1% in 1989. The aerospace and construction industries suffered disproportionately. Employment in aerospace declined 22.3% between May of 1990 and September of 1992; construction lost 20% of its jobs in the same period.

Stock market growth in the high-technology sector led California's growth during the late 1990s. The gross state product (GSP) in 1997 was approximately \$1 trillion. Annual growth rates in 1998 and 1999 averaged 7.75% in 1998 and 1999, and soared to 9.6% in 2000. The national recession of 2002, however, brought the growth rate down to 2.2%. While employment in southern California continued to expand, the San Francisco Bay area, severely impacted by the decline in the high-tech manufacturing and software sectors, the bursting of the dot.com bubble in the stock market, and the collapse of the venture capital market, experienced its worst recession in 50 years. In 2002, recovery remained elusive, and in 2003, the state faced a projected \$38 billion budget deficit that was the main issue in an unprecedented campaign to the recall the governor.

Total GSP in 2004 was \$1.55 trillion, of which the real estate sector was the largest component, accounting for \$240.370 billion, or 13.1% of GSP. This was followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$175.852 billion (11.3% of GSP), and by professional and technical services at \$121.686 billion (7.8% of GSP). In 2004, the state had more than 3.3 million small businesses. Of the 1,077,390 firms that had employees that same year, an estimated 1,068,602 (or 99.2%) were small firms. In 2004, a total of 117,016 new businesses were formed in California, up 3.1% from 2003. However, business terminations that year totaled 143,115, up 1.9% from 2003. Business bankruptcies fell 16.7% in 2004 from the year before to 3,748. The personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate in 2005 totaled 391 filings per 100,000 people, ranking the state 41st.

21 INCOME

In 2005 California had a gross state product (GSP) of \$1,622 billion, which accounted for 13.1% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state first in GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 California had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$35,219. This ranked 12th in the United States and was 107% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.3%. California had a total personal income (TPI) of \$1,262,306,032,000, which ranked first in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.6% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.6%. Earnings of persons employed in California increased from \$939,640,136,000 in 2003 to \$1,008,113,229,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$49,894, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period, an estimated 13.2% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

California has the largest workforce in the nation and the greatest number of employed workers. During the 1970s, California's

workforce also grew at a higher annual rate than that of any other state.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in California numbered 17,735,300, with approximately 870,400 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.9%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 14,951,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in California was 11%, in February 1983. The historical low was 4.7% in February 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.1% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10% in manufacturing; 18.9% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.2% in financial activities; 14.6% in professional and business services; 10.7% in education and health services; 10.1% in leisure and hospitality services; and 16.2% in government.

The labor movement in California was discredited by acts of violence during its early years. On 1 October 1910, a bomb explosion at a *Los Angeles Times* plant killed 21 workers, resulting in the conviction and imprisonment of two labor organizers a year later. Another bomb explosion, this one killing 10 persons in San Francisco on 22 July 1916, led to the conviction of two radical union leaders, Thomas Mooney and Warren Billings. The death penalty for Mooney was later commuted to life imprisonment (the same sentence Billings had received), and after evidence had been developed attesting to his innocence, he was pardoned in 1939. These violent incidents led to the state's Criminal Syndicalism Law of 1919, which forbade "labor violence" and curtailed militant labor activity for more than a decade.

Unionism revived during the depression of the 1930s. In 1934, the killing of two union picketers by San Francisco police during a strike by the International Longshoremen's Association led to a three-day general strike that paralyzed the city, and the union eventually won the demand for its own hiring halls. In Los Angeles, unions in such industries as automobiles, aircraft, rubber, and oil refining obtained bargaining rights, higher wages, and fringe benefits during and after World War II. In 1958, the California Labor Federation was organized, and labor unions have since increased both their membership and their benefits.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 2,424,000 of California's 14,687,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 16.5% of those so employed, unchanged from 2004, and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 2,610,000 workers (17.8%) in California were covered by a union or employee association contract, which included those workers who reported no union affiliation. California does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, California had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.75 per hour. However, the city of San Francisco has its own mandated minimum wage rate of \$8.50 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 44.8% of the employed civilian labor force.

Of all working groups, migrant farm workers have been the most difficult to organize because their work is seasonal and because they are largely members of minority groups, mostly Mexicans, with few skills and limited job opportunities. During the 1960s,

a Mexican American “stoop” laborer named Cesar Chavez established the National Farm Workers Association (later the United Farm Workers Organizing Committee, and now the United Farm Workers of America), which, after a long struggle, won bargaining rights from grape, lettuce, and berry growers in the San Joaquin Valley. Chavez’s group was helped by a secondary boycott against these California farm products at some grocery stores throughout the United States. When his union was threatened by the rival Teamsters Union in the early 1970s, Chavez got help from the AFL-CIO and from Governor Jerry Brown, who in 1975 pushed through the state legislature a law mandating free elections so agricultural workers could determine which union they wanted to represent them. The United Farm Workers and Teamsters formally settled their jurisdictional dispute in 1977.

23 AGRICULTURE

California has led the United States in agriculture for nearly 50 years with a diverse economy of over 250 crop and livestock commodities. With only 4% of the nation’s farms and 3% of the nation’s farm acreage, the state accounts for over 13% of US gross cash farm receipts. Famous for its specialty crops, California produces virtually all (99% or more) of the following crops grown commercially in the United States: almonds, artichokes, avocados, clovers, dates, figs, kiwifruit, olives, persimmons, pistachios, prunes, raisins, and English walnuts. California’s total cash farm receipts for 2005 amounted to \$31.9 billion.

Agriculture has always thrived in California. The Spanish missions and Mexican ranchos were farming centers until the mid-19th century, when large ranches and farms began to produce cattle, grain, and cotton for the national market. Wheat was a major commodity by the 1870s, when the citrus industry was established and single-family farms in the fertile Central Valley and smaller valleys started to grow large quantities of fruits and vegetables. European settlers planted vineyards on the slopes of the Sonoma and Napa valleys, beginning California’s wine industry, which today produces over 90% of US domestic wines. Around 1900, intensive irrigation transformed the dry, sandy Imperial Valley in southeastern California into a garden of abundance for specialty crops. Since World War II, corporate farming, or agribusiness, has largely replaced small single-family farms. Today, the state grows approximately 55% of all fruits and vegetables marketed in the United States.

In 2004, California devoted nearly one-third (27.7 million acres/11.2 million hectares) of its 100 million acres (40.4 million hectares) to agricultural production with 77,000 farms comprising 26.7 million acres (10.8 million hectares). Some 25% of all farmland represents crop growth, and currently 10% of all cropland uses irrigation.

Irrigation is essential for farming in California. Agriculture consumes 28% of the state’s annual water supply. A major irrigation system was implemented, including the Colorado River Project, which irrigated 500,000 acres (200,000 hectares) in the Imperial Valley in 1913; the Central Valley Project, completed by 1960, which harnessed the runoff of the Sacramento River; and the Feather River Project, also in the Central Valley, which was finished during the 1970s. Largest of all is the California Water

Project, begun in 1960 and completed in 1973. During 1983, this project delivered 1.3 million acre-feet of water.

On 16 June 1980, the US Supreme Court ended 13 years of litigation by ruling that federally subsidized irrigation water in the Imperial Valley could not be limited to family farms of fewer than 160 acres (56 hectares) but must be made available to all farms regardless of size; the ruling represented a major victory for agribusiness interests.

The leading crops in 2004 (by value) included greenhouse and nursery products, grapes, and almonds. These three commodities accounted for 26% of the state’s crop receipts that year. Other important crops include cotton, lettuce, hay, tomatoes, flowers and foliage, strawberries, oranges, rice, broccoli, walnuts, carrots, celery, and cantaloupe.

California was the top agricultural exporter in the United States with nearly \$9.2 billion in 2004. Leading agricultural exports in 2004 included vegetables (\$2.4 billion), fruits (\$2.0 billion), and tree nuts (\$1.7 billion). Japan accounts for more than 25% of all California agricultural exports, and the entire Pacific Rim accounts for more than half its total exports. Export markets hold the greatest potential for expanding sales of California agriculture products.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, farm marketings from livestock and dairy products amounted to almost \$8.3 billion, or 7% of the US total, second only to Texas.

In 2005 there were an estimated 5.4 million cattle and calves in California valued at \$6.1 billion. There were 140,000 hogs and pigs on California farms and ranches in 2004, valued at \$18.2 million. In 2003 California produced 49.7 million lb (22.6 million kg) of sheep and lambs for a gross income of \$69.8 million.

In 2003, California was the leading milk producer among the 50 states, with 35.4 billion lb (16.1 billion kg) of milk produced. Milk cows, raised mainly in the southern interior, totaled 1.69 million head in the same year.

California ranked fourth among the 50 states in egg production in 2003, with an output of 5.38 billion eggs. In 2003, California produced 418.7 million lb (190.3 million kg) of turkey, which was valued at \$150.7 million.

25 FISHING

The Pacific whaling industry, with its chief port at San Francisco, was important to the California economy in the 19th century, and commercial fishing is still central to the food-processing industry. In 2004, California ranked fifth in the nation in commercial fishing volume, with a catch of 378.6 million lb (172 million kg), valued at \$139 million. Los Angeles ranked 17th among fishing ports (in terms of volume), with landings totaling 92.4 million lb (42 million kg).

In 2004, California accounted for 97% of US landings of chub mackerel. Salmon landings totaled 7 million lb (3.2 million kg), the fourth-largest volume in the nation, with a value of \$17.7 million. The state was also second in volume of dungeness crab landings with 24.8 million lb (11.3 million kg). California was the leading state in squid catch at 87.3 million lb (40.6 million kg). In 2003, there were 364 processing and wholesale plants in the

state. In 2002, the California fishing fleet numbered 2,198 boats and vessels.

Deep-sea fishing is a popular sport. World records for giant sea bass, California halibut, white catfish, and sturgeon have been set in California. There were 2,024,709 anglers licensed in the state in 2004, when recreational fishers caught an estimated 13.2 million (6 million kg) of fish.

26 FORESTRY

California has more forests than any other state except Alaska. Forested lands in 2003 covered 40,233,000 acres (16,282,000 hectares), 40% of the total land area.

Forests are concentrated in the northwestern part of the state and in the eastern Sierra Nevada. Commercial forestland in private hands was estimated at 17,781,000 acres (7,196,000 hectares) in 2003; an additional 18,515,000 acres (7,493,000 hectares) was US Forest Service lands, and 2,208,000 acres (893,600 hectares) was regulated by the Bureau of Land Management. In 2004, lumber production totaled 2.9 billion board feet (fifth in the United States), mostly such softwoods as fir, pine, cedar, and redwood.

About half of the state's forests are protected as national forests and state parks or recreational areas. Although stands of coast redwood trees have been preserved in national and state parks since the late 19th century, only about 46% of the original 2 million acres (800,000 hectares) of redwoods between Monterey Bay and southern Oregon remain.

Reforestation of public lands is supervised by the National Forest Service and the California Department of Forestry. In 1924–25, more than 1.5 million redwood and Douglas fir seedlings were planted in the northwestern corner of the state. During the 1930s, the Civilian Conservation Corps replanted trees along many mountain trails, and the California Conservation Corps performed reforestation work in the 1970s.

As of 2005, there were 21 national forests in California. The total area within their boundaries in California amounted to 24,430,000 acres (9,886,821 hectares), of which 85% was National Forest System land.

27 MINING

According to data compiled by the US Geological Survey, California was the leading state in the nation in the production, by value, of nonfuel minerals during 2004, accounting for more than 8% of the US total. The value of the nonfuel mineral commodities produced in the state during the year was valued at \$3.76 billion, an increase of almost 10% from 2003. Industrial minerals accounted for nearly 99% of nonfuel mineral production, by value, with the rest supplied (in descending value) by gold, silver, and iron ore.

In 2004, California remained the only state to produce boron minerals (1.21 million metric tons, valued at \$626 million) and led the nation in the production of construction sand and gravel (166 million metric tons, valued at \$1.280 billion), accounting for over 13% of all US production (by volume) and nearly 19.5% by value. Construction sand and gravel also constituted California's leading nonfuel mineral, accounting for about 34% of the state's nonfuel mineral production by value. Cement (portland and masonry) was the second-leading nonfuel mineral, followed by boron minerals, crushed stone, diatomite, and soda ash. Together

these six commodities accounted for almost 94% of the state's total industrial mineral output by value. Portland cement production by California in 2004 totaled 11.9 million metric tons, with an estimated value of \$1 billion.

Although gold prices rose in 2004, gold production (by recoverable content of ores) in California fell in 2004 to 3,260 kg (\$43 million) from 4,270 kg (\$50.1 million) in 2003 and 9,180 kg (\$91.9 million) in 2002. In that same year, there were only four major operating gold mines in the state. However, all production came not from mining but from heap leaching. From 1999 through 2004, gold production in the state had fallen nearly 85%. Silver output (by recoverable content of ores) in 2004 totaled 801 kg (\$172,000), down from 957 kg (\$151,000) in 2003 and 3,400 kg (\$506,000) in 2002. All silver production in the state was the by-product of gold production. Silver accounted for less than 1% of all metal output in California.

In 2004, California had about 1,156 mines actively producing nonfuel minerals, which employed about 11,000 people. At the beginning of 2002, the Division of Mines and Geology was renamed the California Geological Survey (CGS). The CGS grants mining permits. Among the programs it oversees are Mineral Resources and Mineral Hazards Mapping, Seismic Hazards Mapping, Timber Harvest Enforcement, and Watershed Restoration. Siting and permitting of mining operations throughout California often generate local controversies. The leading issues involve intense land-use competition and wide-ranging environmental concerns, along with the typical noise, dust, and truck-traffic issues in populated areas.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

California had 87 electrical power service providers, of which 35 were publicly owned and 23 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, six were investor owned, one was federally operated, and 22 were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 13,999,457 retail customers. Of that total, 10,788,096 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 14,659 customers, while publicly owned providers had 3,128,465 customers. There were 48 federal customers and 25 were independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 57.850 million kW, with total production that same year, at 192.788 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 42.4% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 91.432 billion kWh (47.4%), came from natural gas-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place, at 36.370 billion kWh (18.9%), and nuclear fueled-plants in third at 35.593 billion kWh (18.5%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 12.3% of all power generated, with coal and petroleum fired plants at 1.2% each.

California utilities own and operate coal-fired power plants across the southwest. This electricity shows up as "imports" in federal accounting. California utilities buy electricity from out-of-state suppliers if it is less expensive than in-state operation.

As of 2006, California had two operating nuclear power facilities: Pacific Gas and Electric Co's Diablo Canyon nuclear power plant near San Luis Obispo; and the San Onofre facility, near San Clemente, which is operated by the Southern California Edison Co. The two facilities had a combined total of four reactors.

In 2003, retail sales of electric power in the state totaled 238.710 billion kWh, of which roughly 45.3% went to commercial businesses, 33.8% to home consumers, and 20.6% to industries.

Crude oil was discovered in Humboldt and Ventura counties as early as the 1860s with the first year of commercial production occurring in 1876. It was not until the 1920s, however, that large oil strikes were made at Huntington Beach, near Los Angeles, and at Santa Fe Springs and Signal Hill, near Long Beach. These fields added vast pools of crude oil to the state's reserves, which were further augmented in the 1930s by the discovery of large offshore oil deposits in the Long Beach area.

The state's attempts to retain rights to tideland oil reserves as far as 30 mi (48 km) offshore were denied by the US Supreme Court in 1965. State claims were thus restricted to Monterey Bay and other submerged deposits within a 3-mi (5-km) offshore limit. In 1994, however, California banned any further oil drilling in state offshore waters because of environmental concerns, high operating costs, and resource limitations.

As of 2004, California had proven crude oil reserves of 3,376 million barrels, or 16% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 656,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked fourth (third excluding federal offshore) in both proven reserves and production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 California had 47,065 producing oil wells and accounted for 12% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's 21 refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 2,004,788 barrels per day.

In 2004, California had 1,272 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 319.919 billion cu ft (9.08 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 2,634 billion cu ft (7.8 billion cu m).

29 INDUSTRY

California is the nation's leading industrial state, ranking first in almost every general manufacturing category: number of establishments, number of employees, total payroll, value added by manufacture, value of shipments, and new capital spending. Specifically, California ranks among the leaders in machinery, fabricated metals, agricultural products, food processing, computers, aerospace technology, and many other industries.

With its shipyards, foundries, flour mills, and workshops, San Francisco was the state's first manufacturing center. The number of manufacturing establishments in California nearly doubled between 1899 and 1914, and the value of manufactures increased almost tenfold from 1990 to 1925. New factories for transportation equipment, primary metal products, chemicals and food products sprang up in the state during and after World War II. Second to New York State in industrial output for many years, California fi-

nally surpassed that state in most manufacturing categories in the 1972 Census of Manufacturers.

California's industrial workforce is mainly located in the two major manufacturing centers: almost three-fourths work in either the Los Angeles-Long Beach-Orange County area or the San Francisco-Oakland-San Jose area. Although the state workforce has a wide diversity of talents and products, the majority produces food, electronic and other electrical equipment, transportation equipment, apparel, and fabricated and industrial machinery.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, California's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$388.332 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest portion, at \$78.161 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$49.392 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$38.038 billion; petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$31.399 billion; and chemical product manufacturing at \$31.270 billion.

In 2004, a total of 1,440,882 people in California were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 895,157 were production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 252,241, with 94,978 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing with 155,807 employees (113,717 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 146,249 employees (105,686 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing with 130,966 employees (72,185 actual production workers); and miscellaneous manufacturing at 107,492 employees (62,521 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that California's manufacturing sector paid \$65.248 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$15.889 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$7.688 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$5.798 billion; food manufacturing at \$5.275 billion; and miscellaneous manufacturing at \$4.593 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, California's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$655.9 billion from 58,770 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 34,865 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 20,719 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 3,186 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$389.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$211.7 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$54.3 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, California was listed as having 108,941 retail establishments with sales of \$359.1 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: clothing and clothing accessories stores (17,067); food and beverage stores (16,145); miscellaneous store retailers (13,219); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (11,225); and health and personal care stores (8,453). In terms of sales, motor vehicle

and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$95.9 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$60.2 billion; general merchandise stores at \$46.6 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$26.7 billion. A total of 1,525,113 people were employed by the retail sector in California that year.

Foreign trade is important to the California economy. In 2005, goods exported from California were valued at \$116.8 billion. The state's major markets are Japan, Canada, South Korea, Mexico, the European Community, and the industrializing countries of East Asia.

Leading exports include data-processing equipment, electrical tubes and transistors, scientific equipment, measuring instruments, optical equipment, and aircraft parts and spacecraft. The state's leading agricultural export is cotton.

California's customs districts are the ports of Los Angeles, San Francisco, and San Diego. San Francisco and San Jose have been designated as federal foreign-trade zones, where imported goods may be stored duty-free for reshipment abroad, or customs duties avoided until the goods are actually marketed in the United States.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Numerous California state and local government agencies protect, promote, and serve the interests of consumers.

The California Department of Consumer Affairs comprises 40 entities (nine bureaus, one program, 24 boards, 3 committees, 1 commission, 1 office, and 1 task force) that license more than 100 business and 200 professions (including automotive repair facilities, doctors and dentists, cosmetologists and contractors). These state entities establish minimum qualifications and levels of competency for licensure; license, register, or certify practitioners; investigate complaints; and discipline violators.

The California Department of Consumer Affairs also administers the Consumer Affairs Act (consumer information, education, complaints, and advocacy), the Arbitration Certification Program (auto warranty dispute resolution), and the Dispute Resolution Programs Act (funding of local dispute resolution programs). It helps carry out the Small Claims Act by publishing materials for those who administer and use the Small Claims Court, and by training small claims advisors and attorneys who serve as judges.

Other state agencies that serve consumers include the Department of Fair Employment and Housing (unlawful employment and housing discrimination), the Department of Real Estate (licensing of real estate brokers and sales agents), the Department of Corporations (licensing of personal finance companies, and a new service dedicated to combat investment fraud on the Internet), and the Department of Insurance (licensing and conduct of insurance companies).

Consumers are also assisted by a variety of state and local law enforcement agencies that enforce the state's laws on false and deceptive advertising, unfair and deceptive trade practices, unfair competition, and other laws. These agencies include the California attorney general, the district attorneys of most counties, the city attorneys of San Francisco, Los Angeles, and San Diego counties, and county consumer affairs departments.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's attorney general can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; is responsible for the administration of consumer protection and education programs and the handling of consumer complaints; and has broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General's office cannot represent the state before state regulatory agencies. In antitrust actions, the attorney general can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings.

The Office of the Attorney General, the California Department of Consumer Affairs, and the Consumer Affairs Bureau of Automotive Repair are located in Sacramento. County government consumer and environmental protection offices are located in Fairfield, Fresno, Los Angeles, Martinez, Modesto, Napa, Redwood City, Salinas, San Diego, San Francisco, San Jose, San Luis Obispo, San Rafael, Santa Barbara, Santa Cruz, Ventura, and West Santana. City government offices are located in Bakersfield, Los Angeles, San Diego, and Santa Monica.

32 BANKING

In 1848, California's first financial institution, the Miners' Bank, was founded in San Francisco. Especially since 1904, when A. P. Giannini founded the Bank of Italy, now known as the Bank of America, California banks have pioneered in branch banking for families and small businesses. Today, California is among the leading states in branch banking, savings and loan associations, and credit union operations.

As of June 2005, California had 300 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 212 state-chartered and 353 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Los Angeles–Long Beach–Santa Ana market area had 160 financial institutions in 2004 with \$271.957 billion in deposits, followed by the San Francisco–Oakland–Fremont area with 85 institutions and \$170.866 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 10.5% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$107.169 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 89.5%, or \$917.960 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for California's insured institutions stood at 4.37%, up from 4.36% in 2003.

Until 30 June 1997, the State Banking Department administered laws and regulations governing state-chartered banks, foreign banks, trust companies, issuers of payment instruments, issuers of travelers' checks, and transmitters of money abroad. On 1 July 1997, a new department began supervising all of California's depository institutions. The Department of Financial Institutions now supervises over 700 commercial banks, credit unions, industrial loan companies, savings and loans, and other licensees formerly supervised by the State Banking Department. Federally chartered financial institutions are regulated by the office of the comptroller of the Currency (banks), the office of Thrift Supervision, or the National Credit Union Administration.

33 INSURANCE

Insurance companies provide a major source of California's investment capital by means of premium payments collected from policyholders. Life insurance companies also invest heavily in real estate; in 2001, life insurance firms owned \$5,101.7 billion in real estate, and held an estimated \$41.8 billion in mortgage debt on California properties.

In 2004, there were 11 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$1.56 trillion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$2.2 trillion. The average coverage amount is \$145,000 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$5 billion.

In 2003, there were 28 life and health and 136 property and casualty companies domiciled in California. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance amounted to \$56.8 billion in 2004; the highest amount of the 50 states. That year, there were 261,693 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$48.6 billion. Also in 2004, there were \$722.3 million in direct premiums in earthquake insurance written, representing about 45% of the US total. About \$44.9 billion of coverage was offered through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas. In California, FAIR plans include coverage for those areas prone to brush fires.

In 2004, 49% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 6% held individual policies, and 25% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 19% of residents were uninsured. California ranks fourth in the nation for the number of uninsured residents. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 14% for single coverage and 25% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month expansion for small-firm employees program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 21.2 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$15,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured, as well as property damage liability of \$5,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$821.11.

34 SECURITIES

California's Pacific Exchange (PCX) was founded as the San Francisco Stock and Bond Exchange in 1882. A 1957 merger with the Los Angeles Oil Exchange created the Pacific Coast Stock Exchange, which became known as the Pacific Exchange in 1999. The Pacific exchange was the first in the world to operate an electronic trading system and the first in the United States to demutualize in 1999 by establishing PCX Equities, Inc. The two trading floors of the Pacific Exchange, in Los Angeles and San Francisco, closed in 2001 and 2002 respectively. In 2003, the organization established PCX Plus, an electronic options trading. In 2005, PCX Holdings (the parent company of the Pacific Exchange and PCX Equities) was acquired by Archipelago Holdings which established the Archipelago Exchange (ArcaEx), the first all-electronic stock market

in the United States. In 2006, Archipelago Holdings was acquired by the NYSE Group, which established operations of NYSE Arca.

In 2005, there were 12,210 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 35,010 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 1,730 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 856 NASDAQ companies, 203 NYSE listings, and 75 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 52 Fortune 500 companies; Chevron (in San Ramon) ranked first in the state and fourth in the nation with revenues of over \$189 billion, followed by Hewlett-Packard (Palo Alto), McKesson (San Francisco), and Wells Fargo (San Francisco), which were all listed

California—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	229,289,356	6,397.23
General revenue	154,484,882	4,310.16
Intergovernmental revenue	49,555,933	1,382.62
Taxes	85,721,483	2,391.65
General sales	26,506,911	739.55
Selective sales	7,477,277	208.62
License taxes	5,744,089	160.26
Individual income tax	36,398,983	1,015.54
Corporate income tax	6,925,916	193.23
Other taxes	2,668,307	74.45
Current charges	11,386,550	317.69
Miscellaneous general revenue	7,820,916	218.21
Utility revenue	4,367,289	121.85
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	70,437,185	1,965.21
Total expenditure	203,814,714	5,686.48
Intergovernmental expenditure	80,132,150	2,235.71
Direct expenditure	123,682,564	3,450.77
Current operation	82,253,414	2,294.89
Capital outlay	7,542,690	210.44
Insurance benefits and repayments	27,194,376	758.73
Assistance and subsidies	2,128,418	59.38
Interest on debt	4,563,666	127.33
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	20,841,748	581.49
Total expenditure	203,814,714	5,686.48
General expenditure	171,078,543	4,773.13
Intergovernmental expenditure	80,132,150	2,235.71
Direct expenditure	90,946,393	2,537.43
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	59,777,134	1,667.80
Public welfare	46,898,712	1,308.48
Hospitals	5,168,694	144.21
Health	9,525,062	265.75
Highways	7,857,947	219.24
Police protection	1,273,619	35.53
Correction	5,875,717	163.93
Natural resources	3,626,925	101.19
Parks and recreation	811,686	22.65
Government administration	8,298,729	231.54
Interest on general debt	4,141,666	115.55
Other and unallocable	17,822,652	497.26
Utility expenditure	5,541,795	154.62
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	27,194,376	758.73
Debt at end of fiscal year	102,812,905	2,868.50
Cash and security holdings	435,841,104	12,160.07

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

on NYSE, and Intel (Santa Clara), listed on NASDAQ. Hewlett-Packard ranked at 11th in the nation of Fortune 500 companies and McKesson ranked at 16th.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

California has the largest state budget in the nation. The Governor's Budget is prepared by the Department of Finance (DOF) and presented by the governor to the legislature for approval. The state's fiscal year (FY) begins 1 July and ends 30 June. The Governor's Budget is the result of a process that begins more than one year before the budget becomes law. When presented to the legislature by 10 January of each year, the Governor's Budget incorporates revenue and expenditure estimates based upon the most current information available through late December. The DOF proposes adjustments to the Governor's Budget through "Finance Letters" in March. These adjustments are to update proposals made in January or to submit any new proposal of significant importance that has arisen since the fall process. By 14 May, the DOF submits revised expenditure and revenue estimates for both the current and budget years to the legislature. This revision, known as the May Revision, incorporates changes in enrollment, caseload, and population estimates. The constitution requires that the governor submit a balanced budget and it is a statutory requirement that the governor sign a balanced budget. The legislature is supposed to adopt a budget by June 15, but California law requires a two-thirds supermajority to pass the budget. California's budget process can be viewed as a casualty of California's initiative process, impeding elected officials' by reducing flexibility within the budget. Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$97.3 billion for resources and \$90.3 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to California were \$54.5 billion. For fiscal year 2007, federal funds are provided or increased for many projects, including: transportation system improvements; watershed and dam safety and improvements; to the CALFED Bay-Delta Program to address issues of water quality and supply; design and construction at Calexico, California of the Calexico West Border Station; and a US coastal tsunami detection and warning system.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, California collected \$98,435 million in tax revenues or \$2,724 per capita, which placed it ninth among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 2.2% of the total; sales taxes, 30.4%; selective sales taxes, 7.8%; individual income taxes, 43.7%; corporate income taxes, 8.8%; and other taxes, 7.0%.

As of 1 January 2006, California had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.0 to 9.3%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 8.84%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$34,499,304,000, or \$963 per capita. California property tax collections are slightly below average for the 50 states. Local governments collected \$32,419,978,000 of the total, and the state government, \$2,079,326,000.

California taxes retail sales at a rate of 6.25%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2.65%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8.90%. Food pur-

chased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 87 cents per pack, which ranks 23rd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. California taxes gasoline at 18 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, California citizens received only 79 cents in federal spending, down from 93 cents in 1992.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The California Trade and Commerce Agency was created by Governor Pete Wilson as a cabinet-level agency that consolidated the former Department of Commerce, the World Trade Commission, and the state's overseas offices. In 2001, under Governor Gray Davis, it became the Technology, Trade and Commerce Agency (TTCA). The TTCA is the state's lead agency for promoting economic development, job creation, and business retention. The agency oversees all state economic development efforts, international commerce, and tourism. Some of the array of agencies coordinated by the TTCA include the California Infrastructure and Economic Development Bank (I-Bank), which helps local governments and businesses secure capital for infrastructural and nonprofit projects; the California Export Finance Office (CEFO), which provides loan guarantees to financial institutions lending to small and medium-sized California exporters; the Small Business Loan Guarantee Program (SBLGP); and the California Financing Coordination Committee (CFCC), which consists of state and federal agencies that work together to coordinate and streamline infrastructure financing in local communities.

In fulfilling its mission to improve California's business climate, the agency works closely with domestic and international businesses, economic development corporations, chambers of commerce, regional visitor and convention bureaus, and the various permit-issuing state and municipal government agencies.

The International Trade and Investment Division is headquarters for California's international offices and the Offices of Foreign Investment, Export Finance, and Export Development. The Agency also houses the Tourism Division, and the Economic Development Division, which includes the Offices of Business Development, Small Business, Strategic Technology, Permit Assistance, Major Corporate Projects, and the California Film Commission.

California offers a broad array of state economic development incentives, including a business assistance program that offers guidance through the regulatory and permitting processes. California has a statewide network of small business development centers, and has an enterprise zone program with 39 zones offering various tax credits, deductions, and exemptions. The zones focus on rural and economically distressed areas. There are ten foreign trade zones in the state, and an Office of Foreign Investment with incentives to attract foreign companies.

Among the development projects being pursued is the State Theatrical Arts Resources (STAR) program, begun in 2001 as a continuation of the successful Film California First program of 2000. The STAR program seeks to support California's \$33 billion filmmaking industry, and in 2003, the government announced the completion of eight distinctive filming locations. In 2003, the Governor introduced a Build California program aimed at expe-

ditioning the construction of schools, housing, roads, and other infrastructural projects as a means of reviving the state economy. In 2002, the TTCA gave its support to a national campaign called Back on Track America which aimed at helping small businesses through the country's economic downturn. In 2003, the government announced that outstanding loans under the SBLGP, created in 1999, had surpassed \$200 million. Through the Goldstrike partnership, the Office of Strategic Technology supports the growth of high technology in California. The conversion of former military bases to new manufacturing and commercial sites is also a priority of the state government. Among the development projects announced in 2003 was \$10 million in low-cost state financing, arranged through the I-Bank, for Sacramento County to be used for the economic development of the former McClennan and Mather air force bases.

Although California's high cost of living may be a disincentive to doing business in the state, Governor Arnold Schwarzenegger, upon coming to office in 2003, embarked upon a billboard advertising campaign through the California Commission for Jobs and Economic Growth featuring the slogan: "Arnold Says: California Wants Your Business." The ad was placed on billboards in major metropolitan areas of competing states, including in New York's Time Square, to stave off efforts by states to lure away California companies by underlining the positive aspects of conducting business in the state. The governor's message was also readapted for a trade mission to Japan to promote the business climate on an international level.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 15.2 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 31.2 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 87.3% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 81% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2002 was 6.7 deaths per 1,000 population. That year, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 195.9; cancer, 154.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 50.2; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 36.1; and diabetes, 19.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 4.1 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was about 13 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.6% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, only about 14.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, California had 370 community hospitals with about 74,300 beds. There were about 3.4 million patient admissions that year and 48 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 51,500 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,763. Also in 2003, there were about 1,342 certified nursing facilities in the state with 129,658 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 83%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 70.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. California had 261 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 626 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 26,692 dentists in the state.

In 2005, University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) Medical Center in Los Angeles ranked 5 on the Honor Roll of Best

Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, it ranked 8 in the nation for best cancer care. The University of California, San Francisco Medical Center ranked 10 on the Honor Roll. Stanford Hospital and Clinics ranked 16 on the Honor Roll and 11 for best care in heart disease and heart surgery. The Lucile Packard Children's Hospital at Stanford, Mattel Children's Hospital at UCLA, Children's Hospital Los Angeles, and University of California San Francisco Medical Center all ranked within the top 20 for best pediatric care.

Medi-Cal is a statewide program that pays for the medical care of persons who otherwise could not afford it. California has also been a leader in developing new forms of health care, including the health maintenance organization (HMO), which provides preventive care, diagnosis, and treatment for which the patient pays a fixed annual premium.

About 28% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; with this percentage, the state was tied with the District of Columbia and Tennessee at the second-highest percentage of Medicaid recipients in the country (after Maine). Approximately 19% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$38.5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 1.1 million people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$260. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,990,919 persons (785,385 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$96.80 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was over \$2.3 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. California's TANF program is called CALWORKS (California Work Opportunity and Responsibility to Kids). In 2004, the state program had 1,103,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$3.4 billion in 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 4,411,970 California residents. This number included 2,838,010 retired workers, 407,540 widows and widowers, 531,490 disabled workers, 281,740 spouses, and 352,190 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 12.3% of the total state population and 83.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$957; widows and widowers, \$926; disabled workers, \$910; and spouses, \$459. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$450 per month; children of deceased workers, \$638; and children of disabled workers, \$276. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 1,183,002 Californians, averaging \$559 a month.

40 HOUSING

The earliest homes in southern California were Spanish colonial structures renowned for their simplicity and harmony with the landscape. These houses were one-story high and rectangular in

plan, with outside verandas supported by wooden posts; their thick adobe walls were covered with whitewashed mud plaster. In the north, the early homes were usually two stories high, with thick adobe walls on the ground floor, balconies at the front and back, and tile roofing. Some adobe houses dating from the 1830s still stand in coastal cities and towns, particularly Monterey.

During the 1850s, jerry-built houses of wood, brick, and stone sprang up in the mining towns, and it was not until the 1870s that more substantial homes, in the Spanish mission style, were built in large numbers in the cities. About 1900, the California bungalow, with overhanging eaves and low windows, began to sweep the state and then the nation. The fusion of Spanish adobe structures and traditional American wooden construction appeared in the 1930s, and "California-style" houses gained great popularity throughout the West. Adapted from the functional international style of Frank Lloyd Wright and other innovative architects, modern domestic designs, emphasizing split-level surfaces and open interiors, won enthusiastic acceptance in California. Wright's finest California homes include the Freeman house in Los Angeles and the Millard house in Pasadena. One of Wright's disciples, Viennese-born Richard Neutra, was especially influential in adapting modern design principles to California's economy and climate.

Between 1960 and 1990, some 6.3 million houses and apartments were built in the state, comprising more than 56% of California housing stock. Housing construction boomed at record rates during the 1970s but slowed down at the beginning of the 1980s because rising building costs and high mortgage interest rates made it difficult for people of moderate means to enter the housing market. The total number of housing units in the state increased by 53% during 1940–50; 52% in 1950–60; 28% in 1960–70; 33% in 1970–80; and 20% in 1980–90.

Of the state's estimated 12,804,702 housing units in 2004, 11,972,158 were occupied; about 58.6% were owner occupied. That year, California ranked as having the most housing units among the 50 states and the District of Columbia; the state also ranked as having the third-lowest percentage of owner-occupied units. It was estimated that about 253,281 units were without telephone service, 54,412 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 91,851 lacked complete kitchen facilities. While most homes used gas or electricity as a heating fuel, about 261,527 households relied on wood and about 9,112 employed solar heating. About 57.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes; about 11% of dwellings were in buildings with 20 or more units. The average household had 2.93 members.

California ranked first in the nation for highest home values in 2004, when the median value of a one-family home was \$391,102. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was about \$1,733 while the cost for renters was at a median of about \$914. In 2004, the state authorized construction of 207,400 privately owned housing units.

California housing policies have claimed national attention on several occasions. In 1964, state voters approved Proposition 14, a measure repealing the Fair Housing Act and forbidding any future restrictions on the individual's right to sell, lease, or rent to anyone of his own choosing. The measure was later declared unconstitutional by state and federal courts. In March 1980, a Los Angeles city ordinance banned rental discrimination on the basis of age. A municipal court judge had previously ruled it was illegal for a

landlord to refuse to rent an apartment to a couple simply because they had children. Ordinances banning age discrimination had previously been enacted in the cities of San Francisco, Berkeley, and Davis and in Santa Monica and Santa Clara counties.

In September 2005, the state was awarded grants of over \$1.3 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$43 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

The history of public education in California goes back at least to the 1790s, when the governor of the Spanish colony assigned retired soldiers to open one-room schools at the Franciscan mission settlements of San Jose, Santa Barbara, San Francisco, San Diego, and Monterey. Most of these schools, and others opened during the next three decades, were short-lived, however. During the 1830s, a few more schools were established for Spanish children, including girls, who were taught needlework. Easterners and Midwesterners who came to California in the 1840s laid the foundation for the state's present school system. The first American school was opened in an old stable at the Santa Clara mission in 1846, and the following year a schoolroom was established in the Monterey customhouse. San Francisco's first school was founded in April 1848 by a Yale graduate, Thomas Douglass, but six weeks later, caught up in Gold Rush fever, he dropped his books and headed for the mines. Two years after this inauspicious beginning, the San Francisco city council passed an ordinance providing for the first free public school system in California. Although the first public high school was opened in San Francisco in 1856, the California legislature did not provide for state financial support of secondary schools until 1903.

The state's first colleges, Santa Clara College (now the Santa Clara University), founded by Jesuits, and California Wesleyan (now the University of the Pacific), located in Stockton, both opened in 1851. A year later, the Young Ladies' Seminary (now Mills College) was founded at Benicia. The nucleus of what later became the University of California was established at Oakland in 1853 and moved to nearby Berkeley in 1873. Subsequent landmarks in education were the founding of the University of Southern California (USC) at Los Angeles in 1880 and of Stanford University in 1885, the opening of the first state junior colleges in 1917, and the establishment in 1927 of the Department of Education, which supervised the vast expansion of the California school system in the years following.

In 2004, 81.3% of Californians age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 31.7% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher. The total enrollment for fall 2002 in California's public schools stood at 6,356,000. Of these, 4,529,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 1,828,000 attended high school. Approximately 32.9% of the students were white, 8.2% were black, 46.7% were Hispanic, 11.3% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.8% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 6,399,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 7,268,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 14.3% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 623,105 students enrolled in 3,377 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in

2003/04 were estimated at \$60 billion or \$7,748 per student. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in California scored 269 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 2,474,024 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 51.2% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, California had 401 degree-granting institutions. The University of California has its main campus at Berkeley and branches at Davis, Irvine, Los Angeles (UCLA), Merced, Riverside, San Diego, San Francisco, Santa Barbara, and Santa Cruz. The Hastings College of Law is also part of the UC system. The California state college and university system is not to be confused with the University of California. California's state universities include those at Los Angeles, Sacramento, San Diego, San Francisco, and San Jose; locations of state colleges include Bakersfield, San Bernardino, and Stanislaus. Privately endowed institutions with the largest student enrollments are the University of Southern California (USC) and Stanford University. Other independent institutions are Occidental College in Los Angeles, Mills College at Oakland, Whittier College, the Claremont consortium of colleges (including Harvey Mudd College, Pomona College, and Claremont McKenna College), and the California Institute of Technology at Pasadena. California has several Roman Catholic colleges and universities, including Loyola Marymount University of Los Angeles.

The California Student Aid Commission administers financial aid. All recipients must have been California residents for at least 12 months.

42 ARTS

The arts have always thrived in California, at first in the Franciscan chapels with their religious paintings and church music, later in the art galleries, gas-lit theaters, and opera houses of San Francisco and Los Angeles, and now in seaside artists' colonies, regional theaters, numerous concert halls, and, not least, the motion picture studios of Hollywood.

In the mid-19th century, many artists came from the East to paint Western landscapes, and some stayed on in California. The San Francisco Institute of Arts was founded in 1874; the E. B. Crocker Art Gallery was established in Sacramento in 1884; and the Monterey-Carmel artists' colony sprang up in the early years of the 20th century. Other art colonies developed later in Los Angeles, Santa Barbara, Laguna Beach, San Diego, and La Jolla. Notable art museums and galleries include the Los Angeles County Museum of Art (founded in 1910), Huntington Library, Art Gallery and Botanical Gardens at San Marino (1919), Norton Simon Museum of Art at Pasadena (1924), and the San Diego Museum of Art (1922). The San Francisco Museum of Modern Art opened in 1935 as the San Francisco Museum of Art; the word "Modern" was added to the museum's title in 1975. In 2006, the museum featured an exhibition titled "1906 Earthquake: A Disaster in Pictures," which showcased approximately 100 photographs commemorating the centennial of the San Francisco earthquake of 1906.

The theater arrived in California as early as 1846 in the form of stage shows at a Monterey amusement hall. The first theater

building was opened in 1849 in Sacramento by the Eagle Theater Company. Driven out of Sacramento by floods, the company soon found refuge in San Francisco; by 1853, that city had seven theaters. During the late 19th century, many famous performers, including dancer Isadora Duncan and actress Maude Adams, began their stage careers in California. Today, California theater groups with national reputations include the Berkeley Repertory Theater, Mark Taper Forum in Los Angeles, Old Globe Theater of San Diego, and the American Conservatory Theater of San Francisco. The American Conservatory Theater (ACT) of San Francisco was founded in 1965 and opened its first season at the Geary Theater in 1967. ACT celebrated 40 years of performing during its 2006/07 season.

The motion picture industry did not begin in Hollywood—the first commercial films were made in New York City and New Jersey in the 1890s—but within a few decades this Los Angeles suburb had become synonymous with the new art form. California became a haven for independent producers escaping an East Coast monopoly on patents related to filmmaking. (If patent infringements were discovered, the producer could avoid a lawsuit by crossing the border into Mexico.) In 1908, an independent producer, William Selig, completed in Los Angeles a film he had begun in Chicago, *The Count of Monte Cristo*, which is now recognized as the first commercial film produced in California. He and other moviemakers opened studios in Los Angeles, Santa Monica, Glendale, and, finally, Hollywood, where the sunshine was abundant, land was cheap, and the workforce plentiful. These independent producers developed the full-length motion picture and the star system, utilizing the talents of popular actors like Mary Pickford, Douglas Fairbanks, and Charlie Chaplin again and again. In 1915, D. W. Griffith produced the classic "silent," *The Birth of a Nation*, which was both a popular and an artistic success. Motion picture theaters sprang up all over the country, and an avalanche of motion pictures was produced in Hollywood by such increasingly powerful studios as Warner Brothers, Fox, and Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer. Hollywood became the motion picture capital of the world. By 1923, film production accounted for one-fifth of the state's annual manufacturing value; in 1930, the film industry was one of the 10 largest in the United States.

Hollywood flourished by using the latest technical innovations and by adapting itself to the times. Sound motion pictures achieved a breakthrough in 1927 with *The Jazz Singer*, starring Al Jolson; color films appeared within a few years; and Walt Disney originated the feature-length animated cartoon with *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* (1937). Whereas most industries suffered drastically from the depression of the 1930s, Hollywood prospered by providing, for the most part, escapist entertainment on a lavish scale. The 1930s saw the baroque spectacles of Busby Berkeley, the inspired lunacy of the Marx Brothers, and the romantic historical drama *Gone with the Wind* (1939). During World War II, Hollywood offered its vast audience patriotic themes and pro-Allied propaganda.

In the postwar period, the motion picture industry fell on hard times because of competition from television, but it recovered fairly quickly by selling its old films to television and producing new ones specifically for home viewing. In the 1960s, Hollywood replaced New York City as the main center for the production of television programs. Fewer motion pictures were made, and those

that were produced were longer and more expensive, including such top box-office attractions as *The Sound of Music* (1965), *Star Wars* (1977), *E.T.—The Extra-Terrestrial* (1982), *Jurassic Park* (1993), *Independence Day* (1996), *Titanic* (1997), *Armageddon* (1998), *The Matrix Reloaded* (2003), and Stephen Spielberg's version of *War of the Worlds* (2005). No longer are stars held under exclusive contracts, and the power of the major studios has waned as the role of independent filmmakers like Francis Ford Coppola, Steven Spielberg, and George Lucas has assumed increased importance.

Among the many composers who came to Hollywood to write film music were Irving Berlin, George Gershwin, Kurt Weill, George Antheil, Ferde Grofe, Erich Korngold, and John Williams; such musical luminaries as Igor Stravinsky and Arnold Schoenberg were longtime residents of the state. Symphonic music is well established. In addition to the renowned Los Angeles Philharmonic, whose permanent conductors have included Zubin Mehta and Carlo Maria Giulini, there are the San Francisco Symphony and other professional symphonic orchestras in Oakland and San Jose. Many semiprofessional or amateur orchestras have been organized in other communities. Resident opera companies include the San Francisco Opera (1923) and the San Diego Opera. Annual musical events include the Sacramento and Monterey jazz festivals and summer concerts at the Hollywood Bowl. As of 2006, the Monterey Jazz Festival, celebrating its 49th anniversary, was noted as the longest running jazz festival in the world.

California has also played a major role in the evolution of popular music since the 1960s. The "surf sound" of the Beach Boys dominated California pop music in the mid-1960s. By 1967, the "acid rock" of bands like the Grateful Dead, Jefferson Airplane (later Jefferson Starship), and the Doors had started to gain national recognition, and that year the heralded "summer of love" in San Francisco attracted young people from throughout the country. It was at the Monterey International Pop Festival, also in 1967, that Jimi Hendrix began his rise to stardom. During the 1970s, California was strongly identified with a group of resident singer-songwriters, including Neil Young, Joni Mitchell, Randy Newman, Jackson Browne, and Warren Zevon, who brought a new sophistication to rock lyrics. Los Angeles is a main center of the popular music industry, with numerous recording studios and branch offices of the leading record companies. Los Angeles-based Motown Industries, the largest black-owned company in the United States, is a major force in popular music.

California has nurtured generations of writers, many of whom moved there from other states. In 1864, Mark Twain, a Missourian, came to California as a newspaperman. Four years later, New York-born Bret Harte published his earliest short stories, many set in mining camps, in San Francisco's *Overland Monthly*. The writer perhaps most strongly associated with California is Nobel Prize-winner John Steinbeck, a Salinas native. Hollywood's film industry has long been a magnet for writers, and San Francisco in the 1950s was the gathering place for a group, later known as the Beats (or "Beat Generation"), that included Jack Kerouac and Allen Ginsberg. The City Lights Bookshop, owned by poet Lawrence Ferlinghetti, was the site of readings by Beat poets during this period.

In 2005, the California Arts Council and other arts organizations received 303 grants totaling \$8,459,000 from the National Endowment for the Arts, and California organizations received

87 grants totaling \$10,903,937 from the National Endowment for the Humanities. The California Arts Council also used state financial resources to promote arts organizations. The California Council for the Humanities has offices in San Diego, San Francisco, and Los Angeles. California is also a member state of the regional Western States Arts Federation. A California law, effective 1 January 1977, was the first in the nation to provide living artists with royalties on the profitable resale of their work.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, California had 179 public library systems, with 1,063 libraries, of which 897 were branches. The state's public library system that same year held 67,219,000 volumes of books and serial publications and had a circulation of 172,337,000. The system also had 2,734,000 audio and 2,095,000 video items, 110,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 61 bookmobiles. California has three of the largest public library systems in the nation, along with some of the country's finest private collections. In 1998, the Los Angeles Public Library System had 5,811,492 volumes; the San Francisco Public Library, 2,137,618; and the San Diego Public Library, 2,670,375. Public library operating income came to \$890,188,000 in fiscal year 2001, including \$3,832,000 in federal grants and \$77,456,000 in state grants. While California's public libraries had the second largest income of all states, spending per capita was mediocre.

Outstanding among academic libraries is the University of California's library at Berkeley, with its Bancroft collection of Western Americana. Stanford's Hoover Institution has a notable collection of research materials on the Russian Revolution, World War I, and worldwide relief efforts thereafter. Numerous rare books, manuscripts, and documents are held in the Huntington Library in San Marino.

California has nearly 576 museums and over 50 public gardens. Outstanding museums include the California Museum of Science and Industry, Los Angeles County Museum of Art, and Natural History Museum, all in Los Angeles; the San Francisco Museum of Modern Art, Fine Arts Museums of San Francisco, and Asian Art Museum of San Francisco; the San Diego Museum of Man; the California State Indian Museum in Sacramento; the Norton Simon Museum in Pasadena; and the J. Paul Getty Museum at Malibu. Among historic sites are Sutter's Mill, northeast of Sacramento, where gold was discovered in 1848, and a restoration of the Mission of San Diego de Alcalá, where in 1769 the first of California's Franciscan missions was established. San Diego has an excellent zoo, and San Francisco's Strybing Arboretum and Botanical Gardens has beautiful displays of Asian, Mediterranean, and California flora.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Mail service in California, begun in 1851 by means of mule-drawn wagons, was soon taken over by stagecoach companies. The need for speedier delivery led to the founding in April 1860 of the Pony Express, which operated between San Francisco and Missouri. On the western end, relays of couriers picked up mail in San Francisco, carried it by boat to Sacramento, and then conveyed it on horseback to St. Joseph, Missouri, a hazardous journey of nearly

2,000 mi (3,200 km) within 10 days. The Pony Express functioned for only 16 months, however, before competition from the first transcontinental telegraph line (between San Francisco and New York) put it out of business; telegraph service between San Francisco and Los Angeles had begun a year earlier.

California was third among US households in 2004 in having telephones, with fully 96.0% of the state's occupied housing units. In addition, by June of that same year, there were 21,575,797 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 66.3% of California households had a computer and 59.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 6,045,283 high-speed lines in California, 5,378,549 residential and 666,734 for business.

The state's first radio broadcasting station, KQW in San Jose, began broadcasting speech and music on an experimental basis in 1912. California stations pioneered in program development with the earliest audience-participation show (1922) and the first "soap opera," *One Man's Family* (1932). When motion picture stars began doubling as radio performers in the 1930s, Hollywood emerged as a center of radio network broadcasting. Similarly, Hollywood's abundant acting talent, experienced film crews, and superior production facilities enabled it to become the principal production center for television programs from the 1950s onward.

In 2005 there were 241 FM and 81 AM major radio stations and 67 major television stations. California ranks second in the United States (after Texas) in the number of commercial television stations and of radio stations.

In 1999, Los Angeles alone had 3,392,820 cable television households (65% of television-owning households); second only to the New York City area. The Sacramento-Stockton-Modesto area had 64% cable penetration of 1,19,820 television households. The San Francisco-Oakland-San Jose area had cable in 72% of its TV-owning homes, and San Diego, in 83%.

A total of 1,511,571 Internet domain names had been registered in California as of 2000, the most of any state.

45 PRESS

In 2005 there were 68 morning dailies and 23 evening dailies; 61 newspapers had Sunday editions.

The following table shows California's leading newspapers, with their 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Fresno	<i>Fresno Bee</i> (m,S)	160,143	191,205
Long Beach-			
Huntington Beach	<i>Press-Telegram</i> (m,S)	96,967	109,296
Los Angeles	<i>Times</i> (m,S)	902,164	1,292,274
	<i>Investor's Business Daily</i> (m)	191,846	
	<i>Daily News</i> (m,S)	178,404	200,458
	<i>La Opinion</i> (Spanish, m,S)	124,990	68,965
Oakland	<i>Oakland Tribune</i> (m,S)	51,994	65,705
Orange County-			
Santa Ana	<i>Orange County Register</i> (m,S)	303,418	371,046
Riverside	<i>Press-Enterprise</i> (m,S)	182,790	186,790
Sacramento	<i>Sacramento Bee</i> (m,S)	293,705	346,742
San Diego	<i>San Diego Union-Tribune</i> (m,S)	366,740	433,973
San Francisco	<i>San Francisco Chronicle</i> (a,S)	505,022	540,314
	<i>Examiner</i> (e,S)	95,800	552,400
San Jose	<i>San Jose Mercury-News</i> (m,S)	263,067	298,067

Investor's Business Daily has nationwide circulation. In 2004, the *Los Angeles Times* was the fourth-largest daily newspaper in the country, based on circulation. It ranked second in the nation

for Sunday circulation the same year. The San Francisco *Chronicle* had the 11th-largest daily circulation and the 16th-largest Sunday circulation in 2004. San Francisco has long been the heart of the influential Hearst newspaper chain.

In 2005, there were 305 weekly publications in California. Of these there are 123 paid weeklies, 111 free weeklies, and 71 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (863,732) and free weeklies (2,590,133) is 3,453,865. Among the Top Fifty Shopper Publications in the United States, California's statewide *Pennysaver* ranked first, with a circulation of 5,000,000. The Beverly Hills *Courier* ranked 11th by circulation among the combined weeklies in the United States.

In August 1846, the state's first newspaper, the *Californian*, printed (on cigarette paper—the only paper available) the news of the US declaration of war on Mexico. The *Californian* moved to San Francisco in 1847 to compete with a new weekly, the *California Star*. When gold was discovered, both papers failed to mention the fact and both soon went out of business as their readers headed for the hills. On the whole, however, the influx of gold seekers was good for the newspaper business. In 1848, the *Californian* and the *Star* were resurrected and merged into the *Alta Californian*, which two years later became the state's first daily newspaper; among subsequent contributors were Mark Twain and Bret Harte. Four years later there were 57 newspapers and periodicals in the state.

The oldest continuously published newspapers in California are the *Sacramento Bee* (founded in 1857), San Francisco's *Examiner* (1865) and *Chronicle* (1868), and the *Los Angeles Times* (1881). *Times* owner and editor Harrison Gray Otis quickly made his newspaper preeminent in Los Angeles, a tradition continued by his son-in-law, Henry Chandler, and by the Otis-Chandler family today. Of all California's dailies, the *Times* is the only one with a depth of international and national coverage to rival the major East Coast papers. In 1887, young William Randolph Hearst took over his father's *San Francisco Daily Examiner* and introduced human interest items and sensational news stories to attract readers. The *Examiner* became the nucleus of the Hearst national newspaper chain, which later included the *News-Call Bulletin* and *Herald Examiner* in Los Angeles. The *Bulletin*, like many other newspapers in the state, ceased publication in the decades following World War II because of rising costs and increased competition for readers and advertisers.

California has more book publishers—about 225—than any state except New York. Among the many magazines published in the state are *Architectural Digest*, *Bon Appetit*, *Motor Trend*, *PC World*, *Runner's World*, and *Sierra*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

Californians belong to thousands of nonprofit societies and organizations, many of which have their national headquarters in the state. In 2006, there were over 25,450 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 19,002 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

National service organizations operating out of California include the National Assistance League and the Braille Institute of America, both in Los Angeles, and Knights of the Round Table International, Pasadena. Gamblers Anonymous has its international

service office in Los Angeles. Some national social and civic organizations are based in the state, such as the Red Hat Society and Clowns Without Borders–USA.

Environmental and scientific organizations include the Sierra Club, Friends of the Earth, and Save-the-Redwoods League, all with headquarters in San Francisco; Animal Protection Institute of America, Sacramento; Geothermal Resources Council, Davis; and Seismological Society of America, Berkeley.

Among entertainment-oriented organizations centered in the state are the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences and the Academy of Television Arts and Sciences, both in Beverly Hills; Directors Guild of America and Writers Guild of America (West), both in Los Angeles; Screen Actors Guild and American Society of Cinematographers, both in Hollywood; the American Society of Music Arrangers and Composers, in Encino; the GRAMMY Foundation in Santa Monica; and the National Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences, Burbank. There are also several fan clubs for actors, singers, and other entertainment artists. Other commercial and professional groups are the Institute of Mathematical Statistics, San Carlos; Manufacturers' Agents National Association, Irvine; National Association of Civil Service Employees, San Diego; American Society of Zoologists, Thousand Oaks. and Pacific Area Travel Association, San Francisco.

The many national sports groups with California headquarters include the Association of Professional Ball Players of America (baseball), Garden Grove; US Hang Gliding Association, Los Angeles; National Hot Rod Association, North Hollywood; Professional Karate Association, Beverly Hills; United States Youth Soccer Association, Castro Valley; Soaring Society of America, Santa Monica; International Softball Congress, Anaheim Hills; American Surfing Association, Huntington Beach; and US Swimming Association, Fresno.

There are numerous state, regional, and local organizations dedicated to arts and culture. These include the California Arts Council, California Council for the Humanities, the Pacific Arts Association, and the California Hispanic Cultural Society. The Guitar Foundation of America is based in Claremont. The Jack London Research Center, the George Sand Association, and the Eugene O'Neill Society are headquartered in the state. Religious groups with central bases in the state include the American Druze Society, Jews for Jesus, and the Church of Scientology. There are also a number of regional conservation, environmental, and agricultural organizations. California also hosts the National Investigations Committee on UFOs, Van Nuys.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

California is one of the leading travel destination in the United States. In 2004, tourism was the state's third-largest employer, with direct travel spending in the state reaching \$82.5 billion that year. In 2003, California led the nation in travel and tourism with a payroll of \$19.7 billion. In support of the industry, the state adopted the California Tourism Marketing Act in 1995. This marketing referendum of California businesses established the California Travel and Tourism Commission (CTTC) and a statewide marketing fund derived from mandatory assessments. The success of the Cal-

ifornia Tourism Program, a joint venture between the CTTC and the California Division of Tourism, is a model for other states.

In 2003, 85% of tourists were Californians themselves. The state also hosted 4 million international visitors that year, with 693,000 from the United Kingdom; 590,000 from Japan; 303,000 from South Korea; 260,000 from Australia and New Zealand; and 238,000 from Germany. Nearly 440,000 travelers traveled by air from Mexico, and another 3 million came by car; some 890,000 were from Canada. There are 11 official California Welcome Centers within the state; 5 international travel trade offices operate, in Brazil, Australia, Germany, Japan, and the United Kingdom.

While the state's mild, sunny climate and varied scenery of sea-coast, mountains, and desert lure many visitors, the San Francisco and Los Angeles metropolitan areas offer the most popular tourist attractions. San Francisco's Fisherman's Wharf, Chinatown, and Ghirardelli Square are popular for shopping and dining; tourists also frequent the city's unique cable cars, splendid museums, Opera House, and Golden Gate Bridge. The Golden Gate National Recreation Area, comprising 68 sq mi (176 sq km) on both sides of the entrance to San Francisco Bay, includes Fort Point in the Presidio park, Alcatraz Island (formerly a federal prison) in the bay, the National Maritime Museum with seven historic ships, and the Muir Woods, located 17 mi (27 km) north of the city. South of the city, the rugged coastal scenery of the Monterey peninsula attracts many visitors; to the northeast, the wineries of the Sonoma and Napa valleys offer their wares for sampling and sale.

Spending by travelers averages \$1.4 billion per county, but Los Angeles County hosts the greatest number of tourist and receives approximately \$17.9 billion in direct tourist spending. The Los Angeles area has the state's principal tourist attractions: the Disneyland amusement center at Anaheim, and Hollywood, which features visits to motion picture and television studios and sight-seeing tours of film stars' homes in Beverly Hills. One of Hollywood's most popular spots is Mann's (formerly Grauman's) Chinese Theater, where the impressions of famous movie stars' hands and feet (and sometimes paws or hooves) are embedded in concrete. The New Year's Day Tournament of Roses at Pasadena is an annual tradition. Southwest of Hollywood, the Santa Monica Mountain National Recreation Area was created by Congress in 1978 as the country's largest urban park, covering 150,000 acres (61,000 hectares). The Queen Mary ocean liner, docked at Long Beach, is now a marine-oceanographic exposition center and hotel-convention complex. The Ronald Reagan Presidential Library is in Simi Valley.

The rest of the state offers numerous tourist attractions, including some of the largest and most beautiful national parks in the United States. In the north are Redwood National Park and Lassen Volcanic National Park. In east-central California, situated in the Sierra Nevada, are Yosemite National Park, towering Mt. Whitney in Sequoia National Park, and Lake Tahoe on the Nevada border. About 80 mi (129 km) east of Mt. Whitney is Death Valley. Among the popular tourist destinations in southern California are the zoo and Museum of Man in San Diego's Balboa Park and the Mission San Juan Capistrano, to which, according to tradition, the swallows return each spring. The San Simeon mansion and estate of the late William Randolph Hearst are now state historical monuments.

48 SPORTS

There are considerably more professional sports teams in California than in any other state. California has everything from baseball to hockey to soccer to women's basketball. The Major League Baseball teams are the Los Angeles Dodgers, the San Francisco Giants, the San Diego Padres, the Oakland Athletics, and the Los Angeles Angels of Anaheim. The Oakland Raiders, the San Francisco 49ers, and the San Diego Chargers play in the National Football League. In basketball the Los Angeles Lakers, the Los Angeles Clippers, the Golden State Warriors, and the Sacramento Kings play in the National Basketball Association. The Los Angeles Sparks and Sacramento Monarchs are in the Women's National Basketball Association. The Los Angeles Kings, the Anaheim Mighty Ducks, and the San Jose Sharks are members of the National Hockey League. The Major League Soccer teams are the Los Angeles Galaxy and San Jose Earthquakes.

Since moving from Brooklyn, New York, in 1959, the Dodgers have won the National League Pennant 10 times, going on to win the World Series in 1959, 1963, 1965, 1981, and 1988. The Athletics won the American League Pennant six times, going on to win the World Series in 1972, 1973, 1974, and 1980. The Giants, who moved from New York City in 1959, won the National League Pennant in 1962, 1989, and 2002, losing all three World Series. The Padres won the National League Pennant in 1984 and lost the World Series. They returned to the World Series after claiming the National League Pennant in 1999, but lost again. The Anaheim Angels (formerly the California Angels and currently the Los Angeles Angels of Anaheim) won the 2002 World Series.

The Lakers won the National Basketball Association (NBA) Championship in 1972, 1980, 1982, 1985, 1987, 1988, and from 2000 through 2002. The Warriors won the Championship in 1975. The Los Angeles Rams, who moved to St. Louis in 1996, played in NFL title games in 1949, 1950, 1951, 1955, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1978, and 1978. They won in 1951, and lost the Super Bowl in 1980. The Raiders won the Super Bowl three times: twice from Oakland, in 1977 and 1981, and once from Los Angeles, in 1984. The Raiders returned to Oakland in 1996. They were defeated by the Tampa Bay Buccaneers in the 2003 Super Bowl. The 49ers were the 1980s' most successful NFL team, winning the Super Bowl in 1982, 1985, 1989, 1990, and 1995. The Kings became the first California hockey team to make it to the Stanley Cup Finals in 1993, but they lost to the Montreal Canadians.

Another popular professional sport is horse racing at such well-known tracks as Santa Anita and Hollywood Park. Because of the equitable climate, there is racing virtually all year round. The California Speedway, in Fontana, hosts two NASCAR Cup Series races each year, and the Infineon Raceway hosts one NASCAR Nextel Cup event.

California's universities have fielded powerhouse teams in collegiate sports. The University of Southern California's (USC) baseball team won five consecutive national championships between 1970 and 1974. Its football team was number one in the nation in 1928, 1931, 1932, 1962, 1967, 1972, and 2004, and was a national champion in 1974, 1978, and 2003. USC has won the Rose Bowl over 20 times, most recently in 2004. The University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) basketball team won 10 National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) titles, while the Bruins football team won Rose Bowls in 1966, 1976, 1983, 1984, and 1986.

Additionally, Stanford has won six Rose Bowl titles and University of California at Berkeley, three. Stanford also won the NCAA men's basketball championship in 1942, and the women's championships in 1990 and 1992. University of California at Berkeley won the men's title in 1959. All four schools compete in the PAC-10 Conference.

Among the famous athletes born in California are Joe DiMaggio, Venus and Serena Williams, Mark McGwire, Tiger Woods, and Jeff Gordon.

49 FAMOUS CALIFORNIANS

Richard Milhous Nixon (1913–94) is the only native-born Californian ever elected to the presidency. Following naval service in World War II, he was elected to the US House of Representatives in 1946, then to the US Senate in 1950. He served as vice president during the Dwight Eisenhower administration (1953–61) but failed, by a narrow margin, to be elected president as the Republican candidate in 1960. Returning to his home state, Nixon ran for the California governorship in 1962 but was defeated. The next year he moved his home and political base to New York, from which he launched his successful campaign for the presidency in 1968. As the nation's 37th president, Nixon withdrew US forces from Vietnam while intensifying the US bombing of Indochina, established diplomatic relations with China, and followed a policy of détente with the Soviet Union. In 1972, he scored a resounding reelection victory, but within a year his administration was beset by the Watergate scandal. On 9 August 1974, after the House Judiciary Committee had voted articles of impeachment, Nixon became the first president ever to resign the office.

The nation's 31st president, Herbert Hoover (b.Iowa, 1874–1964), moved to California as a young man. There he studied engineering at Stanford University and graduated with its first class (1895) before beginning the public career that culminated in his election to the presidency on the Republican ticket in 1928. Former film actor Ronald Reagan (b.Illinois, 1911–2004) served two terms as state governor (1967–75) before becoming president in 1981. He was elected to a second presidential term in 1984.

In 1953, Earl Warren (1891–1974) became the first Californian to serve as US chief justice (1953–69). Warren, a native of Los Angeles, was elected three times to the California governorship and served in that office (1943–53) longer than any other person. Following his appointment to the US Supreme Court by President Eisenhower, Warren was instrumental in securing the unanimous decision in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (1954) that racial segregation was unconstitutional under the 14th Amendment. Other cases decided by the Warren court dealt with defendants' rights, legislative reapportionment, and First Amendment freedoms.

Before the appointment of Earl Warren, California had been represented on the Supreme Court continuously from 1863 to 1926. Stephen J. Field (b.Connecticut, 1816–99) came to California during the gold rush, practiced law, and served as chief justice of the state supreme court from 1859 to 1863. Following his appointment to the highest court by President Abraham Lincoln, Field served what was at that time the longest term in the court's history (1863–97). Joseph McKenna (b.Pennsylvania, 1843–1926) was appointed to the Supreme Court to replace Field upon his re-

tirement. McKenna, who moved with his family to California in 1855, became US attorney general in 1897, and was then elevated by President William McKinley to associate justice (1898–1925).

Californians have also held important positions in the executive branch of the federal government. Longtime California resident Victor H. Metcalf (b.New York, 1853–1936) served as Theodore Roosevelt's secretary of commerce and labor. Franklin K. Lane (b.Canada, 1864–1921) was Woodrow Wilson's secretary of the interior, and Ray Lyman Wilbur (b.Iowa, 1875–1949) occupied the same post in the Herbert Hoover administration. Californians were especially numerous in the cabinet of Richard Nixon. Los Angeles executive James D. Hodgson (b.Minnesota, 1915) was secretary of labor; former state lieutenant governor Robert H. Finch (b.Arizona, 1925–95) and San Francisco native Caspar W. Weinberger (1917–2006) both served terms as secretary of health, education, and welfare; and Claude S. Brinegar (b.1926) was secretary of transportation. Weinberger and Brinegar stayed on at their respective posts in the Gerald Ford administration; Weinberger later served as secretary of defense under Ronald Reagan. An important figure in several national administrations, San Francisco-born John A. McCone (1902–91) was chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission (1958–60) and director of the Central Intelligence Agency (1961–65).

John Charles Frémont (b.Georgia, 1813–90) led several expeditions to the West, briefly served as civil governor of California before statehood, became one of California's first two US senators (serving only until 1851), and ran unsuccessfully as the Republican Party's first presidential candidate, in 1856. Other prominent US senators from the state have included Hiram Johnson (1866–1945), who also served as governor from 1911 to 1917; William F. Knowland (1908–74); and, more recently, former college president and semanticist Samuel Ichiye Hayakawa (b.Canada, 1906–92) and former state controller Alan Cranston (1914–2001). Governors of the state since World War II include Reagan, Edmund G. "Pat" Brown (1905–96), fourth-generation Californian Edmund G. "Jerry" Brown Jr. (b.1938), and George Deukmejian (b.New York, 1928). Other prominent state officeholders are Rose Elizabeth Bird (b.Arizona, 1936–99), the first woman to be appointed chief justice of the state supreme court, and Wilson Riles (b.Louisiana, 1917), superintendent of public instruction, and the first black Californian elected to a state constitutional office. Prominent among mayors are Thomas Bradley (b.Texas, 1917–98) of Los Angeles, Pete Wilson (b.Illinois, 1933) of San Diego, Diane Feinstein (b.1933) of San Francisco, and Janet Gray Hayes (b.Indiana, 1926) of San Jose.

Californians have won Nobel Prizes in five separate categories. Linus Pauling (b.Oregon, 1901–94), professor at the California Institute of Technology (1927–64) and at Stanford (1969–74), won the Nobel Prize for chemistry in 1954 and the Nobel Peace Prize in 1962. Other winners of the Nobel Prize in chemistry are University of California (Berkeley) professors William Francis Giaque (b.Canada, 1895–1982), in 1949; Edwin M. McMillan (1907–91) and Glenn T. Seaborg (b.Michigan, 1912–99), who shared the prize in 1951; and Stanford Professor Henry Taube (b.Canada, 1915–2005), in 1983. Members of the Berkeley faculty who have won the Nobel Prize for physics include Ernest Orlando Lawrence (b.South Dakota, 1901–58), in 1939; Emilio Segré (b.Italy, 1905–89) and Owen Chamberlain (1920–2006), who shared the prize

in 1959; and Luis W. Alvarez (1911–88), in 1968. Stanford professor William Shockley (b.England, 1910–89) shared the physics prize with two others in 1956; William A. Fowler (b.Pennsylvania, 1911–95), professor at the California Institute of Technology, won the prize in 1983. The only native-born Californian to win the Nobel Prize for literature was novelist John Steinbeck (1902–68), in 1962. Gerald Debreu (b.France, 1921–2004), professor at the University of California at Berkeley, won the 1983 prize for economics.

Other prominent California scientists are world-famed horticulturist Luther Burbank (b.Massachusetts, 1849–1926) and nuclear physicist Edward Teller (b.Hungary, 1908–2003). Naturalist John Muir (b.Scotland, 1838–1914) fought for the establishment of Yosemite National Park. Influential California educators include college presidents David Starr Jordan (b.New York, 1851–1931) of Stanford, and Robert Gordon Sproul (1891–1975) and Clark Kerr (b.Pennsylvania, 1911–2003) of the University of California.

Major figures in the California labor movement were anti-Chinese agitator Denis Kearney (b.Ireland, 1847–1907); radical organizer Thomas Mooney (b.Illinois, 1882–1942); and Harry Bridges (b.Australia, 1901–90), leader of the San Francisco general strike of 1934. The best-known contemporary labor leader in California is Cesar Chavez (b.Arizona, 1927–93).

The variety of California's economic opportunities is reflected in the diversity of its business leadership. Prominent in the development of California railroads were the men known as the Big Four: Charles Crocker (b.New York, 1822–88), Mark Hopkins (b.New York, 1813–78), Collis P. Huntington (b.Connecticut, 1821–1900), and Leland Stanford (b.New York, 1824–93). California's longstanding dominance in the aerospace industry is a product of the efforts of such native Californians as John Northrop (1895–1981) and self-taught aviator Allen Lockheed (1889–1969), along with Glenn L. Martin (b.Iowa, 1886–1955); the San Diego firm headed by Claude T. Ryan (b.Kansas, 1898–1982), built the monoplane, *Spirit of St. Louis*, flown by Charles Lindbergh across the Atlantic in 1927. Among the state's banking and financial leaders was San Jose native Amadeo Peter Giannini (1870–1949), founder of the Bank of America. Important figures in the development of California agriculture include Edwin T. Earl (1856–1919), developer of the first ventilator-refrigerator railroad car, and Mark J. Fontana (b.Italy, 1849–1922), whose California Packing Corp., under the brand name of Del Monte, became the largest seller of canned fruit in the United States. Leaders of the state's world-famous wine and grape-growing industry include immigrants Ágoston Haraszthy de Mokcsa (b.Hungary, 1812?–69), Charles Krug (b.Prussia, 1830–94), and Paul Masson (b.France, 1859–1940), as well as two Modesto natives, brothers Ernest (b.1910) and Julio (1911–93) Gallo. It was at the mill of John Sutter (b.Baden, 1803–80) that gold was discovered in 1848.

Leading figures among the state's newspaper editors and publishers were William Randolph Hearst (1863–1951), whose publishing empire began with the *San Francisco Examiner*, and Harrison Gray Otis (b.Ohio, 1837–1917), longtime owner and publisher of the *Los Angeles Times*. Pioneers of the state's electronics industry include David Packard (b.Colorado, 1912–96) and William R. Hewlett (b.Michigan, 1913–2001); Stephen Wozniak (b.1950) and Steven Jobs (b.1955) were cofounders of Apple Computer. Other prominent business leaders include clothier Levi

Strauss (b.Germany, 1830–1902), paper producer Anthony Zellerbach (b.Germany, 1832–1911), cosmetics manufacturer Max Factor (b.Poland, 1877–1938), and construction and manufacturing magnate Henry J. Kaiser (b.New York, 1882–1967).

California has been home to a great many creative artists. Native California writers include John Steinbeck, adventure writer Jack London (1876–1916), novelist and dramatist William Saroyan (1908–81), and novelist-essayist Joan Didion (b.1934). One California-born writer whose life and works were divorced from his place of birth was Robert Frost (1874–1963), a native of San Francisco. Many other writers who were residents but not natives of the state have made important contributions to literature. Included in this category are Mark Twain (Samuel Langhorne Clemens, b.Missouri, 1835–1910); local colorist Bret Harte (b.New York, 1836–1902); author-journalist Ambrose Bierce (b.Ohio, 1842–1914); novelists Frank Norris (b.Illinois, 1870–1902), Mary Austin (b.Illinois, 1868–1934), and Aldous Huxley (b.England, 1894–1963); novelist-playwright Christopher Isherwood (b.England, 1904–86); and poets Robinson Jeffers (b.Pennsylvania, 1887–1962) and Lawrence Ferlinghetti (b.New York, 1920). California has been the home of several masters of detective fiction, including Raymond Chandler (b.Illinois, 1888–1959), Dashiell Hammett (b.Connecticut, 1894–1961), Erle Stanley Gardner (b.Massachusetts, 1889–1970), creator of Perry Mason, and Ross Macdonald (1915–83). Producer-playwright David Belasco (1853–1931) was born in San Francisco.

Important composers who have lived and worked in California include natives Henry Cowell (1897–1965) and John Cage (1912–92), and immigrants Arnold Schoenberg (b.Austria, 1874–1951), Ernest Bloch (b.Switzerland, 1880–1959), and Igor Stravinsky (b.Russia, 1882–1971). Immigrant painters include landscape artists Albert Bierstadt (b.Germany, 1830–1902) and William Keith (b.Scotland, 1839–1911), as well as abstract painter Hans Hofmann (b.Germany, 1880–1966). Contemporary artists working in California include Berkeley-born Elmer Bischoff (b.1916–91), Wayne Thiebaud (b.Arizona, 1920), and Richard Diebenkorn (b.Oregon, 1922–93). San Francisco native Ansel Adams (1902–84) is the best known of a long line of California photographers that includes Edward Curtis (b.Wisconsin, 1868–1952), famed for his portraits of American Indians, and Dorothea Lange (b.New Jersey, 1895–1965), chronicler of the 1930s migration to California.

Many of the world's finest performing artists have also been Californians: Violinist Ruggiero Ricci (b.1918) was born in San Francisco, while fellow virtuosos Yehudi Menuhin (b.New York, 1916–99) and Isaac Stern (b.Russia, 1920–2001) were both reared in the state. Another master violinist, Jascha Heifetz (b.Russia, 1901–84), made his home in Beverly Hills. California jazz musicians include Dave Brubeck (b.1920) and Los Angeles-reared Stan Kenton (b.Kansas, 1912–79).

Among the many popular musicians who live and record in the state are California natives David Crosby (b.1941), Randy Newman (b.1943), and Beach Boys Brian (b.1942) and Carl (1946–98) Wilson.

The list of talented and beloved film actors associated with Hollywood is enormous. Native Californians on the screen include child actress Shirley Temple (Mrs. Charles A. Black, b.1928) and such greats as Gregory Peck (1916–2003) and Marilyn Monroe (Norma Jean Baker, 1926–62). Other longtime residents of the

state include Douglas Fairbanks (b.Colorado, 1883–1939), Mary Pickford (Gladys Marie Smith, b.Canada, 1894–1979), Harry Lillis “Bing” Crosby (b.Washington, 1904–77), Cary Grant (Archibald Leach, b.England, 1904–86), John Wayne (Marion Michael Morrison, b.Iowa, 1907–79), Bette Davis (b.Massachusetts, 1908–89), and Clark Gable (b.Ohio, 1901–60). Other actors born in California include Clint Eastwood (b.1930), Robert Duvall (b.1931), Robert Redford (b.1937), Kevin Costner (b.1955), and Dustin Lee Hoffman (b.1937).

Hollywood has also been the center for such pioneer film producers and directors as D. W. Griffith (David Lewelyn Wark Griffith, b.Kentucky, 1875–1948), Cecil B. DeMille (b.Massachusetts, 1881–1959), Samuel Goldwyn (b.Poland, 1882–1974), Frank Capra (b.Italy, 1897–1991), and master animator Walt Disney (b.Illinois, 1901–66).

California-born athletes have excelled in every professional sport. A representative sampling includes Baseball Hall of Famers Joe Cronin (1906–1984), Vernon “Lefty” Gomez (1908–89), and Joe DiMaggio (1914–99), along with tennis greats John Donald “Don” Budge (1915–2000), Richard A. “Pancho” Gonzales (1928–95), Maureen “Little Mo” Connelly (1934–69), and Billie Jean (Moffitt) King (b.1943); Gene Littler (b.1930) in golf, Frank Gifford (b.1930) and Orenthal James “O. J.” Simpson (b.1947) in football, Mark Spitz (b.1950) in swimming, and Bill Walton (b.1952) in basketball. Robert B. “Bob” Mathias (b.1930) won the gold medal in the decathlon at the 1948 and 1952 Olympic Games.

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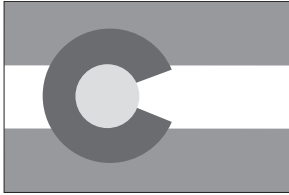
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COLORADO

State of Colorado



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: From the Spanish word *colorado*, meaning red or reddish brown. The Colorado River often runs red during flood stages. **NICKNAME:** The Centennial State. **CAPITAL:** Denver. **ENTERED UNION:** 1 August 1876 (38th). **SONG:** “Where the Columbines Grow.” **MOTTO:** *Nil sine numine* (Nothing without providence). **COAT OF ARMS:** The upper portion of a heraldic shield shows three snow-capped mountains surrounded by clouds; the lower portion has a miner’s pick and shovel crossed. Above the shield are an eye of God and a Roman fasces, symbolizing the republican form of government; the state motto is below. **FLAG:** Superimposed on three equal horizontal bands of blue, white, and blue is a large red “C” encircling a golden disk. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms surrounded by the words “State of Colorado 1876.” **BIRD:** Lark bunting. **FISH:** Greenback cutthroat trout. **FLOWER:** Columbine. **TREE:** Blue spruce. **GEM:** Aquamarine. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln’s Birthday, 12 February; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Cesar Chavez Day, 31 March; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Colorado Day, 1st Monday in August; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after 1st Monday in November in even-numbered years; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the Rocky Mountain region of the United States, Colorado ranks eighth in size among the 50 states.

The state’s total area is 104,091 sq mi (269,596 sq km), of which 103,595 sq mi (268,311 sq km) consists of land and 496 sq mi (1,285 sq km) comprises inland water. Shaped in an almost perfect rectangle, Colorado extends 387 mi (623 km) E–W and 276 mi (444 km) N–S.

Colorado is bordered on the N by Wyoming and Nebraska; on the E by Nebraska and Kansas; on the S by Oklahoma and New Mexico; and on the W by Utah (with the New Mexico and Utah borders meeting at Four Corners). The total length of Colorado’s boundaries is 1,307 mi (2,103 km). The state’s geographic center lies in Park County, 30 mi (48 km) NW of Pikes Peak.

²TOPOGRAPHY

With a mean average elevation of 6,800 ft (2,074 m), Colorado is the nation’s highest state. Dominating the state are the Rocky Mountains. Colorado has 54 peaks 14,000 ft (4,300 m) or higher, including Elbert, the highest in the Rockies at 14,433 ft (4,402 m), and Pikes Peak, at 14,110 ft (4,301 m), one of the state’s leading tourist attractions.

The entire eastern third of the state is part of the western Great Plains, a high plateau that rises gradually to the foothills of the Rockies. Colorado’s lowest point, 3,350 ft (1,022 m), on the Arkansas River, is located in this plateau region. Running in a ragged north–south line, slightly west of the state’s geographic center, is the Continental Divide, which separates the Rockies into the Eastern and Western slopes. The Eastern Slope Front (Rampart) Range runs south from the Wyoming border and just west of Colorado Springs. Also on the Eastern Slope are the Park, Mosquito, Medi-

cine Bow, and Laramie mountains. Western Slope ranges include the Sawatch, Gore, Elk, Elkhead, and William Fork mountains. South of the Front Range, crossing into New Mexico, is the Sangre de Cristo Range, separated from the San Juan Mountains to its west by the broad San Luis Valley. Several glaciers, including Arapahoe, St. Mary’s, Andrews, and Taylor, are located on peaks at or near the Continental Divide. Colorado’s western region is mostly mesa country: broad, flat plateaus accented by deep ravines and gorges, with many subterranean caves. Running northwest from the San Juans are the Uncompahgre Plateau, Grand Mesa, Roan Plateau, Flat Tops, and Danforth Hills. The Yampa and Green gorges are located in the northwestern corner of the state.

Blue Mesa Reservoir in Gunnison County is Colorado’s largest lake. Six major river systems originate in Colorado: the Colorado River, which runs southwest from the Rockies to Utah; the South Platte, northeast to Nebraska; the North Platte, north to Wyoming; the Rio Grande, south to New Mexico; and the Arkansas and Republican, east to Kansas. Dams on these rivers provide irrigation for the state’s farmland and water supplies for cities and towns. Eighteen hot springs are still active in Colorado; the largest is at Pagosa Springs.

³CLIMATE

Abundant sunshine and low humidity typify Colorado’s highland continental climate. Winters are generally cold and snowy, especially in the higher elevations of the Rocky Mountains. Summers are characterized by warm, dry days and cool nights.

The average annual temperature statewide ranges from 54°F (12°C) at Lamar and at John Martin Dam to about 32°F (0°C) at the top of the Continental Divide; differences in elevation account for significant local variations on any given day. Denver’s annual average is 51°F (10°C); normal temperatures range from 16° to

43°F (-9° to 6°C) in January and from 59° to 88°F (15° to 31°C) in July. Bennett recorded the highest temperature in Colorado, 118°F (48°C), on 11 July 1888; the record low was -61°F (-52°C), in Moffat County, on 1 February 1985.

Annual precipitation ranges from a low of 7 in (18 cm) in Alamosa to a high of 25 in (64 cm) in Crested Butte, with Denver receiving about 15.8 in (40 cm) during 1971–2000. Denver's snowfall averages 60.3 in (153.2 cm) yearly. The average snowfall at Cubres in the southern mountains is nearly 300 in (762 cm); less than 30 mi (48 km) away at Manassa, snowfall is less than 25 in (64 cm). On 14–15 April 1921, Silver Lake had 76 in (193 cm) of snowfall, the highest amount ever recorded in North America during a 24-hour period.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Colorado's great range in elevation and temperature contributes to a variety of vegetation, distributed among five zones: plains, foothills, montane, subalpine, and alpine. The plains teem with grasses and as many as 500 types of wildflowers. Arid regions contain two dozen varieties of cacti. Foothills are matted with berry shrubs, lichens, lilies, and orchids, while fragile wild flowers, shrubs, and conifers thrive in the montane zone. Aspen and Engelmann spruce are found up to the timberline. As of 2003, 13 plant species were listed as threatened or endangered, including three species of cacti, two species of milk-vetch, Penland beardtongue, and Colorado butterfly plant.

Colorado has counted as many as 747 nongame wildlife species and 113 sport-game species. Principal big-game species are the elk, mountain lion, Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (the state animal), antelope, black bear, and white-tailed and mule deer; the mountain goat and the moose—introduced in 1948 and 1975, respectively—are the only nonnative big-game quarry. The lark bunting is the state bird; blue grouse and mourning doves are numerous, and 28 duck species have been sighted. Colorado has about 100 sport-fish species. Scores of lakes and rivers contain bullhead, kokanee salmon, and a diversity of trout. Rare Colorado fauna include the golden trout, white pelican, and wood frog. In April 2006, a total of 30 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 17 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 13 plant species. The Mexican spotted owl and bald eagle are among threatened species. The razorback sucker, gray wolf, whooping crane, black-footed ferret, southwestern willow flycatcher, and bonytail chub are among endangered species.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Department of Natural Resources and the Department of Health share responsibility for state environmental programs. The first efforts to protect Colorado's natural resources were the result of federal initiatives. On 16 October 1891, US president Benjamin Harrison set aside the White River Plateau as the first forest reserve in the state. Eleven years later, President Theodore Roosevelt incorporated six areas in the Rockies as national forests. By 1906, 11 national forests covering about one-fourth of the state had been created. Mesa Verde National Park, founded in 1906, and Rocky Mountain National Park (1915) were placed under the direct control of the National Park Service. In 1978, Colorado became the first state in the United States to encourage taxpayers to allocate

part of their state income tax refunds to wildlife conservation. In addition, a state lottery was approved in the late 1980s, with proceeds approved for Great Outdoors Colorado (GOCO) to be used for parks improvement and wildlife and resource management.

Air pollution, water supply problems, and hazardous wastes head the list of Colorado's current environmental concerns. The Air Quality Control Commission, within the Department of Health, has primary responsibility for air pollution control. Because of high levels of carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, and particulates in metropolitan Denver, Colorado Springs, Pueblo, and other cities, a motor vehicle emissions inspection system was inaugurated in January 1982 for gasoline-powered vehicles and in January 1985 for diesel-powered vehicles. The high altitudes of Colorado almost double auto emissions compared to auto emissions at sea level. The high level of particulates in the air is a result of frequent temperature inversions along Colorado's Front Range. The state has launched an aggressive campaign to improve air quality. Cars must use oxygenated fuels and pass tough vehicle emissions controls, and driving is discouraged on high-pollution days. In 2003, 22.5 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state.

Formal efforts to ensure the state's water supply date from the Newlands Reclamation Act of 1902, a federal program designed to promote irrigation projects in the semiarid plains areas; its first effort, the Uncompahgre Valley Project, reclaimed 146,000 acres (59,000 hectares) in Montrose and Delta counties. One of the largest undertakings, the Colorado–Big Thompson Project, started in the 1930s, diverts a huge amount of water from the Western to the Eastern Slope. Colorado's efforts to obtain water rights to the Vermejo River in the Rockies were halted in 1984 by the US Supreme Court, which ruled that New Mexico would retain these rights. Some 98% of Colorado's drinking water complies with federal and state standards. The Colorado Department of Health works with local officials to ensure federal standards for drinking water are met. Isolated aquifers are generally in good condition in Colorado, though a few are contaminated. Colorado's groundwater quality is generally high.

Colorado's rapid population growth during the 1970s and early 1980s taxed an already low water table, especially in the Denver metropolitan area. The Department of Natural Resources's Water Conservation Board and Division of Water Resources are responsible for addressing this and other water-related problems.


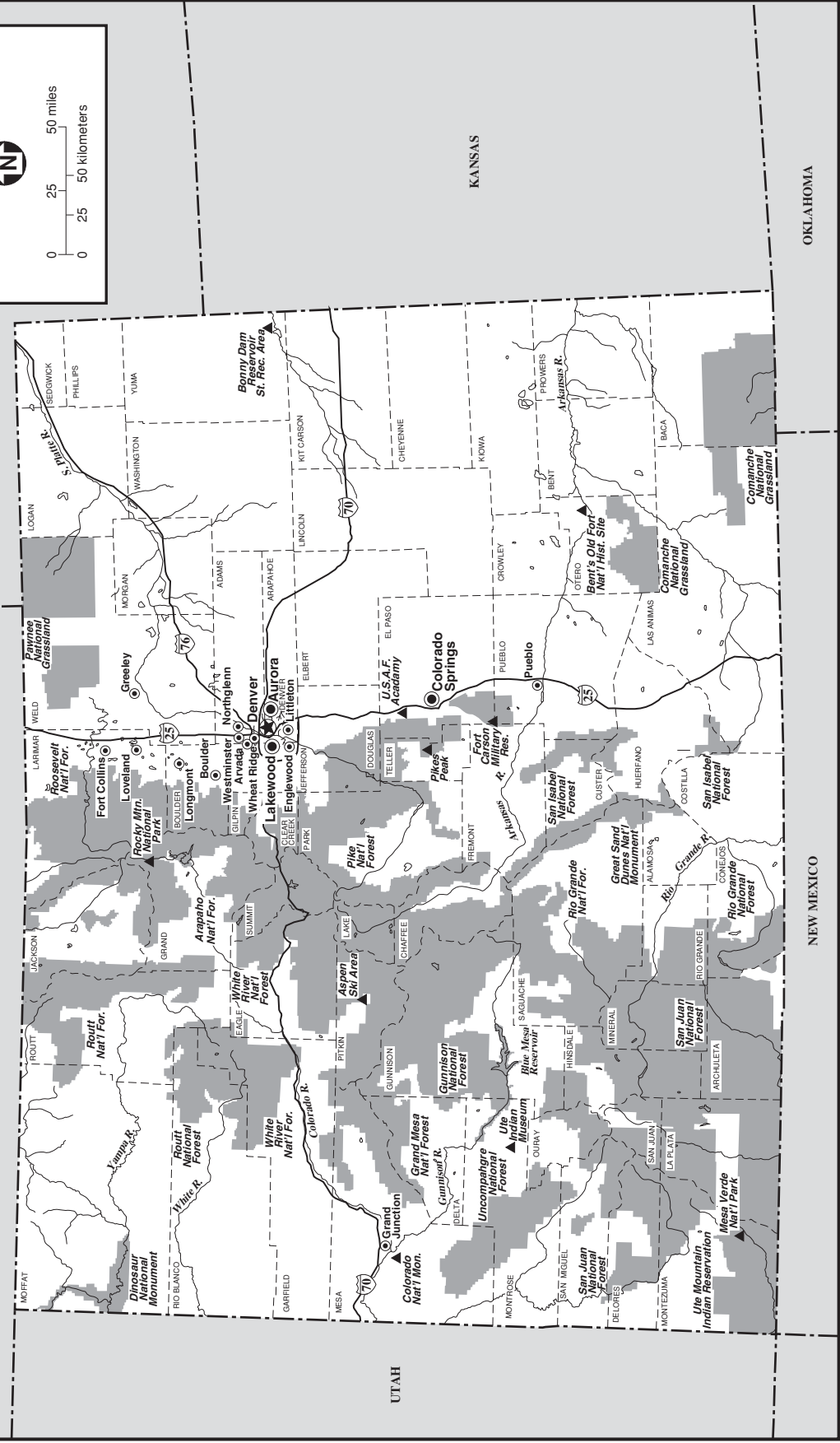
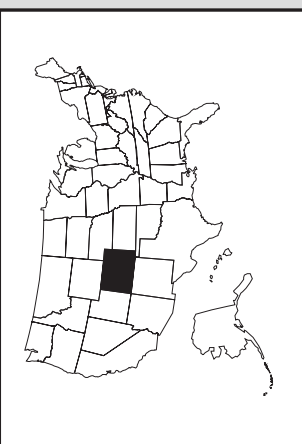
The Department of Health has primary responsibility for hazardous waste management. From 1984 until the mid-1990s, the department, along with federal agencies, undertook the cleanup of nearly 7,000 contaminated sites in Grand Junction and other parts of Mesa County; these sites, homes and properties, were contaminated during the 1950s and 1960s by radioactive mill tailings that had been used as building material and that were not considered hazardous at the time. (It is now known that the low-level radiation emitted by the mill tailings can cause cancer and genetic damage.) In the fall of 1984, Aspen was placed on the federal US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) list of dangerous waste sites because potentially hazardous levels of cadmium, lead, and zinc were found in Aspen's streets, buildings, and water. Cadmium, lead, and zinc mill tailings had been used as filling material during the construction of the popular resort. Also in the mid-1980s, Rocky Flats, a former plutonium production site near Golden, was

COLORADO

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ⊙ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 25 50 miles
0 25 50 kilometers

UTAH

WYOMING

NEBRASKA

KANSAS

OKLAHOMA

NEW MEXICO

closed and a major cleanup was begun; by 2003, all plutonium and uranium had been removed. During 2004 and 2005 the buildings at Rocky Flats were scheduled to be demolished. Rocky Flats National Wildlife Refuge was planned for the site when the demolition was complete. (The site had been the focus of many protests during the 1970s, and has been a major newsmaker since the start of the cleanup. In 2003, the EPA database listed 202 hazardous waste sites in Colorado, 17 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Rocky Mountain Arsenal (US Army), Denver Radium Site, and Uranium Project site of Union Carbide Corp. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$22.9 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Also in 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$13.7 million for a cleanwater revolving loan fund.

Some 1.5% of the state's land is covered with wetlands, a 50% decrease over the last two centuries.

6 POPULATION

Colorado ranked 22nd in population in the United States, with an estimated total of 4,656,177 in 2005, an increase of 8.4% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Colorado's population grew from 3,294,394 to 4,301,261, an increase of 30.6%. This was the third-largest percentage increase in the country for this period (exceeded only by Nevada and Arizona) and the eighth-largest gain in population size. The population was projected to reach 5 million by 2015 and 5.5 million by 2025.

Colorado rose from 30th in population in 1970 to 28th in 1980 and 26th in 1990, with a 14% increase during the 1980s. The population density in 2004 was 44.4 people per sq mi. The estimated median age in 2004 was 34.5 years; 9.8% of the population was over 65 and persons under 18 years old accounted for 25.6% of the population.

Denver is the state's largest city and was, in 2004, the 25th largest US city. Its estimated 2004 population was 556,835, but its metropolitan area (including Aurora) exceeded 2,330,146, or about half the state's population, in 2004. Other major cities, with their estimated 2004 population figures, are Colorado Springs, 369,363; Aurora, 291,843; Lakewood, 141,301; Fort Collins, 126,967; Westminster, 104,759; and Pueblo, 103,621.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Once the sole inhabitants of the state, American Indians in 2000 numbered 44,241, up from 28,000 in 1990. In 2004, American Indians accounted for 1.1% of the total population. The black population is also small, 165,063, or 3.8% in 2000; the percentage for Denver, however, was considerably higher (11.1% in 2000). In 2004, the black population was 4.1% of the total population. Of far greater importance to the state's history, culture, and economy are its Hispanic and Latino residents, of whom there were 735,601 in 2000 (17.1%), up from 424,000 (under 13%) in 1990. Among residents of Denver, 31.7% were Hispanic or Latino in 2000. In 2004, 19.1% of the state's residents was of Hispanic or Latino origin. Of over 95,213 Asians (2.2%), up from 60,000 in 1990, 11,571 were Japanese (down from 15,198 in 1990); 16,395, Korean (up from 12,490 in 1990); 15,457, Vietnamese (more than double the 1990 total of 6,679); 15,658, Chinese (up from 9,117 in 1990); and 8,941, Filipino. In 2004, 2.5% of the population was Asian. The

population of Pacific Islanders was estimated at 4,621 in 2000. In 2004, the percentage of Pacific Islanders in Colorado was 0.1%. In all, 369,903 residents, or 8.6% of the state population, were foreign born in 2000. In 2004, 1.8% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

The first whites to visit Colorado found Arapaho, Kiowa, Comanche, and Cheyenne Indians roaming the plains and often fighting the Ute Indians in the mountains. Despite this diverse heritage, Indian place-names are not numerous: Pagosa Springs, Uncompahgre, Kiowa, and Arapahoe.

Colorado English is a mixture of the Northern and Midland dialects, in proportions varying according to settlement patterns. Homesteading New Englanders in the northeast spread *sick to the stomach*, *pail*, and *comforter* (tied and filled bedcover), which in the northwest and the southern half are Midland *sick at the stomach*, *bucket*, and *comfort*. South Midland *butter beans* and *snap beans* appear in the eastern agricultural strip. Denver has *slat fence*, and *Heinz dog* (mongrel). In the southern half of the state, the large Spanish population has bred many loanwords such as *arroyo* (small canyon or gully) and *penco* (pet lamb).

In 2000, 3,402,266 Coloradans, amounting to 84.9% of the residents five years old and older, spoke only English at home, down from 89.5% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	4,006,285	100.0
Speak only English	3,402,266	84.9
Speak a language other than English	604,019	15.1
Speak a language other than English	604,019	15.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	421,670	10.5
German	30,824	0.8
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	18,045	0.5
Vietnamese	12,499	0.3
Korean	12,045	0.3
Chinese	11,333	0.3
Russian	10,737	0.3
Japanese	6,605	0.2
Italian	5,703	0.1
Polish	5,064	0.1
Tagalog	5,013	0.1
Arabic	4,998	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

The Spanish explorers who laid claim to (but did not settle in) Colorado were Roman Catholic, but the first American settlers were mostly Methodists, Lutherans, and Episcopalians. Some evangelical groups sought to proselytize the early mining camps during the mid-19th century.

Roman Catholics comprise the single largest religious group in the state, with 627,753 adherents in 2006 parishes in 2004. The United Methodist Church, which was the second-largest Protestant denomination in 1990, slipped down to fourth in 2000, with 77,286 adherents in 222 congregations. The second-largest group is the Latter-Day Saints, with 126,118 adherents in 275 congregations as of 2006. The Southern Baptist Convention had 85,083 adherents in 243 congregations in 2000; there were 1,898 newly baptized members in 2002.

There were about 72,000 adherents in the Jewish community in 2000. The same year, there were about 72 Buddhist, 7 Hindu, and 12 Muslim congregations in the state. About 60.5% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

The World Evangelical Fellowship is headquartered in Colorado Springs. The national headquarters of Promise Keepers, primarily a Christian men's organization, is in Denver. A Youth for Christ national service center is located in Englewood.

10 TRANSPORTATION

As the hub of the Rocky Mountain states, Colorado maintains extensive road and rail systems.

Because of its difficult mountainous terrain, Colorado was bypassed by the first transcontinental railroads. In 1870, however, the Denver Pacific built a line from Denver to the Union Pacific's cross-country route at Cheyenne, Wyoming. Several intrastate lines were built during the 1870s, connecting Denver with the mining towns. In particular, the Denver and Rio Grande built many narrow-gauge lines through the mountains. Denver finally became part of a main transcontinental line in 1934. As of 2003, there were 3,645 rail mi (5,868 km) of track in the state, utilized by 14 railroads. This included two Class I railroads. As of 2006, two Amtrak trains, the California Zephyr and the Southwest Chief, provided service to nine cities in Colorado.

Colorado has an extensive network of roads, including 29 mountain passes. As of 2004 there were 87,096 mi (140,225 km) of roadway in Colorado. The major state roads are Interstate 70, US 40, and US 50 crossing the state from east to west, and Interstate 25 running north-south along the Front Range of the Rocky Mountains between Raton Pass and Cheyenne, Wyoming. Interstate 76 connects Denver on a northeasterly diagonal with Nebraska's I-80 to Omaha.

Of the approximately 1.990 million motor vehicles registered in 2004, there were some 880,000 automobiles, 1.096 million trucks of all types, and 2,000 buses. There were 3,205,054 licensed drivers in that same year.

In 2005, Colorado had a total of 437 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 259 airports, 172 heliports, and 6 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing). Denver International Airport (DIA) replaced the former Stapleton International Airport in 1994 as the state's largest and busiest. In 2004, DIA handled 20,407,002 enplanements, making it the fifth busiest airport in the United States. In addition to DIA, Centennial Airport (formerly Arapahoe County Airport), located in suburban Denver, is the Rocky Mountain region's busiest general aviation airport, and in 2003, it ranked as the second-busiest such airport in the nation. General-aviation airports handle unscheduled flights, such as business and private aircraft.

11 HISTORY

A hunting people lived in eastern Colorado at least 20,000 years ago, but little is known about them. The Basket Makers, who came to southwestern Colorado after 100 BC, grew corn and squash and lived in pit houses. By AD 800, there were Pueblo tribes who practiced advanced forms of agriculture and pottery making. From the 11th through the 13th centuries (when they migrated southward), the Pueblo Indians constructed elaborate apartment-like dwell-

ings in the cliffs of the Colorado canyons and planted their crops both on the mesa tops and in the surrounding valleys.

In the 1500s, when Spanish conquistadors arrived in the Southwest, northeastern Colorado was dominated by the Cheyenne and Arapaho, allied against the Comanche and Kiowa to the south. These plains-dwellers also warred with the mountain-dwelling Ute Indians, who were divided into the Capote, Moache, and Wiminuche in the southwest; the Yampa, Grand River, and Uintah in the northwest; and the Tabeguache and Uncompahgre along the Gunnison River.

The exact date of the first Spanish entry into the region now called Colorado is undetermined; the explorer Juan de Onate is believed to have traveled into the southeastern area in 1601. More than a century later, in 1706, Juan de Uribarri claimed southeastern Colorado for Spain, joining it with New Mexico. Meanwhile, French traders did little to stake out their claim to the Colorado region, which included most of the area east of the Rocky Mountains. In 1763, France formally ceded the Louisiana Territory to Spain, which returned it to the French in 1801. Two years later, as part of the Louisiana Purchase, Colorado east of the Rockies became US land; the rest of Colorado still belonged to Spain.

Formal boundaries had never been demarcated between the lands of French Louisiana and Spanish New Mexico. In 1806, the US government sent out a group led by Lt. Zebulon M. Pike to explore this southwestern border. Pike's group reached Pueblo on 23 November 1806 and then attempted without success to scale the peak that now bears his name. Not until 1819 did the United States and Spain agree to establish the boundary along the Arkansas River and then northward along the Continental Divide. The following year, Maj. Stephen Long explored this new border, and Dr. Edwin James made the first known ascent of Pikes Peak.

Eastern Colorado remained a wilderness for the next few decades, although traders and scouts like Charles and William Bent, Kit Carson, and Jim Bridger did venture into the largely uncharted and inhospitable land, establishing friendly relations with the Colorado Indians. It was in 1840 at Bent's Fort, the area's major trading center, that the four major eastern tribes ended their warfare and struck an alliance, a bond that lasted through their later struggle against the white settlers and US government. Between 1842 and 1853, John C. Frémont led five expeditions into the region, the first three for the US government. In 1842, he traveled along the South Platte River; on the next two trips, he crossed the Rockies. In his fourth expedition, he and a few of his party barely survived severe winter conditions. Finally, in 1853, Frémont led an expedition over a route traveled by Capt. John Gunnison earlier that year, through the San Luis Valley over Cochetopa Pass and along the Gunnison River. The 1853 trips were made five years after western and southern Colorado had come into US possession through the Mexican War.

The magnet that drew many Americans to Colorado was the greatly exaggerated report of a gold strike in Cherry Creek (present-day Denver) in July 1858. Within a year, thousands of prospectors had crossed the plains to seek their fortune. Many were disappointed and headed back east, but those who stayed benefited from a second strike at North Clear Creek, some 40 mi (64 km) to the west. The subsequent boom led to the founding of such mining towns as Central City, Tarryall, Golden, Blackhawk, Boulder, Nevadaville, Colorado City, and Gold Hill. By 1860, the pop-

ulation exceeded 30,000. A bill to organize a territory called Colorado, along the lines of the state's present-day boundaries, was passed by the US Congress on 28 February 1861. Colorado City, Golden, and Denver served, at various times, as the territorial capital until 1867 when Denver was selected as the permanent site. Colorado sided with the Union during the Civil War, though some settlers fought for the Confederacy. Union troops from Colorado helped defeat a contingent led by Confederate Gen. Henry H. Sibley at La Glorieta Pass in New Mexico in 1862.

The 1860s also saw the most serious conflict between Indians and white settlers in Colorado history. Cheyenne and Arapaho chiefs had ceded most of their tribal holdings to the US government in 1861. Sent to a reservation in the Arkansas Valley, these nomadic tribes were expected to farm the land. Unsuccessful at farming, the Indians rebelled against the poor rations supplied them by the US government and sought to resume a nomadic lifestyle, hunting buffalo, raiding towns, and attacking travelers along the Overland and Sante Fe trails. Col. John Chivington was placed in charge of controlling the Indian unrest in the summer of 1864 as Territorial Governor John Evans departed for Washington, DC, leaving the situation in the hands of the military. On 29 November of that year, Chivington led his forces to Sand Creek, on the reservation's northeastern border, where they brutally massacred perhaps 200 Indian men, women, and children who thought they were under the protection of US military forces at nearby Ft. Lyon. Five more years of warfare followed, with the Indians finally defeated at Beecher Island (1868) and Summit Spring (1869). By 1874, most Plains Indians were removed to reservations in what is now Oklahoma. After gold and silver were discovered in areas belonging to the Ute in 1873, they too were forced off the land. By 1880, a series of treaties limited the Ute to a small reservation in the barren mesa country.

The first bill to admit Colorado to statehood was vetoed in 1866 by President Andrew Johnson, who at that time was in the midst of an impeachment fight and feared the entry of two more Republicans into the US Senate. Colorado finally entered the Union as the 38th state on 1 August 1876, less than a month after the nation's 100th birthday and during the presidency of Ulysses S. Grant.

In the early years of statehood, silver strikes at Leadville and Aspen brought settlers and money into Colorado. Rail lines, smelters, and refineries were built, and large coalfields were opened up. The High Plains attracted new farmers, and another new industry, tourism, emerged. As early as the 1860s, resorts had opened near some of the state's mineral springs. By the mid-1870s, scenic canyons and towns became accessible by train. One of the first major spas, Colorado Springs, recorded 25,000 tourists in 1878, and by the mid-1880s, Denver was accommodating up to 200,000 visitors a year. Colorado's boom years ended with a depression during the early 1890s. Overproduction of silver coupled with the US government's decision to adopt a gold standard in 1893 wiped out the silver market, causing the closing of mines, banks, and some businesses. Coinciding with this economic disaster was a drought that led to the abandonment of many farms. A more positive development was a gold find at Cripple Creek in 1891.

By the dawn of the 20th century, farmers were returning to the land and making better use of it. Immigrants from Germany and Russia began to grow sugar beets in the Colorado, Arkansas, and

South Platte river valleys. Huge reclamation projects brought water to semiarid cropland, and dry-land farming techniques also helped increase yields. The development of the automobile and good roads opened up more of the mountain areas, bringing a big boom in tourism by the 1920s.

Following World War I, the agricultural and mining sectors fell into depression. From 1920 to 1940, statewide employment declined and the population growth rate lagged behind that of the United States as a whole. World War II (1939–45) brought military training camps, airfields, and jobs to the state. Colorado also became the site of several major prisoner-of-war (POW) camps as well as relocation centers for Japanese Americans (Nisei), especially the northeastern and southeastern areas of the state. After the war, the expansion of federal facilities in Colorado led to new employment opportunities. The placement of both the North American Air Defense Command and the US Air Force Academy in Colorado Springs helped stimulate the growth of defense, federal research, and aerospace-related industries in the state. As these and other industries grew, so too did Colorado's population and income: between 1960 and 1983, the state's population growth rate was more than twice that of the nation as a whole; and between 1970 and 1983, Colorado moved from 18th to 9th among the states in personal income per capita. The construction of the Air Force Space Operations Center at Colorado Springs, announced in 1983, also contributed Colorado's economic and population growth.

In the 1970s and early 1980s, Colorado experienced a boom in its oil, mining, and electronics industries. Prosperity attracted immigrants from other states, and for about a decade Colorado's population increased at an average of 3% a year. The economy began to shrink, however, in the mid-1980s with the drop in oil prices and the closing of mines, culminating in a full-scale recession by 1987. The economy rebounded by the early 1990s, spurred by an educated workforce and the low cost of doing business in the state. Industry in the state became more diverse, now including oil and gas, telecommunications, retail, and, very importantly, high technology. In 1998, the state ranked ninth nationally in per capita personal income, and by 1999 its unemployment rate, just 2.9%, was among the lowest in the country. Due to the 2001 economic recession in the United States and its aftermath, the Colorado unemployment rate stood at 5.8% in May 2003, below the national average of 6.1% but still causing difficulties for the state's economy. As of September 2005, Colorado's unemployment rate was 5.1%, exactly equal to the national unemployment rate.

On 20 April 1999, the affluent Denver suburb of Littleton made headlines around the world after two teenaged gunmen entered Columbine High School and went on a shooting rampage, killing 12 students and one teacher before turning their guns on themselves. Several others were injured. The tragic event escalated the national debate on gun control and reopened the discussion about what effect media violence has on the nation's youth.

Major challenges facing Colorado in the 1990s and into the 2000s included industrial pollution of its air and water, overcrowding on the Rockies eastern slope (home to four-fifths of its population), and water shortages. By spring 2000 one issue emerged that encompassed many of the problems Coloradans faced: the practice of open-pit gold mining. Gaping holes, forged by explosives and chemicals, had been created by mining companies across

western states since 1980. According to environmentalists and other concerned citizens, the cost-efficient method for extracting the precious metal from stone had come at a price: cyanide, used to dissolve gold in the mines, leached into streams and rivers; and mishaps occurred, including the accidental cyanide release that contaminated 17 mi (27 km) of Colorado's Alamosa River in the early 1990s, the costliest mining disaster in US history. Banning open-pit mining had gained wide public support in the months preceding the 2000 election, when organizers hoped to place the initiative on the ballot. Although about 72% of Colorado voters were thought to be in agreement with the ban, the initiative failed to make the ballot in November 2000.

Colorado was among the western states ravaged by wildfires during the summer of 2000, the worst fire season since 1988. In the summer of 2002, wildfires burned over 7.1 million acres of public and private land. The Hayman fire of 2002 was called the largest wildfire in Colorado history. The Hayman fire burned 138,577 acres of Colorado land thirty miles southwest of Denver. Another major 2002 wildfire was the Missionary Ridge fire: it burned 72,964 acres of land north and northeast of Durango.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Colorado's state constitution, ratified on 1 July 1876, is a complex and extremely detailed document specifying the duties and structure of state and local government. Despite numerous amendments (145 by January 2005) and revisions, some anachronistic legislation has remained on the books.

The General Assembly, which meets annually from the second Wednesday of January into May (for a maximum of 120 calendar days), consists of a 35-member Senate and 65-member House

of Representatives. The legislature may call special sessions by request of two-thirds of the members of each house. The governor may also call a special session of the legislature. Members of the legislature must be US citizens, at least 25 years old, and have lived in their district for at least one year. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$30,000, unchanged from 1999.

The executive branch is headed by the governor, who submits the budget and legislative programs to the General Assembly, and appoints judges, department heads, boards, and commissions. The governor, who is limited to serving two consecutive terms, must be a US citizen, at least 30 years old, and have been a resident of the state for two years or more. Elected with the governor is the lieutenant governor, who assumes the governor's duties in the governor's absence. Other elective officers include the secretary of state, attorney general, and treasurer, all of whom serve four-year terms. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$90,000, unchanged from 1999.

Bills may originate in either house of the General Assembly and become law when passed by majority vote of each house and signed by the governor; a bill may also become law if the governor fails to act on it within 10 days after receiving it (or within 30 days after the legislature has adjourned). A two-thirds vote of the elected members in each house is needed to override a gubernatorial veto.

The state constitution may be amended in several ways. An amendment may be introduced in the legislature, passed by a two-thirds majority in both houses, and submitted to the voters for approval. Alternatively, an initiative amendment, signed by a number of eligible voters equaling at least 5% of the number of votes cast for secretary of state in the previous election and then

Colorado Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	COLORADO WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	SOC. LABOR
1948	6	*Truman (D)	267,288	239,714	6,115	1,678	—
						CONSTITUTION	
1952	6	*Eisenhower (R)	245,504	379,782	1,919	2,181	—
1956	6	*Eisenhower (R)	263,997	394,479	—	759	3,308
						SOC. WORKERS	
1960	6	Nixon (R)	330,629	402,242	—	563	2,803
1964	6	*Johnson (D)	476,024	296,767	—	2,537	—
					AMERICAN IND.		
1968	6	*Nixon (R)	335,174	409,345	60,813	235	3,016
					AMERICAN		
1972	7	*Nixon (R)	329,980	597,189	17,269	666	4,361
							LIBERTARIAN
1976	7	Ford (R)	460,801	584,278	397	1,122	5,338
					STATESMAN	CITIZENS	
1980	7	*Reagan (R)	368,009	652,264	1,180	5,614	25,744
1984	8	Reagan (R)	454,975	821,817	NEW ALLIANCE	—	11,257
1988	8	*Bush (R)	621,453	728,177	2,491	—	15,482
					IND. (Perot)		
1992	8	*Clinton (D)	629,681	562,850	366,010	1,608	8,669
						GREEN (Nader)	
1996	8	Dole (R)	671,152	691,848	99,629	25,070	12,392
					FREEDOM (Buchanan)		
2000	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	738,227	883,748	10,465	91,434	12,799
					AMERICAN CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)	COLORADO REFORM (Nader)	
2004	9	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,001,732	1,101,255	2,562	12,718	7,664

*Won US presidential election.

published in every county, may be filed no later than four months before the general election. If approved by the voters, it then becomes law.

Any US citizen 18 or older who is a resident of a Colorado state 30 days prior to an election may register to vote. Prisoners may not vote.

1³ POLITICAL PARTIES

The Democratic and Republican parties are the major political organizations in Colorado. Although both parties were in existence when Colorado achieved statehood, the Republicans controlled most statewide offices prior to 1900. Since then, the parties have been more evenly balanced. Of the 2,990,000 registered voters in 2004, 30% were estimated to be Democratic, 36% Republican, and 33% unaffiliated or members of other parties. In 2000, 51% of all Coloradan voters cast their ballots for Republican George W. Bush; Democrat Al Gore won 42% of the vote; Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 5% of the vote. In 2004, Bush won reelection with 54% to Democrat John Kerry's 48.8%. The state had nine electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

Following the election in November 2004, the state had one Democrat and one Republican US senator, and four Republican and three Democratic US representatives. Ben Nighthorse Campbell was elected US senator in 1992 as a Democrat. The only Native American in Congress, Campbell switched parties in March 1995. When he successfully ran for reelection in 1998, it was as a Republican. In the 2004 Senate contest, Democrat Ken Salazar defeated Republican Pete Coors, winning 51% of the vote to Coors's 47%. Republican Wayne Allard was elected to the Senate in 1996 and reelected in 2002.

Following the 2004 elections, the Democrats won narrow control of the state Senate (18 Democrats to 17 Republicans) and the state House (35 Democrats to 30 Republicans). Colorado's governor, Republican Bill Owens, was elected in 1998, succeeding Democrat Roy Romer, who had been in office for the maximum two terms. Owens was the first Republican elected to the governor's office in 28 years; he was reelected in 2002. In 2003, Colorado had the second-highest percentage of women in its state legislature, with 34% (Washington was first, with 36.7%).

1⁴ LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005 there were 63 counties, 270 municipal governments, and 1,414 special districts. There were also 176 school districts. The administrative and policymaking body in each county is the board of county commissioners, whose three to five members (dependent on population) are elected to staggered, usually four-year, terms. Other county officials include the county clerk, treasurer, assessor, sheriff, coroner, superintendent of schools, surveyor, and attorney.

Statutory cities are those whose structure is defined by the state constitution. Power is delegated by the General Assembly to either a council-manager or mayor-council form of government. Colorado municipalities have increasingly opted for home rule, taking control of local functions from the state government. Towns, which generally have fewer than 2,000 residents, are governed by a mayor and a board of trustees. The major source of revenue for both cities and towns is the property tax.

Denver, Colorado's capital and largest city, is run by a mayor and city council; a city auditor, independently elected, serves as a check on the mayor. Denver and Broomfield have consolidated city-county governments.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 184,033 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

1⁵ STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Colorado operates under the authority of state statute and executive order; the public safety director is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

The Department of Education, under the direction of the State Board of Education, supervises and makes policy decisions for all public elementary and secondary schools. The State Board is made up of seven elected representatives from the state's congressional districts and one member-at-large; the commissioner of education is a nonvoting secretary to the Board. The Board of Regents of the University of Colorado governs the operations of that institution. All other state-run colleges, as well as the Colorado Historical Society, Council on the Arts and Humanities, and Advanced Technology Institute, are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Higher Education.

The Department of Transportation builds, operates, and maintains state roads. The Department of Health Care Policy and Financing administers welfare, medical assistance, rehabilitation, and senior-citizens programs. Human resource planning and development are under the Department of Labor and Employment, and health conditions are monitored by the Department of Health and Environment. The Department of Human Services oversees mental health, youth services, and developmental disabilities programs. The state's correctional facilities are administered by the Department of Corrections.

All programs concerned with the protection and control of Colorado's natural resources are the responsibility of the Department of Natural Resources. Other state agencies include the Department of Agriculture, Department of Military and Veterans Affairs, Department of Regulatory Agencies, Department of Public Safety, and Department of Law.

1⁶ JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The supreme court, the highest court in Colorado, consists of seven justices elected on a nonpartisan ballot. The number of justices may be increased to nine upon request of the court and concurrence of two-thirds of the members of the General Assembly. The justices select a chief justice, who also serves as the supervisor of all Colorado courts. The next highest court, the court of appeals, consists of 16 judges, and is confined to civil matters. The 22 district courts have original jurisdiction in civil, criminal, juvenile, mental health, domestic relations, and probate cases, except in Denver, where probate and mental health matters are heard by the probate court and all juvenile matters by the juvenile court.

All judges in state courts are appointed to two-year terms by the governor from a list of names recommended by a judicial nominating commission. The appointees must then be elected by the voters: supreme court justices for 10-year terms, appeals court judges for 8 years, and district court judges for 6.

County courts hear minor civil disputes and misdemeanors. Appeals from the Denver county courts are heard in Denver's superior court. Municipal courts throughout the state handle violations of municipal ordinances.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 20,293 prisoners were held in Colorado's state and federal prisons, an increase from 19,671 or 3.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,900 inmates were female, up 9.4% (from 1,736) from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Colorado had an incarceration rate of 438 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Colorado in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 373.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 17,185 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 180,342 reported incidents or 3,919.3 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Colorado has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method used. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state executed only one person, which took place in October 1997. As of 1 January 2006, there were only two inmates on death row.

In 2003, Colorado spent \$125,819,023 on homeland security, an average of \$28 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

As of 2004, 38,234 personnel, of whom 6,455 were civilians, were stationed at the nine military facilities in the state. Additionally, there were 2,909 Reserve and National Guard personnel. The largest Army base is Ft. Carson in Colorado Springs, with 14,061 active-duty military personnel. Fort Carson is a split-based home to the 4th Infantry Division, shared with Fort Hood, Texas. This post is recognized as one of the world's premier locations to lead, train, and maintain while preparing soldiers. At the Army's Rocky Mountain Arsenal near Denver, chemical weapons have been produced and stored. Colorado Springs is the site of the US Air Force Academy. Peterson Air Force Base is also located in Colorado Springs, as is the North American Air Defense Command (NORAD). Defense contracts awarded in 2004 totaled nearly \$3.1 billion, and defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$3.0 billion.

There were 427,956 veterans of US military service in Colorado as of 2003, of whom 43,097 served in World War II; 37,689 in the Korean conflict; 137,790 during the Vietnam era; and 79,924 in the Gulf War. US Veterans Administration spending in Colorado totaled \$1.0 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Colorado State Police employed 666 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The discovery of gold in 1858 brought an avalanche of prospectors. Some of these migrants later moved westward into the Rockies and Colorado River canyons. In 1873, another gold strike brought settlers into the Ute territory, eventually driving the Indians into a small reservation in the southwestern corner of the state. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the sparsely populated eastern plains were settled by farmers from Kansas and Nebraska and by immigrants from Scandinavia, Germany, and Russia. Five years

of drought, from 1933 to 1938, helped drive many rural Coloradans off the land into the cities or westward to California.

Since the end of World War II, net migration into the state has been substantial, amounting to over 880,000 between 1950 and 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, Colorado had net gains of 359,000 in domestic migration and 58,000 in international migration. In 1998, 6,513 foreign immigrants were admitted to the state. Growth has been evident in both urban and rural areas, but the largest increase has been in the Denver metropolitan area, where by 1997, 14.3% of the total population was of Hispanic origin. A number of migrant workers, mostly Mexican Americans, work seasonally in the western orchards and fields. In the 1980s, migration accounted for 27% of the net population increase, with some 117,000 persons, even though there was a net loss from migration every year from 1986 to 1990. In 1990, native Coloradans made up 43.3% of the population. Between 1990 and 1998, Colorado's overall population increased 20.5%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 112,217 and net internal migration was 47,740, for a net gain of 159,957 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the most important interstate agreements for Coloradans are those governing water resources. Colorado participates with New Mexico in the Animas–La Plata Project, Costilla Creek, and La Plata River compacts; with Kansas in the Arkansas River Compact of 1949; and with Nebraska in the South Platte River Compact. The Cumbres and Toltec Scenic Railroad Compact supports the tourism industry. Multistate compacts allocate water from the Colorado and Republican rivers and the Rio Grande. Colorado also is a signatory to such regional agreements as the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact and the Western Interstate Energy Compact.

The Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education has its headquarters in Boulder, and the National Conference of State Legislatures has its headquarters in Denver. Federal grants to Colorado totaled over \$3.9 billion in 2001. Following a national trend, they declined to \$3.375 billion in fiscal year 2005, before beginning to gradually increase to an estimated \$3.464 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$3.572 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

During the late 1880s, Colorado was the nation's leading silver producer and an important source of gold. With its abundant reserves of coal, natural gas, and other minerals—and the economic potential of its vast oil-shale deposits, Colorado remains a major mining state, although the mineral industry's share of the state economy declined throughout the 20th century. Agriculture, primarily livestock, retains its historic importance.

Trade, services, government, and manufacturing were responsible for more than 75% of new jobs created between 1975 and 1985. From 1972 to 2000, Colorado's employment in advanced technology grew from 39,000 to 125,000 employees, growth in which the US government was a major factor. Mining and construction suffered the greatest losses of employment between 1982 and 1992. Mining jobs declined 53% in that decade, and construction jobs dropped 29%. Employment in services, in contrast, rose 36% in those years, and jobs in finance, insurance and real estate increased by 15%. Tourism has also expanded rapidly in all areas of the state. Colorado's economy recovered strongly in the 1990s.

By 1997, Colorado's gross state product (GSP) was nearly \$130 billion. By 2000, it had grown nearly 31%, with annual growth rates of 7.9% in 1998, 8.9% in 1999, and 11.2% in 2000. In the national recession of 2001, growth slowed abruptly to 2.6% as manufacturing fell 10.2% from the year before, leaving only a net gain of 1.5% in the sector from 1997 to 2001. Recovery remained elusive in 2002, as the state posted its first annual decline in employment since 1986.

In 2004, Colorado's GSP stood at \$199.969 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest portion at \$27.827 billion, or 13.9% of GSP, followed by professional and technical services at \$17.082 billion (8.5% of GSP), and construction at \$12.194 billion (6% of GSP). Mining, which has long been a staple of the state's economy, accounted for only \$3.928 billion, or 1.9% of GSP. In 2004, Colorado had an estimated 493,886 small businesses. Of the 146,379 firms in the state that had employees in that year, an estimated 142,943, or 97.7%, worked for small firms, up by 1.8% from the previous year. An estimated 23,694 new companies were formed in Colorado in 2004, up 5.8% from the previous year. Business terminations in that same year totaled 9,734, a drop of 26.5% from 2003. However, business bankruptcies rose to 786 in 2004, an increase of 42.4% from 2003. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate stood at 564 per 100,000 people, ranking Colorado 24th nationally.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Colorado had a gross state product (GSP) of \$216 billion, which accounted for 1.7% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 21 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Colorado had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$36,113. This ranked 10th in the United States and was 109% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.6%. Colorado had a total personal income (TPI) of \$166,187,829,000, which ranked 21st in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 6.9%. Earnings of persons employed in Colorado increased from \$127,196,780,000 in 2003 to \$135,124,532,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$51,022, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.8% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Colorado numbered 2,636,700, with approximately 113,100 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,264,700. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Colorado was 9.1%, in November 1982. The historical low was 2.5%, in January 2001. Preliminary nonfarm

employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 7.3% of the labor force was employed in construction; 6.6% in manufacturing; 18.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 7.1% in financial activities; 14.4% in professional and business services; 10% in education and health services; 11.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 16.1% in government.

Colorado's labor history has been marked by major disturbances in the mining industry. From 1881 to 1886, the Knights of Labor led at least 35 strikes in the mines; during the 1890s, the Western Federation of Miners struck hard-rock mines in Telluride and Cripple Creek. The United Mine Workers, who came into the state in 1899, shut down operations at numerous mines in 1900 and 1903. Violence was common in these disputes. In one well-known episode, after striking miners and their families set up a tent colony at Ludlow, near Trinidad, the governor called out the militia; in the ensuing conflict, on 20 April 1914, the miners' tents were burned, killing 2 women and 11 children, an event that touched off a rebellion in the whole area. Federal troops restored order in June, and the strike ended with promises of improved labor conditions. In 1917, the state legislature created the Colorado Industrial Commission, whose purpose is to investigate all labor disputes.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 170,000 of Colorado's 2,052,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 8.3% of those so employed, down from 8.4% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 193,000 workers (9.4%) in Colorado were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Colorado is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Colorado had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 45.3% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Colorado ranked 14th among the 50 states in agricultural income in 2005, with \$5.65 billion, of which more than \$1.36 billion came from crops.

As of 2004 there were 30,900 farms and ranches covering about 30.9 million acres (12.5 million hectares); the average farm (including ranches) was 1,000 acres (405 hectares). The major crop-growing areas are the east and east-central plains, for sugar beets, beans, potatoes, and grains; the Arkansas Valley, for grains and peaches; and the Western Slope, for grains and fruits.

Colorado ranked seventh in the United States in production of dry edible beans in 2004, with 1,039,000 hundredweight; eighth in sugar beets, with 838,000 tons; fifth in barley, with 9.1 million bushels; and first in proso millet, with 7.9 million bushels (53% of the US total). Colorado is also a leading producer of wheat, with 46.9 million bushels. Other field crops include corn, hay, and sorghum. In 2004, Colorado produced 533,800 tons of fresh market vegetables, 27 million lb (12.3 million kg) of commercial apples, and 12 million lb (5.4 million kg) of peaches. About 100 tons of tart cherries were harvested in 2004. Colorado is also a major grower of roses.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

A leading sheep-producing state, Colorado is also a major area for cattle and other livestock. Cattle and calves, dairy products, and hogs together accounted for 71% of agricultural receipts in 2004.

From 1858 to about 1890, cattle drives were a common sight in Colorado, as a few cattle barons had their Texas longhorns graze on public-domain lands along the eastern plains and Western Slope. This era came to an end when farmers in these regions fenced in their lands, and the better-quality shorthorns and Herefords took over the market. Today, huge tracts of pasture-land are leased from the federal government by both cattle and sheep ranchers, with cattle mostly confined to the eastern plains and sheep to the western part of the state.

Preliminary estimates of the number of cattle and calves for 2005 was 2,500,000 with an estimated total value of \$2.5 billion. Colorado had an estimated 800,000 hogs and pigs in 2004 with an estimated total value of \$76 million. In 2003, Colorado produced 62.6 million lb (28.5 million kg) of sheep and lambs for a gross income of \$96.6 million. Colorado was estimated to have produced an estimated 2.57 million lb (1.1 million kg) of shorn wool in 2004.

Other livestock products in 2003 included chickens, at an estimated 8.7 million lb (4 million kg), and milk, estimated at 2.17 billion lb (1.0 billion kg). In the same year, the state produced an estimated 1.1 billion eggs.

25 FISHING

There is virtually no commercial fishing in Colorado. The many warm-water lakes lure the state's 752,060 licensed sport anglers with perch, black bass, and trout, while walleyes are abundant in mountain streams. The Hotchkiss National Fish Hatchery produces and distributes trout to stock over 80 different water areas in Colorado and New Mexico.

26 FORESTRY

Approximately 21,637,000 acres (8,756,494 hectares) of forested lands were located in Colorado as of 2004. In spite of this wood resource, however, commercial forestry is not a major element of the state's economy. Lumber production in 2004 was 135 million board feet. In Colorado, forestry emphasis occurs in diverse areas: traditional forest management and stewardship; urban and community forestry; resource protection (from wildfire, insects, and disease); and tree planting and care. As of 2005 Colorado had 12 national forests; gross national forest acreage as of 2003 was 16,015,000 acres (6,481,271 hectares).

27 MINING

According to the US Geological Survey, the value all nonfuel mineral production in Colorado for 2004 was \$1.01 billion, up 50% from 2003. In 2004, Colorado ranked 17th among the 50 states in the production (by value) of nonfuel minerals, with molybdenum concentrates, construction sand and gravel, portland cement, gold and crushed stones, respectively, the top nonfuel minerals (by value) produced that year. Metals accounted for almost 52% of all

nonfuel mineral production, of which (in descending order), molybdenum concentrates, gold, and silver were the top three.

In 2004 Colorado (by volume) ranked second in the nation in the production of molybdenum concentrates (out of six states) and third in soda ash (out of three states). That same year, the state ranked 4th in the production of gold and 10th in silver. Overall, the state ranked 17th among the 50 states in total nonfuel mineral production, by value, with over 2% of the national total. In 2004, Colorado mined 40.9 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel (\$235 million), 11 million metric tons of crushed stone (\$67.3 million), 26,000 tons of lime (\$2.57 million), and 249,000,000 metric tons of common clay (\$1.51 million).

28 ENERGY AND POWER

An abundant supply of coal, oil, and natural gas makes Colorado a major energy-producing state.

As of 2003, Colorado had 67 electrical power service providers, of which 29 were publicly owned and 28 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, two were investor owned, one was federally operated and seven were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,264,833 retail customers. Of that total, 1,365,652 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 508,019 customers, while publicly owned providers had 391,150 customers. There were five federal customers and seven independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 10.370 million kW, with total production that same year at 46.616 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 88.4% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 36.115 billion kWh (77.5%), came from coal-fired plants, with natural gas plants in second place, at 9.226 billion kWh (19.8%), and hydroelectric plants in third, at 1.262 billion kWh (2.7%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 0.4% of all power generated, with petroleum-fired plants at 0.1%. Colorado has no nuclear power plants.

As of 2004, Colorado had proven crude oil reserves of 225 million barrels, or 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 60,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 12th (11th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 12th (11th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Colorado had 6,750 producing oil wells and accounted for 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's two petroleum refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 87,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Colorado had 16,718 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1,079.235 billion cu ft (30.65 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 14,743 billion cu ft (418.7 billion cu m).

Colorado in 2004 had 13 producing coal mines, 5 of which were surface mines and 8 of which were underground. Coal produc-

tion that year totaled 39,870,000 short tons, up from 35,831,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, underground mines accounted for 29,608,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 415 million tons. (One short ton equals 2,000 lb/0.907 metric tons.)

Colorado holds the major portion of the nation's proved oil shale reserves. Because of its ample sunshine and wind, Colorado is also well suited to renewable energy development. Among the many energy-related facilities in the state is the National Renewable Energy Laboratory in Golden.

2⁹ INDUSTRY

Colorado is the main manufacturing center of the Rocky Mountain states. During the 1980s and 1990s, high-technology research and manufacturing grew substantially in the state.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Colorado's manufacturing sector covered some 17 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$33.594 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$6.119 billion. It was followed by computer and electric product manufacturing at \$4.481 billion; beverage and tobacco product manufacturing at \$2.818 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$2.527 billion; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$2.478 billion.

In 2004, a total of 132,925 people in Colorado were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 87,447 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 17,690, with 9,092 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing, with 16,722 employees (12,228 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing, with 12,940 (7,114 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing, with 12,561 (9,151 actual production workers); and transportation equipment manufacturing, with 9,734 (7,630 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Colorado's manufacturing sector paid \$5.950 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.015 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing, at \$702.096 million; miscellaneous manufacturing, at \$556.153 million; food manufacturing, at \$498.082 million; and fabricated metal product manufacturing, at \$491.239 million.

3⁰ COMMERCE

Colorado is the leading wholesale and retail distribution center for the Rocky Mountain states. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Colorado's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$92.09 billion from 7,339 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 4,495 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,093 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 751 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$57.4 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$26.2 billion.

Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$8.4 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Colorado was listed as having 18,851 retail establishments with sales of \$52.2 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (2,637); clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,463); food and beverage stores (2,243); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,974); and gasoline stations (1,726). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales, at \$14.7 billion, followed by food and beverage stores, at \$8.4 billion; general merchandise stores, at \$7.7 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers, at \$4.5 billion. A total of 247,264 people were employed by the retail sector in Colorado that year.

Exporters located in Colorado exported \$6.7 billion in merchandise during 2005.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Colorado Attorney General's Consumer Protection Office is responsible for enforcing the state consumer protection laws including the Colorado Consumer Protection Act, the Unfair Trade Practices Act, the Fair Debt Collection Practices Act, the Uniform Consumer Credit Code, the Credit Services Organization Act and the Rental Purchase Agreement Act. Other applicable legislation includes the Motor Vehicle Repair Act, the Lemon Law, the Unsolicited Merchandise Act, the Charitable Solicitations Act, and the Colorado Statutes Concerning Pyramid Schemes. The office also represents the interests of consumers, small business, and agriculture before the Public Utilities Commission in matters involving electric, gas, and telephone utility services.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's attorney general can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle consumer complaints; and has broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General's Office cannot represent individual residents or consumers. In antitrust actions, the attorney general can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The attorney general is also responsible for the enforcement of the state's ElderWatch Program, which, in conjunction with the AARP Foundation, fights the financial abuse and fraud directed toward the state's senior citizens through consumer advocacy, referrals, and information.

The state's Consumer Protection Division, Attorney General's Office, and the ElderWatch Program are located in Denver. There are also county-level consumer protection offices in Colorado Springs, Denver, Greeley, and Pueblo.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Colorado had 175 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 69 state-chartered and 75 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Denver-Aurora market area had 87 financial institutions in 2004, followed

by Colorado Springs with 43. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 22.2% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$11.936 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 77.8%, or \$41.760 billion in assets held.

State-chartered credit unions and savings and loans are regulated by the Division of Financial Services, under the Department of Regulatory Agencies (DORA). State-chartered commercial banks are regulated by the Division of Banking. Federally chartered financial institutions are regulated by the US government through the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency (banks), the Office of Thrift Supervision or the National Credit Union Administration.

In the year ending 31 December 2005, Colorado-based banks and thrifts had a median return on assets of 1.22%, which was above the national average of 1.04% in that year. In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rate offered savers and the higher rate charged on loans) was 4.33%, down from 4.35% in 2003, for the state's insured institutions.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 1.9 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$229.6 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$351.1 billion. The average coverage amount is \$118,000 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled over \$814.6 million.

As of 2003, 21 property and casualty insurance companies and 10 life and health insurance companies were domiciled in Colorado. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance amounted to about \$7.57 billion in 2004. That year, there were 15,377 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$2.7 billion.

In 2004, 58% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 6% held individual policies, and 16% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 26% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.1 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$922.67.

34 SECURITIES

There are no stock or commodity exchanges in Colorado. In 2005, there were 1,750 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 5,860 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 261 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 91 NASDAQ companies, 32 NYSE listings, and 22 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 10 Fortune 500 companies; Qwest Communications (based in Denver and traded on NYSE) ranked first in the state and 160th in the nation with

revenues of over \$19 billion, followed by First Data (NYSE), Trans-Montaigne (AMEX), Echostar Communications (NASDAQ), and Liberty Media (NYSE).

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The governor's Office of State Planning and Budgeting has lead responsibility for preparing the annual budget, which is presented to the General Assembly on 1 November. The legislature is expected to adopt the budget in May for the fiscal year (FY), which runs from 1 July through 30 June. The constitution requires that the budget be balanced as submitted, as passed, and as signed into

Colorado—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	23,081,951	5,015.63
General revenue	14,956,732	3,250.05
Intergovernmental revenue	4,594,664	998.41
Taxes	7,051,457	1,532.26
General sales	1,909,246	414.87
Selective sales	984,789	213.99
License taxes	337,911	73.43
Individual income tax	3,413,891	741.83
Corporate income tax	239,591	52.06
Other taxes	166,029	36.08
Current charges	1,854,660	403.01
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,455,951	316.37
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	8,125,219	1,765.58
Total expenditure	18,060,533	3,924.50
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,860,577	1,056.19
Direct expenditure	13,199,956	2,868.31
Current operation	8,485,058	1,843.78
Capital outlay	1,123,706	244.18
Insurance benefits and repayments	3,015,461	655.25
Assistance and subsidies	161,239	35.04
Interest on debt	414,492	90.07
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,796,221	607.61
Total expenditure	18,060,533	3,924.50
General expenditure	15,034,648	3,266.98
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,860,577	1,056.19
Direct expenditure	10,174,071	2,210.79
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	6,293,255	1,367.50
Public welfare	3,537,787	768.75
Hospitals	325,203	70.67
Health	784,349	170.44
Highways	1,374,131	298.59
Police protection	112,341	24.41
Correction	701,710	152.48
Natural resources	207,025	44.99
Parks and recreation	73,484	15.97
Government administration	465,417	101.13
Interest on general debt	408,130	88.69
Other and unallocable	751,816	163.37
Utility expenditure	10,424	2.27
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	3,015,461	655.25
Debt at end of fiscal year	9,874,764	2,145.75
Cash and security holdings	47,441,031	10,308.79

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

law. These requirements are part of the Colorado Taxpayer's Bill of Rights (TABOR), the name for a set of amendments adopted in 1992. The TABOR limits increases in per capita spending to the inflation rate, and mandates the immediate refund to the taxpayers of any surplus, unless they vote to allocate those funds to the state. The voters may also vote for tax increases beyond the inflation rate, which they did for school spending in 2001. Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$6.8 billion for resources and \$6.5 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Colorado were \$5.6 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Colorado was slated to receive: \$52 million for planning and design for a new veterans hospital in Denver; \$57 million for ongoing construction of the Animas La Plata Project, which will help provide water to southwestern Colorado and northwestern New Mexico.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Colorado collected \$7,648 million in tax revenues or \$1,640 per capita, which placed it 47th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 26.2% of the total; selective sales taxes, 13.8%; individual income taxes, 49.3%; corporate income taxes, 4.1%; and other taxes, 6.6%.

As of 1 January 2006, Colorado had one individual income tax bracket of 4.63%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 4.63%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$4,722,286,000 or \$1,026 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 23rd nationally. Colorado does not collect property taxes at the state level.

Colorado taxes retail sales at a rate of 2.90%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 7%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 9.90%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 84 cents per pack, which ranks 24th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Colorado taxes gasoline at 22 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Colorado citizens received \$0.79 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Colorado Office of Economic Development and International Trade (OEDIT) implements the state government's economic plans. In 2000, the Governor's Office of Innovation and Technology (OIT) was established, and Colorado's first secretary of technology was appointed. Colorado's economic programs are aimed at encouraging new industry, helping existing companies expand and compete, and providing assistance to small businesses and to farmers. Economic development in rural areas is a priority. It offers real estate loans to help companies purchase or expand existing buildings or to construct new buildings. It assists employers with training programs for newly created and existing jobs. Colorado seeks to aid small businesses by contributing to lenders' reserve funds for small commercial and agricultural loans, by extending to small businesses loans with fixed interest rates, by giving grants to small technology-based firms for research and devel-

opment projects, and by offering capital loans and credit to small export/import companies. The state operates a network of Small Business Development Centers (SBDCs). The SBDCs offer Leading Edge courses to train businesspeople and people seeking to start business in entrepreneurial behaviors, covering such topics as strategic planning, marketing research, marketing, and cash-flow analysis. The state offers a variety of loan programs for economic development and manages a number of loan programs for farmers and agricultural producers. A limited program of grants are earmarked for agriculture feasibility studies, technology, and defense conversion programs.

Colorado's Enterprise Zone program provides tax incentives to encourage businesses to locate and expand in designated economically distressed areas of the state. There were 18 enterprise zones and subzones in Colorado in 2006. Businesses located in a zone may qualify for ten different enterprise zone tax credits and incentives to encourage job creation and investment in these zones. The OEDIT also operates a Minority Business Office, whose mission is to promote development of existing and new minority businesses across the state with emphasis on rural areas that do not have access to information and technical help. The OEDIT works with Colorado businesses, associations, universities, and others to encourage the growth and development of bioscience companies, the aerospace industry, and other emerging industries. The Colorado Tourism Office (CTO) was created to promote Colorado as a tourism and travel destination. The Colorado Economic Development Commission (EDC) approves loans and grants from an economic development fund to public and private entities throughout the state to help existing businesses expand and new companies locate to Colorado. It also implements marketing programs to support ongoing business activities.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.6 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 15.2 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 15.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 79.3% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 77% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 6.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 142.6; cancer, 141.7; cerebrovascular diseases, 42.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 41; and diabetes, 14.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.3 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 7.3 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 51.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Colorado had 68 community hospitals with about 9,500 beds. There were about 444,000 patient admissions that year and 7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 6,200 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,551. Also in 2003, there were about 215 certified nursing facilities in the state with 20,127 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 81.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 72.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Colorado had 268 physicians per 100,000 resident popu-

lation in 2004 and 708 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 2,980 dentists in the state.

About 16% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$3.3 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 88,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$298. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 245,926 persons (107,405 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$106.14 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$313.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Colorado's TANF program is called Colorado Works. In 2004, the state program had 38,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this program totaled \$53 million fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 571,470 Colorado residents. This number included 366,660 retired workers, 55,380 widows and widowers, 69,780 disabled workers, 35,840 spouses, and 43,810 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 12.4% of the total state population and 91.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$935; widows and widowers, \$910; disabled workers, \$887; and spouses, \$471. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$489 per month; children of deceased workers, \$656; and children of disabled workers, \$277. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 54,131 Colorado residents, averaging \$381 a month. An additional \$7.4 million of state-administered supplemental payments was distributed to 33,724 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 2,010,806 housing units in the state, of which 1,850,238 units were occupied; 68.6% were owner occupied. It was estimated that about 65,261 units were without telephone service, 6,527 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 7,242 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Though most homes employed gas and electricity as heating fuel, about 3,362 units were equipped for solar power heating. About 63.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes. The average household had 2.43 members.

In 2004, 46,500 new privately owned housing units were authorized. The median home value was \$211,740. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,355 while the cost for renters was at a median of \$724 per month. In September 2005, the state was awarded a grant of \$150,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$11 million in community development block grants.

The Denver-Boulder area is Colorado's primary region of housing growth.

41 EDUCATION

As of 2004, 86.9% of Coloradans 25 years and over were high school graduates, surpassing the national average of 84%. Some 35.5% of the adult population of Colorado had completed four or more years of college, higher than the national average of 26%

In fall 2002, Colorado's public elementary and secondary schools had 752,000 pupils. Of these, 534,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 217,000 attended high school. Approximately 64.5% of the students were white, 5.8% were black, 25.3% were Hispanic, 3.1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 756,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 833,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 10.9% during the period 2002–14. There were 50,123 students enrolled in 345 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$6.8 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Colorado scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 282,343 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 19.9% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Colorado had 75 degree-granting institutions. The oldest state school is the Colorado School of Mines, founded in Golden in 1869. Although chartered in 1861, the University of Colorado did not open until 1876; its Boulder campus is now the largest in the state. Colorado State University was founded at Ft. Collins in 1870. The University of Denver was chartered in 1864 as the Colorado Seminary of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Colorado is also the home of the United States Air Force Academy.

42 ARTS

The Colorado Council on the Arts consists of 11 members appointed by the governor. In 2005, the council and other arts organizations received 26 grants totaling \$2,304,700 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Colorado Endowment for the Humanities was established in 1974. In 2005, 12 grants totaling \$738,362 were awarded to state organizations from the National Endowment for the Humanities. The Council on the Arts is affiliated with the regional Western States Art Federation. The state government also provides a sizable share of the total for the support of the artists. In 1988, arts organizations in Denver successfully supported a proposal to contribute 0.1% of the area's sales tax to the development of the arts.

From its earliest days of statehood, Colorado has been receptive to the arts. Such showplaces as the Tabor Opera House in Leadville and the Tabor Grand Opera House in Denver were among the most elaborate buildings in the Old West. Newer centers are Denver's Boettcher Concert Hall, which opened in 1978 as the home of the Denver Symphony, and the adjacent Helen G. Bonfils Theater Complex, which opened in 1980 and houses a repertory theater company. The Colorado Symphony Orchestra was established in 1989 as the successor to the Denver Symphony.

Other artistic organizations include the Colorado Opera Festival of Colorado Springs; the Central City Opera House Association, which sponsors a summer opera season in this old mining town; and the Four Corners Opera Association in Durango. The amphitheater in Red Rocks Park near Denver, formed by red sandstone rocks, provides a natural and acoustically excellent concert area. In 2006, Red Rocks Amphitheater was scheduled to host a wide range of artists including the Allman Brothers, Ben Harper, and Chicago.

Aspen FilmFest, founded in 1979, offers several festivals throughout the year promoting interest in independent filmmaking. The Aspen Music Festival and School (AMFS), founded in 1949, is an annual internationally renowned classical music festival that offers over 200 events and educational opportunities throughout the summer.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

As of 2001, Colorado had 116 public library systems, with a total of 243 libraries, of which 138 were branches. In that same year, the state's public libraries held nearly 11,071,000 volumes of books and serial publications and had a total circulation of 43,460,000. The system also had 489,000 audio and 441,000 video items, 20,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 14 bookmobiles. The largest system was the Denver Public Library with 1,882,487 volumes in 27 branches. The leading academic library is at the University of Colorado at Boulder, with over 2.8 million volumes. Total public library operating income came to \$167,910,000 in 2001, including federal grants worth \$219,000 and state grants worth \$4,080,000. Operating expenditures in that same year totaled \$152,465,000, of which 62.4% was spent on staff, and 16.3% on the collection.

Colorado has more than 174 museums and historic sites. One of the most prominent museums in the West is the Denver Art Museum, with its large collection of American Indian, South Seas, and Oriental art. Another major art museum is the Colorado Springs Fine Arts Center, specializing in southwestern and western American art.

Other notable museums include the Denver Museum of Natural History, University of Colorado Museum in Boulder, Western Museum of Mining and Industry in Colorado Springs, and the Colorado Ski Museum-Ski Hall of Fame in Vail. Museums specializing in state history include the Colorado Heritage Center of the Colorado Historical Society in Denver, Ute Indian Museum in Montrose, Ft. Carson Museum of the Army in the West, Bent's Old Fort National Historic Site in La Junta, Georgetown-Silver Plume Historic District, Healy House-Dexter Cabin and Tabor Opera House Museum in Leadville, and Ft. Vasquez in Platteville.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Colorado's first mail and freight service was provided in 1859 by the Leavenworth and Pikes Peak Express. Over 95.8% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones as of 2004. In addition, by June of that same year there were 2,727,910 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 70.0% of Colorado households had a computer and 63% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were

659,883 high-speed lines in Colorado, 623,716 residential and 72,167 for business.

Of the 80 major radio stations in operation in 2005, 22 were AM and 58 FM. There were 20 major television stations in operation in 2005. The Denver area had cable in 61% of its 1,268,230 television-owning households in 1999. A total of 109,775 Internet domain names were registered in Colorado by 2000.

45 PRESS

As of 2005, there were 21 morning dailies, 9 afternoon dailies, and 15 Sunday papers.

The leading newspapers are as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Colorado Springs	<i>Gazette</i> (m, S)	90,900	107,945
Denver	<i>Rocky Mountain News</i> (m, S)	595,512	705,593
	<i>Denver Post</i> (m, S)	595,512	705,593

In May 2000, long-time rivals, the *Rocky Mountain News* and *Denver Post*, in search of an antitrust exemption to preserve rival editorial voices in Denver, applied for a joint operating agreement under the Newspaper Preservation Act. In 2001, they entered into a 50-50 partnership under a joint operating agreement, whereby they operate their advertising, marketing, circulation sales, distribution, and finance departments jointly. However, under their respective editors, they continue to express distinctive points of view.

In 2004, the *Rocky Mountain News* and *Denver Post* ranked 30th and 31st, respectively, among largest daily newspaper in the country, based on circulation. They ranked 8th in the nation for their combined Sunday circulation the same year.

In 2005, there were 103 weekly publications in Colorado, 71 paid weeklies, 7 free weeklies, and 25 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (308,254) and free weeklies (143,350) is 451,604.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 4,880 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 3,613 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Professional and trade groups with national headquarters in the state include the Geological Society of America in Boulder; National Cattlemen's Association, the American School Food Service Association, American Sheep Producers Council, College Press Service, and National Livestock Producers Association.

Colorado Springs is the home of several important sports organizations, including the US Olympic Committee, USA Basketball, USA Hockey, Professional Rodeo Cowboys Association, and the US Ski Association. The Sports Car Club of America is in Englewood.

State arts and cultural organizations include the Colorado Artists Guild, the Colorado Historical Society, the Aspen Writers Foundation, and Young Audiences of Colorado. Junior Achievement has a national office in Colorado Springs.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is making a comeback in the state as a result of improved funding and attention to the industry. A major slump for the industry began in 1993, when voters discontinued the state tourism

tax. This resulted in a loss of \$2.3 billion per year and a 33% decrease in Colorado's market share. The legislature reinstated funding of \$6 million in 1999, and in 2000 the Colorado Tourism Office (CTO) was established as a branch of the office of Economic Development and International Trade. The new CTO is led by a 13-member board of directors representing various segments of the industry.

Florida, California, Arizona, and Texas are the state's primary competitors for tourism dollars. In 2004, there were 25.8 million overnight stays, and over 24 million visitors. Tourism accounts for over 200,000 jobs within the state.

Scenery, history, and skiing combine to make Colorado a prime tourist Mecca. Vail is the most popular ski resort center, followed by Keystone and Steamboat. Skiing aside, the state's most popular attraction is the US Air Force Academy near Colorado Springs. Nearby are Pikes Peak, the Garden of the Gods (featuring unusual red sandstone formations), and Manitou Springs, a resort center. Besides its many museums, parks, and rebuilt Larimer Square district, Denver's main attraction is the US Mint. Colorado is home to over 12,050 national landmarks.

All nine national forests in Colorado are open for camping, as are the state's two national parks: Rocky Mountain, encompassing 265,000 acres (107,000 hectares) in the Front Range; and Mesa Verde, 52,000 acres (21,000 hectares) of mesas and canyons in the southwest.

Other attractions include the fossil beds at Dinosaur National Monument, Indian cliff dwellings at Mesa Verde, Black Canyon of the Gunnison, Colorado National Monument at Fruita, Curecanti National Recreation Area, Florissant Fossil Beds, Great Sand Dunes, Hovenweep National Monument, Durango-Silverton steam train, and white-water rafting on the Colorado, Green, and Yampa rivers.

48 SPORTS

There are four major professional sports teams in Colorado, all in Denver: the Broncos of the National Football League, the Nuggets of the National Basketball Association, the Avalanche of the National Hockey League, and the Colorado Rockies of Major League Baseball. The Broncos won the American Football Conference Championship in 1978, 1987, 1988, and 1990, losing each year in the Super Bowl. They won back-to-back Super Bowl titles in 1998 and 1999. The Avalanche, who moved to Denver from Quebec after the 1995 season, won the Stanley Cup in 1996. The Colorado Springs Sky Sox compete in the Pacific Coast division of minor league baseball, and the Colorado Gold Kings compete in the West Coast Hockey League.

Colorado is home to some of the world's finest alpine skiing resorts, such as Vail, Aspen, and Steamboat Springs.

The Buffaloes of the University of Colorado produced some excellent football teams in the late 1980s and early 1990s, and they were named National Champions in 1990 (with Georgia Tech). Colorado won the Orange Bowl in 1957 and 1991, the Fiesta Bowl in 1995, and the Cotton Bowl in 1996. The Buffaloes have won or shared five Big Eight titles, the last one in 1991. Since the conference expanded to the Big Twelve, the Buffaloes have won the title once, in 2001.

Jack Dempsey, the famous heavyweight boxer of the 1920s, was born in Manassa.

49 FAMOUS COLORADANS

Ft. Collins was the birthplace of Byron R. White (1917–2002), who as an associate justice of the US Supreme Court since 1962, has been the state's most prominent federal officeholder. Colorado's first US senator, Henry M. Teller (b.New York, 1830–1914), also served as secretary of the interior. Gary Hart (b.Kansas, 1937) was a senator and a presidential candidate in 1984 and 1988.

Charles Bent (b.Virginia, 1799–1847), a fur trapper and an early settler in Colorado, built a famous fort and trading post near present-day La Junta. Early explorers of the Colorado region include Zebulon Pike (b.New Jersey, 1779–1813) and Stephen Long (b.New Hampshire, 1784–1864). John Evans (1814–97) was Colorado's second territorial governor and founder of the present-day University of Denver. Ouray (1820–83) was a Ute chief who ruled at the time when mining districts were being opened. Silver magnate Horace Austin Warner Tabor (b.Vermont, 1830–99) served as mayor of Leadville and lieutenant governor of the state, spent money on lavish buildings in Leadville and Denver, but lost most of his fortune before his death. The story of Tabor and his second wife Elizabeth McCourt Doe Tabor (1862–1935), is portrayed in Douglas Moore's opera *The Ballad of Baby Doe* (1956). Willard F. Libby (1909–80), winner of the Nobel Prize for chemistry in 1960, and Edward L. Tatum (1909–75), co-winner of the 1958 Nobel Prize for physiology or medicine, were born in Colorado. Among the performers born in the state were actors Lon Chaney (1883–1930) and Douglas Fairbanks (1883–1939), and band leader Paul Whiteman (1891–1967). Singer John Denver (Henry John Deutschendorf Jr., b.New Mexico, 1943–97) was closely associated with Colorado and lived in Aspen until his death in a plane crash.

Colorado's most famous sports personality is Jack Dempsey (1895–1983), born in Manassa and nicknamed the "Manassa Mauler," who held the world heavyweight boxing crown from 1919 to 1926.

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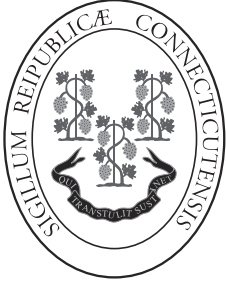
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CONNECTICUT

State of Connecticut

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: From the Mahican word *quinnehtukqut*, meaning “beside the long tidal river.” **NICKNAME:** The Constitution State (official in 1959); the Nutmeg State. **CAPITAL:** Hartford. **ENTERED UNION:** 9 January 1788 (5th). **SONG:** “Yankee Doodle.” **MOTTO:** *Qui transtulit sustinet* (He who transplanted still sustains). **COAT OF ARMS:** On a rococo shield, three grape vines, supported and bearing fruit, stand against a white field. Beneath the shield is a streamer bearing the state motto. **FLAG:** The coat of arms appears on a blue field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The three grape vines and motto of the arms surrounded by the words *Sigillum reipublicæ Connecticutensis* (Seal of the State of Connecticut). **BIRD:** American robin. **FLOWER:** Mountain laurel. **TREE:** White oak. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Martin Luther King Jr. Day, 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln Day, 12 February; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in New England in the northeastern United States, Connecticut ranks 48th in size among the 50 states.

The state’s area, 5,018 sq mi (12,997 sq km), consists of 4,872 sq mi (12,619 sq km) of land and 146 sq mi (378 sq km) of inland water. Connecticut has an average length of 90 mi (145 km) E–W, and an average width of 55 mi (89 km) N–S.

Connecticut is bordered on the N by Massachusetts; on the E by Massachusetts and Rhode Island (with part of the line formed by the Pawcatuck River); on the S by New York (with the line passing through Long Island Sound); and on the W by New York. On the SW border, a short panhandle of Connecticut territory juts toward New York City. The state’s geographic center is East Berlin in Hartford County. Connecticut has a boundary length of 328 mi (528 km) and a shoreline of 253 mi (407 km).

²TOPOGRAPHY

Connecticut is divided into four main geographic regions. The Connecticut and Quinnipiac river valleys form the Central Lowlands, which bisect the state in a north–south direction. The Eastern Highlands range from 500 ft (150 m) to 1,100 ft (335 m) near the Massachusetts border and from 200 ft (60 m) to 500 ft (150 m) in the southeast.

Elevations in the Western Highlands, an extension of the Green Mountains, range from 200 ft (60 m) in the south to more than 2,000 ft (600 m) in the northwest; within this region, near the Massachusetts border, stands Mt. Frissell, the highest point in the state at 2,380 ft (726 m). The Coastal Lowlands, about 100 mi (160 km) long and generally 2–3 mi (3–5 km) wide, consist of rocky peninsulas, shallow bays, sand and gravel beaches, salt meadows, and good harbors at Bridgeport, New Haven, New London, Mystic, and Stonington.

Connecticut has more than 6,000 lakes and ponds. The two largest bodies of water (both artificial) are Lake Candlewood, covering about 5,000 acres (2,000 hectares), and Barkhamsted Reservoir, a major source of water for the Hartford area. The main river is the Connecticut, New England’s longest river at 407 mi (655 km), of which 69 mi (111 km) lie within Connecticut; this waterway, which is navigable as far north as Hartford by means of a 15-ft (5-m) channel, divides the state roughly in half before emptying into Long Island Sound. The lowest point of the state is at sea level at the Long Island Sound. Other principal rivers include the Thames, Housatonic, and Naugatuck.

Connecticut’s bedrock geology and topography are the product of a number of forces: uplift and depression, erosion and deposit, faulting and buckling, lava flows, and glaciation. About 180 million years ago, the lowlands along the eastern border sank more than 10,000 ft (3,000 m); the resultant trough or fault extends from northern Massachusetts to New Haven Harbor and varies in width from about 20 mi (32 km) to approximately 4 mi (6 km). During the Ice Ages, the melting Wisconsin glacier created lakes, waterfalls, and sand plains, leaving thin glaciated topsoil and land strewn with rocks and boulders.

³CLIMATE

Connecticut has a generally temperate climate, with mild winters and warm summers. The January mean temperature is 27°F (-3°C) and the July mean is 70°F (21°C). Coastal areas have warmer winters and cooler summers than the interior. Norfolk, in the northwest, has a January average temperature of 19°F (-7°C) and a July average of 68°F (19°C), while Bridgeport, on the shore, has an average of 30°F (-1°C) in January and of 74°F (23°C) in July. The highest recorded temperature in Connecticut was 106°F (41°C) in Danbury, on 15 July 1995; the lowest, -32°F (-36°C), in Falls Village on 16 February 1943. The annual rainfall (1971–2000) was 46.2

in (117 cm), evenly distributed throughout the year. The state receives 25–60 in (64–150 cm) of snow each year, with the heaviest snowfall in the northwest.

Weather annals reveal a remarkable range and variety of climatic phenomena. Severe droughts were experienced in 1749, 1762, 1929–33, the early 1940s, 1948–50, and 1956–57. The worst recent drought, which occurred in 1963–66, resulted in a severe forest-fire hazard, damage to crops, and rationing of water. Downtown Hartford was inundated by a flood in March 1936. On 21 September 1938, a hurricane struck west of New Haven and followed the Connecticut Valley northward, causing 85 deaths and property losses of more than \$125 million. Severe flooding occurred in 1955 and again in 1982. In the latter year, property damage exceeded \$266 million.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Connecticut has an impressive diversity of vegetation zones. Along the shore of Long Island Sound are tidal marshes with salt grasses, glasswort, purple gerardia, and sea lavender. On slopes fringing the marshes are black grass, switch grass, marsh elder, and sea myrtle.

The swamp areas contain various ferns, abundant cattails, cranberry, tussock sedge, skunk cabbage, sweet pepperbush, spicebush, and false hellebore. The state's hillsides and uplands support a variety of flowers and plants, including mountain laurel (the state flower), pink azalea, trailing arbutus, Solomon's seal, and Queen Anne's lace. Only two plant species were listed as threatened or endangered as of April 2006: the small whorled pogonia and the sandplain gerardia.

The first Englishmen arriving in Connecticut in the 1630s found a land teeming with wildlife. Roaming the forests and meadows were black bear, white-tailed deer, red and gray foxes, timber wolf, cougar, panther, raccoon, and enough rattlesnakes to pose a serious danger. The impact of human settlement on Connecticut wildlife has been profound, however. Only the smaller mammals, such as the woodchuck, gray squirrel, cottontail, eastern chipmunk, porcupine, raccoon, and striped skunk, remain common. Snakes remain plentiful and are mostly harmless, except for the northern copperhead and timber rattlesnake. Freshwater fish are abundant, and aquatic life in Long Island Sound even more so. Common birds include the robin (the state bird), blue jay, song sparrow, wood thrush, and many species of waterfowl; visible in winter are the junco, pine grosbeak, snowy owl, and winter wren.

The Connecticut River Estuary and Tidal River Wetlands Complex, a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance, serves as a habitat for at least 18 species of wintering birds and 30 species of shorebirds. The area is also an important migration path and spawning ground for a variety of fish, including Atlantic salmon and shortnose sturgeon.

In April 2006, a total of 16 animal species occurring within the state (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. Among these were five kinds of sea turtles, the bald eagle, the roseate tern, two species of whale, and the gray wolf.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Department of Environmental Protection (DEP), established in 1971, is responsible for protecting natural resources and controlling water, air, and land pollution.

Since the Connecticut Clean Water Act was passed in 1967, upgrading of sewage treatment plants, correction of combined sewer overflows, and improved treatment, at and sewage treatment tie-ins, by industrial facilities have resulted in significant water quality improvement in many state rivers. In 1997, about 75% of the state's 900 mi (1,448 km) of major streams met federal "swimmable-fishable" standards. The Connecticut Clean Water Fund was created in 1986 to provide grants and low-interest loans to municipalities to finance more than \$1 billion in municipal sewerage infrastructure improvements over 20 years. Connecticut was the first state in the country to adopt, in 1980, a comprehensive statewide groundwater quality management system. In 2005, federal Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) grants awarded to the state included of \$8.3 million for a drinking water state revolving loan fund.

In 1994 the governors of Connecticut and New York formally adopted a comprehensive plan to manage Long Island Sound, an "estuary of national significance." The Tidal Wetlands Act (1969) and the Inland Wetlands and Watercourses Act (1972) put the state in the forefront in wetland protection. In 1997 the DEP estimated permitted tidal wetland losses at less than one acre per year and inland wetland losses at about 630 acres per year. Two thousand or more acres of wetlands and watercourses have been restored, so that wetlands covered about 5% of the state's land area as of 2005. The Connecticut River Estuary and Tidal River Wetlands Complex, stretching through 12 counties, was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1994.

For five of six criteria for air pollutants (lead, carbon monoxide, particulates, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide), Connecticut has virtually eliminated violations of health-based federal standards, and levels of these pollutants continue to decrease. The state exceeds the national standard for ozone but has reduced the number of days the standard is exceeded each year by 60% since the early 1970s. Vehicle-related emissions of ozone precursors have been reduced by almost 50%, and the state is working closely with other northeastern and mid-Atlantic states on regional ozone reduction. In 1986, the state adopted a hazardous air pollutant regulation that covers over 850 substances. Permitting and enforcement processes and voluntary reductions have resulted in at least a 68% reduction in toxins emitted to the air. In 2003, 5.4 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state.

In 1987, Connecticut adopted statewide mandatory recycling. Since 1986, five regional resource recovery facilities have begun operation, while dozens of landfills closed as they became full or federal regulations prohibited continued operation. The combination of resource recovery, recycling, and reduction of waste by consumers resulted in landfill garbage declining from 1,400 lb per capita in 1986 to about 300 in 1996.

In 2003, the EPA database listed 424 hazardous waste sites in Connecticut, 14 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. The Broad Brook Mill of East Windsor was a proposed site in 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent \$4.6 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state.

Connecticut DEP has been a pioneer in efforts to restore anadromous fish runs (ascending rivers) and extirpated species such as wild turkeys and fishers and to document and preserve habitats for numerous plant and animal species.

6 POPULATION

Connecticut ranked 29th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 3,510,297 in 2005, an increase of 3.1% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Connecticut's population grew from 3,287,116 to 3,405,565, an increase of 3.6%. The population is projected to reach 3.63 million by 2015 and 3.69 million by 2025.

The state had a population gain of 5.8% (about 180,000 residents) for the entire decade of the 1980s, compared with a US population growth of 9.7%. One sign of the population lag was that in 1990 Connecticut had the 11th lowest birthrate in the United States, 14.5 live births per 1,000 population.

Population density in 2004 was 722.9 persons per sq mi (the fourth highest in the nation), up from 678.5 persons per sq mi in 1990. The median age of residents in 2004 was 38.9; 13.5% was age 65 or older, while 23.9% were under 18 years old.

Major cities, with 2004 population estimates, are Bridgeport, 139,910; Hartford, 124,848; New Haven, 124,829; Stamford, 120,226; and Waterbury, 108,429. The three largest cities each had a slight net growth in population between 1990 and 2002, helping to reverse their losses during the 1960s and 1970s due to an exodus to the suburbs, which had increased rapidly in population. For example, Bloomfield, to the north of Hartford, gained in population from 5,700 in 1950 to 19,023 in 1984; and Trumbull, near Bridgeport, increased from 8,641 in 1950 to 33,285 in 1984.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Connecticut has large populations of second-generation European descent. The biggest groups came from Italy, Ireland, Poland, and Quebec, Canada. Most of these immigrants clustered in the cities of New Haven, Hartford, Bridgeport, and New London. The number of Roman Catholic newcomers drew the hostility of many native-born residents, particularly during the decade 1910–20, when state officials deported 59 “dangerous aliens” on scant evidence of radicalism and Ku Klux Klan chapters enrolled some 20,000 members.

Since 1950, ethnic groups of non-Yankee ancestry have exercised leadership roles in all facets of Connecticut life, especially in politics. Connecticut elected a Jewish governor in 1954, and its four subsequent governors were of Irish or Italian ancestry. A wave of newcomers to the state during and after World War II consisted chiefly of blacks and Hispanics seeking employment opportunities. In 2000, the black population numbered 309,843, about 9.1% of the state total. In 2004, the black population was 10.1% of the state's total population. According to the 2000 federal census, there were also about 320,323 residents of Hispanic or Latino origin, or 9.4% of the state's total population (up from 213,000 in 1990), of whom 194,443 were Puerto Ricans (more than double the 1990 total of 93,608). In 2004, 10.6% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2000, Connecticut had 9,639 American Indians, up from 7,000 in 1990, 82,313 Asians, and 1,366 Pacific Islanders. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was American Indian, 3.1% was Asian, and 0.1% were Pacific Islanders. About 369,967 Connecti-

cut residents, or 10.9% of the population, were foreign born in 2000, up from 279,000 (8.5%) in 1990. In 2004, 1.3% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Connecticut English is basically that of the Northern dialect, but features of the eastern New England subdialect occur east of the Connecticut River. In the east, *half* and *calf* have the vowel of father; *box* is /bawks/ and *cart* is /kaht/; *yolk* is /yelk/; *care* and *chair* have the vowel of cat; and many speakers have the intrusive /r/, as in *swaller it* (swallow it). In the western half, *creek* is /krik/; *cherry* may be /chirry/; *on* has the vowel of *father*; an /r/ is heard after a vowel, as in *cart*. Along the Connecticut river, *butcher* is /boocher/, and *tomorrow* is pronounced /tomawro/. Along the coast, the wind may be *breezing on*, and a *creek* is a saltwater inlet. The sycamore is *buttonball*, one is *sick to his stomach*, gutters are *eaves-troughs*, a lunch between meals is a *bite*, and in the northwest, an earthworm is an *angledog*.

In 2000, 2,600,601 Connecticuters (81.7% of the resident population five years old and older, down from 84.8% in 1990) spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “Other Indo-European languages” includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	3,184,514	100.0
Speak only English	2,600,601	81.7
Speak a language other than English	583,913	18.3
Speak a language other than English	583,913	18.3
Spanish or Spanish Creole	268,044	8.4
Italian	50,891	1.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	42,947	1.3
Polish	38,492	1.2
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	30,667	1.0
Chinese	15,782	0.5
German	14,310	0.4
Other Indo-European languages	11,978	0.4
Greek	9,445	0.3
Russian	8,807	0.3
French Creole	7,856	0.2
Vietnamese	6,598	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

Connecticut's religious development began in the 1630s with the designation of the Congregational Church as the colony's “established church.” The Puritan fathers enacted laws decreeing church attendance on Sundays and other appointed days, and requiring all residents to contribute to the financial maintenance of local Congregational ministers. Educational patterns, business practices, social conduct, and sexual activities were all comprehensively controlled in accordance with Puritan principles. “Blue Laws” provided penalties for offenses against God's word, such as profanation of the Sabbath and swearing, and capital punishment was mandated for adultery, sodomy, bestiality, lesbianism, harlotry, rape, and incest.

Connecticut authorities harassed and often persecuted such non-Congregationalists as Quakers, Baptists, and Anglicans. However, the church was weakened during the 18th century by increasing numbers of dissenters from the Congregational order. A coalition of dissenters disestablished the church by the Con-

necticut constitution of 1818. The final blow to Congregational domination came in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, with the arrival of many Roman Catholic immigrants.

Since World War I, Roman Catholics have been the most numerous religious group in the state. As of 2004, there were 1,333,044 Roman Catholics in 381 parishes. Mainline Protestants represent the second-largest category of churches and include the United Church of Christ, with 92,573 adherents in 2005, the Episcopal Church with 73,550 adherents in 186 congregations in 2000, and the United Methodist Church with 51,183 adherents in 133 congregations in 2000. The estimated number of Jewish adherents in 2000 was 108,280, and Muslims numbered about 29,647. About 42.1% of the population did not specify affiliation with a religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Because of both the state's traditional conservatism and the opposition by turnpike and steamboat companies, rail service did not fully develop until the 1840s. Hartford and New Haven were connected in 1839, and in 1850 that line was extended to Northampton, MA. In the 1840s and 1850s, a network of lines connected Hartford with eastern Connecticut communities. Railroad expansion peaked during the 1890s, when total trackage reached 1,636 mi (2,633 km). The giant in Connecticut railroading from the 1870s until its second and final collapse in 1961 was the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad.

In the late 1960s, the Interstate Commerce Commission required that the assets of the bankrupt New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad be included in the Penn Central Transportation Company, which was formed by the merger of the New York Central and Pennsylvania Railroads. In 1970, Penn Central went bankrupt. In 1976, Penn Central's profitable assets were merged with the profitable assets of other northeast bankrupt railroads to form the Consolidated Rail Corporation (Conrail). As of 1997, Conrail had divested itself of most of its services in Connecticut, which as of 2003, was served by seven regional and short-line railroads, and one Class I railroad. As of 2003, there were 708 mi (1,140 km) of railroad in Connecticut, of which only 69 miles (111 km) were operated by the state's only Class I railroad.

In October 1970, the Connecticut Department of Transportation (CDOT) and the Metropolitan Transportation Authority of New York (MTA) entered an agreement (effective 1 January 1971) with the Trustees of Penn Central to oversee the operation of the New Haven Line Commuter Rail Service between New Haven and Grand Central Terminal in New York City and to jointly fund the operating deficit. In 1976, Conrail succeeded Penn Central as the operator of the New Haven Line and operated it until the end of 1982 when CDOT and MTA decided to operate the New Haven Line themselves.

On 1 January 1983, the Metro-North Railroad, which had been created as a subsidiary of the MTA, took over the operations of the New Haven Line in New York. CDOT and MTA continue to jointly oversee the operations of the New Haven Line service and fund the operating deficit. The costs of New Haven Line capital projects in Connecticut are funded by Connecticut, and the costs of capital projects in New York are funded by MTA. CDOT and MTA share the capital costs of rolling stock rehabilitation and acquisition. In 1985, CDOT purchased from Penn Central the Connecticut por-

tion of the New Haven Line's main line and the three branch lines in Connecticut, including the right of way and support facilities.

On an average weekday, nearly 900 trains serve over 250,000 Metro-North customers from Connecticut and New York. In the mid-1990s, the on-time performance of New Haven Line trains ranged between 94.5% and 96.2%.

In 1990, CDOT contracted with Amtrak to operate the Shore Line East Commuter Rail Service between Old Saybrook and New Haven. Following a period of free service between 29 May and 29 June 1990, weekday only revenue service was implemented on 2 July 1990. In February of 1996, Shore Line East service was extended to New London. CDOT oversees the operation and provides the rolling stock, maintenance facilities, and funding necessary to cover the operating deficit. On an average weekday, 18 revenue trains serve about 600 customers. In the mid-1990s, the on-time performance of Shore Line East trains ranged between 90.0% and 96.3%.

Since 1971, Amtrak has provided inter-city passenger service to Connecticut on the Northeast Corridor main line (Boston–New Haven–New York City–Philadelphia–Washington, DC) and on the Springfield Line (New Haven–Hartford–Springfield).

Local bus systems provide intra-city transportation. These services are generally subsidized by the state and, in some instances, by the Federal Transit Administration. Inter-city bus service (not subsidized by the state or the federal government) is provided in over 30 municipalities by some 30 companies.

Connecticut has an extensive system of expressways, state highways, and local roads, totaling 21,144 mi (34,041 km) in 2004. Over 99% of the roads are either paved or hard-surfaced. Major highways include: I-95, the John Davis Lodge Turnpike, which crosses the entire length of the state near the shore; I-91, linking New Haven and Springfield, MA; and I-84 from the Massachusetts Turnpike, southwestward through Hartford, Waterbury, and Danbury to New York State. Over the past two decades, Connecticut has embarked on an ambitious infrastructure renewal program. Almost \$2.2 billion has been expended to rehabilitate or replace over 1,866 of the 3,820 bridges that the state maintains. Approximately \$927 million was used to resurface an average of 475 two-lane miles of state highway per year.

As of 2004, there were some 2.035 million automobiles, about 938,000 trucks of all types, and around 10,000 buses registered in the state. Connecticut had 2,694,574 licensed drivers during that same year.

Most of Connecticut's waterborne traffic is handled through the two major ports of New Haven and Bridgeport, which collectively handled approximately 16.5 million tons of cargo in 2004. The New London State Pier, which underwent reconstruction in the mid-1990s, unloaded its first post-renovation ship in March 1998 with Logistec Connecticut, Inc., in charge of operations. In 2004, Connecticut had 117 mi (188 km) of navigable inland waterways. Total waterborne shipments in 2003 totaled 18.579 million tons.

In 2005, Connecticut had a total of 152 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 54 airports, 92 heliports, and six seaplane bases. Connecticut's principal air terminal is Bradley International Airport in Windsor Locks, located 14 mi (23 km) north of Hartford. Bradley had a total of 3,326,461 enplanements in 2004, making it the 49th-busiest airport in the United States.

1¹ HISTORY

The first people known to have lived in the area now called Connecticut were American Indians, whose forebears may have come to New England as many as 10,000 years ago. By the early 17th century, Connecticut had between 6,000 and 7,000 Indians organized into 16 tribes, all members of the loose Algonquian Confederation. The most warlike of these tribes were the Pequot, who apparently had migrated not long before from the Hudson River region to escape the Mohawk and had settled along the Connecticut coast. There was also a heavy concentration of Indian groups in the Connecticut River Valley, but fear of Mohawk hunting parties kept them from occupying most of western and northwestern Connecticut.

Because of their fear of the Pequot along the shore and of the Mohawk to the west, most of Connecticut's Indians sought the friendship of English newcomers in the 1630s. The Indians sold land to the English and provided instruction in New World agricultural, hunting, and fishing techniques. The impact of English settlers on Connecticut's friendly Indians was devastating, however. The Indians lost their land, were made dependents in their own territory, and were decimated by such European imports as smallpox and measles. The Pequot, who sought to expel the English from Connecticut by a series of attacks in 1636–37, were defeated during the Pequot War by a Connecticut-Massachusetts force, aided by a renegade Pequot named Uncas. By the 1770s, Connecticut's Indian population was less than 1,500.

The first recorded European penetration of Connecticut was in 1614 by the Dutch mariner Adriaen Block, who sailed from Long Island Sound up the Connecticut River, probably as far as the Enfield Rapids. The Dutch established two forts on the Connecticut River, but they were completely dislodged by the English in 1654.

The early English settlers were part of a great migration of some 20,000 English Puritans who crossed the treacherous Atlantic to New England between 1630 and 1642. The Puritans declared that salvation could be achieved only by returning to the simplicity of the early Christian Church and the truth of God as revealed in the Bible. They sailed to America in order to establish a new society that could serve as a model for the rest of Christendom. Attracted by the lushness of the Connecticut River Valley, the Puritans established settlements at Windsor (1633), Wethersfield (1634), and Hartford (1636). In 1639, these three communities joined together to form the Connecticut Colony, choosing to be governed by the Fundamental Orders, a relatively democratic framework for which the Reverend Thomas Hooker was largely responsible. (According to some historians, the Fundamental Orders comprised the world's first written constitution, hence the state nickname, adopted in 1959.) A separate Puritan colony was planted at New Haven in 1638 under the leadership of John Davenport, a Puritan minister, and Theophilus Eaton, a successful merchant.

In 1662, the Colony of Connecticut secured legal recognition by England. Governor John Winthrop Jr. persuaded King Charles II to grant a charter that recognized Connecticut's existing framework of government and established its north and south boundaries as Massachusetts and Long Island Sound and its east and west borders as Narragansett Bay and the Pacific Ocean. In 1665, New Haven reluctantly became part of the colony because of economic difficulties and fear of incorporation into Anglican New York.

Connecticut had acrimonious boundary disputes with Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, and Pennsylvania. The most serious disagreement was with New York, which claimed the entire area from Delaware Bay to the Connecticut River. The issue was resolved in 1683 when the boundary was set 20 mi (32 km) east of and parallel to the Hudson River, although it was not until 1881 that Connecticut, New York, and Congress established the exact line.

Connecticut functioned throughout the colonial period much like an independent republic. It was the only American colony that generally did not follow English practice in its legislative proceedings, nor did it adopt a substantial amount of English common and statute law for its legal code. Connecticut's autonomy was threatened in 1687 when Sir Edmund Andros, appointed by King James II as the governor of the Dominion of New England, arrived in Hartford to demand surrender of the 1662 charter. Connecticut leaders protected the colony's autonomy by hiding the charter in an oak tree, which subsequently became a landmark known as the Charter Oak.

With its Puritan roots and historic autonomy, Connecticut was a Patriot stronghold during the American Revolution. Tories numbered no more than 7% of the adult male population (2,000–2,500 out of a total of 38,000 males). Connecticut sent some 3,600 men to Massachusetts at the outbreak of fighting at Lexington and Concord in April 1775. Jonathan Trumbull, who served as governor from 1769 to 1784, was the only colonial governor in office in 1775 who supported the Patriots. He served throughout the Revolutionary War, during which Connecticut troops participated in most of the significant battles. Connecticut's privateers captured more than 500 British merchant vessels, and its small but potent fleet captured at least 40 enemy ships. Connecticut also produced arms and gunpowder for state and Continental forces, thus beginning an arms-making tradition that would lead to the state's unofficial designation as the "arsenal of the nation." It was also called the Provisions State, in large part because of the crucial supplies of foodstuffs it sent to General George Washington throughout the war. The state's most famous Revolutionary War figure was Nathan Hale, executed as a spy by the British in New York City in 1776.

On 9 January 1788, Connecticut became the fifth state to ratify the Constitution. Strongly Federalist during the 1790s, Connecticut ardently disagreed with the foreign policy of presidents Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, opposed the War of 1812, and even refused to allow its militia to leave the state. Connecticut's ire over the war was exacerbated by the failure of the government to offer significant help when the British attacked Essex and Stonington in the spring and summer of 1814. The politically vulnerable Federalists were defeated in 1817 by the Toleration Party. This coalition of Republicans and non-Congregationalists headed the drive for the new state constitution (1818) that disestablished the Congregational Church, a Federalist stronghold.

Long before the Civil War, Connecticut was stoutly antislavery. In the early years of independence, the General Assembly enacted legislation providing that every black born after 1 March 1784 would be free at age 25. Connecticut had a number of antislavery and abolition societies, whose members routed escaped slaves to Canada via the Underground Railroad. The state's pro-Union sentiment was reflected in the enormous support given to the Union war effort; some 55,000 Connecticut men served in the Civil War,

suffering more than 20,000 casualties. Arms manufacturers such as Colt and Winchester produced desperately needed rifles and revolvers, and the state's textile, brass, and rubber firms turned out uniforms buttons, ponchos, blankets, and boots for Union troops.

The contributions by Connecticut industries to the war effort signaled the state's emergence as a manufacturing giant. Its industrial development was facilitated by abundant waterpower, the growth of capital held by banks and insurance companies, a sophisticated transportation network, and, most important, the technological and marketing expertise of the people. The first American hat factory was established in Danbury in 1780, and the nation's brass industry had its roots in Naugatuck Valley between 1806 and 1809. Connecticut clocks became known throughout the world. Micah Rugg organized the first nut and bolt factory in Marion in 1840; Elias Howe invented the first practical sewing machine in Hartford in 1843. Perhaps the most important figure in the development of Connecticut manufacturing was Eli Whitney, best known for inventing the cotton gin (1793).

Seventy-five years after Whitney's death, Connecticut was a leader in the production of hats, typewriters, electrical fixtures, machine tools, and hardware. The state's textile industry ranked sixth in the nation in 1900, with an annual output of \$50 million. By 1904, Connecticut's firearms industry was producing four-fifths of the ammunition and more than one-fourth of the total value of all firearms manufactured by nongovernment factories in the United States. These great strides in manufacturing transformed Connecticut from a rural, agrarian society in the early 1800s to an increasingly urban state.

The state's contribution to the Allied forces in World War I (1914–18) more than equaled its Civil War effort. Four Liberty Loan drives raised \$437 million, more than the contribution from any other state. About 66,000 Connecticuters served in the armed forces, and the state's manufacturers produced 450,000 Enfield rifles, 45,000 Browning automatic rifles, 2 million bayonets, and much other war materiel. By 1917–18, four-fifths of Connecticut's industry was involved in defense production.

The prosperity sparked by World War I continued, for the most part, until 1929. During the 1920s, Connecticuters enjoyed a rising standard of living, as the state became a national leader in the production of specialty parts for the aviation, automotive, and electric power industries. However, from 1919 to 1929, Connecticut lost 14 of its 47 cotton mills to southern states.

The stock market crash of 1929 and the subsequent depression of the 1930s hit highly industrialized Connecticut hard. By the spring of 1932, the state's unemployed totaled 150,000, and cities such as Bridgeport fell deeply in debt. The economic reversal led to significant political change: the ousting of a business-oriented Republican administration, which had long dominated the state, by a revitalized Democratic Party under the leadership of Governor Wilbur L. Cross (1931–39). During his tenure, Connecticut reorganized its state government, improved facilities in state hospitals and penal institutions, and tightened state regulations of business.

Connecticut was pulled out of the unemployment doldrums in 1939 when the state's factories were once again stimulated by defense contracts. The value of World War II (1939–45) contracts placed in Connecticut was \$8 billion by May 1945, and industrial

employment increased from 350,000 in 1939 to 550,000 by late 1944. Connecticut's factories turned out submarines, Navy Corsair fighter aircraft, helicopters, 80% of all ball bearings manufactured in the United States, and many thousands of small arms. Approximately 220,000 Connecticut men and women served in the US armed forces.

Since 1945, Connecticut has seen substantial population growth, economic diversification with a greater proportion of service industries, the expansion of middle-class suburbs, and an influx of black and Hispanic migrants to the major cities. Urban renewal projects in Hartford and New Haven resulted in expanded office and recreational facilities, but not much desperately needed new housing. A major challenge facing Connecticut in the 1980s was once again how to effect the social and economic integration of this incoming wave of people and industries. Providing greater economic opportunities for people living in its cities remains a challenge for Connecticut in the 2000s.

Connecticut became the nation's wealthiest state during the 1980s, achieving the highest per capita income in 1986, a position still held in 1992 when its residents' per capita income of \$26,797 was 35% above the average for the United States. The state's prosperity came in part from the expansion of the military budget, as 70% of Connecticut's manufacturing sector was defense related. The end of the cold war, however, brought cuts in military spending which reduced the value of defense related contracts in Connecticut from \$6 billion in 1989 to \$4.2 billion in 1990. By 1992, manufacturing jobs had declined by 25% while jobs in such service industries as retail, finance, insurance and real estate increased by 23%. The total number of jobs, however, dropped by 10% during the period. Tax relief measures were taken to make manufacturing more competitive in the state. In the mid-1990s, Connecticut's economy was on the upswing, fueled in part by the recovering banking industry, and its employment outlook improved.

In the 1980s and through the 1990s, Connecticut witnessed an increasing contrast between the standard of living enjoyed by urban and suburban residents, blacks and whites, and the wealthy and the poor. In 1992, the median family income in many of the state's suburbs was nearly twice that of families living in urban areas. Governor Lowell Weicker's administration imposed a personal income tax (designed to address the inequities of the sales tax system) and implemented a program to modify state funding formulas so that urban communities received a larger share. The state also launched an effort to improve the quality of public education in relatively poor cities, to bring it in alignment with suburban schools.

While per-capita income levels remained high in the state through the rest of the decade, poverty increased. According to government figures, in 1998 Connecticut still ranked first in the nation in per capita personal income (\$37,700), but the state's poverty rate, just 6% (the lowest in the nation) in 1990, had climbed to 9.2% by 1998. Per capita personal income stood at \$45,506 in 2004, still highest among the states, while the poverty rate was 7.6% (the national average was 13.1%). While the state remained divided economically, it also was divided racially. Minority (black and Hispanic) populations were centered in urban Bridgeport, Hartford, and New Haven; smaller cities and suburbs remained predominately white.

Like many states across the nation, Connecticut faced a multi-million dollar budget deficit in the early 2000s. Connecticut adopted a stringent welfare reform law during Governor John G. Rowland's tenure, limiting benefits to 21 months. A new death penalty law was passed for the state, as was a law requiring communities to be notified when sex offenders are released from prison. Connecticut in 2005 was looking to attract further business investment to the state.

Foxwoods, a casino run by the Mashantucket Pequot in Ledyard, Connecticut, is a source of much-needed income for the tribe and an attraction for tourists and gamblers.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Connecticut has been governed by four basic documents: the Fundamental Orders of 1639; the Charter of the Colony of Connecticut of 1662; the constitution of 1818 (which remained in effect until 1964, when a federal district court, acting on the basis of the US Supreme Court's "one person, one vote" ruling, ordered Connecticut to reapportion and redistrict its legislature); and the constitution of 1965. This last document adjusted representation to conform with population and provided for mandatory reapportionment every 10 years. The 1965 constitution had been amended 29 times by January 2005.

The state legislature is the General Assembly, consisting of a 36-member Senate and 151-member House of Representatives. Regular legislative sessions are held each year, beginning in January in odd-numbered years (when sessions must end no later than in June) and in February in even-numbered years (when sessions must end no later than in May). A majority of legislators may call for special session. Legislators, who must be 18 years old, residents of their districts, and qualified voters in Connecticut, are elected to both houses for two-year terms from single-member districts of substantially equal populations. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$28,000.

Elected members of the executive branch are the governor and lieutenant governor (who run jointly and must each be at least 30 years of age), secretary of state, treasurer, comptroller, and attorney general. All are elected for four-year terms and may be re-elected. The governor, generally with the advice and consent of the general assembly, selects the heads of state departments, commissions, and offices. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$150,000.

A bill becomes law when approved by both houses of the General Assembly and signed by the governor. If the governor fails to sign it within five days when the legislature is in session, or within 15 days after it has adjourned, the measure also becomes law. A bill vetoed by the governor may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of each house.

A constitutional amendment may be passed in a single legislative session if approved by three-fourths of the total membership of each house. If approved in one session by a majority but by less than three-fourths, the proposed amendments requires approval by majority vote in the next legislative session following a general election. After passage by the legislature, the amendment must be ratified by the voters in the next even-year general election in order to become part of the state constitution.

To vote in state elections, a person must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, a state resident, and a resident in the town where he or she will vote. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Connecticut's major political groups during the first half of the 19th century were successively the Federalist Party, the Democratic-Republican coalition, the Democrats, and the Whigs. The political scene also included a number of minor political parties, including the Anti-Masonic, Free Soil, Temperance, and Native American (Know-Nothing) parties, of which the Know-Nothings were the most successful, holding the governorship from 1855 to 1857. The Whig Party collapsed during the controversy over slavery in the 1850s, when the Republican Party emerged as the principal opposition to the Democrats.

From the 1850s to the present, the Democratic and Republican parties have dominated Connecticut politics. The Republicans held power in most of the years between the Civil War and the 1920s. Republican hegemony ended in 1930, when the Democrats elected Wilbur L. Cross as governor. Cross greatly strengthened the Connecticut Democratic Party by supporting organized labor and providing social legislation for the aged and the needy. The success of the increasingly liberal Democrats in the 1930s prodded Connecticut Republicans to become more forward-looking, and the two parties were fairly evenly matched between 1938 and 1954. Connecticut's Democrats have held power in most years since the mid-1950s.

Republican presidential candidates carried Connecticut for five successive elections starting in 1972 and ending with the victory of Democrat Bill Clinton in 1992. In the 1996 election, Clinton again carried the state. In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore took the state with 56% of the vote to Republican George W. Bush's 39%. Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 4% of the vote. In the 2004 presidential election, Democrat John Kerry won 54.3% of the vote to incumbent President George W. Bush's 44.0%. In 2004 there were 1,823,000 registered voters; an estimated 36% were Democratic, 24% Republican, and 40% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had seven electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

In 2005 Democrats controlled the state Senate, 24–11, and formed a majority in the state House (99 Democrats to 52 Republicans). Following the 2004 elections, Connecticut's delegation of US Representatives consisted of two Democrats and three Republicans (Connecticut lost a congressional seat in 2002). Both of Connecticut's US senators are Democrats: Christopher Dodd, reelected in 2004 for his fifth consecutive term; and Joseph Lieberman, elected to his third term in 2000. Democratic presidential candidate Al Gore chose Lieberman as his running mate in the 2000 presidential election. In 2003, Connecticut ranked eighth among the 50 states in the percentage of women state legislators, at 29.4%.

In 1994 Republican John G. Rowland was elected governor on a platform that included a promise to repeal the state income tax; he was reelected in 1998 and 2002. Rowland resigned in 2004 over a corruption scandal, and on 1 July 2005 Lieutenant Governor M. Jodi Rell succeeded him, becoming the second woman to hold the governorship of the state. US Representative Gary Franks, the first

black member of the US House of Representatives from Connecticut and the first black House Republican in 55 years, was unseated in 1996 in his bid for a fourth term. In 1998 he made an unsuccessful run for US Senate, against incumbent (Democrat) Christopher Dodd.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Connecticut had 8 counties, 30 municipal governments, and 384 special districts. There were 166 school districts. Counties in Connecticut have been geographical subdivisions without governmental functions since county government was abolished in 1960.

Connecticut's cities generally use the council-manager or mayor-council forms of government. The council-manager system provides for an elected council that determines policy, enacts local legislation, and appoints the city manager. The mayor-council system employs an elected chief executive with extensive appointment power and control over administrative agencies.

In most towns, an elected, three-member board of selectmen heads the administrative branch. The town meeting, in which all registered voters may participate, is usually the legislative body. As of 2002, there were 149 townships in the state. Boroughs are generally governed by an elected warden, and borough meetings exercise major legislative functions.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 125,392 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Connecticut operates under the authority of state statute and executive order; the commissioner for emergency management and homeland security is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

The Department of Education administers special programs for the educationally disadvantaged, the emotionally and physically disabled, and non-English-speaking students. The Department of Transportation operates state-owned airports, oversees bus system operations, and provides for snow removal from state highways and roads. The Department of Social Services has a variety of social programs for state residents, including special services for the physically disabled. The Department of Children and Families investigates cases of child abuse and administers programs dealing with child protection, adoption, juvenile corrections and rehabilitation, and prevention of delinquency.

Among programs sponsored by the Department of Public Health are ones that help people to stop smoking, increase their nutritional awareness, and improve their dental health. The Labor Department provides a full range of services to the unemployed, to job seekers, and to disadvantaged workers. Other departments deal with consumer protection, economic development, environmental protection, housing, mental retardation, information technology, and public safety.

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	CONNECTICUT WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST
1948	8	Dewey (R)	423,297	437,754	13,713	6,964
1952	8	*Eisenhower (R)	481,649	611,012	1,466	2,244
1956	8	*Eisenhower (R)	405,079	711,837	—	—
1960	8	*Kennedy (D)	657,055	565,813	—	—
1964	8	*Johnson (D)	826,269	390,996	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.	
1968	8	Humphrey (D)	621,561	556,721	76,660	—
						AMERICAN
1972	8	*Nixon (R)	555,498	810,763	—	17,239
						US LABOR
1976	8	Ford (R)	647,895	719,261	7,101	1,789
					LIBERTARIAN	CITIZENS
1980	8	*Reagan (R)	541,732	677,210	8,570	6,130
					CONN-ALLIANCE	COMMUNIST
1984	8	*Reagan (R)	569,597	890,877	1,274	4,826
					LIBERTARIAN	NEW ALLIANCE
1988	8	*Bush (R)	676,584	750,241	14,071	2,491
						IND. (Perot)
1992	8	*Clinton (D)	682,318	578,313	5,391	348,771
1996	8	*Clinton (D)	735,740	483,109	5,788	139,523
					GREEN	REFORM
2000	8	Gore (D)	816,015	561,094	64,452	4,731
						PETITIONING CANDIDATE
2004	7	Kerry (D)	857,488	693,826	9,564	12,969
						(Nader)

*Won US presidential election.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Connecticut's judicial system has undergone significant streamlining in recent years, with the abolition of municipal courts (1961), the circuit court (1974), the court of common pleas (1978), and the juvenile court (1978), and the creation of an appellate court (1983). Currently, the Connecticut judicial system consists of a supreme court, an appellate court, a superior court, and probate courts.

The Supreme Court comprises the chief justice, five associate justices, and two senior associate justices. The high court hears cases on appeal, primarily from the appellate court but also from the superior court in certain special instances, including the review of a death sentence, reapportionment, election disputes, invalidation of a state statute, or censure of a probate judge. Justices of the Supreme Court, as well as appellate and superior court judges, are nominated by the governor and appointed by the General Assembly for eight-year terms.

The Superior Court, the sole general trial court, has the authority to hear all legal controversies except those over which the probate courts have exclusive jurisdiction. The Superior Court sits in 12 state judicial districts and is divided into trial divisions for civil, criminal, and family cases. As of 1999, there were 167 superior court trial judges.

Connecticut has 132 probate courts. These operate on a fee basis, with judges receiving their compensation from fees paid for services rendered by the court. Each probate district has one probate judge, elected for a four-year term.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 19,497 prisoners were held in Connecticut's state and federal prisons, a decrease of 1.8% (from 19,846) from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,488 inmates were female, down 3.9% (from 1,548) from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Connecticut had an incarceration rate of 377 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Connecticut in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 286.3 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 10,032 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 92,046 reported incidents or 2,627.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Connecticut has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out just one execution, which took place in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, there were eight death row inmates.

In 2003, Connecticut spent \$158,064,813 on homeland security, an average of \$48 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 6,759 active-duty military personnel stationed in Connecticut, 1,080 civilian employees and 2,114 Reserve and National Guard. The principal military installation in the state is the US Navy submarine base at Groton. Across the Thames River in New London is the US Coast Guard Academy, one of the nation's four service academies. Founded in 1876 and located at its present site since 1932, this institution offers a four-year cur-

riculum leading to a BS degree and a commission as ensign in the Coast Guard.

In fiscal year 2004, the value of defense contracts was \$8.9 billion, and defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$717 million.

There were 268,975 veterans of US military service in Connecticut as of 2003, of whom 49,046 served in World War II; 35,445 in the Korean conflict; 81,636 during the Vietnam era; and 26,660 in the Persian Gulf War. US Veterans Administration spending in Connecticut totaled \$563 million in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Connecticut State Police employed 1,213 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Connecticut has experienced four principal migrations: the arrival of European immigrants in the 17th century, the out-migration of many settlers to other states beginning in the 18th century, renewed European immigration in the late 19th century, and the intrastate migration of city dwellers to the suburbs since 1945.

Although the first English settlers found an abundance of fertile farmland in the Connecticut Valley, later newcomers were not so fortunate. It is estimated that in 1800, when Connecticut's population was 250,000, nearly three times that many people had moved away from the state, principally to Vermont, western New York, Ohio, and other Midwestern states.

The influx of European immigrants increased the number of foreign-born in the state from 38,518 in 1850 to about 800,000 by World War I. After World War II, the rush of middle-class whites (many from neighboring states) to Connecticut suburbs, propelled in part by the "baby boom" that followed the war, was accompanied by the flow of minority groups to the cities. All told, Connecticut had a net increase from migration of 561,000 between 1940 and 1970, followed by a net loss of 113,000 from 1970 to 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 217,000 residents in domestic migration, and a net gain of 68,000 in international migration. In 1998, Connecticut admitted 7,780 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population decreased by 0.4%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 75,991 and net internal migration was -34,273, for a net gain of 41,718 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the regional interstate agreements to which Connecticut belongs are the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Connecticut River Atlantic Salmon Commission, Connecticut Valley Flood Control Commission, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, Interstate Sanitation Commission (with New York and New Jersey), New England Board of Higher Education, New England Interstate Water Pollution Control Commission, and the Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact. Boundary agreements are in effect with Massachusetts, New York, and Rhode Island. In fiscal year 2001, federal grants to Connecticut were almost \$4.4 billion. Federal grants declined to \$4.064 billion in fiscal year 2005, before

gradually increasing to an estimated \$4.302 billion in fiscal year 2006 and an estimated \$4.368 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Connecticut has had a strong economy since the early 19th century, when the state, unable to support its population by farming, turned to a variety of nonagricultural pursuits. Shipbuilding and whaling were major industries in the 1840s and 1850s. New London ranked behind only New Bedford and Nantucket, Massachusetts, among US whaling ports. Connecticut has also been a leader of the insurance industry since the 1790s.

Because defense production has traditionally been important to the state, the economy fluctuates with the rise and fall of international tensions. Connecticut's unemployment rate stood at 8.7% in 1949, dropped to 3.5% in 1951 during the Korean conflict, and rose sharply after the war to 8.3% in 1958. From 1966 to 1968, during the Vietnam War, unemployment averaged between 3.1% and 3.7%, but the rate subsequently rose to 9.5% in 1976. In 1984, in the midst of the Reagan administration's military buildup, Connecticut's unemployment rate dropped below 5%, becoming the lowest in the country. Connecticut lessened its dependence on the defense sector somewhat by attracting nonmilitary domestic and international firms to the state during the 1980s and 1990s. In 1984, more than 250 international companies employed more than 30,000 workers in the state. Connecticut was a leader in the manufacture of aircraft engines and parts, bearings, hardware, submarines, helicopters, typewriters, electronic instrumentation, electrical equipment, guns and ammunition, and optical instruments. Despite its dependence on military contracts, between 1984 and 1991 manufacturing employment declined 22.4%, while nonmanufacturing jobs rose by 11.6%. Nevertheless, the state was hard hit by cuts in military spending in the late 1980s and early 1990s. In 1991, defense-related prime contract awards had dropped 37.7% from the 1990 level. Pratt and Whitney, the jet engine maker, and General Dynamics' Electric Boat division, manufacturer of submarines, announced in 1992 that they would lay off a total of 16,400 workers over the following six years. In 1992, an estimated 70% of manufacturing was defense related, either through direct federal contracts, subcontracts with other companies, or in the manufacturing of basic metals used for weaponry. In 1993, unemployment stood at 7.3%. During the prosperous 1990s, unemployment fell steadily, and had reached 3% by 1999, although the ratio of manufacturing jobs continued to decline (overall, from nearly 50% in 1950 to 20% in 1999). Gross state product (GSP) grew at annual rates of 5.7% in 1998, and 4.4% in 1999, and then soared to 8.7% in 2000. During the national recession of 2001, growth slowed abruptly to 2.6%, as unemployment began to rise again. The downturn continued into 2002, as unemployment rose from 3.5% in June to 4.4% in November 2002.

In 2004, Connecticut's GSP totaled \$185.802 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for \$24.370 billion, or 13% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$22.653 billion (12.2% of GSP) and professional and technical services at \$13.896 billion (7.4% of GSP). In that same year, there were 322,805 small businesses in the state. Of the 97,311 firms in Connecticut that had employees, a total of 94,723 or 97.3% were small companies. In that same year, a total of 9,064 new businesses

were formed in the state, up 6.6% from the previous year. Business terminations that year however, totaled 11,018, a drop of 0.2% from the year before. Business bankruptcies in 2004 totaled 132, down 29.4% from 2003. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 348 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Connecticut 45th in the United States.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Connecticut had a gross state product (GSP) of \$194 billion, which accounted for 1.6% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state 23rd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Connecticut had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$45,318. This ranked second in the United States and was 137% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.3%. Connecticut had a total personal income (TPI) of \$158,565,559,000, which ranked 23rd in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.5% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.9%. Earnings of persons employed in Connecticut increased from \$115,256,181,000 in 2003 to \$123,120,209,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.8%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$55,970, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 8.8% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Connecticut numbered 1,830,800, with approximately 71,900 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.9%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,674,400. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Connecticut was 10% in January 1976. The historical low was 2.1% in November 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 3.8% of the labor force was employed in construction; 11.5% in manufacturing; 18.6% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 8.6% in financial activities; 12.1% in professional and business services; 16.4% in education and health services; 7.9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 14.6% in government.

During the early 20th century, Connecticut was consistently anti-union and was one of the leading open-shop states in the north-eastern United States. But great strides were made by organized labor in the 1930s with the support of New Deal legislation recognizing union bargaining rights. All workforce services, including recruiting, training, workplace regulation, labor market information, and unemployment insurance, are offered through a statewide partnership of Connecticut's Department of Labor, Regional Workforce Development Boards, and state and community organizations.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 247,000 of Connecticut's 1,550,000 em-

ployed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 15.9% of those so employed, up from 15.3% in 2004, and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 263,000 workers (17%) in Connecticut were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Connecticut is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Connecticut had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$7.40 per hour, which was scheduled to increase to \$7.65 per hour on 1 January 2007. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.4% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is no longer of much economic importance in Connecticut. The number of farms declined from 22,241 in 1945 to 4,200 in 2004, covering a total of 360,000 acres (145,700 hectares).

Cash receipts from crop sales in 2005 were \$358 million. Tobacco production was 3,889,000 lb. (1,768,000 kg) in 2004. Other principal crops are hay, silage, potatoes, sweet corn, tomatoes, apples, and peaches.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

There were an estimated 56,000 cattle and calves on Connecticut farms in 2005. Their estimated value was \$59.9 million. In 2004, there were an estimated 4,200 hogs and pigs, valued at \$546,000. During 2003, Connecticut dairy farmers produced an estimated 413 million lb (187.7 million kg) of milk. Also during 2003, poultry farmers produced an estimated 3 million lb. (1.4 million kg) of chicken and received \$165,000 for 135,000 lb (46,000 kg) of turkey. Connecticut produced an estimated 795,000 eggs in 2003 at an estimated value of \$44.1 million.

25 FISHING

Commercial fishing does not play a major role in the economy. In 2004, the value of commercial landings was \$37.8 million for a catch of 21.1 million lb (9.6 million kg). In 2003, the state had only 23 processing and wholesale plants, with a total of about 237 employees. In 2001, the commercial fishing fleet had about 425 boats and vessels.

Several programs have been instituted throughout the years to restore the Atlantic salmon and trout populations on the Connecticut River. Connecticut had 148,125 sport-fishing license holders in 2004.

26 FORESTRY

By the early 20th century, the forests that covered 95% of Connecticut in the 1630s were generally destroyed. Woodland recovery has been stimulated since the 1930s by an energetic reforestation program. Of the state's 1,859,000 acres (752,337 hectares) of forestland in 2004, more than half was wooded with new growth. Lumber production in 2004 totaled 48 million board ft.

State forests covered some 298,000 acres (121,000 hectares) in 2004.

27 MINING

The value of nonfuel mineral production in Connecticut in 2004 was valued by the US Geological Survey at around \$131 million. Crushed stone (10 million metric tons, worth \$75.7 million) and construction sand and gravel (8.33 million metric tons, valued at \$55.6 million), were the state's two leading nonfuel mineral commodities (by value), and accounted for nearly all production (by volume and value). Other commodities produced included common clays and dimension stone. Overall, nonfuel mineral production in 2004 fell 1.5% from 2003.

Demand for virtually all of the state's mineral output is dependent on a healthy construction industry, the main consumer of aggregates.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Connecticut had 17 electrical power service providers, of which 7 were publicly owned and 3 were investor owned. Five sold only energy but did not provide delivery services, while two provided only delivery services. As of that same year there were 1,559,260 retail customers. Of that total, 1,467,971 received their power from investor-owned service providers, while publicly owned providers had 68,616 customers. There were 22,673 generation-only customers. There was no data on delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 7.573 million kW, with total production that same year at 29.545 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, only 2.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder, 97.2%, coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 16.078 billion kWh (54.4%), came from nuclear plants, with natural gas plants in second place at 5.061 billion kWh (17.1%) and coal-fired plants in third at 4.200 billion kWh (14.2%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 5.3% of all power generated, with petroleum-fired plants at 7%. Hydroelectric plants account for 1.9% of power generated.

As of 2006, Connecticut had one nuclear power generating facility, the Millstone plant in Waterford, which was operated by Dominion Generation.

Two of the four Northeast Heating Oil Reserves established by Congress in 2000 are located in Connecticut; their combined capacities total 850 thousand barrels.

Having no petroleum or gas resources of its own, nor any refineries. Connecticut must rely primarily on imported oil from Saudi Arabia, Venezuela, Nigeria, and other countries. Most of the natural gas used in Connecticut is piped in from Texas and Louisiana.

29 INDUSTRY

Connecticut is one of the most industrialized states, and it has recently diversified toward a broader economic portfolio. Six diverse industry clusters drive the state's economy: aerospace and advanced manufacturing; communications, information, and education; financial services; health and biomedical; business services; and tourism and entertainment.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Connecticut's manufacturing sector cov-

ered some 17 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$45.105 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$10.445 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$7.956 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$5.128 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$3.494 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$3.430 billion.

In 2004, a total of 191,909 people in Connecticut were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 111,290 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees with 44,885, with 19,894 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing with 33,460 (23,744 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing, with 17,553 (9,040 actual production workers); computer and electronic equipment manufacturing, with 16,722 (7,978 actual production workers); and miscellaneous manufacturing, with 12,877 (7,863 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Connecticut's manufacturing sector paid \$9.362 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.786 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.467 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$926.567 million; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$921.795 million; and chemical manufacturing at \$665.310 million.

30 COMMERCE

Considering its small size, Connecticut is a busy commercial state. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Connecticut's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$86.9 billion from 4,785 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,909 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,491 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 385 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$24.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$53.3 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$8.7 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Connecticut was listed as having 13,861 retail establishments with sales of \$41.9 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (2,101); clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,945); miscellaneous store retailers (1,470); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,381). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$10.1 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$7.2 billion; general merchandise stores at \$4.1 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers \$3.7 billion. A total of 191,807 people were employed by the retail sector in Connecticut that year.

The estimated value of Connecticut's goods exported abroad was \$9.6 billion in 2005. Shipments of transport equipment, non-electrical machinery, electric and electronic equipment, and instruments accounted for most of the state's foreign sales. Tobacco

is the major agricultural export. Foreign exports go primarily to Canada and France.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Since 1959, the Connecticut Department of Consumer Protection has been protecting consumers from injury by product use or merchandising deceit. The department conducts regular inspections of wholesale and retail food establishments, drug-related establishments, liquor retailers, bedding and upholstery dealers and manufacturers, and commercial establishments that use weighing and measuring devices. The department conducts investigations into alleged fraudulent activities, provides information and referral services to consumers, and responds to their complaints. It also licenses most professional and occupational trades and registers home improvement contractors. The Lemon Law Arbitration program and consumer guarantee funds in the areas of home improvement, real estate, and health clubs have returned millions of dollars to aggrieved consumers.

The Department of Consumer Protection also works with the state's Office of the Attorney General, which acts as counsel to the Department and represents it through litigation before state and/or federal courts.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and in some cases criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; become involved in the administration of consumer protection and education programs, and handle consumer complaints. However, the office has limited subpoena powers. In anti-trust actions, the attorney general can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The state's Department of Consumer Protection is located in Hartford. In addition, the city of Middletown also has a Director of Consumer Protection.

32 BANKING

The first banks in Connecticut were established in Hartford, New Haven, Middletown, Bridgeport, Norwich, and New London between 1792 and 1805. By 1850, the state had 54 commercial and 15 savings banks. As of June 2005, the state had 58 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 43 state-chartered and 115 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Hartford-West Hartford-East Hartford market area had 30 financial institutions in 2004, followed by the Bridgeport-Stamford-Norwalk area at 26. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 9.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$6.542 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 90.7% or \$64.030 billion in assets held.

Banking operations are regulated by the state Department of Banking. The National Graham-Leach-Bliley Financial Modernization Act of 1999, which allowed the conglomeration of banking, securities, and insurance services, was badly received by the Connecticut Banking Commissioner. The over-weighted savings

sector in Connecticut discriminates against the movement of capital in securities markets.

Connecticut has a large percentage of thrifts and residential lenders. Two-thirds of insured institutions in the state are savings institutions. Residential real estate loans comprise around half of the average loan portfolio in Connecticut.

3³INSURANCE

Connecticut's preeminence in the insurance field and Hartford's title as "insurance capital" of the nation date from the late 18th century, when state businessmen agreed to bear a portion of a shipowner's financial risks in return for a share of the profits. Marine insurance companies were established in Hartford and major port cities between 1797 and 1805. The state's first insurance company had been formed in Norwich in 1795 to provide fire insurance. The nation's oldest fire insurance firm is Hartford Fire Insurance, active since 1810. Subsequently, Connecticut companies have been leaders in life, accident, casualty, automobile, and multiple-line insurance. The insurance industry is regulated by the state department of insurance.

In 2004 there were 1.8 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$245.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$383.9 billion. The average coverage amount is \$134,300 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$856.5 million.

In 2003, there were 69 property and casualty and 32 life and health insurance companies domiciled in Connecticut. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$6.88 billion. That year, there were 30,291 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$5.36 billion. About \$675 million of coverage was offered through FAIR (Fair Access to Insurance) plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 61% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 24% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 22% for single coverage and 23% for family coverage. The state offers a 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Uninsured and underinsured motorist coverage are required as well. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$982.69, which ranked as the eighth-highest average in the nation.

3⁴SECURITIES

There are no securities or commodities exchanges in Connecticut. In 2005, there were 1,710 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 5,800 securities, commodities, and financial services

sales agents. In 2004, there were over 213 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 60 NASDAQ companies, 63 NYSE listings, and 20 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 13 Fortune 500 companies; General Electric (based in Fairfield) ranked first in the state and seventh in the nation with revenues of over \$157 billion, followed by Untied Technologies (Hartford), Hartford Financial Services, International Paper (Stamford), and Aetna (Hartford). All five of these companies are traded on the NYSE.

3⁵PUBLIC FINANCE

The state budget is prepared biennially by the Budget and Financial Management Division of the Office of Policy and Management and submitted by the governor to the General Assembly for consideration. In odd-numbered years, the governor transmits a budget document setting forth his financial program for the ensuing biennium with a separate budget for each of the two fiscal years in the biennium. In the even-numbered years, the governor transmits a report on the status of the budget enacted in the previous year, with recommendations for adjustments and revisions. The budgets are submitted to the legislature in February, and the legislature is supposed to adopt a biennium budget in May or June before the beginning of the fiscal year starting 1 July.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$14.6 billion for resources and \$14.0 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Connecticut were nearly \$5.6 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Connecticut was slated to receive \$2.3 million, out of \$100 million, for emergency contingency funding which is targeted for areas with the greatest need.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, Connecticut collected \$11,585 million in tax revenues or \$3,300 per capita, which placed it fourth among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 28.2% of the total, selective sales taxes 16.1%, individual income taxes 43.4%, corporate income taxes 5.0%, and other taxes 7.3%.

As of 1 January 2006, Connecticut had two individual income tax brackets ranging from 3.0% to 5.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 7.5%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$6,801,676,000 or \$1,944 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state behind New Jersey with the second-highest per capita tax burden. Connecticut does not collect property taxes at the state level.

Connecticut taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 151 cents per pack, which ranks eighth among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Connecticut taxes gasoline at 25 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Connecticut citizens received \$0.66 in federal spending, which ranks the state second-lowest nationally.

Connecticut—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	19,518,768	5,578.38
General revenue	17,423,130	4,979.46
Intergovernmental revenue	4,131,625	1,180.80
Taxes	10,291,289	2,941.21
General sales	3,127,221	893.75
Selective sales	1,773,155	506.76
License taxes	385,265	110.11
Individual income tax	4,319,546	1,234.51
Corporate income tax	379,822	108.55
Other taxes	306,280	87.53
Current charges	1,401,387	400.51
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,598,829	456.94
Utility revenue	23,149	6.62
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,072,489	592.31
Total expenditure	19,523,465	5,579.73
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,396,810	970.79
Direct expenditure	16,126,655	4,608.93
Current operation	10,880,637	3,109.64
Capital outlay	940,269	268.73
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,620,234	748.85
Assistance and subsidies	437,945	125.16
Interest on debt	1,247,570	356.55
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	4,186,544	1,196.50
Total expenditure	19,523,465	5,579.73
General expenditure	16,669,360	4,764.04
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,396,810	970.79
Direct expenditure	13,272,550	3,793.24
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	4,470,459	1,277.64
Public welfare	4,417,465	1,262.49
Hospitals	1,408,929	402.67
Health	499,702	142.81
Highways	862,082	246.38
Police protection	170,905	48.84
Correction	558,043	159.49
Natural resources	96,389	27.55
Parks and recreation	151,227	43.22
Government administration	977,125	279.26
Interest on general debt	1,247,570	356.55
Other and unallocable	1,809,464	517.14
Utility expenditure	233,871	66.84
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,620,234	748.85
Debt at end of fiscal year	22,574,585	6,451.72
Cash and security holdings	32,791,485	9,371.67

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

poverty and/or public assistance that are granted stimulus packages of tax reductions and exemptions. In 1994, the state established the Community Economic Development Fund (CEDF) to help revitalize distressed neighborhoods by providing greater access to capital for small business and community development organizations. The CEDF provides loans, grants and technical assistance with the aim of supporting job creation and retention and community planning efforts. The state offers low-interest loans and grants for capital expenditures, machinery, land, building, training, and recruiting. Connecticut offers tax credits and abatements for machinery and equipment. Connecticut Innovations is the state's technology development corporation. The Connecticut Economic Resource Center, Inc., coordinates business-to-business marketing and recruitment on behalf of the state. Business recruitment missions have been sent to Europe and Japan to stimulate the state's export program. In 1998, the Governor's Council on Economic Compositeness and Technology was established composed of a collection of CEO's, industry representatives, educators, labor leaders, state commissioners, and legislators. The Governor's Council adopted an Industry Cluster approach to economic development, and has since identified six clusters for particular attention in Connecticut: Tourism (already a separate office), BioScience (since 1998); Aerospace; Software and Information Technology; and Metals Manufacturing (all identified in 1999); and the Maritime Industry (2001). In 2002, Connecticut became the first state to establish an Office of BioScience, located within the DECD. Industry Cluster program, administered by the DECD, is regularly monitored by the Governor's Council to assess progress within the clusters.

In 2006, the DECD's three core responsibilities were: economic development, housing development, and community development. Connecticut's Micro Loan Guarantee Program for Women and Minority Owned Businesses is a special loan guarantee program, offered in conjunction with the CEDF, that helps women- and minority-owned businesses obtain flexible financing. This is for the growth of startup as well as existing businesses. Connecticut also has an Industrial Parks Program, which provides planning and development services, assistance to renovate or demolish vacant industrial buildings, and technical assistance to help municipalities develop industrial parks. In 2006, Connecticut awarded 10 inner city entrepreneurial awards, to highlight and celebrate 10 of the fastest-growing, privately owned companies located in inner cities. In 2006, the US Chamber of Commerce ranked all 50 states on legal fairness towards business. The chamber found Connecticut to be one of five states with the best legal environment for business. The other four were Nebraska, Virginia, Iowa, and Delaware.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Connecticut's economic development programs are overseen by its Department of Economic and Community Development (DECD). An important task is administering federal grants made through the Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program operating since 1974. Connecticut was the first state to establish Enterprise Zones (EZs), starting with six EZ's in 1982 and up to 17 in 2006. EZ's are areas with high rates of unemployment,

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.3 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 21.1 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 88.7% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 88% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.4 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per

100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 254.7; cancer, 207; cerebrovascular diseases, 53.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 42; and diabetes, 19.5. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 5.4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 18.4 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 51.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 18% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Connecticut had 34 community hospitals with about 7,200 beds. There were about 372,000 patient admissions that year and 6.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 5,600 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,684. Also in 2003, there were about 252 certified nursing facilities in the state with 31,248 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 91.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 80.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year; this was the highest dental care rate in the nation. Connecticut had 369 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 972 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 2,653 dentists in the state.

Outstanding medical schools are those of Yale University and the University of Connecticut.

About 24% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5.2 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 128,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$284. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 204,146 persons (107,492 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$91.11 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$223 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Connecticut's TANF program is called JOBS FIRST. In 2004, the state program had 43,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this program totaled \$162 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 584,090 Connecticut residents. This number included 406,450 retired workers, 48,820 widows and widowers, 62,320 disabled workers, 24,820 spouses, and 41,680 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.7% of the total state population and 93.6% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$1,044; widows and widowers, \$1,002; disabled workers, \$932; and spouses, \$537. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$592 per month; children of deceased workers, \$721; and children of disabled workers, \$282. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 51,536 Connecticut residents, averaging \$404 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 1,414,433 housing units in Connecticut, 1,329,950 of which were occupied; 69.7% were owner-occupied. About 59.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes. It was estimated that about 22,730 units were without telephone service, 8,239 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 6,030 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Most households (47%) relied on fuel oil (such as kerosene) for heating. The average household had 2.55 members.

In 2004, the median value of a single-family detached home was \$236,559. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,603 while the median monthly cost for renters was \$811. The state authorized construction of about 11,800 new privately-owned units. In 2006, the state was awarded over \$13.6 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

Believing that the Bible was the only true source of God's truths, Connecticut's Puritan founders viewed literacy as a theological necessity. A law code in 1650 required a town of 50 families to hire a schoolmaster to teach reading and writing, and a town of 100 families to operate a school to prepare students for college. Despite such legislation, many communities in colonial Connecticut did not provide sufficient funding to operate first-rate schools. Public education was greatly strengthened in the 19th century by the work of Henry Barnard, who advocated free public schools, state supervision of common schools, and the establishment of schools for teacher training. By the late 1860s and early 1870s, all of Connecticut's public elementary and high schools were tuition free. In 1865, the Board of Education was established.

A characteristic of public-school financing in Connecticut has been high reliance on local support for education. Differences among towns in their wealth bases and taxation were compounded by the mechanism used to distribute a majority of state funds for public education, the flat-grant-per-pupil formula. After the Connecticut Supreme Court, in *Horton v. Meskill* (1978), declared this funding mechanism to be unconstitutional, the General Assembly in 1979 replaced it with an equity-based model in order to reduce the disparity among towns in expenses per pupil.

In 2004, 88.8% of Connecticut residents age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 34.5% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher. As of fall 2002, Connecticut's public schools had a total enrollment of 570,000 students. Of these, 406,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 164,000 attended high school. Approximately 68.3% of the students were white, 13.6% were black, 14.6% were Hispanic, 3.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native.

Total enrollment was estimated at 570,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 567,000 by fall 2014, a decrease of 0.6% during the period 2002 to 2014. In fall 2003, 74,430 students were enrolled in 361 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$6 billion or \$10,788 per student, the fifth-highest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated

that in 2005, eighth graders in Connecticut scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics, compared with the national average of 278.

Fall enrollment in college or graduate school was 170,606 in 2002; minority students comprised 21.6% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Connecticut had 46 degree-granting institutions. Public institutions of higher education include the University of Connecticut at Storrs; four divisions of the Connecticut State University, at New Britain, New Haven, Danbury, and Willimantic; 12 regional community colleges; and 5 state technical colleges. Connecticut also has 23 private 4-year colleges and universities. Among the oldest institutions are Yale, founded in 1701 and settled in New Haven between 1717 and 1719; Trinity College (1823) in Hartford; and Wesleyan University (1831) in Middletown. Other private institutions include the University of Hartford, University of Bridgeport, Fairfield University, and Connecticut College in New London.

42 ARTS

The Connecticut Commission on the Arts was established in 1965 and was followed in 2003 by the Connecticut Commission on Culture and Tourism (CCT). The CCT includes divisions devoted to arts, films, historic preservation and museums, and tourism. It administers a state art collection and establishes policies for an art bank program. The Commission also partners with the New England Foundation for the Arts. The Connecticut Humanities Council was established in 1974. As of 2006, the Connecticut Humanities Council supported several reading and literacy programs including "Book Voyagers" for young people and "Literature for a Lifetime" for adult readers. In 2005, Connecticut arts organizations received 30 grants totaling \$1,207,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts, and 23 grants totaling \$1,520,581 through the National Endowment for the Humanities. State funds are also vital to both organizations.

Art museums in Connecticut include the Wadsworth Athenaeum in Hartford, the oldest (1842) free public art museum in the United States; the Yale University Art Gallery and the Yale Center for British Art in New Haven; the Lyman Allyn Museum of Connecticut College in New London, and the New Britain Museum of American Art.

The theater is vibrant in contemporary Connecticut, which has numerous dinner theaters and community theater groups, as well as many college and university theater groups. Professional theaters include the American Shakespeare Festival Theater in Stratford, the Long Wharf Theater and the Yale Repertory Theater in New Haven, the Hartford Stage Company, and the Eugene O'Neill Memorial Theater Center in Waterford.

The state's foremost metropolitan orchestras are the Hartford and New Haven symphonies. Professional opera is presented by the Stanford State Opera and by the Connecticut Opera in Hartford. Prominent dance groups include the Connecticut Dance Company in New Haven, the Hartford Ballet Company, and the Pilobolus Dance Theater in the town of Washington.

The annual International Festival of Arts and Ideas in New Haven has grown steadily since its inception in 1996 and now presents over 300 events throughout the month of June. The Sunken Garden Poetry Festival, presented every summer at the Hill Stead

Museum in Farmington, reportedly draws about 1,500 to 3,000 people per reading event.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Connecticut's 194 public library systems had 242 libraries, of which 48 were branches. In that same year, the public library systems held 14,109,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and had a combined circulation of 28,455,000. The system also had 531,000 audio and 519,000 video items, 20,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and seven bookmobiles. The leading public library is the Connecticut State Library (Hartford), which houses about 1,015,463 bound volumes and over 2,451 periodicals, as well as the official state historical museum. Connecticut's most distinguished academic collection is the Yale University library system (over 9 million volumes), headed by the Sterling Memorial Library and the Beinecke Rare Book and Manuscript Library. Special depositories include the Hartford Seminary Foundation's impressive material on Christian-Muslim relations; the Connecticut Historical Society's especially strong collection of materials pertaining to state history and New England genealogy; the Trinity College Library's collection of church documents; the Indian Museum in Old Mystic; the maritime history collections in the Submarine Library at the US Navy submarine base in Groton; and the G. W. Blunt White Library at Mystic Seaport.

Total operating income for the public library system amounted to \$146,593,000 in fiscal year 2001, including \$272,000 in federal grants and \$2,080,000 in state grants. In that same year, operating expenditures totaled \$134,538,000, of which 68.2% was spent on staff and 13.6% on the collection.

Connecticut has more than 162 museums, in addition to its historic sites. The Peabody Museum of Natural History at Yale includes an impressive dinosaur hall. Botanical gardens include Harkness Memorial State Park in Waterford, Elizabeth Park in West Hartford, and Hamilton Park Rose Garden in Waterbury. Connecticut's historical sites include the Henry Whitfield House in Guilford (1639), said to be the oldest stone house in the United States; the Webb House in Wethersfield, where George Washington met with the Comte de Rochambeau in 1781 to plan military strategy against the British; Noah Webster's birthplace in West Hartford; and the Jonathan Trumbull House in Lebanon.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

As of 2004, 95.5% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,064,204 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 69.2% of Connecticut households had a computer and 62.9% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 684,597 high-speed lines in Connecticut, 641,329 residential and 43,268 for business.

In 2005, Connecticut had 18 AM and 33 FM major radio stations, and 5 major network television stations. There were educational television stations in Bridgeport, Hartford, and Norwich. In addition, the Hartford and New Haven metropolitan area had the highest cable penetration rate of any urban area, at 88% in 1999. A total of 109,775 domain names were registered in Connecticut by 2000.

45 PRESS

The *Hartford Courant*, founded in 1764, is generally considered to be the oldest US newspaper in continuous publication. The leading Connecticut dailies in 2005 were the *Hartford Courant*, with an average morning circulation of 204,664 (Sundays, 281,714), and the *New Haven Register*, with an average morning circulation of 92,089 (Sundays, 100,177). Statewide, in 2005 there were 14 morning newspapers, 3 evening newspapers, and 13 Sunday newspapers.

In 2005, there were 83 weekly publications in Connecticut. Of these there are 36 paid weeklies, 41 free weeklies, and 6 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (198,928) and free weeklies (810,901) is 1,009,828.

Leading periodicals are *American Scientist*, *Greenwich Magazine*, *Connecticut Magazine*, *Fine Woodworking*, *Golf Digest*, and *Tennis*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 5,425 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 3,812 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

National organizations with headquarters in Connecticut included the Knights of Columbus (New Haven), the American Institute for Foreign Study (Greenwich), the International Association of Approved Basketball Officials (West Hartford), Keep America Beautiful (Stamford), and Save the Children Federation (Westport). The Academic Council on the United Nations System is housed at Yale University in New Haven.

State arts and educational organizations include the Connecticut Children's Musical Theatre, the Connecticut Educational Media Association, and the Connecticut Historical Commission. The National Theatre of the Deaf is based in West Hartford. The Company of Fifers and Drummers is based in Ivoryton. The International Wheelchair Road Racers Club, the United States Canoe Association, and the National Rowing Association are based in Connecticut.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism has become an increasingly important part of the economy. The government invests over \$2.5 million annually to market tourism products. Tourist spending reached \$366 million in 2003. Connecticut focuses on metropolitan New York as the largest potential tourist pool. The tourism industry used television advertising to attract more tourists.

Popular tourist attractions include the Mystic Seaport restoration and its aquarium, the Mark Twain House (housing stained glass by Louis Comfort Tiffany) and state capitol in Hartford, the American Clock and Watch Museum in Bristol, the Lock Museum of America in Terryville, and the Yale campus in New Haven. Children of all ages can enjoy the Quassy Amusement Park on Lake Quassapaug. Outstanding events are the Harvard-Yale regatta held each June on the Thames River in New London, and about 50 fairs held in Guilford and other towns between June and October.

48 SPORTS

The Connecticut Sun became the state's first major league team when it joined the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) in 2003. The Sun won the Eastern conference championship in 2004 and 2005, but lost the WNBA Finals both times. (The team was formerly the Orlando Miracle.) Connecticut's only other major league professional team, the Hartford Whalers of the National Hockey League, moved to North Carolina following the 1996–97 season and became the Carolina Hurricanes. The New England Seawolves are members of the Arena Football League. New Haven has a minor league baseball franchise, the Ravens, as do Norwich and New Britain. There are also minor league hockey and basketball teams in the state. Auto racing takes place at Lime Rock Race Track, which is located in Salisbury.

The state licenses off-track betting facilities for horse racing (not actually held in the state) and pari-mutuel operations for greyhound racing and jai alai.

Connecticut schools, colleges, and universities provide amateur athletic competitions, highlighted by Ivy League football games at the Yale Bowl in New Haven. While Yale has won 13 Ivy League football titles, the University of Connecticut has become a force in men's and women's basketball. The Huskies' women's team won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championship in 1995, 2000, back-to-back titles in 2002 and 2003, and in 2004. They have also advanced to two other Final Four tournaments. The men's team won the National Invitational Tournament in 1988 and has made over 30 NCAA Tournament appearances and won the national championship in 1999 and 2004. Other annual sporting events include the US Eastern Ski Jumping Championships in Salisbury in February and the Greater Hartford Open Golf Tournament in Cromwell in June and July.

49 FAMOUS CONNECTICUTERS

Although Connecticut cannot claim any US president or vice president as a native son, John Moran Bailey (1904–75), chairman of the state Democratic Party (1946–75) and of the national party (1961–68), played a key role in presidential politics as a supporter of John F. Kennedy's successful 1960 campaign.

Two Connecticut natives have served as chief justice of the United States: Oliver Ellsworth (1745–1807) and Morrison R. Waite (1816–88). Associate justices include Henry Baldwin (1780–1844), William Strong (1808–95), and Stephen J. Field (1816–99). Other prominent federal officeholders were Oliver Wolcott (1760–1833), secretary of the treasury; Gideon Welles (1802–78), secretary of the navy; Dean Acheson (1893–1971), secretary of state; and Abraham A. Ribicoff (1910–98), secretary of health, education, and welfare.

An influential US senator was Orville H. Platt (1827–1905), known for his authorship of the Platt Amendment (1901), making Cuba a virtual protectorate of the United States. Also well known are Connecticut senator Abraham A. Ribicoff (served 1963–81) and former governor Lowell P. Weicker Jr. (b.France, 1931 and served 1991–95), the latter first brought to national attention while a US Senator by his work during the Watergate hearings in 1973.

Notable colonial and state governors include John Winthrop Jr. (b.England, 1606–76), Jonathan Trumbull (1710–85), William A. Buckingham (1804–75), Simeon Eben Baldwin (1840–1927),

Marcus Holcomb (1844–1932), Wilbur L. Cross (1862–1948), Chester Bowles (1901–86), Ribicoff, and Ella Tambussi Grasso (1919–81), elected in 1974 and reelected in 1978 but forced to resign for health reasons at the end of 1980 (Grasso was the first woman governor in the United States who did not succeed her husband in the post).

In addition to Winthrop, the founding fathers of Connecticut were Thomas Hooker (b.England, 1586–1647), who was deeply involved in establishing and developing Connecticut Colony, and Theophilus Eaton (b.England, 1590–1658) and John Davenport (b.England, 1597–1670), cofounders and leaders of the strict Puritan colony of New Haven. Other famous historical figures are Israel Putnam (b.Massachusetts, 1718–90), Continental Army major general at the Battle of Bunker Hill, who supposedly admonished his troops not to fire “until you see the whites of their eyes”; diplomat Silas Deane (1737–89); and Benedict Arnold (1741–1801), known for his treasonous activity in the Revolutionary War but also remembered for his courage and skill at Ft. Ticonderoga and Saratoga.

Roger Sherman (b.Massachusetts, 1721–93), a signatory to the Articles of Association, Declaration of Independence (1776), Articles of Confederation (1777), Peace of Paris (1783), and the US Constitution (1787), was the only person to sign all these documents; at the Constitutional Convention, he proposed the “Connecticut Compromise,” calling for a dual system of congressional representation. Connecticut’s most revered Revolutionary War figure was Nathan Hale (1755–76), the Yale graduate who was executed for spying behind British lines. Radical abolitionist John Brown (1800–1859) was born in Torrington.

Connecticuters prominent in US cultural development include painter John Trumbull (1756–1843), son of Governor Trumbull, known for his canvases commemorating the American Revolution. Joel Barlow (1754–1812) was a poet and diplomat in the early national period. Lexicographer Noah Webster (1758–1843) compiled the *American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828). Frederick Law Olmsted (1822–1903), the first American landscape architect, planned New York City’s Central Park. Harriet Beecher Stowe (1811–96) wrote one of the most widely read books in history, *Uncle Tom’s Cabin* (1852). Mark Twain (Samuel L. Clemens, b.Missouri, 1835–1910) was living in Hartford when he wrote *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1876), *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1885), and *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur’s Court* (1889).

Charles Ives (1874–1954), one of the nation’s most distinguished composers, used his successful insurance business to finance his musical career and to help other musicians. Eugene O’Neill (b.New York, 1888–1953), the playwright who won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1936, spent summers in New London during his early years. A seminal voice in modern poetry, Wallace Stevens (b.Pennsylvania, 1879–1955), wrote the great body of his work while employed as a Hartford insurance executive. James Merrill (b.New York, 1926–95), a poet whose works have won the National Book Award (1967), Bollingen Prize (1973), and numerous other honors, lived in Stonington.

Native Connecticuters important in the field of education include Eleazar Wheelock (1711–79), William Samuel Johnson (1727–1819), Emma Willard (1787–1870), and Henry Barnard (1811–1900). Shapers of US history include Jonathan Edwards

(1703–58), a Congregationalist minister who sparked the 18th-century religious revival known as the Great Awakening; Samuel Seabury (1729–96), the first Episcopal bishop in the United States; Horace Bushnell (1802–76), said to be the father of the Sunday school; Lyman Beecher (1775–1863), a controversial figure in 19th-century American Protestantism who condemned slavery, intemperance, Roman Catholicism, and religious intolerance with equal fervor; and his son Henry Ward Beecher (1813–87), also a religious leader and abolitionist.

Among the premier inventors born in Connecticut were Abel Buel (1742–1824), who designed the first American submarine; Eli Whitney (1765–1825), inventor of the cotton gin and a pioneer in manufacturing; Charles Goodyear (1800–60), who devised a process for the vulcanization of rubber; Samuel Colt (1814–62), inventor of the six-shooter; Frank Sprague (1857–1934), who designed the first major electric trolley system in the United States; and Edwin H. Land (1909–91), inventor of the Polaroid Land Camera. The Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine was won by three Connecticuters: Edward Kendall (1886–1972) in 1949, John Enders (1897–1985) in 1954, and Barbara McClintock (1902–92) in 1983.

Other prominent Americans born in Connecticut include clock manufacturer Seth Thomas (1785–1859), circus impresario Phineas Taylor “P. T.” Barnum (1810–91), jeweler Charles Lewis Tiffany (1812–1902), financier John Pierpont Morgan (1837–1913), pediatrician Benjamin Spock (1903–98), cartoonist Al Capp (1909–79), soprano Eileen Farrell (1920–2002), and consumer advocate Ralph Nader (b.1934). Leading actors and actresses are Ed Begley (1901–70), Katherine Hepburn (1909–2003), Rosalind Russell (1911–76), and Robert Mitchum (1917–97).

Walter Camp (1859–1925), athletic director of Yale University who helped formulate the rules of US football, was a native of Connecticut.

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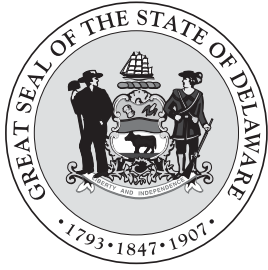
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DELAWARE

State of Delaware

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for Thomas West, Baron De La Warr, colonial governor of Virginia; the name was first applied to the bay. **NICKNAME:** The First State; the Diamond State. **CAPITAL:** Dover. **ENTERED UNION:** 7 December 1787 (1st). **SONG:** “Our Delaware.” **MOTTO:** Liberty and Independence. **COAT OF ARMS:** A farmer and a rifleman flank a shield that bears symbols of the state’s agricultural resources—a sheaf of wheat, an ear of corn, and a cow. Above is a ship in full sail; below, a banner with the state motto. **FLAG:** Colonial blue with the coat of arms on a buff-colored diamond; below the diamond is the date of statehood. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms surrounded by the words “Great Seal of the State of Delaware 1793, 1847, 1907.” The three dates represent the years in which the seal was revised. **BIRD:** Blue hen chicken. **FISH:** Sea trout. **FLOWER:** Peach blossom. **TREE:** American holly. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Martin Luther King Jr. Day, 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Day After Thanksgiving; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located on the eastern seaboard of the United States, Delaware ranks 49th in size among the 50 states. The state’s total area is 2,044 sq mi (5,295 sq km), of which land takes up 1,932 sq mi (5,005 sq km) and inland water, 112 sq mi (290 sq km). Delaware extends 35 mi (56 km) E–W at its widest; its maximum N–S extension is 96 mi (154 km).

Delaware is bordered on the N by Pennsylvania; on the E by New Jersey (with the line passing through the Delaware River into Delaware Bay) and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the S and W by Maryland.

The boundary length of Delaware, including a general coastline of 28 mi (45 km), totals 200 mi (322 km). The tidal shoreline is 381 mi (613 km). The state’s geographic center is in Kent County, 11 mi (18 km) S of Dover.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Delaware lies entirely within the Atlantic Coastal Plain except for its northern tip, above the Christina River, which is part of the Piedmont Plateau. The state’s highest elevation is 448 ft (137 m) on Ebright Road, near Centerville, New Castle County. The rolling hills and pastures of the north give way to marshy regions in the south (notably Cypress Swamp), with sandy beaches along the coast. Delaware’s mean elevation, 60 ft (18 m), is the lowest in the United States. The lowest point of the state is at sea level at the Atlantic Ocean.

Of all Delaware’s rivers, only the Nanticoke, Choptank, and Pocomoke flow westward into Chesapeake Bay. The remainder—including the Christina, Appoquinimink, Leipsic, St. Jones, Murderkill, Mispillion, Broadkill, and Indian—flow into Delaware Bay. There are dozens of inland freshwater lakes and ponds.

³CLIMATE

Delaware’s climate is temperate and humid. The normal daily average temperature in Wilmington is 55°F (12°C), ranging from an average low of 24°F (-4°C) in January to an average high of 86°F (30°C) in July. Both the record low and the record high temperatures for the state were established at Millsboro: -17°F (-27°C) on 17 January 1893 and 110°F (43°C) on 21 July 1930. The average annual precipitation (1971–2000) was 42.8 in (108.7 cm) during 1971–2000; about 21 in (53 cm) of snow falls each year. Wilmington’s average share of sunshine is 55%—one of the lowest percentages among leading US cities.

⁴FLORA AND FAUNA

Delaware’s mixture of northern and southern flora reflects its geographical position. Common trees include black walnut, hickory, sweetgum, and tulip poplar. Shadbush and sassafras are found chiefly in southern Delaware.

Mammals native to the state include the white-tailed deer, red and gray foxes, eastern gray squirrel, muskrat, raccoon, woodcock, and common cottontail. The quail, robin, wood thrush, cardinal, and eastern meadowlark are representative birds, while various waterfowl, especially Canada geese, are common.

The Delaware Bay Estuary, a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance, offers a habitat for over 90% of the North American populations of five species of migratory birds. It has been estimated that over 1 million shorebirds make use of this area. Five species of marine turtle live in the bay and several species of rare and endangered plants occur in surrounding tidal marshes.

In April 2006, a total of 17 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 13 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 4 plant species. Among these are the bald eagle,

puma, five species of sea turtle, three species of whale, the Delmarva Peninsula fox squirrel, and the small-whorled pogonia.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Coastal Zone Act of 1971 outlaws new industry “incompatible with the protection of the natural environment” of shore areas, but in 1979 the act was amended to permit offshore oil drilling and the construction of coastal oil facilities. The traffic of oil tankers into the Delaware Bay represents an environmental hazard.

In 1982, Delaware enacted a bottle law requiring deposits on most soda and beer bottles; deposits for aluminum cans were made mandatory in 1984. In that year, Delaware became the first state to administer the national hazardous waste program at the state level. The state’s municipal governments have constructed three municipal land fills to handle the solid waste produced by the state’s 670,000 residents. In 2003, the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 64 hazardous waste sites in Delaware, 14 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Dover Air Force Base. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$16.5 million through the Superfund program for the clean-up of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$6.4 million for a water pollution control revolving fund. In 2003, 13.6 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state.

About 17% of the state is covered by wetlands. The Delaware Bay Estuary was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1992; it is also designated as a Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve. Agricultural, industrial, and urban pollution are the main environmental problems for the area, part of which falls under the jurisdiction of the Delaware Department of Natural Resources and Environmental Control. The site, which extends into New Jersey, contains over 70 separate wetlands with ownership in federal, state, county, and private management.

State environmental protection agencies include the Department of natural resources and Environmental Control, Coastal Zone Industrial Control Board, and Council on Soil and Water Conservation.

6 POPULATION

Delaware ranked 45th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 843,524 in 2005, an increase of 7.6% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Delaware’s population grew from 666,168 to 783,600, an increase of 17.6%. The population is projected to reach 927,400 by 2015 and 990,694 by 2025.

In 2004, the population density was 425.4 people per square mile. The median age in 2004 was 37.5; 13.1% was age 65 or over, while 23.3% was under 18 years of age.

The largest cities are Wilmington, with an estimated population of 72,664 in 2000, and Dover, the capital, with 138,752 in the metropolitan area in 2004.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Black Americans constitute Delaware’s largest racial minority, numbering 150,666 in 2000 and comprising about 19.2% of the population. In 2004, 20.4% of the population was black. As of 2000, approximately 37,277 residents, or 4.8% of the total popu-

lation (up from 16,000, or 2.4% in 1990), was of Hispanic origin. That figure rose to 5.8% in 2004.

Delaware’s 44,898 foreign born made up 5.7% of the state’s population in 2000 (more than double the total of 22,275, or 3.3%, in 1990). The United Kingdom, Germany, India, Italy, and Canada were the leading places of origin. In 2004, 1.3% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

English in Delaware is basically North Midland, with Philadelphia features in Wilmington and the northern portion. In the north, one *wants off* a bus, lowers *curtains* rather than blinds, pronounces *wharf* without /h/, and says /noo/ and /doo/ for *new* and *due* and /krik/ for *creek*. In 2000, 662,845 Delawareans—90.5% of the resident population five years of age or older—spoke only English at home.

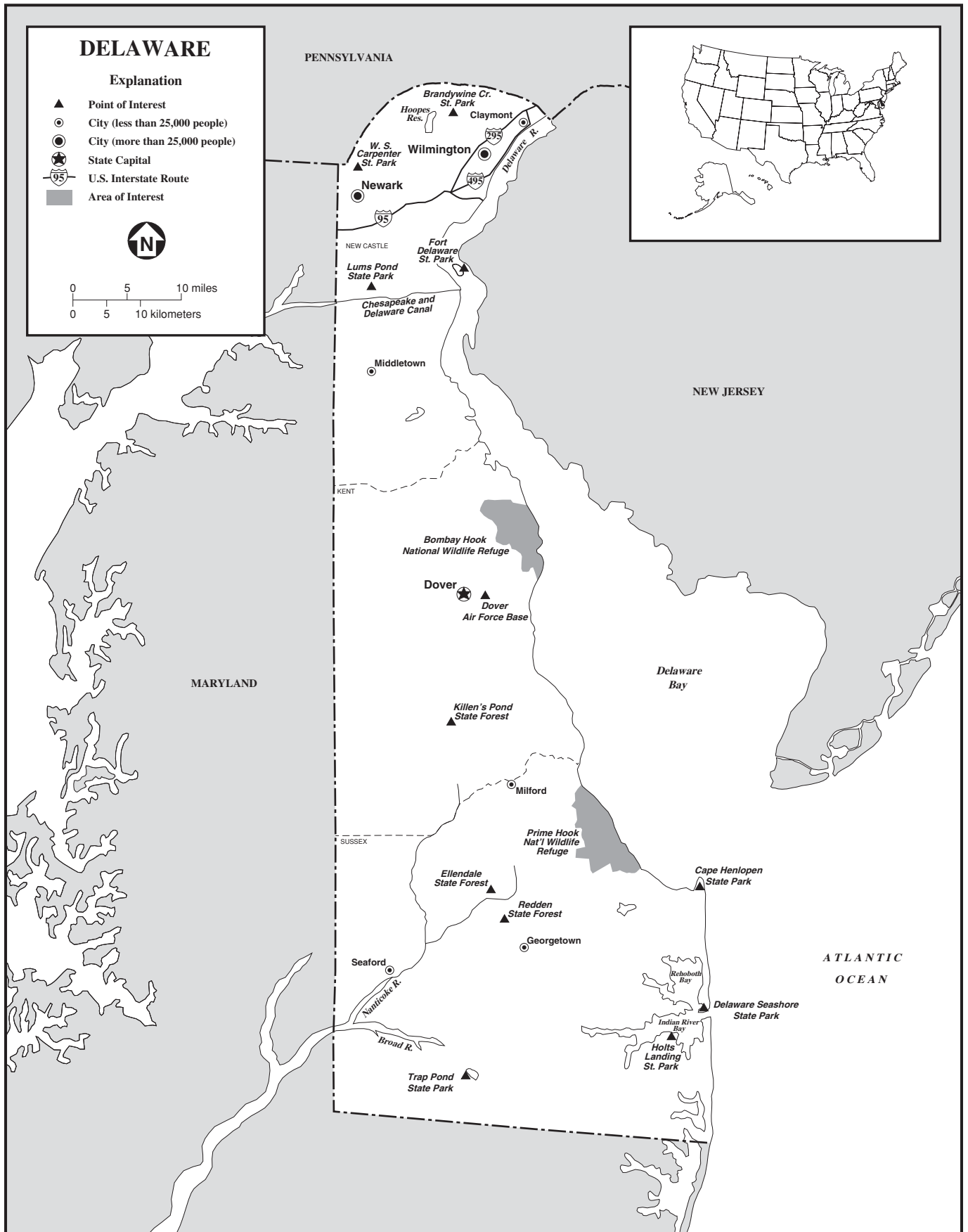
The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category “Other Asian languages” includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category “Other West Germanic languages” includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	732,378	100.0
Speak only English	662,845	90.5
Speak a language other than English	69,533	9.5
Speak a language other than English	69,533	9.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	34,690	4.7
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	4,041	0.6
Chinese	3,579	0.5
German	3,420	0.5
Italian	2,860	0.4
Polish	2,036	0.3
Korean	1,598	0.2
African languages	1,289	0.2
Tagalog	1,284	0.2
Other Asian languages	1,280	0.2
Other West Germanic languages	1,245	0.2
French Creole	1,199	0.2
Other Indic languages	1,186	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

The earliest permanent European settlers in Delaware were Swedish and Finnish Lutherans and Dutch Calvinists. English Quakers, Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, and Welsh Baptists arrived in the 18th century, though Anglicization was the predominant trend. The Great Awakening, America’s first religious revival, began on 30 October 1739 at Lewes with the arrival of George Whitefield, an Anglican preacher involved in the movement that would later become the Methodist Church. The Methodist Church was the largest denomination in Delaware by the early 19th century. Subsequent immigration brought Lutherans from Germany; Roman Catholics from Ireland, Germany, Italy, and Poland; and Jews from Germany, Poland, and Russia. Most of the Catholic and Jewish immigrants settled in cities, Wilmington in particular.

From 1990 to 2000, the Catholic Church gained 35,399 new members, enough to outnumber the previously dominant mainline Protestants. There were 151,740 Catholics in about 46 congregations in 2000. The United Methodist Church had 59,471 adherents in 162 congregations, Episcopalians numbered 12,993 in 35



congregations, and the Presbyterian Church USA claimed 14,880 adherents in about 37 congregations. There were about 13,500 adherents to Judaism. About 59.4% of the population did not specify affiliation with a religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

The New Castle and Frenchtown Railroad, a portage route, was built in 1832. The state's first passenger line, the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad, opened six years later. As of 2003, there were 247 rail mi (397 km) of track. In that same year, the top commodity originating in the state carried by Delaware's seven railroads was chemicals. Coal was the top commodity shipped by rail that terminated in the state. As of 2006, Amtrak served Wilmington via the Northeast Corridor main line that connected Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington DC. The Delaware Authority for Regional Transit (DART) provides state-subsidized bus service.

In 2004, the state had 6,044 mi (9,731 km) of public highways, roads, and streets. In that same year, there were some 716,000 registered vehicles and 533,943 licensed drivers in the state. Delaware's first modern highway, and the first dual highway in the United States, running about 100 mi (160 km) from Wilmington to the southern border, was financed by industrialist T. Coleman du Pont between 1911 and 1924. The twin spans of the Delaware Memorial Bridge connect Delaware highways to those in New Jersey; The Delaware Turnpike section of the John F. Kennedy Memorial Highway links the bridge system with Maryland. The Lewes–Cape May Ferry provides auto and passenger service between southern Delaware and New Jersey.

In 2004, New Castle, Delaware's chief port, handled 8.169 million tons of goods, followed by Wilmington, with 4.998 million tons that same year. The Delaware River is the conduit for much of the oil brought by tanker to the US east coast. In 2004, Delaware had 99 mi (159 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 42.081 million tons.

In 2005, Delaware had a total of 49 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 33 airports, 15 heliports, and one seaplane base. Greater Wilmington Airport was the largest and busiest airport in the state.

11 HISTORY

Delaware was inhabited nearly 10,000 years ago, and a succession of various cultures occupied the area until the first European contact. At that time, the Leni-Lenape (Delaware) Indians occupied northern Delaware, while several tribes, including the Nanticoke and Assateague, inhabited southern Delaware. The Dutch in 1631 were the first Europeans to settle in what is now Delaware, but their little colony (at Lewes) was destroyed by Indians. Permanent settlements were made by the Swedes in 1638 (at Wilmington, under the leadership of a Dutchman, Peter Minuit) and by the Dutch in 1651 (at New Castle). The Dutch conquered the Swedes in 1655, and the English conquered the Dutch in 1664. Eighteen years later, the area was ceded by the duke of York (later King James II), its first English proprietor, to William Penn. Penn allowed Delaware an elected assembly in 1704, but the colony was still subject to him and to his deputy governor in Philadelphia; ties to the Penn family and Pennsylvania were not severed until 1776. Boundary quarrels disturbed relations with Maryland until Charles Mason and

Jeremiah Dixon surveyed the western boundary of Delaware (and the Maryland-Pennsylvania boundary) during the period 1763–68. By this time, virtually all the Indians had been driven out of the territory.

In September 1777, during the War for Independence, British soldiers marched through northern Delaware, skirmishing with some of Washington's troops at Cooch's Bridge, near Newark, and seizing Wilmington, which they occupied for a month. In later campaigns, Delaware troops with the Continental Army fought so well that they gained the nickname "Blue Hen's Chicken," after a famous breed of fighting gamecocks. On 7 December 1787, Delaware became the first state to ratify the federal Constitution. Although Delaware had not abolished slavery, it remained loyal to the Union during the Civil War. By that time, it was the one slave state in which a clear majority of blacks (about 92%) were already free. However, white Delawareans generally resented the Reconstruction policies adopted by Congress after the Civil War, and by manipulation of registration laws denied blacks the franchise until 1890.

The key event in the state's economic history was the completion of a railroad between Philadelphia and Baltimore through Wilmington in 1838, encouraging the industrialization of northern Delaware. Wilmington grew so rapidly that by 1900 it encompassed 41% of the state's population; by mid-century the city was home to roughly half the state's population. Considerable foreign immigration contributed to this growth, largely from the British Isles (especially Ireland) and Germany in the mid-19th century and from Italy, Poland, and Russia in the early 20th century.

Flour and textile mills, shipyards, carriage factories, iron foundries, and morocco leather plants were Wilmington's leading enterprises for much of the 19th century. By the early 1900s however, E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Co., founded near Wilmington in 1802 as a gunpowder manufacturer, made the city famous as a center for the chemical industry. Du Pont remained the state's largest private employer in the 1990s, but in the 2000s, MBNA, the bank and credit card company, became the state's largest private employer.

During the same period, Delaware's agricultural income rose. Peaches and truck crops flourished in the 19th century, along with corn and wheat; poultry, sorghum, and soybeans became major sources of agricultural income in the 20th century. Sussex County, home to much of the state's farming, had become the fastest-growing county in Delaware by the mid-1990s. The beach areas of rural Sussex attract resort-goers and retirees. Tourism is expected to be aided by the construction of a north–south expressway that will cut travel time to the state's southern beach communities.

During the 1950s, Delaware's population grew by an unprecedented 40%. The growth was greatest around Dover, site of the East Coast's largest air base, and on the outskirts of Wilmington. Wilmington itself lost population after 1945 because of the proliferation of suburban housing developments, offices, and factories, including two automobile assembly plants and an oil refinery. Although many neighborhood schools became racially integrated during the 1950s, massive busing was instituted by court order in 1978 to achieve a racial balance in schools throughout northern Delaware.

The 1980s ushered in a period of dramatic economic improvement. According to state sources, Delaware was one of only two states to improve its financial strength during the recession that

plagued the early part of the decade. In 1988, Delaware enjoyed an unemployment rate of 3.3%, the second lowest in the country. The state's revenues grew at an average of 7.7% in the early 1980s, even while it successively cut the personal income tax. Some of Delaware's prosperity came from a 1981 state law that raised usury limits and lowered taxes for large financial institutions. More than 30 banks established themselves in Delaware, including Chase Manhattan Bank and Manufacturers Hanover.

The state also succeeded in using its simplified incorporation procedures to attract both US and foreign companies, bringing in an estimated \$1 million in incorporation fees from Asian companies alone in the late 1980s. By the mid-1990s, the state was the registered home of roughly half the Fortune 500 companies and hundreds of thousands of smaller corporations; however, for most, their presence in the state was strictly on paper. The state sustained a low rate of unemployment into the 1990s; in 1999 it was 3.5%, still below the national average. A year earlier the state ranked sixth in the nation for per capita income (\$29,932). Per capita income in 2004 was \$35,861, ranking ninth in the nation.

While business fared well in Delaware, the state has lagged behind in social welfare indicators. Delaware's rates of teenage pregnancy and infant mortality have been among the highest in the country while its welfare benefits were lower than those of any other mid-Atlantic state with the exception of West Virginia in the 1990s. Other problems include housing shortages, urban sprawl, and pollution.

Ruth Ann Minner, elected Delaware's first woman governor in 2001, was once a receptionist in the governor's office before winning the position herself. In her 2003 State of the State address, she targeted issues such as pollution, industrial cleanups, and toughening campaign finance laws. In 2003, Delaware was launching a prisoner reentry program, designed to help former inmates successfully reenter society instead of committing further crimes and returning to prison. The three-year pilot program was financed with a \$2 million federal grant and was to save the state millions of dollars a year and reduce crime. Prior to the 2005–06 winter season, Governor Minner urged Delawareans to conserve energy and protect the environment by changing to efficient compact fluorescent lightbulbs.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Delaware has had four state constitutions, adopted in 1776, 1792, 1831, and 1897. Under the 1897 document, as amended (138 times by January 2005), the legislative branch is the General Assembly, consisting of a 21-member Senate and a 41-member House of Representatives. Annual legislative sessions begin in January and must conclude by 30 June. The presiding officers of both houses may issue a joint call for a special session, which is not limited in length. Senators are elected for four years, representatives for two. Members of the House must be at least 24 years old; senators must be 27. All legislators must have been residents of the state for three years and must have lived in their district for one year prior to election. Legislators earned \$36,500 annually in 2004.

Delaware's elected executives are the governor and lieutenant governor (separately elected), treasurer, attorney general, and auditor. All serve four-year terms. The governor, who may be reelected twice, must be at least 30 years old and must have been a US citizen for 12 years and a state resident for six years before taking

office. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$132,500. The legislature may override a gubernatorial veto by a three-fifths vote of the elected members of each house. A bill that the governor fails to sign or veto becomes law after 10 days (Sundays excluded) when the legislature is in session. An amendment to the state constitution must be approved by a two-thirds vote in each house of the General Assembly in two successive sessions with an election intervening; Delaware is the only state in which amendments need not be ratified by the voters.

Voters in Delaware must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and permanent state residents. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Democrats were firmly entrenched in Delaware for three decades after the Civil War; a subsequent period of Republican dominance lasted until the depression of the 1930s. Since then, the two parties have been relatively evenly matched.

In 2004 there were 554,000 registered voters; an estimated 42% were Democratic, 36% Republican, and 23% unaffiliated or members of other parties. In the 2000 election, Democrat Al Gore won the state with 55% of the vote, to Republican George W. Bush's 42%. Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 3% of the vote. In 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 53.3% of the vote to incumbent president George W. Bush's 45.8%. The state had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election. Democratic senator Joseph Biden was the ranking member of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee in 2003. Democrat Tom Carper was elected Delaware's junior senator in 2000, after having served two terms as state governor, and five terms in the US House of Representatives. Former two-term governor and Republican Michael Castle was reelected Delaware's House Representative in 2004.

Democratic governor Ruth Ann Minner, elected in 2000, was the first woman to serve in a leadership position in Delaware's House of Representatives, the state's first female lieutenant governor, and first female governor. In 2005, Republicans controlled the

Delaware Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	DELAWARE WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	3	Dewey (R)	67,813	69,588
1952	3	*Eisenhower (R)	83,315	90,059
1956	3	*Eisenhower (R)	79,421	98,057
1960	3	*Kennedy (D)	99,590	96,373
1964	3	*Johnson (D)	122,704	78,078
1968	3	*Nixon (R)	89,194	96,714
1972	3	*Nixon (R)	92,283	140,357
1976	3	*Carter (D)	122,596	109,831
1980	3	*Reagan (R)	105,700	111,185
1984	3	*Reagan (R)	101,656	152,190
1988	3	*Bush (R)	108,647	139,639
1992**	3	*Clinton(D)	126,054	102,313
1996**	3	*Clinton(D)	140,355	99,062
2000	3	Gore (D)	180,068	137,288
2004	3	Kerry (D)	200,152	171,660

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. Candidate Ross Perot received 59,213 votes in 1992 and 28,719 votes in 1996.

state House (25–15, with 1 independent member), and Democrats controlled the state Senate (13–8).

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Delaware was divided into three counties. In New Castle, voters elect a county executive and a county council; in Sussex, the members of the elective county council choose a county administrator, who supervises the executive departments of the county government. Kent operates under an elected levy court, which sets tax rates and runs the county according to regulations spelled out by the assembly. Most of Delaware's 57 municipalities elect a mayor and council. In 2005, Delaware had 19 public school districts and 260 special districts. Because of the state's small geographic size, local government in Delaware tends to be weaker than that in other states; here the state operates many programs that elsewhere are found at the local level.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 22,568 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Delaware operates under the authority of the governor; a homeland security director is appointed to oversee programs related to homeland security.

Public education is supervised by the Department of Education. Highways are the responsibility of the Department of Transportation, while medical care, mental health facilities, drug- and alcohol-abuse programs, and help for the aging fall within the jurisdiction of the Department of Health and Social Services. Public protection services are provided primarily through the Department Safety and Homeland Security and the Department of Correction. The Department of Labor has divisions covering employment services, vocational rehabilitation, unemployment insurance, and equal employment opportunity. The Economic Development Office supports the economic interests of the state. Other services include those of the Department of Services to Children, Youth and Their Families and the Consumer Protection Unit of the Attorney General's Office. The environment is protected by the Department of Natural Resources and Environmental Control.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Delaware's highest court is the Supreme Court, composed of a chief justice and four associate justices, all appointed by the governor and confirmed by the Senate for 12-year terms, as are all state judges. Other state courts include the court of chancery, comprising a chancellor and two vice-chancellors, and the superior court, which has a president judge and 16 associate judges. There are also judges on the Court of Common Pleas in Wilmington.

Delaware was the last state to abolish the whipping post. During the 1900–42 period, 1,604 prisoners (22% of the state's prison population) were beaten with a cat-o'-nine-tails. The whipping post, nicknamed "Red Hannah," was used for the last time in 1952 but was not formally abolished until 1972.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 6,927 prisoners were held in Delaware's state and federal prisons, an increase from 6,794 of 2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 557 inmates were female, up by 9.6% from 508 the year before. Among sen-

tenced prisoners (one year or more), Delaware had an incarceration rate of 488 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Delaware in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 568.4 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 4,720 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 26,272 reported incidents or 3,163.9 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Delaware has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. Inmates convicted prior to 13 June 1986 were offered hanging as an alternative. However, the state's gallows have since been dismantled. From 1976 through 5 May 2006 the state executed 14 persons, of which the most recent took place in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, there were 18 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Delaware spent \$17,771,313 on homeland security, an average of \$22 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

Delaware's main defense facility is the military airlift wing at Dover Air Force Base. Active-duty military personnel stationed in Delaware in 2004 totaled 5,915, with 1,228 Guard and National Guard, and 777 civilian employees. Department of Defense contracts awarded the state in 2004 totaled \$194 million, and defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$417 million.

There were 80,751 veterans of US military service in Delaware as of 2000, of whom 10,873 served in World War II; 9,071 in the Korean conflict; 23,661 during the Vietnam era; and 11,878 in the Persian Gulf War. US Veterans Administration spending in Delaware in 2004 totaled \$167 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the Delaware state police employed 643 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Delaware has attracted immigrants from a variety of foreign countries: Sweden, Finland, and the Netherlands in the early days; England, Scotland, and Ireland during the later colonial period; and Italy, Poland, and Russia, among other countries, during the first 130 years of statehood. The 1960s and 1970s saw the migration of Puerto Ricans to Wilmington. Delaware enjoyed a net gain from migration of 122,000 persons between 1940 and 1970. Between 1970 and 1990, however, there was a net migration of only about 25,000. Net domestic migration between 1990 and 1998 totaled 29,000 while net international migration totaled 8,000. In 1998, Delaware admitted 1,063 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 11.6%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 11,226 and net internal migration was 27,912, for a net gain of 39,138 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the interstate agreements to which Delaware subscribes are the Delaware River and Bay Authority Compact, Delaware River Basin Commission, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council, and Southern Regional Education Board. The Delmarva Advisory Council, representing Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, works with local organizations on the Delmarva Peninsula to develop and implement economic improvement

programs. Federal grants to Delaware were \$910 million in fiscal year 2005, the second-lowest amount among all the states, behind Wyoming. In fiscal year 2006, federal grants amounted to an estimated \$951 million, and in fiscal year 2007, to an estimated \$985 million.

20 ECONOMY

Since the 1930s, and particularly since the mid-1970s, Delaware has been one of the nation's most prosperous states. It was one of the few states whose economic growth rate actually increased during the national recession of 2001, accelerating from 4.5% in 1998 to 6.1% in 1999 to 7.3% in 2000, and to 8.75% in 2001. Although manufacturing—preeminently the chemical and automotive industries—has historically been the main contributor to the state's economy, its contribution to gross state product shrunk from 16.5% in 1997 to 12.9% in 2001, compared to a 43% contribution from the finance, insurance and real estate sector and 15.3% from general services (hotels, auto repair, personal, health, legal, educational, recreational, etc). The largest employers in the manufacturing sector, the chemical and automobile manufacturing industries, experienced negative growth coming into the 21st century, output from motor vehicles and equipment manufacturing falling 34% 1999 to 2001, and the output from chemicals and allied products manufacturing showing a net decline of 2.6% 1997 to 2001. By contrast, financial services grew 43% during this period, and general services grew 36.4%. Job creation in manufacturing, which was at a positive 2% year-on-year rate in 1999, turned negative (to net layoffs) by the beginning of 2000 and continued at negative rates throughout 2001 and 2002. Job creation in the finance, insurance and real estate (FIRE) sector continued at year-on-year rates of 2% to 3%, but then turned sharply negative in 2002, reaching -4% by the end of the year. Office space vacancy in Wilmington reached 15% in the fourth quarter 2002, but this was below the national average of 16.5%. Positive factors that augur well for a relatively rapid economic recovery in Delaware are continued moderate housing costs that make Delaware more attractive than neighboring states with higher costs, and a related above-average 17% gain in population 1991 to 2001 (the national average was 13%) that largely reflected the movement of businesses to Delaware's relatively low-cost business environment.

Delaware's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$54.274 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for \$6.290 billion, or 11.5% of GSP, followed by manufacturing at \$4.841 billion (8.9% of GSP), and professional and technical services at \$3.257 billion (6% of GSP). In that same year, there were 68,495 small businesses operating within the state. Of the state's 25833 firms that had employees that year, 24,006, or 92.9%, were small businesses. In 2004, a total of 3,270 new companies were formed in Delaware, down from the previous year by 4.9%. In that same year, business terminations totaled 3,362, up 6.8% from the previous year. Business bankruptcies in 2004 totaled 276, down 45.3% from 2003. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 423 filings per 100,000 people, ranking the state 34th in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Delaware had a gross state product (GSP) of \$54 billion which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product

and placed the state at number 40 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Delaware had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$35,728. This ranked 11th in the United States and was 108% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.3%. Delaware had a total personal income (TPI) of \$29,656,646,000, which ranked 44th in the United States and reflected an increase of 7.4% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.8%. Earnings of persons employed in Delaware increased from \$23,845,078,000 in 2003 to \$25,377,515,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$50,152, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 8.5% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Delaware numbered 444,700, with approximately 16,400 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.7%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 437,600. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Delaware was 8.2%, in January 1977. The historical low was 2.8%, in October 1988. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 18.8% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 10.3% in financial activities; 14.3% in professional and business services; 12.5% in education and health services; 9.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 13.8% in government. Data for manufacturing was unavailable.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 46,000 of Delaware's 386,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 11.8% of those so employed, up from 12.4% in 2004, and just below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 50,000 workers (12.9%) in Delaware were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Delaware is one of 28 states without a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Delaware had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48.4% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Though small by national standards, Delaware's agriculture is efficient and productive. In 2005, Delaware's total farm marketings were \$895 million, and its income from crops was \$172 million.

Tobacco was a leading crop in the early colonial era but was soon succeeded by corn and wheat. Peaches were a mainstay during the mid-19th century, until the orchards were devastated by "the yellows," a tree disease. Today, the major field crops are corn, soybeans, barley, wheat, melons, potatoes, mushrooms, lima

beans, and green peas. Production in 2004 included corn for grain, 23,256,000 bushels, valued at \$48,838,000; soybeans, 8,736,000 bushels, \$45,864,000; wheat, 2,726,000 bushels, \$8,314,000; and barley, 2,080,000 bushels, \$3,952,000.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2003 an estimated 8,300 milk cows produced 136 million lb of milk (61.8 million kg). Also during 2003 an estimated 1.5 billion lb (680 million kg) of broilers were produced and valued at an estimated \$542.6 million. Broilers accounted for 74% of Delaware's farm receipts in 2004. Delaware had 23,000 cattle and calves valued at around \$22.8 million in 2005.

2⁵ FISHING

Fishing, once an important industry in Delaware, has declined in recent decades. The total commercial landings in 2004 brought 4.3 million lb (1.9 million kg), worth \$5.4 million. Clams, plentiful until the mid-1970s, are in short supply because of overharvesting. In 2001, the commercial fishing fleet had 184 vessels. Delaware issued 20,544 sport-fishing licenses in 2004.

2⁶ FORESTRY

In 2004, Delaware had approximately 383,000 acres (155,000 hectares) of forestland, of which approximately 92% was classified as private forestland. Nonindustrial private landowners owned 85% of Delaware's forests while approximately 8% was publicly owned, and 7% was owned by the forest industry.

Southern Delaware contains many loblolly pine forests as well as the northernmost stand of bald cypress. Northern Delaware contains more hardwoods, such as oak and yellow poplar. Other common species are gum, maple, and American holly, which is Delaware's state tree. Delaware has approximately 32,000 acres (12,950 hectares) of state forests, which are managed on a multiple-use basis and are open to the public.

2⁷ MINING

The value of nonfuel mineral production in Delaware in 2004 totaled \$21.9 million, up more than 22% from 2003, according to data from the US Geological Survey (USGS). However, this figure does not reflect the state's production of magnesium compounds, which are used in chemical and pharmaceutical manufacturing, and were withheld by the USGS to protect company proprietary data. Construction sand and gravel was the leading nonfuel mineral produced in 2004. Output that year was 2.98 million metric tons or \$21.9 million. Delaware in 2004 ranked fourth (out of five states) in the production of magnesium compounds (by volume). Magnesium compounds are extracted from seawater close to the mouth of the Delaware Bay near Lewes and, with aluminum hydroxides, are used in the manufacture of antacid products.

2⁸ ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Delaware had 17 electrical power service providers, of which 9 were publicly owned and only one was a cooperative. Of the remainder, one was investor owned, five were energy-only providers and one was a delivery-only provider. As of that same year there were 400,768 retail customers. Of that total, 280,525 received their power from investor-owned service providers.

The state's sole cooperative had 65,407 customers, while publicly owned providers had 54,829 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 3.393 million kW, with total production that same year at 7.392 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, only 0.4% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 99.6% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 4.026 billion kWh (54.5%), came from coal-fired plants, with petroleum plants in second place, at 1.716 billion kWh (23.2%) and natural gas plants in third at 1.463 billion kWh (19.8%). Other gas-fueled plants accounted for the remaining 2.5% of all power generated. Delaware has no nuclear power plants.

Delaware has no proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. As of 2005, the state's single refinery had a crude oil distillation capacity of 175,000 barrels per day.

2⁹ INDUSTRY

From its agricultural beginnings, Delaware has developed into an important industrial state. The state's capital, Wilmington, is called the "Chemical Capital of the World," largely because of E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Co., a chemical industry giant originally founded as a powder mill in 1802.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Delaware's manufacturing sector covered some 11 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$17.488 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$6.512 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$3.299 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.782 billion; plastics and rubber product manufacturing at \$630.011 million; and paper manufacturing at \$5482.594 million.

In 2004, a total of 36,378 people in Delaware were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 25,669 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 9,202, with 7,874 actual production workers. It was followed by chemical manufacturing with 5,760 employees (3,202 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 4,080 (3,505 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 2,634 employees (1,864 actual production workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing at 2,220 employees (1,616 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Delaware's manufacturing sector paid \$1.623 billion in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$365.962 million. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$282.321 million; food manufacturing at \$228.561 million; and computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$127.029 million.

3⁰ COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Delaware's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$17.2 billion from 997 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 610 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers

at 335 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 52 establishments. Sales by nondurable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$14.5 billion. Sales data for durable goods wholesalers and electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry were not available.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Delaware was listed as having 3,727 retail establishments with sales of \$10.9 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (571); clothing and clothing accessories stores (542); miscellaneous store retailers (449); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (377). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$2.7 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$1.6 billion; general merchandise stores at \$1.5 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$1.01 billion. A total of 51,889 people were employed by the retail sector in Delaware that year.

In 2005, Delaware exported \$2.5 billion worth of products to foreign markets.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection in Delaware is handled by the Fraud/Consumer Protection Division's Consumer Protection Unit, both of which are under the Office of the Attorney General. Specifically, the Unit is tasked with the responsibility of enforcing the state's consumer protection laws. It investigates consumer complaints; mediates resolution, when appropriate; and takes enforcement, when warranted. It also provides consumer education programs.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the Attorney General's Office: can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; can represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; and has broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office: can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and can represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Fraud/Consumer Protection Division and Consumer Protection Unit are located in Wilmington.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Delaware had 35 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 35 credit unions (CUs), all of them federally chartered. Excluding the CUs, the Philadelphia-Camden-Wilmington market area had 156 financial institutions in 2004, followed by the Dover area at 11. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for only 0.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$1.377 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 99.7%, or \$457.670 billion in assets held.

At the end of 2002, Delaware was home to six of the nation's leading insured credit card banks, including three of the nation's five largest. These credit card banks managed or held one-third of total credit-card loans nationally. Banking is Delaware's most profitable industry, with 12% of jobs and 36% of the gross state product represented by the finance insurance and real estate (FIRE) sectors. From 2001 to 2003, however, FIRE employment declined steadily.

As of 2004, the state's median past-due/nonaccrual loan rate as a percent of total loans was 1.09%, down from 1.35% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 3.90% in 2004, down from 3.97% in 2003. Regulation of state-chartered financial institutions is handled by the Office of the State Bank Commissioner, which is a part of the Delaware Department of State.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 522,000 individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$53 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$131.3 billion. The average coverage amount is \$102,200 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$269 million.

As of 2003, there were 83 property and casualty and 46 life and health insurance companies incorporated or organized in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$2 billion. That year, there were 18,490 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$3.2 billion. About \$218 million of coverage was offered through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 60% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 13% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 18% for single coverage and 21% for family coverage. The state does not offer an expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 569,003 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$15,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection is also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$655.42, which ranked as the ninth-highest average in the nation.

3⁴ SECURITIES

Delaware has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 560 personal financial advisers employed in the state. In 2004, there were over 26 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 7 NASDAQ companies, 12 NYSE listings, and 1 AMEX listing. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 500 company; DuPont ranked first in the state and 73rd in the nation, with revenues of over \$28.4 billion. Hercules made the Fortune 1,000, at 787th in the nation, with revenues of \$2 billion. Both companies are based in Wilmington and traded on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The budget director has lead responsibility for preparing Delaware's annual executive budget for submission to the legislature in January, which is expected to adopt a budget by 30 June for the fiscal year, which begins 1 July. There are both constitutional and

Delaware—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	5,697,849	6,864.88
General revenue	5,144,482	6,198.17
Intergovernmental revenue	1,054,363	1,270.32
Taxes	2,375,482	2,862.03
General sales	—	—
Selective sales	383,383	461.91
License taxes	882,389	1,063.12
Individual income tax	781,212	941.22
Corporate income tax	217,768	262.37
Other taxes	110,730	133.41
Current charges	715,471	862.01
Miscellaneous general revenue	999,166	1,203.81
Utility revenue	9,814	11.82
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	543,553	654.88
Total expenditure	5,387,960	6,491.52
Intergovernmental expenditure	922,710	1,111.70
Direct expenditure	4,465,250	5,379.82
Current operation	3,306,621	3,983.88
Capital outlay	442,787	533.48
Insurance benefits and repayments	401,683	483.96
Assistance and subsidies	86,233	103.90
Interest on debt	227,926	274.61
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,796,800	2,164.82
Total expenditure	5,387,960	6,491.52
General expenditure	4,914,614	5,921.22
Intergovernmental expenditure	922,710	1,111.70
Direct expenditure	3,991,904	4,809.52
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,701,881	2,050.46
Public welfare	1,022,013	1,231.34
Hospitals	56,802	68.44
Health	289,825	349.19
Highways	392,101	472.41
Police protection	78,262	94.29
Correction	202,782	244.32
Natural resources	82,540	99.45
Parks and recreation	47,294	56.98
Government administration	394,479	475.28
Interest on general debt	227,926	274.61
Other and unallocable	418,709	504.47
Utility expenditure	71,663	86.34
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	401,683	483.96
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,158,118	5,009.78
Cash and security holdings	11,244,204	13,547.23

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

statutory requirements that the governor submit, the legislature adopt, and the governor sign a balanced budget.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$3.8 billion for resources and \$3.2 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Delaware were nearly \$1.2 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Delaware was slated to receive: \$11.2 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help Delaware provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding was a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; \$5.4 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Dela-

ware fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding was an 11% increase over fiscal year 2006.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, Delaware collected \$2,725 million in tax revenues, or \$3,229 per capita, which placed it fifth among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Selective sales taxes accounted for 14.6% of the total; individual income taxes, 32.4%; corporate income taxes, 9.1%; and other taxes, 43.9%.

As of 1 January 2006, Delaware had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.2 to 5.95%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 8.7%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$453,198,00, or \$546 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 43rd nationally. Delaware has no state level property tax.

Delaware taxes gasoline at 23 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Delaware citizens received \$0.79 in federal spending.

3⁷ECONOMIC POLICY

Legislation passed in 1899 permits companies to be incorporated and chartered in Delaware even if they do no business in the state and hold their stockholders' meetings elsewhere. Another incentive to chartering in Delaware is the state's court of chancery, which has extensive experience in dealing with corporate problems.

The Delaware Economic Development Office (DEDO) seeks to create jobs by helping existing businesses to grow and by encouraging out-of-state companies to relocate to Delaware. The Development Office offers a variety of financing programs for small businesses, including assistance with land acquisition, loans and tax credits for capital investments, and state grants to match federal awards for research and development. The Delaware Innovation Fund is a private, nonprofit public/private initiative to assist companies with pre-startup seed money, with long-term loans for establishing patents, business plans, and to begin commercialization (\$10,000–\$150,000). In the year 2000, the Delaware Economic Development Office Director, and several Delaware lawmakers led a trade mission to Taiwan, establishing a Delaware-Taiwan trade office. In 2003, DEDO was one of 70 organizations participating in bioscience "hotbed" campaign, a concerted effort by a group made up of government development agencies, pharmaceutical and bioscience companies, research institutes, universities, and nonprofits to attract capital, personnel and resources to develop a life sciences cluster. Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and Washington, DC. are recognized as forming a major life sciences hub, dubbed the BioCapital Hub by the industry.

The Delaware Main Street program encourages economic development and revitalization of the state's historic downtowns. The mission of the program supports the Livable Delaware Strategy to promote economic stability, quality of place, and smart growth.

In 2006, the US Chamber of Commerce ranked all 50 states on legal fairness towards business. The chamber found Delaware to

be one of five states with the best legal environment for business. The other four were Nebraska, Virginia, Iowa, and Connecticut.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.8 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 31.3 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 86% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.6 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 237.6; cancer, 200.8; cerebrovascular diseases, 50.2; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 43.3; and diabetes, 26.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 8.7 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 18.9 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 55.6% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 24.3% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Delaware had six community hospitals with about 2,000 beds. There were about 97,000 patient admissions that year and 2 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 1,700 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,508. Also in 2003, there were about 42 certified nursing facilities in the state, with 4,679 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 84.7%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 77.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Delaware had 272 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 914 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 377 dentists in the state.

About 23% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 13% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.3 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 28,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$247. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 61,586 persons (26,052 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.26 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$65.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Delaware's TANF program is called ABC (A Better Chance). In 2004, the state program had 13,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$37 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 148,860 Delaware residents. This number included 96,620 retired workers, 13,290 widows and widowers, 19,880 disabled workers, 6,990 spouses, and 12,080 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.6% of the total state population and 93.8% of the state's

population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$1,004; widows and widowers, \$957; disabled workers, \$936; and spouses, \$524. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$507 per month; children of deceased workers, \$667; and children of disabled workers, \$288. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 13,452 Delaware residents, averaging \$391 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were approximately 367,448 housing units in Delaware, of which 310,676 were occupied; 72.9% were owner-occupied. About 55.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes. It was estimated that about 6,646 units lacked telephone service, 1,674 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 2,334 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Most homes are heated by gas or electricity. The average household had 2.59 members.

In 2004, there were 7,900 new privately owned housing units authorized for construction. The median home value was \$171,589. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,191 while renters paid a median of \$743 per month. In 2006, the state was awarded over \$1.9 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

The development of public support and financing for an adequate public educational system was the handiwork of progressive industrialist Pierre S. du Pont, who undertook the project in 1919. Approximately 86.5% of adult Delawareans were high school graduates in 2004; 26.9% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

In fall 2002, 116,000 students were enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools. Of these, 82,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 34,000 attended high school. Approximately 57.3% of the students were white, 31.9% were black, 7.9% were Hispanic, 2.6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 116,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 114,000 in fall 2014, a decrease of 2% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 25,576 students enrolled in 121 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1.33 billion or \$10,228 per student, the seventh-highest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Delaware scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics, compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 49,228 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 23.7% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Delaware had 10 degree-granting institutions. Delaware has two public four-year institutions: the University of Delaware (Newark) and Delaware State College (Dover). Alternatives to these institutions include Widener University and the Delaware Technical and Community College, which has four campuses. There are three independent colleges: Goldey-Beacom College (Wilmington), Wesley College (Dover), and Wilmington College.

4² ARTS

The Delaware Division of the Arts (DDOA) is a branch of the Delaware Department of State, which administers arts-related grants and programs. The Delaware State Arts Council serves as the advisory board for the DDOA. In 2005, Delaware arts organizations received six grants totaling \$671,400 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Delaware Humanities Forum, an independent, nonprofit organization, was established in 1973 to sponsor programs and distribute grants to organizations promoting the understanding and appreciation of the humanities. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded three grants totaling \$500,470 for state programs.

Wilmington has a local symphony orchestra, opera society, and drama league. The Playhouse, located in the Du Pont Building in Wilmington, shows first-run Broadway plays. The restored Grand Opera House, part of Delaware's Center for the Performing Arts in Wilmington, is the home of the Delaware Symphony and the Delaware Opera Guild, as well as host to performances of popular music and ballet.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Delaware had 37 public library systems, with a total of 37 libraries and no branches. In that same year, there were 1,468,000 books and serial publications on the system's shelves, and there was a total circulation of 4,543,000. The system also had 60,000 audio and 50,000 video items, and 3,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks). The University of Delaware's Hugh M. Morris Library, with 2,259,121 volumes, is the largest academic library in the state. Other distinguished libraries include the Eleutherian Mills Historical Library, the Winterthur Library, and the Historical Society of Delaware Library (Wilmington). The Delaware Library Information connects all types of libraries through a statewide computer/telecommunication system. Total public library operating income came to \$16,059,000 in fiscal year 2001, including \$93,000 from federal grants and \$2,906,000 from state grants. For that same year, operating expenditures totaled \$14,757,000, of which 61.7% was spent on staff and 15.6% on the collection.

Notable among the state's 27 museums and numerous historical sites are the Hagley Museum and Delaware Art Museum, both in Wilmington, where the Historical Society of Delaware maintains a museum in the Old Town Hall. The Henry Francis du Pont Winterthur Museum features a collection of American antiques and decorative arts. The Brandywine Zoo, adjacent to Rockford Park, is popular with Wilmington's children. The Delaware State Museum is in Dover.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, about 96.0% of Delaware's housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 593,452 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 59.5% of Delaware households had a computer and 53.2% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 109,468 high-speed lines in Delaware, 100,381 residential and 9,087 for business.

The state had 5 AM and 9 FM major radio stations and one public television station based in Seaford in 2005. Philadelphia and Baltimore commercial television stations are within range. A total

of 19,351 Internet domain names were registered in Delaware by 2000.

4⁵ PRESS

The *Wilmington Morning News* and the *Wilmington Evening Journal* merged with the *News Journal* in 1989. The *News Journal* has a daily (afternoon) circulation of 115,641 (139,647 on Sunday), as of 2005. In the state's capital is the *Delaware State News* with a daily circulation of 16,297 and Sunday circulation of 23,964, as of 2005. Statewide, there were two morning, one evening, and two Sunday papers in 2005. Smaller publications include the *Newark Post*, *Dover Post* and the *Delaware Coast Press*. Wilmington's paid weekly, *Dialog*, ranked fourth in the United States by circulation, 55,700. Magazines include *Delaware Today*.

4⁶ ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,260 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 708 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among national organizations headquartered in Delaware are the International Reading Association and the American Philosophical Association. The Ancient and Illustrious Order Knights of Malta is based in Wilmington. State arts and educational organizations include the Delaware Academy of Medicine and the Historical Society of Delaware.

4⁷ TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Delaware's travel and recreation industry is second only to manufacturing in economic importance. The Delaware Tourism Office is charged with supporting the tourism industry within the state. In 2001, the state launched a campaign entitled, "Delaware: It's Good to be First," which plays upon the state's claim as the first of the original 13 states to ratify the Constitution. In 2001, there were some 12 million visitors to the state. About 36% were day-trip travelers from surrounding states. Shopping (with no sales tax) and the state's beaches are the most popular attractions; outlet shopping malls are a big attraction for tourists. In 2003, Delaware employed 14,800 persons in the tourism industry.

Rehoboth Beach on the Atlantic Coast bills itself as the "Nation's Summer Capital" because of the many federal officials and foreign diplomats who summer there. Nearby Dewey Beach and Bethany Beach are also fast-growing family vacation spots. Events are the Delaware Kite Festival at Cape Henlopen State Park (east of Lewes) every Good Friday, Old Dover Days during the first weekend in May, and Delaware Day ceremonies (7 December, commemorating the day in 1787 when the state ratified the Constitution) throughout the state. Fort Delaware is a popular historic site. Fishing, clamming, crabbing, boating, and swimming are the main recreational attractions. There are 14 state parks. Delaware is also host to thoroughbred horse racing (Delaware Park Race-track), slot machine gambling, and NASCAR racing. Winterthur, in Brandywine Valley, boasts a Fairy Tale Garden. All three Delaware counties have a merchants' organization, which sponsors demonstrations of arts and crafts.

4⁸ SPORTS

Delaware has two major horse-racing tracks: Harrington, which has harness racing, and Dover Downs, which also has a track for auto racing. The MBNA Platinum 500 stock car race is held in June

and the MBNA.com 400 is run in September. Thoroughbred races are held at Delaware Park in Wilmington. Wilmington has a minor league baseball team, the Blue Rocks, in the Carolina League. Additionally, the Fightin' Blue Hens of the University of Delaware field teams in a large number of both men's and women's sports.

49 FAMOUS DELAWAREANS

Three Delawareans have served as US secretary of state: Louis McLane (1786–1857), John M. Clayton (1796–1856), and Thomas F. Bayard (1828–98). Two Delawareans have been judges on the Permanent Court of International Justice at The Hague: George Gray (1840–1925) and John Bassett Moore (1860–1947). James A. Bayard (b.Pennsylvania, 1767–1815), a US senator from Delaware from 1805 to 1813, was chosen to negotiate peace terms for ending the War of 1812 with the British.

John Dickinson (b.Maryland, 1732–1808), the “Penman of the Revolution,” and Caesar Rodney (1728–84), wartime chief executive of Delaware, were notable figures of the Revolutionary era. George Read (b.Maryland, 1733–98) and Thomas McKean (b.Pennsylvania, 1734–1817) were, with Rodney, signers for Delaware of the Declaration of Independence. Naval officers of note include Thomas Macdonough (1783–1825) in the War of 1812 and Samuel F. du Pont (b.New Jersey, 1803–65) in the Civil War.

Morgan Edwards (b.England, 1722–95), Baptist minister and historian, was a founder of Brown University. Richard Allen (b.Pennsylvania, 1760–1831) and Peter Spencer (1779–1843) established separate denominations of African Methodists. Welfare worker Emily P. Bissell (1861–1948) popularized the Christmas seal in the United States, and Florence Bayard Hilles (1865–1954) was president of the National Woman's Party.

Among scientists and engineers were Oliver Evans (1755–1819), inventor of a high-pressure steam engine; Edward Robinson Squibb (1819–1900), physician and pharmaceuticals manufacturer; Wallace H. Carothers (b.Iowa, 1896–1937), developer of nylon at Du Pont; and Daniel Nathans (1928–99), who shared the

Nobel Prize in medicine in 1978 for his research on molecular genetics. Eleuthère I. du Pont (b.France, 1771–1834) founded the company that bears his name; Pierre S. du Pont (1870–1954) was architect of its modern growth.

Delaware authors include Robert Montgomery Bird (1806–54), playwright; Hezekiah Niles (b.Pennsylvania, 1777–1839), journalist; Christopher Ward (1868–1944), historian; Henry Seidel Canby (1878–1961), critic; and novelist Anne Parrish (b.Colorado, 1888–1957). Howard Pyle (1853–1911) was known as a writer, teacher, and artist-illustrator.

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FLORIDA

State of Florida



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named in 1513 by Juan Ponce de León, who landed during *Pascua Florida*, the Easter festival of flowers. **NICKNAME:** The Sunshine State. **CAPITAL:** Tallahassee. **ENTERED UNION:** 3 March 1845 (27th). **SONG:** “Old Folks at Home” (also known as “The Swanee River”). **MOTTO:** In God We Trust. **FLAG:** The state seal appears in the center of a white field, with four red bars extending from the seal to each corner; the flag is fringed on three sides. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the background, the sun’s rays shine over a distant highland; in the foreground are a sabal palmetto palm, a steamboat, and an Indian woman scattering flowers on the ground. The words “Great Seal of the State of Florida” and the state motto surround the whole. **BIRD:** Mockingbird. **FISH:** Largemouth bass (freshwater), Atlantic sailfish (saltwater). **FLOWER:** Orange blossom. **TREE:** Sabal palmetto palm. **GEM:** Moonstone. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Martin Luther King Jr. Day, 3rd Monday in January; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Days, 4th Thursday and Friday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT; 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the extreme southeastern United States, Florida is the second-largest state (after Georgia) east of the Mississippi River, and ranks 22nd in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Florida is 58,664 sq mi (151,939 sq km), of which land takes up 54,153 sq mi (140,256 sq km) and inland water, 4,511 sq mi (11,683 sq km). Florida extends 361 mi (581 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 447 mi (719 km). The state comprises a peninsula surrounded by ocean on three sides, with a panhandle of land in the NW.

Florida is bordered on the N by Alabama and Georgia (with the line in the NE formed by the St. Mary’s River); on the E by the Atlantic Ocean; on the S by the Straits of Florida; and on the W by the Gulf of Mexico and Alabama (separated by the Perdido River).

Offshore islands include the Florida Keys, extending from the state’s southern tip into the Gulf of Mexico. The total boundary length of Florida is 1,799 mi (2,895 km). The state’s geographic center is in Hernando County, 12 mi (19 km) NNW of Brooksville.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Florida is a huge plateau, much of it barely above sea level. The highest point in the state is believed to be a hilltop in the panhandle, 345 ft (105 m) above sea level, near the city of Lakewood, in Walton County. The lowest point is at sea level at the Atlantic Ocean. The mean elevation is about 100 ft (31 m). No point in the state is more than 70 mi (113 km) from saltwater.

Most of the panhandle region is gently rolling country, much like that of southern Georgia and Alabama, except that large swampy areas cut in from the Gulf coast. Peninsular Florida, which contains extensive swampland, has a relatively elevated central spine of rolling country, dotted with lakes and springs. Its east coast is shielded from the Atlantic by a string of sandbars. The west coast is cut by numerous bays and inlets, and near its southern tip are

the Ten Thousand Islands, a mass of mostly tiny mangrove-covered islets. Southwest of the peninsula lies Key West, which, at 24°33’N, is the southernmost point of the US mainland.

Almost all the southeastern peninsula and the entire southern end are covered by the Everglades, the world’s largest sawgrass swamp, with an area of approximately 5,000 sq mi (13,000 sq km). The Everglades is, in a sense, a huge river, in which water flows south–southwest from Lake Okeechobee to Florida Bay. No point in the Everglades is more than 7 ft (2 m) above sea level. Its surface is largely submerged during the rainy season, April to November, and becomes a muddy expanse in the dry months. Slight elevations, known as hammocks, support clumps of cypress and the only remaining stand of mahogany in the continental United States. To the west and north of the Everglades is Big Cypress Swamp, covering about 2,400 sq mi (6,200 sq km), which contains far less surface water.

Lake Okeechobee, in south-central Florida, is the largest of the state’s approximately 30,000 lakes, ponds, and sinks. With a surface area of about 700 sq mi (1,800 sq km), it is the fourth-largest natural lake located entirely within the United States. Like all of Florida’s lakes, it is extremely shallow, having a maximum depth of 15 ft (5 m), and was formed through the action of groundwater and rainfall in dissolving portions of the thick limestone layer that underlies Florida’s sandy soil. The state’s numerous underground streams and caverns were created in a similar manner. Because of the high water table, most of the caverns are filled, but some spectacular examples thick with stalactites can be seen in Florida Caverns State Park, near Marianna. More than 200 natural springs send up some 7 billion gallons of groundwater per day through cracks in the limestone. Silver Springs, near Ocala in north-central Florida, has the largest average flow of all inland springs, 823 cu ft (23 cu m) per second.

Florida has more than 1,700 rivers, streams, and creeks. The longest river is the St. Johns, which empties into the Atlantic 19 mi

(42 km) east of Jacksonville: estimates of its length range from 273 to 318 mi (439 to 512 km), an exact figure being elusive because of the swampy nature of the headwaters. Other major rivers are the Suwannee, which flows south from Georgia for 177 mi (285 km) through Florida and empties into the Gulf of Mexico; and the Apalachicola, formed by the Flint and Chattahoochee rivers at the Florida-Georgia border, and flowing southward across the panhandle for 94 mi (151 km) to the Gulf. Jim Woodruff Lock and Dam is located on the Apalachicola about 1,000 ft (300 m) below the confluence of the two feeder rivers. Completed in 1957, the dam created Lake Seminole, most of which is in Georgia.

More than 4,500 islands ring the mainland. Best known are the Florida Keys, of which Key Largo, about 29 mi (47 km) long and less than 2 mi (3 km) wide, is the largest. Key West, less than 4 mi (6 km) long and 2 mi (3 km) wide is a popular resort, and the westernmost.

For much of the geological history of the United States, Florida was under water. During this time, the shells of countless millions of sea animals decayed to form the thick layers of limestone that now blanket the state. The peninsula rose above sea level perhaps 20 million years ago. Even then, the southern portion remained largely submerged, until the buildup of coral and sand around its rim blocked out the sea, leaving dense marine vegetation to decay and form the peaty soil of the present-day Everglades.

3 CLIMATE

A mild, sunny climate is one of Florida's most important natural resources, making it a major tourist center and a retirement home for millions of transplanted northerners. Average annual temperatures range from 65° to 70°F (18° to 21°C) in the north, and from 74° to 77°F (23° to 25°C) in the southern peninsula and on the Keys. At Jacksonville, the average annual temperature is 69°F (20°C); the average low is 58°F (14°C), the average high 79°F (26°C). At Miami, the annual average is 76°F (24°C), with a low of 69°F (21°C) and a high of 83°F (28°C). Key West has the highest annual average temperature in the United States, at 78°F (25°C). The record high temperature, 109°F (43°C), was registered at Monticello on 29 June 1931; the record low, -2°F (-19°C), at Tallahassee on 13 February 1899.

Florida's proximity to the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico, and the state's many inland lakes and ponds, together account for the high humidity and generally abundant rainfall, although precipitation can vary greatly from year to year and serious droughts have occurred. At Jacksonville, the average annual precipitation (1971–2000) was 52.3 in (132.8 cm), with an average of 116 days of precipitation a year. At Miami during the same period, precipitation averaged 58.5 in (148.6 cm), with 130 rainy days a year. Rainfall is unevenly distributed throughout the year, more than half generally occurring from June through September; periods of extremely heavy rainfall are common. The highest 24-hour total ever recorded in the United States, 38.7 in (98.3 cm), fell at Yanketown, west of Ocala on the Gulf coast, on 5–6 September 1950. Despite the high annual precipitation rate, the state also receives abundant sunshine with about 63% of the maximum possible at Jacksonville, and 70% at Miami. Snow is virtually unheard of in southern Florida but does fall on rare occasions in the panhandle and the northern peninsula.

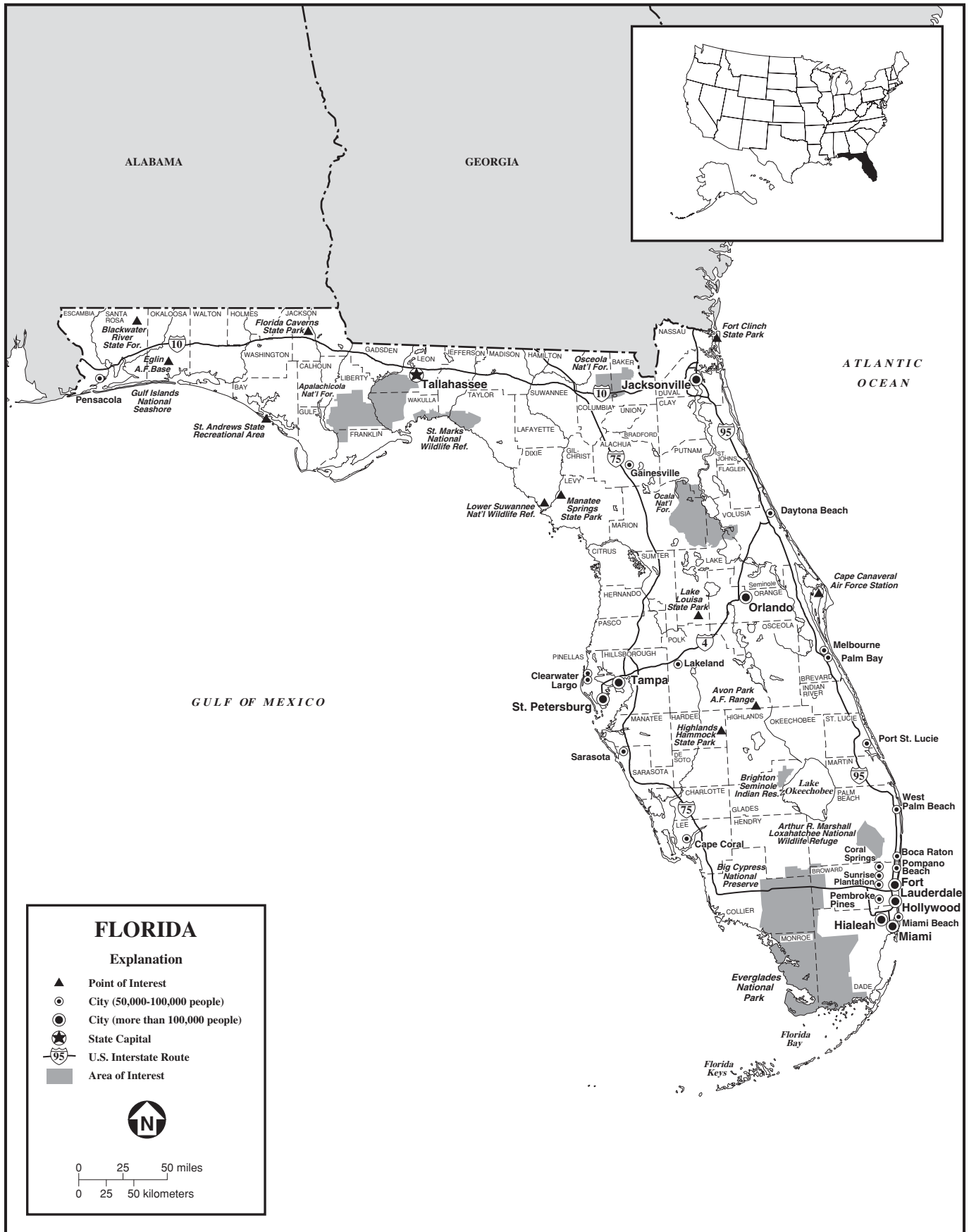
Winds are generally from the east and southeast in the southern peninsula; in northern Florida, winds blow from the north in winter, bringing cold snaps, and from the south in summer. Average wind velocities are 7.9 mph (12.7 km/hr) at Jacksonville and 9.2 mph (14.8 km/hr) at Miami. Florida's long coastline makes it highly vulnerable to hurricanes and tropical storms, which may approach from either the Atlantic or the Gulf coast, bringing winds of up to 150 mph (240 km/hr). On 23–24 August 1992, Hurricane Andrew caused over \$10 billion in damage in Florida. The 2005 hurricane season had devastating effects on various regions in Florida. On July 10, Hurricane Dennis made landfall near Pensacola as a Category 3 storm, causing flood damage and power outages for about 400,000 residents. On 26 August 2005, Hurricane Katrina made landfall near Miami as a Category 1 storm, causing extensive damage from wind and flooding and power outages for about 1.3 million. As of early 2006, there were at least 11 related fatalities reported in Florida as a result of this storm. Two months later, Hurricane Wilma made landfall near Naples on October 25 2005 as a Category 3 storm. Wilma caused at least six fatalities in Florida and power outages for another 6 million people, as well as flooding and wind damage. As of early 2006, the estimated cost of damage from all these storms was over \$2 billion dollars for the state.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Generally, Florida has seven floral zones: flatwoods, scrublands, grassy swamps, savannas, salt marshes, hardwood forests (hammocks), and pinelands. Flatwoods consist of open forests and an abundance of flowers, including more than 60 varieties of orchid. Small sand pines are common in the scrublands; other trees here are the saw palmetto, blackjack, and water oak. The savannas of central Florida support water lettuce, American lotus, and water hyacinth. North Florida's flora includes longleaf and other pines, oaks, and cypresses; one giant Seminole cypress is thought to be 3,500 years old. The state is known for its wide variety of palms, but only 15 are native, and more than 100 have been introduced; common types include royal and coconut. Although pine has the most commercial importance, dense mangrove thickets grow along the lower coastal regions, and northern hardwood forests include varieties of rattan, magnolia, and oak. Numerous rare plants have been introduced, among them bougainvillea and oleander. All species of cacti and orchids are regarded as threatened, as are most types of ferns and palms.

Florida once claimed more than 80 land mammals. The white-tailed deer, wild hog, and gray fox can still be found in the wild; such small mammals as the raccoon, eastern gray and fox squirrels, and cottontail and swamp rabbits remain common. Florida's bird population includes many resident and migratory species. The mockingbird was named the state bird in 1927; among game birds are the bobwhite quail, wild turkey, and at least 30 duck species. Several varieties of heron are found, as well as coastal birds such as gulls, pelicans, and frigates. The Arctic tern stops in Florida during its remarkable annual migration between the North and South poles.

Common Florida reptiles are the diamondback rattler and various water snakes. Turtle species include mud, green, and loggerhead, and various lizards abound. More than 300 native butterflies have been identified. The peninsula is famous for its marine life:



scores of freshwater and saltwater fish, rays, shrimps, live coral reefs, and marine worms.

Everglades National Park hosts a rich array of plant and animal species, including over 300 species of migratory birds, over 1,000 species of seed-bearing plants and over 120 tree species. There have been at least 25 orchid species found in the area. Also noted are 25 species of terrestrial mammals, 4 salamander species, 6 kinds of lizards, 10 land and freshwater turtle species, 12 frog species, and 23 snake species. The Everglades is the only location in the world to serve as home to both the American alligator and the American crocodile. Pelican Island serves as a nesting ground for at least 10 species of birds (about 800 nesting pairs per year) and supports 11 threatened or endangered species, including the manatee. Okefenokee Swamp (which extends into Georgia) supports 233 bird species, 48 mammal species, 66 reptile species, 37 amphibian species, and 36 fish species. One of the largest US populations of the American alligator can be found there as well. All of Florida's lands have been declared sanctuaries for the bald eagle, of which Florida has about 350 pair (second only to Alaska among the 50 states).

In April 2006, a total of 108 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 54 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 54 plant species. The state's unusually long list of threatened and endangered wildlife included the American crocodile, shortnose sturgeon, six species of sea turtle, red-cockaded woodpecker, Florida panther, key deer, West Indian (Florida) manatee, six species of mouse, Key Largo woodrat, Everglade snail kite, two species of sparrow, Atlantic salt marsh snake, eastern indigo snake, Okaloosa darter, Stock Island tree snail, and Schaus swallowtail butterfly.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Throughout the 20th century, a rapidly growing population, the expansion of agriculture, and the exploitation of such resources as timber and minerals have put severe pressure on Florida's natural environment.

The state agency principally responsible for safeguarding the environment is the Department of Environmental Protection (DEP), created in 1993 by the merger of the Departments of Natural Resources and Environmental Regulation. Its duties include implementing state pollution control laws and improving water-resource management. The department oversees and coordinates the activities of the state's five water-management districts, which have planning and regulatory responsibilities. The department also protects the state's coastal and marine resources. Its Division of State Lands acquires environmentally endangered tracts of land in what has been called the nation's largest environmental land-buying program. More than 1.2 million acres of environmentally important lands have been purchased. The department administers state parks and wilderness lands as well.

The Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services' Division of Forestry manages four state forests plus the Talquin State Lands. The Game and Fresh Water Fish Commission manages nature preserves and regulates hunting and fishing.

Growth, contamination of groundwater, and control of stormwater (nonpoint sources) are the state's most serious environmental problems. Groundwater supplies 90% of the drinking water in

the state, as well as 8.2% of industry's needs and 53% of agricultural uses. Groundwater, surface water, and soil contamination have been found across the state. Among the major contaminants were the pesticides ethylene dibromide (2,300 wells statewide) and other chemicals (about 1,000 additional wells). The state's program to clean groundwater contaminated by leaking underground storage tanks is one of the nation's largest and pioneered the pattern followed by many other states. Florida's groundwater quality standards are among the most stringent in the nation.

Contamination of groundwater is not the state's only water problem. The steadily increasing demand for water for both residential and farm use has reduced the subterranean runoff of fresh water into the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico. As a result, saltwater from these bodies has begun seeping into the layers of porous limestone that hold Florida's reserves of fresh water. This problem has been aggravated in some areas by the cutting of numerous inlets by developers of coastal property.

The DEP and South Florida Water Management District are undertaking, with various federal agencies, a massive restoration program for the Kissimmee River, Lake Okeechobee, the Everglades, and Florida Bay. This undertaking resulted from the settlement of a lawsuit brought by the federal government. The restoration effort includes: rechannelization of the Kissimmee River canal to restore its floodplains and prevent water pollution from entering Lake Okeechobee; other measures to reduce pollutants in the lake caused by agricultural operations around its edges; creation of large stormwater treatment areas within the Everglades to treat nutrient-rich agricultural waters that are upsetting the ecological balance of the Everglades; and hydrological corrections to improve water delivery to the Everglades and Florida Bay.

In 1960, the only undersea park in the United States, the John Pennkamp Coral Reef State Park, was established in a 75-sq mi (194-sq km) sector off the Atlantic coast of Key Largo, in an effort to protect a portion of the beautiful reefs, rich in tropical fish and other marine life, that adjoin the Keys. Untreated sewage from the Miami area, runoff water polluted by pesticides and other chemicals, dredging associated with coastal development, and the removal of countless pieces of live coral by growing numbers of tourists and souvenir dealers have severely damaged large areas of the reefs. However, most of the Keys is now a National Marine Sanctuary and efforts are being made to improve water quality.

Florida is home to three Ramsar Wetlands of International Importance. The Okefenokee Swamp (which extends into Georgia) was designated in 1986; it is the second largest wetland in the nation. The site is federally owned and managed, in part, under the Okefenokee Wilderness Act of 1974. Everglades National Park was designated in 1987 as an important nesting, staging, and wintering bird habitat. The park was also designated as a UNESCO Man and Biosphere Reserve in 1976 and as a World Heritage Site in 1979. Pelican Island National Wildlife Refuge, located in the Indian River Lagoon along the Atlantic Coast, was designated by Ramsar in 1993. This site has shared ownership between the state and federal government.

In 2003, the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 598 hazardous waste sites in Florida, 50 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including 4 military sites. Florida ranks sixth in the nation for the most National Priority List sites. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$8 million through

the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Also in 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included over \$37.9 million for water-quality control and protection projects. A federal research grant of \$992,000 was awarded to the Florida Department of Citrus to pursue improved harvesting techniques. In 2003, 126.5 million lb of toxic chemicals were released by the state.

6 POPULATION

Florida, the most populous state in the southeastern United States, is also one of the fastest growing of the 50 states. In 1960, it was the 10th most populous state; by 1980, it ranked 7th with a population of 9,746,324; and by 1990, it ranked 4th, with a population of 12,937,926. Between 1990 and 2000, Florida had the third-largest population gain among the states, surpassed only by California and Texas. In that decade, Florida's population grew from 12,937,926 to 15,982,378, an increase of 23.5% (also one of the largest percentage gains in the country). In 2005, Florida had the fourth-largest population of all 50 states, with an estimated total of 17,789,864, an 11.3% increase since 2000. Florida is expected to have a population of 21.2 million by 2015 and 25.9 million by 2025.

The first US census to include Florida, in 1830, recorded a total population of only 34,730. By 1860, on the eve of the Civil War, the population had more than quadrupled, to 140,424 people; about 80% of them lived in the state's northern rim, where cotton and sugarcane plantations flourished. Newcomers migrating southward in the late 19th century through the early 1920s sharply increased the state's population; the 1930 census was the first in which the state passed the million mark. Migration from other states, especially of retirees, caused a population explosion in the post-World War II period, with much of the increase occurring along the south Atlantic coast. From 1950 to 1960, Florida's population increased 79%, the fastest rate of all the states. From 1960 to 1970, the growth rate was 37%; from 1970 to 1980, 44%; from 1980 to 1990, 33%; and from 1990 to 1998, 15.3%.

In 2004, the average population density was 322.7 per sq mi, the eighth highest in the nation. The median age of the population was 39.3, the fifth-highest median of the 50 states. Nearly 23% of the population was under age 18, while over 16.8% of was 65 years of age or older.

The most populous city in Florida is Jacksonville, the 13th-largest city in the United States in 2004. Its population in that year was estimated at 777,704. Miami is Florida's second-largest city, with an estimated 2004 population of 379,724. The Miami-Ft. Lauderdale-Miami Beach metropolitan area, the state's largest metropolitan region, had an estimated 5,361,723 residents in 2004; the Jacksonville metropolitan area's population was 1,225,381. Florida's second-largest metropolitan area was Tampa-St. Petersburg-Clearwater, with an estimated 2,587,967 residents; the city of Tampa had an estimated 321,772 people, and St. Petersburg had 249,090. Ft. Lauderdale had an estimated population of 164,578. Tallahassee, the state capital, had a population of 156,612.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Florida's population consists mainly of whites of northern European stock, blacks, and Hispanics. European immigrants came primarily from Germany and the United Kingdom. Germans were

particularly important in the development of the citrus fruit industry. Since World War II, the development of southern Florida as a haven for retired northerners has added new population elements to the state, a trend augmented by the presence of numerous military bases.

Florida's foreign-born population numbered 2,670,828 in 2000, or 16.7% of the state total, the fourth-highest percentage of foreign born in the nation. The largest group of first- and second-generation residents are Cubans, who represented 5.2% of Florida's population in 2000. There were 2,682,715 Hispanics and Latinos in 2000, including 833,120 Cubans (more than 100,000 of whom arrived on Florida shores as refugees in 1980), 482,027 Puerto Ricans, and 363,925 Mexicans. In 2004, 19% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin.

The nonwhite population, as reported in 2000, was 3,517,349, or 12% of the total state population. Black-white relations in the 20th century were tense. There were race riots following World War I, and the Ku Klux Klan was openly active until World War II. One of the worst race riots in US history devastated black areas of Miami in the spring of 1980. The black population was estimated at 2,335,505 as of 2000, the fourth-largest in the nation. In 2004, 15.7% of the population was black.

Florida's indigenous inhabitants resisted encroachment from settlers longer and more militantly than tribes in other seaboard states. The leaders in resistance were the Seminole, most of whom by the 1850s had been killed or removed to other states, had fled to the Florida swamplands, or had been assimilated as small farmers. No peace treaty was signed with the Seminole until 1934, following the Indian Reorganization Act that attempted to establish tribal integrity and self-government for Indian nations. In 1939, the Native American population was reported as only 600, but the 2000 census reported a figure of 53,541 Native Americans. The difference is too large to be explained by natural increase, and there is no evidence of marked in-migration; presumably, then, it reflects a growing consciousness of Indian identity. There are seven Indian reservations: five for the Seminole—Big Cypress, Hollywood, Brighton, Immokalee, and Tampa, and two for the Miccosuckee—one on the Tamiami Trail and one north of Alligator Alley near Big Cypress. In 2004, 0.4% of the population was American Indian.

As of 2000 Florida had an Asian population of 266,256 (eighth largest in the nation), or 1.7% of the total state population. That figure had increased to 2% of the population by 2004. The number of Pacific Islanders was estimated at 8,625. In 2004, 0.1% of the population was composed of Pacific Islanders. In 2000 there were 54,310 Filipinos, 46,368 Chinese, 70,740 Asian Indians (up from 22,240 in 1990), 33,190 Vietnamese (up from 14,586 in 1990), 10,897 Japanese, 19,139 Koreans, and 2,131 native Hawaiians. In 2004, 1.2% of the population reported two or more races of origin.

8 LANGUAGES

Spanish and English settlers found what is now Florida inhabited by Indians recently separated from the Muskogean Creeks, who, with the addition of escaped black slaves and remnants of the Apalachee Indians of the panhandle, later became known as the Seminole Indians. Although the bulk of the Seminole were removed to Indian Territory in the 1840s, enough remained to pro-

Florida—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Alachua	Gainesville	901	223,852	Lake	Tavares	954	277,035
Baker	MacClenny	585	24,569	Lee	Ft. Myers	803	544,758
Bay	Panama City	758	161,558	Leon	Tallahassee	676	245,756
Bradford	Starke	293	28,118	Levy	Bronson	1,100	37,998
Brevard	Titusville	995	531,250	Liberty	Bristol	837	7,773
Broward	Ft. Lauderdale	1,211	1,777,638	Madison	Madison	710	19,092
Calhoun	Blountstown	568	13,290	Manatee	Bradenton	747	306,779
Charlotte	Punta Gorda	690	157,536	Marion	Ocala	1,610	303,442
Citrus	Inverness	629	134,370	Martin	Stuart	555	139,728
Clay	Green Cove Springs	592	171,095	Monroe	Key West	1,034	76,329
Collier	East Naples	1,994	307,242	Nassau	Fernandina Beach	649	64,746
Columbia	Lake City	796	64,040	Okaloosa	Crestview	936	182,172
Miami-Dade	Miami	1,955	2,376,014	Okeechobee	Okeechobee	770	39,836
DeSoto	Arcadia	636	35,406	Orange	Orlando	910	1,023,023
Dixie	Cross City	701	14,647	Osceola	Kissimmee	1,350	231,578
Duval	Jacksonville	776	826,436	Palm Beach	West Palm Beach	1,993	1,268,548
Escambia	Pensacola	660	296,772	Pasco	Dade City	738	429,065
Flagler	Bunnell	491	76,410	Pinellas	Clearwater	280	928,032
Franklin	Apalachicola	545	10,177	Polk	Bartow	1,823	542,912
Gadsden	Quincy	518	46,428	Putnam	Palatka	733	73,568
Gilchrist	Trenton	354	16,402	St. Johns	St. Augustine	617	161,525
Glades	Moore Haven	763	11,252	St. Lucie	Ft. Pierce	581	241,305
Gulf	Port St. Joe	559	13,975	Santa Rosa	Milton	1,024	143,105
Hamilton	Jasper	517	13,983	Sarasota	Sarasota	573	366,256
Hardee	Wauchula	637	28,286	Seminole	Sanford	298	401,619
Hendry	La Belle	1,163	39,561	Sumter	Bushnell	561	64,182
Hernando	Brooksville	478	158,409	Suwannee	Live Oak	690	38,624
Highlands	Sebring	1,029	95,496	Taylor	Perry	1,058	19,622
Hillsborough	Tampa	1,053	1,132,152	Union	Lake Butler	246	14,916
Holmes	Bonifay	488	19,264	Volusia	DeLand	1,113	490,055
Indian River	Vero Beach	497	128,594	Wakulla	Crawfordville	601	28,212
Jackson	Marianna	942	48,985	Walton	De Funiak Springs	1,066	50,324
Jefferson	Monticello	609	14,490	Washington	Chipley	590	22,299
Lafayette	Mayo	545	7,953	TOTALS		54,154	17,789,864

vide the basis of the present population. Florida has such Indian place-names as Okeechobee, Apalachicola, Kissimmee, Sarasota, Pensacola, and Hialeah.

The rapid population change that has occurred in Florida since World War II makes accurate statements about the language difficult. Massive migration from the North Central and North Atlantic areas, including a large number of speakers of Yiddish, has materially affected the previously rather uniform Southern speech of much of the state. Borrowing from the Spanish of the expanding number of Cubans and Puerto Ricans in the Miami area has had a further effect.

Representative words in the Southern speech of most native-born Floridians are *light bread* (white bread), *pallet* (temporary bed on the floor), *fairing off* (clearing up), *serenade* (shivaree), *tote* (carry), *snap beans* (green beans); *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), *crocus sack* (burlap bag), *pullybone* (wishbone), and *comforter* (tied and filled bedcover), especially in south Florida. Largely limited to the northern half of the state are *pinder* (peanut), *croker sack* instead of *crocus sack*, *fire dogs* (andirons); also, in the Tampa Bay area, *comfort* (tied and filled bedcover), and, in the panhandle, *whirlygig* (merry-go-round). Some north-Florida terms are clearly imported from Georgia: *mutton corn* (green corn), *light-wood* (kindling), and *co-wench!* (a call to cows).

In 2000, 11,569,739 Floridians, representing 76.9% of the resident population five years old and older, spoke only English at home, down from 82.7% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	15,043,603	100.0
Speak only English	11,569,739	76.9
Speak a language other than English	3,473,864	23.1
Speak a language other than English	3,473,864	23.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	2,476,528	16.5
French Creole	208,487	1.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	129,118	0.9
German	89,656	0.6
Italian	67,257	0.4
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	55,014	0.4
Tagalog	38,442	0.3
Chinese	35,071	0.2
Arabic	32,418	0.2
Vietnamese	30,962	0.2
Polish	24,850	0.2
Greek	23,041	0.2
Russian	19,729	0.1
Other Indo-European languages	18,473	0.1
Yiddish	18,225	0.1
Korean	16,702	0.1
Hebrew	15,360	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Dominican and Franciscan friars, intent on converting the Indians, arrived with the Spanish conquistadors and settlers in the

1500s, and for some 200 years Florida's white population was overwhelmingly Catholic. Protestant colonists from Britain arrived in the late 1700s, and significant influx of Protestant settlers from the southern United States followed in the early 1800s. Sephardic Jews from the Carolinas also moved into Florida around this time, although the largest influx of Jews has occurred during the 20th century.

The Roman Catholic Church is the largest religious organization, with 2,316,652 adherents in about 460 parishes in 2004. The next largest group is the Southern Baptist Convention with 1,292,097 adherents in 2,054 congregations in 2000; in 2002 there were 37,234 newly baptized members. Judaism claimed 628,485 adherents in 2000. In 2003, the United Methodist Church reported 477,758 adherents from all of the state's conferences (which include some congregations from Alabama). In 2000, the Assemblies of God had 189,387 members; Presbyterian Church USA, 157,751; and Episcopalians, 152,526. The same year, about 58.9% of the population did not specify affiliation with any religious organization.

Orlando is home to the world headquarters for Campus Crusade For Christ International, an interdenominational Christian evangelical ministry.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Railroad building in the 19th century opened southern Florida to tourism and commerce. During the 20th century, long-distance passenger trains and, more recently, planes and automobiles have brought millions of visitors to the state each year.

The first operating railway in Florida was the St. Joseph Railroad, which inaugurated service on an 8-mi (13-km) track between St. Joseph Bay and Lake Wimico on 14 April 1836, using mules to pull the train. The railroad soon put into operation the state's first steam locomotive on 5 September 1836. By the time the Civil War broke out, railroads connected most of northern Florida's major towns, but the rapid expansion of the state's railroad system, and with it the development of southern Florida, awaited two late-19th-century entrepreneurs: Henry B. Plant; and Henry M. Flagler. Plant's South Florida Railroad extended service to Tampa in 1884. Flagler consolidated a number of small lines in the 1880s into the Florida East Coast Railway with service as far south as Daytona. He then extended service down the Atlantic coast, reaching Palm Beach in 1894, Miami in 1896, and, after construction of an extensive series of bridges, Key West in 1912. The "overseas" railway down the Keys was abandoned in 1935 after a hurricane severely damaged the line.

In 2003, there was a total of 2,956 rail mi (4,759 km) of track in Florida, operated by 14 railroads. In the same year, nonmetallic minerals were the top commodities (by weight) shipped by rail from and to the state. CSX Transportation and Norfolk Southern were the state's operating Class I railroads in 2003, with about 1,896 route mi (3,052 km) of Class I track between them. As of 2006, Amtrak provided passenger rail service to 24 Florida stations.

On 7 June 1979, construction began on a surface rail system for Miami and surrounding areas of Dade County. The first stage of this \$1.1 billion mass transit system (known as Metrorail), a 20.5-mi (33-km) line serving Hialeah, Miami International Airport, downtown Miami, and areas to the south, was opened on 20 May 1984.

In 2004, Florida had 119,525 mi (192,435 km) of public roads. The Florida Turnpike's 265-mi (426-km) main section extends from Wildwood in north-central Florida to Ft. Pierce on the Atlantic coast and then south to Miami. A 50-mi (80-km) extension runs between Miramar and Homestead. The Overseas Highway down the Keys, including the famous Seven Mile Bridge (which is actually 35,716 feet, or 10,886 meters—6.8 mi—in length), is part of the state highway system. In 1983, 37 of the 44 bridges connecting the Florida Keys were replaced at a cost of \$189 million.

Florida in 2004 had some 15.205 million registered motor vehicles. As of that same year, 13,146,357 people held active Florida drivers' licenses.

Inland waterways in Florida include the southernmost section of the Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway and the easternmost section of the Gulf Intracoastal Waterway, encompassing approximately 1,200 navigable mi (1,931 km) of federally maintained coastal channels for commercial vessels and pleasure craft. Construction began on 27 February 1964 on a barge canal across northern Florida to connect the two intracoastal systems. However, work was ordered stopped by President Richard Nixon on 19 January 1971 because of the threat the canal posed to flora and fauna in the surrounding area.

Florida has several commercially important ports. By far the largest in terms of gross tonnage is Tampa, which handled over 48.289 million tons of cargo in 2004, ranking it the 16th-busiest port in the United States. Other major ports and their 2004 tonnage handled include: Port Everglades in Ft. Lauderdale, 24.899 million tons; Jacksonville, 21.451 million tons; Port Manatee, 4.428 million tons; Miami, 9.754 million tons; Panama City, 2.751 million tons; Port Canaveral, 4.629 million tons; and Palm Beach, 4.146 million tons. In 2004, Florida had 1,540 mi (2,479 km) of navigable waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 131.570 million tons.

In 2005, Florida had a total of 832 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 491 airports, 286 heliports, 14 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 41 seaplane bases. In addition to civil aviation activity, Florida had more than 20 military airfields. Florida's busiest airport is Orlando International with a total of 15,270,347 enplanements in 2004, making it the 14th-busiest airport in the United States. Other major airports in the state include Miami International with 14,515,591 enplanements in 2004 (15th-busiest in the United States); Tampa International with 8,436,025 enplanements in 2004 (28th-busiest in the United States); Ft. Lauderdale-Hollywood International with 10,040,598 enplanements in 2004 (24th-busiest in the United States); and Fort Myers-Southwest Florida International with 3,320,019 enplanements in 2004 (50th-busiest in the United States).

11 HISTORY

American Indians entered Florida from the north 10,000 to 12,000 years ago, and had reached the end of the peninsula by 1400 BC. As they grew in number, they developed more complex economic and social organization. In northeastern Florida and nearby Georgia, they apparently invented pottery independently about 2000

BC, some 800 years earlier than any other Indian group in North America.

In north Florida, an agricultural and hunting economy organized around village life was typical by this time. South of Tampa Bay and Cape Canaveral, Indians lived mostly along the coast and relied heavily on wild plants and on a large variety of aquatic and land animals for meat. The southern groups did not practice agriculture until about 450 BC, when they began to plant corn in villages around Lake Okeechobee.

As they spread over Florida and adjusted to widely different local conditions, the Indians fell into six main divisions, with numerous subgroups and distinctive cultural traits. When Europeans arrived in the early 16th century, they found nearly 100,000 Indians: 25,000 Apalachee around Tallahassee; 40,000 Timucua in the northeast; on Tampa Bay, 7,000 Tocobaga; on the southwest coast and around Lake Okeechobee, 20,000 Calusa; on the lower southeast coast, 5,000 Tequesta; and in the Jupiter area, 2,000 Ais and Jeaga.

The Spanish who began arriving in the 16th century found the Indians in upper Florida to be relatively tractable, but those in the lower peninsula remained uniformly hostile and resisted to the last. The Spaniards sought to convert the Indians to Christianity and settle them around missions to grow food, to supply labor, and to help defend the province. By 1674, 70 Franciscan friars were working in dozens of missions and stations in a line running west from St. Augustine and north along the sea island coast to Carolina.

The impact of the Europeans on the Indian population was, on the whole, disastrous. Indians died of European-introduced diseases, were killed in wars with whites or with other Indians, or moved away. Raids from South Carolina by the Creeks, abetted by the British, between 1702 and 1708 completely destroyed the missions. When the Spanish departed Florida in 1763, the remaining 300 of the original 100,000 Indians left with them.

As early as 1750, however, small groups of Creek tribes from Georgia and Alabama had begun to move into the north Florida area vacated by the first Indian groups. Called Seminole, the Creek word for runaway or refugee, these Indians did not then constitute a tribe and had no common government or leadership until resistance to white plans to resettle them brought them together. They numbered only 5,000 when Florida became part of the United States.

Pressures on the US president and Congress to remove the Seminole intensified after runaway black slaves began seeking refuge with the Indians. In 1823, the Seminole accepted a reservation north of Lake Okeechobee. Nine years later, an Indian delegation signed a document pledging the Seminole to move within three years to lands in present-day Oklahoma. The Indians' subsequent resistance to removal resulted in the longest and most costly of Indian wars, the Seminole War of 1835–42. The warfare and the Indians' subsequent forced migration left fewer than 300 Seminole in Florida.

The history of the twice-repeated annihilation of Florida Indians is, at the same time, the history of white settlers' rise to power. After Christopher Columbus reached the New World at Hispaniola in 1492, the Caribbean islands became the base for wider searches, one of which brought Juan Ponce de León to Florida. Sailing from Puerto Rico in search of the fabled island of Bimini,

he sighted Florida on 27 March 1513 and reached the coast a week later. Ponce de León claimed the land for Spain and named it La Florida, for Pascua Florida, the Easter festival of flowers; sailing southward around Florida, he may have traveled as far as Apalachicola, on the shore of the panhandle. In 1521, he returned to found a colony at Charlotte Harbor, on the lower Gulf coast, but the Indians fought the settlers. After Ponce de León was seriously wounded, the expedition sailed for Cuba, where he died the same year.

Other Spaniards seeking treasure and lands to govern, followed. Pánfilo de Narváez arrived in 1528, landing near Tampa Bay and marching inland and northward to Tallahassee. Hernando de Soto, a rich and famous associate of Francisco Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, found many men eager to try the same with him in Florida. Appointed governor of Cuba and *adelantado* (loosely, conqueror) of Florida, he followed the route of Narváez to Tallahassee in 1539, finding some food but no promise of wealth. In 1559, Spain sought to establish a settlement on Pensacola Bay, but it was abandoned at the end of two years.

In 1562, Jean Ribault, with a small expedition of French Huguenots, arrived at the St. Johns River, east of present-day Jacksonville, and claimed Florida for France. Another group of French Huguenot settlers built Ft. Caroline, 5 mi (8 km) upriver, two years later. In the summer of 1565, Ribault brought in naval reinforcements, prepared to defend the French claim against the Spaniards, who had sent Pedro Menéndez de Avilés to find and oust the intruders. Menéndez selected St. Augustine as a base, landing on 28 August, and with the aid of a storm withstood the French effort to destroy him. He then marched overland to take Ft. Caroline by surprise, killing most of the occupants and later captured Ribault and his shipwrecked men, most of whom he slaughtered. St. Augustine, the first permanent European settlement in the United States, served primarily, under Spanish rule, as a military outpost, maintained to protect the wealth of New Spain. The Spanish established a settlement at Pensacola in 1698, but it too remained only a small frontier garrison town. In 1763, when Spain ceded Florida to England in exchange for Cuba, about 3,000 Spaniards departed from St. Augusta and 800 from Pensacola, leaving Florida to the Seminole.

British Florida reached from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River and became two colonies, East and West Florida. Settlers established farms and plantations, traded with the Indians, and moved steadily toward economic and political self-sufficiency. These settlers did not join the American Revolution, but Florida was affected by the war nonetheless, as thousands of Loyalists poured into East Florida. In 1781, Spain attacked and captured Pensacola. Two years later, Britain ceded both Floridas back to Spain, whereupon most of the Loyalists left for the West Indies.

The second Spanish era was only nominally Spanish. English influence remained strong, and US penetration increased. Florida west of the Perdido River was taken over by the United States in 1810, as part of the Louisiana Purchase (1803). Meanwhile, renegade whites, runaway slaves, pirates, and political adventures operated almost at will.

Present-day Florida was ceded to the United States in 1821, in settlement of \$5 million in claims by US citizens against the Spanish government. At this time, General Andrew Jackson, who three years earlier had led a punitive expedition against the Seminole

and their British allies, came back to Florida as military governor. His main tasks were to receive the territory for the United States and to set up a civilian administration, which took office in 1822. William P. DuVal of Kentucky was named territorial governor, and a legislative council was subsequently elected. The new council met first in Pensacola and in St. Augustine, and then, in 1824, in the newly selected capital of Tallahassee, located in the wilderness of north-central Florida, from which the Indians had just been removed. Middle Florida, as it was called, rapidly became an area of slave-owning cotton plantations and was for several decades the fastest-growing part of the territory. The war to remove the Seminole halted the advance of frontier settlement, however, and the Panic of 1837 bankrupted the territorial government and the three banks whose notes it had guaranteed. Floridians drew up a state constitution at St. Joseph in 1838–39 but, being proslavery, had to wait until 1845 to enter the Union paired with the free state of Iowa.

In 1861, Florida, with only 140,000 people, about 40% of them blacks (mostly slaves), only 400 mi (644 km) of railroad, and no manufacturing, seceded from the Union and joined the Confederacy. Some 15,000 whites (one-third of whom died) served in the Confederate army, and 1,200 whites and almost as many blacks joined the Union army. Bitterness and some violence accompanied the Republican Reconstruction government in 1868–76. The conservative Bourbon Democrats then governed for the rest of the century. They encouraged railroad building and other forms of business, and they kept taxes low by limiting government services. Cotton production never recovered to prewar levels, but cattle raising, citrus and vegetable cultivation, forestry, phosphate mining, and, by late in the century, a growing tourist industry took up the slack.

The Spanish-American War in 1898, during which Tampa became the port of embarkation for an expedition to Cuba, stimulated the economy and advertised the state nationwide, not always favorably. Naval activity at Key West and Pensacola became feverish. Lakeland, Miami, Jacksonville, and Fernandina were briefly the sites of training camps.

In 1904, Napoleon Bonaparte Broward was elected governor on a moderately populist platform, which included a program to drain the Everglades lands which the state had received under the Swamp and Overflowed Lands Act of 1850. Drainage did lower water levels, and settlements grew around Lake Okeechobee, developments whose full environmental impact was recognized only much later. By the time Broward took office, Jacksonville had become the state's largest city, with Pensacola and Tampa not far behind, and Key West had dropped from first to fourth. During World War I, more than 42,030 Floridians were in uniform.

Boom, bust, and depression characterized the 1920s. Feverish land speculation brought hundreds of thousands of people to Florida in the first half of the decade. Cresting in 1925, the boom was already over in 1926, when a devastating hurricane struck Miami, burying all hope of recovery. Yet population jumped by more than 50% during the decade, and Miami rose from fourth to second place among Florida cities. Florida's choice of Republican Herbert Hoover over Al Smith in the 1928 presidential election reflected the Protestant and prohibitionist attitudes of most of the state voters at that time.

The 1930s were marked first by economic depression, then by recovery, new enterprise, and rapidly growing government activity. Bank and business failures, as well as defaults on city and county bond issues and on mortgage payments, produced growing economic distress. The state joined the federal government in assuming responsibility for relief and recovery. The legalization of pari-mutuel betting in 1931 created a new industry and a new tax source. The state's first paper mill opened in the same year, revolutionizing the forest industry. Private universities in Miami, Tampa, and Jacksonville were started during the Depression years.

The 1940s opened with recovery and optimism, arising from the stimulus of production for World War II, production that began well before the actual entry of the United States into the war. New army and navy installations and training programs brought business growth. After 1941, Florida seemed to become a vast military training school. The number of army and navy airfield flying schools increased from 5 to 45. Tourist facilities in all major cities became barracks, mess halls, and classrooms, with 70,000 rooms in Miami Beach alone being used to house troops in 1942. Families of thousands of trainees visited the state. Florida was on the eve of another boom.

First discovered but nearly last to be developed, Florida reached a rank of 27th in population only in 1940. Migration brought Florida's ranking to fourth in 1990, increasing its population to more than 12.8 million people. In 1986, Florida absorbed 1,000 arrivals a day. Until the early 1980s, many of those migrants were 65 years of age or over, swelling the proportion of senior citizens in Florida to 50% above the national average. In the mid-1980s, however, the preponderance of newcomers was somewhat younger, 25–44 years old. With an influx of younger residents, of family-rearing age, schools became overcrowded by the 1990s. Nevertheless, Florida is expected to double its 65 and older population between 2000 and 2030, meaning that one in every four residents will be age 65 and older in 2030 in Florida. Approximately 8% of the total US population will live in Florida by that date, which does not include all those holding second homes in Florida.

Newcomers have come in search of opportunities provided by Florida's growing and diversifying economy. Whereas the state once depended on the three industries (tourism, citrus, and construction) for its survival, military spending increased the presence of high-tech, banking, and service industries.

The management of growth in Florida dominated state politics through the second half of the century and promised to remain at the fore at least through the early 2000s. The state's low taxes combined with its rapid population growth to overburden the infrastructure. Roads, water supply, and sewer systems were pushed beyond capacity, posing real environmental threats. Development, both residential and commercial, eroded the state's natural beauty.

Efforts to reapportion Florida's 23 congressional districts and the state legislature's 40 Senate and 120 house seats were complicated by battles between blacks (holding steady at 14% of the population in 1999) and Hispanics over the number and character of minority districts. The absence of black state congressmen or senators, and the paucity of black officials at the state and local levels provoked demands for the creation of "safe districts" for blacks that thereby ensure their representation. Likewise Hispanics, whose numbers grew from 8.8% of the state population

in 1980 to 14% by 1999, called for Hispanic districts. However, in the 1990s, Florida's third congressional district, which had a majority of black voters, was declared unconstitutional and ordered redrawn by the US Supreme Court.

Racial and ethnic relations have been another central issue. Tensions between blacks and Hispanics led to violence in 1989 when a Hispanic police officer shot and killed a black motorcyclist who was speeding and driving erratically. Riots broke out in the predominantly black Overton section of Miami and continued for three days.

Miami was again the site of rioting in late April 2000, as some Cuban Americans took to the streets to protest the federal government's handling of the custody case of six-year-old Cuban refugee Elian Gonzalez. The child was the center of an international debacle after he was rescued offshore in November 1999; a fisherman found the boy clinging to a raft after the boat in which he and his mother escaped Cuba had capsized. His mother having died, Miami relatives claimed and cared for the boy while federal officials, including the US attorney general, the Immigration and Naturalization Service, and several courts, grappled with the problem of returning him to his Cuban father. The incident, which ended when the boy arrived back in Havana, remained a point of protest for Miami's Cuban American community, among whom the prevailing sentiment was that, for political reasons, the child should have remained in the states.

The state's crime level received nationwide attention in the early 1990s when a series of incidents claimed the lives of several foreign tourists. For most of the decade Florida held the unwelcome distinction of leading the nation in violent crime. Numbers began to decline, and in 1998, the rate of violent crime per 100,000 residents dropped below 1,000 (to 939), according to the Federal Bureau of Investigation. (That year New Mexico recorded 955 violent crimes per 100,000 residents, making it the most violent state in the nation.)

Tropical storms and hurricanes periodically strike Florida. In August 1992, Hurricane Andrew caused \$26.5 billion in damages in south Florida, primarily in and around Homestead. In October 1995, Hurricane Opal wrought an estimated \$3 billion in damage in the Panhandle, destroying marinas and shipyards. The 2004 hurricane season devastated Florida: four hurricanes—Charley, Frances, Ivan, and Jeanne—damaged 20% of Florida's homes, and 124 people died. In October 2005, Hurricane Wilma hit southern Florida, and millions of people were left without power.

In December 1998, Floridians mourned the death of Governor Lawton Chiles; the Democrat first rose to prominence in 1970 when he made a 1,000-mi (1,600-km) trek through the state as he successfully campaigned for the US Senate, earning him the nickname "Walkin' Lawton."

Florida became the center of national and international attention in the 7 November 2000 US presidential election. The race between Democratic vice president Al Gore and Republican challenger George W. Bush was extremely close, and on election night, Florida's 25 electoral college votes became the ones that would decide the election. In the early morning hours of 8 November, Gore called Bush to concede the election, but he subsequently retracted his concession when it became apparent that the vote was in question. Because the vote was so close, Florida's election officials began a mandatory recount. In addition to the automatic recount,

an investigation was launched into voting irregularities denying rights to minority voters.

Democrats requested hand recounts in four counties, but Bush called for an order banning them. The Florida Supreme Court intervened in the certification process run by the Florida Secretary of State, permitting hand recounts in Broward and Palm Beach counties and blocking certification until an appeal by Gore was heard. The United States 11th Circuit Court of Appeals refused Bush's request that it stop the hand recounts, and Miami-Dade county officials began a manual recount. Bush's lead was gradually reduced from the 537 votes certified on 26 November to 154 by adding votes from partial recounts in Miami-Dade and Palm Beach counties. When the Florida Supreme Court ordered a manual recount of 43,432 "under votes" from as many as 62 counties, the Bush campaign appealed to the United States Supreme Court to stop any vote recounts in Florida. On 9 December 2000, the US Supreme Court, divided 5–4, stepped in to order a stay of the Florida Supreme Court-ordered manual recounts, and on 12 December, it decided, in *Bush v. Gore*, that the Florida Supreme Court had erred in its decision to order manual vote recounts. On 13 December, Gore conceded the election to Bush, who became the nation's 43rd president after the electoral college votes cast on 18 December 2000 were tallied, including Florida's 25 votes.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Florida's first constitutional convention, which met from December 1838 to January 1839, drew up the document under which the state entered the Union in 1845. A second constitutional convention, meeting in 1861, adopted the ordinance of secession that joined Florida to the Confederacy. After the war, a new constitution was promulgated in 1865, but not until still another document was drawn up and ratified by the state—the Fourteenth Amendment to the US Constitution—was Florida readmitted to statehood in 1868. A fifth constitution was framed in 1885 and adopted the following year; extensively revised in 1968, this is the document under which the state is now governed. In 1998, Florida voters approved extensive revisions to the constitution; in 2002, voters approved a death penalty amendment, adding the death penalty to the constitution. In addition, in 2002, Florida voters approved several amendments: one requires the state to offer prekindergarten for four-year-olds by 2005; another, to reduce class size in schools by 2010; another animal rights measure protects pregnant pigs from unnecessary confinement; and another prohibits smoking in certain work environments. Overall, the constitution had been amended 104 times by January 2005.

The 1968 constitutional revision instituted annual (rather than biennial) regular sessions of the legislature, which consists of a 40-member Senate and a 120-member House of Representatives. Sessions begin the Tuesday after the first Monday of March and are limited to 60 calendar days. Senators serve four-year terms, with half the Senate being elected every two years; representatives serve two-year terms. All legislators must be at least 21 years old, and must have been residents of Florida the district for two years. The maximum length of a regular legislative session is 60 calendar days, unless it is extended by a three-fifths vote of each house. Special sessions may be called by the governor or by joint action of the presiding officers of the two houses (the president of the Sen-

ate and speaker of the House of Representatives). The legislative salary in 2004 was \$29,916.

The governor is elected for a four-year term; a two-term limit is in effect. The lieutenant governor is elected on the same ticket as the governor. An amendment adopted by voters in 1998, which took effect in 2002, merged the cabinet offices of treasurer and comptroller into one chief financial office. The other elected cabinet members include the attorney general and agriculture commissioner; the amendment eliminated the offices of secretary of state and education commissioner from the cabinet. State officials must be at least 30 years old, US citizens, and registered voters, and must have been residents of Florida for at least seven years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$120,171.

Passage of legislation requires a majority vote of those present and voting in both houses. A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if it is signed by the governor; should the governor take no action on it, it becomes law seven days after receipt if the legislature is still in session, or 15 days after presentation to the governor if the legislature has adjourned. The governor may veto legislation and, in general appropriations bills, may veto individual items. Gubernatorial vetoes may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected legislators in each house.

Amendments to the constitution may originate in three ways: by a joint resolution of the legislature passed by a three-fifths majority of the membership of each house; by action of a constitutional revision commission which, under the constitution, must be periodically convened; or by initiative petition (signed by 8% of the total votes cast in the state in the last election for presidential electors), which may call for a constitutional convention. A proposed amendment becomes part of the constitution if it receives a majority vote in a statewide election. One exception is that under the initiative procedure, an amendment for a new state tax or fee

not in effect as of 7 November 1994 requires a two-thirds majority of voters to become part of the constitution.

To vote in state elections, a person must be at least 18 years old, a US citizen, and a resident in the county of registration. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those judged by the court as mentally incapacitated.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Democratic and Republican parties are Florida's two principal political organizations. The former is the descendant of one of the state's first two political parties, the Jeffersonian Republican Democrats; this party, along with the Florida Whig Party, was organized shortly before statehood.

Florida's Republican Party was organized after the Civil War and dominated state politics until 1876, when the Democrats won control of the statehouse. Aided from 1889 to 1937 by a poll tax, which effectively disfranchised most of the state's then predominantly Republican black voters, the Democrats won every gubernatorial election but one from 1876 through 1962; the Prohibition Party candidate was victorious in 1916.

By the time Republican Claude R. Kirk Jr. won the governorship in 1966, Florida had already become, for national elections, a two-party state, although Democrats retained a sizable advantage in party registration. Beginning in the 1950s, many registered Democrats became "presidential Republicans," crossing party lines to give the state's electoral votes to Dwight D. Eisenhower in 1952 and 1956 and to Richard M. Nixon in 1960.

A presidential preference primary, in which crossover voting is not permitted, is held on the second Tuesday in March of presidential election years. Because it occurs so early in the campaign season, this primary is closely watched as an indicator of candidates' strength. Primaries to select state and local candidates are held in early September, with crossover voting again prohibited;

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	FLORIDA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROGRESSIVE
1948	8	*Truman (D)	281,988	194,280	89,755	11,620
1952	10	*Eisenhower (R)	444,950	544,036	—	—
1956	10	*Eisenhower (R)	480,371	643,849	—	—
1960	10	Nixon (R)	748,700	795,476	—	—
1964	14	*Johnson (D)	948,540	905,941	—	—
AMERICAN IND.						
1968	14	*Nixon (R)	676,794	886,804	624,207	—
1972	17	*Nixon (R)	718,117	1,857,759	—	—
AMERICAN						
1976	17	*Carter (D)	1,636,000	1,469,531	21,325	—
LIBERTARIAN						
1980	17	*Reagan (R)	1,417,637	2,043,006	—	30,457
1984	21	*Reagan (R)	1,448,816	2,730,350	—	744
NEW ALLIANCE						
1988	21	*Bush (R)	1,656,701	2,618,885	6,665	19,796
IND. (Perot)						
1992	25	Bush (R)	2,072,798	2,173,310	1,053,067	15,079
1996	25	*Clinton (D)	2,546,870	2,244,536	483,870	23,965
GREEN						
2000**	25	*Bush, G. W. (R)	2,912,253	2,912,790	97,488	16,415
REFORM (Nader)						
2004	27	*Bush, G. W. (R)	3,583,544	3,964,522	32,971	11,996

*Won US presidential election.
 **REFORM candidate Pat Buchanan received 17,484 votes.

runoff elections are held on the Tuesday five weeks before the general election.

In 2004, there were 10,301,000 registered voters; an estimated 41% were Democratic, 38% Republican, and 21% unaffiliated or members of other parties. In addition to the Democratic and Republican parties, organized groups include the Green, Reform, and Libertarian parties. Minor parties running candidates for statewide office can qualify by obtaining petition signatures from 3% of the state's voters.

In the 1996 presidential election, Florida backed a Democrat for the first time in 20 years, giving 48% of the vote to Bill Clinton; 42% to Republican Bob Dole; and 9% to Independent Ross Perot. In the 2000 presidential election, a mere 275 votes separated Republican candidate George W. Bush from Democrat Al Gore as of 13 December 2000, when the US Supreme Court ruled a controversial hand recount of the Florida vote be stopped. George W. Bush won Florida's 25 electoral votes and became president; in 2004, Bush won 52% of the vote to Democrat John Kerry's 47%.

Former US Senator Lawton Chiles (Democrat) was elected governor in 1990 and reelected in 1994. In 1998, Florida voters elected Republican Jeb Bush to the gubernatorial spot; he was reelected in 2002. Connie Mack, a Republican, was reelected to a second US Senate term in 1994 but decided not to seek a third term in 2000. Democrat Bill Nelson was elected to the Senate in 2000. Democratic Senator Robert Graham was reelected in 1998. Graham mounted a bid for the presidential nomination in 2003, giving up his bid for reelection to the Senate in 2004. Republican Mel Martinez narrowly won the seat formerly held by Graham, with 49.3% of the vote to Democrat Betty Castor's 48.3%.

Florida's US House delegation following the 2004 elections had 18 Republicans and 7 Democrats. The state Senate in 2005 was comprised of 14 Democrats and 26 Republicans, and the state House had 84 Republicans and 36 Democrats.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, Florida had 67 counties, 404 municipalities, and 626 special districts. There were 67 school districts.

Generally, legislative authority within each county is vested in a five-member elected board of county commissioners, which also has administrative authority over county departments, except those headed by independently elected officials. In counties without charters, these elected officials usually include a sheriff, tax collector, property appraiser, supervisor of elections, and clerk of the circuit court. County charters may provide for a greater or lesser number of elected officials, and for a professional county administrator (city manager). Before 1968 there was state legislation that restricted county government operations; most of these laws have now been repealed. Counties may generally enact any law not inconsistent with state law. However, the taxing power of county and other local governments is severely limited.

Municipalities are normally incorporated and chartered by an act of the state legislature. Except where a county charter specifies otherwise, municipal ordinances override county laws. Municipal governments may provide a full range of local services. But as populations rapidly expand beyond municipal boundaries, many of these governments have found they lack the jurisdiction to deal adequately with area problems. Annexations of surrounding territory are permissible but difficult under state law. Some municipi-

pal governments have reached agreements with county or other local governments for consolidation of overlapping or redundant services or for provision of service by one local government to another on a contract basis. Complete consolidation of a municipal and a county government is authorized by the state constitution, requiring state legislation and voter approval in the area affected. Jacksonville and Duval County succeeded in consolidating by 1985.

The problem of overlapping and uncoordinated service is most serious in the case of the state's 626 special districts. These districts, established by state law and approval of the affected voters, provide a specified service in a defined geographic area. An urban area may have dozens of special districts. State legislation in the 1970s attempted to deal with this problem by permitting counties to set up their own special-purpose districts, whose operations could be coordinated by the county government.

Regional planning councils resulted from the need to cope with problems of greater than local concern. These councils deal with such issues as land management, resource management, and economic development.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 657,329 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Florida operates under state statute; the public safety commissioner, designated as the state homeland security adviser, oversees programs in training and law enforcement.

A "Sunshine" amendment to the constitution and a statutory code of ethics require financial disclosure by elected officials and top-level public employees; the code prohibits actions by officials and employees that would constitute a conflict of interest. An auditor general appointed by the legislature conducts financial and performance audits of state agencies.

Educational services are provided by the State Department of Education, which sets overall policy and adopts comprehensive objectives for public education, operates the state university and community college systems, and issues bonds (as authorized by the state constitution) to finance capital projects. The Department of Transportation is responsible for developing long-range transportation plans and for construction and maintenance of the state highway system. The Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles licenses drivers, regulates the registration and sale of motor vehicles, and administers the Florida Highway Patrol.

Health services are the responsibility primarily of the Agency for HealthCare Administration. It is also responsible for disease prevention and for assisting localities in performing health services. The Department of Children and Families administers such social welfare programs as Medicaid, food stamps, and foster care and adoption.

The Department of Corrections maintains approximately 60 major correctional institutions. The Corrections Commission reviews the state's correctional efforts, recommends policies, and evaluates the implementation of approved policies. The Department of Law Enforcement is responsible for maintaining public order and enforcing the state criminal code; enforcement activities emphasize combating organized crime, vice, and racketeering.

The state's Army and Air National Guard are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Military Affairs. The Florida Highway Patrol, within the Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles, is the only statewide uniformed police force.

The Florida Division of Housing and Community Development assists the Department of Community Affairs in carrying out its duties related to housing. The Department's Division of Emergency Management is responsible for Florida hazards and disaster prevention.

The Agency for Workforce Innovation is responsible for implementing policy in the areas of workforce development, welfare transition, unemployment compensation, labor market information, early learning and school readiness. The Florida Department of Veterans Affairs is responsible for serving the needs of veterans.

The Department of State manages state historic sites, archives, museums, libraries, and fine arts centers. Enterprise Florida supports new business starts in the state. The Department of Management Services provides administrative support for state agencies and state employees including human resource, insurance, retirement, office facility, purchasing, vehicles/aircraft, property surplus, and information technology services.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The state's highest court is the Supreme Court, a panel of seven justices that sits in Tallahassee. Every two years, the presiding justices elect one of their number as chief justice. All justices are appointed to six-year terms by the governor upon the recommendation of a judicial nominating commission. They may seek further six-year terms in a yes-no vote in a general election. If the incumbent justice does not receive a majority of "yes" votes, the governor appoints another person to fill the vacancy from the recommended list of qualified candidates.

The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only. The state constitution, as amended, prescribes certain types of cases in which an appeal must be heard, including those in which the death penalty has been ordered and those in which a lower appellate court has invalidated a state law or a provision of the state constitution. The court also hears appeals of state agency decisions on utility rates and may, at its discretion, hear appeals in many other types of cases.

Below the Supreme Court are five district courts of appeal, which sit in Tallahassee, Lakeland, Miami, West Palm Beach, and Daytona Beach. There are 61 district court judges. The method of their selection and retention in office is the same as for supreme court justices. District courts hear appeals of lower court decisions and may review the actions of executive agencies. District court decisions are usually final, since most requests for Supreme Court review are denied.

The state's principal trial courts are its 20 circuit courts, which have original jurisdiction in many types of cases, including civil suits involving more than \$5,000, felony cases, and all cases involving juveniles. Circuit courts may also hear appeals from county courts if no constitutional question is involved. Circuit court judges are elected for six-year terms and must have been members of the Florida bar for at least five years before election. There were 468 circuit court judges in 1999.

Each of Florida's 67 counties has a county court with original jurisdiction in misdemeanor cases, civil disputes involving \$5,000 or less, and traffic-violation cases. County court judges are elected for four-year terms and must be members of the bar only in counties with populations of 40,000 or more.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 85,533 prisoners were held in Florida's state and federal prisons, an increase from 82,012, or 4.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 5,660 inmates were female, up from 5,165, or 9.6%, from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Florida had an incarceration rate of 486 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Florida in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 711.3 reported incidents per 100,000 population (the second highest among states, exceeded only by South Carolina), or a total of 123,754 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 727,141 reported incidents, or 4,179.7 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Florida has a death penalty, which can be carried out by lethal injection or electrocution, depending upon the prisoner's request. From 1976 through 5 May 2006 the state executed 60 persons, of which the most recent execution was in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, there were 388 inmates on death row, the third-highest number in the nation after California and Texas.

In 2003, Florida spent \$777,539,269 on homeland security, an average of \$48 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 71,241 active-duty military personnel in Florida, 20,107 civilian personnel, and 3,068 Reserve and National Guard. Military and civilian personnel were stationed at facilities in Pensacola, Orlando, Jacksonville, and at Eglin AFB. In October 1979, the Key West Naval Air Station was made the headquarters of a new Caribbean Joint Task Force, established to coordinate US military activities in the Caribbean. The state had 29,967 active-duty Air Force personnel in 2004 the largest Air Force bases were Eglin, in Valparaiso; MacDill, near Tampa; and Tyndall, west of Tallahassee. The US Air Force Missile Test Center at Cape Canaveral (called Cape Kennedy from 1963 to 1973) has been the launching site for most US space flights, including all manned flights. US Department of Defense procurement contracts in Florida in 2004 totaled \$8.3 billion, seventh-highest in the United States for that year. Defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$9.3 billion. Florida had the highest amount paid to retired military in the United States in 2004.

There were 1,788,496 veterans of US military service in Florida as of 2003, of whom 327,034 served in World War II; 223,057 in the Korean conflict; 457,695 during the Vietnam era; and 246,271 during 1990–2000 (in the Gulf War). US Veterans Administration spending in Florida in 2004 totaled \$4.6 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Florida Highway Patrol employed 1,671 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Florida is populated mostly by migrants. In 1990, only 30.5% of all state residents were Florida born, compared with 61.8% for the United States as a whole. Only Nevada had a lower proportion of

native residents. Migration from other states accounted for more than 85% of Florida's population increase in the 1970s. From 1985 to 1990, net migration gains added another 1,461,550 new residents. Between 1990 and 1998, net domestic migration added 1,035,000 while international migration added 553,000. Florida's overall population increased 15.3% during that same period.

The early European immigrants to Florida—first the Spanish, then the English—never populated the state in significant numbers. Immigration from southern states began even before the United States acquisition of Florida and accelerated thereafter. In the 20th century, US immigrants to Florida came, for the most part, from the Northeast and Midwest, their motivation to escape harsh northern winters. A large proportion of migrants have been retirees and other senior citizens. Between 1970 and 1980, the number of Floridians 65 or over increased by 70%, compared with a 44% increase for the US population as a whole. By 1998, 18.3% of the Florida populace was age 65 or older. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 528,085 and net internal migration was 1,057,619, for a net gain of 1,585,704 people.

Since the 1960s, Florida has also experienced large-scale migration from the Caribbean and parts of Latin America. Although the state has had a significant Cuban population since the second half of the 19th century, the number of immigrants surged after the Cuban revolution of 1959. From December 1965 to April 1973, an airlift agreed to by the Cuban and US governments landed a quarter of a million Cubans in Miami. Another period of large-scale immigration from Cuba, beginning in April 1980, brought more than 100,000 Cubans into Florida harbors. At the same time, Haitian “boat people” were arriving in Florida in significant numbers, often reaching the southern peninsula packed in barely seaworthy small craft. The number of ethnic Haitians in Florida was reported at 105,495 in 1990. By 1990, a reported 541,011 ethnic Cubans were living in southern Florida, mostly in and around Miami, where the Cuban section had become known as “Little Havana.” The US government classified some of them as illegal aliens, fleeing extreme poverty in their native country, but the immigrants claimed to be political refugees and sued to halt deportation proceedings against them. In 1996, a reported 2,186,000 Floridians (15%) were foreign-born. In 1998, 59,965 foreign immigrants were admitted into Florida, the third-highest total of any state, accounting for over 9% of all foreign immigration that year. Of that total, 14,265 were from Cuba; 6,613 from Haiti; and 4,795 from Jamaica. As of 1998, Florida's Hispanic population numbered 2,080,000; those of Hispanic origin numbered 2,243,000.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

In 1953, Florida became a signatory to the Alabama-Florida Boundary Compact. Among the interstate regional compacts in which Florida participates are the Apalachicola–Chattahoochee–Flint River Basin Compact, Southern Regional Education Board, Southern States Energy Board, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, and Gulf States Marine Fisheries Commission. Federal grants to Florida in fiscal year 2005 totaled \$16.266 billion; in fiscal year 2006

federal grants amounted to an estimated \$16.176 billion, and were estimated at \$17.041 billion for fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Farming, lumbering and naval stores industries, all concentrated in northern Florida, were early mainstays of the economy. In the late 19th century, the extension of the railroads down the peninsula opened up an area previously populated only by Indians. Given the favorable climate, central and southern Florida soon became major agricultural areas. Tourism, aggressively promoted by the early railroad builders, became a major industry after World War I and remains so today.

Tourists and winter residents with second homes in Florida contribute billions of dollars annually to the state economy and make retailing and construction particularly important economic sectors. However, this dependence on discretionary spending by visitors and part-time dwellers also makes the economy, and especially the housing industry, highly vulnerable to recession.

The arms buildup during Ronald Reagan's administration helped to expand Florida's aerospace and electronics industries. Even in 1991, after the reduction of the national military budget, Florida ranked seventh nationally in the value of Department of Defense contracts awarded. Florida ranked fourth in the nation in defense electronics manufacturing employment in 1999.

The state's economy, particularly that of the Miami area, has also benefited from an influx of Latin American investment funds. Miami is said to have one of the largest underground economies in the United States, a reference both to the sizable inflow of cash from illicit drug trafficking and to the large numbers of Latin American immigrants working for low, unreported cash wages. Florida's population increased by 16% between 1990 and 1999, due primarily to migration. Strong annual economic growth rates in the late 1990s (averaging 6.6% in 1998–2000) were only moderated to 4.2% in the national recession of 2001. Growth continued damped in 2002, reflecting, particularly, a slowdown in Florida's tourist industry, but remained above the national average. By July 2002, the state was experiencing positive, if small (less than 1%), job growth. As was true in much of the country, the share of manufacturing in Florida's economy decreased in both absolute and relative terms coming into the 21st century. From a peak of \$31 billion in 1999, output from the manufacturing sector declined 6.3% by 2001. As a share of the Florida economy, manufacturing declined from 7.7% in 1997 to 5.9% in 2001. By contrast, the financial services and trade sectors (wholesale and retail) each grew by more than 27% 1997 to 2001, and general services (including hotels and tourist services) grew 36.9% during this period.

Florida's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$599.068 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest portion at \$93.036 billion or 15.5% of GSP, followed by healthcare and social assistance at \$44.590 billion (7.4% of GSP) and wholesale trade at \$39.285 billion (6.5% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 1,633,574 small businesses in Florida. Of the 449,070 businesses having employees, a total of 444,066 or 98.9% were small companies. An estimated 77,754 new businesses were established in Florida in 2004, up 11.5% from the previous year. Business terminations that same year came to 54,498, down 3.8% from the previous year. Business bankruptcies totaled 1,183 in 2004, down 22.9% from 2003. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy

(Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 556 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Florida as the 25th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Florida had a gross state product (GSP) of \$674 billion, which accounted for 5.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number four in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Florida had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$31,469. This ranked 25th in the United States and was 95% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.8%. Florida had a total personal income (TPI) of \$547,107,143,000, which ranked fourth in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.9% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.9%. Earnings of persons employed in Florida increased from \$346,386,466,000 in 2003 to \$375,116,379,000 in 2004, an increase of 8.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$40,171, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 12.3% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Florida numbered 8,903,500, with approximately 265,300 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 8,013,900. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Florida was 9.7% in March 1976. The historical low was 3% in April 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 7.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 4.9% in manufacturing; 19.9% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.7% in financial activities; 17.1% in professional and business services; 11.9% in education and health services; 11.4% in leisure and hospitality services; and 13.6% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 401,000 of Florida's 7,389,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 5.4% of those so employed, down from 6% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 532,000 workers (7.2%) in Florida were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Florida is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law, which is part of the state's constitution.

As of 1 March 2006, Florida had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.40 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.3% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Florida's most important agricultural products, and the ones for which it is most famous, are its citrus fruits. Florida continues to supply the vast majority of orange juice consumed in the United

States. Florida produced 82% of the nation's oranges and 78% of its grapefruits in 2003. It is also an important producer of other fruits, vegetables, and sugarcane.

The total value of Florida's crops in 2005 exceeded \$6 billion, fourth highest among the 50 states. Total farm marketings, including livestock marketings and products, exceeded \$7.4 billion in 2005 (ninth in the United States). There were about 43,000 farms covering some 10.1 million acres (4.08 million hectares) in 2004; the total represented nearly 30% of the state's entire land area.

The orange was introduced to Florida by Spanish settlers around 1570. Oranges had become an important commercial crop by the early 1800s, when the grapefruit was introduced. In 1886, orange production for the first time exceeded 1 million boxes (1 box equals 90 lb/41 kg). Much of this production came from groves along the northern Atlantic coast and the St. Johns River, which offered easy access to maritime shipping routes north. The expansion of the railroads and severe freezes in the 1890s encouraged the citrus industry to move farther south. Polk, St. Lucie, Indian River, Hendry, and Hardee counties in central Florida are the largest producers of citrus fruits.

The orange crop totaled 242,000,000 boxes each weighing 90-lb (41-kg) in the 2002–03 season. The grapefruit crop was 40,900,000 boxes at 85-lb (39-kg); tangerines, 6,500,000 boxes at 95-lb (43-kg); and tangelos and temple oranges, 2,400,000 boxes at 90-lb (41-kg). There are about 50 processing plants in Florida where citrus fruits are processed into canned or chilled juice, frozen or pasteurized concentrate, or canned fruit sections. Production of frozen concentrate orange juice totaled 195.4 million gallons in 2002. Stock feed made from peel, pulp, and seeds is an important by-product of the citrus-processing industry; annual production is nearly 1 million tons. Other citrus by-products are citrus molasses, D-limonene, alcohol, wines, preserves, and citrus seed oil.

Florida is the country's second leading producer of vegetables. Vegetable farming is concentrated in central and southern Florida, especially in the area south of Lake Okeechobee, where drainage of the Everglades left exceptionally rich soil. In 2004, Florida farmers harvested 15,120,000 hundredweight of tomatoes; they sold 9,246,000 hundredweight of potatoes. Florida's tomato and vegetable growers, who had at one time enjoyed a near-monopoly of the US winter vegetable market, began in the 1990s to face increasing competition from Mexican growers, whose lower-priced produce had captured about half the market by 1995. About two-thirds of all farm laborers are hired hands.

Florida's major field crop is sugarcane (mostly grown near Lake Okeechobee), which enjoyed a sizable production increase in the 1960s and 1970s, following the cutoff of imports from Cuba. In 2004, Florida's sugarcane production was 14,255,000 tons. Florida's second-largest field crop is peanuts (364,000,000 lb/165,400,000 kg in 2004), followed by cotton, hay, corn, tobacco, soybeans, and wheat. Florida leads the nation in the production of watermelons. Greenhouse and nursery products were valued at over \$1.6 billion in 2004, 23.8% of farm receipts.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Florida is an important cattle-raising state. Receipts from cattle and calves in 2004 totaled \$443.1 million, or 6.5% of total farm receipts. The Kissimmee Plain, north of Lake Okeechobee, is the largest grazing area. In 2005, Florida had an estimated 1.74 million

cattle and calves valued at an estimated \$1.4 billion. During 2004, Florida had an estimated 20,000 hogs and pigs valued at around \$2.3 million. An estimated 2.8 billion eggs were produced in 2003, worth \$145.1 million. Florida had an estimated 142,000 milk cows in 2003 that produced around 2.2 billion lb (1 billion kg) of milk. Also during 2003, Florida poultry farmers produced 511.3 million lb (232.4 million kg) of broilers, valued at \$178.9 million.

2⁵ FISHING

In 2004, Florida's total commercial fish catch was 124.5 million lb (56.6 million kg), worth \$190.6 million. About 66% of the volume and 76% of the value came from fishing in the Gulf of Mexico. The remainder was from Atlantic waters. The most important commercial species of shellfish are shrimp, spiny lobster, and crabs. Gulf coast shrimp landings totaled 18.2 million lb (8.2 million kg) in 2004. Valuable finfish species include grouper, swordfish, and snapper. Florida's commercial fishing fleet had 4,438 boats and 1,934 vessels in 2002. In 2003, Florida had 376 processing and wholesale plants with an average 4,745 employees.

Florida's extensive shoreline and numerous inland waterways make sport fishing a major recreational activity. Both freshwater and saltwater fishing are important sports. Tarpon, sailfish, and redfish are some of the major saltwater sport species; largemouth bass, panfish, sunfish, catfish, and perch are leading freshwater sport fish. Florida had 1,296,328 sport fishing license holders in 2004.

2⁶ FORESTRY

About 47% of Florida's land area—16,285,000 acres (6,590,000 hectares)—was forested in 2003, when the state had about 2.2% of all forested land in the United States. A total of 4,016,000 acres (1,625,000 hectares) was owned by the forest industry. The most common tree is the pine, which occurs throughout the state but is most abundant in the north.

Florida's logging industry is concentrated in the northern part of the state. The most important forestry product is pulpwood for paper manufacturing. Lumber production in 2004 was 1.07 billion board feet, mostly softwoods, accounting for 2.2% of US production.

Four national forests—Apalachicola, Ocala, Osceola, and Choc-tawhatchee—covering 1,434,000 acres (580,000 hectares) are located in Florida. State forests covered 1,403,000 acres (568,000 hectares) in 2003. Three of the main activities of state forests are forest management, outdoor recreation, and wildlife management.

Virtually all of Florida's natural forest had been cleared by the mid-20th century; the forests existing today are thus almost entirely the result of reforestation. Since 1928, more than 5.6 billion seedlings have been planted in the state.

2⁷ MINING

According to US Geological Survey data, Florida's total nonfuel mineral production in 2004 was valued at \$2.32 billion, up 12.1% from 2003, making the state fourth among the 50 states in the production, by value, of all nonfuel minerals and over 5% of all US output in 2004.

In 2004, Florida led the nation in phosphate rock mining, producing more than six times as much as the next ranking state. By value, the state's top five nonfuel minerals that same year were (in

descending value) phosphate rock, crushed stone, cement (portland and masonry) construction sand and gravel, and zirconium concentrates. These five commodities accounted for approximately 94% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. Florida is also the only state that produces rutile concentrates and staurolite.

Output of crushed stone in 2004 totaled 105 million metric tons and was valued at \$675 million, while output of portland cement totaled 5.23 million metric tons and was valued at an estimated \$432 million. Construction sand and gravel that same year totaled 29.3 million metric tons and was valued at \$146 million.

2⁸ ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Florida had 54 electrical power service providers, of which 32 were publicly owned and 16 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, 5 were investor owned, and 1 was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 8,732,766 retail customers. Of that total, 6,649,226 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 887,981 customers, while publicly owned providers had 1,195,476 customers. There were 83 independent generator, or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 49.418 million kW, with total production that same year at 212.610 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 88.4% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 68.293 billion kWh (32.1%), came from natural gas-fired plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 67.674 billion kWh (31.8%) and petroleum-fired plants in third at 37.204 billion kWh (17.5%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.7% of all power generated, with nuclear plants at 14.6%. Hydroelectric power accounted for only 0.1% of power generated.

As of 2006, Florida had three nuclear power-generating plants: the Crystal River Energy Complex in Citrus County; the St. Lucie plant near Fort Pierce; and the Turkey Point nuclear power station near Miami, in Dade County.

Although Florida produces some oil and natural gas, it is a net importer of energy resources. Its mild climate and abundant sunshine offer great potential for solar energy development, but this potential has not been extensively exploited.

As of 2004, Florida had proven crude oil reserves of 65 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 8,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 16th (15th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 20th (19th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004, Florida had 70 producing oil wells and accounted for less than 1% of all US production. The state has no refineries.

In 2004, Florida's marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and non-hydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 3.123 billion cu ft (0.088 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas in 2004 totaled 78 billion cu ft (2.2 billion cu m). There was no data available on the number of producing natural gas and gas condensate wells in the state.

29 INDUSTRY

Florida is not a center of heavy industry, and many of its manufacturing activities are related to agriculture and exploitation of natural resources. Leading industries include food processing, electric and electronic equipment, transportation equipment, and chemicals. Nearly 20% of the nation's boat manufacturers are also located in the state. Electric components are primarily manufactured in three east coast counties (Brevard, Palm Beach, and Broward), where about half of the state's electronic component workers reside. Since the perfection of the laser by Martin-Marietta in Orlando in the 1950s, the greater Orlando area has grown to have the third-highest concentration of electro-optics and laser manufacturers in the United States.

The cigar-making industry, traditionally important in Florida, has declined considerably with changes in taste and the cutoff of tobacco imports from Cuba. In the late 1930s, the Tampa area alone had well over 100 cigar factories, employing some 10,000 people. However, by 1997 the number of people employed in the state's cigar-making industry had shrunk to 1,581.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Florida's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$84.301 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$13.383 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$10.457 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$8.520 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$6.491 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$5.994 billion.

In 2004, a total of 354,186 people in Florida were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 232,136 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 46,769, with 19,562 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 40,714 employees (31,091 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 31,121 employees (21,016 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing at 30,607 employees (17,028 actual production workers); and food manufacturing with 30,585 employees (21,516 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Florida's manufacturing sector paid \$13.967 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product-manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.547 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.382 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.318 billion; transport equipment manufacturing at \$1.180 billion; and food manufacturing at \$1.055 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Florida's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$219.4 billion from 31,332 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 19,158 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 10,024 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 2,150 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$104.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$83.9 billion. Electronic markets,

agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$30.6 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Florida was listed as having 69,543 retail establishments with sales of \$191.8 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: clothing and clothing accessories stores (11,360); food and beverage stores (8,276); miscellaneous store retailers (8,141); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (7,913); and gasoline stations (6,544). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$54.8 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$27.6 billion; general merchandise stores at \$26.7 billion; and gasoline stations at \$13.4 billion. A total of 902,760 people were employed by the retail sector in Florida that year.

The value of all exports sent from Florida was over \$33.3 billion in 2005, ranking the state eighth in the nation. Duty-free goods for reshipment abroad pass through Port Everglades, Miami, Orlando, Jacksonville, Tampa, and Panama City, all free-trade zones established to bring international commerce to the state. Imports, including motor vehicles, apparel, aircraft and spacecraft, and machinery came primarily from Japan, Germany, Brazil, Costa Rica, and the Dominican Republic.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Division of Consumer Services, a division of the Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, is the state's clearinghouse for consumer complaints and information and performs the initial review under the Motor Vehicle Warranty Enforcement Act—the so-called Lemon Law. The Division also regulates ballroom dance studios, charitable organizations, health studios, motor vehicle repair shops, pawnshops, sellers of travel, sellers of business opportunities and telemarketers, and maintains the state's No Sales Solicitation Calls list. The Florida Consumers' Council advises the commissioner of agriculture on consumer issues.

The public counsel to the Public Service Commission (PSC), appointed by a joint committee of the legislature, represents the public interest in commission hearings on utility rates and other regulations. The public counsel can also seek judicial review of PSC rulings, and may appear before other state and federal bodies on the public's behalf in utility and transportation matters.

The Department of Business and Professional Regulation oversees pari-mutuel betting; land sales; the operations of condominiums, cooperative apartments, hotels, and restaurants; professions and professional boards; real estate; certified public accounting; and the regulation and licensing of alcoholic beverage and tobacco sales.

In 1983, the state legislature enacted the Motor Vehicle Warranty Enforcement Act, which forces automobile dealers to replace new cars or refund the purchase price if the cars are in constant need of repairs.

Florida's Office of the Attorney General is the enforcement authority for the state's consumer protection activities as per Florida's Deceptive and Unfair Trade Practices Act. Under that law, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil (but not criminal) proceedings; nor can it represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies. The Office can administer consumer protection and education programs, and the handling of consumer complaints, and does have broad subpoena powers. In antitrust

actions, the Attorney General's Office: can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; can initiate criminal proceedings; and can represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer Service, along with the Office of the Attorney General, its Economic Crimes Division and its Multi-State Litigation and Intergovernmental Affairs office are located in Tallahassee. Regional offices are located in Fort Lauderdale, Orlando, Tampa and West Palm Beach. County consumer protection offices are located in Clearwater, Fort Lauderdale, Miami, New Port Richey, Orlando, Tampa and West Palm Beach.

3² BANKING

The Florida Department of Financial Services, Division of Banking, has regulatory and supervisory authority over state-chartered financial institutions in Florida, including commercial banks and nondeposit trust companies, credit unions, savings associations, offices of foreign banks operating in Florida, and money transmitters. The Florida Department of Financial Services also has regulatory and supervisory authority over mortgage brokers and mortgage lenders, consumer finance companies, motor vehicle sales finance companies, commercial and consumer debt collection agencies, cemeteries, and abandoned property.

As of June 2005, Florida had 293 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 97 state-chartered and 125 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Miami-Fort Lauderdale-Miami Beach market area had 118 financial institutions in 2004, with \$138.101 billion in deposits, followed by the Tampa-St Petersburg-Clearwater area with 65 institutions and \$42.620 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 22% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$37.121 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 78%, or \$131.430 billion in assets held.

International banking grew in Florida during the late 1970s and early 1980s with the establishment of the Edge Act banks in Miami. Located close to Central and South America, with a bilingual population, Florida (especially Miami) has become a Latin American banking center. Many banks in Miami have headquarters outside Florida and engage exclusively in international banking.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) of Florida's banks stood at 3.99%, up from 3.97% in 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans stood at 0.56%, down from 0.83% in 2003.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 8 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$724 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$1 trillion. The average coverage amount is \$90,100 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled over \$3.4 billion.

In 2003, 19 life and health insurance companies and 111 property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled in Florida. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance to-

taled \$32.3 billion. That year, Florida ranked first in the nation in flood insurance, with 1.87 million flood insurance policies in force, with a total value of over \$315.7 billion, accounting for about 42% of the national total. About \$206 billion of coverage was offered through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high-risk areas.

In 2004, 47% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 27% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 19% of residents were uninsured. Florida tied with four other states for the fourth-highest percentage of uninsured residents in the nation. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 21% for single coverage and 30% for family coverage. For family coverage, an average 30% employee-contribution rate is one of the highest in the country. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 10 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes property damage liability of \$10,000 and personal injury protection. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$1,015.11, the fifth-highest average in the nation.

The insurance industry is regulated by the state's Department of Insurance.

3⁴ SECURITIES

No securities exchanges are located in Florida. In 2005, there were 8,870 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 17,740 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 576 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 160 NASDAQ companies, 73 NYSE listings, and 35 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 14 Fortune 500 companies; Publix Supermarkets (based in Lakeland) ranked first in the state and 104th in the nation with revenues of over \$20.7 billion, followed by Tech Data (Clearwater), AutoNation (Fort Lauderdale), Office Depot (Delray Beach), and Lennar (Miami). Tech Data is listed on NASDAQ and the other four companies are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The Office of Planning and Budget of the governor's office prepares and submits to the legislature the budget for each fiscal year (FY), which runs from 1 July to 30 June. The largest expenditure items are education, health and social concerns, general government, and transportation. By prohibiting borrowing to finance operating expenses, Florida's constitution requires a balanced budget.

The issuance of state bonds is overseen by the State Board of Administration, which consists of the governor, the state treasurer, and the comptroller. Three principal types of bonds are issued. The first consists of bonds backed by the "full faith and credit" of the state and payable from general revenue. Issuance of such bonds generally requires voter approval. The second type consists of revenue bonds, payable from income derived from the capital

project financed, for example, from bridge or highway tolls. The third type consists of bonds payable from a constitutionally specified source, for example, higher education bonds backed by the state gross receipts tax, or elementary and secondary education bonds backed by the motor vehicle license tax.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$30.3 billion for resources and \$26.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Florida were nearly \$19.6 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Florida was slated to receive: \$233 million, an increase of \$12 million over 2006, for activities that will benefit the ecosystem of South Florida including the

Everglades, while supporting future population growth. This includes \$48 million to move forward with the Modified Water Delivery project, which will allow more water to pass under Tamiami Trail (US Highway 41) and enter Everglades National Park. Under the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan, Army Corps of Engineers work on seepage control north and south of Tamiami Trail, the Kissimmee River, and aquifer storage and recovery pilot projects will also be a priority; \$10 million to replace the air traffic control tower at Palm Beach International Airport in West Palm Beach.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Florida collected \$33,895 million in tax revenues or \$1,905 per capita, which placed it 37th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.9% of the total: sales taxes, 56.2%; selective sales taxes, 19.0%; corporate income taxes, 5.3%; and other taxes, 18.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, Florida had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Alaska, Wyoming, Washington, Nevada, Texas, and South Dakota. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 5.5%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$18,500,291,000 or \$1,064 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 19th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$18,223,505,000 of the total and the state government, \$276,786,000.

Florida taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1.50%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.50%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 33.9 cents per pack, which ranks 44th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Florida taxes gasoline at 14.9 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Florida citizens received \$1.02 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

In the late 1990s, Florida intensified its efforts to attract high-tech, high-wage industries such as silicon technologies and aviation/aerospace industries. Florida became the first state in the nation to close its Department of Commerce. All of the state's economic development and international trade strategies are now handled through a partnership of business and government, Enterprise Florida. This new approach calls for collaboration among leaders in government, business, and academia. Enterprise Florida and its regional and local partner organizations provide a statewide network of business assistance resources in the areas of capital acquisition, technology commercialization, manufacturing competitiveness, training, minority and rural business development, incentives, site selection, permitting, and trade development. Through buying blocks of discounting tickets, arranging for bargain fares, setting up meetings with local business people, and providing a distinctive Florida booth, Enterprise Florida lowers the cost of attending trade shows for Florida exporters. Promoting Florida exports has been a major concern of recent economic

Florida—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	75,176,415	4,324.21
General revenue	56,671,550	3,259.80
Intergovernmental revenue	16,736,684	962.71
Taxes	30,534,283	1,756.36
General sales	17,128,515	985.25
Selective sales	6,280,891	361.28
License taxes	1,774,881	102.09
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	1,441,338	82.91
Other taxes	3,908,658	224.83
Current charges	3,677,747	211.55
Miscellaneous general revenue	5,722,836	329.18
Utility revenue	18,529	1.07
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	18,486,336	1,063.35
Total expenditure	59,943,442	3,448.00
Intergovernmental expenditure	16,473,396	947.56
Direct expenditure	43,470,046	2,500.43
Current operation	30,053,727	1,728.72
Capital outlay	4,999,409	287.57
Insurance benefits and repayments	5,624,775	323.54
Assistance and subsidies	1,665,466	95.80
Interest on debt	1,126,669	64.81
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	7,001,138	402.71
Total expenditure	59,943,442	3,448.00
General expenditure	54,256,955	3,120.91
Intergovernmental expenditure	16,473,396	947.56
Direct expenditure	37,783,559	2,173.34
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	17,737,233	1,020.26
Public welfare	15,415,221	886.70
Hospitals	236,046	13.58
Health	2,829,993	162.78
Highways	5,066,358	291.42
Police protection	403,244	23.19
Correction	2,185,039	125.69
Natural resources	1,472,203	84.68
Parks and recreation	153,633	8.84
Government administration	2,072,853	119.23
Interest on general debt	1,126,669	64.81
Other and unallocable	5,558,463	319.73
Utility expenditure	61,712	3.55
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	5,624,775	323.54
Debt at end of fiscal year	23,194,784	1,334.18
Cash and security holdings	177,451,104	10,207.14

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

policy. The International Trade and Business Development unit of Enterprise Florida is based in Miami with 6 field offices in the state and 14 international offices, including ones in Frankfurt, Germany; London, England; Taipei, Republic of China; Toronto, Canada; Seoul, South Korea; Mexico City, Mexico; Tokyo, Japan; and Sao Paulo, Brazil. Florida has 14 deep-water commercial seaports; 5 barge ports; 9 major shallow-water ports; 4 river ports; and 16 customs ports of entry. As of 2006, 20 Free Trade Zones (FTZs) had been designated, all located at or near seaports and international airports. Value-added in the FTZs is not subject to US customs duties unless processed goods are imported for sale in the domestic market.

38 HEALTH

Reflecting the age distribution of the state's population, Florida has a relatively low birthrate and a high death rate. The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.1 per 1,000 live births. The birthrate in 2003 was 12.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 31.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 85.5% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 89% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three; this represented one of the highest immunization rates in the country.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 294.6; cancer, 234.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 61.4; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 54.2; and diabetes, 27.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 10.3 per 100,000 population, representing the third-highest rate in the nation (following the District of Columbia and Maryland). In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was about 33.5 per 100,000 population, representing the third-highest rate in the nation (following the District of Columbia and New York). In 2002, about 53.9% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.1% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Florida had 203 community hospitals with about 50,700 beds. There were about 2.2 million patient admissions that year and 22 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 32,800 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,387. Also in 2003, there were about 693 certified nursing facilities in the state with 82,546 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 87.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Florida had 258 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 780 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 9,072 dentists in the state.

In 2004, Florida tied with Pennsylvania and Arkansas for the third-highest percentage of residents on Medicare at 17% (following West Virginia and Maine). Approximately 19% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$15.3 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 300,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$223. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,381,804 persons (657,576 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$96.37 per

person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$1.59 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Florida's TANF program is called the Welfare Transition Program. In 2004, the state program had 116,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$293 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 3,381,970 Floridians. This number included 2,294,180 retired workers, 297,870 widows and widowers, 377,030 disabled workers, 178,720 spouses, and 234,170 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 19.5% of the total state population and 85.6% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$951; widows and widowers, \$924; disabled workers, \$895; and spouses, \$472. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$453 per month; children of deceased workers, \$613; and children of disabled workers, \$267. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 412,970 Florida residents, averaging \$395 a month. An additional \$755,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 14,800 residents.

40 HOUSING

Florida's housing market fluctuated widely in the 1970s and early 1980s. During the mid-1970s recession, home buying dropped off markedly and much newly completed housing could not be sold. By late in the decade, however, the unused housing stock had been depleted and a new building boom was under way. The number of housing units in Florida increased 73.2% between 1970 and 1980, but only by 39.4% between 1980 and 1990. As of 2004, an estimated 29.8% of all housing units had been built in 1990 or later; only 2.5% were built before 1940.

In 2004, there were an estimated 8,009,427 housing units in Florida, ranking the state third in the nation for total number of housing units (after California and Texas). About 6,819,280 of the units were occupied; 70.5% were owner occupied. About 53.3% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 12.3% were in buildings with 20 units or more; and about 10.4% were mobile homes. It was estimated that about 305,291 units were without telephone service, 19,379 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 26,983 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Over 76% of all units relied on electricity for heating; about 1,845 units were equipped for solar-power heating. The average household had 2.49 members.

In 2004, 255,900 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. Multifamily housing ranges from beachfront luxury high rises along the Gold Coast to dilapidated residential hotels in the South Beach section of Miami Beach. The median home value was \$149,291. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,143, while renters paid a median of \$766 per month. In September 2005, the state received a grant of \$150,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$29.2 million

in community development block grants. Also in 2006, HUD offered an additional \$82.9 million to the state in emergency funds to rebuild housing that was destroyed by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma in late 2005.

The Division of Florida Land Sales and Condominiums, within the Department of Business Regulation, registers all sellers of subdivided land and oversees the advertising and selling of land, condominiums, and cooperatives. A major controversy involving condominiums in the early 1970s centered on “rec leases.” Until the practice was outlawed in mid-decade, condominium developers often retained ownership of such recreational facilities as the swimming pool, clubhouse, and tennis courts, requiring apartment purchasers to pay rent for their use. The rents were generally set quite low at the time of sale, but raised sharply soon after.

4¹ EDUCATION

In the 1970s, Florida was an innovator in several areas of education, including competency testing, expansion of community colleges, and school finance reform. Further advances were made in 1983 and 1984, when the state increased taxes to help fund education, raised teachers’ salaries, initiated the nation’s strictest high school graduation requirements, and reformed the curriculum.

Student achievement in reading, writing, and mathematics is measured by national norm-referenced tests selected at the district level, and by the High School Competency Test (HSCT), measuring communication and math skills of 11th grade students. In 2004, 85.9% of Floridians 25 years of age or older were high school graduates; 26% had four or more years of college.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Florida’s public schools stood at 2,540,000. Of these, 1,809,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 731,000 attended high school. Approximately 51.3% of the students were white, 24.3% were black, 22.1% were Hispanic, 2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 2,567,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 2,790,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 9.9% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 323,766 students enrolled in 1,803 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$2.9 billion or \$6,784 per student. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation’s Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Florida scored 274 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 776,622 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 37.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Florida had 169 degree-granting institutions. Of Florida’s state universities, the largest is the University of Florida (Gainesville). Also part of the state university system are special university centers, such as the University of Florida’s Institute of Food and Agricultural Science, which provide advanced and graduate courses. The State University System also offers instruction at strategic sites away from the regular campuses. In 1972, Florida completed a community college system that put a public two-year college within commuting distance of virtually every resident. Of Florida’s 90 private four-year institutions of higher education, by far the largest is the University of Miami (Coral Gables).

The policy-making body for the state university system is the Board of Regents; the chancellor is the system’s chief administrative officer. Florida’s school finance law, the Florida Education Finance Act of 1973, establishes a funding formula aimed at equalizing both per-pupil spending statewide and the property tax burdens of residents of different school districts.

4² ARTS

The State of Florida’s Division of Cultural Affairs (DCA) was established in 1969. The Florida Arts Council (previously the Fine Arts Council of Florida) serves in an advisory capacity to the DCA. The DCA has a partnership with the Southern Arts Federation. The DCA also coordinates a touring program, a public art program that acquires artwork for new state buildings, an arts license plate program, and the Florida Artists Hall of Fame, which includes such luminaries as Zora Neale Hurston, Ernest Hemingway, Ray Charles, Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings, and Robert Rauschenberg. In 2005, Florida arts organizations received 56 grant awards from the National Endowment of the Arts that totaled \$1,691,800.

The Florida Humanities Council, established in 1973, sponsors grant programs, a speakers bureau the Florida Center for Teachers, and FORUM, a statewide magazine about Florida culture. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities supported 24 Florida based programs with grants totaling \$2,722,345.

Florida is home to a vibrant and diverse cultural community. Florida ranks near the top nationally in state funding for culture and the arts. Cultural organizations thrive in virtually every county and include museums, galleries, symphonies, dance and opera companies, and literary organizations. Offerings range from the Miami Book Fair International at one end of the state, to the widely renowned Jacksonville Jazz Festival, to the National Museum of Naval Aviation in Pensacola at the other end. Key West has long been a gathering place for creative artists, ranging from John James Audubon and Winslow Homer to Ernest Hemingway and Tennessee Williams.

Regional and metropolitan symphony orchestras include the Florida Philharmonic Orchestra (Fort Lauderdale), Florida Orchestra (Tampa), Jacksonville Symphony, and Florida West Coast Symphony (Sarasota). Opera companies include the Florida Grand Opera (Miami) and the Sarasota Opera. The four state theater companies are the Caldwell Theatre Company (Boca Raton), Hippodrome State Theatre (Gainesville), Coconut Grove Playhouse (Miami), and the Asolo Theatre Company (Sarasota). The annual Florida International Festival (FIF), established in 1966, features world-renowned artists in music and dance. The London Symphony Orchestra, which has a summer residency in Daytona Beach, provides an annual concert series for the FIF and the city. In 2005 the London Symphony Orchestra celebrated its 100th anniversary.

Florida is also home to premier museums and performing arts halls, such as the John and Mable Ringling Museum of Art (Sarasota), the Norton Gallery (West Palm Beach), the Miami Art Museum, Orlando Museum of Art, Philharmonic Center for the Arts (Naples), Tampa Bay Performing Arts Center, and the Kravis Center for the Performing Arts (West Palm Beach).

Truly unique cultural institutions also located in Florida include Fairchild Tropical Garden (Miami), the Atlantic Center for the Arts (New Smyrna Beach), and Bok Tower Gardens (Lake

Wales), which as of 2006, still had a working carillon, a set of fixed chromatically tuned bells sounded by hammers and controlled from a keyboard.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in September 2001, Florida had 72 public library systems, with a total of 473 libraries, of which 417 were branches. In that same year, a total of 29,826,000 volumes of books and serial publications were available, while circulation totaled 81,334,000. The system also had 1,317,000 audio and 1,200,000 video items, 65,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 32 bookmobiles. The largest public library systems are those of Miami-Dade County (3,886,852 volumes in 1999) and Jacksonville (2,351,104 volumes). The State Library in Tallahassee housed 661,849 volumes. The State Library also distributes federal aid to local libraries and provides other assistance. In fiscal year 2001, total operating income for the public library system was \$383,109,000. For that same year, federal aid to Florida's public libraries totaled \$2,988,000, while state aid to public libraries was \$34,696,000. Operating expenditures that year amounted to \$350,251,000, of which 58.9% of spending was on the staff and 17% on the collection. The largest university library in the state is that of the University of Florida, with holdings of more than 3.4 million volumes in 1999. Other major university libraries are those of the University of Miami and Florida State University (2.2 million each).

Florida has about 278 museums, galleries, and historical sites, as well as numerous public gardens. One of the best-known museums is the John and Mabel Ringling Museum of Art (Sarasota), a state owned facility which houses the collection of the late circus entrepreneur, featuring Italian and North European Renaissance paintings. Also in Sarasota are the Ringling Museum of the Circus and the Circus Hall of Fame, and C  d'Zan, the Ringling mansion. The estates and homes of a number of prominent former Florida residents are now open as museums. The Villa Vizcaya Museum and Gardens in Miami, originally the estate of International Harvester founder James R. Deering, displays his collection of 15th–18th-century antiques. Railroad developer Henry Morrison Flagler's home in Palm Beach is now a museum in his name. The Society of the Four Arts is also in Palm Beach. On Key West, Ernest Hemingway's home is also a museum. The John James Audubon house in Key West and Thomas Edison's house in Ft. Myers are two of Florida's other great homes.

The Metrozoo-Miami, with an average annual attendance of 650,000, and the Jacksonville Zoological park, 522,000, are among the state's leading zoos. Both Busch Gardens (Tampa) and Sea World of Florida (Orlando) report average annual attendances of over 3,000,000.

The largest historic restoration in Florida is in St. Augustine, where several blocks of the downtown area have been restored to their 18th-century likeness under the auspices of the Historic St. Augustine Preservation Board, a state agency. Castillo de San Marcos, the 17th-century Spanish fort at St. Augustine, is now a national monument under the jurisdiction of the National Park Service and is open to the public. Other Florida cities having historic preservation boards are Pensacola, Tallahassee, and Tampa.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

As of 2004, 93.4% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 11,916,615 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 61.0% of Florida households had a computer and 55.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 2,979,706 high-speed lines in Florida, 2,602,957 residential and 376,749 for business.

Florida's first radio station was WFAW (later WQAM) in Miami, which went on the air in 1920. In 2005, the state had 66 major AM stations and 145 major FM radio stations. Miami was also the site of the state's first television station, WTVJ, which began broadcasting on 27 January 1949. Film and television production in Florida is a billion-dollar per year industry with over 5,000 production companies providing more than 100,000 jobs. There were 62 major TV stations in Florida in 2005.

In 1999, the Tampa–St. Petersburg–Sarasota area had 1,485,980 television households, 74% of which had cable. The Orlando–Daytona Beach–Melbourne area had a 77% penetration rate for cable in television-owning households. At West Palm Beach–Fort Pierce, 85% of television households had cable. The Miami–Fort Lauderdale area had 1,441,570 television households, with a 73% penetration rate for cable. A total of 471,645 Internet domain names were registered in Florida by 2000, the fourth-most of any state.

45 PRESS

The *East Florida Gazette*, published in St. Augustine in 1783–84, was Florida's earliest newspaper. The oldest paper still publishing is the *Jacksonville Times-Union* (now *Florida Times-Union*), which first appeared in February 1883.

In 2005, the state had 38 morning papers, 3 evening papers, and 37 Sunday papers.

The leading English-language dailies and their circulations in 2005 were:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Ft. Lauderdale	<i>South Florida Sun-Sentinel</i> (m,S)	266,889	356,619
Jacksonville	<i>Florida Times-Union</i> (m,S)	165,425	227,891
Miami	<i>Herald</i> (m,S)	315,988	431,928
Orlando	<i>Orlando Sentinel</i> (all day,S)	258,881	374,576
St. Petersburg	<i>St Petersburg Times</i> (m,S)	330,091	419,289
Sarasota	<i>Sarasota Herald-Tribune</i> (m,S)	110,783	133,970
Tampa	<i>Tampa Tribune</i> (m,S)	226,573	304,451
West Palm Beach	<i>West Palm Beach Post</i> (m,S)	168,257	204,938

Spanish language newspapers include *Diario Las Americas* and *El Nuevo Herald*, both published in Miami with circulations under 100,000. In 2005, there were 166 weekly publications in Florida. Of these there are 72 paid weeklies, 62 free weeklies, and 32 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (582,448) and free weeklies (1,726,985) is 2,309,433. Two Florida combined weeklies ranked fifth and sixth by circulation in the United States, Melbourne's *Times* (51,300) and East Pasco's *News* (50,725), respectively. Two Florida shopping publications ranked fifth and eighth in the United States, the Miami *Flyer* (1,256,294) and the Tampa *Flyer* (870,656), respectively.

The most widely read periodical published in Florida is the sensationalist *National Enquirer*. There were 11 book publishers in Florida in 2005, including DC Press and University Presses of Florida.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 12,860 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 9,430 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Commercial, trade, and professional organizations based in Florida include the American Accounting Association (Sarasota), American Welding Society (Miami), American Electroplaters and Surface Finishers Society (Winter Park), Florida Citrus Mutual (Lakeland), the International Songwriters Guild (Orlando), and Florida Fruit and Vegetable Association (Orlando).

Sports groups include the National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR), USA Waterski, International Game Fish Association, and International Swimming Hall of Fame. The American Association for Nude Recreation is based in Kissimmee.

The Academy of Arts and Sciences of the Americas and the National Foundation for Advancement in the Arts are located in Miami. State and regional organizations for the arts include the Florida Cultural Alliance, the Florida Keys Council of the Arts, and the Jazz Society of Pensacola. State organizations for the environment include the Florida Wildlife Federation and Friends of the Everglades.

The world headquarters of campus Crusade for Christ is located in Orlando.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is a mainstay of the state's economy. Most of Florida's tourists are from elsewhere in the United States although Miami also attracts large numbers of affluent Latin American travelers, lured at least in part by the Latin flavor the large Cuban community has given the city. In 2005, there were about 85 million visitors to the state.

Supporting the industry is VISIT FLORIDA, a public and private partnership organization established in 1996 in cooperation with the Florida Commission on Tourism. A portion of the funding for the organization comes from the state's \$2.05 per day rental car surcharge. Most funding comes from the private sector.

In 2005, over 944,000 Floridians worked directly in tourist- and recreation-related businesses, which generated over \$57 billion. The state ranks second in the nation in the number of travel and tourism employees. More than half of all hotels were located in Dade County, where hotels and other tourist accommodations stretch for miles along Collins Avenue in Miami Beach, in the heart of the state's tourist industry.

Florida's biggest tourist attractions are its sun, sand, and surf. According to the state's Department of Commerce, leisure-time activity is the principal reason why more than four-fifths of auto travelers enter the state. Major tourist attractions include Walt Disney World, Universal Orlando, and Sea World Orlando. Other major attractions are the Kennedy Space Center at Cape Canaveral and the St. Augustine historic district.

Nine parks and other facilities in Florida operated by the National Park Service, including Biscayne National Park and Everglades National Park, draw millions of visitors annually. The most popular destination is the Gulf Islands National Seashore, located near Pensacola, followed by the Canaveral National Seashore. Approximately 110 facilities are operated by the Division of Recreation and Parks of the state's Department of Natural Resources.

These facilities include 28 state parks, 28 state recreation areas, and 18 state historical sites. Fishing and boating are major recreational activities at these sites. Florida has more waterparks than anywhere else in the United States: Adventure Island in Tampa; Water Mania in Kissimmee; Disney's Blizzard Beach in Lake Buena Vista; and Wet 'N Wild in Orlando, to name a few.

In the 1970s and early 1980s, the Miami Beach tourist hotels faced increasing competition from Caribbean and Latin American resorts. The city's business community, seeking to boost tourism, strongly backed a 1978 statewide referendum to authorize casino gambling along part of Collins Avenue in Miami Beach and Hollywood; however, the proposal was defeated by a wide margin. In a local advisory referendum in March 1980, Miami Beach voters approved development in South Beach of an \$850 million, 250-acre (100-hectare) complex that included hotels and a convention center. Off-track betting, horse racing (four thoroughbred racetracks and one harness racetrack), dog racing (18 greyhound tracks), jai alai (nine frontons), and bingo are all legalized and operative forms of gaming. NASCAR has a huge presence in Florida. The Richard Petty Driving Experience, where courses are offered on a real race course, is located in Walt Disney World Speedway in Orlando. Major League Baseball has spring training in several Florida cities.

48 SPORTS

Florida has nine major professional sports teams: the Miami Dolphins, Tampa Bay Buccaneers, and Jacksonville Jaguars of the National Football League (NFL); the Miami Heat and the Orlando Magic of the National Basketball Association (NBA); the Tampa Bay Lightning and the Florida Panthers of the National Hockey League; and the Florida Marlins and the Tampa Bay Devil Rays of Major League Baseball. Two Women's National Basketball Association teams and two Major League Soccer teams folded or relocated in 2002. The Miami Heat won the NBA Championship in 2006. Of the football teams, the Dolphins have been by far the most successful, winning the Super Bowl in 1973 (following the NFL's only undefeated season) and 1974, and appearing in three other Super Bowls (in 1972, 1983, and 1985). The Tampa Bay Buccaneers captured a Super Bowl title in 2003, their first ever since joining the NFL in the 1970s. The Florida Marlins won the World Series in 1997 and 2003. Many Major League Baseball teams have their spring training camps in Florida and play exhibition games (in the "Grapefruit League") in the spring.

Several tournaments on both the men's and women's professional golf tours are played in Florida. In auto racing, the Daytona 500 is a top race on the NASCAR Nextel Cup circuit, and the Pennzoil 400 is run at the Homestead-Miami Speedway, while the 24 Hours of Daytona is one of the top sports car races in the world. Three of the major collegiate football bowl games are played in the state: the Orange Bowl in Miami, the Gator Bowl in Jacksonville, and the Florida Citrus Bowl in Orlando.

In collegiate sports, football dominates. The University of Florida, Florida State, and the University of Miami all emerged as nationally ranked powerhouses in the 1980s and 1990s. Miami won the Orange Bowl in 1946, 1984, 1988, 1989, 1992, and 2004, the Sugar Bowl in 1990 and 2001; the Gator Bowl in 2000; and the Cotton Bowl in 1991. The Hurricanes were named national champions in 1983, 1987, 1989, 1991, and 2001. Florida State won the

Orange Bowl in 1993, 1994, and 1996; the Sugar Bowl in 1989, 1998, and 2000; and the Cotton Bowl in 1992. The Seminoles were named national champions in 1993 and 1999. The University of Florida won the Orange Bowl in 1967, 1999, and 2002; the Gator Bowl in 1984 and 1993; the Florida Citrus Bowl in 1998; the Sugar Bowl in 1994; it defeated Florida State in the 1997 Sugar Bowl to win the national championship.

Other annual sporting events include rodeos in Arcadia and Kissimmee and the Pepsi 400 Auto Race in Daytona Beach. Emmitt Smith, Steve Carlton, Chris Evert, and Tracy McGrady were all born in the Sunshine State.

49 FAMOUS FLORIDIANS

The first Floridian to serve in a presidential cabinet was Alan S. Boyd (b.1922), named the first secretary of transportation (1967–69) by President Lyndon Johnson. Florida also produced one of the major US military figures of World War II, General Joseph Warren Stilwell (1883–1946), dubbed “Vinegar Joe” for his strongly stated opinions. Graduated from West Point in 1904, he served in France during World War I. First posted to China in the 1920s, he became chief of staff to General Chiang Kai-shek and commander of US forces in the China-Burma-India theater during World War II. He was promoted to full general in 1944 but forced to leave China because of his criticism of the Chiang Kai-shek regime. Janet Reno (b.1938), attorney general of the United States in the Clinton administration, was born in Miami.

David Levy Yulee (b.St. Thomas, 1810–86) came to Florida in 1824 and, after serving in the US House of Representatives, was appointed one of the state’s first two US senators in 1845, thereby becoming the first Jew to sit in the Senate. He resigned in 1861 to serve in the Confederate Congress. Yulee built the first cross-state railroad, from Fernandina to Cedar Key, in the late 1860s. Ruth Bryan Owen Rohde (b.Illinois, 1885–1954), a longtime Miami resident and member of the US House of Representatives (1929–33), in 1933 became the first woman to head a US diplomatic office abroad when she was named minister to Denmark.

Prominent governors of Florida include Richard Keith Call (b.Virginia, 1792–1862), who came to Florida with General Andrew Jackson in 1821 and remained to become governor of the territory in 1826–39 and 1841–44. In the summer of 1836, Call commanded the US campaign against the Seminole. Although a southerner and a slaveholder, he steadfastly opposed secession. Napoleon Bonaparte Broward (1857–1910) was, before becoming governor, a ship’s pilot, and owner of St. Johns River boats. He used one of these, *The Three Friends*, a powerful seagoing tug, to run guns and ammunition to Cuban rebels in 1896. As governor (1905–09), he was noted for a populist program that included railroad regulation, direct elections, state college reorganization and coordination, and drainage of the Everglades under state auspices. As governor in 1955–61, Thomas LeRoy Collins (1909–91) met the desegregation issue by advocating moderation and respect for the law, helping the state avoid violent confrontations. He served as chairman of both the southern and national governors’ conferences, and he was named by President Johnson as the first director of the Community Relations Service under the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

Military figures who have played a major role in Florida’s history include the Spanish conquistadors Juan Ponce de León (c.1460–

1521), the European discoverer of Florida, and Pedro Menéndez de Avilés (1519–74), founder of the first permanent settlement, St. Augustine. Andrew Jackson (b.South Carolina, 1767–1845), a consistent advocate of US seizure of Florida, led military expeditions into the territory in 1814 and 1818 and, after US acquisition, served briefly in 1821 as Florida’s military governor before leaving for Tennessee. During the Seminole War of 1835–42, one of the leading military tacticians was Osceola (c.1800–1838), who, although neither born a chief nor elected to that position, rose to the leadership of the badly divided Seminole by force of character and personality. He rallied them to fierce resistance to removal, making skillful use of guerrilla tactics. Captured under a flag of truce in 1837, he was imprisoned; already broken in health, he died in Fort Moultrie in Charleston harbor. During the Civil War, General Edmund Kirby Smith (1824–93), a native of St. Augustine who graduated from West Point in 1845, served as commander (1863–65) of Confederate forces west of the Mississippi River. He surrendered the last of the southern forces at Galveston, Texas, on 26 May 1865.

Among the late-19th-century entrepreneurs who played significant roles in Florida’s development, perhaps the most important was Henry Morrison Flagler (b.New York, 1830–1913). Flagler made a fortune in Ohio as an associate of John D. Rockefeller in the Standard Oil Co. and did not even visit Florida until he was in his 50s. However, in the 1880s he began to acquire and build railroads down the length of Florida’s east coast and to develop tourist hotels at various points, including St. Augustine, Palm Beach, and Miami, helping to create one of the state’s major present-day industries. Henry Bradley Plant (b.Connecticut, 1819–99) did for Florida’s west coast what Flagler did for the east. Plant extended railroad service to Tampa in 1884, built a huge tourist hotel there, developed the port facilities, and established steamship lines.

Among Floridians prominent in science was Dr. John F. Gorrie (b.South Carolina, 1802–55), who migrated to Apalachicola in 1833 and became a socially and politically prominent physician, specializing in the treatment of fevers. He blew air over ice brought in by ship from the north to cool the air in sickrooms, and he independently developed a machine to manufacture ice, only to have two others beat him to the patent office by days.

The noted labor and civil rights leader A. Philip Randolph (1889–1979) was a native of Crescent City. Mary McLeod Bethune (b.South Carolina, 1875–1955) was an adviser to President Franklin D. Roosevelt on minority affairs, became the first president (1935) of the National Council of Negro Women, and was a consultant at the 1945 San Francisco Conference that founded the United Nations. A prominent black educator, she opened a school for girls at Daytona Beach in 1904. The school merged with Cookman Institute in 1923 to become Bethune-Cookman College, which she headed until 1942 and again in 1946–47.

Prominent Florida authors include James Weldon Johnson (1871–1938), perhaps best known for his 1912 novel *Autobiography of an Ex-Colored Man*. He was also the first black to be admitted to the Florida bar (1897) and was a founder and secretary of the NAACP. Marjory Stoneman Douglas (b.Minnesota, 1890–1998), who came to Miami in 1915, is the author of several works reflecting her concern for the environment, including *The Everglades: River of Grass* (first published in 1947), *Hurricane* (1958), and *Florida: The Long Frontier* (1967). Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings

(b. Washington, DC, 1895–1953) came to Florida in 1928 to do creative writing. After her first novel, *South Moon Under* (1933) came the Pulitzer Prize–winning *The Yearling* (1938), the poignant story of a 12-year-old boy on the Florida frontier in the 1870s. Zora Neale Hurston (1901–60), born in poverty in the all-Negro town of Eatonville and a graduate of Barnard College, spent four years collecting folklore, which she published in *Mules and Men* (1935) and *Tell My Horse* (1938).

Entertainers born in Florida include Sidney Poitier (b.1927), Charles Eugene “Pat” Boone (b.1934), Faye Dunaway (b.1941), and Ben Vereen (b.1946).

Florida’s most famous sports figure is Chris Evert Lloyd (Christine Marie Evert, b.1953), who became a dominant force in women’s tennis in the mid-1970s. After turning pro in 1973, she won the Wimbledon singles title in 1974, 1976, and 1981 and the US Open from 1975 to 1978 and in 1980 and 1982. She retired from tennis in 1990.

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GEORGIA

State of Georgia



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for King George II of England in 1732. **NICKNAME:** The Empire State of the South; the Peach State. **CAPITAL:** Atlanta. **ENTERED UNION:** 2 January 1788 (4th). **SONG:** “Georgia on My Mind.” **MOTTO:** Wisdom, Justice and Moderation. **COAT OF ARMS:** Three columns support an arch inscribed with the word “Constitution;” intertwined among the columns is a banner bearing the state motto. Right of center stands a soldier with a drawn sword, representing the aid of the military in defending the Constitution. Surrounding the whole are the words “State of Georgia 1776.” **FLAG:** The Georgia flag has two red stripes and one white stripe. The state coat of arms is on a blue field in the upper left corner. Flag adopted 8 May 2003. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** OBVERSE: same as the coat of arms. REVERSE: a sailing vessel and a smaller boat are offshore; on land, a man and horse plow a field, and sheep graze in the background. The scene is surrounded by the words “Agriculture and Commerce 1776.” **BIRD:** Brown thrasher. **FISH:** Largemouth bass. **FLOWER:** Cherokee rose; azalea (wildflower). **TREE:** Live oak. **GEM:** Quartz. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Confederate Memorial Day, 26 April; National Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Robert E. Lee’s Birthday, 19 January (observed the day after Thanksgiving); Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the southeastern United States, Georgia is the largest state east of the Mississippi River, and ranks 21st in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Georgia is 58,910 sq mi (152,576 sq km), of which land comprises 58,056 sq mi (150,365 sq km) and inland water 854 sq mi (2,211 sq km). Georgia extends 254 mi (409 km) E–W; the maximum N–S extension is 320 mi (515 km) E–W.

Georgia is bordered on the N by Tennessee and North Carolina; on the E by South Carolina (with the line formed by the Chattooga, Tugaloo, and Savannah rivers) and by the Atlantic Ocean; on the S by Florida (with the line in the SE defined by the St. Mary’s River); and on the W by Alabama (separated in the SW by the Chattahoochee River). The state’s geographic center is located in Twiggs County, 18 mi (29 km) SW of Macon.

The Sea Islands extend the length of the Georgia coast. The state’s total boundary length is 1,039 mi (1,672 km).

²TOPOGRAPHY

Northern Georgia is mountainous, the central region is characterized by the rolling hills of the Piedmont Plateau, and southern Georgia is a nearly flat coastal plain.

The Blue Ridge Mountains tumble to an end in northern Georgia, where Brasstown Bald, at 4,784 ft (1,459 m), is the highest point in the state. The piedmont slopes slowly to the fall line, descending from about 2,000 ft (610 m) to 300 ft (90 m) above sea level. Stone Mountain, where a Confederate memorial is carved into a mass of solid granite 1,686 ft (514 m) high, is the region’s

most famous landmark. The mean elevation in the state is approximately 600 ft (183 m).

The piedmont region ends in a ridge of sand hills running across the state from Augusta to Columbus. The residue of an ancient ocean was caught in the vast shallow basin on the Florida border, known as the Okefenokee Swamp, which filled with fresh water over the centuries. The coastal plain, thinly populated except for towns at the mouths of inland rivers, ends in marshlands along the Atlantic Ocean. Sea level at the Atlantic Ocean is the lowest point of the state. Lying offshore are the Sea Islands, called the Golden Isles of Georgia, the most important of which are, from north to south, Tybee, Ossabaw, St. Catherines, Sapelo, St. Simons, Sea Island, Jekyll, and Cumberland.

Two great rivers rise in the northeast: the Savannah, which forms part of the border with South Carolina, and the Chattahoochee, which flows across the state to become the western boundary. The Flint joins the Chattahoochee at the southwestern corner of Georgia to form the Apalachicola, which flows through Florida into the Gulf of Mexico. The two largest rivers of central Georgia, the Ocmulgee and Oconee, flow together to form the Altamaha, which then flows eastward to the Atlantic. Perhaps the best-known Georgia river, though smaller than any of the above, is the Suwannee, flowing southwest through the Okefenokee Swamp, across Florida and into the Gulf of Mexico, and famous for its evocation in the song “Old Folks at Home” by Stephen Foster. Huge lakes created by dams on the Savannah River are Clark Hill Reservoir and Hartwell Lake; artificial lakes on the Chattahoochee River include Lake Seminole, Walter F. George Reservoir, Lake Harding, West Point Reservoir, and Lake Sidney Lanier.

3 CLIMATE

The Chattahoochee River divides Georgia into separate climatic regions. The mountain region to the northwest is colder than the rest of Georgia, averaging 39°F (4°C) in January and 78°F (26°C) in July. The state experiences mild winters, ranging from a January average of 44°F (7°C) in the piedmont to 54°F (12°C) on the coast. Summers are hot in the piedmont and on the coast, with July temperatures averaging 80°F (27°C) or above. The record high is 113°F (45°C) at Greenville on 27 May 1978; the record low is -17°F (-27°C), registered in Floyd County on 27 January 1940.

Humidity is high, ranging from 82% in the morning to 56% in the afternoon in Atlanta. Rainfall varies considerably from year to year but averages 50 in (127 cm) annually in the lowlands, increasing to 75 in (191 cm) in the mountains; snow falls occasionally in the interior. Tornadoes are an annual threat in mountain areas, and Georgia beaches are exposed to hurricane tides.

The growing season is approximately 185 days in the mountains and a generous 300 days in southern Georgia.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Georgia has some 250 species of trees, 90% of which are of commercial importance. White and scrub pines, chestnut, northern red oak, and buckeye cover the mountain zone, while loblolly and shortleaf (yellow) pines and whiteback maple are found throughout the piedmont. Pecan trees grow densely in southern Georgia, and white oak and cypress are plentiful in the eastern part of the state. Trees found throughout the state include red cedar, scaly-bark and white hickories, red maple, sycamore, yellow poplar, sassafras, sweet and black gums, and various dogwoods and magnolias. Common flowering shrubs include yellow jasmine, flowering quince, and mountain laurel. Spanish moss grows abundantly on the coast and around the streams and swamps of the entire coastal plain. Kudzu vines, originally from Asia, are ubiquitous.

Prominent among Georgia fauna is the white-tailed (Virginia) deer, found in some 50 counties. Other common mammals are the black bear, muskrat, raccoon opossum, mink, common cottontail, and three species of squirrel—fox, gray, and flying. No fewer than 160 bird species breed in Georgia, among them the mockingbird, brown thrasher (the state bird), and numerous sparrows; the Okefenokee Swamp is home to the sandhill piper, snowy egret, and white ibis. The bobwhite quail is the most popular game bird. There are 79 species of reptile, including such poisonous snakes as the rattler, copperhead, and cottonmouth moccasin. The state's 63 amphibian species consist mainly of various salamanders, frogs, and toads. The most popular freshwater game fish are trout, bream, bass, and catfish, all but the last of which are produced in state hatcheries for restocking. Dolphins, porpoises, shrimp, oysters, and blue crabs are found off the Georgia coast.

The Okefenokee Swamp (which extends into Georgia) supports 233 bird species, 48 mammal species, 66 reptile species, 37 amphibian species, and 36 fish species. One of the largest US populations of the American alligator can be found there as well.

The state lists 58 protected plants, of which 23—including hairy rattlesnake, Alabama leather flower, smooth coneflower, two species of quillwort, pondberry, Canby's dropwort, harperella, fringed campion, and two species of trillium—are endangered. In April 2006, a total of 60 species occurring within the state were on the

threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 38 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 22 plant species, such as the bald eagle, eastern indigo snake, West Indian manatee, four species of moccasinshell, five species of turtle, wood stork, three species of whale, red-cockaded woodpecker, and shortnose sturgeon.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

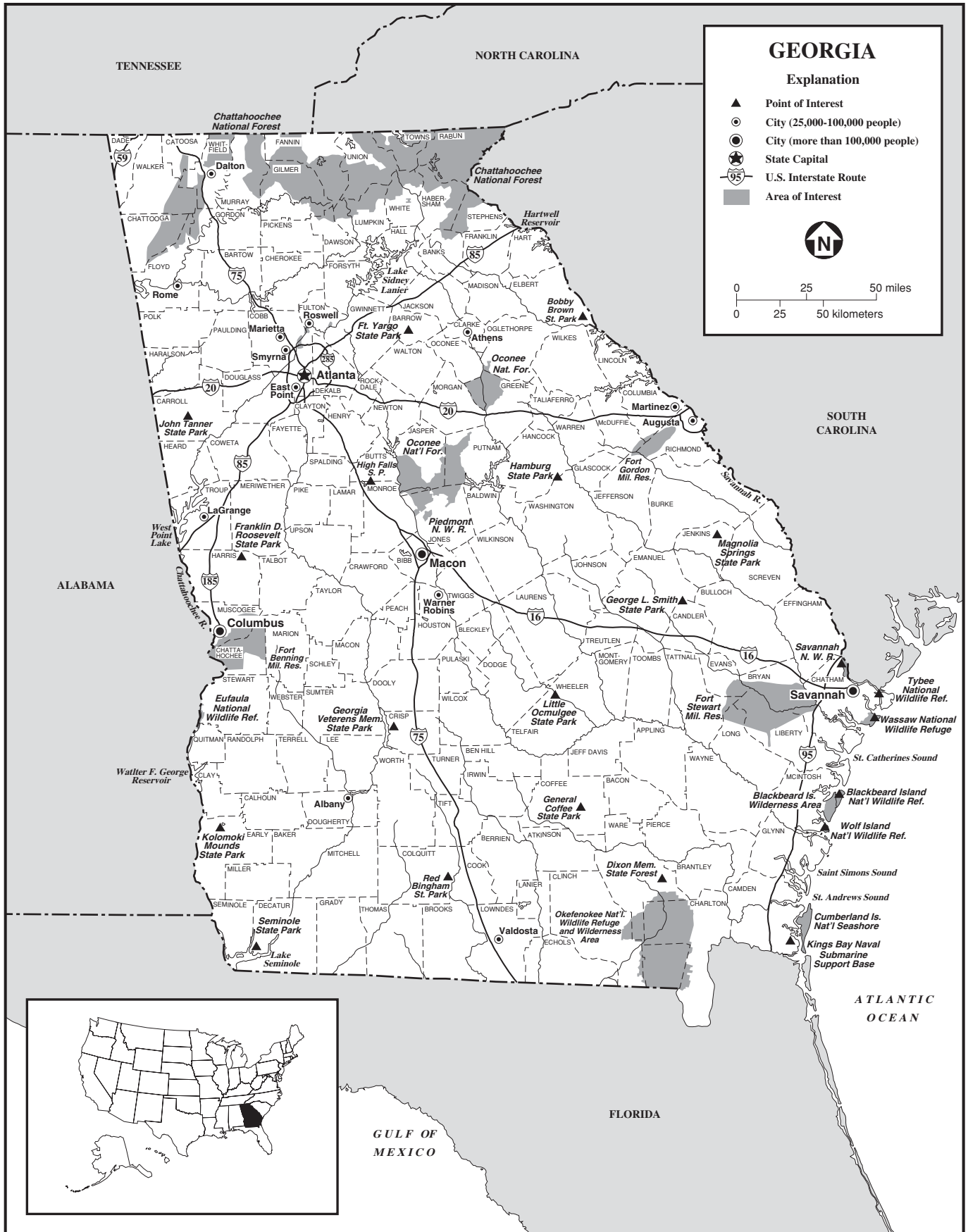
In the early 1970s, environmentalists pointed to the fact that the Savannah River had been polluted by industrial waste and that an estimated 58% of Georgia's citizens lived in districts lacking adequate sewage treatment facilities. In 1972, at the prodding of Governor Jimmy Carter, the General Assembly created the Environmental Protection Division (EPD) within the Department of Natural Resources (DNR). This agency administers 21 state environmental laws, most of them passed during the 1970s: the Water Quality Control Act, the Safe Drinking Water Act, the Groundwater Use Act, the Surface Water Allocation Act, the Air Quality Act, the Safe Dams Act, the Asbestos Safety Act, the Vehicle Inspection and Maintenance Act, the Hazardous Site Response Act, the Comprehensive Solid Waste Management Act, the Scrap Tire Amendment, the Underground Storage Tank Act, the Hazardous Waste Management Act, the Sedimentation and Erosion Control Act, the River Basin Management Plans, the Water Well Standards Act, the Oil and Hazardous Materials Spill Act, the Georgia Environmental Policy Act, the Surface Mining Act, and the Oil and Gas and the Deep Drilling Act. The EPD issues all environmental permits, with the exception of those required by the Marshlands Protection and Shore Assistance Acts, which are enforced by the Coastal Resources Division of the DNR.

As of 1997, the state had 7.7 million acres of wetlands. The Okefenokee Swamp (which extends into Florida) was designated in 1986; it is the second largest wetland in the nation. The site is federally owned and managed, in part, under the Okefenokee Wilderness Act of 1974.

Georgia's greatest environmental problems are an increasingly scarce water supply, nonpoint source water pollution, and hazardous waste sites. In 2003, the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 408 hazardous waste sites in Georgia, 15 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Robins Air Force Base landfill in Houston County and the Marine Corps Logistics Base in Albany. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$9.6 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. In 2003, 126.7 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included over \$13 million to be offered as loans for water quality and protection projects.

6 POPULATION


Georgia ranked ninth in population in the United States with an estimated total of 9,072,576 in 2005, an increase of 10.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Georgia's population grew from 6,478,453 to 8,186,453, an increase of 26.4% and the fourth-largest population gain among the 50 states for this period. The popu-



GEORGIA

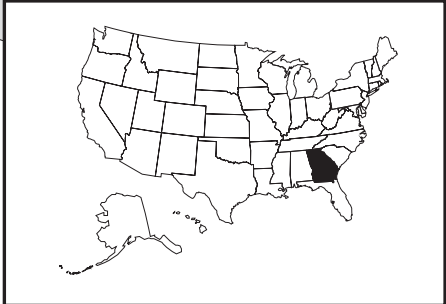
Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 95 U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



0 25 50 miles

0 25 50 kilometers



J. O. GALT

Georgia—Counties, County Seats, and Country Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (sq mi)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (sq mi)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Appling	Baxley	510	17,954	Hall	Gainesville	379	165,771
Atkinson	Pearson	344	8,030	Hancock	Sparta	469	9,643
Bacon	Alma	286	10,379	Haralson	Buchanan	283	28,338
Baker	Newton	347	4,154	Harris	Hamilton	464	27,779
Baldwin	Milledgeville	258	45,230	Hart	Hartwell	230	24,036
Banks	Homer	234	16,055	Heard	Franklin	292	11,346
Barrow	Winder	163	59,954	Henry	McDonough	321	167,848
Bartow	Cartersville	456	89,229	Houston	Perry	380	126,163
Ben Hill	Fitzgerald	254	17,316	Irwin	Ocilla	362	10,093
Berrien	Nashville	456	16,708	Jackson	Jefferson	342	52,292
Bibb	Macon	253	154,918	Jasper	Monticello	371	13,147
Bleckley	Cochran	219	12,141	Jeff Davis	Hazlehurst	335	13,083
Brantley	Nahunta	444	15,491	Jefferson	Louisville	529	16,926
Brooks	Quitman	491	16,327	Jenkins	Millen	353	8,729
Bryan	Pembroke	441	28,549	Johnson	Wrightsville	307	9,538
Bulloch	Statesboro	678	61,454	Jones	Gray	394	26,836
Burke	Waynesboro	833	23,299	Lamar	Barnesville	186	16,378
Butts	Jackson	187	21,045	Lanier	Lakeland	194	7,553
Calhoun	Morgan	284	5,972	Laurens	Dublin	816	46,896
Camden	Woodbine	649	45,759	Lee	Leesburg	358	31,099
Candler	Metter	248	10,321	Liberty	Hinesville	517	57,544
Carroll	Carrollton	502	105,453	Lincoln	Lincolnton	196	8,207
Catoosa	Ringgold	163	60,813	Long	Ludowici	402	11,083
Charlton	Folkston	780	10,790	Lowndes	Valdosta	507	96,705
Chatham	Savannah	444	238,410	Lumpkin	Dahlonega	287	24,324
Chattahoochee	Cusseta	250	14,679	Macon	Oglethorpe	404	13,745
Chattooga	Summerville	314	26,570	Madison	Danielsville	285	27,289
Cherokee	Canton	424	184,211	Marion	Buena Vista	366	7,244
Clarke	Athens	122	104,439	McDuffie	Thomson	256	21,743
Clay	Ft. Gaines	197	3,242	McIntosh	Darien	425	11,068
Clayton	Jonesboro	148	267,966	Meriwether	Greenville	506	22,919
Clinch	Homerville	821	6,996	Miller	Colquitt	284	6,228
Cobb	Marietta	343	663,818	Mitchell	Camilla	512	23,791
Coffee	Douglas	602	39,674	Monroe	Forsyth	397	23,785
Colquitt	Moultrie	556	43,915	Montgomery	Mt. Vernon	244	8,909
Columbia	Appling	290	103,812	Morgan	Madison	349	17,492
Cook	Adel	232	16,366	Murray	Chatsworth	345	40,812
Coweta	Newman	444	109,903	Muscogee	Columbus	218	185,271
Crawford	Knoxville	328	12,874	Newton	Covington	277	86,713
Crisp	Cordele	275	22,017	Oconee	Watkinsville	186	29,748
Dade	Trenton	176	16,040	Oglethorpe	Lexington	442	13,609
Dawson	Dawsonville	210	19,731	Paulding	Dallas	312	112,411
Decatur	Bainbridge	586	28,618	Peach	Ft. Valley	151	24,794
DeKalb	Decatur	270	677,959	Pickens	Jasper	232	28,442
Dodge	Eastman	504	19,574	Pierce	Blackshear	344	17,119
Dooly	Vienna	397	11,749	Pike	Zebulon	219	16,128
Dougherty	Albany	330	94,882	Polk	Cedartown	312	40,479
Douglas	Douglasville	203	112,760	Pulaski	Hawkinsville	249	9,737
Early	Blakely	516	12,056	Putnam	Eatonton	344	19,829
Echols	Statenville	420	4,253	Quitman	Georgetown	146	2,467
Effingham	Springfield	482	46,924	Rabun	Clayton	370	16,087
Elbert	Elberton	367	20,799	Randolph	Cuthbert	431	7,310
Emanuel	Swainsboro	688	22,108	Richmond	Augusta	326	195,769
Evans	Claxton	186	11,443	Rockdale	Conyers	132	78,545
Fannin	Blue Ridge	384	21,887	Schley	Ellaville	169	4,122
Fayette	Fayetteville	199	104,248	Screven	Sylvania	655	15,430
Floyd	Rome	519	94,198	Seminole	Donalsonville	225	9,226
Forsyth	Cumming	226	140,393	Spalding	Griffin	199	61,289
Franklin	Carnesville	264	21,590	Stephens	Toccoa	177	25,060
Fulton	Atlanta*	534	915,623	Stewart	Lumpkin	452	4,882
Gilmer	Ellijay	427	27,335	Sumter	Americus	488	32,912
Glascocock	Gibson	144	2,705	Talbot	Talbotton	395	6,709
Glynn	Brunswick	412	71,874	Taliaferro	Crawfordville	196	1,826
Gordon	Calhoun	355	50,279	Tattall	Reidsville	484	23,211
Grady	Cairo	459	24,466	Taylor	Butler	382	8,887
Greene	Greensboro	390	15,693	Telfair	MacRae	444	13,205
Gwinnett	Lawrenceville	435	726,273	Terrell	Dawson	337	10,711
Habersham	Clarkeville	278	39,603	Thomas	Thomasville	551	44,692

Georgia—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations (cont.)

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Tift	Tifton	268	40,793	Warren	Warrenton	286	6,101
Toombs	Lyons	371	27,274	Washington	Sandersville	683	20,118
Towns	Hiawassee	165	10,315	Wayne	Jesup	647	28,390
Treutlen	Soperton	202	6,753	Webster	Perston	210	2,289
Troup	La Grange	415	62,015	Wheeler	Alamo	299	6,706
Turner	Ashburn	289	9,474	White	Cleveland	242	24,055
Twiggs	Jeffersonville	362	10,299	Whitfield	Dalton	291	90,889
Union	Blairsville	320	19,782	Wilcox	Abbeville	382	8,721
Upson	Thomaston	326	27,679	Wilkes	Washington	470	10,457
Walker	La Fayette	446	63,890	Wilkinson	Irwinton	451	10,143
Walton	Monroe	330	75,647	Worth	Sylvester	575	21,996
Ware	Waycross	970	34,492	TOTALS		58,123	9,072,576

lation is projected to reach 10.2 million by 2015 and 11.4 million by 2025. The population density was 153.4 per sq mi in 2004.

During the first half of the 18th century, restrictive government policies discouraged settlement. In 1752, when Georgia became a royal colony, the population numbered only 3,500, of whom 500 were blacks. Growth was rapid thereafter, and by 1773, there were 33,000 people, almost half of them black. The American Revolution brought free land and an influx of settlers, so that by 1800 the population had swelled to 162,686. Georgia passed the 1 million mark by 1860, the 2 million mark by 1900, and by 1960, the population had doubled again. Georgia's population increased 19% between 1980 and 1990.

In 2004, the median age was 34. Over 26.4% of the population was under the age of 18, while 9.6% was age 65 or older.

There has always been a strained relationship between rural and urban Georgians, and the state's political system long favored the rural population. Since before the American Revolution, the city people have called country folk "crackers," a term that implies a lack of good manners and may derive from the fact that these pioneers drove their cattle before them with whips.

The state's three largest cities in 2004 were Atlanta, with an estimated population of 419,122; Columbus, 182,850; and Savannah, 129,808. The Atlanta metropolitan area had an estimated population of 4,708,297.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Georgia has been fundamentally a white/black state, with minimal ethnic diversity. Most Georgians are of English or Scotch-Irish descent. The number of Georgians who were foreign born rose dramatically between 1990 and 2000, from 173,126 (or 2.6% of the population) to 577,273 (7.1%). The 1990 figure was, in turn, a considerable increase over the 1980 total of 91,480 foreign-born Georgians and the 1970 figure of 33,000.

Between 1970 and 2000, the number of Georgians from Asia or the Pacific Islands increased from 8,838 in 1970 to 24,461 in 1980, to 76,000 in 1990, and to an estimated 177,416 in 2000 (173,170 Asians and 4,246 Pacific Islanders). In 2000, Asian Indians were the largest group, with a population of 46,132, followed by Vietnamese (29,016, up from 6,284 in 1990), Koreans (28,745), and Chinese (27,446). In 2004, 2.6% of the population was Asian and 0.1% was Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander.

Georgia's black population declined from a high of 47% of the total population in 1880 to about 26% in 1970, when there were

1,187,149 blacks. Black citizens accounted for 27% of the total population and numbered 1,747,000 in 1990. In 2000, the black population was estimated at 2,349,542, or 28.7% of the state total, the third-largest black population among the 50 states. By 2004, 29.6% of the population was black. Atlanta, which had 255,689 black residents (61.4%) in 2000, has been a significant center for the development of black leadership, especially at Atlanta University. With its long-established black elite, Atlanta has also been a locus for large black-owned business enterprises. There are elected and appointed blacks in the state government, and in 1973, Atlanta elected its first black mayor, Maynard Jackson. By 1984, there were 13 black mayors, including Andrew J. Young of Atlanta.

The American Indian population in Georgia was estimated to be 21,737 in 2000. The great Cherokee Nation and other related tribes had been effectively removed from the state 150 years earlier. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was American Indian. About 5.3% of the population (435,227 people) was of Hispanic or Latino origin as of 2000. That figure had increased to 6.8% by 2004. In 2004, 1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

The first Europeans entering what is now Georgia found it occupied almost entirely by Creek Indians of the Muskogean branch of Hokan-Siouan stock. Removed by treaty to Indian Territory after their uprising in 1813, the Creek left behind only such place-names as Chattahoochee, Chattooga, and Okefenokee. Except for the South Midland speech of the extreme northern up-country, Georgia English is typically Southern. Loss of the /r/ after a vowel in the same syllable is common. The diphthong /ai/ as in *right* is so simplified that Northern speakers hear the word as *rat*. *Can't* rhymes with *paint*, and *borrow*, *forest*, *foreign*, and *orange* all have the /ah/ vowel as in *father*. However, a highly unusual variety of regional differences, most of them in long vowels and diphthongs, makes a strong contrast between northern up-country and southern low-country speech. In such words as *care* and *stairs*, for example, many up-country speakers have a vowel like that in *cat*, while many low-country speakers have a vowel like that in *pane*.

In general, northern Georgia *snake doctor* contrasts with southern Georgia *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), *goobers* with *pinders* (peanuts), *French harp* with *harmonica*, *plum peach* with *press peach* (both clingstone peaches), *nicker* with *whicker* for a horse's neigh, and *sallet* with *salad*. In Atlanta a big sandwich is a *poorboy*; in Savannah, a peach pit is a *kernel*.

A distinctive variety of black English, called Gullah, is spoken in the islands off the Georgia and South Carolina coast, to which Creole-speaking slaves escaped from the mainland during the 17th and 18th centuries. Characteristic grammatical features include a lack of inflection in the personal pronoun, the invariant form of the *be* verb, and the absence of the final *s* in the third person singular of the present tense. Many of the private personal names stem directly from West African languages.

In 2000, 6,843,038 Georgians—90.1% of the population five years old and older—spoke only English at home, down from 95.2% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category “Other Indic languages” includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The category “Other Asian languages” includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	7,594,476	100.0
Speak only English	6,843,038	90.1
Speak a language other than English	751,438	9.9
Speak a language other than English	751,438	9.9
Spanish or Spanish Creole	426,115	5.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	43,428	0.6
German	32,777	0.4
Vietnamese	27,671	0.4
Korean	25,814	0.3
African languages	24,752	0.3
Chinese	23,812	0.3
Gujarathi	11,133	0.1
Other Indic languages	9,473	0.1
Other Asian languages	8,673	0.1
Arabic	8,557	0.1
Japanese	8,257	0.1
Hindi	7,596	0.1
Tagalog	7,308	0.1
Russian	7,175	0.1
Urdu	7,109	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

The Church of England was the established church in colonial Georgia. During this period, European Protestants were encouraged to immigrate and German Lutherans and Moravians took advantage of the opportunity. Roman Catholics were barred and Jews were not welcomed, but persons of both denominations came anyway. In the mid-18th century, George Whitefield, called the Great Itinerant, helped touch off the Great Awakening, the religious revival out of which came the Methodist and Baptist denominations. Daniel Marshall, the first “separate” Baptist in Georgia, established a church near Kiokee Creek in 1772. Some 16 years later, James Asbury formed the first Methodist Conference in Georgia.

The American Revolution resulted in the lessening of the authority of Anglicanism and a great increase in the number of Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians. During the 19th century, fundamentalist sects were especially strong among blacks. Roman Catholics from Maryland, Ireland, and Hispaniola formed a numerically small but important element in the cities, and Jewish citizens were active in the leadership of Savannah and Augusta. Catholics and Jews enjoyed general acceptance from the early 1800s until the first two decades of the 20th century, when they

became the targets of political demagogues, notably Thomas E. Watson.

In 2000, most of the religious adherents in the state were Evangelical Protestants with the Southern Baptist Convention claiming 1,719,484 adherents in about 3,233 congregations; there were 34,227 newly baptized members in 2002. Mainline Protestants included 476,727 United Methodists (in 2004), 105,774 USA Presbyterians (2000), and 71,950 Episcopalians (2000). Roman Catholic adherents in 2004 numbered about 447,126. Judaism claimed about 93,500 adherents in 2000, and there were about 38,882 Muslims the same year. Only 16 Buddhist and 15 Hindu congregations were reported, without membership numbers. About 55.2% of the population was not counted as part of any religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Georgia’s location between the Appalachian Mountains and the Atlantic Ocean makes it the link between the eastern seaboard and the Gulf states. In the 18th century, Carolina fur traders crossed the Savannah River at the site of Augusta and followed trails to the Mississippi River. Pioneer farmers soon followed the same trails and used the many river tributaries to send their produce to Savannah, Georgia’s first great depot. Beginning in 1816, steamboats plied the inland rivers, but they never replaced the older shallow-drafted Petersburg boats, propelled by poles.

From the 1830s onward, businessmen in the eastern cities of Savannah, Augusta, and Brunswick built railroads west to maintain their commerce. The two principal lines, the Georgia and the Central of Georgia, were required by law to make connection with a state-owned line, the Western and Atlantic, at the new town of Atlanta, which in 1847 became the link between Georgia and the Ohio Valley. By the Civil War, Georgia, with more miles of railroad than any other Deep South state, was a vital link between the eastern and western sectors of the Confederacy. After the war, the railroads contributed to urban growth as towns sprang up along their routes. Trackage increased from 4,532 mi (7,294 km) in 1890 to 7,591 mi (12,217 km) in 1920. But with competition from motor carriers, total trackage declined to 4,848 rail mi (7,805 km) by 2003. In the same year, CSX and Norfolk Southern were the only Class I railroads operating within the state. As of 2006, Amtrak provided east–west service through Atlanta, and north–south service through Savannah. In 1979, Atlanta inaugurated the first mass-transit system in the state, including the South’s first subway.

Georgia’s old intracoastal waterway carries about 1 million tons of shipping annually and is also used by pleasure craft and fishing vessels. Savannah’s modern port facilities handled 28.176 million tons of cargo in 2004, making it the state’s main deepwater port and the 28th busiest port in the United States. The coastal cities of Brunswick and St. Mary’s also have deepwater docks. In 2004, Georgia had 721 mi (1,160 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 25.356 million tons.

In the 1920s, Georgia became the gateway to Florida for motorists. Today, I-75 is the main route from Atlanta to Florida, and I-20 is the major east–west highway. Both cross at Atlanta with I-85, which proceeds southeast from South Carolina to Alabama. I-95 stretches along the coast from South Carolina through Savannah to Jacksonville, Florida. During the 1980s, Atlanta invested \$1.4 billion in a freeway expansion program that permitted capac-

ity to double. In 2004, Georgia had 116,917 mi (188,236 km) of public roads, some 7.896 million registered motor vehicles, and 5,793,143 licensed drivers.

In 2005, Georgia had a total of 455 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 341 airports, 109 heliports, 4 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 1 seaplane base. Hartsfield-Jackson Atlanta International Airport is the air traffic hub in the Southeast and in 2004 was the busiest airport in the United States with 41,123,857 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

The history of what is now Georgia was influenced by two great prehistoric events: first, the upheaval that produced the mountains of the north, and second, the overflow of an ancient ocean that covered and flattened much of the rest of the state. Human beings have inhabited Georgia for at least 12,000 years. The first nomadic hunters were replaced by shellfish eaters who lived along the rivers. Farming communities later grew up at these sites, reaching their height in the Master Farmer culture about AD 800. These Native Americans left impressive mounds at Ocmulgee, near Macon, and at Etowah, north of Atlanta.

During the colonial period, the most important Indian tribes were the Creek, who lived along the central and western rivers, and the Cherokee, who lived in the mountains. By clever diplomacy, the Creek were able to maintain their position as the fulcrum of power between the English on the one hand and the French and Spanish on the other. With the ascendancy of the English and the achievement of statehood, however, the Creek lost their leverage and were expelled from Georgia in 1826. The Cherokee sought to adopt the white man's ways in their effort to avoid expulsion or annihilation. Thanks to their remarkable linguist Sequoyah, they learned to write their own language, later running their own newspaper, the *Cherokee Phoenix*, and their own schools. Some even owned slaves. Unfortunately for the Cherokee, gold was discovered on their lands; the Georgia state legislature confiscated their territory and outlawed the system of self-government the Cherokee had developed during the 1820s. Despite a ruling by the US Supreme Court, handed down by Chief Justice John Marshall, that Georgia had acted illegally, federal and state authorities expelled the Cherokee between 1832 and 1838. Thousands died on the march to Indian Territory (Oklahoma), known ever since as the Trail of Tears.

Georgia's first European explorer was Hernando de Soto of Spain, who in 1540 crossed the region looking for the fabled Seven Cities of Gold. French Huguenots under Jean Ribault claimed the Georgia coast in 1562 but were driven out by the Spanish captain Pedro Menéndez Avilés in 1564, who by 1586 had established the mission of Santa Catalina de Gaule on St. Catherines Island. (The ruins of this mission—the oldest European settlement in Georgia—were discovered by archaeologists in 1982.) By 1700, Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries had established an entire chain of missions along the Sea Islands and on the lower Chattahoochee.

From Charles Town, in the Carolina Colony, the English challenged Spain for control of the region, and by 1702 they had forced the Spaniards back to St. Augustine, Florida. In 1732, after the English had become convinced of the desirability of locating a buffer between the valuable rice-growing colony of Carolina and Indian-held lands to the south and west, King George II granted a

charter to a group called the Trustees for Establishing the Colony of Georgia in America. The best known of the trustees was the soldier-politician and philanthropist James Edward Oglethorpe. His original intention was to send debtors from English prisons to Georgia, but Parliament refused to support the idea. Instead, Georgia was to be a place where the industrious poor would produce those things England needed, such as silk and wine, and would guard the frontier. Rum and slavery were expressly prohibited.

Oglethorpe and the first settlers landed at Yamacraw Bluff on 12 February 1733 and were given a friendly reception by a small band of Yamacraw Indians and their chief, Tomochichi. Oglethorpe is best remembered for laying out the town of Savannah in a unique design, featuring numerous plazas that still delight tourists today; however, as a military man, his main interest was defending the colony against the Spanish. After war was declared in 1739, Oglethorpe conducted an unsuccessful siege of St. Augustine. The Spaniards counterattacked at Oglethorpe's fortified town of Frederica on St. Simons Island in July 1742 but were repulsed in a confused encounter known as the Battle of Bloody Marsh, which ended Spanish threats to the British colonies. Soon afterward, Oglethorpe returned permanently to England.

The trustees' restrictions on rum and slavery were gradually removed, and in 1752, control over Georgia reverted to Parliament. Georgia thus became a royal colony, its society, like that of Carolina, shaped by the planting of rice, indigo, and cotton. After the French and Indian War, settlers began to pour into the Georgia backcountry above Augusta. Because these back-country pioneers depended on the royal government for protection against the Indians, they were reluctant to join the protests by Savannah merchants against new British mercantile regulations. When war came, however, the backcountry seized the opportunity to wrest political control of the new state away from Savannah.

Georgians spent the first three years of the Revolutionary War in annual attempts to invade Florida, each of them unsuccessful. The British turned their attention to Georgia late in 1778, reestablishing control of the state as far as Briar Creek, midway between Savannah and Augusta. After a combined French and American force failed to retake Savannah in October 1779, the city was used by the British as a base from which to recapture Charleston, in present-day South Carolina, and to extend their control further inland. For a year, most of Georgia was under British rule, and there was talk of making the restoration permanent in the peace settlement. However, Augusta was retaken in June 1781, and independent government was restored. A year later, the British were forced out of Savannah.

With Augusta as the new capital of Georgia, a period of rapid expansion began. Georgia ratified the US Constitution on 2 January 1788, the fourth state to do so. The invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1793 made cotton cultivation profitable in the lands east of the Oconee River, relinquished by the Creek Indians under the Treaty of New York three years earlier. A mania for land speculation climaxed in the mid-1790s with the Yazoo Fraud, in which the state legislature sold 50 million acres (20 million hectares), later the states of Alabama and Mississippi, to land companies of which many of the legislators were members.

Georgia surrendered its lands west of the Chattahoochee River to the federal government in 1802. As the Indians were removed to the west, the lands they had occupied were disposed of by suc-

cessive lotteries. The settlement of the cotton lands brought prosperity to Georgia, a fact that influenced Georgians to prefer the Union rather than secession during the constitutional crises of 1833 and 1850, when South Carolina was prepared to secede.

After South Carolina did secede in 1860, Georgia also withdrew from the Union and joined the Confederate States of America. Union troops occupied the Sea Islands during 1862. Confederate forces defeated the Union Army's advance into northern Georgia at Chickamauga in 1863, but in 1864, troops under General William Tecumseh Sherman moved relentlessly upon Atlanta, capturing it in September. In November, Sherman began his famous "march to the sea," in which his 60,000 troops cut a swath of destruction 60 mi (97 km) wide. Sherman presented Savannah as a Christmas present to President Abraham Lincoln.

After ratifying the 14th and 15th amendments, Georgia was readmitted to the Union on 15 July 1870. Commercial interests were strong in antebellum Georgia, but their political power was balanced by that of the great planters. After the Democrats recovered control of the state in 1871, business interests dominated politics. Discontented farmers supported an Independent Party in the 1870s and 1880s, and then the Populist Party in the 1890s. Democratic representative Thomas E. Watson, who declared himself a Populist during the early 1890s, was defeated three times in congressional races by the party he had deserted. Watson subsequently fomented antiblack, anti-Jewish, and anti-Catholic sentiment in order to control a bloc of rural votes with which he dominated state politics for 10 years. In 1920, Watson finally was elected to the US Senate, but he died in 1922. Rebecca L. Felton was appointed to succeed him, thus becoming the first woman to serve in the US Senate, although she was replaced after one day.

Franklin D. Roosevelt learned the problems of Georgia farmers firsthand when he made Warm Springs his second home in 1942. However, his efforts to introduce the New Deal to Georgia after he became president in 1933 were blocked by Governor Eugene Talmadge, who advertised himself as a "real dirt farmer." It was not until the administration of Eurith D. Rivers (1937–41) that progressive social legislation was enacted. Governor Ellis Arnall gained national attention for his forward-looking administration (1943–47), which revised the outdated 1877 state constitution and gave the vote to 18-year-olds. Georgia treated the nation to the spectacle of three governors at once when Eugene Talmadge was elected for a fourth time in 1946 but died before assuming office. His son Herman was then elected by the legislature, but the new lieutenant governor, M. E. Thompson, also claimed the office, and Arnall refused to step aside until the issue was resolved. The courts finally decided in favor of Thompson.

The US Supreme Court order to desegregate public schools in 1954 provided Georgia politicians with an emotional issue they exploited to the hilt. A blow was dealt to old-style politics in 1962, however, when the Supreme Court declared the county-unit system unconstitutional. Under this system, state officers and members of Congress had been selected by county units instead of by popular vote since 1911; the new ruling made city voters as important as those in rural areas. During the 1960s, Atlanta was the home base for the civil rights efforts of Martin Luther King Jr., though his campaign to end racial discrimination in Georgia focused most notably on the town of Albany. Federal civil rights legislation in 1964 and 1965 changed the state's political climate

by guaranteeing the vote to black citizens. An African American man, Julian Bond, was elected to the state legislature in 1965; in 1973, Maynard Jackson was elected mayor of Atlanta, thus becoming the first black mayor of a large southern city. For decades, the belief that defense of segregation was a prerequisite for state elective office cost white southerners any chance they might have had for national leadership. Governor Jimmy Carter's unequivocal renunciation of racism in his inaugural speech in 1971 thus marked a turning point in Georgia politics and was a key factor in his election to the presidency in 1976.

Another African American, former US ambassador to the United Nations Andrew Young, succeeded Jackson as mayor of Atlanta in 1981, when that city—and the state—was experiencing an economic boom. The prosperity of Atlanta in the 1970s and 1980s stemmed largely from its service-based economy, which was centered on such industries as the airlines, telecommunications, distribution, and insurance. The decline of service industries in the early 1990s, however, pulled Atlanta and the state of Georgia as a whole into a recession. That decline was epitomized by the 1991 collapse of Eastern Airlines, one of the two airlines that used Atlanta as its hub, which cost Atlanta 10,000 jobs. While Atlanta's economic expansion produced a more mature economy, it also raised the price of labor. Nevertheless, as the decade progressed, the state's economy rebounded, fueled in part by the science and technology sector. Georgia emerged as "a leading light" in the South in building a strong research and technology infrastructure. Both 1996 and 1999 were record years for job growth. The state's unemployment rate was 4% in 1999, slightly lower than the national rate. While the economy boomed, there were changes on the horizon: In 2000, major employers Lockheed Martin, Coca-Cola, and BellSouth announced combined layoffs of more than 15,000 Georgia workers. Still, some analysts predicted the state economy could weather such fluctuations.

In 1996, Atlanta hosted the 26th Summer Olympics, which marked the 100th anniversary of the modern games. The event was marred by the July 27 explosion of a homemade pipe bomb in Centennial Olympic Park, killing one person and injuring dozens of others.

In July 1994, record flooding over a 10-day period caused 31 deaths and millions of dollars in damage in central and southwest Georgia. But in the summer of 2000, Georgians had a decidedly different problem. The state was parched by drought. Some areas had received less rain in the previous 25 months than at any time in recorded weather history. Peanut and cotton farmers in the southern part of the state struggled to irrigate fields. The residents of greater Atlanta, where nearly 100,000 people are added each year, felt the effects as well. Increased demand combined with drought conditions to require authorities to restrict outdoor watering in the 15-county Atlanta region. But the situation promised to reach beyond prevailing weather conditions and preservation measures: Officials estimated that by 2020, the region's demand for water would increase by 50%. Meanwhile Georgia's governor worked with the governors of neighboring Alabama and Florida to reach a voluntary agreement on how to share water from rivers the states share.

Governor Sonny Purdue outlined the problems Georgia faced in his 2003 State of the State address, including a weak economy (following the US recession that had begun in 2001), declining

tax revenues, and poor SAT scores. To address the last topic, Purdue stressed the need for higher education standards. In 2003, the Georgia Board of Regents approved raising tuition by as much as 15% at the state's public colleges and universities to compensate for state budget cuts. Georgia's \$460 million HOPE Scholarship program, funded by the state lottery, covers all tuition, mandatory fees, and book costs for all Georgia residents attending a state school and maintaining a B average. In 2005, the state still dealt with uninspired economic growth (despite a slightly rising employment rate) created by rising interest rates, dwindling federal fiscal stimulus, and overextended consumers.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Georgia's first constitution, adopted in 1777, was considered one of the most democratic in the new nation. Power was concentrated in a unicameral legislature; a Senate was added in 1789. The Civil War period brought a flurry of constitution making in 1861, 1865, and 1868. When the Democrats displaced the Republicans after Reconstruction, they felt obliged to replace the constitution of 1868 with a rigidly restrictive one. This document, adopted in 1877, modified by numerous amendments, and revised in 1945 and 1976, continued to govern the state until July 1983, when a new constitution, ratified in 1982, took effect. There were 63 amendments by January 2005.

The legislature, called the General Assembly, consists of a 56-seat Senate and a 180-seat House of Representatives; all the legislators serve two-year terms. The legislature convenes on the second Monday in January and stays in session for 40 legislative days. Recesses called during a session may considerably extend its length. Special sessions may be called by petition of three-fifths of the members of each house. During the 1960s and 1970s, the legislature engaged in a series of attempts to redistrict itself to provide equal representation based on population; it was finally redistrict-

ed in 1981 on the basis of 1980 Census results. House members must be at least 21 years old and senators, at least 25. All legislators must be US citizens, have lived in the state for two years, and have been a resident in their district for at least one year. Legislators received a salary of \$16,200 in 2004.

Elected executives include the governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, attorney general, comptroller, state school superintendent, commissioner of agriculture, commissioner of labor, and five public service commissioners. Each serves a four-year term. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive terms. To be eligible for office, the governor and lieutenant governor, who are elected separately, must be at least 30 years old and have been US citizens for 15 years and Georgia citizens for six years preceding the election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$127,303.

To become law, a bill must be passed by both houses of the legislature and approved by the governor or passed over the executive veto by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of both houses. All revenue measures originate in the House, but the Senate can propose, or concur in, amendments to these bills. Amendments to the constitution may be proposed by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of each chamber and must then be ratified by a majority of the popular vote. If the governor does not sign or veto a bill, it becomes law after six days when the legislature is in session or after 40 days after the legislature has adjourned.

To be eligible to vote in state elections, a person must be at least 18 years old, a US citizen, and a resident in the county of registration. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The first political group to emerge in the state was the Federalist Party, but it was tainted by association with the Yazoo Fraud of

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	GEORGIA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROGRESSIVE	WRITE-IN
1948	12	*Truman (D)	254,646	76,691	85,136	1,636	—
1952	12	Stevenson (D)	456,823	198,961	—	—	—
1956	12	Stevenson (D)	444,6878	222,778	—	—	—
1960	12	*Kennedy (D)	458,638	274,472	—	—	—
1964	12	Goldwater (R)	522,163	616,584	—	—	—
1968	12	Wallace (AI)	334,440	380,111	535,550	—	—
1972	12	*Nixon (R)	289,529	881,490	—	—	—
1976	12	*Carter (D)	979,409	483,743	—	1,1681	1,071
1980	12	Carter (D)	890,955	654,168	LIBERTARIAN 15,627	—	—
1984	12	*Reagan (R)	706,628	1,068,722	1521	—	—
1988	12	*Bush (R)	714,792	1,081,331	8,435	NEW ALLIANCE 5,099	—
1992	13	*Clinton (D)	1,008,966	995,252	7,110	IND. (Perot) 309,657	—
1996	13	Dole (R)	1,053,849	1,080,843	17,870	146,337	—
2000	13	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,116,230	1,419,720	36,332	IND. (Buchanan) 10,926	(Nader) 13,432
2004	15	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,366,149	1,914,254	18,387	WRITE-IN (Peroutka) 580	2,231

*Won US presidential election.

the 1790s. The reform party at this time was the Democratic-Republican Party, headed in Georgia by James Jackson (whose followers included many former Federalists), William Crawford, and George Troup. During the presidency of Andrew Jackson (1829–37), one wing, headed by John Clark, supported the president and called itself the Union Party. The other faction, led by Troup, defended South Carolina's right to nullify laws and called itself the States' Rights Party. Subsequently, the Union Party affiliated with the Democrats, and the States' Rights Party merged with the Whigs. When the national Whig Party collapsed, many Georgia Whigs joined the Native American (Know-Nothing) Party. During Reconstruction, the Republican Party captured the governor's office, but Republican hopes died when federal troops were withdrawn from the state in 1870.

Georgia voted solidly Democratic between 1870 and 1960, despite challenges from the Independent Party in the 1880s and the Populists in the 1890s. Georgia cast its electoral votes for the Democratic presidential candidate in every election until 1964, when Republican Barry Goldwater won the state. Four years later, George C. Wallace of the American Independent Party received Georgia's 12 electoral votes. Republican Richard Nixon carried the state in 1972, as the Republicans also became a viable party at the local level. In 1976, Georgia's native son Jimmy Carter returned the state to the Democratic camp in presidential balloting. Another native Georgian and former Georgia governor, Lester Maddox, was the American Independent candidate in 1976.

Republican George W. Bush won 55% of the vote and Democrat Al Gore won 43% in the 2000 presidential election; in 2004, Bush won 58% to Democrat John Kerry's 41%.

After the 1994 elections, Georgia congressman Newt Gingrich became the first Republican to hold the position of Speaker of the House of Representatives in 40 years. He resigned from Congress in 1999. In 1996, four-term US Democratic senator also Sam Nunn vacated his seat, which was won by Democrat Max Cleland, a Vietnam War veteran and triple amputee who had formerly headed the Veterans Administration. Cleland was defeated for reelection by Republican Saxby Chambliss in 2002.

Georgia's other senator, Republican Paul Coverdell, was elected in a special runoff election in 1992 and reelected in 1998. Coverdell died of a stroke in July 2000; former governor Zell Miller (Democrat) was appointed to succeed him. Miller was elected in November 2000 to serve the remaining four years of the term, but in 2003, he announced he would not run for reelection to the Senate in 2004. His seat was won by Republican Johnny Isakson.

In 1998, Georgians elected Democrat Roy Barnes governor, replacing outgoing (two-term) Democratic governor Zell Miller. Long-time Democrat Sonny Purdue changed party affiliations in 1998 to the Republican Party and won election as governor in 2002. He became the first Republican governor elected since Reconstruction in Georgia. Following the 2004 elections, Georgia's delegation to the House comprised seven Republicans and six Democrats. At the state level, there were 34 Republicans and 22 Democrats in the state Senate and 80 Democrats, 99 Republicans, and 1 independent in the state House in mid-2005. In 2004, there were 4,968,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state, which had 15 electoral votes in the presidential election that year.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The history of county government in Georgia is a long one. In 1758, colonial Georgia was divided into eight parishes, the earliest political districts represented in the Royal Assembly. By the constitution of 1777, the parishes were transformed into counties, and as settlement gradually expanded, the number of counties grew. The Georgia constitution of 1877 granted counties from one to three seats in the House of Representatives, depending on population. This county-unit system was used in counting votes for elected state and congressional offices until 1962, when it was ruled unconstitutional by the US Supreme Court. Originally administered by judges of county courts, today Georgia counties are administered by the commission system. In 1965, the legislature passed a home-rule law permitting local governments to amend their own charters.

The traditional and most common form of municipal government is the mayor-council form. But city managers are employed by some communities, and a few make use of the commission system. During the 1970s, there were efforts to merge some of the larger cities with their counties. However, most county voters showed an unwillingness to be burdened with city problems.

In 2005, Georgia had 159 counties, 531 municipal governments, 581 special districts, and 180 school districts.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 377,938 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Georgia operates under the authority of executive order; the state homeland security director is appointed.

The State Ethics Commission is charged with providing procedures for public disclosure of all state and local campaign contributions and expenditures.

Educational services are provided by the Board of Education, which exercises jurisdiction over all public schools, including teacher certification and curriculum approval. The superintendent of schools is the board's executive officer. The public colleges are operated by the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia, whose chief administrator is the chancellor. Air, water, road, and rail services are administered by the Department of Transportation.

The Reorganization Act of 1972 made the Department of Human Resources a catch-all agency for health, rehabilitation, and social-welfare programs. The department offers special services to the mentally ill, drug abusers and alcoholics, neglected and abused children and adults, juvenile offenders, the handicapped, the aged, and the poor.

Public protection services are rendered through the Department of Public Safety. Responsibility for natural-resource protection is lodged with the Department of Natural Resources, into which 33 separate agencies were consolidated in 1972. The Environmental Protection Division is charged with maintaining air, land, and water quality standards; the Wildlife Resources Division manages wildlife resources; and the Parks, Recreation, and Historic Sites Division administers state parks, recreational areas, and

historic sites. Labor services are provided by the Department of Labor, which oversees workers' compensation programs.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Georgia's highest court is the supreme court, created in 1845 and consisting of a chief justice, presiding justice (who exercises the duties of chief justice in his absence), and five associate justices. They are elected by the people to staggered six-year terms in non-partisan elections.

Georgia's general trial courts are the superior courts, which have exclusive jurisdiction in cases of divorce and land title and in felony cases. As of 1999, there were 175 superior court judges, all of them elected for four-year terms in nonpartisan elections. Cases from local courts can be carried to the court of appeals, consisting of 10 judges elected for staggered six-year terms in nonpartisan elections. Each county has a probate court; there are also separate juvenile courts. Most judges of the county and city courts are appointed by the governor with the consent of the Senate.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 51,104 prisoners were held in Georgia's state and federal prisons, an increase from 47,208 or 8.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 3,436 inmates were female, up from 3,145 or 9.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Georgia had an incarceration rate of 574 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Georgia had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 455.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 40,217 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 376,656 reported incidents or 4,265.9 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Georgia has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. On 5 October 2001, the Georgia Supreme Court ruled that use of the electric chair was cruel and unusual punishment. From 1976 through 5 May 2006 the state executed 39 persons; three were executed in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, there were 109 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Georgia spent \$285,944,298 on homeland security, an average of \$34 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 88,933 active-duty military personnel stationed in Georgia, 5,076 National Guard and Reserve personnel, and 26,307 civilian employees. Major facilities include Dobbins Air Reserve Base, Ft. Gillem, and Ft. McPherson, all located in the Atlanta area; Ft. Stewart and Hunter Army Airfield near Savannah; Ft. Gordon at Augusta; Moody Air Force Base at Macon; Ft. Benning, a major Army training installation at Columbus; Robins Air Force Base, between Columbus and Macon; and a Navy Supply School in Athens. In 2004, Georgia firms received defense contracts worth \$3.9 billion, down from \$6.0 billion in 2001. Defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$6.6 billion in 2004.

There were 760,323 veterans of US military service in Georgia as of 2003, of whom 67,200 served in World War II; 63,192 in the Korean conflict; 228,543 during the Vietnam era; and 162,895 in the Persian Gulf War. In all, 77,000 Georgians fought and 1,503

died in World War I, and 320,000 served and 6,754 were killed in World War II. In 2004, federal government expenditures for Georgia veterans amounted to \$1.9 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Georgia State Police employed 795 full-time sworn officers. The Georgia Bureau of Investigation, part of the Department of Public Safety, operates the Georgia Crime Laboratory, one of the oldest and largest in the United States.

18 MIGRATION

During the colonial period, the chief source of immigrants to Georgia was England; other important national groups were Germans, Scots, and Scotch-Irish. The number of African slaves increased from 1,000 in 1752 to nearly 20,000 in 1776. After the Revolution, a large number of Virginians came to Georgia, as well as lesser numbers of French refugees from Hispaniola and immigrants from Ireland and Germany. Following the Civil War, there was some immigration from Italy, Russia, and Greece. The greatest population shifts during the 20th century have been from country to town and, after World War I, of black Georgians to northern cities. Georgia suffered a net loss through migration of 502,000 from 1940 to 1960 but enjoyed a net gain of 329,000 during 1970–80 and about 500,000 during 1980–90. From 1985 to 1990, Georgia's net gain through migration was greater than that of any other state except California and Florida. There were net gains of 598,000 in domestic migration and 90,000 in international migration between 1990 and 1998. From 1980 to 1990, the share of native-born residents in Georgia fell from 71% to 64.5%. In 1998, Georgia admitted 10,445 immigrants from foreign countries. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 18%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 192,844 and net internal migration was 232,666, for a net gain of 425,510 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Multistate agreements in which Georgia participates include the Alabama-Coosa-Tallapoosa River Basin Compact, Appalachian Regional Commission, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Historic Chattahoochee Compact, Interstate Rail Passenger Network Compact, Apalachicola-Chattahoochee-Flint River Basin Compact, Southern Regional Education Board, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, and Southern States Energy Board. In fiscal year 2005, federal aid to Georgia totaled \$9.014 billion. For fiscal year 2006, federal grants amounted to an estimated \$9.008 billion, and an estimated \$9.355 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

According to the original plans of Georgia's founders, its people were to be sober spinners of silk. The reality was far different, however. During the period of royally appointed governors, Georgia became a replica of Carolina, a plantation province producing rice, indigo, and cotton. After the Revolution, the invention of the cotton gin established the plantation system even more firmly by making cotton planting profitable in the piedmont. Meanwhile, deerskins and other furs and lumber were produced in the backcountry, while rice remained an important staple along the coast. Turnpikes, canals, and railroads were built, and textile manufac-

turing became increasingly important, especially in Athens and Augusta.

At the end of the Civil War, the state's economy was in ruins, and tenancy and sharecropping were common. Manufacturing, especially of textiles, was promoted by "New South" spokesmen such as Henry Grady of Atlanta and Patrick Walsh of Augusta. Atlanta, whose nascent industries included production of a thick sweet syrup called Coca-Cola, symbolized the New South idea—then as now. Farmers did not experience the benefits of progress, however. Many of them flocked to the mills, while others joined the Populist Party in an effort to air their grievances. To the planters' relief, cotton prices rose from the turn of the century through World War I. Meanwhile, Georgians lost control of their railroads and industries to northern corporations. During the 1920s, the boll weevil wrecked the cotton crops, and farmers resumed their flight to the cities. Not until the late 1930s did Georgia accept Social Security, unemployment compensation, and other relief measures.

Georgia's economy underwent drastic changes as a result of World War II. Many northern industries moved to Georgia to take advantage of low wages and low taxes, conditions that meant low benefits for Georgians. The raising of poultry and livestock became more important than crop cultivation, and manufacturing replaced agriculture as the chief source of income. In 1997, less than 1% of the employed labor force was working in agriculture; 32% were service workers; 22% retail salespeople; and 19% manufacturers. Georgia is a leader in the making of paper products, tufted textile products, processed chickens, naval stores, lumber, and transportation equipment.

Textile manufacturing, Georgia's oldest industry, remained its single most important industrial source of income until 1999, when output from food processing exceeded it. From 1997 to 2001, annual textile output declined 8.4%, whereas output from food processing increased 12.1%. Other manufacturing sectors were also increasing, so that from 1997 to 2000, there was an overall 16% increase in Georgia's manufacturing output. More than half of the gain was lost, however, in the national recession in 2001, as manufacturing output fell 8.3% in one year, reducing the net gain since 1997 to 6.4%. By contrast, output from general services increased nearly 40% from 1997 to 2001, and from financial services (including insurance and real estate) increased almost 32%. Output from other service areas—wholesale and retail trade, transportation and public utilities, and government—all increased more than 25% from 1997 to 2001. The national recession of 2001, however, affected Georgia's economy worse than most, as its strong annual growth rates at the end of the 20th century (8.2% in 1998, 8.5% in 1999 and 6.7% in 2000) dropped abruptly to 1.5% in 2001. The state lost more than 133,000 jobs from January 2001 to October 2002. Layoffs in the fourth quarter of 2002 amounted to a 2.2% increase over the fourth quarter of 2001, the worst performance in the country.

Georgia's gross state product (GSP) in 2005 was \$364 billion, up from \$343.125 billion in 2004. Manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) in 2004 accounted for the biggest portion at \$47.677 billion or nearly 13.9% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$38.293 billion (11.1% of GSP), and wholesale trade at \$25.847 billion (7.5% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 722,089 small businesses in Georgia. Of the 202,979 businesses

having employees, a total of 198,271 or 97.7% were small companies. An estimated 29,547 new businesses were established in Georgia in 2004, up 22% from the previous year. Business terminations that same year came to 27,835, up 7.5% from the previous year. Business bankruptcies totaled 2,090 in 2004, up 31.9% from 2003. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 930 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Georgia as the fifth-highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Georgia had a gross state product (GSP) of \$364 billion which accounted for 2.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 10 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004, Georgia had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$29,782. This ranked 36th in the United States and was 90% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.7%. Georgia had a total personal income (TPI) of \$265,599,116,000, which ranked 12th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.9% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 6.0%. Earnings of persons employed in Georgia increased from \$203,459,898,000 in 2003 to \$216,399,592,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$43,217 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 12.0% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Georgia numbered 4,693,900, with approximately 214,800 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 4,078,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Georgia was 8.3% in January 1983. The historical low was 3.4% in December 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.2% of the labor force was employed in construction; 21.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.6% in financial activities; 13.4% in professional and business services; 10.6% in education and health services; 9.3% in leisure and hospitality services; and 16.1% in government. Data were unavailable for manufacturing.

The trend during the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s was toward increased employment in trade and service industries and toward multiple job holding. Employment in agriculture, the leading industry prior to World War II, continued its long-term decline. One indication of declining employment was the decrease in farm population, which went from 515,000 in 1960 to 228,000 in 1970, to 121,000 in 1980, and to 73,647 in 1990. Georgia's farm employment in 1996 totaled about 42,000. The mining, construction, and manufacturing industries registered employment increases

but declined in importance relative to such sectors as trade and services.

Georgia is not considered to be a unionized state. Among state laws strictly regulating union activity is a right-to-work law enacted in 1947. In that year, union members in Georgia numbered 256,800.

In 1962, the Georgia legislature denied state employees the right to strike. Strikes in Georgia tend to occur less frequently than in most heavily industrialized states. One of the earliest state labor laws was an 1889 act requiring employers to provide seats for females to use when resting. A child-labor law adopted in 1906 prohibited the employment of children under 10 years of age in manufacturing. A general workers' compensation law was enacted in 1920.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 190,000 of Georgia's 3,765,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 5% of those so employed, down from 6.4% in 2004 and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 226,000 workers (6%) in Georgia were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation.

As of 1 March 2006, Georgia had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 45.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

In 2005, Georgia's farm marketings totaled \$5.9 billion (12th in the United States). Georgia ranked first in the production of peanuts and pecans, harvesting 25% of all the pecans grown in the United States in 2004 and 43% of the peanuts.

Cotton, first planted near Savannah in 1734, was the mainstay of Georgia's economy through the early 20th century, and the state's plantations also grew corn, rice, tobacco, wheat, and sweet potatoes. World War I stimulated the cultivation of peanuts along with other crops. By the 1930s, tobacco and peanuts were challenging cotton for agricultural supremacy, and Georgia had also become an important producer of peaches, a product for which the "Peach State" was still widely known in the early 2000s. In 2004, Georgia produced 52,500 tons of peaches.

After 1940, farm mechanization and consolidation were rapid. The number of tractors increased from 10,000 in 1940 to 85,000 by 1955. In 1940, 6 out of 10 farms were tenant operated; by the mid-1960s, this proportion had decreased to fewer than 1 in 6. The number of farms declined from 226,000 in 1945 to 49,000 in 2004, when the average farm size was 218 acres (88 hectares). Georgia's farmland area of 10.7 million acres (4.3 million hectares) represents roughly 30% of its land area.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Georgia had an estimated 1.21 million cattle and calves valued at around \$931.7 million, and in 2004 an estimated 275,000 hogs and pigs valued at around \$25.3 million. Cows kept for milk production numbered an estimated 85,000 in 2003, when Georgia dairies produced around 1.4 billion lb (0.64 billion kg) of milk. In the same year, poultry farmers sold an estimated 6.3 billion lb (2.8 billion kg) of broilers, more than any other state, with a value

of \$2.14 billion, or about 47% of total farm receipts. The total egg production was 5.05 billion in 2003, valued at \$395.8 million.

25 FISHING

In 2004, the total commercial fishing catch in Georgia brought about 6.3 million lb (2.7 million kg) with a value of \$11.3 million. Commercial fishing in Georgia involves more shellfish than finfish, the most important of which are caught in the nets of shrimp trawlers. Leading finfish are snappers, groupers, tilefish, and porgy. In 2003, the state had 6 processing and 30 wholesale plants. In 2002, the commercial fleet had about 226 vessels.

In brisk mountain streams and sluggish swamps, anglers catch bass, catfish, jackfish, bluegill, crappie, perch, and trout. In 2005, Georgia had 55 catfish farms covering 1,090 acres (441 hectares), with an inventory of 1.4 million stocker-sized and 6.3 million fingerlings in early 2006. Georgia issued 667,198 sport fishing licenses in 2004.

26 FORESTRY

Georgia, which occupies 1.6% of the total US land area, has nearly 3.3% of the nation's forestland and nearly 5% of the nation's commercial forests. In 2004, Georgia's forest area totaled 24,405,000 acres (9,877,000 hectares), of which 23,802,000 acres (9,633,000 hectares) are commercial forest.

Forests cover about two-thirds of the state's land area. The most densely wooded counties are in the piedmont hills and northern mountains. Ware and Charlton counties in southeastern Georgia, containing the Okefenokee Swamp, are almost entirely forested. About 90% of Georgia's forestland is privately owned.

The chief products of Georgia's timber industry are pine lumber and pine panels for the building industry, hardwood lumber for the furniture industry, and pulp for the paper and box industry. In 2002, Georgia produced nearly 3 billion board feet of lumber (fourth in the United States), of which 87% was softwood (pine). Georgia is the leading softwood producer in the United States.

The chief recreational forest areas are in the Chattahoochee-Oconee National Forest, consisting of two main tracts in the northern and central part of the state. Georgia has 1,856,000 acres (751,123 hectares) of National Forest System lands, 99% of which are within the boundaries of the two major tracts.

27 MINING

According to data from the US Geological Survey, Georgia's output of nonfuel minerals was valued at \$1.8 billion, up 3.4% from 2003, making it eighth among the 50 states in the production of nonfuel minerals and accounting for over 4% of the US total.

In 2004, Georgia produced about 24% of all clays in the United States and 2.7 times as much as the next highest state. Kaolin clay was the leading commodity, accounting for over 49% of all nonfuel mineral production, by value, that year and around 86% of all clay output. Crushed stone ranked second and represented over 30%, by value, of all nonfuel mineral output in 2004, followed by fuller's earth (1.4 million metric tons; \$142 million), portland masonry cement, and construction sand and gravel.

Production of kaolin clay in 2004 totaled 6.78 million metric tons or \$898 million, while output of crushed stone totaled 79.5

million metric tons or \$544 million. Fuller's earth production came to 1.4 million metric tons or \$142 million.

Georgia was one of two states that produced barite (used by the chemical and industrial filler and pigments industries). Georgia ranked third in the production of mica (out of five states) and in dimension stone; fourth in the output of common clays and crushed stone; fifth in feldspar dimension stone; and eighth in masonry cement. The state is also a producer of blue-gray granite, known as "Elberton granite," which is commonly used for road curbing in the northeastern United States. Overall, Georgia's production of dimension stone totaled 146 million metric tons and was valued at \$22.1 million in 2004.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Georgia is an energy-dependent state that produces only a small proportion of its energy needs, most of it through hydroelectric power. There are no commercially recoverable petroleum or natural gas reserves, and the state's coal deposits are of no more than marginal importance. Georgia does have large amounts of timberland, however, and it has been estimated that 20%–40% of the state's energy demands could be met by using wood that is currently wasted. The state's southern location and favorable weather conditions also make solar power an increasingly attractive energy alternative. Georgia's extensive river system also offers the potential for further hydroelectric development.

As of 2003, Georgia had 98 electrical power service providers, of which 53 were publicly owned and 43 were cooperatives. Of the remaining two, both were investor owned. As of that same year there were 4,156,052 retail customers. Of that total, 2,158,412 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 1,668,488 customers, while publicly owned providers had 329,152 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 34.815 million kW, with total production that same year at 124.076 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 93.3% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 78.638 billion kWh (63.3%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear fueled plants in second place with 33.256 billion kWh (26.8%). Other renewable power sources, natural gas plants, hydroelectric and petroleum fired plants accounted for the remainder.

As of 2006, Georgia had two operating nuclear power plants: the Edwin I. Hatch power station near Baxley and the Vogtle plant in Burke County, near Augusta.

All utilities are regulated by the Georgia Public Service Commission, which must approve their rates.

Although exploration for oil has taken place off the coast, the state's offshore oil resources are expected to be slight. As of 2004, Georgia had no known proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. The state's only refinery is used to produce asphalt.

29 INDUSTRY

Georgia was primarily an agrarian state before the Civil War, but afterward its cities developed a strong industrial base by taking advantage of abundant waterpower to operate factories. Textiles

have long been dominant, but new industries have also been developed. Charles H. Herty, a chemist at the University of Georgia, discovered a new method of extracting turpentine that worked so well that Georgia led the nation in producing turpentine, tar, rosin, and pitch by 1982. Herty also perfected an economical way of making newsprint from southern pines, which was adopted by Georgia's paper mills. With the onset of World War II, meat-processing plants were built at rail centers, and fertilizer plants and cottonseed mills were expanded.

The state's—and Atlanta's—most famous product was created in 1886 when druggist John S. Pemberton developed a formula that he sold to Asa Griggs Candler, who in 1892 formed the Coca-Cola Co. In 1919, the Candler sold the company to a syndicate headed by Ernest Woodruff, whose son Robert made "Coke" into the world's most widely known commercial product. The transport equipment, chemical, food-processing, apparel, and forest-products industries today rival textiles in economic importance.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Georgia's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$131.454 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest portion at \$18.936 billion, followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$17.266 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$12.403 billion; textile product mills at \$12.291 billion; paper manufacturing at \$9.584 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$7.599 billion.

In 2004, a total of 419,562 people in Georgia were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 318,415 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 57,116, of which 45,793 were actual production workers, followed by the transportation equipment manufacturing industry at 39,757 (19,562 actual production workers); textile product mills at 34,776 employees (28,756 actual production workers); textile mills at 33,331 employees (29,844 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 28,796 employees (21,670 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 28,050 employees (22,499 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Georgia's manufacturing sector paid \$15.518 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.921 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$1.661 billion; paper manufacturing at \$1.058 billion; textile product mills at \$1.034 billion; and chemical manufacturing at \$1.021 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Georgia's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$201.09 billion from 13,794 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 8,509 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 4,077 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers, accounting for 1,208 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$112.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable

goods saw sales of \$73.4 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$15.4 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Georgia was listed as having 34,050 retail establishments with sales of \$90.09 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were gasoline stations (4,695); clothing and clothing accessories stores (4,640); food and beverage stores (3,998); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (3,949); and miscellaneous store retailers (3,471). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$24.6 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$13.5 billion; food and beverage stores at \$13.1 billion; gasoline stations at \$8.7 billion; and clothing and clothing accessories stores at \$5.09 billion. A total of 447,618 people were employed by the retail sector in Georgia that year.

Georgia exported goods worth \$20.5 billion in 2005. Savannah is Georgia's most important export center.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Georgia's basic consumer protection law is the Fair Business Practices Act of 1975, which forbids representing products as having official approval when they do not, outlaws advertising without the intention of supplying a reasonable number of the items advertised, and empowers the administrator of the law to investigate and resolve complaints and seek penalties for unfair practices. The administrator heads the Office of Consumer Affairs, which now also administers laws that regulate charitable solicitation, offers to sell or buy business opportunities, buying services or clubs, and telemarketing.

A comprehensive "Lemon Law" was passed in 1990. In 1997, a number of changes were made in Georgia's basic consumer protection laws. The Consumers' Utility Counsel became a division of the Office of Consumer Affairs. The counsel represents the interests of consumers and small businesses before the Georgia Public Service Commission. Telemarketing, Internet, and home remodeling/home repair fraud became criminal offenses under the jurisdiction of the Office of Consumer Affairs, with maximum sentences of up to 10 years. Multilevel marketing is now covered along with business opportunities. A Consumer Insurance Advocate represents citizens before the Georgia Commissioner of Insurance, the courts, and federal administrative agencies that speak on behalf of consumers with regard to insurance, such as insurance rate increases or the denial of health care services. The Office of Consumer Education attempts to create a more informed marketplace so consumers can protect themselves against fraud.

The state's Attorney General's Office can also become involved in consumer protection. However, these activities are limited to the initiation of civil and criminal proceedings; and the representation of the state before state and federal regulatory agencies. The office has only limited subpoena powers and it has no authority to act in antitrust actions.

The state's Office of Consumer Affairs is located in Atlanta.

32 BANKING

The state's first bank was a branch of the Bank of the United States, established at Savannah in 1802. Eight years later, the Georgia legislature chartered the Bank of Augusta and the Planters' Bank of

Savannah, with the state holding one-sixth of the stock of each bank. The state also subscribed two-thirds of the stock of the Bank of the State of Georgia, which opened branches throughout the region. To furnish small, long-term agricultural loans, in 1828 the state established the Central Bank of Georgia, but this institution collapsed in 1856 because the state kept dipping into its reserves. After the Civil War, the lack of capital and the high cost of credit forced farmers to borrow from merchants under the lien system. By 1900, there were 200 banks in Georgia; with an improvement in cotton prices, their number increased to nearly 800 by World War I. During the agricultural depression of the 1920s, about half these banks failed, and the number has remained relatively stable since 1940. Georgia banking practices came under national scrutiny in 1979, when Bert Lance, President Jimmy Carter's former budget director and the former president of the National Bank of Georgia, was indicted on 33 counts of bank fraud. The federal government dropped its case after Lance was acquitted on nine of the charges, and most of the rest were dismissed.

As of June 2005, Georgia had 346 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 69 state-chartered and 126 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Atlanta-Sandy Springs-Marietta market area had 138 financial institutions in 2004, with \$94.461 billion in deposits, followed by the Chattanooga area (which includes a portion of Georgia) at 26, with \$6.612 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 4.6% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$12.544 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 95.4% or \$260.170 billion in assets held.

The Georgia Department of Banking and Finance regulates state-chartered banks, CUs, and trust companies. Federally chartered financial institutions are regulated by the US government.

In 2005, Georgia's community banks saw improvements in profitability. Return on assets that year rose to 1.34%, and strong loan growth significantly boosted net interest income. Led by a double-digit growth in construction and development, overall loans increased by 14% in 2005. In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.28%, up from 4.23% in 2003. In addition, commercial real estate (CRE) loans grew from 39.7% of assets (\$7.5 billion) in 1996 to 61% of assets (\$34.5 billion) in 2005.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were over 5.6 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$422.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$684.7 billion. The average coverage amount is \$74,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$1.8 billion.

In 2003 there were 20 life and health insurance companies and 37 property and casualty insurance companies domiciled in Georgia. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$12.6 billion. That year, there were 70,475 flood insurance policies in force in the state, at a total value of \$13 billion. About \$2.6 billion of coverage was offered through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 56% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage and 27% for family coverage. The state offers a three-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 6 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$758.69.

34 SECURITIES

There are no stock or commodity exchanges in Georgia. In 2005, there were 2,770 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 3,950 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 231 publicly traded companies within the state, with 91 NASDAQ companies, 58 NYSE listings, and 13 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 17 Fortune 500 companies; Home Depot ranked first in the state and 14th in the nation with revenues of over \$81.5 billion, followed by United Parcel Service, Coca-Cola, BellSouth, and Coca-Cola Enterprises. All five companies are based in Atlanta and listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Because the Georgia constitution forbids the state to spend more than it takes in from all sources, the governor attempts to reconcile the budget requests of the state department heads with the revenue predicted by economists for the coming fiscal year. The governor's Office of Planning and Budget prepares the budget, which is then presented to the General Assembly at the beginning of each year's session. The assembly may decide to change the revenue estimate, but it usually goes along with the governor's forecast. The fiscal year begins on 1 July, and the first question for the assembly when it convenes the following January is whether to raise or lower the current year's budget estimate. If the revenues are better than expected, the legislators enact a supplemental budget. If the income is below expectations, cuts can be made.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$19.1 billion for resources and \$17.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Georgia were nearly \$11.7 billion.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Georgia collected \$15,676 million in tax revenues or \$1,728 per capita, which placed it 42nd among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.4% of the total, sales taxes 33.9%,

selective sales taxes 10.6%, individual income taxes 46.7%, corporate income taxes 4.5%, and other taxes 3.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, Georgia had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.0% to 6.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$7,844,826,000 or \$880 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 34th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$7,779,708,000 of the total and the state government \$65,118,000.

Georgia taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 3%, making

Georgia—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	34,814,306	3,903.82
General revenue	28,204,763	3,162.68
Intergovernmental revenue	9,095,862	1,019.94
Taxes	14,570,573	1,633.84
General sales	4,921,337	551.84
Selective sales	1,547,448	173.52
License taxes	617,663	69.26
Individual income tax	6,830,486	765.92
Corporate income tax	494,701	55.47
Other taxes	158,938	17.82
Current charges	2,388,566	267.84
Miscellaneous general revenue	2,149,762	241.06
Utility revenue	2,353	.26
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	6,607,190	740.88
Total expenditure	34,196,775	3,834.58
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,335,405	1,046.80
Direct expenditure	24,861,370	2,787.77
Current operation	17,587,719	1,972.16
Capital outlay	2,434,332	272.97
Insurance benefits and repayments	3,325,304	372.88
Assistance and subsidies	1,052,824	118.06
Interest on debt	461,191	51.71
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,990,821	447.50
Total expenditure	34,196,775	3,834.58
General expenditure	30,869,198	3,461.45
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,335,405	1,046.80
Direct expenditure	21,533,793	2,414.64
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	13,305,305	1,491.96
Public welfare	9,215,633	1,033.37
Hospitals	687,846	77.13
Health	1,003,217	112.49
Highways	1,393,760	156.29
Police protection	241,000	27.02
Correction	1,304,039	146.23
Natural resources	518,165	58.10
Parks and recreation	139,116	15.60
Government administration	758,981	85.11
Interest on general debt	461,191	51.71
Other and unallocable	1,840,945	206.43
Utility expenditure	2,273	.25
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	3,325,304	372.88
Debt at end of fiscal year	8,664,363	971.56
Cash and security holdings	64,062,476	7,183.50

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption offpremises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 37 cents per pack, which ranks 41st among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Georgia taxes gasoline at 15.3 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

For every dollar of federal tax collected in 2004, Georgia citizens received \$0.96 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Since the time of journalist Henry Grady (1851–89), spokesman for the “New South,” Georgia has courted industry. Corporate taxes have traditionally been low, wages also low, and unions weak. Georgia’s main attractions for new businesses are a favorable location for air, highway, and rail transport, a mild climate, a rapidly expanding economy, tax incentives and competitive wage scales, and an abundance of recreational facilities. During the 1990s, Georgia governors aggressively sought out domestic and foreign investors, and German, Japanese, and South American corporations were lured to the state. The state offers loans to businesses that are unable to obtain conventional financing, provides venture capital to start-up companies, and extends loans to small businesses and to companies in rural areas.

The Georgia Department of Economic Development (GDEcD) is the lead agency for promoting economic development in the state, tasked with recruiting businesses, trade partners, and tourists. The GDEcD was established by law in 1949 as the Department of Commerce (replacing the Agricultural and Industrial Development Board), and later renamed. The GDEcD is overseen by a board of 20 members appointed by the governor. The main operational units are Small Business, International, Innovation and Technology, Existing Industry Support, Tourism, and Film, Video and Music. The state funds city and county development plans, aids recreational projects, promotes research and development, and supports industrial training programs.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 15.7 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 16.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 85% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.7 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows heart disease, 204.8; cancer, 163.3; cerebrovascular diseases, 49.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 36.9; and diabetes, 18.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 8.3 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 18.6 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 56.1% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.1% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Georgia had 146 community hospitals with about 24,600 beds. There were about 926,000 patient admissions that year and 12.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 16,500 patients. The average cost per day for

hospital care was \$1,044. Also in 2003, there were about 360 certified nursing facilities in the state with 39,998 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 90.9%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Georgia had 219 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 658 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 4,024 dentists in the state.

About 23% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$10.7 billion.

The Medical College of Georgia, established at Augusta in 1828, is one of the oldest medical schools in the United States and the center of medical research in the state. The federal Centers for Disease Control (CDC) were established in Atlanta in 1973; in 1992, the CDC retain its acronym but changed its name to the Centers for Disease and Prevention.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

As a responsibility of state government, social welfare came late to Georgia. The state waited two years before agreeing to participate in the federal Social Security system in 1937. Eighteen years later, Georgia was distributing only \$62 million to the aged, blind, and disabled and to families with dependent children. By 1970, the amount had risen to \$150 million, but the state still lagged far behind the national average.

In 2004, about 208,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$242. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 921,427 persons (375,739 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$94.77 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$1 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state program had 124,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$203 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,192,050 Georgians. This number included 708,670 retired workers, 118,250 widows and widowers, 187,620 disabled workers, 54,720 spouses, and 122,790 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 13.5% of the total state population and 91.5% of the state’s population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$929; widows and widowers, \$836; disabled workers, \$878; and spouses, \$466. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$471 per month; children of deceased workers, \$605; and children of disabled workers, \$268. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 199,898 Georgia residents in December 2004, averaging \$372 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

Post–World War II housing developments provided Georgia families with modern, affordable dwellings. The home-loan guarantee programs of the Federal Housing Administration and the Veterans Administration made modest down payments, low interest rates, and long-term financing the norm in Georgia. The result was a vast increase in both the number of houses constructed and the percentage of families owning their own homes.

In 2004, there were an estimated 3,672,677 housing units in Georgia, of which 3,210,006 were occupied; 67.7% were owner occupied. About 65.9% of all units were single-family, detached homes; about 10.9% were mobile homes. It was estimated that about 190,323 units were without telephone service, 7,692 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 9,071 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Most households relied on gas and electricity for heating. The average household had 2.67 members.

In 2004, 108,400 privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median value of a one-family home was about \$136,910. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,126, while renters paid a median of \$677 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$999,875 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated over \$40.2 million in community development block grants to the state.

4¹ EDUCATION

During the colonial period, education was in the hands of private schoolmasters. Georgia's first constitution called for the establishment of a school in each county. The oldest school in the state is Richmond Academy (Augusta), founded in 1788. The nation's oldest chartered public university, the University of Georgia, dates from 1784. Public education was inadequately funded, however, until the inauguration of the sales tax in 1951, then at a 3% rate. By 1960, rural one-teacher schools had disappeared, and children were riding buses to consolidated schools.

Georgia has a comprehensive prekindergarten program, Bright from the Start, for children ages birth to four years old, the HOPE (Helping Outstanding Pupils Educationally) scholarship program, and special programs administered by the Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education. In 2004, 85.2% of the population age 25 or older had a high school diploma; 27.6% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher. The Board of Regents of the state university system increased its requirements for students starting college after 1988.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Georgia's public schools stood at 1,496,000. Of these, 1,089,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 407,000 attended high school. Approximately 52.1% of the students were white, 38.3% were black, 6.9% were Hispanic, 2.5% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,508,000 in fall 2003 and expected to reach 1,627,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 8.7% during the period 2002–14. In fall 2003, there were 120,697 students enrolled in 665 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$13.7 billion. Additionally, instructional services are provided for hearing- and sight-impaired students at three state schools: Atlan-

ta Area School for the Deaf, Georgia Academy for the Blind, and Georgia School for the Deaf. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Georgia scored 272 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 397,604 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 35.6% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Georgia had 126 degree-granting institutions. Thirty-five public colleges are components of the University System of Georgia; the largest of these is the University of Georgia (Athens). The largest private university is Emory (Atlanta). A scholarship program was established in 1978 for minority students seeking graduate and professional degrees.

4² ARTS

The Georgia Council for the Arts was founded in 1965. Major ongoing programs of the council include the Georgia Folklife Program (est. 1987), the Grassroots Arts Program (est. 1993), and the State Capitol Gallery (est. 1991), which features exhibits from the State Art Collection of over 600 works of art from Georgian artists. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Arts contributed 37 grants totaling \$2,788,300 to Georgia's arts programs. Arts organizations in the state receiving federal funding include the Summer Atlanta Jazz Series, the Chamber Music Rural Residencies, the Center for Puppetry Arts, Inc., and the Augusta Opera. The Augusta Opera marked its 40th anniversary in 2006. The Georgia Humanities Council was founded in 1971. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,501,272 to 19 state programs.

During the 20th century, Atlanta replaced Savannah as the major arts center of Georgia, while Athens, the seat of the University of Georgia, continued to share in the cultural life of the university. The state has eight major art museums, as well as numerous private galleries; especially notable is the High Museum of Art in Atlanta, dedicated in 1983—known not just for its expansive collection of artworks but also for its impressive architectural design. The High Museum of Art opened expanded facilities to the public in November 2005 to house its growing needs. The Atlanta Memorial Arts Center was dedicated in 1968 to the 100 members of the association who lost their lives in a plane crash. The Atlanta Art Association was chartered in 1905 and exhibits the work of contemporary Georgia artists.

The theater has enjoyed popular support since the first professional resident theater troupe began performing in Augusta in 1790. Atlanta has a resident theater, and there are community theaters in some 30 cities and counties. Georgia has actively cultivated the filmmaking industry, and in 2004, some 252 productions (including movies) were produced in the state.

Georgia has at least 11 symphony orchestras, ranging from the Atlanta Symphony (est. 1945) to community and college ensembles throughout the state. Atlanta and Augusta have professional ballet touring companies, Augusta has a professional opera company, and choral groups and opera societies perform in all major cities. Macon is home to the Georgia Music Hall of Fame. As of 2006, inductees included Ray Charles (inducted 1979), Otis Redding (inducted 1981), James Brown (inducted 1983), the B-52's (induct-

ed 2000), and Patty Loveless (inducted 2005). The north Georgia mountain communities retain their traditional folk music.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Georgia had 57 public library systems, with a total of 366 libraries, of which 309 were branches. The holdings of all public libraries that same year totaled 15,143,000 volumes of books and serial publications and had a total combined circulation of 36,229,000. The system also had 401,000 audio and 396,000 video items, 24,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 28 bookmobiles. The University of Georgia had by far the largest academic collection, including over 3 million books in addition to government documents, microfilms, and periodicals. Emory University, in Atlanta, has the largest private academic library, with about 1,520,921 bound volumes. In 2001, total operating income for the public library system was \$155,868,000, including \$2,988,000 in federal grants and \$34,696,000 in state grants.

Georgia has at least 179 museums, including the Telfair Academy of Arts and Sciences in Savannah, the Georgia State Museum of Science and Industry in Atlanta, the Columbus Museum of Arts and Sciences, and Augusta-Richmond County Museum in Augusta. Atlanta's Cyclorama depicts the 1864 Battle of Atlanta. The Crawford W. Long Medical Museum in Jefferson is a memorial to Dr. Long, a pioneer in the use of anesthetics. A museum devoted to gold mining is located at Dahlonega.

Georgia abounds in historical sites, 100 of which were selected for acquisition in 1972 by the Georgia Heritage Trust Commission. Sites administered by the National Park Service include the Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park, Kennesaw National Battlefield Park, Ft. Pulaski National Monument, and Andersonville National Monument near Americus, all associated with the Civil War, as well as the Ft. Frederica National Monument, an 18th-century English barracks on St. Simons Island. Also of historic interest are Factors Wharf in Savannah, the Hay House in Macon, and Franklin D. Roosevelt's "Little White House" at Warm Springs. The Martin Luther King Jr. National Historic Site was established in Atlanta in 1980. Also in Atlanta are President Jimmy Carter's library, museum, and conference center complex. The state's most important archaeological sites are the Etowah Mounds at Cartersville, the Kolomoki Mounds at Blakely, and the Ocmulgee Indian village near Macon.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Airmail service was introduced to Georgia about 1930, and since then the quantity of mail has increased enormously.

As of 2004, 91.2% of Georgian residences had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 5,332,517 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 60.6% of Georgia households had a computer and 53.5% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,351,237 high-speed lines in Georgia, 1,142,806 residential and 208,431 for business. In 2005, Georgia had 112 major radio stations, 24 AM and 88 FM. There were 37 major television stations in the same year. Atlanta had 1,774,720 television-owning households in 1999, 70% of which received cable.

On 1 June 1980, Atlanta businessman Ted Turner inaugurated the independent Cable News Network (CNN), which made

round-the-clock news coverage available to 4,100 cable television systems throughout the United States. By 1985, CNN was available to 32.3 million households in the United States through 7,731 cable television systems and broadcast to 22 other countries. By the late 1980s, CNN had become well known worldwide. In addition, Turner broadcasts CNN Headline News. A total of 183,093 Internet domain names were registered in Georgia as of 2000.

45 PRESS

Georgia's first newspaper was the *Georgia Gazette*, published by James Johnston from 1763 until 1776. When royal rule was temporarily restored in Savannah, Johnston published the *Royal Georgia Gazette*; when peace came, he changed the name again, this time to the *Gazette of the State of Georgia*. After the state capital was moved to Augusta in 1785, Greensburg Hughes, a Charleston printer, began publishing the *Augusta Gazette*. Today's *Augusta Chronicle* traces its origin to this paper and claims the honor of being the oldest newspaper in the state. In 1817, the *Savannah Gazette* became the state's first daily. After the Indian linguist Sequoyah gave the Cherokee a written language, Elias Boudinot gave them a newspaper, the *Cherokee Phoenix*, in 1828. Georgia authorities suppressed the paper in 1835 and Boudinot joined his tribe's tragic migration westward.

After the Civil War, Henry Grady made the *Atlanta Constitution* the most famous newspaper in the state with his "New South" campaign. Joel Chandler Harris's stories of Uncle Remus appeared in the *Constitution*, as did the weekly letters of humorist Charles Henry Smith, writing under the pseudonym of Bill Arp. In 1958, Ralph E. McGill, editor and later publisher of the *Constitution*, won a Pulitzer Prize for his editorial opposition to racial intolerance. In 2001, the *Constitution* and the *Atlanta Journal* merged to form the *Journal-Constitution*, owned by Cox Newspapers.

As of 2005, Georgia had 30 morning dailies, 4 evening dailies, and 29 Sunday newspapers.

The following table shows the leading daily newspapers with their 2005 estimated circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Atlanta	<i>Journal-Constitution</i> (m,S)	441,427	606,246
Augusta	<i>Chronicle</i> (m,S)	78,069	94,040
Columbus	<i>Ledger-Enquirer</i> (m,S)	49,605	57,130
Macon	<i>Telegraph</i> (m,S)	69,132	86,004
Savannah	<i>Morning News</i> (m,S)	53,825	66,526

Periodicals published in Georgia in 2002 included *Golf World*, *Atlanta Weekly*, *Savannah*, *Industrial Engineering*, *Robotics World*, and *Southern Accents*. Among the nation's better-known scholarly presses is the University of Georgia Press, which publishes the *Georgia Review*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 6,580 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 4,707 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National organizations headquartered in Georgia include the National Association of College Deans, Registrars, and Admissions Officers, located in Albany; and the Association of Information and Dissemination

Centers, the American Risk and Insurance Association, and the American Business Law Association, located in Athens.

Many organizations are headquartered in Atlanta, including the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the Southern Education Foundation, the Southern Regional Council, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, the American College of Rheumatology, the Arthritis Foundation, the American Academy of Psychotherapists, and the Federation of Southern Cooperatives.

The Georgia Peanut Commission, Georgia Peanut Producers Association, and the Peanut Advisory Board promote the interests of growers of this popular crop. The Georgia Wildlife Federation addresses issues concerning the environment and conservation.

State and regional organizations that promote the arts, culture, and education include the Blue Ridge Mountains Arts Association, the Georgia Writers Association, Young Georgia Writers, the Institute for the Study of American Cultures, and the National Indian Festival Association. A national Circus Historical Society is located in Alpharetta.

The Carter Center of Emory University in Atlanta was established in 1982 by former president Jimmy Carter and his wife Rosalynn as a peace and human rights advocacy organization. The Martin Luther King Jr. Center for Nonviolent Social Change, the headquarters for the Boys and Girls Clubs of America, and the US office of CARE International are all in Atlanta.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2005, travelers spent \$28.2 billion on visits to Georgia. The Atlanta Metro Region received the most visitor expenditures, about 60%. More than 217,000 jobs are supported by the tourism industry in Georgia. The travel/tourism payroll generated over \$1.28 billion in tax revenue.

Major tourist attractions include national forests, national parks, state parks, and historical areas. Other places of interest include the impressive hotels and convention facilities of downtown Atlanta; the Okefenokee Swamp in southern Georgia; Stone Mountain near Atlanta; former President Jimmy Carter's home in Plains; the Jimmy Carter Presidential Library, in Atlanta; the birthplace, church, and gravesite of Martin Luther King Jr., in Atlanta; and the historic squares and riverfront of Savannah. Georgia Aquarium, the world's largest, opened on 23 November 2005.

The varied attractions of the Golden Isles include fashionable Sea Island; primitive Cumberland Island, now a national seashore; and Jekyll Island, owned by the state and leased to motel operators and to private citizens for beach homes. Since 1978, the state, under its Heritage Trust Program, has acquired Ossabaw and Sapelo islands and strictly regulates public access to these wildlife sanctuaries.

Georgia has long been a hunters' paradise. Waynesboro calls itself the "bird-dog capital of the world," and Thomasville in south Georgia is popular with quail hunters.

48 SPORTS

There are four major professional sports teams in Georgia, all in Atlanta. Turner Field and the Georgia Dome, main venues for the 1996 Summer Olympics hosted by the city, serve as the home field for two professional teams: baseball's Atlanta Braves, for whom Henry Aaron hit many of his record 755 home runs, and the At-

lanta Falcons of the National Football League. The Philips Arena houses the Atlanta Hawks of the National Basketball Association and the Atlanta Thrashers of the National Hockey League. The Atlanta Braves won the National League pennant in 1991, 1992, 1995, 1996, and 1999. The Braves went on to win their only World Series championship since moving to Atlanta, defeating the Cleveland Indians in 1995. The Braves lost the series to the Toronto Blue Jays in 1991 and 1992, and to the New York Yankees in 1996 and 1999.

The Golden Corral 500 and the Bass Pro Shops MBNA 500 are two of the NASCAR Nextel Cup auto races held at Atlanta Motor Speedway. The Masters, the most publicized golf tournament in the world, has been played at the Augusta National Golf Club since 1934. The Atlanta Golf Classic is also listed on the professional golfers' tour.

Football and basketball dominate college sports. The University of Georgia Bulldogs, who play in the Southeastern Conference, were named National Champions in football in 1980 and advanced to the Final Four in basketball in 1983. Georgia Tech's Yellow Jackets of the Atlantic Coast Conference are a perennial basketball powerhouse. The Peach Bowl has been an annual post-season football game in Atlanta since 1968.

Professional fishing, sponsored by the Bass Anglers Sportsman's Society, is one of the fastest-growing sports in the state. Another popular summer pastime is rafting. Massive raft races on the Chatahoochee at Atlanta and Columbus, and on the Savannah River at Augusta, draw many spectators and participants.

Atlanta hosted the 1996 Summer Olympic Games at a cost of more than \$1 billion.

Jackie Robinson, who broke baseball's color barrier in 1947, and Ty Cobb, nicknamed the "Georgia Peach," were both born in Georgia.

49 FAMOUS GEORGIANS

James Earl "Jimmy" Carter (b.1924), born in Plains, was the first Georgian to serve as president of the United States. He was governor of the state (1971–75) before being elected to the White House in 1976. Georgia has not contributed any US vice presidents; Alexander H. Stephens (1812–83) was vice president of the Confederacy during the Civil War.

Georgians who served on the US Supreme Court include James M. Wayne (1790–1867), John A. Campbell (1811–89), and Joseph R. Lamar (1857–1916). Supreme Court Justice Clarence Thomas, appointed to the court during the George H. W. Bush administration, was born in Savannah on 23 June 1948. Several Georgians have served with distinction at the cabinet level: William H. Crawford (b.Virginia, 1772–1834), Howell Cobb (1815–68), and William G. McAdoo (1863–1941) as secretaries of the treasury; John M. Berrien (b.New Jersey, 1781–1856) as attorney general; John Forsyth (1781–1841) and Dean Rusk (1909–94) as secretaries of state; George Crawford (1798–1872) as secretary of war; and Hoke Smith (b.North Carolina, 1855–1931) as secretary of the interior.

A leader in the US Senate before the Civil War was Robert Toombs (1810–85). Notable US senators in recent years were Walter F. George (1878–1957), Richard B. Russell (1897–1971), Herman Talmadge (1913–2002), and Sam Nunn (b.1938). Carl Vinson (1883–1981) was chairman of the House Armed Services Committee.

Many Georgians found fame in the ranks of the military. Confederate General Joseph Wheeler (1836–1906) became a major general in the US Army during the Spanish-American War. Other Civil War generals included W. H. T. Walker (1816–64); Thomas R. Cobb (1823–62), who also codified Georgia's laws; and John B. Gordon (1832–1904), later a US senator and governor of the state. Gordon, Alfred Colquitt (1824–94), and wartime governor Joseph E. Brown (b.South Carolina, 1821–94) were known as the “Bourbon triumvirate” for their domination of the state's Democratic Party from 1870 to 1890. Generals Courtney H. Hodge (1887–1966) and Lucius D. Clay (1897–1978) played important roles in Europe during and after World War II.

Sir James Wright (b.South Carolina 1714–85) was Georgia's most important colonial governor. Signers of the Declaration of Independence for Georgia were George Walton (b.Virginia, 1741–1804), Button Gwinnett (b.England, 1735–77), and Lyman Hall (b.Connecticut, 1724–90). Signers of the US Constitution were William Few (b.Maryland, 1748–1828) and Abraham Baldwin (b.Connecticut, 1754–1807). Revolutionary War hero James Jackson (b.England, 1757–1806) organized the Democratic-Republican Party (today's Democratic Party) in Georgia.

The first Georgians, the Indians, produced many heroes. Tomochichi (c.1664–1739) was the Yamacraw chief who welcomed James Edward Oglethorpe and the first Georgians. Alexander McGillivray (c.1759–93), a Creek chief who was the son of a Scottish fur trader, signed a treaty with George Washington in a further attempt to protect the Creek lands. Osceola (1800–1838) led his Seminole into the Florida swamps rather than move west. Sequoyah (b.Tennessee, 1773–1843) framed an alphabet for the Cherokee, and John Ross (Coowescoowe, b.Tennessee, 1790–1866) was the first president of the Cherokee Republic.

Among influential Georgian educators were Josiah Meigs (b.Connecticut, 1757–1822), the first president of the University of Georgia, and Milton Antony (1784–1839), who established the Medical College of Georgia in Augusta in 1828. Crawford W. Long (1815–78) was one of the first doctors to use ether successfully in surgical operations. Paul F. Eve (1806–77) was a leading teacher of surgery in the South, and Joseph Jones (1833–96) pioneered in the study of the causes of malaria.

Distinguished black Georgians include churchmen Henry M. Turner (b.South Carolina, 1834–1915) and Charles T. Walker (1858–1921), educators Lucy Laney (1854–1933) and John Hope (1868–1936), and civil rights activists William Edward Burghardt (W.E.B.) DuBois (b.Massachusetts, 1968–1963) and Walter F. White (1893–1955). One of the best-known Georgians was Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–68), born in Atlanta, leader of the March on Washington in 1963 and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964 for his leadership in the campaign for civil rights; he was assassinated in Memphis, Tennessee, while organizing support for striking sanitation workers. Black Muslim leader Elijah Muhammad (Elijah Poole, 1897–1975) was also a Georgian. Other prominent black leaders include Atlanta mayor and former United Nations ambassador Andrew Young (b.Louisiana, 1932), former Atlanta mayor Maynard Jackson (b.Texas, 1938–2003), and Georgia senator Julian Bond (b.Tennessee, 1940).

Famous Georgia authors include Sidney Lanier (1842–81), Joel Chandler Harris (1848–1908), Lillian Smith (1857–1966), Conrad Aiken (1889–1973), Erskine Caldwell (1902–87), Caroline Miller

(1903–92), Frank Yerby (1916–91), Carson McCullers (1917–67), James Dickey (1923–97), and Flannery O'Connor (1925–64). Also notable is Margaret Mitchell (1900–49), whose Pulitzer Prize-winning *Gone with the Wind* (1936) typifies Georgia to many readers.

Entertainment celebrities include songwriter Johnny Mercer (1909–76); actors Charles Coburn (1877–1961) and Oliver Hardy (1877–1961); singers and musicians Harry James (1916–83), Ray Charles (Ray Charles Robinson, 1930–2004), James Brown (b.1933), Little Richard (Richard Penniman, b.1935), Jerry Reed (b.1937), Gladys Knight (b.1944), and Brenda Lee (b.1944); and actors Melvyn Douglas (1901–81), Sterling Holloway (1905–92), Ossie Davis (1917–2005), Barbara Cook (b.1927), Jane Withers (b.1927), Joanne Woodward (b.1930), and Burt Reynolds (b.1936).

Major sports figures include baseball's “Georgia Peach,” Tyrus Raymond “Ty” Cobb (1886–1961); Jack Roosevelt “Jackie” Robinson (1919–72), the first black to be inducted into the Baseball Hall of Fame; and Robert Tyre “Bobby” Jones (1902–71), winner of the “grand slam” of four major golf tournaments in 1930.

Robert E. “Ted” Turner (b. Ohio, 1939), an Atlanta businessman-broadcaster, owns the Atlanta Hawks and the Atlanta Braves and skippered the *Courageous* to victory in the America's Cup yacht races in 1977. Architect John C. Portman Jr. (b.South Carolina, 1924), was the developer of Atlanta's Peachtree Center.

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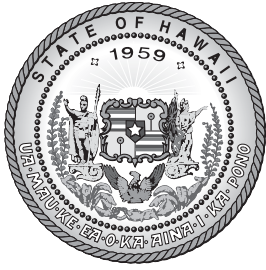
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HAWAII

State of Hawaii

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Unknown. The name may stem from Hawaii Loa, traditional discoverer of the islands, or from Hawaiki, the traditional Polynesian homeland. **NICKNAME:** The Aloha State. **CAPITAL:** Honolulu. **ENTERED UNION:** 21 August 1959 (50th). **SONG:** “Hawaii Pono.” **MOTTO:** *Ua mau ke ea o ka aina i ka pono* (The life of the land is perpetuated in righteousness). **COAT OF ARMS:** The heraldic shield of the Hawaiian kingdom is flanked by the figures of Kamehameha I, who united the islands, and Liberty, holding the Hawaiian flag. Below the shield is a phoenix surrounded by taro leaves, banana foliage, and sprays of maidenhair fern. **FLAG:** Eight horizontal stripes, alternately white, red, and blue, represent the major islands, with the British Union Jack (reflecting the years that the islands were under British protection) in the upper left-hand corner. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Same as coat of arms, with the words “State of Hawaii 1959” above and the state motto below. **BIRD:** Nene (Hawaiian goose). **FLOWER:** Pua aloalo (yellow hibiscus). **TREE:** Kukui (candlenut tree). **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Kuhio Day, 26 March; Good Friday and Easter, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Kamehameha Day, 11 June; Independence Day, 4 July; Statehood Day, 3rd Friday in August; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after 1st Monday in November; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 2 AM Hawaii-Aleutian Standard Time = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

The state of Hawaii is an island group situated in the northern Pacific Ocean, about 2,400 mi (3,900 km) wsw of San Francisco. The smallest of the five Pacific states, Hawaii ranks 47th in size among the 50 states.

The 132 Hawaiian Islands have a total area of 6,470 sq mi (16,758 sq km), including 6,425 sq mi (16,641 sq km) of land and only 45 sq mi (117 sq km) of inland water. The island chain extends over 1,576 mi (2,536 km) N–S and 1,425 mi (2,293 km) E–W. The largest island, Hawaii (known locally as the “Big Island”), extends 76 mi (122 km) E–W and 93 mi (150 km) N–S; Oahu, the most populous island, extends 44 mi (71 km) E–W and 30 mi (48 km) N–S.

The eight largest islands of the Hawaiian group are Hawaii (4,035 sq mi/10,451 sq km), Maui (734 sq mi/1,901 sq km), Oahu (617 sq mi/1,598 sq km), Kauai (558 sq mi/1,445 sq km), Molokai (264 sq mi/684 sq km), Lanai (141 sq mi/365 sq km), Niihau (73 sq mi/189 sq km), and Kahoolawe (45 sq mi/117 sq km). The general coastline of the island chain is 750 mi (1,207 km); the tidal shoreline totals 1,052 mi (1,693 km). The state’s geographic center is off Maui, at 20°15’ N, 156°20’ W.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The 8 major and 124 minor islands that make up the state of Hawaii were formed by volcanic eruptions. Mauna Loa, on the island of Hawaii, is the world’s largest active volcano, at a height of 13,675 ft (4,168 m). Kilauea, on the eastern slope of Mauna Loa, is the world’s largest active volcanic crater: Beginning on 24 May 1969, it spewed forth 242 million cu yd (185 million cu m) of lava, spreading over an area of 19.3 sq mi (50 sq km). The longest volcanic eruption in Hawaii lasted 867 days. Further indications of Ha-

waii’s continuing geological activity are the 14 earthquakes, each with a magnitude of 5 or more on the Richter scale, that shook the islands from 1969 to 1979; one quake, at Puna, on Hawaii in 1975, reached a magnitude of 7.2.

Hawaii, Maui, Kauai, and Molokai are the most mountainous islands. The highest peak in the state is Puu Wekiu (13,796 ft/4,208 m), on Hawaii; the largest natural lake, Halulu (182 acres/74 hectares), Niihau; the largest artificial lake, Waiia Reservoir (422 acres/171 hectares), Kauai; and the longest rivers, Kaukonahua Stream (33 mi/53 km) in the north on Oahu and Wailuku River (32 mi/51 km) on Hawaii. While much of the Pacific Ocean surrounding the state is up to 20,000 ft (6,100 m) deep, Oahu, Molokai, Lanai, and Maui stand on a submarine bank at a depth of less than 2,400 ft (730 m). The lowest point of the state is sea level at the Pacific Ocean. The mean elevation is approximately 3,030 ft (924 m).

³ CLIMATE

Hawaii has a tropical climate cooled by trade winds. Normal daily temperatures in Honolulu average 73°F (22°C) in February and 81°F (27°C) in August; the average wind speed is a breezy 11.3 mph (18.2 km/h). The record high for the state is 100°F (38°C), set at Pahala on 27 April 1931, and the record low is 12°F (-11°C), set at Mauna Kea Observatory on 17 May 1979.

Rainfall is extremely variable, with far more precipitation on the windward (northeastern) than on the leeward side of the islands. Mt. Waialeale, Kauai, is reputedly the rainiest place on earth, with a mean annual total of 486 in (1,234 cm). Kukui, Maui, holds the US record for the most precipitation in one year—739 in (1,878 cm) in 1982. Average annual precipitation in Honolulu (1971–

2000) was 18.3 in (46.5 cm). In the driest areas—on upper mountain slopes and in island interiors, as in central Maui—the average annual rainfall is less than 10 in (25 cm). Snow falls at the summits of Mauna Loa, Mauna Kea, and Haleakala—the highest mountains. The highest tidal wave (tsunami) in the state's history reached 56 ft (17 m).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Formed over many centuries by volcanic activity, Hawaii's topography—and therefore its flora and fauna—have been subject to constant and rapid change. Relatively few indigenous trees remain; most of the exotic trees and fruit plants have been introduced since the early 19th century. Of the 2,200 species and subspecies of flora, more than half are endangered, threatened, or extinct.

The only land mammal native to the islands is the Hawaiian hoary bat, now endangered; there are no indigenous snakes. In April 2006, a total of 317 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 44 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 273 plant species. The endangered humpback whale migrates to Hawaiian waters in winter; other marine animals abound. Four species of sea turtle are also endangered. Among threatened birds are several varieties of honeycreeper, short-tailed albatross, Hawaiian coot, and the Hawaiian goose (nene). The nene (the state bird), once close to extinction, now numbers in the hundreds and is on the increase. The Kawainui and Hamakua Marsh Complex, a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance, provides a habitat for at least four of the states endangered bird species, including the nene.

Animals considered endangered by the state but not on the federal list include the Hawaiian storm petrel, Hawaiian owl, Maui 'amakihi (*Loxops virens wilsoni*), and 'Iwi (*Vestiaria coccinea*).

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Environmental protection responsibilities are vested in the Department of Land and Natural Resources, and in the Environmental Management Division of the Department of Health. The Hawaii Environmental Policy Act of 1974 established environmental policies and guidelines for state agencies. Also enacted in 1974 was the Environmental Impact Statement Law, which mandated environmental assessments for all state and county projects and some private projects. Noise pollution requirements for the state are among the strictest in the United States, and air and water purity levels are well within federal standards.

Since much of Hawaii's natural wetlands have been filled in for use as agricultural lands or for urban expansion projects, wetlands now cover less than 3% of the state. The Kawainui and Hamakua Marsh Complex was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in February 2005. Besides serving as a habitat for at least four species of endangered birds, the site is considered to be a cultural and archeological resource, one that is sacred to some native Hawaiians. In January 2006, the Hawaii Department of Land and Natural Resources received a federal Coastal Wetlands Conservation grant of \$646,250 for restoration projects in marsh. In 2005, federal Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) grants awarded to the state included \$323,930 for a beach water quality monitoring and public notification program.

The EPA banned the use of ethylene dibromide (EDB), a pesticide used in the state's pineapple fields, after high levels of the chemical were found in wells on the island of Oahu in 1983. In 2003, 3.1 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, the US EPA's database listed 87 hazardous waste sites in Hawaii, three of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Del Monte Corp. Oahu Plantation, the Naval Computer and Telecommunications Area, and the Pearl Harbor Naval Complex. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$41,000 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state.

6 POPULATION

Hawaii ranked 42nd in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,275,194 in 2005, an increase of 5.3% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Hawaii's population grew from 1,108,229 to 1,211,537, an increase of 9.3%. The population is projected to reach 1.38 million by 2015 and 1.43 million by 2025. Almost four-fifths of the population lives on Oahu, primarily in the Greater Honolulu metropolitan area. Population density was 196.6 people per sq mi in 2004.

In 2004, the median age was 38. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 23.7% of the population, while 13.6% of the population was age 65 or older.

By far the largest city is Honolulu, with an estimated 2004 population of 377,260. The Greater Honolulu metropolitan area had an estimated 899,593 residents in 1999. The city of Honolulu is coextensive with Honolulu County.

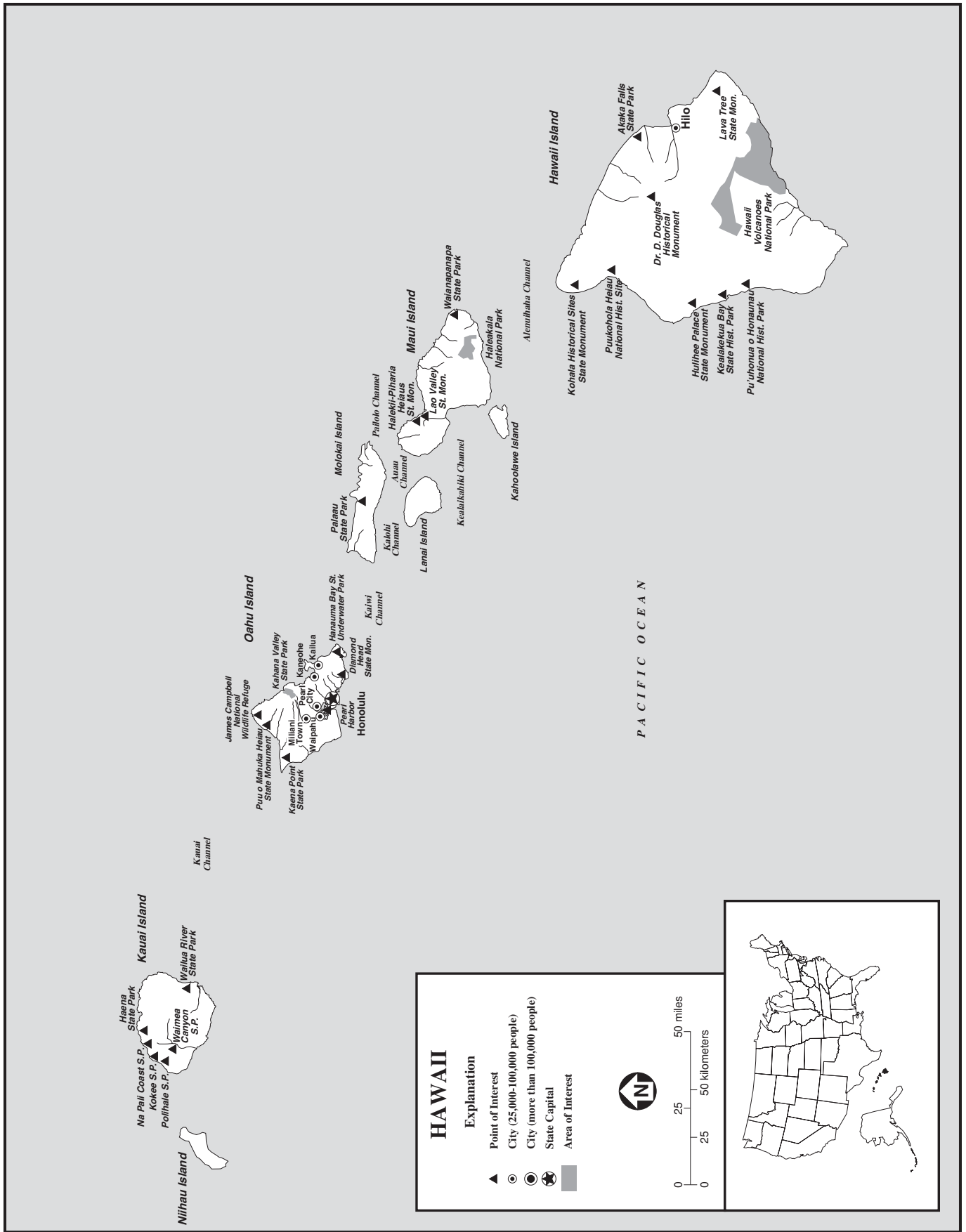
7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Hawaii has the nation's highest percentage of Asian residents—41.6% in 2000, when its Asian population numbered 503,868. In 2004, 41.8% of the population was Asian. In 2000, Pacific Islanders numbered 113,539 (including 80,137 native Hawaiians), 22,003 were black, and 3,535 were American Indians or Alaska Natives. About 87,699, or 7.2% of the total population, were Hispanic or Latino in 2000. Foreign-born residents numbered 212,229 in 2000, or 17.5% of the total state population—the fifth-highest percentage of foreign born among the 50 states. In 2004, 9.1% of the population was Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 2.2% was black, 0.3% was American Indian or Alaska Native, and 7.9% was of Hispanic or Latino origin. A full 20.1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

Of Hawaii's Asian residents in 2000, 201,764 were Japanese, 170,635 were Filipino, 56,600 were Chinese, and 23,637 were Korean. The earliest Asian immigrants, the Chinese, were superseded in number in 1900 by the Japanese, who have since become a significant factor in state politics. The influx of Filipinos and other Pacific Island peoples was largely a 20th-century phenomenon. In recent decades, ethnic Hawaiians have been increasingly intent on preserving their cultural identity.

8 LANGUAGES

Although massive immigration from Asia and the US mainland since the mid-19th century has effectively diluted the native population, the Hawaiian lexical legacy in English is conspicuous. Newcomers soon add to their vocabulary the words *aloha* (love, good-bye), *haole* (white foreigner), *malihini* (newcomer), *lanai*



(porch), *tapa* (bark cloth), *mahimahi* (a kind of fish), *ukulele*, *muumuu*, and the common directional terms *mauka* (toward the mountains) and *makai* (toward the sea), customarily used instead of “north,” “east,” “west,” and “south.” Native place-names are numerous—Waikiki, Hawaii, Honolulu, Mauna Kea, and Molokai, for example.

Most native-born residents of Hawaiian ancestry speak one of several varieties of Hawaiian pidgin, a lingua franca incorporating elements of Hawaiian, English, and other Asian and Pacific languages. In 2000, 73.4% (down from 75.2% in 1990) of Hawaiians five years old or older spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “Other Pacific Island languages” includes Chamorro, Hawaiian, Ilocano, Indonesian, and Samoan. The category “Other Indo-European languages” includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,134,351	100.0
Speak only English	832,226	73.4
Speak a language other than English	302,125	26.6
Speak a language other than English	302,125	26.6
Other Pacific Island languages	90,111	7.9
Tagalog	60,967	5.4
Japanese	56,225	5.0
Chinese	29,363	2.6
Spanish or Spanish Creole	18,820	1.7
Korean	18,337	1.6
Vietnamese	8,270	0.7
German	3,986	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	3,310	0.3
Laotian	1,920	0.2
Thai	1,496	0.1
Other Indo-European languages	1,288	0.1
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	1,238	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Congregationalist missionaries arrived in 1820 and Roman Catholics in 1827. Subsequent migration brought Mormons and Methodists. Anglican representatives were invited by King Kamehameha IV in 1862. Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism arrived with the Chinese during the 1850s; by the turn of the century, Shinto and five forms of Mahayana Buddhism were being practiced by Japanese immigrants.

The largest religious group is the Roman Catholic Church, with 234,588 adherents in 66 parishes as of 2004. The Latter-Day Saints (Mormons) reported a membership of 64,608 in 127 congregations for 2006, an increase from 2000, when 42,758 adherents in 112 congregations were reported. There are two Mormon temples in the state: Laie, Oahu (est. 1919) and Kona (est. 1999). Other major groups (with 2000 data) include the Assemblies of God, 21,754 members, and the Southern Baptist Convention, 20,901 members. The Southern Baptist Convention reported 636 newly baptized members in 2002. The United Church of Christ had 17,362 adherents in 2005. In 2000, the Jewish population was at about 7,000. There were 73 Buddhist, 1 Muslim, and 8 Hindu congregations reported that year without specific membership numbers. About 63.8% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

Aloha International, founded in 1973, is a nondenominational organization based in Kapaa that promotes a system of spiritual

healing known as *Huna*. The organization reports a membership of about 14,000. There are several local chapters of Young Life, a Christian youth organization, and Soka Gakkai International, a Buddhist organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Hawaii has only two railroads: the nonprofit Hawaiian Railway Society, with 6.5 mi (10.5 km) of track on Oahu; and the commercial-recreational Lahaina, Kaanapali and Pacific on Maui, with 6 mi (10 km) of track. The islands of Oahu, Hawaii, Maui, and Kauai have public bus systems. In 2004, Hawaii's 843,876 licensed drivers traversed 4,318 mi (6,951 km) of roads and streets. There were some 532,000 passenger cars registered in 2004, along with approximately 394,000 trucks of all types and around 4,000 buses.

Hawaii's busiest port is Honolulu, with 19.085 million tons of cargo handled in 2004, making it the 39th-busiest port in the United States. Other major Hawaiian ports and their 2004 tonnage handled include Barbers Point, Oahu, 6.086 million tons; Hilo, 1.850 million tons; and Kahului, Maui, 3.9 million tons. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 23.642 million tons.

Most scheduled interisland passenger traffic and most transpacific travel is by air. In 2005, Hawaii had a total of 48 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 31 airports and 17 heliports. The state's busiest air terminal is Honolulu International Airport, which had a total of 9,579,076 enplanements in 2004, making it the 25th-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

Hawaii's earliest inhabitants were Polynesians who came to the islands in double-hulled canoes between 1,000 and 1,400 years ago, either from Southeast Asia or from the Marquesas in the South Pacific. The Western world learned of the islands in 1778, when an English navigator, Captain James Cook, sighted Oahu; he named the entire archipelago the Sandwich Islands after his patron, John Montagu, Fourth Earl of Sandwich. At that time, each island was ruled by a hereditary chief under a caste system called *kapu*. Subsequent contact with European sailors and traders exposed the Polynesians to smallpox, venereal disease, liquor, firearms, and Western technology—and fatally weakened the *kapu* system. Within 40 years of Cook's arrival, one of the island chiefs, Kamehameha (whose birth date, designated as 11 June, is still celebrated as a state holiday), had consolidated his power on Hawaii, conquered Maui and Oahu, and established a royal dynasty in what became known as the Kingdom of Hawaii.

The death of Kamehameha I in 1819 preceded the arrival of Protestant missionaries by a year. One of the first to come was the Reverend Hiram Bingham, who, as pastor in Honolulu, was instrumental in converting Hawaiians to Christianity. Even before Bingham arrived, however, Liholiho, successor to the throne under the title of Kamehameha II, had begun to do away with the *kapu* system. After the king's death from measles while on a state trip to England in 1824, another son of Kamehameha I, Kauikeaouli, was proclaimed King Kamehameha III. His reign saw the establishment of public schools, the first newspapers, the first sugar plantation, a bicameral legislature, and the establishment of Honolulu as the kingdom's capital city. Hawaii's first written constitution was promulgated in 1840, and in 1848 a land reform called the Great Mahele abolished the feudal land system and legitimized private

landholdings, in the process fostering the expansion of sugar plantations. The power behind the throne during this period was Dr. Gerrit P. Judd, a medical missionary who served as finance minister and interpreter for Kamehameha III.

Diplomatic maneuverings during the 1840s and 1850s secured recognition of the kingdom from the United States, Britain, and France. As the American presence on the islands increased, however, so did pressure for US annexation—a movement opposed by Alexander Liholiho, who ruled as Kamehameha IV after his father's death in 1854. His brief reign and that of his brother Lot (Kamehameha V) witnessed the arrival of Chinese contract laborers and the first Japanese immigrants, along with the continued growth of Hawaii as an international port of call (especially for whalers) and the increasing influence of American sugar planters. Lot's death in 1872 left no direct descendant of Kamehameha, and the legislature elected a new king, whose death only a year later required yet another election. The consequent crowning of Kalakaua, known as the Merry Monarch, inaugurated a stormy decade during which his imperial schemes clashed with the power of the legislature and the interests of the planters. The most significant event of Kalakaua's unstable reign was the signing of a treaty with the United States in 1876, guaranteeing Hawaii an American sugar market. The treaty was renewed in 1887 with a clause leasing Pearl Harbor to the United States.

Kalakaua died during a visit to San Francisco in 1891 and was succeeded by his sister, Liliuokalani, the last Hawaiian monarch. Two years later, after further political wrangling, she was deposed in an American-led revolution that produced a provisional government under the leadership of Sanford B. Dole. The new regime immediately requested annexation by the United States, but the treaty providing for it bogged down in the Senate and died after the inauguration of President Grover Cleveland, an opponent of expansionism. The provisional government then drafted a new constitution and on 4 July 1894 proclaimed the Republic of Hawaii, with Dole as president. The Spanish-American War, which fanned expansionist feelings in the United States and pointed up the nation's strategic interests in the Pacific, gave proponents of annexation the opportunity they had been seeking. The formal transfer of sovereignty took place on 12 August 1898, and Dole became Hawaii's first territorial governor when the act authorizing the annexation became effective in June 1900.

Notable in the territorial period were a steady US military buildup, the creation of a pineapple canning industry by James D. Dole (the governor's cousin), the growth of tourism (spurred in 1936 by the inauguration of commercial air service), and a rising desire for statehood, especially after passage of the Sugar Act of 1934, which lowered the quota on sugar imports from Hawaii. The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941, crippling the US Pacific fleet and causing some 4,000 casualties, quickly turned Hawaii into an armed camp under martial law. The record of bravery compiled by Nisei of the 442d Regiment on the European front did much, on the other hand, to allay the mistrust that some mainlanders felt about the loyalties of Hawaiians of Japanese ancestry. Hawaii also bore a disproportionate burden during the Korean conflict, suffering more casualties per capita than any of the 48 states.

Hawaiians pressed for statehood after World War II, but Congress was reluctant, partly because of racial antipathy and partly

because of fears that Hawaii's powerful International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union was Communist controlled. The House of Representatives passed a statehood bill in 1947, but the Senate refused. Not until 1959, after Alaska became the 49th state, did Congress vote to let Hawaii enter the Union. President Dwight D. Eisenhower signed the bill on 18 March, and the question was then put to the Hawaiian electorate, who voted for statehood on 27 June 1959 by a margin of about 17 to 1. Hawaii became the 50th state on 21 August 1959.

Defense, tourism, and food processing have been the mainstays of Hawaii's economy, with the state playing an increasingly important role as an economic, educational, and cultural bridge between the United States and the nations of Asia and the Pacific. Hawaiians have faced the challenge of preserving the natural beauty of their environment while accommodating a growing population (especially on Oahu) and a thriving tourist industry. In May 2000, President Bill Clinton issued orders to federal agencies to expand their coastline protection programs, including those protecting Hawaii's coral reefs.

A prominent political issue in recent years has been the achievement of some form of sovereignty by native Hawaiians. Control of an estimated 2 million acres of land is also at stake. In 1996 a majority of the islands' roughly 200,000 descendants of indigenous Hawaiians (in 2005, roughly 400,000) voted to establish some form of self-government. In August 1998, the 100th anniversary of the US annexation of Hawaii, protesters marched in Washington, DC, demanding their full sovereignty from the US government. In July 2000, the movement got some backing in a rights bill introduced in Congress by Hawaiian senator Daniel Akaka. The bill asked that Native Hawaiians be allowed to form their own government and have status similar to that of American Indians. In 2005, the Akaka Bill (amended many times) was opposed by certain Native Hawaiian groups because it would allow the US Department of the Interior too much administrative power over their affairs.

Hawaii's tourism industry was negatively affected by the 2001 recession, the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States, and the 2003 Iraq War. Hawaii's tourism business declined by about one-third in one month after the start of the Iraq War on 19 March 2003. That year, the Hawaii legislature passed a non-binding resolution condemning portions of the 2001 USA Patriot Act and the 2002 Homeland Security Act (which include sweeping federal powers to combat terrorism) and called on state and local officials to avoid any actions that threatened the civil rights of any of Hawaii's residents. Hawaii was the first state to go on record against the Patriot and Homeland Security acts.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The constitution of the state of Hawaii was written by the constitutional convention of 1950, ratified by the people of the territory of Hawaii that year, and then amended by the 1959 plebiscite on the statehood question. By January 2005, it had been amended 104 times.

There is a bicameral legislature of 25 senators elected from eight senatorial districts for four-year terms, and 51 representatives elected for two-year terms. The legislature meets annually on the third Wednesday in January; the session is limited to 60 legislative days, but a two-thirds petition by the membership secures an extension (limited to 15 days). Special sessions may be called by pe-

tition of two-thirds of the members of each house. To be eligible to serve as a legislator, a person must have attained the age of majority (18), be an American citizen, have been a resident of the state for at least three years, and be a qualified voter of his district. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$32,000, unchanged from 1999.

The governor and lieutenant governor are jointly elected for concurrent four-year terms and must be of the same political party. They are the only elected officers of the executive branch, except for the 13 members of the Board of Education, who also serve four-year terms. The governor, who may be reelected only once, must be at least 30 years old, a qualified voter, and must have resided in the state for five years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$94,780, unchanged from 1999.

The legislature can override the governor's veto by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of both houses. If the governor neither signs nor vetoes a bill, it becomes law after 10 days (excepting Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays) when the legislature is in session or after 45 days (excepting Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays) after the legislature has adjourned.

A constitutional amendment may be proposed by the legislature with a two-thirds vote in each house in one session or a majority vote in each house in two sessions. It must then be approved by a majority of the voters during elections.

Voters in Hawaii must be US citizens, state residents, and at least 18 years old. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Both Republicans and Democrats established party organizations early in the 20th century, when Hawaii was still a territory. Before statehood, the Republican Party dominated the political scene; since the 1960s, however, Hawaii has been solidly Democratic.

Democrat Al Gore won 56% of the vote in the presidential election in 2000, while Republican George W. Bush garnered 38%, and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader took 6%. Four years later, Democrat John Kerry won 54% of the vote to Republican incumbent George W. Bush's 45%. Democrat Daniel K. Inouye first won election to the US Senate in 1962; he was reelected in 1968, 1974, 1980, 1986, 1992, 1998, and 2004. Democratic senator Dan-

iel K. Akaka, first appointed in 1990 and elected to a full term in 1994, was reelected in 2000. Both of Hawaii's representatives to the House were Democrats in 2005. A Republican, Linda Lingle, was elected governor in 2002. In 2005, Democrats held 20 of the seats in the state Senate, while Republicans held just 5. In the state House, Democrats held 41 seats to the Republican's 10. In 2004, there were 647,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had four electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The state is divided into five principal counties: Hawaii, including the island of Hawaii; Maui, embracing the islands of Maui, Kahoolawe, Lanai, and Molokai; Honolulu, coextensive with the city of Honolulu and covering all of Oahu and the northwestern Hawaiian Islands, from Nihoa to Kure Atoll; Kauai, including the islands of Kauai and Niihau; and Kalawao on Molokai. Kalawao is represented in the state legislature as part of Maui County.

Because there are no further forms of local government, the counties provide some services that are traditionally performed in other states by cities, towns, and villages, notably fire and police protection, refuse collection, and street maintenance and lighting. On the other hand, the state government provides many functions that are normally performed by counties on the mainland. Each principal county has an elected council and a mayor.

In 2005, the state had 15 special districts and one public school system.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 14,344 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Hawaii operates under the authority of the governor; the adjutant general is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

Hawaii's first ombudsman, empowered to investigate complaints by the public about any officer or employee of state or county government, took office in 1969. The State Ethics Commission, a legislative agency, implements requirements for financial disclosure by state officials and investigates alleged conflicts of interest and other breaches of ethics.

The Department of Education is headed by an elected Board of Education. It operates hundreds of schools in the state, including several for the physically and mentally disabled. It also regulates private schools and certifies teachers. The Board of Regents of the University of Hawaii oversees the state's higher educational institutions. The State Public Library system provides Hawaii's residents with access to education, information, programs and services. Highways, airports, harbors, and other facilities are the concern of the Department of Transportation.

The Department of Health operates public hospitals and various programs for the mentally ill, the developmentally disabled, and alcoholics. Civil defense and the Air and Army National Guards are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Defense. The Department of Land and Natural Resources focuses on the environment.

The Corrections Division of the Department of Public Safety operates the state prison system, along with programs for juve-

Hawaii Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1960–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	HAWAII WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1960	3	*Kennedy (D)	92,410	92,295
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	163,249	44,022
1968	4	Humphrey (D)	141,324	91,425
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	101,433	168,933
1976	4	*Carter (D)	147,375	140,003
1980	4	Carter (D)	135,879	130,112
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	147,154	185,050
1988	4	Dukakis (D)	192,364	158,625
1992**	4	*Clinton (D)	179,310	136,822
1996**	4	*Clinton (D)	205,012	113,943
2000***	4	Gore (D)	205,286	137,845
2004	4	Kerry (D)	231,708	194,191

*Won US presidential election.
 **IND. candidate Ross Perot received 53,003 votes in 1992 and 27,358 votes in 1996.
 ***GREEN Party candidate Ralph Nader received 21,623 votes in 2000.

nile offenders. The Department of Human Services is responsible for social services, housing, health care, child welfare, disabilities, and programs for the aged, women, and fathers. Unemployment insurance, occupational safety and health laws, and workers' compensation programs are run by the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The supreme court, the highest in the state, consists of a chief justice and four associate justices, all of them appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the Senate. All serve 10-year terms, up to the mandatory retirement age of 70.

The state is divided into four judicial circuits with 27 circuit court judges and four intermediate appellate court judges, also appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the Senate to 10-year terms. Circuit courts are the main trial courts, having jurisdiction in most civil and criminal cases. District courts, whose judges are appointed by the chief justice with the advice and consent of the Senate to six-year terms, function as inferior courts within each judicial circuit; district court judges may also preside over family court proceedings. Hawaii also has a land court and a tax appeal court.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 5,960 prisoners were held in Hawaii's state and federal prisons, an increase from 5,828 or 2.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 699 inmates were female, up from 685 or 2% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Hawaii had an incarceration rate of 329 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Hawaii had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 254.4 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 3,213 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 60,525 reported incidents or 4,792.8 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Hawaii does not have a death penalty.

In 2003, Hawaii spent \$120,409,439 on homeland security, an average of \$57 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

Hawaii is the nerve center of US defense activities in the Pacific. CINCPAC (Commander-in-Chief Pacific), headquartered at Camp H. M. Smith in Honolulu, directs the US Pacific Command, largest of the six US Unified Commands, and is responsible for all US military forces in the Pacific and Indian oceans and southern Asia. Effective 24 October 2002, the title Commander in Chief, US Pacific Command was changed to Commander, US Pacific Command (CDRUSPACOM). Military prime contract awards in the fiscal year 2004 totaled \$1.7 billion, and defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$3.3 billion.

As of 2004, Hawaii was home base for 65,302 Department of Defense military and civilian personnel. The US Navy and Marines accounted for 24,440 personnel; the Army, 19,408; and the Air Force, 6,801. Pearl Harbor is home port for 40 ships. The major Army bases, all on Oahu, are Schofield Barracks, Ft. Shafter, and Ft. DeRussy; Air Force bases include Hickam and Wheeler. Military reservations occupy nearly one-fourth of Oahu's land area.

There were 107,310 veterans of US military service in Hawaii as of 2003, of whom 13,644 served in World War II; 11,093 in the Korean conflict; 33,858 during the Vietnam era; and 17,058 in the Gulf War. Expenditures for veterans totaled \$311 million in fiscal year 2004.

18 MIGRATION

The US mainland and Asia have been the main sources of immigrants to Hawaii since the early 19th century. Immigration remains a major source of population growth: Between 1950 and 1980, Hawaii's net gain from migration was 91,000, and between 1980 and 1983, 15,000. In the 1980s, migration accounted for 23% of the net increase in population.

Since the early 1970s, about 40,000 mainland Americans have come each year to live in Hawaii. More than half are military personnel and their dependents, on temporary residence during their term of military service. From 1985 to 1990, Hawaii suffered a net loss from migration within the United States but experienced an overall net gain in migration due to immigration from abroad. Between 1990 and 1998, the net loss from domestic migration was 80,000. During the same period there was a net gain of 51,000 from international migration. In 1998, 5,465 foreign immigrants arrived in Hawaii. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 7.6%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 30,068 and net internal migration was –13,112, for a net gain of 16,956 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the interstate accords in which Hawaii participates are the Western Interstate Corrections Compact and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. Federal grants were estimated at \$1.5 billion in fiscal year 2001. Following a national trend, federal grants dropped to \$1.387 billion in fiscal year 2005. In fiscal year 2006, they stood at an estimated \$1.415 billion, and an estimated \$1.422 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Tourism remains Hawaii's leading employer, revenue producer, and growth sector. However, agricultural diversification (including the cultivation of flowers and nursery products, papaya, and macadamia nuts), aquaculture, manganese nodule mining, and film and television production have broadened the state's economic base. Economic growth was relatively sluggish in Hawaii at the end of the 20th century, accelerating from only 2.2% in 1998 to 3.3% in 1999 to 4.6% in 2000. The national recession of 2001 and the aftereffects of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States helped reduce the annual growth rate to 2.8% in 2001, mainly through the impact on tourism. By the third quarter of 2002, however, hotel revenue in Hawaii was showing an increase over 2001, in contrast to hotel revenues in other parts of the country. Payroll employment, after declining sharply in 2001, was also showing increases.

Hawaii's gross state product (GSP) in 2005 totaled \$54 billion; in 2004 real estate was the largest sector at 16.5% of GSP, followed by lodging and food service at 8.4%, and health care and social services at 6.8%. In that same year, there were an estimated 105,242 small businesses in Hawaii. Of the 29,791 businesses having employees, a total of 28,844 or 96.8% were small companies.

An estimated 3,698 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 1.1% from the previous year. Business terminations that same year came to 3,754, down 6.4% from 2003. Business bankruptcies totaled 47 in 2004, down 34.7% from the year before. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 299 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Hawaii as the 48th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Hawaii had a gross state product (GSP) of \$54 billion, which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 42 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004, Hawaii had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$32,625. This ranked 20th in the United States and was 99% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 2.8%. Hawaii had a total personal income (TPI) of \$41,176,427,000, which ranked 40th in the United States and reflected an increase of 8.0% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 3.4%. Earnings of persons employed in Hawaii increased from \$30,504,321,000 in 2003 to \$33,021,075,000 in 2004, an increase of 8.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$53,123 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period, an estimated 9.7% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Hawaii numbered 645,600. Approximately 18,000 workers were unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 615,400. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Hawaii was 10.2% in March 1976. The historical low was 2.2% in November 1989. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 2.4% in manufacturing; 19.8% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 11.5% in education and health services; 17.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 19.5% in government. Data were unavailable for financial activities and services.

Unionization was slow to develop in Hawaii. After World War II, however, the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union organized workers in the sugar and pineapple industries and then on the docks. The International Brotherhood of Teamsters is also well established.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 141,000 of Hawaii's 545,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 25.8% of those so employed, up from 23.7% in 2004, well above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 145,000 workers (26.7%) in Hawaii were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Hawaii does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Hawaii had a state-mandated minimum wage of \$6.75 per hour, which will increase to \$7.25 per hour on 1 January 2007. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48.5% of the employed civilian labor force. Hawaii is one of only five states where union membership is higher than 20% of the labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Export crops—especially sugar cane and pineapple—dominate Hawaiian agriculture, which had farm receipts exceeding \$553 million in 2005.

The islands of Hawaii (Maui, Molokai, Oahu, and Kauai) are the only places in the United States where coffee is grown commercially; production in 2004–05 totaled 7.1 million lb (3.2 million kg). Another tropical product, pineapple, has also become a substantial export crop, with 215,000 tons produced in 2004, valued at \$79.9 million, as well as macadamia nuts and tropical flowers. Taro (coco yam), used for making poi, is also grown; production in 2004 was 5.2 million lb (2.8 million kg), valued at \$2,808,000. Banana production in 2003 was 22.5 million lb (10.2 million kg), valued at \$9.2 million, and ginger root, 6 million lb (2.7 million kg), valued at \$5.4 million.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Hawaii had an estimated 155,000 cattle and calves worth \$97.6 million in 2005. In 2004, the estimated number of hogs and pigs was 22,000, worth \$3.5 million. Poultry farms produced an estimated 117.2 million eggs in 2003, worth \$9.4 million. Most of the eggs were for domestic consumption, making eggs one of the very few farm commodities in which the state is close to self-sufficient. Most of the state's cattle farms are in Hawaii and Maui counties.

25 FISHING

Although it is expanding, Hawaii's commercial catch remains surprisingly small. In 2004, Hawaii landings brought in 24.2 million lb (11 million kg) with a value of \$57.2 million. Though the port of Honolulu ranked eighth in the nation that year in catch value (\$44.6 million), it was 42d in quantity (18.2 million lb/8.3 million kg). The most valuable commercial species are swordfish and bigeye tuna. In 2001, the state had 2,814 commercial fishing boats and vessels. Sport fishing is extremely popular, with bass, bluegill, tuna, and marlin among the most sought-after varieties. In 2004, the state had 5,796 sport fishing license holders.

26 FORESTRY

As of 2003, Hawaii had 1,748,000 acres (707,940 hectares) of forestland and water reserves, with 700,000 acres (283,500 hectares) classified as commercial timberland, most of it located on the island of Hawaii. The majority of the locally grown wood is used in the manufacture of furniture, flooring, and craft items. As the sugar industry downsizes, there is an initiative to expand the forest industry by planting trees on lands formerly planted in sugarcane. Hawaii has the eighth-largest state-owned forest and natural area reserve system in the United States. Some 57% of forests are within the State Conservation District.

27 MINING

As of 2003, mining in Hawaii, mostly involved the extraction of sand and gravel from open pits and the quarrying of stone for

crushed stone, mainly for use by the state's construction industry. According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey, the value of Hawaii's nonfuel mineral production in 2003 (the latest year for which data was available) was estimated to be around \$74 million (up about 2% from 2002).

In 2003, preliminary data showed that the output of construction grade sand and gravel totaled 600,000 metric tons or \$6.9 million, while the production of crushed stone totaled 6.5 million metric tons or \$66.6 million.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Devoid of indigenous fossil fuels and nuclear installations, Hawaii depends on imported petroleum for about 78% of its energy needs. Coal, hydroelectric power, natural gas, windmills, geothermal energy, and sugarcane wastes contribute the rest.

As of 2003, Hawaii had seven electrical power service providers, of which three were investor owned and three were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. The remaining service provider was a cooperative. As of that same year, there were 447,584 retail customers. Of that total, 415,208 received their power from investor-owned service providers. The state's sole cooperatives accounted for 32,361 customers, while there were 15 independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 2.268 million kW, with total production that same year at 10.976 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 59.2% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 8.502 billion kWh (77.5%), came from petroleum-fired plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 1.644 billion kWh (15%) and other renewable power sources in third place at 696.766 million kWh (6.3%). Hydroelectric and other gas-fueled plants accounted for the remainder. All of Hawaii's electric power plants are privately owned.

As of 2004, Hawaii had no known proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. As of 2005, the state's two refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 147,000 barrels per day.

29 INDUSTRY

As of 2004, food and food products accounted for slightly more than 23% of the shipment value of all manufactured goods produced in Hawaii, including sugar and pineapples. Other major industries are clothing; stone, clay, and glass products; fabricated metals; and shipbuilding.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Hawaii's manufacturing sector covered some five product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$4.560 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$1.066 billion. It was followed by nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at \$206.697 million; printing and related support activities at \$176.659 million; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$106.213 million; and apparel manufacturing at \$88.540 million.

In 2004, a total of 14,035 people in Hawaii were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total,

8,901 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 4,773 with 3,253 actual production workers. It was followed by printing and related support activities at 1,569 employees (875 actual production workers); apparel manufacturing at 1,456 employees (934 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing at 1,364 employees (639 actual production workers); and nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing with 1,046 employees (654 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Hawaii's manufacturing sector paid \$522.317 million in wages. Of that amount, the food manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$193.384 million. It was followed by printing and related support services at \$51.311 million; nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at \$46.481 million; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$42.363 million; and apparel manufacturing at \$27.977 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Hawaii's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$9.9 billion from 1,876 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 861 establishments, while the number of nondurable goods wholesalers totaled 919, with electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 96 establishments. Sales by nondurable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$5.9 billion. Sales data for wholesalers of durable goods and for electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry was not available.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Hawaii was listed as having 4,924 retail establishments with sales of \$13 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,239); miscellaneous store retailers (809); food and beverage stores (722); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (336). In terms of sales, general merchandise stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$2.56 billion, followed by motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers at \$2.55 billion and food and beverage stores at \$2.2 billion. A total of 63,794 people were employed by the retail sector in Hawaii that year.

Hawaii's central position in the Pacific ensures a sizable flow of goods through the Honolulu Customs District. Exports in 2005 totaled \$1.02 billion. Hawaii's major trading partners are Japan for exports and Japan, Singapore and Indonesia for imports.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Hawaii's Office of Consumer Protection, a division of the Department of Commerce and Consumer Affairs, enforces the state's consumer protection laws and provides information regarding landlord-tenant matters. It was created in 1969 to protect the interests of consumers and legitimate businesses by investigating consumer complaints alleging unfair or deceptive trade practices in a broad range of areas, including advertising, refunds, motor vehicle rentals, door-to-door sales, and credit practices.

In support of the state's Office of Consumer Protection, the state's attorney general can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; administer consumer protection and education programs; and handle consumer complaints. However, the Attorney General's Office has only limited subpoena powers and cannot represent the

state before other state or federal regulatory agencies. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Office of Consumer Protection has offices in the cities of Hilo, Honolulu, and Wailuku.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Hawaii had seven insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus three state-chartered and 96 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Honolulu market area had 10 financial institutions in 2004. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 16.1% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$6.750 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 83.9% or \$35.090 billion of assets held. The regulation of Hawaii's financial institutions is handled by the Department of Commerce and Consumer Affairs Division of Financial Institutions.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.24%, down from 4.50% in 2003. As of fourth quarter 2005, the median percentage of past due/nonaccrual loans to total loans stood at 0.22%, down from 0.57% in 2004 and 0.86% in 2003.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 577,000 individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$58.5 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$91.4 billion. The average coverage amount was \$101,500 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled over \$234 million.

In 2003, there were three life and health insurance and 17 property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$2 billion. That year, there were 49,379 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$6.5 billion.

In 2004, 60% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 24% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 10% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based family health coverage averaged about 26%. The average employee contribution for single coverage was 8%, the lowest in the nation. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 730,946 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$774.39.

3⁴ SECURITIES

The Honolulu Stock Exchange, established in 1898, discontinued trading on 30 December 1977. In 2005, there were 430 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 320 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were 18 publicly traded companies within the state, with five NASDAQ companies, three NYSE listings, and three AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 1,000 companies; Hawaiian Electric Industries (NYSE) ranked first in the state and 755 in the nation with revenues of over \$2.2 billion, followed by Alexander and Baldwin (NASDAQ).

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Development and implementation of Hawaii's biennial budget are the responsibilities of the Department of Budget and Finance. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Beginning in fiscal year 2000, reductions in state taxes were scheduled through fiscal year 2006, including cuts in the general excise tax, a cut in the services tax for out-of-state end usage, and incentives for high-technology business in Hawaii. From 1995 to 2000, the number of high-technology companies in Hawaii more than doubled, from 300 to 629.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$5.2 billion for resources and \$4.6 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Hawaii were nearly \$2.1 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Hawaii was slated to receive \$15.3 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006. It is also scheduled to receive \$8.3 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Hawaii fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Hawaii collected \$4,434 million in tax revenues or \$3,478 per capita, which placed it second among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 48.2% of the total, selective sales taxes 13.8%, individual income taxes 31.2%, corporate income taxes 2.8%, and other taxes 4.1%.

As of 1 January 2006, Hawaii had nine individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.4 to 8.25%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 4.4 to 6.4% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$720,798,000 or \$571 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 42nd highest nationally. Hawaii does not collect property taxes at the state level.

Hawaii taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. Food purchased for consumption off premises is taxable; however, an income tax credit is allowed to offset sales tax on food. The tax on cigarettes is 140 cents per pack, which ranks 11th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Hawaii taxes gasoline at 16 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Hawaii citizens received \$1.60 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Business activity in Hawaii is limited by physical factors: Land for development is scarce, living costs are relatively high, heavy industry is environmentally inappropriate, and there are few land-based mineral operations. On the other hand, Hawaii is well placed as a trading and communications center, and Hawaii's role as a defense outpost and tourist haven remains vital. The Department of

Business, Economic Development and Tourism (DBEDT) is the lead agency for economic development and planning. The Office of Planning, a separate agency attached to the DBEDT, has specific responsibility for the continuous process of long-range strategic planning. Ongoing projects in the Office of Planning include facilitating a task force on "Recapturing the Magic of Waikiki," a case study in keeping resort areas vital and attractive; implementing the Environmental Protection Agency-funded Brownfields Cleanup Revolving Loan Fund program; mapping the islands' agricultural subdivisions; and implementing a state Smart Growth strategy, including conducting stakeholder and public information meetings to increase awareness of Smart Growth principles and practices. The Aloha Tower Development Corporation (ATDC), formed in 1981 to develop the area around the historic landmark in downtown Honolulu, is another separate agency attached to the DBEDT. The Aloha Tower Marketplace, completed in 1994, was its first major project. The ATDC seeks to attract private investors to both strengthen the international economic base of the community and to enhance the beautification of the waterfront. The area has been included in an Enterprise Zone (EZ), making business tenants eligible for tax incentives. In 2006, Hawaii had 19 designated EZs, which are areas with high rates of unemployment, poverty, and/or public assistance. Another separate agency attached to the DBEDT is the High Technology Development Corporation (HTDC), established in 1982. Other separate agencies coordinated by the DBEDT include the Hawaii Tourist Authority, the Natural Energy of Hawaii Authority, the Hawaii Community Development Authority, the Land Use Commission, and the Housing and Community Development Corporation. The DBEDT administers the state's Foreign Trade Zone (FTZ) program, established under a grant issued to Hawaii by the federal Foreign-Trade Zones Board in 1965. As of 2006, 13 sites on the islands of Oahu, Maui, and Hawaii had received FTZ designations, and, of these, three general-purpose and four special-purpose zones were active. Other divisions within the DBEDT include the Business Development and Marketing Division; the Research and Economic Analysis Division; and the Energy, Resources and Technology Division.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.6 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.4 per 1,000 population. In 2000, the abortion rate stood at 22.1 per 1,000 women, a figure that was above the national average of 21.3 per 1,000 for the same year but substantially lower than the 1992 rate of 46 per 1,000. In 2003, about 82.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 81% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.1 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows: heart disease, 201.8; cancer, 156.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 65.2; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 21.3; and diabetes, 16.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.1 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 10.8 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 51.6% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2000, about 19.7% of state residents were smokers.

Hawaii—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	8,229,259	6,520.81
General revenue	6,675,478	5,289.60
Intergovernmental revenue	1,639,868	1,299.42
Taxes	3,849,135	3,050.03
General sales	1,900,377	1,505.85
Selective sales	569,922	451.60
License taxes	123,257	97.67
Individual income tax	1,169,205	926.47
Corporate income tax	58,119	46.05
Other taxes	28,255	22.39
Current charges	882,232	699.07
Miscellaneous general revenue	304,243	241.08
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	1,553,781	1,231.21
Total expenditure	7,856,134	6,225.15
Intergovernmental expenditure	134,452	106.54
Direct expenditure	7,721,682	6,118.61
Current operation	5,999,477	4,753.94
Capital outlay	466,569	369.71
Insurance benefits and repayments	775,163	614.23
Assistance and subsidies	124,136	98.36
Interest on debt	356,337	282.36
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,021,447	1,601.78
Total expenditure	7,856,134	6,225.15
General expenditure	7,080,971	5,610.91
Intergovernmental expenditure	134,452	106.54
Direct expenditure	6,946,519	5,504.37
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	2,487,630	1,971.18
Public welfare	1,346,566	1,067.01
Hospitals	244,076	193.40
Health	416,241	329.83
Highways	214,046	169.61
Police protection	13,779	10.92
Correction	158,029	125.22
Natural resources	109,514	86.78
Parks and recreation	57,703	45.72
Government administration	442,979	351.01
Interest on general debt	356,337	282.36
Other and unallocable	1,234,071	977.87
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	775,163	614.23
Debt at end of fiscal year	5,746,194	4,553.24
Cash and security holdings	13,195,390	10,455.94

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

In 2003, Hawaii had 24 community hospitals with about 3,100 beds. There were about 112,000 patient admissions that year and 1.9 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,200 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,350. Also in 2003, there were about 45 certified nursing facilities in the state with 4,059 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 93.8%. Hawaii had 302 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 725 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 997 dentists in the state.

Hawaii comes the closest of any state to providing universal health care coverage as a result of a 1974 law that requires employers to provide health insurance for full-time workers and a state insurance plan for low-income, part-time workers and Medicaid recipients. About 24% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 10% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.1 billion.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 24,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$323. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 93,584 persons (47,309 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$138.88 per person, which was the highest average in the nation. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$155.8 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state program had 23,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$91 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 199,240 Hawaiians. This number included 141,990 retired workers, 16,210 widows and widowers, 18,050 disabled workers, 9,480 spouses, and 13,510 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.6% of the total state population and 87.5% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$945; widows and widowers, \$879; disabled workers, \$915; and spouses, \$444. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$464 per month; children of deceased workers, \$627; and children of disabled workers, \$282. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 22,251 Hawaii residents in December 2004, averaging \$437 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 482,873 housing units, 427,673 of which were occupied. Only 58.9% were owner occupied, ranking the state at 48th out of 51 (the 50 states and the District of Columbia) in the number of homeowners. About 51.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes. About 22% of all housing units were within buildings of 20 or more units, which ranks as the second-highest percentage of this category of housing in the nation (after the District of Columbia). Most units relied on electricity

for heating, but about 5,476 units were equipped for solar power. It was estimated that 20,719 units were lacking telephone service, 4,972 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 8,549 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.87 members.

In 2004, 9,000 privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. Median home value was \$364,840, the second highest in the nation. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,648 while renters paid a median of \$871 per month; both figures represented the third-highest monthly median costs in the nation. In September 2005, the state received a grant of \$400,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated over \$5.2 million in community development block grants to the state.

4¹ EDUCATION

Education has developed rapidly in Hawaii: In 2004, 88% of all state residents 25 years of age or older had completed high school; 26.6% had completed four or more years of college.

Hawaii is the only state to have a single, unified public school system. It was founded in 1840. Total enrollment for fall 2002 stood at 184,000. Of these, 131,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 53,000 attended high school. Approximately 20.2% of the students were white, 2.4% were black, 4.5% were Hispanic, 72.4% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.5% were American Indian/Alaska Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 183,000 in fall 2003 and is expected to be 193,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 5% during the period 2002–14. In fall 2003, there were 37,228 students enrolled in 133 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003–04 were estimated at \$1.7 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Hawaii scored 266 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 65,368 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students composed 65.4% of total post-secondary enrollment. As of 2005, Hawaii had 20 degree-granting institutions. The University of Hawaii maintains three campuses—Manoa (by far the largest), Hilo, and West Oahu. Private colleges include Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus, Chamaine University of Honolulu, and Hawaii Pacific College. There are seven community colleges.

4² ARTS

The Hawaii State Foundation on Culture and the Arts (HSFCA) was founded in 1965. Ongoing programs include the Folk Arts Program (est. 1983) and the Hawaii State Art Museum, which opened in 2002 to feature artworks from the State Art Collection of the HSFCA. In 2005, Hawaiian arts organizations received 17 grants totaling \$934,900 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Hawaii Council for the Humanities was established in 1972 and has since granted over \$4 million for over 500 projects in the state. In 2005, the state received eight grants totaling \$1,207,532 from the National Endowment for the Humanities. The HSFCA was scheduled to host an International Cultural Summit in 2006, celebrating the foundation's 40th anniversary. The mission of the summit was to bring together artists, educators, and

civic leaders from the state and around the world in order to discuss contemporary issues concerning culture and art in local and global communities.

The Neal Blaisdell Center in Honolulu has a 2,158-seat theater and concert hall, an 8,800-seat arena, and display rooms. Other performance facilities in Honolulu are the John F. Kennedy Theatre at the University of Hawaii, the Waikiki Shell for outdoor concerts, and the Hawaii Opera Theater, which presents three operas each season. The opera's 2007 season included *Samson and Dalila*, *Don Giovanni*, and *Madama Butterfly*. The Honolulu Symphony Orchestra performs both on Oahu and on the neighboring islands. Founded in 1900, the Honolulu Symphony holds claim to being the oldest American orchestra west of the Rocky Mountains. Other Oahu cultural institutions are the Honolulu Community Theater, Honolulu Theater for Youth, Windward Theater Guild, and Polynesian Cultural Center.

The annual Cherry Blossom Festival includes a number of Japanese cultural events presented from January through March, mostly on Oahu. The Honolulu Festival, established in 1994 as a forum to encourage cultural cooperation and understanding, presents a number of art exhibits and musical performances. Though fairly new, the Honolulu Festival has grown rapidly, drawing approximately 5,000 participants from Japan alone in 2005. The Aloha Festivals, which began in 1946, now consist of over 300 events taking place on six islands throughout the months of August and September to celebrate the music, dance, and history of the various cultures represented in the state; it is Hawaii's largest festival and the only statewide celebration held in the United States. In 2006, the Aloha Festivals marked its 60th anniversary with the theme *Nā Paniolo Nui O Hawaʻii—The Great Cowboys of Hawaii*.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, the Hawaii State Public Library System (HSPLS) was the state's sole public library system, operating a total of 50 libraries, of which 49 were branches. The system had a combined book and serial publication collection in that same year of 3,195,000 volumes and a total circulation of 6,747,000. The system also had 185,000 audio and 58,000 video items, 3,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and four bookmobiles. In 2000, the University of Hawaii library system in Honolulu had approximately 3 million volumes. In fiscal year 2001, total operating income of the HSPLS came to \$23,876,000, including \$895,000 in federal grants and \$21,504,000 in state grants.

Hawaii has 42 major museums and cultural attractions. Among the most popular sites are the National Memorial Cemetery of the Pacific, USS *Arizona* Memorial at Pearl Harbor, Polynesian Cultural Center, Sea Life Park, Bernice P. Bishop Museum (specializing in Polynesian ethnology and natural history), and Honolulu Academy of Arts. Outside Oahu, the Kilauea Visitor Center (Hawaii Volcanoes National Park) and Kokee Natural History Museum (Kauai) attract the most visitors.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Commercial interisland wireless service began in 1901, and radiotelephone service to the mainland was established in 1931. In 2004, 95.4% of Hawaii's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year, there were 819,262 mobile

wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 63.3% of Hawaii households had a computer and 55.0% had Internet access. Hawaii had 12 major AM radio stations and 21 major FM stations as of 2003, as well as 10 major television stations. A total of 27,025 internet domain names were registered in Hawaii as of 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005, Hawaii had eight daily newspapers (six morning and two evening) and six Sunday newspapers: the *Honolulu Advertiser* (141,341 daily, 161,325 Sundays), *Honolulu Star-Bulletin* (64,305 daily, 64,344 Sunday), *Hawaii Tribune-Herald* (18,806 daily, 22,150 Sundays), *Maui News* (21,478 daily, 25,938 Sundays), *West Hawaii Today* (12,397 daily, 15,916 Sundays), and the *Garden Island* (8,677 daily, 9,130 Sundays).

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,035 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 758 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. The leading organization headquartered in Honolulu is the East-West Center, a vehicle of scientific and cultural exchange. Other educational organizations of national and international interest include the International Tsunami Information Center, the Pacific Whale Foundation, and the Meteoritical Society.

State organizations promoting local and regional arts and culture include the Historic Hawaii Foundation, the Hawaiian Historical Society, the Native Hawaiian Culture and Arts Program, the Honolulu Academy of the Arts, and the Polynesian Cultural Center. State environmental concerns are supported through the Conservation Council for Hawaii and the Hawaii Agriculture Research Center, which focuses on the local sugarcane industry.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, there were 7 million visitor arrivals to the islands, an increase of 8% over 2003. Travel expenditures by visitors who arrived by air reached \$10.8 billion. In 2003, Hawaii employed 153,600 people in the travel and tourism industry. An estimated 42% of visitors are from other US states. The largest international market (1.5 million visitors) is Japan.

Visitors come for scuba diving, snorkeling, swimming, fishing, whale watching, and sailing; for the hula, luau, lei, and other distinctive island pleasures; for the tropical climate and magnificent scenic beauty; and for a remarkable variety of recreational facilities, including 7 national parks and historic sites, 74 state parks, 626 county parks, 17 public golf courses, and 1,600 recognized surfing sites. Major visitor attractions include the Volcano National Park (Hawaii); USS *Arizona* Memorial (Oahu); Waimea Canyon (Kauai); Diamondhead Beach and Honolulu (Oahu); and Polynesian Cultural Center (Oahu). Visitors can tour coffee and pineapple plantations. The Hawaiian Islands are a popular vacation spot for honeymooners.

48 SPORTS

Hawaii has no major professional sports teams. Since 1982, the Aloha Bowl, a major college football postseason game played on Christmas Day, has been played in Aloha Stadium in Honolulu, as is the Hula Bowl, a postseason all-star game in January for college players. The Pro Bowl (the National Football League's all-star

game) is also played in Honolulu on the weekend following the Super Bowl. Surfing is an extremely popular sport in Hawaii, as it is the home of the Banzai Pipeline, north of Oahu. Here, the yearly Duke Kahanamoku and Makaha surfing meets take place. Hawaii is also the site of an annual Professional Golfers' Association tournament and the world-famous Ironman Triathlon competition. The Transpac Yacht Race is held biennially from California to Honolulu. Kona is the site of the International Billfish Tournament, and the Hawaii Big Game Fishing Club holds statewide tournaments each year. Football, baseball, and basketball are the leading collegiate sports. The University of Hawaii Rainbow Warriors produce the most well-known collegiate teams.

49 FAMOUS HAWAIIANS

Hawaii's best-known federal officeholder is Daniel K. Inouye (b.1924), a US senator since 1962 and the first person of Japanese ancestry ever elected to Congress. Inouye, who lost an arm in World War II, came to national prominence during the Senate Watergate investigation of 1973, when he was a member of the Select Committee on Presidential Campaign Activities. George R. Ariyoshi (b.1926), who was elected governor of Hawaii in 1974, was the first Japanese American to serve as chief executive of a state.

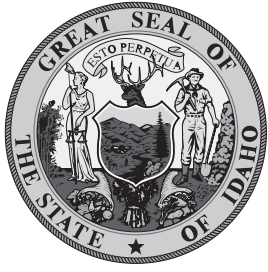
Commanding figures in Hawaiian history were King Kamehameha I (1758?–1819), who unified the islands through conquest, and Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli, 1813–54), who transformed Hawaii into a constitutional monarchy. Two missionaries who shaped Hawaiian life and politics were Hiram Bingham (b.Vermont, 1789–1869) and Gerrit Parmele Judd (b.New York, 1803–73). Sanford B. Dole (1844–1926) and Lorrin Andrews Thurston (1858–1931) were leaders of the revolutionary movement that overthrew Queen Liliuokalani (1838–1917), established a republic, and secured annexation by the United States. Dole was the republic's first president and the territory's first governor. Another prominent historical figure was Bernice Pauahi Bishop (1831–88), of the Kamehameha line, who married an American banker and left her fortune to endow the Kamehameha Schools in Honolulu; the Bishop Museum was founded by her husband in

her memory. Honolulu-born Luther Halsey Gulick (1865–1918), along with his wife, Charlotte Vetter Gulick (b.Ohio, 1865–1928), founded the Camp Fire Girls.

Don Ho (b.1930) is a prominent Hawaiian-born entertainer; singer-actress Bette Midler (b.1945) was also born in Hawaii. Duke Kahanamoku (1889–1968) held the Olympic 100-meter free-style swimming record for almost 20 years.

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IDAHO

State of Idaho



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Apparently coined by a lobbyist-politician, George M. Willing, who claimed the word came from an Indian term meaning “gem of the mountains.” **NICKNAME:** The Gem State. **CAPITAL:** Boise. **ENTERED UNION:** 3 July 1890 (43rd). **SONG:** “Here We Have Idaho.” **MOTTO:** *Esto perpetua* (Let it be perpetual). **FLAG:** On a blue field with gilt fringe, the state seal appears in the center with the words “State of Idaho” on a red band below. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** With cornucopias at their feet, a female figure (holding the scales of justice in one hand and a pike supporting a liberty cap in the other) and a miner (with pick and shovel) stand on either side of a shield depicting mountains, rivers, forests, and a farm; the shield rests on a sheaf of grain and is surmounted by the head of a stag above whose antlers is a scroll with the state motto. The words “Great Seal of the State of Idaho” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Mountain bluebird. **FLOWER:** Syringa. **TREE:** Western white pine. **GEM:** Star garnet. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr. and Idaho Human Rights Day, 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT; 4 AM PST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the northwestern United States, Idaho is the smallest of the eight Rocky Mountain states and 13th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Idaho is 83,564 sq mi (216,431 sq km), of which land composes 82,412 sq mi (213,447 sq km) and inland water 1,152 sq mi (2,984 sq km). With a shape described variously as a hatchet, a snub-nosed pistol, and a pork chop, Idaho extends a maximum of 305 mi (491 km) E–W and 479 mi (771 km) N–S.

Idaho is bordered on the N by the Canadian province of British Columbia; on the NE by Montana; on the E by Wyoming; on the S by Utah and Nevada; and on the W by Oregon and Washington (with part of the line formed by the Snake River). The total boundary length of Idaho is 1,787 mi (2,876 km). The state’s geographic center is in Custer County, SW of Challis.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Idaho is extremely mountainous. Its northern two-thirds consists of a mountain massif broken only by valleys carved by rivers and streams, and by two prairies: the Big Camas Prairie around Grangeville and the Palouse Country around Moscow. The Snake River Plain extends E–W across Idaho from Yellowstone National Park to the Boise area, curving around the southern end of the mountain mass. A verdant high-mountain area encroaches into the southeastern corner; the rest of Idaho’s southern edge consists mostly of low, dry mountains. Among the most important ranges are the Bitterroot (forming the border with Montana), Clearwater (the largest range), Salmon River, Sawtooth, Lost River, and Lemhi mountains. More than 40 peaks rise above 10,000 ft (3,000 m), of which the highest is Mt. Borah, at 12,662 ft (3,862 m), in the Lost River range. Idaho’s lowest point is 710 ft (217 m) near Lewiston, where the Snake River leaves the Idaho border and en-

ters Washington. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 5,000 ft (1,525 m).

The largest lakes are Pend Oreille (180 sq mi/466 sq km), Coeur d’Alene, and Priest in the panhandle, and Bear on the Utah border. The Snake River—one of the longest in the United States, extending 1,038 mi (1,671 km) across Wyoming, Idaho, and Washington—dominates the southern part of the state. The Salmon River—the “River of No Return,” a salmon-spawning stream that flows through wilderness of extraordinary beauty—separates northern from southern Idaho. The Clearwater, Kootenai, Bear, Boise, and Payette are other major rivers. There are ice caves near Shoshone and American Falls, and a large scenic cave near Montpelier. Near Arco is an expanse of lava, craters, and caves called the Craters of the Moon, another scenic attraction. At Hell’s Canyon in the northernmost part of Adams County, the Snake River cuts the deepest gorge in North America, 7,913 ft (2,412 m) deep.

³CLIMATE

The four seasons are distinct in Idaho, but not all parts simultaneous. Spring comes earlier and winter later to Boise and Lewiston, which are protected from severe weather by nearby mountains and call themselves “banana belts.” Eastern Idaho has a more continental climate, with more extreme temperatures; climatic conditions there and elsewhere vary with the elevation. Average temperatures in Boise range from 29°F (-2°C) in January to 74°F (23°C) in July. The record low, -60°F (-51°C), was set at Island Park Dam on 16 January 1943; the record high, 118°F (48°C), at Orofino on 28 July 1934. The corresponding extremes for Boise are -25°F (-31°C) and 111°F (44°C).

Humidity is low throughout the state. Precipitation in southern Idaho averages 13 in (33 cm) per year; in the north, over 30 in (76 cm). Average annual precipitation at Boise is about 11.8 in (29 cm), with more than 20 in (53 cm) of snow. Much greater accumulations of snow are experienced in the mountains.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

With 10 life zones extending from prairie to mountaintop, Idaho has some 3,000 native plants. Characteristic evergreens are Douglas fir and western white pine (the state tree); oak/mountain mahogany, juniper/piñon, ponderosa pine, and spruce/fir constitute the other main forest types. *Syringa* is the state flower. MacFarlanes four-o'clock, water howellia, Spalding's catchfly, and Ute ladies-tresses were the state's four threatened plant species as of April 2006.

Classified as game mammals are the elk, moose, white-tailed and mule deer, pronghorn antelope, bighorn sheep, mountain goat, black bear, mountain lion, cottontail, and pigmy rabbit. Several varieties of pheasant, partridge, quail, and grouse are the main game birds, and there are numerous trout, salmon, bass, and whitefish species in Idaho's lakes and streams. Rare animal species include the wolverine, kit fox, and pika. The grizzly bear and bald eagle are listed as threatened, while the woodland caribou, gray (timber) wolf, American peregrine falcon, and whooping crane are endangered. A total of 17 animal species occurring within the state were listed as threatened or endangered as of April 2006, including the woodland caribou, whooping crane, and three species of salmon.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The environmental protection movement in Idaho dates from 1897, when President Grover Cleveland established the Bitterroot Forest Preserve, encompassing much of the northern region. In the early 1930s, the US Forest Service set aside some 3 million acres (1.2 million hectares) of Idaho's roadless forestland as primitive areas. The Taylor Grazing Act of 1934 regulated grazing on public lands, providing for the first time some relief from the overgrazing that had transformed much of Idaho's grassland into sagebrush desert. Thirty years later, Idaho senator Frank Church was floor sponsor for the bill creating the National Wilderness System, which now contains most of the primitive areas set aside earlier. Many miles of Idaho streams are now in the Wild and Scenic Rivers System, another congressional accomplishment in which Senator Church played a leading role. In 1970, Governor Cecil Andrus (later, US secretary of the interior) was elected, partly on a platform of environmental protection. On 17 January 2001, the site near Jerome of a World War II camp where Japanese Americans were interned became Minidoka Internment National Monument; the National Park Service began planning for visitor facilities there in 2002.

The Department of Health and Welfare's Division of Environment is responsible for enforcing environmental standards. Air quality improved greatly between 1978 and 1997, following the passage of federal regulations strengthening the Clean Air Act. Vehicle emissions were responsible for high carbon monoxide levels in the Boise area in the late 1970s and 1980s. Emissions have dropped to the point that no carbon monoxide violations have occurred for several years. In 2003, 61.3 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

Water quality is generally good. Most of the existing problems stem from runoff from agricultural lands. Water quality is rated as only fair in the Upper Snake River Basin and in the Southwest Basin around Boise, and as poor in the Bear River Basin, partly be-

cause of municipal effluents from Soda Springs and Preston. The state has 386,000 acres of wetlands. The Idaho Department of Fish and Game has implemented plans to acquire privately owned wetlands deemed to be in danger. The plan runs from 1991 to 2005.

Since 1953, nuclear waste has been buried at the Idaho National Engineering Laboratory west of Idaho Falls or discharged in liquid form into the underground aquifer; some isotopes are migrating toward the boundaries of the site. Tailings from a former uranium-ore milling operation near Lowman are a potential health hazard. A top-priority site for hazardous-waste cleanup is Bunker Hill Mining at Smelterville; two sites in Pocatello are also considered candidates for cleanup. In 2003, the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 87 hazardous waste sites in Idaho, six of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. Three sites were deleted from the National Priority List in 2006, but another three sites were also proposed, including Blackbird Mine, St. Maries Creosote, and the Stibnite Yellow Pine Mining Area. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$17.8 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Also in 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$5.2 million for a clean water state revolving fund, as well as a \$2.5 million grant for a drinking water state revolving fund. A \$32,000 grant was offered to assist school districts in the adoption of indoor air quality programs.

6 POPULATION

Idaho ranked 39th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,429,096 in 2005, an increase of 10.4% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Idaho's population grew from 1,006,749 to 1,293,953, an increase of 28.5%—the fifth-largest percentage gain among the 50 states for this period. The population is projected to reach 1.6 million by 2015 and 1.8 million by 2025. Population density in 2004 was 16.8 persons per sq mi. The median age was 34.3 in 2004. Nearly 26.7% of the population was under age 18, while 11.4% was age 65 or older.

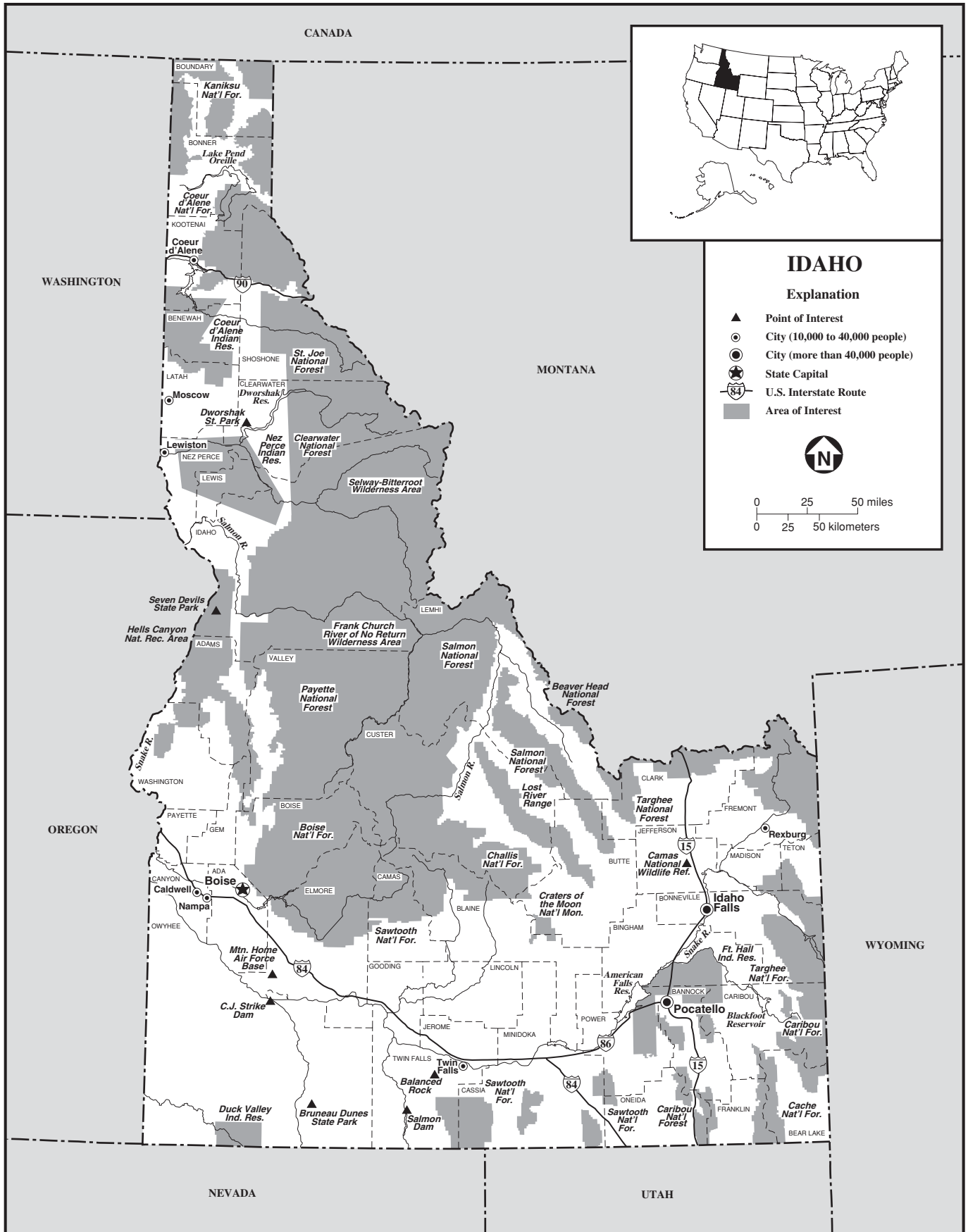
Although no part of Idaho except Boise is genuinely urban, even Boise does not have a large central city. Boise's estimated population in 2004 was 190,122; The Boise-Nampa metropolitan area had an estimated population of 524,884. Other major cities with large populations include Pocatello (83,155), Idaho Falls (110,435), and Lewiston (58,654).

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

The 2000 Census included 17,645 American Indians. There are five reservations; the most extensive is that of the Nez Perce in northern Idaho, with a total population of 17,959 in 2000. In 2004, 1.4% of the population was American Indian.

There is a very small population of black Americans (5,456 in 2000) and a larger number of Asians (11,889 in 2000), 2,642 of them Japanese. In 2004, 0.6% of the population was black and 1% Asian. In 2000, there were 101,690 persons of Hispanic origin. In 2004, 8.9% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2004, 1.3% of the population reported origin of two or more races. There is a very visible Basque community in the Boise area, with an organization devoted to preserving their language and culture.

The foreign born (64,080) accounted for about 5% of Idaho's population in 2000, up from 28,905 (2.8%) in 1990.



8 LANGUAGES

In the general word stock, only a few place-names, such as Nam-pa, Pocatello, and Benewah, reflect the presence of Idaho Indians. In Idaho, English reflects a merger of Northern and North Midland features, with certain Northern pronunciations marking the panhandle. In 2000, 90.7% of the people five years old or older spoke only English in the home, down from 93% in 1990. The number of persons speaking other languages at home included the following:

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,196,793	100.0
Speak only English	1,084,914	90.7
Speak a language other than English	111,879	9.3
Speak a language other than English	111,879	9.3
Spanish or Spanish Creole	80,241	6.7
German	5,666	0.5
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	3,345	0.3
Other Native North American languages	2,020	0.2
Serbo-Croatian	1,694	0.1
Japanese	1,651	0.1
Chinese	1,456	0.1
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	1,374	0.1
Vietnamese	1,213	0.1
Tagalog	1,119	0.1
Russian	1,113	0.1
Italian	1,106	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Roman Catholic and Presbyterian missionaries first came to Idaho between 1820 and 1840. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (Mormon) has been the leading religion in Idaho since 1860; with about a quarter of the population, the number of Mormons in Idaho is second only to that in Utah. Catholicism predominates north of Boise.

In 2006, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (Mormon) reported a statewide membership of 376,661 members in 937 congregations; there were two temples in the state with a third under construction as of 2006. As of 2000, there were 18,745 adherents in the Assemblies of God and 17,683 United Methodists. There were also 130,847 Roman Catholics and an estimated 1,050 Jews.

10 TRANSPORTATION

In 2004, Idaho had 47,101 mi (75,832 km) of public roads and streets, the vast majority of them rural. The major east-west highways are I-90, I-84 (formerly I-80N), and US 12; US 95, Idaho 55, US 93, and I-15 are among the most traveled north-south routes. Idaho had some 1.370 million registered vehicles, including around 569,000 automobiles, 751,000 trucks of all types, and about 1,000 buses in 2004, when there were 942,983 licensed drivers. Boise, Pocatello, and Idaho Falls have mass transit systems (bus lines).

There were 1,678 rail mi (2,701 km) used by the nine railroads operating within the state in 2003. Among the state's two Class I railroads, the Union Pacific Railroad serves southern Idaho, and the Burlington Northern Santa Fe crosses the panhandle. As of 2006, Amtrak provided east-west passenger service to Idaho via

its Empire Builder train connection at Sandpoint to Chicago or Seattle/Portland.

In 2005, Idaho had a total of 255 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 204 airports, 44 heliports, 2 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 5 seaplane bases. The modern airport at Boise is the state's busiest. In 2004, Boise Air Terminal/Gowen Field had 1,451,728 passenger enplanements.

Other transport facilities are 6,100 mi (9,800 km) of pipeline, carrying virtually all the natural gas and most of the gasoline consumed in Idaho, and a Snake River port at Lewiston that links Idaho, Montana, and the Dakotas with the Pacific via 464 mi (747 km) of navigable waterways in Washington State. Idaho had 111 mi (178 km) of navigable inland waterways in 2004. In 2003 waterborne shipments totaled 1.061 million tons.

11 HISTORY

Human beings came to the land now known as Idaho about 15,000 years ago. Until 1805, only Indians and their ancestors had ever lived in the area, eking out a bare living from seeds and roots, insects, small animals, and what fishing and big-game hunting they could manage. At the time of white penetration, Shoshone and Northern Paiute Indians lived in the south, as did two linked tribal families, the Salishan and Shapwailutan (including the Nez Perce, who greeted the Lewis and Clark expedition when it entered Idaho in 1805; it was their food and canoes that helped these explorers reach the Columbia River and the Pacific).

Fur trappers—notably David Thompson, Andrew Henry, and Donald Mackenzie—followed within a few years. Missionaries came later; Henry Harmon Spalding founded a mission among the Nez Perce in 1836. The Oregon Trail opened in 1842, but for two decades, people merely crossed Idaho over it; virtually no one settled. In 1860, 14 years after Idaho had officially become US land through the Oregon Treaty with the United Kingdom, Mormons from Utah established Franklin, Idaho's first permanent settlement, and began farming. Gold was discovered that summer in northern Idaho; a gold rush, lasting several years, led directly to the organizing of the Idaho Territory on 10 July 1863.

Boise became the capital of Idaho in 1864, and the following decade saw the inauguration of telegraph service, the linking of Franklin with the transcontinental railway, and the birth of the territory's first daily newspaper. Idaho's population nearly doubled between 1870 and 1880, and the pressure of white settlement impinging on Indian hunting and fishing grounds touched off a series of wars in the late 1870s. The most famous of those was the Nez Perce War, culminating in Chief Joseph's surrender in Montana on 5 October 1877 and the subsequent confinement of Idaho Indians to reservations.

Lead and silver were discovered in south-central Idaho in 1880 and in the panhandle in 1884, touching off yet another stampede of would-be miners. With a population of 88,548 in 1890, Idaho was eligible to enter the Union, becoming the 43rd state on 3 July. Statehood came to Idaho at a time of turmoil, when Mormons and non-Mormons were contending for political influence, the Populist Party was challenging the established political organizations, and violent labor disputes were sweeping the mining districts. In 1907, in a case that grew out of the labor conflict, William "Big Bill" Haywood (defended by Clarence Darrow) was acquitted on

charges that he conspired to assassinate former Idaho governor Frank Steunenberg, who was murdered on 30 December 1905.

From 1895 onward, federal land and irrigation projects fostered rapid economic growth. The modern timber industry began in 1906 with the completion of one of the nation's largest sawmills at Potlatch. By World War I, agriculture had become a leading enterprise; however, a farm depression in the 1920s lasted up to the Great Depression of the 1930s and ended only with the onset of World War II. After the war, an agro-industrial base was established, with fertilizers and potato processing leading the way. Idaho has also developed a thriving tourist industry, with large numbers of vacationers visiting the Sun Valley ski resort and the state's other scenic areas. Population expansion and the push for economic growth have collided with a new interest in the environment, creating controversies over land-use planning, mineral development, and water supply and dam construction. In April 2000, the National Wildlife Federation urged President Bill Clinton to designate the Owyhee Canyonlands, a 1.8-million acre scenic area in southwest Idaho, a national monument. The efforts to persuade Clinton failed, and environmentalists, ranchers, and off-road vehicle riders came together to agree on a conservation plan suitable to all. In 2004, they came up with the Owyhee Initiative, which will protect nearly 400 miles of river corridors and 500,000 acres of wild lands as wilderness, including the canyons themselves. Livestock grazing in wilderness areas will be gradually retired. Public lands in Owyhee County will be closed to cross-country all-terrain vehicles during preparation of a recreation plan that will manage motorized recreation on a designated system of roads and trails.

Idaho celebrated its 100th year of statehood in 1990, at the same time ushering in a decade in which the major environmental issue was nuclear waste contamination. The matter was highlighted by wildfires that raged in western states during the summer of 2000. One blaze charred the grounds of the Idaho National Engineering and Environmental Lab, a nuclear research and waste storage facility. Thirty thousand acres were burned before the fire was brought under control. But environmentalists, concerned citizens, and many Idaho lawmakers remained concerned that such storage facilities are vulnerable to natural disaster and pose a serious threat. In the early 2000s, wildfires broke out in the West once again, including Idaho. In the summer of 2002, wildfires burned over 7.1 million acres of public and private land in the United States, most of it in the West.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Idaho's 1889 constitution, amended 117 times as of January 2005, continues to govern the state today. The bicameral legislature, consisting of a 35-seat Senate and a 70-member House of Representatives, meets annually beginning the Monday closest to 9 January. There is no constitutional limit on the length of the session. Special sessions may only be summoned by the governor and are limited to 20 days. Legislators must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, qualified voters, and residents of their district for at least a year. All legislators serve two-year terms. In 2004, the legislative salary was \$15,646.

The executive branch is headed by seven elected officials: the governor and lieutenant governor (who run separately), secretary of state, attorney general, comptroller, treasurer, and superinten-

dent of public instruction. All serve four-year terms. The governor, who must be a US citizen, at least 30 years old, and a state resident for at least two years prior to election, can sign or veto a bill. Vetoes may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members in each house. If the governor neither signs nor vetoes a bill, it becomes law after five days when the legislature is in session and after 10 days when the legislature has adjourned. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$98,500.

The state constitution may be amended with the consent of two-thirds of each house and a majority of the voters at the next general election. Provisions for initiative, referendum, and recall were added by amendment to the state constitution in 1912 but not implemented by the legislature until 1933. The initiative procedure was employed in 1974 to pass the Sunshine Act, mandating registration by lobbyists and campaign financing disclosures by candidates for public office. An Idaho voter must be at least 18 years old, a US citizen, and a resident of the county and state for at least 30 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Idahoans have usually voted Republican in presidential elections but sometimes have elected Democrats to Congress or the statehouse. The state has become increasingly Republican in the 21st century, however. The dominant Republican in the 20th century was US senator William E. Borah, an isolationist-progressive who opposed US entry into the League of Nations but advocated world disarmament and supported prohibition, the graduated income tax, and some New Deal reforms; as chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee from 1924 to 1940, he was one of the most influential legislators in the nation.

One measure of the conservatism of Idaho voters in the 1960s and 1970s was the showing by George Wallace's American Independent Party in 1968 (12.6% of the total vote) and his American Party in 1972 (9.3%, the highest of any state). In 2000, Republican George W. Bush received 69% of the vote, while Democrat Al Gore won 28% and Reform Party candidate Patrick Buchanan captured

Idaho Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	IDAHO WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	*Truman (D)	107,370	101,514
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	395,081	180,707
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	105,868	166,979
1960	4	Nixon (R)	138,853	161,597
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	148,920	143,557
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	389,273	165,369
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	380,826	199,384
1976	4	Ford (R)	126,549	204,151
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	110,192	290,699
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	108,510	297,523
1988	4	*Bush (R)	147,272	253,881
1992**	4	Bush (R)	137,013	202,645
1996**	4	Dole (R)	165,443	256,595
2000	4	*Bush, G. W. (R)	138,637	336,937
2004	4	*Bush, G. W. (R)	181,098	409,235

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 130,395 votes in 1992 and 62,518 votes in 1996.

2%. In 2004, Bush won 68.5% to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 30.4%. In 2004, there were 798,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had four electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

A Democrat, Cecil Andrus, served four terms as governor, retiring in 1994. In winning the governor's office in November 1994, Republican Phil Batt ended 24 years of Democratic control of that office. He was succeeded by another Republican, Dirk Kempthorne, following the 1998 election; Kempthorne was reelected in 2002. In mid-2005, the state legislature had 28 Republicans and 7 Democrats in the state Senate and 57 Republicans and 13 Democrats in the state House. In the 2004 elections, Idaho voters again elected two Republicans to represent them in the US House. Its US senators, Larry Craig, reelected in 2002, and Mike Crapo, reelected in 2004, are also Republicans.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Idaho had 44 counties, 200 municipal governments, 115 public school districts, and 798 special districts or authorities. Most counties elect three commissioners and other officers, usually including an assessor, treasurer, coroner, and sheriff. Nearly all cities have an elected mayor and council of four to six members. School districts have elected board members.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 54,268 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Idaho operates under the authority of state statute and executive order; the emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

The executive agencies concerned with education are the State Board of Education and the Department of Education. Under the heading of human resources are the Departments of Health and Welfare, Employment, and Correction and the Idaho State Police. Under the general rubric of natural resources come the Departments of Lands, Water Resources, Fish and Game, and Parks and Recreation. Self-governing agencies and the Departments of Agriculture, Finance, Insurance, Commerce and Labor, and Transportation oversee economic development and regulation. Within the Executive Office of the Governor are a number of funds, divisions, boards, commissions, and other bodies. The Information Technology Resource Management Council supports high-tech endeavors in the state.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Idaho's highest court, the supreme court, consists of five justices, each elected at large on a nonpartisan ballot to a six-year term. The justice with the shortest remaining term automatically becomes chief justice. There is a three-member court of appeals. The district court, with 37 judges in 1999, is the main trial court in civil and criminal matters, while magistrates' courts handle traffic, misdemeanor, and minor civil cases and preliminary hearings in felony cases. As with the state's supreme court justices, appeals court justices and district court judges are elected by nonpartisan ballot for six years and four years, respectively. Magistrates are appointed by a commission and run for four-year terms in the

first general election succeeding the 18-month period following appointment.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 6,375 prisoners were held in Idaho's state and federal prisons, an increase from 5,737 or 11.1% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 647 inmates were female, up from 591 or 5% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Idaho had an incarceration rate of 454 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Idaho had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 244.9 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 3,412 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 38,933 reported incidents or 2,794.4 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Idaho has a death penalty, which can be carried out by lethal injection or firing squad, of which the latter is to be used only if lethal injection is impractical. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state executed only one person, which was carried out in January 1994. As of 1 January 2006, there were 20 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Idaho spent \$41,282,044 on homeland security, an average of \$28 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

Mountain Home Air Force Base, located about 50 mi (80 km) southeast of Boise, has 4,516 active-duty military personnel. In 2004, 5,640 active-duty military personnel, 489 civilian personnel, and 1,455 Guard and National Guard personnel were stationed in Idaho. Defense contract awards to Idaho firms totaled \$186 million in fiscal year 2004. Another \$535 million in defense payroll spending came to the state.

Idaho casualties in US wars included 1,419 in World War II, 132 in Korea, and 187 in Vietnam. There were 133,183 veterans of US military service in Idaho as of 2003, of whom 16,712 served in World War II; 13,095 in the Korean conflict; 39,565 during the Vietnam era; and 26,264 in the Persian Gulf War. Total expenditures for Idaho veterans were \$363 million in fiscal year 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Idaho State Police employed 242 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Idaho's first white immigrants came from Utah, California, and Oregon in the early 1860s. By the end of the Civil War, the chief sources of immigrants were the southern and border states. Homesteaders from the Midwest, Utah, and Scandinavia arrived at the end of the 19th century.

Since 1960, immigrants have come largely from California. Idaho suffered a net loss from migration of 109,000 persons between 1940 and 1970 but had a net gain of 110,000 persons in the 1970s. During the 1980s, Idaho had a net loss of 28,000 persons from migration. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 129,000 in domestic migration and 15,000 in international migration. In 1998, 1,504 immigrants from foreign countries arrived in Idaho. The state's overall population increased 22% between 1990 and 1998, making it one of the fastest-growing states in the United States, superseded only by Nevada and Arizona during the same time period. In the period 2000–05, net international migration

was 14,522 and net internal migration was 61,273, for a net gain of 75,795 people.

1⁹ INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Idaho cooperates with Utah and Wyoming in the Bear River Compact; with Oregon, Washington, and Alaska in the Pacific States Marine Fisheries Commission; with Wyoming in the Snake River Compact; with Washington, Oregon, and Montana in the Northwest Power and Conservation Council; and in the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Western Interstate Energy Council, Western States Water Council, and numerous other interstate compacts. Federal grants amounted to \$1.465 billion in fiscal year 2005, \$1.54 billion in fiscal year 2006, and \$1.729 billion in fiscal year 2007.

2⁰ ECONOMY

Fur trapping was Idaho's earliest industry. Agriculture and mining began around 1860, with agriculture dominating since the 1870s. Timber became important after 1900, and tourism and manufacturing—especially food processing and forest products—after 1945. Currently, agriculture, mining, forest products, and food processing are Idaho's largest industries.

The Idaho economy prospered in the 1970s. Machinery and transportation equipment manufacturing grew 20% between 1970 and 1980, and services expanded 7.5%. The early 1980s, in contrast, brought a national recession in which Idaho lost 8% of its employment base. Recovery required a restructuring of Idaho's mining, forest products, and agricultural industries that resulted in the laying off of large numbers of employees. Other industries posted significant gains in employment in the 1980s. Chemical manufacturing employment grew 36% in the early and mid-1980s, and jobs in the paper industry increased 30%. Travel and tourism employment rose 35% between 1982 and 1991, and high-tech jobs increased 50% between 1986 and 1990. Disputes with the federal government over the management of federal lands remained central to the discussion of Idaho's economic policy, as the federal government owns 60% of Idaho's public land. The disputes center on such matters as grazing fees, costs of water from government projects, species protection, and mining regulations. The electronics industry continued to grow during the 1990s, as evidenced by expansions announced by Hewlett-Packard, Micron, and Zilog. Construction employment also increased. Other manufacturing sectors were also increasing, so that from 1997 to 2000, there was an overall 37% increase in Idaho's manufacturing output and an increase in its relative share of total state output, from 20.2% to 22.1%. More than half of the gain was lost, however, in the national recession in 2001, as manufacturing output fell 19.4% in one year, reducing the net gain since 1997 to 10.3% and manufacturing's share in the state economy to a new low of 17.8%. The recession and continued slowdown severely impacted Idaho's economy, as strong annual growth rates at the end of the 20th century—5.6% in 1998, 11.4% in 1999, and 6.3% in 2000—abruptly fell to 0.4% in 2001. The highest rate of job loss was in the construction sector, where employment fell 11% from December 2001 to December 2002. Over the same period, employment in manufacturing fell 4% and about 4,500 high-paid, high-tech jobs were lost. Idaho's economy was also afflicted in 2002 by drought conditions that reduced grazing land and threatened the state's potato crop.

Idaho farmers were also hurt by historically low milk prices in 2002 and into 2003.

In 2004, Idaho's gross state product (GSP) totaled \$43.571 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) was the largest sector at \$6.231 billion or 14.3% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$5.191 billion (11.9% of GSP), and health care and social services at \$2.914 billion (6.6% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 131,663 small businesses in Idaho. Of the 43,675 businesses having employees, a total of 42,384 or 97% were small companies. An estimated 7,814 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 30.3% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 5,716, down 15.2% from 2003. There were 160 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 28.9% from the previous year. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 704 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Idaho as the 12th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005, Idaho had a gross state product (GSP) of \$47 billion, which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 43 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004, Idaho had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$26,877. This ranked 46th in the United States and was 81% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.7%. Idaho had a total personal income (TPI) of \$37,497,434,000, which ranked 42nd in the United States and reflected an increase of 8.2% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.8%. Earnings of persons employed in Idaho increased from \$25,779,208,000 in 2003 to \$28,215,416,000 in 2004, an increase of 9.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$42,519 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.5% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Idaho numbered 761,200. Approximately 25,600 workers were unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.4%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 638,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Idaho was 9.4% in February 1983. The historical low was 3.2% in March 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 8.1% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10% in manufacturing; 19.9% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.9% in financial activities; 12.6% in professional and business services; 10.8% in education and health services; 9.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 18.1% in government.

Idaho was a pioneer in establishing the eight-hour workday and in outlawing yellow-dog contracts. In 1958, Idaho voters rejected right-to-work legislation. Governor John Evans vetoed simi-

lar legislation in 1982. However, in 1986, Idaho became one of 22 states with a right-to-work law when voters approved the law.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 31,000 of Idaho's 606,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 5.2% of those so employed, down from 5.8% in 2004 and well under the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 38,000 workers (6.3%) in Idaho were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation.

As of 1 March 2006, Idaho had a state-mandated minimum wage of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 45.8% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Receipts from farm marketings totaled \$4.5 billion in 2005 (21st in the United States); farm industry income was about \$1.9 billion. As of 2004, Idaho led the United States in potato production; was second in sugar beets and barley; third in hops, peppermint oil; and fourth in spearmint oil.

Development of the russet potato in the 1920s gave Idaho its most famous crop. In 2004, the state produced 131,970,000 hundredweight of potatoes (29% of the US total); some 90% was grown on about 110,000 acres (45,000 hectares) of irrigated land on the Snake River plain. About three-fourths of the crop is processed into frozen french fries, instant mashed potatoes, and other products. Other leading crops were hay, 5,350,000 tons, valued at \$556,690,000; wheat, 101,710,000 bushels, \$357,427,000; barley, 59,800,000 bushels (second in the United States), \$176,410,000; and sugar beets, 5,491,000 tons, \$216,980,000.

As of 2004, Idaho had 11.8 million acres (5.4 million hectares) in farms, roughly 22% of the state's land area; its estimated 25,000 farms, (including ranches) averaged about 472 acres (191 hectares). Almost 3.5 million acres (1.4 hectares) of land were irrigated.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, there were an estimated 2 million cattle and calves worth around \$2.2 billion. In 2004, Idaho had an estimated 21,000 hogs and pigs worth around \$2.1 million. Idaho had an estimated 404,000 dairy cows, which produced 8.8 billion lb (3.4 million kg) of milk in 2003. In the same year, Idaho produced an estimated 2.3 million lb (1 million kg) of chicken, and the state produced an estimated 243 million eggs worth \$14.5 million. Also during 2003, the state produced an estimated 24.7 million lb of sheep and lambs, which grossed \$20.8 million for Idaho farmers. Shorn wool production in 2004 totaled an estimated 2.1 million lb (0.95 million kg).

25 FISHING

In 2004, there were some 403,741 licensed sport fishermen catching trout along with salmon, steelhead, bass, and 32 other game-fish species. Idaho is a leading producer of farm-raised trout: Its 55 trout farms had \$32.6 million in sales in 2004, more than any other state and 47% of the US total. There are about 19 state hatcheries and three national fish hatcheries located within the state.

The Idaho Fish Health Center in Orofino is a federally sponsored research facility.

26 FORESTRY

As of 2004, Idaho forests covered 23.5 million acres (9.5 million hectares), or about 40% of the state's land area, with 16,824,000 acres (6,809,000 hectares) classified as commercial timberland. Of the total forest area in 2003, the federal government controlled 79%; state government, 5%; and private owners, 16%. National Forest System lands in Idaho totaled 21,575,000 acres (8,731,000 hectares) in 2005. Idaho forests are used increasingly for ski areas, hunting, and other recreation, as well as for timber and pulp. Total lumber production was 1.7 billion board feet (10th in the United States) in 2004, almost all softwoods.

27 MINING

Idaho's estimated value of nonfuel mineral production in 2004 was \$446 million, up almost 66% from 2003, according to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS). The data placed Idaho 34th in the production, by value, of nonfuel minerals in 2004, accounting for 1% of the US total.

In descending order, phosphate rock, construction sand and gravel, molybdenum concentrates, silver, portland cement, and crushed stone were the top minerals produced that year, accounting for around 91%, by value, of all nonfuel mineral output by the state.

According to USGS estimates (by volume) for 2004, Idaho ranked second nationally in the production of phosphate rock and industrial garnets (out of two states) and was third in the output of silver and lead, fourth in molybdenum concentrates and zeolites, fifth in pumice and zinc, and sixth in gemstones. Idaho is also a producer of gold, copper, and lime.

In 2004, preliminary data showed crushed stone production at 3.2 million metric tons or \$16.2 million, with output of sand and gravel for construction at 18.2 million metric tons or \$66.8 million.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Idaho had 32 electrical power service providers, of which 11 were publicly owned and 16 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned and one was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year, there were 687,334 retail customers. Of that total, 577,986 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 69,850 customers, while publicly owned providers had 39,497 customers. There was only one independent generator or "facility" customer.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 3.002 million kW, with total production that same year at 10.422 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 74.2% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 8.354 billion kWh (80.1%), came from hydroelectric plants, with natural gas-fired plants in second place at 1.374 billion kWh (13.2%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 5.2% of all power generated, with coal and "other" types of generating facilities accounting for the remainder.

Idaho's large size, widespread and relatively rural population, and lack of public transportation foster reliance on motor vehicles and imported petroleum products. Natural gas is also imported. Hot water from thermal springs is used to heat buildings in Boise.

As of 2004, Idaho had no known proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. There are no refineries located within the state.

29 INDUSTRY

Although resource industries such as food processing, chemical manufacturing, and lumber production continue to be important manufacturing sectors in Idaho's economy, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the state's primary manufacturing sector as of 2004.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Idaho's manufacturing sector covered some 13 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$16.583 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$6.076 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$4.455 billion; wood product manufacturing at \$1.853 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$802.844 million; and paper manufacturing at \$734.884 million.

In 2004, a total of 56,479 people in Idaho were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 36,632 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 15,552, with 4,054 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 13,238 employees (11,451 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing at 7,019 employees (6,025 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 3,456 employees (2,667 actual production workers); and furniture and related product manufacturing with 2,051 employees (1,667 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Idaho's manufacturing sector paid \$2.107 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$739.972 million. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$391.014 million; wood product manufacturing at \$223.840 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$119.999 million; and paper manufacturing at \$100.246 million.

Ore-Ida Foods is a leading potato processor, and J. R. Simplot engages in food processing and fertilizer production. Boise Cascade (with headquarters at Boise), Potlatch, and Louisiana-Pacific dominate the wood-products industry. Morrison-Knudsen, a diversified engineering and construction company that also has forest-products interests, has its headquarters in Boise.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Idaho's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$11.4 billion from 1,989 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,168 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 735 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 86 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$5.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw

sales of \$4.7 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$926.2 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Idaho was listed as having 5,874 retail establishments with sales of \$13.5 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (868); miscellaneous store retailers (674); gasoline stations (663); building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (661); and food and beverage stores (549). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$3.7 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$2.3 billion; food and beverage stores at \$1.8 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies at \$1.4 billion. A total of 69,641 people were employed by the retail sector in Idaho that year.

Foreign exports of goods from Idaho were valued at \$3.2 billion in 2005 (38th in the United States).

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Idaho Office of the Attorney General is responsible for investigating consumer complaints and enforcing most consumer laws through its Consumer Protection Unit. However, Idaho's Credit Code is administered through the Department of Finance, which also resolves consumer credit complaints under that law. The legislature has enacted the state's Consumer Protection, Telephone Solicitation, and Pay-Per-Telephone Call acts for purposes of protecting both consumers and businesses against unfair or deceptive acts in trade and commerce, and providing efficient and economical procedures to secure such protection. The Idaho Consumer Protection Unit seeks to fulfill this charge through education, mediation, and enforcement efforts. In 1990, the Idaho Consumer Protection Act was modernized, and in 1992 the Telephone Solicitation and Pay-Per-Telephone Call Acts were passed, as well as the Charitable Solicitation Act in 1993.

In support of its Consumer Protection Unit, the Idaho Office of the Attorney General has broad subpoena powers; can initiate civil (but not criminal) proceedings; and can represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies, as well as support the administration of consumer protection and education programs and handle formal consumer complaints. In antitrust actions, the Office of the Attorney General can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Consumer Protection Unit of the Idaho Attorney General's Office is located in Boise.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Idaho had 17 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 42 state-chartered and 24 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Boise City-Nampa market area had 21 financial institutions in 2004 with \$6.171 billion in deposits, followed by Coeur d'Alene with 14 institutions and \$1.472 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 31.1% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$2.739 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and

savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 68.9% or \$6.060 billion in assets held.

The 1997 Idaho Savings Bank Act permitted state-chartered savings banks in Idaho, repealing the Savings and Loan Act. The Idaho Department of Finance's Financial Institutions Bureau regulates and supervises Idaho's state-chartered commercial banks, savings banks, credit unions, trust companies, and bank holding companies. Idaho's insured institutions increased their profitability in 2004 as the median return on average assets ratio (the measure of earnings in relation to all resources) rose from 0.98% in 2003 to 0.99%. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 5.34% in the fourth quarter of 2005, up from 4.69% in 2004 and 4.65% in 2003.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 498,000 individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$49.4 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$84 billion. The average coverage amount was \$99,200 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$204 million.

In 2003, 12 property and casualty and six life and health insurance companies were domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$1.68 billion. That year, there were 5,651 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$960 million.

In 2004, 53% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 7% held individual policies, and 22% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$585.34, one of the lowest averages in the nation.

34 SECURITIES

Idaho has no stock exchanges. In 2005, there were 540 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 630 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 34 publicly traded companies within the state, with four NASDAQ companies, six NYSE listings, and one AMEX listing. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; Albertson's (food and drug stores) ranked first in the state and 47th in the nation with revenues of over \$40.3 billion, followed by Micron Technology. Washington Group Intl. made the Fortune 1,000 list at 586th in the nation. Albertson's and Micron Technology are listed on the NYSE; Washington Group Intl. is an OTC listing.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Idaho's annual budget, prepared by the Division of Financial Management, is submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June. The state constitution requires that the legislature pass a balanced budget, and the governor, as the chief budget officer, ensures that expenditures do not exceed revenues.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$2.3 billion for resources and \$2.2 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Idaho were nearly \$2.0 billion.

Idaho—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	7,112,364	5,098.47
General revenue	5,309,905	3,806.38
Intergovernmental revenue	1,741,394	1,248.31
Taxes	2,647,790	1,898.06
General sales	1,036,924	743.31
Selective sales	366,231	262.53
License taxes	220,800	158.28
Individual income tax	907,795	650.75
Corporate income tax	103,784	74.40
Other taxes	12,256	8.79
Current charges	470,037	336.94
Miscellaneous general revenue	450,684	323.07
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	76,766	55.03
Insurance trust revenue	1,725,693	1,237.06
Total expenditure	5,762,624	4,130.91
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,496,785	1,072.96
Direct expenditure	4,265,839	3,057.95
Current operation	2,848,421	2,041.88
Capital outlay	539,447	386.70
Insurance benefits and repayments	611,969	438.69
Assistance and subsidies	132,212	94.78
Interest on debt	133,790	95.91
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	817,284	585.87
Total expenditure	5,762,624	4,130.91
General expenditure	5,093,039	3,650.92
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,496,785	1,072.96
Direct expenditure	3,596,254	2,577.96
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	2,013,929	1,443.68
Public welfare	1,197,420	858.37
Hospitals	39,186	28.09
Health	112,441	80.60
Highways	524,242	375.80
Police protection	43,206	30.97
Correction	170,981	122.57
Natural resources	178,812	128.18
Parks and recreation	26,054	18.68
Government administration	268,481	192.46
Interest on general debt	133,790	95.91
Other and unallocable	384,497	275.63
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	57,616	41.30
Insurance trust expenditure	611,969	438.69
Debt at end of fiscal year	2,383,841	1,708.85
Cash and security holdings	11,735,412	8,412.48

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Idaho was slated to receive \$25.4 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006. The state is also scheduled to receive \$7.3 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Idaho fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Idaho collected \$2,934 million in tax revenues or \$2,054 per capita, which placed it 30th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 38.5% of the total, selective sales taxes 12.7%, individual income taxes 35.5%, corporate income taxes 4.8%, and other taxes 8.6%.

As of 1 January 2006, Idaho had eight individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.6 to 7.8%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 7.6%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$1,084,470,000 or \$777 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 36th highest nationally. Idaho does not collect property taxes at the state level.

Idaho taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 3%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 9%. Food purchased for consumption off premises is taxable; however, an income tax credit is allowed to offset sales tax on food. The tax on cigarettes is 57 cents per pack, which ranks 33rd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Idaho taxes gasoline at 25 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Idaho citizens received \$1.28 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Idaho Department of Commerce and Labor coordinates economic development initiatives in the state, which are carried out by various departments and executive councils. The International Business Division of the Department of Commerce and Labor has as its mission the identification of opportunities for Idaho products in international markets and helping Idaho companies capitalize on these. In 2005, key export markets for Idaho's goods were in China, Canada, Singapore, the United Kingdom, Taiwan, and Japan. The Division of Economic and Community Affairs, within the office of the governor, seeks to widen markets for Idaho products and goods and services, encourage film production in the state, attract new business and industry to Idaho, expand and enhance existing enterprises, and promote the state travel industry. Incentives for investment include conservative state fiscal policies and a probusiness regulatory climate. Idaho offers industrial revenue bonds to assist companies with the financing of land, buildings, and equipment used in manufacturing. The state extends loans to businesses seeking to start up or expand and for energy conservation improvements. To help distressed areas, there are matching grants for economic development as well as train-

ing in strategic planning and economic diversification techniques. Cities and counties may also apply for community development block grants.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.3 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 16 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 7 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 81.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 81% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.6 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows: heart disease, 188.8; cancer, 159.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 54.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 44.4; and diabetes, 23.9. The mortality rate from HIV infection was unavailable. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 1.6 per 100,000 population, the third lowest in the nation that year. In 2002, about 55% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 17.4% of state residents were smokers, one of the lowest percentages in the nation.

In 2003, Idaho had 39 community hospitals with about 3,400 beds. There were about 136,000 patient admissions that year and 2.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 1,900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,235. Also in 2003, there were about 80 certified nursing facilities in the state with 6,258 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 76%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 67.7% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Idaho had 175 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 657 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 824 dentists in the state.

About 22% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.1 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 50,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$229. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 93,441 persons (37,151 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$91.83 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$102 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Idaho's TANF program is called Temporary Assistance for Families in Idaho. In 2004, the state program had 3,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$7 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 219,250 Idaho residents. This number included 140,330 retired workers, 19,940 widows and widowers, 27,430 disabled workers, 14,130

spouses, and 17,420 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.7% of the total state population and 96.8% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$931; widows and widowers, \$914; disabled workers, \$879; and spouses, \$469. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$499 per month; children of deceased workers, \$613; and children of disabled workers, \$234. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 20,993 Idaho residents in December 2004, averaging \$383 a month. An additional \$686,000 in state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 12,398 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 578,774 housing units within the state, 515,252 of which were occupied. About 72.4% of all units were owner occupied. About 71.1% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 10.8% were mobile homes. Most units relied on utility gas and electricity for heating. It was estimated that 22,347 units were without telephone service, 2,419 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 3,220 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.64 members.

In 2004, 18,100 privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. Median home value was at \$120,825. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was about \$953 while renters paid a median of \$566 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$9.1 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

As of 2004, 87.9% of Idahoans over the age of 25 were high school graduates and 23.8% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment in Idaho's public schools for fall 2002 stood at 249,000. Of these, 173,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 75,000 attended high school. Approximately 84.1% of the students were white, 0.9% were black, 12% were Hispanic, 1.5% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.6% were American Indian/Alaska Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 250,000 in fall 2003 and is expected to be 283,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 13.8% during the period 2002–14. There were 10,994 students enrolled in 107 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003–04 were estimated at \$1.7 billion or \$6,028 per student, the second lowest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Idaho scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 72,072 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students composed 7.6% of total post-secondary enrollment. As of 2005, Idaho had 14 degree-granting institutions. The leading public higher educational institutions are the University of Idaho at Moscow; Idaho State University (Pocatello); Boise State University; and Lewis-Clark State College in Lewiston. The State Board of Education offers scholarships to graduates of accredited Idaho high schools.

42 ARTS

The Idaho Commission on the Arts, founded in 1966, offers grants to support both creative and performing artists. In 2005, the commission hosted the National Association of State Arts Agencies annual meeting, bringing together some 385 arts administrators in Boise. Also in 2005, the Idaho Commission on the Arts and other Idaho arts organizations received nine grants totaling \$699,100 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The commission is a partner with the regional Western States Arts Federation. The Idaho Humanities Council was established in 1973. In 2004, the council provided nearly \$100,000 in grants and 292 speakers bureau programs supporting the humanities. In 2005, the state received \$530,730 in the form of six grants from the National Endowment for the Humanities.

The Boise Philharmonic is Idaho's leading professional orchestra; other symphony orchestras are in Coeur d'Alene, Moscow, Pocatello, and Twin Falls. Boise and Moscow have seasonal theaters. The Boise Philharmonic is notable for its long history—it can trace its roots to around 1885 and the formation of the Boise City Orchestra. As of 2006, this orchestra performed for 14,000 students annually with their Children's Concerts. The annual summer Idaho Shakespeare Festival, in Boise, presents a series of plays in its outdoor Festival Amphitheater and Reserve. Boise is also home to Ballet Idaho, the state's professional ballet company. In 2005, the company performed in the mainstage productions of *Giselle* and *The Princess and the Pea*, as well as toured the state in December performing *The Nutcracker*.

The Boise Art Museum began in 1931 and is the only American Association of Museums (AAM) accredited art museum in the state. The museum's permanent collection emphasizes 20th-century American art, particularly art from the Pacific Northwest and American Realism. The 2006 exhibitions included *Native Perspectives on the Trail: A Contemporary American Indian Art Portfolio* and *Frank Lloyd Wright and the House Beautiful*—over 100 original objects designed by Wright were showcased.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in September 2001, Idaho had 106 public library systems, with a total of 143 libraries, of which 39 were branches. In that same year, the systems had a combined book and serial publications stock of 3,577,000 volumes and a total circulation of more than 8,723,000. The systems also had 126,000 audio and 103,000 video items, 3,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and seven bookmobiles. The largest public library system was the Boise Public Library and Information Center, with about 340,800 volumes. The state's leading academic library was at the University of Idaho (Moscow); it had 1,064,707 volumes, as of 2000. In fiscal year 2001, total operating income for the public library system was \$25,787,000, which included \$177,000 in federal grants and \$737,000 in state grants.

The state also has 31 museums, notably the Boise Art Museum, Idaho State Historical Museum (Boise), and the Idaho Museum of Natural History (Pocatello). The University of Idaho Arboretum is at Moscow, and there is a zoo at Boise and an animal park in Idaho Falls. Major historical sites include Cataldo Mission near Kellogg, Spalding Mission near Lapwai, and Nez Perce National Historical Park in north-central Idaho.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

As of 2004, 94.8% of Idaho's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year, there were 653,779 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 69.2% of Idaho households had a computer and 56.4% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 148,964 high-speed lines in Idaho, 134,698 residential and 14,266 for business.

Idaho's first radio station, built by a Boise high school teacher and his students, began transmitting in 1921, was licensed in 1922, and six years later was sold and given the initials KIDO—the same call letters later assigned to Idaho's first permanent television station, which began broadcasting in 1953 and subsequently became KTVB. As of 2005, the state had 43 major operating radio stations (8 AM, 35 FM) and 13 major television stations. Several large cable systems serviced the state in 2005. In 2000, a total of 21,563 internet domain names were registered in the state.

45 PRESS

Idaho, site of the first printing press in the Northwest, had 12 daily newspapers in 2005 (10 morning and 2 evening) and 8 Sunday papers. The most widely read newspaper was the *Idaho Statesman*, published in Boise, with a circulation of 63,023 daily and 83,857 on Sundays in 2005. Caxton Printers, founded in 1902, is the state's leading publishing house. Leading magazines from the state are *Idaho* magazine and the industry trade magazines *Spudman* and *Sugar*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,170 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 797 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

The Appaloosa Horse Club is among the few national organizations with headquarters in Idaho. One of the largest state business associations is the Idaho Potato Commission, a department of the state dedicated to research and promotion of the potato growers industry.

Educational organizations on the national level include the National Center for Constitutional Studies. State educational and cultural organizations include the Idaho Falls Arts Council, the Idaho State Historical Society, and the Idaho Humanities Council, as well as a number of county historical societies. There is an Indian Heritage Council in McCall.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, Idaho supported over 50,000 jobs and earned \$2.97 billion. Total revenues for the summer of 2005 were up 10.5%. Tourists come to Idaho primarily for outdoor recreation—river trips, skiing, camping, hunting, fishing, fly-fishing, kayaking and hiking. There are 19 ski resorts; by far the most famous is Sun Valley, which opened in 1936. Boise is the most popular destination within the state.

Tourist attractions include two national parks, the Craters of the Moon National Monument, the Nez Perce National Historical Park, and the Hell's Canyon and Sawtooth national recreational areas. A sliver of Yellowstone National Park is in Idaho. Portions of the Lewis and Clark Trail and the Oregon Trail lie within the state as well. The Snake River area is a national conservation area

for birds of prey, as is the Kootenai National Wildlife Refuge. Silverwood Theme Park caters to those who want to visit amusement parks (Coeur d'Alene). Visitors can also travel parts of the Oregon Trail.

48 SPORTS

Idaho has no major professional teams. Idaho had a team, the Steelheads, in the West Coast Hockey League until 2003. In college sports, the Idaho State Bengals and the University of Idaho Vandals play Division I basketball and Division I-A football in the Big Sky and Big West conferences, respectively. Boise State University is the largest university in the Big West Conference, with a football team in Division I. Most county seats hold pari-mutuel quarter-horse racing a few days a year, and Boise's racing season (including thoroughbreds) runs three days a week for five months. World chariot racing championships have been held at Pocatello, as are the National Circuit Rodeo Finals. Polo was one of Boise's leading sports from 1910 through the 1940s. Idaho cowboys have won numerous riding, roping, and steer-wrestling championships. Skiing is very popular throughout the state, and there is a world-class resort at Sun Valley. Golf is also quite popular. Harmon Killebrew, a Hall of Fame baseball player, and Picabo Street, an Olympic gold medalist, were born in Idaho.

49 FAMOUS IDAHOANS

Leading federal officeholders born in Idaho include Ezra Taft Benson (1899–1994), US secretary of agriculture from 1953 to 1961 and president of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints; and Cecil D. Andrus (b.Oregon, 1931), governor of Idaho from 1971 to 1977 and 1987 to 1995, and US secretary of the interior from 1977 to 1981. Maverick Republican William E. Borah (b.Illinois, 1865–1940) served in the US Senate from 1907 until his death. Frank Church (1924–84) entered the US Senate in 1957 and became chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee in 1979; he was defeated in his bid for a fifth term in 1980. Important state officeholders were the nation's first Jewish governor, Moses Alexander (b.Germany, 1853–1932) and New Deal governor C. Ben Ross (1876–1946).

Author Vardis Fisher (1895–1968) was born and spent most of his life in Idaho, which was also the birthplace of poet Ezra Pound (1885–1972). Nobel Prize-winning novelist Ernest Hemingway (b.Illinois, 1899–1961) is buried at Ketchum. Gutzon Borglum (1871–1941), the sculptor who carved the Mt. Rushmore National Memorial in South Dakota, was an Idaho native. Idaho is the only state in the United States with an official seal designed by a woman, Emma Edwards Green (b.California, 1856–1942).

Baseball slugger Harmon Killebrew (b.1936) and football star Jerry Kramer (b.1936) are Idaho's leading sports personalities.

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ILLINOIS

State of Illinois

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: French derivative of *Iliniwek*, meaning “tribe of superior men,” a Native American group formerly in the region. **NICKNAME:** The Prairie State; Land of Lincoln (slogan). **CAPITAL:** Springfield. **ENTERED UNION:** 3 December 1818 (21st). **SONG:** “Illinois.” **MOTTO:** State Sovereignty–National Union. **FLAG:** The inner portion of the state seal and the word “Illinois” on a white field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** An American eagle perched on a boulder holds in its beak a banner bearing the state motto; below the eagle is a shield resting on an olive branch. Also depicted are the prairie, the sun rising over a distant eastern horizon, and on the boulder, the dates 1818 and 1868, the years of the seal’s introduction and revision, respectively. The words “Seal of the State of Illinois Aug. 26th 1818” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FISH:** Bluegill. **FLOWER:** Native violet. **TREE:** White oak. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln’s Birthday, 12 February; George Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after the 1st Monday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the eastern north-central United States, Illinois ranks 24th in size among the 50 states. Its area totals 56,345 sq mi (145,934 sq km), of which land comprises 55,645 sq mi (144,120 sq km) and inland water 700 sq mi (1,814 sq km). Illinois extends 211 mi (340 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 381 mi (613 km).

Illinois is bounded on the N by Wisconsin; on the E by Lake Michigan and Indiana (with the line in the SE defined by the Wabash River); on the extreme SE and S by Kentucky (with the line passing through the Ohio River); and on the W by Missouri and Iowa (with the entire boundary formed by the Mississippi River).

The state’s boundaries total 1,297 mi (2,088 km). The geographic center of Illinois is in Logan County, 28 mi (45 km) NE of Springfield.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Illinois is flat. Lying wholly within the Central Plains, the state exhibits a natural topographic monotony relieved mainly by hills in the northwest (an extension of Wisconsin’s Driftless Area) and throughout the southern third of the state, on the fringes of the Ozark Plateau. The highest natural point, Charles Mound, tucked into the far northwest corner, is only 1,235 ft (377 m) above sea level—far lower than Chicago’s towering skyscrapers. The low point, at the extreme southern tip along the Mississippi River, is 279 ft (85 m) above sea level. The mean elevation is about 600 ft (183 m).

Although some 2,000 rivers and streams totaling 9,000 mi (14,500 km) crisscross the land, pioneers in central Illinois confronted very poor drainage. The installation of elaborate and expensive networks of ditches and tiled drains was necessary before commercial agriculture became feasible. Most of the 2,000 lakes of 6 acres (2.4 hectares) or more were created by dams. The most

important rivers are the Wabash and the Ohio, forming the south-eastern and southern border; the Mississippi, forming the western border; and the Illinois, flowing northeast–southwest across the central region and meeting the Mississippi at Grafton, just northwest of the junction between the Mississippi and the Missouri rivers. The artificial Lake Carlyle (41 sq mi/106 sq km) is the largest body of inland water. Illinois also has jurisdiction over 1,526 sq mi (3,952 sq km) of Lake Michigan.

³ CLIMATE

Illinois has a temperate climate, with cold, snowy winters and hot, wet summers—ideal weather for corn and hogs. The seasons are sharply differentiated: Mean winter temperatures are 22°F (-6°C) in the north and 37°F (3°C) in the south; mean summer temperatures are 70°F (21°C) in the north and 77°F (25°C) in the south. The record high, 117°F (47°C), was set at East St. Louis on 14 July 1954; the record low, -36°F (-37.8°C), was registered at Congerville on 5 January 1999.

The average farm sees rain one day in three, for a total of 36 in (91 cm) of precipitation a year. An annual snowfall of 37 in (94 cm) is normal for northern Illinois, decreasing to 24 in (61 cm) or less in the central and southern regions. Chicago’s record 90 in (229 cm) of snow in the winter of 1978–79 created monumental transportation problems, enormous personal hardship, and even a small political upheaval when incumbent Mayor Michael Bilandic lost a primary election to Jane Byrne in February 1979, partly because of his administration’s slowness in snow removal.

Chicago is nicknamed the “Windy City” because in the 1800s, New York journalists labeled Chicagoans “the windy citizenry out west” and called some Chicago leaders “loudmouth and windy”—not because of fierce winds. In fact, the average wind speed, 10.4 mph (16.7 km/h), is lower than that of Boston, Honolulu, Cleveland, and 16 other major US cities. The flat plains of Illinois are favorable to tornado activity.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Urbanization and commercial development have taken their toll on the plant and animal resources of Illinois. Northern and central Illinois once supported typical prairie flora, but nearly all the land has been given over to crops, roads, and suburban lawns. About 90% of the oak and hickory forests that once were common in the north have been cut down for fuel and lumber. In the forests that do remain, mostly in the south, typical trees are black oak, sugar maple, box elder, slippery elm, beech, shagbark hickory, white ash, sycamore, black walnut, sweet gum, cottonwood, black willow, and jack pine. Characteristic wildflowers are the Chase aster, French's shooting star, lupine, primrose violet, purple trillium, small fringed gentian, and yellow fringed orchid.

Before 1800, wildlife was abundant on the prairies, but the bison, elk, bear, and wolves that once roamed freely have long since vanished. The white-tailed deer (the state animal) disappeared in 1910 but was successfully reintroduced in 1933 by the Department of Conservation. Among the state's fur-bearing mammals are opossum, raccoon, mink, red and gray foxes, and muskrat. More than 350 birds have been identified, with such game birds as ruffed grouse, wild turkey, and bobwhite quail especially prized. Other indigenous birds are the cardinal (the state bird), horned lark, blue jay, purple martin, black-capped chickadee, tufted titmouse, bluebird, cedar waxwing, great crested flycatcher, and yellow-shafted flicker. Mallard and black ducks are common, and several subspecies of Canada goose are also found. The state claims 17 types of native turtle, 46 kinds of snake, 19 varieties of salamander, and 21 types of frog and toad. Heavy industrial and sewage pollution have eliminated most native fish, except for the durable carp and catfish. Coho salmon were introduced into Lake Michigan in the 1960s, thus reviving sport fishing.

The Cache River–Cypress Creek Wetlands area in southern Illinois is home to 138 species of trees and shrubs, 11 species of ferns, 87 types of fish, 25 species of snail, 19 mussels, 181 bird species, 47 different mammals, and 54 reptile and amphibian species. Swamp woodlands host the oldest living stand of trees east of the Mississippi. The water locust and green hawthorn found here are considered to be the largest trees of their species in the United States. Seventy-nine of the plant and animal species found on the state list of threatened or endangered species can be found in the wetland. The area also serves as a winter habitat for over 260,000 migratory birds each year.

In 1973, the state Department of Conservation established an endangered and threatened species protection program. In April 2006, a total of 25 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 16 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 9 plant species. Included among the threatened animals are the bald eagle and gray wolf. Endangered species include the piping plover, pallid sturgeon, Hine's emerald dragonfly, Higgins' eye pearly mussel, and the least tern. The leafy prairie-clover was listed; small-whorled pogonia, lakeside daisy, prairie bush-clover, and eastern prairie fringed orchid are among the other threatened plant species.

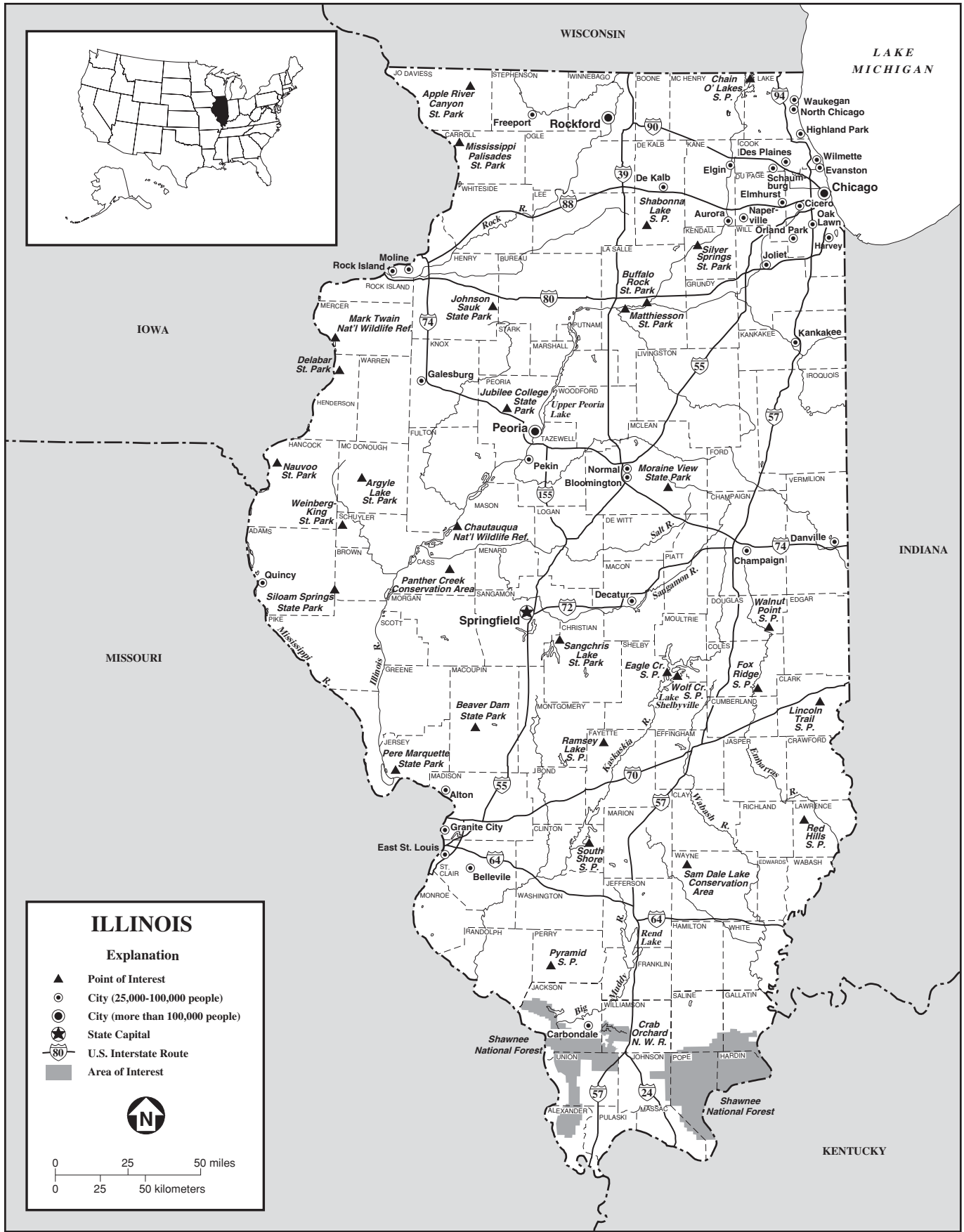
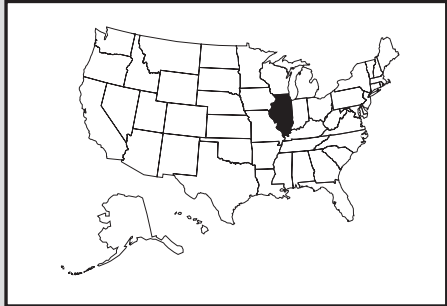
5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The history of conservation efforts in Illinois can be categorized into three stages. From 1850 to the 1930s, city and state parks were established and the beauty of Chicago's lakefront was successfully preserved. During the next stage, in the 1930s, federal intervention through the Civilian Conservation Corps and other agencies focused on upgrading park facilities and, most important, on reversing the severe erosion of soils, particularly in the hilly southern areas. Soil conservation laws took effect in 1937, and within a year the first soil conservation district was formed. By 1970, 98 districts, covering 44% of the state's farmland, promoted conservation cropping systems, contour plowing, and drainage.

The third stage of environmentalism began in the late 1960s, when Attorney General William J. Scott assumed the leadership of an antipollution campaign; he won suits against steel mills, sanitary districts, and utility companies and secured the passage of clean air and water legislation. The Illinois Environmental Protection Act of 1970 created the Pollution Control Board to set standards and conduct enforcement proceedings, and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to establish a comprehensive program for protecting environmental quality. In 1980, the Department of Nuclear Safety was established. The federal EPA has also helped upgrade water and air quality in Illinois.

The years since the enactment of specific environmental laws and regulations have seen a noticeable improvement in environmental quality. Dirty air has become less prevalent. The Illinois EPA maintains more than 200 air-monitoring stations to measure different types of pollutants. Many of these stations are in the Chicago area. The agency also conducts about 2,500 facility inspections each year to verify compliance with air regulations. Because Illinois formerly produced about 6 million tons of hazardous wastes annually, the state agency tried to pinpoint and clean up abandoned hazardous waste sites. In 1984, Illinois began a three-year, \$20 million program to eliminate the 22 worst sites and to evaluate nearly 1,000 other potential hazardous waste sites. Thanks to that program, over 60 sites were cleaned up by the mid-1990s. Progress has been made toward the voluntary cleanup of contaminated sites. In 1997, the Illinois General Assembly enacted a law developing a state underground storage tank program, and since May of that year over 14,800 releases from underground storage tanks have been reported, 5,800 of which have completed remediation under the new initiative. In 2003, the US EPA database listed 455 hazardous waste sites in Illinois, 41 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including 4 military sites. Illinois ranks seventh in the nation for the most sites on the National Priorities List. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$4 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Also in 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$50.7 million for wastewater treatment work projects and \$31.9 million to assist public water systems in compliance with the Safe Drinking Water Act. In 2003, 132.4 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.


About 3.5% of the state is wetland, most of which is governed under the state-imposed Interagency Wetland Policy Act of 1989. The Cache River–Cypress Creek Wetlands area in southern Illinois was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1994. The site consists of several separate conservation areas that are jointly management through the US Fish and Wild-



ILLINOIS

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- Ⓜ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



0 25 50 miles
0 25 50 kilometers

Illinois—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Adams	Quincy	852	67,040	Livingston	Pontiac	1,046	39,186
Alexander	Cairo	236	8,927	Logan	Lincoln	619	30,603
Bond	Greenville	377	18,027	Macon	Decatur	581	110,167
Boone	Belvidere	282	50,483	Macoupin	Carlinville	865	49,111
Brown	Mt. Sterling	306	6,835	Madison	Edwardsville	728	264,309
Bureau	Princeton	869	35,330	Marion	Salem	573	40,144
Calhoun	Hardin	250	5,163	Marshall	Lacon	388	13,217
Carroll	Mt. Carroll	444	16,086	Mason	Havana	536	15,741
Cass	Virginia	374	13,898	Massac	Metropolis	241	15,348
Champaign	Urbana	998	184,905	McDonough	Macomb	590	31,966
Christian	Taylorville	710	35,176	McHenry	Woodstock	606	303,990
Clark	Marshall	506	16,976	McLean	Bloomington	1,185	159,013
Clay	Louisville	469	14,122	Menard	Petersburg	315	12,738
Clinton	Carlyle	472	36,095	Mercer	Aledo	559	16,912
Coles	Charleston	509	51,065	Monroe	Waterloo	388	31,040
Cook	Chicago	958	5,303,683	Montgomery	Hillsboro	705	30,396
Crawford	Robinson	446	19,898	Morgan	Jacksonville	568	35,722
Cumberland	Toledo	346	10,973	Moultrie	Sullivan	325	14,510
DeKalb	Sycamore	634	97,665	Ogle	Oregon	759	54,290
De Witt	Clinton	397	16,617	Peoria	Peoria	621	182,328
Douglas	Tuscola	417	19,950	Perry	Pinckneyville	443	22,815
DuPage	Wheaton	337	929,113	Piatt	Monticello	439	16,680
Edgar	Paris	623	19,157	Pike	Pittsfield	830	17,099
Edwards	Albion	223	6,784	Pope	Golconda	374	4,211
Effingham	Effingham	478	34,581	Pulaski	Mound City	203	6,794
Fayette	Vandalia	709	21,713	Putnam	Hennepin	160	6,094
Ford	Paxton	486	14,157	Randolph	Chester	583	33,122
Franklin	Benton	414	39,723	Richland	Olney	360	15,798
Fulton	Lewistown	871	37,708	Rock Island	Rock Island	423	147,808
Gallatin	Shawneetown	325	6,152	Saline	Harrisburg	385	26,072
Greene	Carrollton	543	14,581	Sangamon	Springfield	866	192,789
Grundy	Morris	423	43,838	Schuyler	Rushville	436	7,073
Hamilton	McLeansboro	436	8,301	Scott	Winchester	251	5,412
Hancock	Carthage	796	19,153	Shelby	Shelbyville	747	22,322
Hardin	Elizabethtown	181	4,718	Stark	Toulon	288	6,169
Henderson	Oquawka	373	7,972	St. Clair	Belleville	672	260,067
Henry	Cambridge	824	50,591	Stephenson	Freeport	564	47,965
Iroquois	Watseka	1,118	30,677	Tazewell	Pekin	650	129,999
Jackson	Murphysboro	590	57,954	Union	Jonesboro	414	18,202
Jasper	Newton	496	10,020	Vermilion	Danville	900	82,344
Jefferson	Mt. Vernon	570	40,434	Wabash	Mt. Carmel	224	12,570
Jersey	Jerseyville	373	22,456	Warren	Monmouth	543	17,558
Jo Daviess	Galena	603	22,580	Washington	Nashville	563	14,922
Johnson	Vienna	346	13,169	Wayne	Fairfield	715	16,796
Kane	Geneva	524	482,113	White	Carmi	497	15,284
Kankakee	Kankakee	679	107,972	Whiteside	Morrison	682	59,863
Kendall	Yorkville	322	79,514	Will	Joliet	844	642,813
Knox	Galesburg	720	53,309	Williamson	Marion	427	63,617
Lake	Waukegan	454	702,682	Winnebago	Rockford	516	288,695
LaSalle	Ottawa	1,139	112,604	Woodford	Eureka	527	37,448
Lawrence	Lawrenceville	374	15,930	TOTALS		55,651	12,763,371
Lee	Dixon	725	35,669				

life Service, Ducks Unlimited, the Nature Conservancy, and the Illinois Department of Conservation.

6 POPULATION

Illinois ranked fifth in population in the United States with an estimated total of 12,763,371 in 2005, an increase of 2.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Illinois's population grew from 11,430,602 to 12,419,293, an increase of 8.6%. The population is projected to reach 13 million by 2015 and 13.3 million by 2025. Illinois ceded its third-place ranking to California by 1950 and fourth place to Texas during the 1960s. In 2004, population density was 228.8 per sq mi.

The population of Illinois was only 12,282 in 1810. Ten years later, the new state had 55,211 residents. The most rapid period of growth came in the mid-19th century, when heavy immigration made Illinois one of the fastest-growing areas in the world. Between 1820 and 1860, the state's population doubled every 10 years. The rate of increase slowed somewhat after 1900, especially during the 1930s, although the population more than doubled between 1900 and 1960. Population growth was very slow in the 1970s, about 0.3% a year; the rate of growth from 1980 to 1990 was a tiny 0.04%. However, a rebound occurred in the 1990s. The age distribution of the state's population in 2004 closely mirrored

the national pattern, with 25.5% under age 18 and 12% aged 65 or older. The median age in 2004 was 35.4.

The rapid rise of Chicago as a metropolitan area meant that a large proportion of the state's population was concentrated in cities from a relatively early date. Thus, by 1895, 50% of Illinoisans lived in urban areas, whereas the entire country reached that point only in 1920. By 1990, 83% of the population lived in metropolitan areas, compared with 75.2% nationally. With an estimated population of 9,391,515 in 2004, Greater Chicago was the third-largest metropolitan area in the nation. The state's other major metropolitan areas, with their estimated 2004 populations, were Peoria, 367,860, and Rockford, 335,278. The largest city in 2004 was Chicago, with an estimated 2,862,244 residents, followed by Aurora, 166,614; Rockford, 152,452; Naperville, 140,106; Joliet, 129,519; Peoria, 112,720; and Springfield, 114,738.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

The American Indian population of Illinois disappeared by 1832 as a result of warfare and emigration. By 2000, however, Indian migration from Wisconsin, Minnesota, and elsewhere brought the Native American population to 31,006, concentrated in Chicago. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was American Indian.

French settlers brought in black slaves from the Caribbean in the mid-18th century; in 1752, one-third of the small non-Indian population was black. Slavery was slowly abolished in the early 19th century. For decades, however, few blacks entered the state, except to flee slavery in neighboring Kentucky and Missouri. Freed slaves did come to Illinois during the Civil War, concentrating in the state's southern tip and in Chicago. By 1900, 109,000 blacks lived in Illinois. Most held menial jobs in the cities or eked out a precarious existence on small farms in the far south. Large-scale black migration, mainly to Chicago, began during World War I. By 1940, Illinois had a black population of 387,000; extensive wartime and postwar migration brought the total in 2000 to 1,876,875, of whom more than half lived within the city of Chicago, which was close to 40% black. Smaller numbers of black Illinoisans lived in Peoria, Rockford, and certain Chicago suburbs. In 2004, 15.1% of the state's population was black.

The Hispanic population did not become significant until the 1960s. In 2000, the number Hispanics and Latinos was 1,530,262, living chiefly in Chicago. There were 1,144,390 persons of Mexican origin (up from 557,536 in 1990), 157,851 Puerto Ricans, and 18,438 Cubans; most of the remainder came from other Caribbean and Latin American countries. The Hispanic or Latino population represented 12.3% of the total state population. That figure had risen to 14% by 2004.

In 2000, there were 76,725 Chinese in Illinois, 20,379 Japanese, 86,298 Filipinos, 51,453 Koreans, and 19,101 Vietnamese (up from 8,550 in 1990). The total Asian population was estimated at 423,603, placing Illinois sixth among the 50 states in number of Asian residents. Pacific Islanders numbered 4,610. In 2004, 4% of the population was Asian, and 0.1% was of Pacific Island origin. In 2004, 1.1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

Members of non-British European ethnic groups are prevalent in all the state's major cities and in many farming areas. In 2000, 1,529,058 persons were foreign born (12.3% of the total population), including 389,928 Europeans, 359,812 Asians, 731,397 from

Latin American countries, 26,158 Africans, and 2,553 from Oceanic countries. The most common ancestries of Illinois residents are German, Irish, Polish, English, and Italian.

There are also significant numbers of Scandinavians, Irish, Lithuanians, Serbs, Eastern European Jews, Ukrainians, Slovaks, Hungarians, Czechs, Greeks, and Dutch. Except for the widely dispersed Germans, most of these ethnic groups live in and around Chicago.

Most ethnic groups in Illinois maintain their own newspapers, clubs, festivals, and houses of worship. These reminders of their cultural heritage are now largely symbolic for the European ethnics, who have become highly assimilated into a "melting pot" society. Such was not always the case, however. In 1889, the legislature attempted to curtail foreign-language schools, causing a sharp political reaction among German Lutherans, German Catholics, and some Scandinavians. The upshot was the election of a German-born Democrat, John Peter Altgeld, as governor in 1892. During World War I, anti-German sentiment was intense in the state despite the manifest American loyalty of the large German element, then about 25% of the state's population. The Germans responded by rapidly abandoning the use of their language and dissolving most of their newspapers and clubs. At about the same time, the US government, educators, social workers, and business firms sponsored extensive "Americanization" programs directed at the large numbers of recent arrivals from Poland, Italy, and elsewhere. The public schools especially played a major role in the assimilation process, as did the Catholic parochial schools, which sought to protect the immigrants' religious, but not their ethnic, identities.

8 LANGUAGES

A number of place-names—Illinois itself, Chicago, Peoria, Kankakee, and Ottawa—attest to the early presence of various Algonkian-speaking tribes, such as the Kickapoo, Sauk, and Fox, and particularly those of the Illinois Federation, the remnants of which moved west of the Mississippi River after the Black Hawk War of 1832.

Nineteenth-century western migration patterns determined the rather complex distribution of regional language features. Excepting the Chicago metropolitan area and the extreme northwestern corner of Illinois, the northern quarter of the state is dominated by Northern speech. An even greater frequency of Northern features appears in the northeastern quadrant; in this region, speakers get *sick to the stomach*, *catch cold* (take cold), use *dove* as the past tense of dive, pronounce *hog*, *fog*, *frog*, *crop*, and *college* with the vowel /ah/, and sound a clear /h/ in *whine*, *wheel*, and *wheat*.

Settlement from Pennsylvania and Ohio led to a mix of Northern and North Midland speech in central Illinois, with such dominating Northern features as *white bread*, *pail*, *greasy* with an /s/ sound, and *creek* rhyming with *stick*. Here appear Midland *fishworm* (earthworm), *firebug* (firefly), *wait on* (wait for), *dived* as the past tense of dive, *quarter til four* (3:45), and *sick at one's stomach* (but sick on the stomach in German communities near East St. Louis).

Migration from South Midland areas in Indiana and Kentucky affected basic speech in the southern third of Illinois, known as Egypt. Here especially occur South Midland and Southern *pullybone* (wishbone), *dog irons* (andirons), *light bread* (white bread),

and in extreme southern countries, *loaf bread*, *snakedoctor* (dragonfly), *redworm* (earthworm), *ground squirrel* (chipmunk), *plum peach* (clingstone peach), *to have a crow to pick* (to have a bone to pick) with someone, and the pronunciations of *coop* with the vowel of *put* and of *greasy* with a /z/ sound. Such speech is found also in the northwestern corner around Galena, where Kentucky miners who came to work in the lead mines brought such pronunciations as *bulge* with the vowel of *put*, *soot* with the vowel of *but*, and /yelk/ for *yolk*.

Metropolitan Chicago has experienced such complex in-migration that, although it still has a basic Northern/Midland mix, elements of almost all varieties of English appear somewhere. The influx since World War II of speakers of black English, a Southern dialect, and of nonstandard Appalachian English has aggravated language problems in the schools. Foreign-language schools were common in the 1880s and 1890s, but by 1920, all instruction was in English. The policy of monolingual education came into question in the 1970s, when the state legislature mandated bilingual classes for immigrant children, especially Spanish speakers.

In Chicago, rough-and-tumble politics have created a new meaning for *clout*; *prairie* means a vacant lot, *porch* includes the meaning of *stoop*, and *cornbread* has been generalized to include the meanings of *corn pone* and *hush puppies*. A fuel and food stop on the Illinois tollway system is an *oasis*.

In 2000, English was spoken at home by 80.8% of all state residents five years of age and older, down from 85.8% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	11,547,505	100.0
Speak only English	9,326,786	80.8
Speak a language other than English	2,220,719	19.2
Speak a language other than English	2,220,719	19.2
Spanish or Spanish Creole	1,253,676	10.9
Polish	185,749	1.6
Chinese	65,251	0.6
German	63,366	0.5
Tagalog	63,366	0.5
Italian	51,975	0.5
Korean	43,712	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	40,812	0.4
Greek	40,581	0.4
Russian	38,053	0.3
Arabic	35,397	0.3
Other Indo-European languages	32,806	0.3
Urdu	32,420	0.3
Serbo-Croatian	29,631	0.3
Gujarathi	28,725	0.2
Other Slavic languages	27,772	0.2
Other Asian languages	26,745	0.2
Hindi	18,734	0.2
Other Indic languages	17,632	0.2
Vietnamese	16,487	0.1
Other and unspecified languages	15,885	0.1
Japanese	15,481	0.1
African languages	15,379	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Before 1830, little religion of any sort was practiced on the Illinois frontier. Energetic Protestant missionaries set out to evangelize this un-Christian population, and they largely succeeded. By 1890, 36% of the adults in Illinois were affiliated with evangelical denominations—chiefly Methodist, Disciples of Christ, Baptist, Congregationalist, and Presbyterian—while 35%, mostly immigrants, belonged to liturgical denominations (chiefly Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and Episcopal). The remaining adults acknowledged no particular denomination.

Illinois has had episodes of religious bigotry: At Carthage in 1844, the Mormon founder Joseph Smith was killed by a mob, and strong but brief waves of anti-Catholicism developed in the 1850s (the "Know-Nothing" movement) and 1920s (the Ku Klux Klan). Robert Green Ingersoll, a self-proclaimed agnostic, was appointed attorney general of Illinois in 1867–69, but his identity as an agnostic prevented him from ever being elected into politics. Nevertheless, tolerance of religious diversity has been the norm for most of the state's history.

Beginning about 1830, a group of Latter-Day Saints (Mormons) moved into Nauvoo and formed a fairly strong religious community there. By 1846, persecution from citizens of neighboring cities inspired the massive migration to Utah over the Mormon Trail. Because many of the Saints passed through the territory on their way to Utah, the group continued to maintain some missionary presence in the state. In 1962, the church began restoration projects of historical sites at Nauvoo. An annual pageant is held in Nauvoo and a rebuilt Nauvoo temple was dedicated in 2002. There is also a temple in Chicago (est. 1985). As of 2006, the church reported a statewide membership of 52,500.

The largest religious institution is the Roman Catholic Church, which had 3,948,768 adherents in 2004; about 2,442,000 members belonged to the archdiocese of Chicago in that year. The largest Protestant denomination is the United Methodist Church, with 365,182 adherents (in 2000), followed by the Southern Baptist Convention with 305,838 adherents (2000). The Southern Baptist Convention reported 6,522 newly baptized members in the state in 2002. Other major Protestant groups (with 2000 data) include the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America with 279,724 adherents and the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod with 278,008 adherents. In 2005, the United Church of Christ reported a statewide membership of about 121,371. The Jewish population was estimated at 270,000 in 2000 and the Muslim community had about 125,203 adherents. There are over 11,000 Mennonites throughout the state. About 44.7% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

The Moody Bible Institute in Chicago is a nondenominational, conservative Christian seminary that also sponsors well-known publishing and broadcasting services. In 2006, it was listed among America's best colleges by *U.S. News & World Report*. The American Conference of Cantors, a Jewish organization, and the International Conference of Christians and Jews are based in Chicago. AMF International (formerly known as the American Messianic Fellowship) was founded in Chicago in 1887 and maintains headquarters in Lansing, Illinois. Awana Clubs International, a Christian organization of children and youth clubs, was also founded in Chicago and currently has its international headquarters in Streamwood. The Evangelical Church Alliance International is

based in Bradley. The National Spiritual Assembly of the Baha'is of the United States is located in Evanston.

10 TRANSPORTATION

The fact that Illinois is intersected by several long-distance transportation routes has been of central importance in the state's economic development for a century and a half. Eastern access by way of the major rivers and the Great Lakes system facilitated extensive migration to Illinois even before the coming of the railroads in the 1850s. Most of the nation's rail lines converge on Illinois, and Chicago and St. Louis (especially East St. Louis) have been the two main US railroad centers since the late 19th century. Interstate highways, notably the main east–west routes, also cross the state, and Chicago's central location in the United States has made it a major transfer point for airline connections.

After several false starts in the 1830s and 1840s, the state's railroad system was begun in the 1850s. The Illinois Central was aided by the first land grant (state sponsored), which opened up downstate lands in the years before the Civil War. By 1890, about 10,000 mi (16,000 km) of track crisscrossed the state, placing 90% of all Illinois farms no more than 5 mi (8 km) from a rail line. The railroads stimulated not only farming but also coal mining, and in the process created tens of thousands of jobs in track and bridge construction, maintenance, traffic operations, and the manufacture of cars, rails, and other railroad equipment.

However, the rise of automobile and truck traffic (starting in the 1920s and 1930s) and later competition from airlines dealt the railroads a serious blow. In the 1970s, their unprofitable passenger business (except for important commuter lines around Chicago that were taken over by public agencies) was shed, while the railroads concentrated on long-distance freight traffic. The bankruptcy of the Penn Central, Rock Island, and Milwaukee Road systems during the 1970s also impelled some companies, notably the Illinois Central Gulf and the Chicago and North Western, to shift their attention to real estate and manufacturing. Abandoned railroad tracks and right-of-ways reverted to the private sector in the 1990s or were developed into public bicycle trails, walking paths, and greenways to take advantage of the scenic beauty of the state. As of 2003, there were 39 railroad companies in Illinois operating 9,757 route mi (15,708 km) of track within the state. Of that total in that year, seven were deemed Class I railroads. As of 2006, Chicago was the hub of Amtrak's passenger service, which operated 12 named trains, connecting a total of 14 cities in Illinois.

Mass transit is of special importance to Chicago, where subways, buses, and commuter railroads are essential to daily movement. The transit systems were built privately but eventually were acquired by the city and regional transportation authorities. Ridership declines every year, as fewer people work in the central city and as more people choose the privacy and convenience of travel by automobile. Federal aid to mass transit, beginning in 1964, and state aid, initiated in 1971, have only partly stemmed the decline. Outside Chicago, transit service is available in some of the older, larger cities.

The road system of Illinois was inadequate until the 1920s, when an elaborate program to build local and trunk highways first received heavy state aid. In 2004, there were 138,624 mi (223,184 km) of public roadway serving some 9.417 million registered vehicles, including around 5.580 million automobiles and 3.547 mil-

lion trucks of all types, operated by 8,057,683 licensed drivers. The main east–west routes are I-90, I-88, I-80, I-74, I-72, I-70, and I-64. I-94 links Chicago with Milwaukee to the north and Indiana to the east, while I-57 and I-55 connect Chicago with the south and southwest (St. Louis), respectively.

Barge traffic along the Mississippi, Ohio, and Illinois rivers remains important, especially for the shipment of grain. The port of Chicago no longer harbors the sailing ships that brought lumber, merchandise, and people to a fast-growing city. However, the port is still the largest on the Great Lakes, handling 24.602 million tons of cargo in 2004, mostly grain and iron ore, and the 35th busiest port in the United States. For that same year, Illinois had 1,095 mi (1,762 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 113.314 million tons.

Midway International Airport in Chicago became the world's busiest after World War II but was superseded by O'Hare International Airport, which opened in the late 1950s. O'Hare lost its title as busiest airport in the world in March 2000 when it was superseded by Atlanta's Hartsfield International. In 2005, Illinois had a total of 860 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 586 airports, 265 heliports, two STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and seven seaplane bases. O'Hare International Airport had 36,100,147 enplanements in 2004, making it the second-busiest airport in the United States. In that same year, Chicago Midway International had 9,238,592 enplanements, making it the 26th-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

Different tribes of Paleo-Indians lived in Illinois as long ago as 8000 BC. By 2000 BC, the cultivation of plants and use of ceramics were known to village dwellers; the first pottery appeared during the Woodland phase, a millennium later. Between 500 BC and AD 500, skilled Hopewellian craftsmen practiced a limited agriculture, developed an elaborate social structure, and constructed burial mounds. Huge mounds, which still exist, were built along the major rivers by the Middle Mississippian culture, about AD 900.

It is not known why the early native civilizations died out, but by the time white explorers arrived in the 17th century, the state was inhabited by seminomadic Algonkian-speaking tribes. The Kickapoo, Sauk, and Fox lived in the north, while the shores of Lake Michigan were populated by the Potawatomi, Ottawa, and Ojibwa. The Kaskaskia, Illinois (Iliniwek), and Peoria tribes roamed across the central prairies, and the Cahokia and Tamora lived in the south. Constant warfare with tribes from neighboring areas, plus disease and alcohol introduced by white fur traders and settlers, combined to decimate the Native American population. Warfare with the whites led to a series of treaties, the last in 1832, that removed all of the Indians to lands across the Mississippi.

French missionaries and fur traders from Quebec explored the rivers of Illinois in the late 17th century. Father Jacques Marquette and trader Louis Jolliet were the first to reach the area now known as the state of Illinois in 1673, when they descended the Mississippi as far as the Arkansas River and then returned by way of the Illinois River. The first permanent settlement was a mission built by French priests at Cahokia, near present-day St. Louis, in 1699. It was followed by more southerly settlements at Kaskaskia in 1703 and Ft. Chartres in 1719. In 1765, pursuant to the Treaty of Paris

(1763), which ended the French and Indian War, the British took control of the Illinois country, but they established no settlements of their own. Most of the French settlers were Loyalists during the American Revolution. However, they put up no resistance when Virginia troops, led by George Rogers Clark, captured the small British forts at Cahokia and Kaskaskia in 1778. Virginia governed its new territory in desultory fashion, and most of the French villagers fled to Missouri. In 1784, Virginia relinquished its claim to Illinois, which three years later became part of the newly organized Northwest Territory. In 1800, Illinois was included in the Indiana Territory. Nine years later, the Illinois Territory, including the present state of Wisconsin, was created; Kaskaskia became the territorial capital, and Ninian Edwards was appointed territorial governor by President James Madison. A territorial legislature was formed in 1812. During the War of 1812, British and Indian forces combined in a last attempt to push back American expansion into the Illinois country, and much fighting took place in the area. On 3 December 1818, Illinois was formally admitted to the Union as the 21st state. The capital was moved to Vandalia in 1820 and to Springfield in 1839.

Apart from a few thousand nomadic Indians and the remaining French settlers and their slaves, Illinois was largely uninhabited before 1815; two years after statehood, the population barely exceeded 55,000. The withdrawal of British influence after the War of 1812 and the final defeat of the Indian tribes in the Black Hawk War of 1832 opened the fertile prairies to settlers from the south, especially Kentucky. The federal government owned most of the land, and its land offices did a fast business on easy terms. Before the 1830s, most of the pioneers were concerned with acquiring land titles and pursuing subsistence agriculture, supplemented by hunting and fishing. An effort in 1824 to call a constitutional convention to legalize slavery failed because of a widespread fear that rich slaveholders would seize the best land, squeezing out the poor yeoman farmers. Ambitious efforts to promote rapid economic development in the 1830s led to fiscal disaster. Three state banks failed; a lavish program of building roads, canals, and railroads totally collapsed, leaving a heavy state debt that was not paid off until 1880. Despite these setbacks, the steady influx of land-hungry poor people and the arrival after 1840 of energetic Yankee entrepreneurs, all attracted by the rich soil and excellent water routes, guaranteed rapid growth.

Although Illinois gradually eliminated French slavery and even served as a conduit to Canada for slaves escaping from the South, the state was deeply divided over the slavery issue and remained unfriendly territory for blacks and their defenders. The abolitionist leader Elijah P. Lovejoy was killed in Alton in 1837, and as late as 1853, the state passed legislation providing that free blacks entering Illinois could be sold into slavery. In 1856, however, the new Republican Party nominated and Illinois voters elected a governor, William H. Bissell, on a reform program that included support for school construction, commercial and industrial expansion, and the abolition of slavery. During the Civil War, Illinois sent half its young men to the battlefield and supplied the Union armies with huge amounts of food, feed, and horses. The strong-handed wartime administration of Republican governor Richard Yates guaranteed full support for the policies of Abraham Lincoln, who had been prominent in Illinois political life since the 1840s and had been nominated for the presidency in 1860 at a Republi-

can convention held in Chicago. Democratic dissenters were suppressed, sometimes by force, leaving a legacy of bitter feuds that troubled the "Egypt" section (the southern third of the state) for decades thereafter.

Economic and population growth quickened after 1865, exemplified by the phenomenal rise of Chicago, which became the principal city of the Midwest. Responding to opportunities presented by the coming of the railroads, boosters in hundreds of small towns and cities built banks, grain elevators, retail shops, small factories, ornate courthouses, and plain schools in an abundance of civic pride. The Democrats sought the support of the working class and small farmers, assuming an attitude of hostility toward banks, high railroad freight rates, protective tariffs, and antiunion employers, but they failed to impose any significant restraints on business expansion. They were more successful, however, in opposing Prohibition and other paternalistic methods of social control demanded by reformers such as Frances Willard, a leader in the Women's Christian Temperance Union and the Prohibition Party. In Chicago and other cities, the Democrats were less concerned with social reform than with building lucrative political machines on the backs of the poor Irish, Polish, and Czech Catholic immigrants, who kept arriving in large numbers. Statewide, Illinois retained a highly competitive two-party system, even as the excitement and high voter turnouts characteristic of 19th-century elections faded rapidly in the early 20th century.

During the second half of the 19th century, Illinois became the center of the American labor movement. Workers joined the Knights of Labor in the 1870s and 1880s and fought for child-labor laws and the eight-hour workday. Union organizing led to several spectacular incidents, including the Haymarket riot in 1886 and the violent Pullman strike in 1894, which was suppressed by federal troops at the behest of President Grover Cleveland. A coalition of Germans, labor, and small farmers elected John Peter Altgeld to the governorship in 1892. After 1900, Illinois became a center of the Progressive movement, led by Jane Addams and Republican governor Frank Lowden. Lowden reorganized the state government in 1917 by placing experts in powerful positions in state and municipal administrations.

After the Great Fire of 1871 destroyed Chicago's downtown section (but not its main residential or industrial areas), the city's wealthy elite dedicated itself to rebuilding Chicago and making it one of the great metropolises of the world. Immense steel mills, meat-packing plants, and factories sprang up, and growth was spectacular in the merchandising, banking, and transportation fields. Their fortunes made, Chicago's business leaders began building cultural institutions in the 1890s that were designed to rival the best in the world: the Chicago Symphony, the Art Institute of Chicago, and the Field Museum of Natural History. The World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 was a significant international exhibition of the nation's technological achievements, and it focused worldwide attention on what was by then the second-largest American city. A literary renaissance, stimulated by the new realism that characterized Chicago's newspapers, flourished for a decade or two before World War I, but the city was recognized chiefly for its contributions in science, architecture, and (in the 1920s) jazz.

The first three decades of the 20th century witnessed almost unbroken prosperity in all sections except Egypt, the downstate re-

gion where poor soil and the decline of the coal industry produced widespread poverty. The slums of Chicago were poor, too, because most of the hundreds of thousands of new immigrants had arrived virtually penniless. After 1920, however, large-scale immigration ended, and the immigrants' steady upward mobility, based on savings and education, became apparent. During the Prohibition era, a vast organized crime empire rose to prominence, giving Chicago and Joliet a reputation for gangsterism, violence, and corruption; the most notorious gangster was Al Capone. Money, whether legally or illegally acquired, mesmerized Illinois in the 1920s as never before—and never since.

The Great Depression of the 1930s affected the state unevenly, with agriculture hit first and recovering first. Industries began shutting down in 1930 and did not fully recover until massive military contracts during World War II restored full prosperity. The very fact of massive depression brought discredit to the probusiness Republican regime that had run the state with few exceptions since 1856. Blacks, white ethnics, factory workers, and the undereducated, all of whom suffered heavily during the early years of the Depression, responded enthusiastically to President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal. They elected Henry Horner, a Democrat, to the governorship in 1932, reelected him in 1936, and flocked to the new industrial unions of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, founded in 1938.

World War II and its aftermath brought prosperity, as well as new anxiety about national security in a nuclear age. The chilling events of the 1960s and 1970s—assassinations, the Vietnam War, the race riots, and the violence that accompanied the 1968 Democratic National Convention in Chicago—helped reshape many people's attitudes in Illinois. The problems attendant on heavy industrialization, particularly air and water pollution and urban decay, began to be addressed for the first time. This transformation was perhaps best exemplified in Chicago, where voters elected Jane Byrne as the city's first woman mayor in 1979 and chose Harold Washington as its first black mayor in 1983.

The economy of Illinois, like those of other Rust Belt states, suffered a severe recession in the early 1980s. By the end of the decade, the economy had begun to rebound, but many industrial jobs were permanently lost, as industries sought to improve efficiency and productivity through automation. In 1990, the unemployment rate in Illinois was 7.2%, in contrast to the national average of 5.2%. Into the 1990s, industrial losses slowed while the service industries and the newer high-tech industries, which had gained a foothold in the Greater Chicago area, became dominant. By 1998, as the United States experienced the longest sustained economic boom in its history, many in Illinois felt the prosperity. The state ranked eighth in the nation for per capita income, and by 1999 unemployment in the state had fallen to 4.3%, in line with the national average. The poverty rate also fell during the decade, from 11.9% in 1989 to 10.1% a decade later.

Chicago's infrastructure has suffered several problems. In 1992 there was a rupture in the 60-mi (96-km) maze of tunnels that lies beneath downtown. Water from the Chicago River flooded basements and sub-basements in the city's central Loop district with as much as 30 ft (9 m) of water, forcing the temporary closure of many downtown buildings and businesses, including the Chicago Board of Trade, City Hall, and Marshall Fields department store. In August 1999, the downtown area was without power when a

substation failed. About 2,300 Commonwealth Edison (ComEd) customers in the Loop, including skyscrapers, numerous businesses, and university buildings, were without electricity. Again buildings were forced to close, sending thousands of workers home early. Later that month ComEd suffered another high-profile outage when power was lost at the city's popular Field Museum, forcing its closure. In 2000, barge and other commercial boat operators on the Chicago River complained that the increase in recreational boater traffic on the waterway posed a serious danger to safety.

In June 2000, a panel of experts convening for a legislative history roundtable in Springfield concluded that the state's 1980 cut-back amendment, which reduced the size of the Illinois General Assembly by one-third, had been a detriment to state government for two decades. The 1980 amendment ended the state's system of three-member house districts; experts argued that the old system had encouraged Republicans and Democrats to work together and that the new, one-member house district system resulted in "a higher degree of partisanship and bitterness."

Meanwhile, the state was embroiled in a bribe-for-licenses scandal involving Governor George Ryan. It was alleged that truck driver's licenses were issued in exchange for campaign contributions (from trucking companies) when Ryan was secretary of state. Indictments were handed down to some state officials, but the governor insisted he knew nothing about the contributions and said if the accusations proved to be true, the money would be contributed to charities. Ryan left after one term in office due to the scandal, succeeded by Rod Blagojevich.

In 2003, the state had a \$5 billion budget deficit and was experiencing the worst recession in two decades. In 2002, Illinois lost 23,000 manufacturing jobs. In his State of the State address, Governor Blagojevich targeted four areas in need of attention: jobs, schools, health care, and crime. In June 2003, the Illinois legislature passed a \$10 billion budget allowing for increased school spending. The budget also called for increasing casino taxes and eliminating tax exemptions for trucking, chemical, insurance, and other industries.

In 2004, Governor Blagojevich announced a plan to make Illinois the first state in the nation to provide consumers with access to prescription drugs from Canada, Ireland, and the United Kingdom. The I-SaveRx prescription drug importation program began in October 2004. In October 2005, Governor Blagojevich praised the Illinois General Assembly for passing his All Kids health insurance proposal and reaffirmed his commitment to signing it. The plan would make Illinois the first state in the nation to provide affordable, comprehensive health insurance for every child in the state. Earlier in the year, Blagojevich committed himself to expanding, improving, and promoting access to health care for Illinois families. Also in 2005, Blagojevich promoted his Higher Standards, Better Schools Initiative—a comprehensive proposal to increase education funding and better prepare students to compete and succeed in the economy of the 21st century. Blagojevich's budget plan for fiscal year 2006 was \$43.56 billion.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Illinois has had four constitutions. The first, written in 1818, was a short document modeled on those of New York, Kentucky, and Ohio. An attempt to rewrite the charter to allow slavery failed in a bitterly contested referendum in 1824. A new constitution in 1848

democratized government by providing for the popular election of judges. A third constitution, enacted in 1870, lasted a century; its unique feature was a voting system for the lower house of the state legislature that virtually guaranteed minority party representation in each electoral district. Important amendments in 1884 and 1904, gave the governor an item veto over appropriation bills and provided a measure of home rule for Chicago, respectively. In 1970, a fourth constitution streamlined state offices, improved accounting procedures, reformed the state tax system, and gave the state rather than local governments the major responsibility for financing education. The state bill of rights was expanded to include provisions banning discrimination in housing and employment and recognizing women's rights. An elected judiciary and the state's unique representational system were retained.

Under the 1970 constitution, amended 11 times as of January 2005, the upper house of the General Assembly consists of a Senate of 59 members, who are elected on a two-year cycle to four-year terms. Until 1980, the lower house, the House of Representatives, consisted of 177 members, with three representatives elected for two-year terms from each district. Each voter was empowered to cast three ballots for representatives, giving one vote to each of three candidates, one and a half votes to each of two, or all three to one candidate; each party never nominated more than two candidates in any single district. In November 1980, however, Illinois voters chose to reduce the size of House membership to 118 (2 representatives from each district) and to eliminate the proportional system. Annual legislative sessions, which are not limited in length, begin in January. A joint call by the presiding officers in both houses may secure a special session, also of unlimited duration. Legislators must be US citizens, at least 21 years old, and residents of their district for at least two years prior to election. The legislative salary was \$55,788 in 2004.

The executive officers elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (who run jointly), secretary of state, treasurer, comptroller, and attorney general. Each serves a four-year term and is eligible for reelection. An important revision of appointive offices in 1917 made most agency heads responsible to the governor. In the 1970s, the governor's office expanded its control over the budget and the higher education complex, further augmenting an already strong executive position. The governor must be a US citizen, at least 25 years old, a qualified voter, and a state resident for three years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$150,691.

Bills passed by both houses of the legislature become law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned for 60 days (whether or not the legislature is in session), or if vetoed by the governor but passed again by three-fifths of the elected members of each house. Constitutional amendments require a three-fifths vote by the legislature for placement on the ballot. Amendments may also be initiated by a petition of 8% of the total votes cast in the prior gubernatorial election. Either a simple majority of those voting in the election or three-fifths of those voting on the amendment is sufficient for ratification.

Qualified voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and unable to claim the right to vote elsewhere. There is a 30-day pre-cinct residency requirement. Jailed felons may not vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republican and Democratic parties have been the only major political groups in Illinois since the 1850s. Illinois is a closely balanced state, with a slight Republican predominance from 1860 to 1930 giving way in seesaw fashion to a highly competitive situation statewide. In Chicago and Cook County, an equally balanced

Illinois Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	ILLINOIS WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	SOCIALIST LABOR	PROHIBITION	COMMUNIST	SOCIALIST
1948	28	*Truman (D)	1,994,715	1,961,103	3,118	11,959	—	11,522
1952	27	*Eisenhower (R)	2,013,920	2,457,327	9,363	—	—	—
1956	27	*Eisenhower (R)	1,775,682	2,623,327	8,342	—	—	—
1960	27	*Kennedy (D)	2,377,846	2,368,988	10,560	—	—	—
1964	26	*Johnson (D)	2,796,833	1,905,946	—	—	—	—
						AMERICAN IND.		
1968	26	*Nixon (R)	2,039,814	2,174,774	13,878	390,958	—	—
						AMERICAN		
1972	26	*Nixon (R)	1,913,472	2,788,179	12,344	2,471	4,541	—
						LIBERTARIAN		SOC. WORKERS
1976	26	Ford (R)	2,271,295	2,364,269	2,422	8,057	9,250	3,615
					CITIZENS			
1980	26	*Reagan (R)	1,981,413	2,358,094	10,692	38,939	9,711	1,302
1984	24	*Reagan (R)	2,086,499	2,707,103	2,716	10,086	—	—
1988	24	*Bush (R)	2,215,940	2,310,939	10,276	14,944	—	—
					NEW ALLIANCE		IND. (Perot)	POPULIST
1992	22	*Clinton (D)	2,453,350	1,734,096	5,267	9,218	840,515	3,577
1996	22	*Clinton (D)	2,341,744	1,587,021	—	22,548	346,408	—
					GREEN		(Buchanan)	
2000	22	Gore (D)	2,589,026	2,019,421	103,759	11,623	16,106	—
					WRITE-IN (Nader)		WRITE-IN (Peroutka)	WRITE-IN (Cobb)
2004	21	Kerry (D)	2,891,550	2,345,946	3,571	32,442	440	241

*Won US presidential election.

division before 1930 gave way to heavy Democratic predominance forged during the New Deal.

The Democrats, organized by patronage-hungry followers of President Andrew Jackson in the 1830s, dominated state politics to the mid-1850s. They appealed to subsistence farmers, former Southerners, and poor Catholic immigrants. Though they advocated minimal government intervention, Democratic officials were eager for the patronage and inside deals available in the fast-growing state. Their outstanding leader, Stephen Douglas, became a major national figure in the 1850s but never lost touch with his base of support. After Douglas died in 1861, many Illinois Democrats began to oppose the conduct of the Civil War and became stigmatized as “Copperheads.” The success of the Republican war policies left the Democrats in confusion in the late 1860s and early 1870s. Negative attitudes toward blacks, banks, railroads, and Prohibition kept a large minority of Illinoisans in the Democratic fold, while the influx of Catholic immigrants replenished the party’s voter base. However, the administration of Governor John Peter Altgeld (1893–97), coinciding with a deep depression and labor unrest, split the party, and only one other Democrat held the governorship between 1852 and 1932. The intraparty balance between Chicago and downstate changed with the rise of the powerful Cook County Democratic organization in the 1930s. Built by Mayor Anton Cermak and continued from 1955 to 1976 by six-term Mayor Richard J. Daley, the Chicago Democratic machine totally controlled the city, dominated the state party, and exerted enormous power at the national level. However, the machine lost its clout with the election in 1979 of independent Democrat Jane Byrne as Chicago’s first woman mayor and again in 1983, when Harold Washington became its first black mayor. Although Richard Daley’s son, also named Richard Daley, won the mayoralty in 1989, the machine has never recovered the power it once enjoyed. Richard Daley was elected to his fifth consecutive term as mayor of Chicago in 2003.

The Republican Party, born amid the political chaos of the 1850s, brought together most former Whigs and some Democrats who favored industrialization and opposed slavery. Abraham Lincoln, aided by many talented lieutenants, forged a coalition of commercial farmers, businessmen, evangelical Protestants, skilled craftsmen, professionals, and later, patronage holders and army veterans. Ridiculing the Democrats’ alleged parochialism, the Republican Party called for vigorous prosecution of the Civil War and Reconstruction and for an active policy of promoting economic growth by encouraging railroads and raising tariffs. However, such moralistic crusades as the fight for Prohibition frequently alienated large voting blocs (especially the Germans) from the Republicans.

In the early 20th century, Republican politicians built their own ward machines in Chicago and succumbed to corruption. William “Big Bill” Thompson, Chicago’s Republican mayor in the 1910s and 1920s, openly allied himself with the gangster Al Capone. Moralistic Republicans, who were strongest in the smaller towns, struggled to regain control of their party. They succeeded in the 1930s, when the Republican political machines in Chicago collapsed or switched their allegiance to the Democrats.

Since then, the Republicans have become uniformly a party of the middle and upper-middle classes, hostile to machine politics, welfare, and high taxes but favorable to business, education, and

environmental protection. Although the Republican Party has a stronger formal organization in Illinois than in most other states, its leading candidates have exuded an aura of independence. Republican James R. Thompson, elected to the governorship in 1976 and reelected in 1978 and 1982, served in that office longer than any other. Thompson was followed by Republican Jim Edgar in 1990. In November 1998, Illinois voters elected Republican George H. Ryan for governor, but his administration was dogged by controversy surrounding the licensing of truck drivers when Ryan served as secretary of state, and he served only one term. Democrat Rod R. Blagojevich was elected governor in 2002.

The Whigs ran a close second to the Democrats from 1832 to 1852. Taken over in the 1840s by a group of professional organizers under Lincoln’s leadership, the Whigs simply vanished after their crushing defeat in 1852. Notable among the smaller parties was the Native American (“Know-Nothing”) Party, which controlled Chicago briefly in the 1850s. The Prohibitionists, Greenbackers, Union Labor, and Populist parties were weak forces in late-19th-century Illinois. The Socialist Party, strongest among coal miners and central European immigrants, grew to a minor force in the early 20th century and elected the mayor of Rockford for many years.

Illinois provided two important leaders of the national Republican Party in the 1860s—Abraham Lincoln and Ulysses S. Grant. The only major-party presidential nominee from the state between 1872 and 1976, however, was Governor Adlai Stevenson, the unsuccessful Democratic candidate in 1952 and 1956. In 1980, three native-born Illinoisans pursued the Republican Party nomination. The first, US representative Philip Crane, was the earliest to declare his candidacy but failed in the primaries. The second, US representative John Anderson, dropped out of the Republican primaries to pursue an independent candidacy, ultimately winning more than 6% of the popular vote nationally and in Illinois, but no electoral votes. The third, Ronald Reagan, a native of Tampico, won both the Republican nomination and the November election, becoming the 40th president of the United States; he was elected by a heavy majority of Illinois voters in 1980 and reelected in 1984.

In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore won 55% of the vote, Republican George W. Bush received 43%, and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader garnered 2%. In 2004, Bush won 50% in his successful bid for reelection to Democrat John Kerry’s 49%. In 2004 there were 8,594,000 registered voters; there is no party registration. The state had 21 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a loss of 1 vote over 2000.

In 1996, Democratic senator Richard J. Durbin won the race to succeed retiring US senator Paul Simon; Durbin was reelected in 2002. Illinois elected its first black female senator, Carol Moseley Braun, in 1992; she was defeated by Republican Peter G. Fitzgerald in 1998. Fitzgerald did not run for a second term; the seat he left vacant was won in 2004 by Democrat Barack Obama. In the 1994 elections, the once-powerful chairman of the US House Ways and Means Committee, Dan Rostenkowski, was defeated by a relative unknown, Michael P. Flanagan. Rostenkowski, an 18-term Chicago Democrat, had been indicted on corruption charges, a fact that did not go unnoticed by an electorate that was already in an anti-incumbent mood. In the 2004 elections, Illinois voters sent nine Republicans and ten Democrats to the US House of Representa-

tives. In mid-2005, there were 32 Republicans, 26 Democrats, and 1 independent in the state Senate and 65 Democrats and 53 Republicans in the state House.

1⁴ LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Illinois has more units of local government (most with property-taxing power) than any other state. In 2005, there were 102 counties, 1,291 municipalities, 934 public school districts, and 3,145 special districts. In 2002, there were 1,431 townships.

County government in Illinois dates from 1778, when Virginia, claiming authority over the territory, established the earliest counties. Today, the major county offices are elective: county board chairman, county clerk (chief administrative officer), clerk of the circuit court, sheriff, state's attorney, treasurer, coroner, and superintendent of schools. Cook County, which encompasses all of Chicago and many of its suburbs, controls hospital and welfare programs in Chicago, thus spreading the cost over both the city's own tax base and that of the more affluent suburbs. The New England township system was made optional by the state's 1848 constitution, and eventually 85 counties, including Cook County, adopted the idea. Townships, which elect administrators and local judges, also handle tax collection.

Chicago is governed by an elected mayor, clerk, treasurer, and city council composed of 50 aldermen. The mayor's power has been closely tied with the city's Democratic Party organization. Independent candidates are elected to the city council from time to time, but the Democratic machine generally staffs the city with its members.

Larger municipalities are administered by an elected mayor and council members; most smaller communities are administered by nonpartisan city managers, though some have elected mayors.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 504,379 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

1⁵ STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Illinois operates under the authority of the governor; a special assistant to the governor coordinates homeland security activities in the state.

Officials responsible to the governor of Illinois and the members of Congress, as well as to the mayor of Chicago, actively provide ombudsman service, although there is no state office by that name. Illinois has a board of ethics, but the US attorney's office in Chicago has far more potent weapons at its disposal: Many top political leaders were indicted and convicted in the 1970s, including federal judge and former Governor Otto Kerner and, in 1980, Attorney General William Scott.

Educational services provided by the Illinois Board of Education include teacher certification and placement, curriculum development, educational assessment and evaluation, and programs for the disadvantaged, gifted, handicapped, and ethnic and racial minorities. The Board of Higher Education and the Illinois Community College Board oversee postsecondary education. The Department of Transportation handles highways, traffic safety, and airports.

State agencies offering health and welfare services include the Department of Children and Family Services, which focus-

es on foster care, the deaf, the blind, and the handicapped, and the Department of Human Services, which supervises Medicaid, food stamps, and Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF). The Illinois Council on Developmental Disabilities operates homes and outpatient centers for the developmentally disabled and the mentally ill. Established in 1973, the Department on Aging provides nutritional and field services. The Department of Veterans Affairs administers bonus and scholarship programs and maintains four veterans' homes with nursing facilities, including one with an Alzheimer's unit, and at least three with 300 or more beds.

State responsibility for public protection is divided among several agencies: the Office of the Attorney General, Department of Corrections, Prisoner Review Board, Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board, and Military Affairs Department. Resource protection is supervised by the Department of Natural Resources, which oversees fish hatcheries, state parks, nature reserves, game preserves, and forest fire protection. The Department of Labor mediates disputes and handles unemployment compensation. The Department of Human Rights, founded in 1980, seeks to ensure equal employment, housing, and credit opportunities.

1⁶ JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The state's highest court is the Illinois Supreme Court, which consists of seven justices elected by judicial districts for 10-year terms. The justices elect one of their number as chief justice for three years. The Illinois Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction generally but has original jurisdiction in cases relating to revenue, mandamus, and habeas corpus. The chief justice, assisted by an administrative director, has administrative and supervisory authority over all other courts. The appellate court is divided into five districts; appellate judges, also elected for 10-year terms, hear appeals from the 22 circuit courts, which handle civil and criminal cases. Circuit judges are elected for six-year terms. Repeated efforts to remove the state's judgeships from partisan politics have failed in the face of strong party opposition.

The penal system, under the general supervision of the Department of Corrections (established in 1970), includes large prisons at Joliet (1860), Pontiac (1871), Menard (1878), and Stateville (1919), near Joliet, plus juvenile facilities and an active parole division. The Cook County House of Corrections is highly active, as are federal facilities in Chicago and Marion.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 44,054 prisoners were held in Illinois' state and federal prisons, an increase (from 43,418) of 1.5% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,750 inmates were female, up from 2,700 or 1.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (includes some sentenced to one year or less), Illinois had an incarceration rate of 346 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Illinois had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 542.9 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 69,026 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 405,070 reported incidents or 3,186.1 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Illinois has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method. However, the state has authorized electrocution should lethal in-

jection be ruled unconstitutional. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state executed 12 persons, all of whom were executed prior to 2005. As of 1 January 2006, there were 10 death row inmates.

In 2003, Illinois spent \$225,709,514 on homeland security, an average of \$18 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The most important military installations in Illinois are the Great Lakes Naval Training Center near Chicago, with 5,317 active-duty military personnel, and Scott Air Force Base near Belleville with 7,678 active-duty military personnel. Great Lakes Naval Training Sites are the Navy's largest technical training operation, with up to 4,500 students at any time, training approximately 15,000 students annually. Total active-duty military personnel in Illinois numbered 20,812 in 2004, with 9,045 civilian personnel. Illinois firms received defense contract awards amounting to \$3.0 billion in 2004. In addition, another \$3.02 billion in defense payroll spending came to the state.

About 1 million Illinoisans served in World War II, of whom 30,000 were killed. There were 896,640 veterans of US military service in Illinois as of 2003, of whom 141,968 served in World War II; 109,644 in the Korean conflict; 270,629 during the Vietnam era; and 126,068 in the Persian Gulf War. Expenditures for veterans reached \$1.9 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Illinois State Police employed 2,008 full-time officers.

18 MIGRATION

Apart from the small French settlements along the Mississippi River that were formed in the 18th century, most early white migration into Illinois came from the South, as poor young farm families trekked overland to southern Illinois from Kentucky, Tennessee, and the Carolinas between 1800 and 1840. After 1830, migration from Indiana, Ohio, and Pennsylvania filled the central portion of the state, while New Englanders and New Yorkers came to the northern portion.

Immigration from Europe became significant in the 1840s and continued in a heavy stream for about 80 years. Before 1890, most of the new arrivals came from Germany, Ireland, Britain, and Scandinavia. These groups continued to arrive after 1890, but they were soon outnumbered by heavy immigration from southern and eastern Europe. The opening of prairie farms, the burgeoning of towns and small cities, and the explosive growth of Chicago created a continuous demand for unskilled and semiskilled labor. Concern for the welfare of these newcomers led to the establishment of Hull House (1889) by Jane Addams in Chicago. Hull House served as a social center, shelter, and advocate for immigrants. Launching the settlement movement in America, its activities helped popularize the concept of cultural pluralism. The University of Chicago was one of the first major universities to concern itself with urban ecology and with the tendency to "ghettoize" culturally and economically disadvantaged populations.

The outbreak of World War I interrupted the flow of European immigrants but also increased the economy's demand for unskilled labor. The migration of blacks from states south of Illinois—especially from Arkansas, Tennessee, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama—played an important role in meeting the demand for labor during both world wars. After World War II, the further collapse

of the cotton labor market drove hundreds of thousands more blacks to Chicago and other northern cities.

In contrast to the pattern of foreign and black migration to Illinois was the continued westward search by native-born whites for new farmland, a phenomenon that produced a net outflow among this group from 1870 to 1920. After World War II, native whites again left the state in large numbers, with Southern California as a favorite destination. After 1970, for the first time, more blacks began leaving than entering Illinois.

The major intrastate migration pattern has been from farms to towns. Apart from blacks, who migrated considerable distances from farms in the South, most ex-farmers moved only 10–30 mi (16–48 km) to the nearest town or city.

During the 1970s, the state lost 649,000 persons in net migration, for an annual rate of 0.5%. From 1980 to 1983, the net loss from migration totaled 212,000, or 0.6% annually. From 1985 to 1990, the net loss from migration came to 139,360. Between 1990 and 1998, there was a net loss of 516,000 persons from domestic migration and a net gain of 337,000 from international migration. In 1998, 33,163 immigrants from foreign countries arrived in Illinois, the sixth-highest number for any state and over 5% of all foreign immigration to the United States for that year. The greatest number of foreign-born residents that year came from Mexico, totaling 10,127. In 1998, the Illinois Hispanic population numbered 1,145,000, while those of Hispanic origin numbered 1,224,000. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 5.4%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 328,020 and net internal migration was -391,031, for a net loss of 63,011 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Illinois participates in many interstate compacts, including such regional accords and commissions as the Bi-State Development Agency Compact (with Missouri), Great Lakes Commission, Wabash Valley Compact, Ohio River Basin Commission, and Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation Commission. In 1985, Illinois and seven other states formed the Great Lakes Charter to protect the lakes' water supply. Federal grants to Illinois totaled \$12.902 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$12.699 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$13.205 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

The economic development of Illinois falls into four periods: the frontier economy, up to 1860; the industrial transition, 1860–1900; industrial maturity, 1900–1950; and the transition to a service economy, 1950 to the present.

In the first phase, subsistence agriculture was dominant; the cost of transportation was high, cities were small and few, and cash markets for farm products hardly existed. The main activity was settling and clearing the land. A rudimentary market economy developed at the end of the period, with real estate and land speculation emerging as the most lucrative activities.

The industrial transition began about 1860, stimulated by the construction of the railroad network, which opened up distant markets for farm products and rural markets for manufactured items. The Civil War stimulated the rapid growth of cash farming, commercial and financial institutions, and the first important factories. The last quarter of the 19th century saw the closing of the

agricultural frontier in Illinois and the rapid growth of commercial towns and industrial cities, especially Chicago.

Industrial maturity was reached in the early 20th century. Large factories grew, and small ones proliferated. Chicago's steel industry, actually centered in Gary, Indiana, became second in size only to Pittsburgh's, while the state took a commanding lead in food production, agricultural implement manufacture, and agricultural finance. The Depression of the 1930s stifled growth in the state and severely damaged the coal industry, but with the heavy industrial and food demands created by World War II, the state recovered its economic health.

Since 1950, the importance of manufacturing has declined, but a very strong shift into services—government, medicine, education, law, finance, and business—has underpinned the state's economic vigor.

Severe competition from Japan wreaked havoc in the state's steel, television, and automotive industries during the 1980s, while Illinois's high-wage, high-cost business climate encouraged the migration of factories to the southern states. Meat-packing, once the most famous industry in Illinois, dwindled after the closing of the Chicago stockyards in 1972. Chicago remained the nation's chief merchandising center during the early 1980s, and an influx of huge international banks boosted the city's financial strength.

In the 1990s, Illinois's major industries included primary and secondary metals; industrial and farm equipment; electric equipment and appliances; electronic components; food processing; and printing equipment. Output from the state's manufacturing sector continued to grow in absolute terms until 1999; a small 0.5% contraction in 2000 (more than compensated for by annual overall growth rates averaging over 5.2% 1998 to 2000) was followed by sharp 5% contraction during the national recession of 2001. As a percentage of total output, manufacturing fell from 17.8% in 1997 to 14.4% in 2001. By contrast, financial services increased 31.5% and general services almost 28% over this time period. In the period 2001–02, the state's diverse economy closely mirrored national trends. The biggest job losses were in manufacturing, totaling approximately 64,000 in the two-year period, compared to 35,700 jobs lost in general services, 24,700 in trade, and 12,700 in transportation and utilities. The annual decline in jobs had moderated to 1.3% by September 2002 (from 1.6% in December 2001).

In 2004, the gross state product (GSP) in Illinois totaled \$521.900 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) made up the largest portion at \$71.028 billion or 13.6% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$64.434 billion (12.3% of GSP) and professional and technical services at \$42.671 billion (8.1% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 1,001,185 small businesses in Illinois. Of the 285,208 businesses having employees, a total of 280,373 or 98.3% were small companies. An estimated 28,453 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 1.7% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 33,472, down 18.6% from 2003. There were 912 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 671 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Illinois as the 14th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Illinois had a gross state product (GSP) of \$560 billion, which accounted for 4.5% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state fifth in GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004, Illinois had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$34,721. This ranked 14th in the United States and was 105% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.8%. Illinois had a total personal income (TPI) of \$441,372,577,000, which ranked fifth in the United States and reflected an increase of 3.4% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.5%. Earnings of persons employed in Illinois increased from \$339,209,331,000 in 2003 to \$351,081,708,000 in 2004, an increase of 3.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$45,787 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period, 12.5% of the population was below the poverty line, compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Illinois numbered 6,525,100. Approximately 332,500 workers were unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 5,919,700. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Illinois was 12.9% in February 1983. The historical low was 4.1% in March 1999. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 11.5% in manufacturing; 20.1% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.9% in financial activities; 14.3% in professional and business services; 12.7% in education and health services; 8.9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 14.2% in government.

The first labor organizations sprang up among German tailors, Teamsters, and carpenters in Chicago in the 1850s and among British and German coal miners after the Civil War. The period of industrialization after the Civil War saw many strikes, especially in coal mining and construction, many of them spontaneous rather than union related. The Knights of Labor organized extensively in Chicago, Peoria, and Springfield in the 1870s and 1880s, reaching a membership of 52,000 by 1886. However, in the aftermath of the Haymarket riot—during which a dynamite blast at a labor rally killed seven policemen and four civilians—the Knights faded rapidly. More durable was the Chicago Federation of Labor, formed in 1877 and eventually absorbed by the American Federation of Labor (AFL). Strongest in the highly skilled construction, transportation, mining, and printing industries, the federation stood aside from the 1894 Pullman strike, led by industrial union organizer Eugene V. Debs, a bitter struggle broken by federal troops over the protest of Governor John Peter Altgeld.

Labor unions are powerful in Chicago but relatively weak downstate. The major unions are the International Brotherhood of

Teamsters, the United Steelworkers of America, the International Association of Machinists, the United Automobile Workers, the United Brotherhood of Carpenters, and the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees. The Illinois Education Association, though not strictly a labor union, has become one of the state's most militant employee organizations, often calling strikes and constituting the most active lobby in the state. In 1983, a new law granted all public employees except police and firemen the right to strike.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 927,000 of the state's 5,473,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 16.9% of those so employed, up from 16.8% in 2004 and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 965,000 workers (17.6%) in Illinois were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Illinois is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Illinois had a state-mandated minimum wage of \$6.50 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.5% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Total agricultural income in 2005 reached \$8.7 billion in Illinois, ranking the state seventh in the nation. Crops accounted for nearly 79% of the value of farm marketings, with corn and soybeans as the leading cash commodities.

Prior to 1860, agriculture was the dominant occupation, and food for home consumption was the leading product. Enormous effort was devoted to breaking the thick prairie soil in the northern two-thirds of the state. Fences and barns were erected, and in the 1870s and 1880s, the drainage of low-lying areas in central Illinois was a major concern. Commercial agriculture was made possible by the extension of the railroad network in the 1860s and 1870s. Corn, wheat, hogs, cattle, and horses were the state's main products in the 19th century. Since then, wheat and poultry have declined greatly in significance, while soybeans and, to a lesser extent, dairy products and vegetables have played an increasingly important role. The mechanization and electrification of agriculture, beginning about 1910, proceeded at an unmatched pace in Illinois. Strong interest in scientific farming, including the use of hybrid corn, sophisticated animal-breeding techniques, and chemical fertilizers, has also fostered a steady, remarkable growth in agricultural productivity.

The number of farms reached a peak of 264,000 in 1900 and began declining rapidly after World War II, down to 73,000 in 2004. Total acreage in farming was 27.5 million acres (11.1 million hectares) in 2004, down from 32.8 million acres (13.3 million hectares) in 1990. The average farm size more than doubled from 124 acres (50 hectares) in 1900 to 377 acres (152 hectares) in 2004. The farm population, which averaged 1.2 million persons from 1880 to 1900, declined to 314,000 in 1980; by then, about half the people who lived on farms commuted to work in stores, shops, and offices.

The major agricultural region is the Corn Belt, covering all of central and about half of northern Illinois. Among the 50 states, Illinois ranked second only to Iowa in the production of corn and soybeans during 2000–04.

Agriculture is big business in the state, though very few farms are owned by corporations (except "family corporations," a tax device). The financial investment in agriculture is enormous, largely because of the accelerating cost of land. The value of land quadrupled during the 1970s to an average of \$2,013 per acre in 1980, fell to \$1,536 per acre by 1992, but rose to \$2,210 by 1997 and \$2,610 by 2004.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Livestock is raised almost everywhere in Illinois, but production is concentrated especially in the west-central region. In 2005, Illinois farms had an estimated 1.38 million cattle and calves worth around \$1.1 billion. Illinois farms had an estimated 4 million hogs and pigs in 2004, worth around \$400 million. The Dairy Belt covers part of northern Illinois. Milk production in 2003 totaled an estimated 2 billion lb (0.9 billion kg). During 2003, Illinois poultry farmers sold an estimated 7.1 million lb (3.2 million kg) of chicken. An estimated 973 million eggs were produced in 2003, worth around \$51 million.

25 FISHING

Commercial fishing is relatively insignificant in Illinois. Sport fishing is of modest importance in southern Illinois and around Lake Michigan. Some 450 lakes and ponds and 200 streams and rivers are open to the public. In 2004, there were 713,120 sport anglers licensed in Illinois. The state Division of Fisheries operates four fish hatcheries, producing more than 50 million fish of 18 species for stocking Illinois waters. In 2004, Illinois had 18 catfish farms covering 320 acres (130 hectares).

26 FORESTRY

Forestland covering 4,331,000 acres (1,753,000 hectares) makes up about 12% of the state's land area. Forests in the northern two-thirds of the state are predominately located in the northwestern part of the state and along major rivers and streams. The majority of Illinois's forests are located in the southern one-third of the state. Some 4,087,000 acres (1,654,000 hectares) are classified as commercial forests and 89% privately owned. As of 2005, Illinois had two national forests, with a total National Forest System acreage of 857,000 acres (347,000 hectares). In 2004, lumber production totaled 123 million board feet.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of Illinois nonfuel mineral production in 2003 was \$911 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 1%. The USGS data ranked Illinois 16th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for around 2.5% of total US output.

All of the state's nonfuel mineral output in 2003 was accounted for by industrial minerals, of which crushed stone was the leading item produced, accounting for around 46% of all production by value. Portland cement ranked second at around 23%, while construction sand and gravel stood at nearly 17% and industrial sand and gravel at 8%. Lime, fuller's earth, and tripoli accounted for most of the remainder.

For 2003, preliminary data showed that Illinois produced 72.6 million metric tons of crushed stone, valued at \$421 million; con-

struction sand and gravel output totaled 33.2 million metric tons, or \$153 million; and industrial sand and gravel production totaling 4.51 million metric tons, or \$72.9 million. Portland cement production that same year came to 2.8 million metric tons, or an estimated \$207 million.

Until 1997, Illinois was the only state with reported fluorspar production. A combination of increased competition from foreign imports and a decrease in the use of chlorofluorocarbons (because of environmental concerns) was mostly responsible for the decline in domestic production. Fluorspar had been mined commercially in Hardin County since 1870, and in 1996, the last two operating fluorspar mines in the United States were closed (making it difficult to obtain fluorite, the state mineral).

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Illinois is one of the nation's leading energy producers and consumers. As of 2003, Illinois had 92 electrical power service providers, of which 41 were publicly owned and 27 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, nine were investor owned, 11 were generation-only suppliers, 3 were delivery-only suppliers, and 1 was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year, there were 5,457,799 retail customers. Of that total, 4,931,955 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 258,814 customers, while publicly owned providers had 254,387 customers. There were 12,642 generation-only customers and only one independent generator or "facility" customer. There were no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 45.541 million kW, with total production that same year at 189.055 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 94.9% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 94.733 billion kWh (50.1%), came from nuclear power plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 87.981 billion kWh (46.5%) and natural gas-fired plants in third place at 3.902 billion kWh (2.1%). Other renewable power sources, petroleum, hydroelectric, and plants using other types of gases accounted for the remaining facilities.

As of 2006, Illinois had six nuclear power generating facilities: the Braidwood Station in Will County; the Byron plant in Ogle County; the Clinton Power Station near Clinton; the Dresden plant in Grundy County; the La Salle County plant; and the Quad Cities plant near the cities of Davenport, Rock Island, Moline, and East Moline.

As of 2004, Illinois had proven crude oil reserves of 92 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 30,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 15th (14th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 15th (14th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004, Illinois had 16,859 producing oil wells, accounting for 1% of all US production. The state's four refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 896,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Illinois had 251 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared,

and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 174 million cu ft (4.9 million cu m).

Coal is abundant throughout Illinois, with the largest mines in the south and central regions. Coal mining reached its peak in the 1920s but suffered thereafter from high pricing policies, the Depression of the 1930s, and environmental restrictions against burning high-sulfur coal in the 1970s. In 2004, Illinois had 19 producing coal mines, seven of which were surface mines and 12 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 31,853,000 short tons, up from 31,640,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, underground mines accounted for 26,907,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 796 million tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Manufacturing in Illinois, concentrated in but not limited to Chicago, has always been diverse. Before 1860s, small gristmills, bakeries, and blacksmith shops handled what little manufacturing was done. Industry tripled in size in the 1860s, doubled in the 1870s, and doubled again in the 1880s, until manufacturing employment leveled off at 10%–12% of the population. Value added by manufacture grew at a compound annual rate of 8.1% between 1860 and 1900 and at a rate of 6.3% until 1929.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Illinois' manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$210.042 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$32.669 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$28.221 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$26.085 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$18.620 billion; petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$18.109 billion; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$12.759 billion.

In 2004, a total of 676,061 people in Illinois were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 466,252 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the fabricated metal product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 103,818, with 76,955 actual production workers. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at 84,390 employees (52,647 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 80,454 employees (59,980 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 55,183 employees (42,305 actual production workers); and chemical manufacturing with 49,396 employees (25,740 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that the state's manufacturing sector paid \$29.166 billion in wages. Of that amount, the fabricated metal product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$4.243 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$3.915 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$2.951 billion; food manufacturing at \$2.851 billion; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$2.211 billion.

By far the leading industrial center is Chicago, followed by Rockford, the East St. Louis area, Rock Island and Moline in the Quad Cities region, and Peoria.

30 COMMERCE

Chicago is the leading wholesaling center of the Midwest. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, the wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$317.4 billion from 20,520 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 11,911 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 6,670 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,939 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$155.7 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$135.7 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$25.9 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Illinois was listed as having 43,022 retail establishments with sales of \$131.4 billion. The leading types of retail businesses (by number of establishments) were food and beverage stores (6,114); clothing and clothing accessories stores (6,078); miscellaneous store retailers (4,965); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (4,375); and gasoline stations (4,153). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$32.6 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$18.7 billion; general merchandise stores at \$18.4 billion; nonstore retailers at \$13.05 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$10.9 billion. A total of 601,465 people were employed by the retail sector in Illinois that year.

Illinois ranked sixth among the states in exports with estimated exports of \$35.8 billion in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Office of the Attorney General is the most active protector of Illinois consumers with its Consumer Protection Division, which handles around 28,000 complaints a year. Within the Consumer Protection Division are the Franchise Bureau, Health Care Bureau, Charitable Trusts Bureau, and Consumer Fraud Bureau. The Department of Insurance also has a Consumer Division. The Department of Human Rights was established in 1979 to protect individuals in regard to employment, public accommodations, and other areas. Nearly half of all claims involve motor vehicle or home repair fraud in the state of Illinois.

The Illinois Office of the Attorney General can initiate civil, and, in antitrust actions, criminal proceedings; it can also represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; and is responsible for the administration of consumer protection and education programs; and the handling of consumer complaints. However, the office has only limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts. However, the office cannot represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The state's Consumer Fraud Bureau has offices in Carbondale, Chicago, and Springfield. The Governor's Office of Citizens Assistance is located in Springfield. The cities of Chicago and Des Plaines also have offices devoted to consumer protection.

32 BANKING

Banking was highly controversial in 19th-century Illinois. Modernizers stressed the need for adequate venture capital and money

supplies, but traditionalist farmers feared they would be impoverished by an artificial "money monster." Efforts to create a state bank floundered in confusion, while the dubious character of most private banknotes inspired the state to ban private banks altogether. The major breakthrough came during the Civil War, when federal laws encouraged the establishment of strong national banks in all the larger cities, and Chicago quickly became the financial center of the Midwest. Apart from the 1920s and early 1930s, when numerous neighborhood and small-town banks folded, the banking system has flourished. The Bureau of Banks and Trust Companies at the Office of Banks and Real Estate regulates state-chartered banks and trust companies.

As of June 2005, Illinois had 718 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 366 state-chartered and 117 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Illinois had the highest number of banks of any state (Texas was second with 677) in 2005, due in large part to past state regulations that restricted branch banking. From 1870 through 1970, even the state's largest banks were limited to just one office. However, by 1993, branch banking without limitation had become available. Excluding the CUs, the Chicago-Naperville-Joliet market area accounted for the vast bulk of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 309 institutions and \$239.618 billion in deposits. The Bloomington-Normal area was second in terms of deposits with \$9.549 billion, while the Davenport-Moline-Rock Island area (which includes portions of Iowa and Illinois) was tied with Peoria for second place in the number of financial institutions at 46 each. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 5.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$22.192 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 94.2% or \$357.480 billion in assets held.

As of fourth quarter 2005, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 3.70%, down from 3.71% in 2004, but up from 3.67% in 2003. The median percentage of pastdue/nonaccrual loans to total loans for the same time periods stood at 1.59%, 1.63%, and 1.78%, respectively.

33 INSURANCE

Illinois is a major center of the insurance industry. In 2004, there were 8 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$636 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$1 trillion. The average coverage amount was \$79,100 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$2.66 billion.

In 2003, 71 life and health insurance and 186 property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled in Illinois. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$21.2 billion. That year, there were 44,444 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$5.4 billion. About \$1.1 billion of coverage was offered through FAIR (Fair Access to Insurance) Plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high-risk areas.

Illinois fire and casualty companies are among the US leaders. State Farm is based in Bloomington, and Allstate, a subsidiary of Sears, Roebuck, is in Chicago. Blue Cross-Blue Shield, the nation's largest hospital and medical insurance program, is headquartered in Chicago.

In 2004, 58% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 21% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged 17% for single coverage and 23% for family coverage. The state offers a nine-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 7.3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$760.98.

3⁴ SECURITIES

The Chicago Stock Exchange (CHX) is the third most active stock exchange in the United States by volume. It was founded in 1882. After a 1949 merger with the St. Louis, Cleveland, and Minneapolis/St. Paul stock exchanges, the organization was known as the Midwest Stock Exchange. The New Orleans Stock Exchange was added to the group in 1959. The name reverted back to Chicago Stock Exchange in 1993. As of 2006, the CHX trades over 3,500 NYSE, AMEX, NASDAQ, and CHX-exclusive issues.

The most intensive trading in Chicago takes place on the three major commodity exchanges. The Chicago Board of Trade has set agricultural prices for the world since 1848, especially in soybeans, corn, and wheat. The Chicago Mercantile Exchange specializes in pork bellies (bacon), live cattle, potatoes, and eggs; since 1972, it has also provided a market for world currency futures. The Mid-America Commodity Exchange, the smallest of the three, has a colorful ancestry dating from 1868. It features small-lot futures contracts on soybeans, silver, corn, wheat, and live hogs.

In 2005, there were 3,540 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 14,940 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 449 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 120 NASDAQ companies, 195 NYSE listings, and 53 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 32 Fortune 500 companies; State Farm Insurance Companies (with mutual funds listed on NASDAQ) ranked first in the state and 22nd in the nation with revenues of over \$59.2 million, followed by the NYSE listed Boeing, Sears Holdings, Walgreens, and Motorola.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Among the larger states, Illinois is known for its low taxes and conservative fiscal policy. The Bureau of the Budget, under the governor's control, has major responsibility for the state's overall fiscal program, negotiating annually with key legislators, cabinet officers, and outside pressure groups. The governor then submits

the budget to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$27.5 billion for resources and \$27.0 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Illinois were nearly \$16.5 billion.

In the federal budget for the 2007 fiscal year, Illinois was slated to receive \$233.1 million for major cities throughout the state to fund buses, railcars, and maintenance facilities essential to sustaining public transportation systems that serve their communities; \$96.6 million for the renovation of the Dirksen US Courthouse in Chicago, including the modernization of building systems and the

Illinois—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	61,255,138	4,818.69
General revenue	46,518,645	3,659.43
Intergovernmental revenue	14,172,550	1,114.90
Taxes	25,490,593	2,005.24
General sales	6,922,587	544.57
Selective sales	5,603,955	440.84
License taxes	2,385,596	187.66
Individual income tax	8,139,558	640.31
Corporate income tax	2,068,574	162.73
Other taxes	370,323	29.13
Current charges	3,211,635	252.65
Miscellaneous general revenue	3,643,867	286.65
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	14,736,493	1,159.26
Total expenditure	53,429,176	4,203.05
Intergovernmental expenditure	13,303,609	1,046.54
Direct expenditure	40,125,567	3,156.51
Current operation	26,072,092	2,050.98
Capital outlay	2,467,325	194.09
Insurance benefits and repayments	7,620,381	599.46
Assistance and subsidies	1,280,524	100.73
Interest on debt	2,685,245	211.24
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	5,974,189	469.96
Total expenditure	53,429,176	4,203.05
General expenditure	45,808,795	3,603.59
Intergovernmental expenditure	13,303,609	1,046.54
Direct expenditure	32,505,186	2,557.05
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	15,272,814	1,201.45
Public welfare	12,694,089	998.59
Hospitals	994,622	78.24
Health	2,696,902	212.15
Highways	3,096,955	243.62
Police protection	399,085	31.39
Correction	1,284,453	101.04
Natural resources	395,095	31.08
Parks and recreation	373,134	29.35
Government administration	1,395,966	109.81
Interest on general debt	2,685,245	211.24
Other and unallocable	4,520,435	355.60
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	7,620,381	599.46
Debt at end of fiscal year	48,726,054	3,833.08
Cash and security holdings	104,783,007	8,242.84

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

renovation of interior space; \$42.8 million to continue the construction and rehabilitation of transit rail systems in Chicago; \$38 million in incremental funding for a \$152 million project for the construction of a US I-80 to I-88 north-south connector in Illinois; \$37.5 million in incremental funding for a \$150 million project for the Mississippi River Bridge in Illinois; \$13.5 million to improve public transportation in Illinois for the elderly, persons with disabilities, and persons with lower-incomes providing access to job and health care facilities; and \$12.4 million to provide transportation in rural areas statewide meeting the needs of individuals that may have no other means of transportation.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Illinois collected \$26,412 million in tax revenues or \$2,069 per capita, which placed it 29th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.2% of the total, sales taxes 27.2%, selective sales taxes 23.3%, individual income taxes 30.1%, corporate income taxes 8.3%, and other taxes 10.9%.

As of 1 January 2006, Illinois had one individual income tax bracket of 3.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 7.3%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$17,888,828,000 or \$1,407 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state ninth nationally. Local governments collected \$17,831,744,000 of the total and the state government \$57,084,000.

Illinois taxes retail sales at a rate of 6.25%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 3%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 9.25%. Food purchased for consumption off premises is taxable although at a lower rate. The tax on cigarettes is 98 cents per pack, which ranks 21st among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Illinois taxes gasoline at 20.1 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Illinois citizens received \$0.73 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The state's policy toward economic development has engendered political controversy since the 1830s. Before the Civil War, the Democrats in power usually tried to slow, though not reverse, the tide of rapid industrial and commercial growth. The Republican ascendancy between the 1850s and the 1930s (with a few brief interruptions) produced a generally favorable business climate, which in turn fostered rapid economic growth. The manufacturing sector eroded slowly in the 1960s and 1970s, as incentives and tax credits for new industry were kept at a modest level. In 1989, however, the state began to aggressively encourage companies undergoing modernization or commercializing new technologies by enacting the Technology Advancement and Development Act, which invests in companies developing advanced technologies for commercial purposes.

In 2006, the lead government agency coordinating economic development programs was the Department of Commerce and Economic Opportunity (DCEO), previously called the Department of Commerce and Community Affairs. The name change indicated a shift in emphasis toward inclusion ("no community left

behind") in the economic downturn that followed the prosperous 1990s—a shift, for instance, from primary emphasis on keeping up with the latest digital technology (as in the government's Science and Technology Initiative of 2000 that included "technology challenge" business and educational grants, and research funding) to a concern with bridging the "digital divide." The Illinois Department of Human Services (DHS) was given managerial control of the Team Illinois initiative, which featured the pooling of resources of virtually every state agency, including the DCEO, to address the needs of the state's poorest communities. The goal of Team Illinois was to work with residents, elected officials, local business leaders, and community stakeholders to help build needed infrastructure. The creation of public-private partnerships and the empowerment of community stakeholders were to be central parts of the approach. Hopkins Park in Pembroke Township, a rural community in Kankakee County, was the first of four communities scheduled to receive Team Illinois assistance. Infrastructural improvements under way included road repair, a new Technology Learning Center, public-private partnerships to build affordable housing, the removal and cleanup of tire dumps (by the Illinois EPA), and health screenings and immunizations (by the Department of Public Health). Internationally, the DCEO's role is that of the "sales department for Illinois." It maintains trade and investment offices in Toronto, Mexico City, Tokyo, Warsaw, Johannesburg, Brussels, Shanghai, and Hong Kong. The promotion of jobs, tourism, minority-owned enterprises, and foreign markets for Illinois products is the department's major responsibility. The assistance by the DCEO includes equity capital and low interest loans for small businesses; low-interest financing to communities undergoing infrastructure improvements which help create or retain jobs; tax-exempt bonds for companies expanding or renovating their physical plant; and grants for employee training and retraining.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.6 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 23.2 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 85.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 83% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2002 was 8.5 deaths per 1,000 population. The same year, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows: heart disease, 244.6; cancer, 196.3; cerebrovascular diseases, 57; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 38.3; and diabetes, 23.9. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 3.9 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 13.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 55.8% of the populations was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 22.2% of state residents were smokers.

Hospitals abound in Illinois, with Chicago serving as a diagnostic and treatment center for patients throughout the Midwest. In 2003, Illinois had 192 community hospitals with about 35,000 beds. There were about 1.5 million patient admissions that year and 27 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 22,400 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,497. Also in 2003, there were about 827 certified

nursing facilities in the state with 106,734 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 74.8%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 72.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Illinois had 284 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 803 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 7,958 dentists in the state.

In 2005, University of Chicago Hospitals ranked 14th on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, the hospital ranked seventh in the nation for best care in cancer. Children's Memorial Hospital, Chicago, ranked within the top 25 hospitals for best reputation in pediatric care.

About 21% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$13.2 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Prior to the 1930s, social welfare programs were the province of county government and private agencies. Asylums, particularly poor farms, were built in most counties following the Civil War; they provided custodial care for orphans, the very old, the helpless, sick, and itinerant "tramps." Most people who needed help, however, turned to relatives, neighbors, or church agencies. The local and private agencies were overwhelmed by the severe Depression of the 1930s, forcing first the state and then the federal government to intervene. Social welfare programs are implemented by county agencies but funded by local and state taxes and federal aid.

In 2004, about 392,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$279. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,158,271 persons (520,350 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$100.73 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$1.4 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state TANF program had 89,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$132 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,883,750 Illinois residents. This number included 1,221,330 retired workers, 195,560 widows and widowers, 210,030 disabled workers, 100,520 spouses, and 156,300 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 14.8% of the total state population and 90.2% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$993; widows and widowers, \$960; disabled workers, \$924; and spouses, \$498. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$492 per month; children of deceased workers, \$652; and children of disabled workers, \$277. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 255,624 Illinois residents in December 2004, averaging \$427 a month. An additional \$2.3 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 30,501 residents.

40 HOUSING

Flimsy cabins and shacks provided rude shelter for many Illinoisans in pioneer days. Later, the balloon-frame house, much cheaper to build than traditional structures, became a trademark of the Prairie State. After a third of Chicago's wooden houses burned in 1871, the city moved to enforce more stringent building codes. The city's predominant dwelling then became the three- or five-story brick apartment house. Great mansions were built in elite areas of Chicago (first Prairie Avenue, later the Gold Coast), and high-rise lakefront luxury apartments first became popular in the 1920s. In the 1970s, Chicago pioneered the conversion of luxury apartment buildings to condominiums.

In 2004, there were an estimated 5,094,186 housing units in Illinois, of which 4,659,791 were occupied; 69.2% were owner occupied. About 58.9% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Most units rely on utility gas for heating. It was estimated that 247,234 units were without telephone service, 15,492 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 16,789 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.66 members.

In 2004, 59,800 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$167,711. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,370, while renters paid a median of \$698 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$32.4 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). The city of Chicago received similar grants of over \$85 million.

41 EDUCATION

In 1854, Ninian Edwards became the first superintendent of public education. His first and most difficult task was to convince pioneer parents that a formal education was a necessary part of the lives of their children. By the mid-1870s, education in Illinois had become a going enterprise. Edwards helped create an outstanding public school system, although the city of Chicago was hard-pressed to construct enough school buildings to serve the growing numbers of students until foreign immigration subsided in the 1920s. The dedication of these educators continued to improve the quality of education, but it was not until the development of a good highway system and state funding for the transporting of students that rural Illinois would see the demise of one-room schoolhouses. In one decade, 1944–54, state-mandated school consolidation/reorganization reduced the number of school districts from 11,955 to 2,607.

In 2004, 86.8% of the Illinois population 25 years and over held high school diplomas, with 27.4% continuing their education and earning a bachelor's degree or higher.

Total public school enrollment for fall 2002 stood at 2,084,000. Of these, 1,488,00 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 597,000 attended high school. Approximately 57.4% of the students were white, 21.1% were black, 17.7% were Hispanic, 3.6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 2,086,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 2,118,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 1.6% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$21 billion. Non-public schools, dominated by Chicago's extensive Roman Catholic school system, have shown a slight decrease since the early

1980s. In fall 2003, 270,490 students were enrolled in 1,346 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Illinois scored 278 out of 500 in mathematics, the same as the national average.

As of fall 2002, there were 776,622 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 31% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Illinois had 173 degree-granting institutions. The University of Illinois system has both the largest and smallest public university campuses. The University of Illinois at Springfield was formerly Sangamon State University. Champaign–Urbana is the state's most populous campus. Nearly half of all Illinois college students attend one of the state's 48 public community colleges.

42 ARTS

The Illinois Arts Council was founded in 1965. In 2005, state organizations received 92 grants totaling \$2,903,600 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Illinois Humanities Council, founded in 1974, offers programs that include a lecture/presentation series program called the Heartland Chautauqua and the Odyssey Project, as of 2006 an ongoing opportunity, which offers free college-level courses in the humanities to individuals with incomes below the poverty level. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities sponsored 49 grants for state programs, with a total contribution of \$5,957,480. A humanities fellowship of \$210,000 was awarded to the American Institute of Indian Studies in Chicago in 2003.

Chicago emerged in the late 19th century as the leading arts center of the Midwest, and as of 2005, it continued to hold this premier position. The major downtown facilities include the Krannert Center at the University of Illinois (Champaign–Urbana), founded in 1969—having served more than 350,000 people annually.

Architecture is the outstanding art form in Illinois. Chicago—where the first skyscrapers were built in the 1880s—has been a mecca for modern commercial and residential architects ever since the fire of 1871. The Art Institute of Chicago, incorporated in 1879, is the leading art museum in the state. Although its holdings, largely donated by wealthy Chicagoans, cover all the major periods, its French Impressionist collection is especially noteworthy. In 2005, the Art Institute of Chicago revealed the master plans for a new building—the last addition to the museum was made in 1988. The museum commissioned architect Renzo Piano to design the \$200 million project; the new building was scheduled to open to the public in 2009. Another example of bold contemporary architecture is the \$172-million State of Illinois Center in Chicago, which opened in 1985.

Theater groups abound—there were 116 theatrical producers in 1982—notably in Chicago, where the Second City comedy troupe and the Steppenwolf Theatre are located; the city's best playwrights and performers, however, often gravitate to Broadway in New York or Hollywood. Film production was an important industry in Illinois before 1920, when operations shifted to the sunnier climate and more opulent production facilities of southern California. By the early 1980s, however, the Illinois Film Office had staged an impressive comeback, and television films and motion pictures were being routinely shot in the state. In 2004, films

shot in Illinois included *Spiderman 2*, *I Robot*, *Oceans 12*, and *Batman Begins*.

The Chicago Symphony Orchestra, organized by Theodore Thomas in 1891, quickly acquired world stature; its permanent conductors have included Frederick Stock, Fritz Reiner, Sir George Solti, who regularly took the symphony on triumphant European tours, and Daniel Barenboim (since 1991). German immigrants founded many musical societies in Chicago in the late 19th century, when the city also became a major center of musical education. Opera flourished in Chicago in the early 20th century, collapsed during the early 1930s, but was reborn through the founding of the Lyric Opera in 1954. Chicago's most original musical contribution was jazz, imported from the South by black musicians in the 1920s. Such jazz greats as King Oliver, Louis Armstrong, Jelly Roll Morton, Benny Goodman, and Gene Krupa all worked or learned their craft in the speakeasies and jazz houses of the city's South Side. More recently, Chicago became the center of an urban blues movement, using electric rather than acoustic guitars and influenced by jazz. The Jazz Institute of Chicago was founded in 1969 and provides such programs as the Jazz Fair, also known as, the Winter Delights Jazz Fair and the JazzCity Series.

The seamy side of Chicago has fascinated writers throughout the 20th century. Well-known American novels set in Chicago include two muckraking works, Frank Norris's *The Pit* (1903) and Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle* (1906), as well as James T. Farrell's *Studs Lonigan* (1935) and Saul Bellow's *The Adventures of Augie March* (1953). Famous American plays associated with Chicago are *The Front Page* (1928), by Ben Hecht and Charles MacArthur, and *A Raisin in the Sun* (1959), by Lorraine Hansberry.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Illinois had 629 public library systems, with a total of 786 libraries, of which 157 were branches. Libraries and library science are particularly strong in Illinois. In that same year, the state's public library systems had a combined book and serial publications stock of 41,620,000 volumes and a total circulation of 83,703,000. The system also had 1,991,000 audio and 1,309,000 video items, 412,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 25 bookmobiles. The facilities in Peoria, Oak Park, Evanston, Rockford, and Quincy are noteworthy; the Chicago Public Library system (with 6,490,452 volumes) operates 89 branch libraries and the Illinois Regional Library for the Blind and Physically Handicapped. The outstanding libraries of the University of Illinois (Champaign–Urbana) and the University of Chicago (with over 8,000,000 and 6,419,936 volumes respectively) constitute the state's leading research facilities, and the University of Illinois has a famous library school. Principal historical collections are located at the Newberry Library in Chicago, the Illinois State Historical Society in Springfield, and the Chicago Historical Society. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the public library system totaled \$512,341,000, which included \$2,850,000 in federal grants and \$37,445,000 in state grants.

Illinois has 277 museums and historical sites. Chicago's Field Museum of Natural History, with an annual attendance of over 1.2 million, has sponsored numerous worldwide expeditions in the course of acquiring some 13 million anthropological, zoological, botanical, and geological specimens. The Museum of Science

and Industry, near the University of Chicago, attracts two million visitors a year, mostly children, to see its exhibits of industrial technology. Also noteworthy are the Adler Planetarium, Shedd Aquarium, and the Oriental Institute Museum of the University of Chicago. The Brookfield Zoo, near Chicago, opened in 1934; smaller zoos can be found in Chicago's Lincoln Park and in Peoria, Elgin, and other cities.

Just about every town has one or more historic sites authenticated by the state. The most popular is New Salem, near Springfield, where Abraham Lincoln lived from 1831 to 1837. Its reconstruction, begun by press magnate William Randolph Hearst in 1906, includes one original cabin and numerous replicas. The most important archaeological sites are the Dixon Mounds, 40 mi (64 km) south of Peoria, and the Koster Excavation in Calhoun County, north of St. Louis, Missouri.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Illinois has an extensive communications system. The state's households with telephones numbered about 90.1% of all households in 2004. In addition, by June of that same year there were 7,529,966 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 60.0% of Illinois households had a computer and 51.1% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,854,004 high-speed lines in Illinois, 1,658,639 residential and 195,365 for business.

Illinois had 36 major AM and 130 major FM commercial radio stations in 2005, when 31 major television stations served the state. In 1999, the Chicago area had the third-largest number of television households of all metropolitan areas (3,204,710), with cable in 65%.

In 1979, WGN-TV in Chicago became a "superstation," with sports programs, movies, and advertising. Although the three major networks own stations in Chicago, they originate very little programming from the city. However, as a major advertising center, Chicago produces many commercials and industrial films. Most educational broadcasting in Illinois comes from state universities and the Chicago public and Catholic school systems.

A total of 259,713 Internet domain names were registered in the state in the year 2000.

45 PRESS

The state's first newspaper, the *Illinois Herald*, was begun in Kaskaskia in 1814. From the 1830s through the end of the 19th century, small-town weeklies exerted powerful political influence. After 1900, however, publishers discovered that they needed large circulations to appeal to advertisers, so they toned down their partisanship and began adding a broad range of features to attract a wider audience.

The most popular magazines published in Chicago are *Playboy* and *Ebony*. Many specialized trade and membership magazines, such as the *Lion* and the *Rotarian*, are published in Chicago, which is also the printing and circulation center for many magazines edited in New York. The popular *Cricket Magazine* for children is published in LaSalle-Peru.

As of 2005, Illinois had 26 morning newspapers (including all-day papers), 41 evening dailies, and 32 Sunday papers. The Illinois editions of St. Louis newspapers are also widely read. The Chicago *Tribune* was the eighth-largest daily and fourth-largest Sunday newspaper nationwide in 2005, based on circulation figures.

The following table shows the state's leading dailies with their 2005 estimated circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Chicago	<i>Sun-Times</i> (m,S)	481,980	377,640
	<i>Tribune</i> (m,S)	600,988	963,927
Peoria	<i>Journal Star</i> (m,S)	76,879	87,188
Rockford	<i>Register Star</i> (m,S)	64,518	77,183
Springfield	<i>State Journal-Register</i> (m,S)	55,334	64,548

In 2005, there were 459 weekly publications in Illinois. Of these there are 310 paid weeklies, 64 free weeklies, and 85 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (1,420,940) and free weeklies (1,459,988) is 2,880,938. The Chicago paid weekly, *Southwest News-Herald*, ranked fifth in the United States based on its circulation of 54,000, and the Des Plaines, *Mount Prospect Journal*, ranked second in the United States based on circulation for combined weeklies, 90,996. Two Illinois shopping publications—the Chicago *Local Values* (1,672,500) and the Tinley Park *Penny Saver* (456,953)—ranked second and twelfth in the United States, respectively.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

Before the Civil War, Yankee-dominated towns and cities in northern Illinois sponsored lyceums, debating circles, women's clubs, temperance groups, and antislavery societies. During the 20th century, Chicago's size and central location attracted the headquarters of numerous national organizations, though far fewer than New York or, more recently, Washington, D.C.

In 2006, there were over 15,985 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 10,432 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Major national service and fraternal bodies with headquarters in Chicago or nearby suburbs include the Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks of the USA, Lions Clubs International, Loyal Order of Moose, and Rotary International.

Chicago has long been a center for professional organizations, among them the most powerful single US medical group, the American Medical Association, founded in 1847, and the American Hospital Association, begun in 1898. Other major groups include associations of surgeons, dentists, veterinarians, osteopaths, and dietitians, as well as the Blue Cross and Blue Shield Association and the National Easter Seal Society. The national offices of the Alzheimer's Association are in Chicago.

The American Bar Association has its headquarters in Chicago, as do several smaller legal groups, including the American Judicature Society and the Commercial Law League of America. Librarians also have a base in Chicago; the American Library Association, the Society of American Archivists, and the associations of law and medical librarians are all headquartered in the city. The National Parent-Teacher Association is the only major national educational group. The Illinois State Historical Society promotes the study of state history.

A variety of trade organizations, such as the American Marketing Association, are based in Chicago, though many have moved to Washington, D.C. The American Farm Bureau Federation operates out of Park Ridge. The National Dairy Council is also based in the state. State agricultural organizations include the Illinois Corn Marketing Board, the Illinois Christmas Tree Association, and the Illinois Soybean Association. The National Women's Christian

Temperance Union, one of the most important of all US pressure groups in the 19th century, has its headquarters in Evanston. The World Bocce Association is based in Elmhurst.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

The tourist industry is of special importance to Chicago, which has become the nation's leading convention center. Business travel accounts for 36% of all state travel in 2004, when tourism and travel expenditures contributed some \$24 billion to the state economy. Over 300,000 people were employed in the industry. In 2004, Illinois generated \$764 billion in tourism payroll.

Chicago's chief tourist attractions are its museums, restaurants, and shops. Chicago also boasts the world's tallest building, the Sears Tower, which is 110 stories and 1,454 feet (443 meters) high. Chicago entertains visitors with museums (Shedd Aquarium, Field Museum, Museum of Science and Industry, and Art Institute), shopping (Magnificent Mile along Michigan Avenue), and the Brookfield Zoo. There are 42 state parks, 4 state forests, 36,659 campsites, and 25 state recreation places. Downtown Chicago is home to many public beaches and recreation areas on Lake Michigan. The Lincoln Home National Historic Site in Springfield was one of the state's most popular tourist attractions; the Abraham Lincoln Presidential Library and Museum opened to the public on 14 October 2004 (library) and 16–19 April 2005 (museum). Galesburg, Illinois is the home of poet Carl Sandburg. In Nauvoo, visitors can see a re-creation of the original Mormon Temple. Spoon River Drive, in Fulton County, will take tourists past places mentioned in Edgar Lee Masters' *Spoon River Anthology*. Hartford, Illinois, has a Lewis and Clark Interpretive Center. The Ronald Reagan home and visitor center is located in Dixon, Illinois. Swimming, bicycling, hiking, camping, horseback riding, fishing, and motorboating are the most popular recreational activities. Even more popular than hunting is wildlife observation, an activity that engages millions of Illinoisans annually.

48 SPORTS

Illinois has six major professional sports teams, all of which play in Chicago: the Cubs and the White Sox of Major League Baseball, the Bears of the National Football League, the Bulls of the National Basketball Association, the Fire of Major League Soccer, and the Blackhawks of the National Hockey League.

The Cubs last won a World Series in 1908, the White Sox in 1917. The Bears won the Super Bowl in 1985. The Bulls established a remarkable basketball dynasty fueled by the play of Michael Jordan, perhaps the best athlete in the history of basketball, winning National Basketball Association (NBA) championships in 1991, 1992, 1993, 1996, 1997, and 1998. They were the first basketball team to win three consecutive championships since the Boston Celtics set the probably unbreakable record of eight consecutive titles from 1959 to 1966. The Bulls' string of titles ended, however, as Jordan retired in 1999 and the title-winning team was dismantled. The Blackhawks won the Stanley Cup in 1934, 1938, and 1961. The state also has minor league baseball, basketball, and hockey teams.

The White Sox built a new ballpark, Comiskey Park, which opened in 1993. The Cubs play their home games at Wrigley Field, perhaps one of the most venerable parks because of its ivy-covered outfield walls. Horse racing is very popular in the state, with pari-

mutuel betting allowed. The Golden Glove Boxing Tournament is held annually in February in Chicago.

In collegiate sports, the emphasis is on basketball and football. The University of Illinois and Northwestern University compete in the Big Ten Conference. Illinois won the Rose Bowl in 1947, 1952, and 1964 and was named National Champion in 1923. In a remarkable revival of its football program, Northwestern won its first Big Ten title in 46 years in 1995. The Northwestern Wildcats played in the Rose Bowl for the first time since 1949, when they recorded their only victory in the New Year's Day game. Southern Illinois won the National Invitational Tournament in basketball in 1967. The DePaul Blue Demons of Conference USA consistently rank high among college basketball teams.

49 FAMOUS ILLINOISANS

Abraham Lincoln (b.Kentucky, 1809–65), 16th president of the United States, is the outstanding figure in Illinois history, having lived and built his political career in the state between 1830 and 1861. The only Illinois native to be elected president is Ronald Reagan (1911–2004), who left the state after graduating from Eureka College to pursue his film and political careers in California. Ulysses S. Grant (b.Ohio, 1822–85), the nation's 18th president, lived in Galena on the eve of the Civil War. Adlai E. Stevenson (b.Kentucky, 1835–1914), founder of a political dynasty, served as US vice president from 1893 to 1897, but was defeated for the same office in 1900. His grandson, also named Adlai E. Stevenson (b.California, 1900–65), served as governor of Illinois from 1949 to 1953, was the Democratic presidential nominee in 1952 and 1956, and ended his career as US ambassador to the United Nations. Charles Gates Dawes (b.Ohio, 1865–1951), a Chicago financier, served as vice president from 1925 to 1929 and shared the 1925 Nobel Peace Prize for the Dawes Plan to reorganize German finances. William Jennings Bryan (1860–1925), a leader of the free-silver and Populist movements, was the Democratic presidential nominee in 1896, 1900, and 1908.

US Supreme Court justices associated with Illinois include David Davis (b.Maryland, 1815–86); John M. Harlan (1899–1971); Chicago-born Arthur Goldberg (1908–90), who also served as US secretary of labor and succeeded Stevenson as UN ambassador; Harry A. Blackmun (1908–97); and John Paul Stevens (b.1920). Melville Fuller (b.Maine, 1833–1910) served as chief justice from 1888 to 1910.

Many other politicians who played important roles on the national scene drew their support from the people of Illinois. They include Stephen Douglas (b.Vermont, 1813–61), senator from 1847 to 1861, Democratic Party leader and 1860 presidential candidate, but equally famous as Lincoln's opponent in a series of debates on slavery in 1858; Lyman Trumbull (b.Connecticut, 1813–96), senator from 1855 to 1873 who helped secure passage of the 13th and 14th amendments to the US Constitution; Joseph "Uncle Joe" Cannon (b.North Carolina, 1836–1926), Republican congressman from Danville for half a century and autocratic Speaker of the House from 1903 to 1911; Henry Rainey (1860–1934), Democratic Speaker of the House during 1933–34; Everett McKinley Dirksen (1896–1969), senator and colorful Republican leader during the 1950s and 1960s; Charles H. Percy (b.Florida, 1919), Republican senator from 1967 to 1985; John B. Anderson (b.1922), Republican congressman for 20 years and an

independent presidential candidate in 1980; and Robert H. Michel (b.1923), House Republican leader in the 1980s.

Noteworthy governors of the state, in addition to Stevenson, were Richard Yates (b.Kentucky, 1815–73), who maintained Illinois's loyalty to the Union during the Civil War and Richard J. Daley (1902–76) was the Democratic boss and mayor of Chicago from 1955 to 1976.

Phyllis Schlafly (b.Missouri, 1924) of Alton became nationally known as an antifeminist conservative crusader during the 1970s. An outstanding Illinoisan was Jane Addams (1860–1935), founder of Hull House (1889), author, reformer, prohibitionist, feminist, and tireless worker for world peace; in 1931, she shared the Nobel Peace Prize. A Nobel award in literature went to Saul Bellow (b.Canada, 1915–2005), and the economics prize was given to Milton Friedman (b.New York, 1912), leader of the so-called Chicago School of economists, and to Theodore Schultz (b.South Dakota, 1902–98) in 1979.

Some of the most influential Illinoisans have been religious leaders; many of them also exercised social and political influence. Notable are Methodist circuit rider Peter Cartwright (b.Virginia, 1785–1872); Dwight Moody (b.Massachusetts, 1837–99), leading force in the National Women's Christian Temperance Union and the feminist cause; Mother Frances Xavier Cabrini (b.Italy, 1850–1917), the first American to be canonized; Bishop Fulton J. Sheen (1895–1979), influential spokesman for the Roman Catholic Church; Elijah Muhammad (Elijah Poole, b.Georgia, 1897–1975), leader of the Black Muslim movement; and Jesse Jackson (b.North Carolina, 1941), civil rights leader and one of the most prominent black spokesmen of the 1980s and 1990s.

Outstanding business and professional leaders who lived in Illinois include John Deere (b.Vermont, 1804–86), industrialist and inventor of the steel plow; Cyrus Hall McCormick (b.Virginia, 1809–84), inventor of the reaping machine; Nathan Davis (1817–1904), the "father of the American Medical Association"; railroad car inventor George Pullman (b.New York 1831–97); meatpacker Philip Armour (b.New York, 1832–1901); merchant Marshall Field (b.Massachusetts, 1834–1906); merchant Aaron Montgomery Ward (b.New Jersey, 1843–1913); sporting-goods manufacturer Albert G. Spalding (1850–1915); breakfast-food manufacturer Charles W. Post (1854–1911); William Rainey Harper (b.Ohio, 1856–1906), first president of the University of Chicago; and lawyer Clarence Darrow (b.Ohio, 1857–1938).

Artists who worked for significant periods in Illinois (usually in Chicago) include architects William Le Baron Jenney (b.Massachusetts, 1832–1907), Dankmar Adler (b.Germany, 1844–1900), Daniel H. Burnham (b.New York, 1846–1912), John Wellborn Root (b.Georgia, 1850–91), Louis Sullivan (b.Massachusetts, 1856–1924), Frank Lloyd Wright (b.Wisconsin, 1869–1959), and Ludwig Mies van der Rohe (b.Germany, 1886–1969).

Important writers include humorist Finley Peter Dunne (1867–1936), creator of the fictional saloonkeeper-philosopher Mr. Doolley, and novelists Hamlin Garland (b.Wisconsin, 1860–1940), Edgar Rice Burroughs (1875–1950), John Dos Passos (1896–1970), Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961), and James Farrell (1904–79).

Performing artists connected with the state include opera stars Mary Garden (b.Scotland, 1877–1967) and Sherrill Milnes (b.1935); clarinetist Benny Goodman (1909–86); pop singers Mel Torme (1925–99) and Grace Slick (b.1939); jazz musician Miles

Davis (b.1926–91); showmen Gower Champion (1921–80) and Robert Louis "Bob" Fosse (b.1927–87); comedians Jack Benny (Benjamin Kubelsky, 1894–1974), Harvey Korman (b.1927), Bob Newhart (b.1929), and Richard Pryor (1940–2005); and a long list of stage and screen stars, including Gloria Swanson (1899–1983), Ralph Bellamy (b.1904–91), Robert Young (1907–98), Karl Malden (Malden Sekulovich, b.1913), William Holden (1918–81), Jason Robards Jr. (1922–2000), Charlton Heston (b.1922), Rock Hudson (Roy Fitzgerald, 1925–85), Donald O'Connor (1925–2003), Bruce Dern (b.1936), and Raquel Welch (Raquel Tejada, b.1942).

Dominant figures in the Illinois sports world include Ernest "Ernie" Banks (b.Texas, 1931) of the Chicago Cubs; Robert "Bobby" Hull (b.Canada, 1939) of the Chicago Black Hawks; owner George Halas (1895–83); and running backs Harold Edward "Red" Grange (b.Pennsylvania, 1903–91), Gale Sayers (b.Kansas, 1943), and Walter Payton (b.Mississippi, 1954–99) of the Chicago Bears; and collegiate football coach Amos Alonzo Stagg (b.New Jersey, 1862–1965).

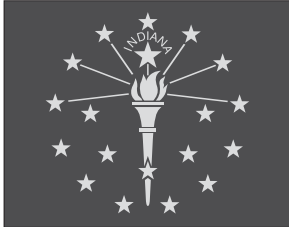
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INDIANA

State of Indiana



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named “land of Indians” for the many Indian tribes that formerly lived in the state. **NICKNAME:** The Hoosier State. **CAPITAL:** Indianapolis. **ENTERED UNION:** 11 December 1816 (19th). **SONG:** “On the Banks of the Wabash, Far Away.” **MOTTO:** The Crossroads of America. **FLAG:** A flaming torch representing liberty is surrounded by 19 gold stars against a blue background. The word “Indiana” is above the flame. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In a pioneer setting, a farmer fells a tree while a buffalo flees from the forest and across the prairie; in the background, the sun sets over distant hills. The words “Seal of the State of Indiana 1816” surround the scene. **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FLOWER:** Peony. **TREE:** Tulip poplar. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Primary Election Day, 1st Tuesday after 1st Monday in May in even-numbered years; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after 1st Monday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Lincoln’s Birthday, 12 February (observed the day after Thanksgiving); Christmas Day, 25 December; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February (observed the day after Christmas). **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT; 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the eastern north-central United States, Indiana is the smallest of the 12 midwestern states and ranks 38th in size among the 50 states.

Indiana’s total area is 36,185 sq mi (93,720 sq km), of which land takes up 35,932 sq mi (93,064 sq km) and water the remaining 253 sq mi (656 sq km). Shaped somewhat like a vertical quadrangle, with irregular borders on the s and w, the state extends about 160 mi (257 km) E–W and about 280 mi (451 km) N–S.

Indiana is bordered on the N by Michigan (with part of the line passing through Lake Michigan); on the E by Ohio; on the SE and S by Kentucky (the entire line formed by the north bank of the Ohio River); and on the W by Illinois (with the line in the SW demarcated by the Wabash River). The total boundary length of Indiana is 1,696 mi (2,729 km).

Indiana’s geographic center is located in Boone County, 14 mi (23 km) NNW of Indianapolis.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Indiana has two principal types of terrain: slightly rolling land in the northern half of the state and rugged hills in the southern half, extending to the Ohio River. The highest point in the state, a hill in Franklin Township (Wayne County), is 1,257 ft (383 m) above sea level; the lowest point, on the Ohio River, is 320 ft (98 m). The mean elevation is approximately 700 ft (214 m). The richest soil is in the north-central region, where the retreating glacier during the last Ice Age enriched the soil, scooped out lakes, and cut passageways for rivers.

Four-fifths of the state’s land is drained by the Wabash River, which flows westward across the north-central region and turns southward to empty into the Ohio, and by its tributaries, the

White, Eel, Mississinewa, and Tippecanoe rivers. The northern region is drained by the Maumee River, which flows into Lake Erie at Toledo, Ohio, and by the Kankakee River, which joins the Illinois River in Illinois. In the southwest, the two White River forks empty into the Wabash, and in the southeast, the Whitewater River flows into the Ohio.

In addition to Lake Michigan on the northwestern border, there are more than 400 lakes in the northern part of the state. The largest lakes include the Wawasee, Maxinkuckee, Freeman, and Shafer. There are mineral springs at French Lick and West Baden in Orange County and two large caves at Wyandotte and Marengo in adjoining Crawford County.

The underlying rock strata found in Indiana were formed from sediments deposited during the Paleozoic Era, when the land was submerged. About 400 million years ago, the first uplift of land, the Cincinnati arch, divided the Indiana region into two basins, a small one in the north and a large one in the southwest. The land was steadily elevated and at one time formed a lush swamp, which dried up some 200 million years ago when the climate cooled. During the Ice Ages, about five-sixths of the land lay under ice some 2,000 ft (600 m) thick. The retreat of the glacier more than 10,000 years ago left excellent topsoil and drainage conditions in Indiana.

³ CLIMATE

Temperatures vary from the extreme north to the extreme south of the state; the annual mean temperature is 49°F–58°F (9°C–12°C) in the north and 57°F (14°C) in the south. The annual average for Indianapolis is 53°F (11°C). Although Indiana sometimes has temperatures below 0°F (-18°C) during the winter, the average temperatures in January range between 17°F (-8°C) and 35°F (2°C). Average temperatures during July vary from 63°F (17°C) to 88°F

(31°C). The record high for the state was 116°F (47°C) set on 14 July 1936 at Collegeville, and the record low was -36°F (-38°C) on 19 January 1994 at New Whiteland.

The growing season averages 155 days in the north and 185 days in the south. Rainfall is distributed fairly evenly throughout the year, although drought sometimes occurs in the southern region. The average annual precipitation in the state is 40 in (102 cm), ranging from about 35 in (89 cm) near Lake Michigan to 45 in (114 cm) along the Ohio River; during 1971–2000, Indianapolis had an average of 41 in (104 cm) per year. The annual snowfall in Indiana averages less than 22 in (56 cm). Average wind speed in the state is 8 mph (13 km/h), but gales sometimes occur along the shores of Lake Michigan, and there are occasional tornadoes in the interior.

Parts of Indiana are prone to severe thunderstorms and tornadoes. On 6 November 2005, a tornado that swept through Evansville left 23 people dead.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Because the state has a relatively uniform climate, plant species are distributed fairly generally throughout Indiana. There are 124 native tree species, including 17 varieties of oak, as well as black walnut, sycamore, and tulip tree (yellow poplar), the state tree. Fruit trees—apple, cherry, peach, and pear—are common. Local indigenous species—now reduced because of industrialization and urbanization—include the persimmon, black gum, and southern cypress along the Ohio River; tamarack and bog willow in the northern marsh; and white pine, sassafras, and pawpaw near Lake Michigan. American elderberry and bittersweet are common shrubs, while various jack-in-the-pulpits and spring beauties are among the indigenous wild flowers. The peony is the state flower. As of April 2006, Mead's milkweed and Pitcher's thistle were considered threatened and running buffalo clover was considered endangered.

Although the presence of wolves and coyotes has been reported occasionally, the red fox is Indiana's only common carnivorous mammal. Other native mammals are the common cottontail, muskrat, raccoon, opossum, and several types of squirrel. Many waterfowl and marsh birds, including the black duck and great blue heron, inhabit northern Indiana, while the field sparrow, yellow warbler, and red-headed woodpecker nest in central Indiana. Various catfish, pike, bass, and sunfish are native to state waters.

The US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 21 Indiana animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered as of April 2006. Among these are the bald eagle, Indiana and gray bats, gray wolf, piping plover, and two species of butterfly.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

During the 19th century, early settlers cut down much of Indiana's forests for farms, leaving the land vulnerable to soil erosion and flood damage, particularly in the southern part of the state. In 1919, the legislature created the State Department of Conservation (which in 1965 became the Department of Natural Resources) to reclaim worn-out soil, prevent further erosion, and control the pollution of rivers and streams. In 1986, the Indiana Department of Environmental Management was initiated as a watchdog over the environmental laws and regulations designed to preserve the environmental well-being of the state. Still, almost 85% of In-

diana's original wetlands have been lost and, in 1997, it was estimated that the state continues to lose 1–3% of its remaining wetlands per year.

The Department of Natural Resources regulates the use of Indiana's lands, waters, forests, and wildlife resources. Specifically, the department manages land subject to flooding, preserves natural rivers and streams, grants mining permits and regulates strip-mining, plugs and repairs faulty/abandoned oil and gas wells, administers existing state parks and preserves and buys land for new ones, regulates hunting and fishing, and examines any damage to fish and wildlife by investigating industrial accidents. Also, the department is responsible for preventing soil erosion and flood damage and for conserving and disposing of water in the state's watersheds.

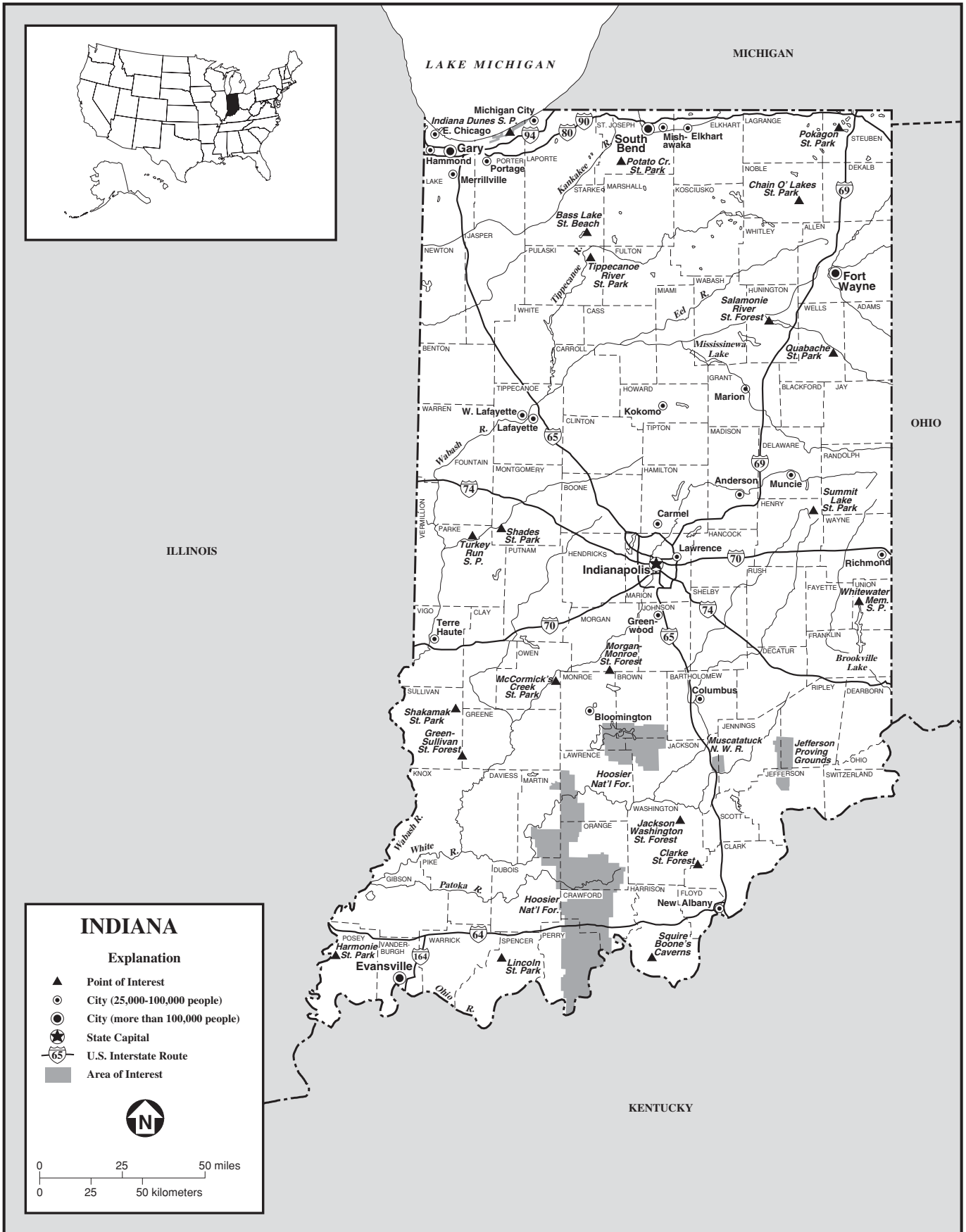
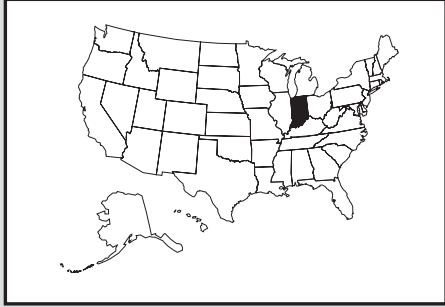
The Indiana Department of Environmental Management (IDEM) seeks to protect public health through the implementation and management of environmental programs. The focus of the environmental programs is to protect Indiana's air, land, and water resources, as the proper management of these resources contribute to the health and well-being of the citizens of Indiana. Prior to April 1986, these environmental programs were under the auspices of the State Board of Health (ISBH).

In addition to the IDEM and the Department of Natural Resources, the following boards exist to aid in environmental involvement: Air Pollution Control Board, Water Pollution Control Board, Pollution Prevention Control Board, and Solid Waste Management Board.

In 1990, Indiana lawmakers passed landmark legislation that created an Office of Pollution Prevention and Technical Assistance within IDEM. OPPTA's long-term goal is to ensure that all Indiana industries use pollution prevention techniques as the preferred method for reducing waste and protecting the environment. This policy, along with programs that encourage reuse and recycling and discourage landfilling and incineration, will help conserve natural resources.

In March 1990, Indiana's Water Pollution Control Board adopted some of the strictest water quality standards in the nation. The standards set criteria for more than 90 chemicals and designated almost all water bodies for protection of aquatic life and recreational use. These standards will help improve and protect the quality of water in Indiana's lakes, rivers, and streams.

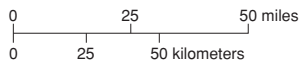
The IDEM devotes much attention to identifying, cleaning up, and remediating all forms of toxic contamination. On 31 January 1986, the agency gained federal delegation for the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA), which governs the generation, storage, treatment, transport, and disposal of all hazardous waste. Beyond the RCRA, the IDEM encourages companies to examine their production cycles and to adopt processes that won't create hazardous waste. The Department of Environmental Management offers technical assistance for the installation of pollution prevention equipment and encourages consumers to rethink their use and disposal of hazardous household goods and chemicals. When that waste is not properly handled and disposed of, expensive remediation is often required. In 2003, 234.8 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, the US Environment Protection Agency's (EPA) database listed 210 hazardous waste sites in Indiana, 29 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$8.8 million through



INDIANA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



Indiana—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Adams	Decatur	340	33,849	Madison	Anderson	453	130,412
Allen	Fort Wayne	659	344,006	Marion	Indianapolis	396	863,133
Bartholomew	Columbus	409	73,540	Marshall	Plymouth	444	46,945
Benton	Fowler	407	9,039	Martin	Shoals	339	10,386
Blackford	Hardford City	166	13,849	Miami	Peru	369	35,620
Boone	Lebanon	424	52,061	Monroe	Bloomington	385	121,407
Brown	Nashville	312	15,154	Montgomery	Crawfordsville	505	38,239
Carroll	Delphi	372	20,426	Morgan	Martinsville	409	69,778
Cass	Logansport	414	40,130	Newton	Kentland	401	14,456
Clark	Jeffersonville	376	101,592	Noble	Albion	413	47,448
Clay	Brazil	360	27,142	Ohio	Rising Sun	87	5,874
Clinton	Frankfort	405	34,091	Orange	Paoli	408	19,770
Crawford	English	307	11,216	Owen	Spencer	386	22,823
Daviess	Washington	432	30,466	Parke	Rockville	444	17,362
Dearborn	Lawrenceburg	307	49,082	Perry	Cannelton	481	19,032
Decatur	Greensburg	373	25,184	Pike	Petersburg	341	12,766
Dekalb	Auburn	364	41,659	Porter	Valparaiso	419	157,772
Delaware	Muncie	392	116,362	Posey	Mt. Vernon	410	26,852
Dubois	Jasper	429	40,858	Pulaski	Winamac	435	13,783
Elkhart	Goshen	466	195,362	Putnam	Greencastle	482	36,957
Fayette	Connersville	215	24,885	Randolph	Winchester	454	26,684
Floyd	New Albany	150	71,997	Ripley	Versailles	447	27,710
Fountain	Covington	398	17,462	Rush	Rushville	408	17,823
Franklin	Brookville	385	23,085	St. Joseph	South Bend	459	266,160
Fulton	Rochester	369	20,665	Scott	Scottsburg	192	23,820
Gibson	Princeton	490	33,408	Shelby	Shelbyville	412	43,766
Grant	Marion	415	70,557	Spencer	Rockport	400	20,528
Greene	Bloomfield	546	33,479	Starke	Knox	309	22,933
Hamilton	Noblesville	398	240,685	Steuben	Angola	308	33,773
Hancock	Greenfield	307	63,138	Sullivan	Sullivan	452	21,763
Harrison	Corydon	486	36,827	Switzerland	Vevay	224	9,718
Hendricks	Danville	409	127,483	Tippecanoe	Lafayette	502	153,875
Henry	New Castle	395	47,244	Tipton	Tipton	261	16,385
Howard	Kokomo	293	84,977	Union	Liberty	163	7,208
Huntington	Huntington	366	38,236	Vanderburgh	Evansville	236	173,187
Jackson	Brownstown	514	42,237	Vermillion	Newport	260	16,562
Jasper	Rensselaer	561	31,876	Vigo	Terre Haute	405	102,592
Jay	Portland	384	21,606	Wabash	Wabash	398	33,843
Jefferson	Madison	363	32,430	Warren	Williamsport	366	8,785
Jennings	Vernon	378	28,427	Warrick	Boonville	391	56,362
Johnson	Franklin	321	128,436	Washington	Salem	516	27,885
Knox	Vincennes	520	38,366	Wayne	Richmond	404	69,192
Kosciusko	Warsaw	540	76,072	Wells	Bluffton	370	28,085
Lagrange	Lagrange	380	36,875	White	Monticello	506	24,463
Lake	Crown Point	501	493,297	Whitley	Columbia City	336	32,323
Laporte	Laporte	600	110,512	TOTALS		36,036	6,271,973
Lawrence	Bedford	452	46,403				

the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. Also in 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$25.9 million for a wastewater revolving loan program and \$11.2 million for a drinking water revolving fund.

Since the IDEM was established in 1986, enforcement activity has increased fivefold. This is due, in part, to its unified Office of Enforcement, which consolidated enforcement staff who had been working separately in offices for air, solid waste, hazardous waste, and water. A key strategy in enforcement actions is to encourage violators to adopt pollution-prevention practices or restore environmental damage as part of their penalty.

Some of the state's most serious environmental challenges lie in Lake and Porter counties in northwest Indiana. A century of spills, emissions, and discharges to the environment there require comprehensive, regionally coordinated programs. In 1991, the IDEM opened a regional office in Gary to act as a liaison with local offi-

cial, concerned citizens, and industry. This office is helping drive the development of a comprehensive remediation plan, including the involvement of concerned citizens through the Citizen's Advisory for the Remediation of the Environment (CARE) committee. The Northwest Indiana Remedial Action Plan (RAP) is a three-phased program designed especially for the Grand Calumet River and the Indiana Harbor Ship Canal. Both waterways are heavily contaminated and, if left in their current state, would certainly degrade the waters of Lake Michigan, the primary source of drinking water for the northwest Indiana area. The RAP is a direct result of treaties of the International Joint Commission, a coalition formed to protect the waters between the United States and Canada.

The IDEM now offers expertise and approval for voluntary cleanup plans. When a voluntary cleanup is completed properly, the IDEM will issue a certificate of completion, and the governor will provide a covenant not to sue for further action involving the

damage revealed to the IDEM. This innovative program has led to many cleanups at virtually no cost to Indiana citizens.

6 POPULATION

Indiana ranked 15th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 6,271,973 in 2005, an increase of 3.1% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Indiana's population grew from 5,544,159 to 6,080,485, an increase of 9.7%. The population is projected to reach 6.5 million by 2015 and 6.7 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 173.9 persons per sq mi. In 2004, the median age was 35.7. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 25.7% of the population, while 12.4% was age 65 or older.

Although the French founded the first European settlement in Indiana in 1717, the census population was no more than 5,641 in 1800, when the Indiana Territory was established. Settlers flocked to the state during the territorial period, and the population rose to 24,520 by 1810. After Indiana became a state in 1816, its population grew even more rapidly, reaching 147,178 in 1820 and 988,416 in 1850. At the outbreak of the Civil War, Indiana had 1,350,428 inhabitants and ranked fifth in population among the states.

Indiana was relatively untouched by the great waves of European immigration that swept the United States from 1860 to 1880. In 1880, when the state's population was 1,978,301, Indiana had fewer foreign-born residents (about 7% of its population) than any other northern state. Indiana had doubled its population to 5,193,669 by the time of the 1970 Census.

Indianapolis, the capital and largest city, expanded its boundaries in 1970 to coincide with those of Marion County, thereby increasing its area to 388 sq mi (1,005 sq km) and its population by some 50% (the city and county limits also include four self-governing communities). The estimated population was 784,242 in 2004; the Indianapolis metropolitan area had an estimated population of 1,621,613. Other cities with 2004 populations estimated at more than 100,000 were Fort Wayne, 219,351; Evansville, 117,156; and South Bend, 105,494. All of these cities suffered population declines in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Originally an agricultural state, Indiana was settled by Native Americans moving west, by a small group of French Creoles, and by European immigrant farmers. Although railroad building and industrialization attracted other immigrant groups—notably the Irish, Hungarians, Italians, Poles, Croats, Slovaks, and Syrians—foreign immigration to Indiana declined sharply in the 20th century, although there was a rebound in the final decade. As of 2000, foreign-born Hoosiers numbered 186,534 (3% of the total state population), nearly double the figure of 94,263 in 1990.

Restrictions on foreign immigration and the availability of jobs spurred the migration of black Americans to Indiana after World War I; by 2000, the state had 510,034 blacks, representing about 8.4% of the total population. Approximately one-fifth of all Indiana blacks live in the industrial city of Gary. In 2004, 8.8% of the population was black.

In 2000, approximately 3.5% (214,536) of Indiana's population was of Hispanic or Latino origin, up sharply from 1.8% (99,000) in 1990. Hispanics and Latinos accounted for 4.3% of the population in 2004. The Asian population was estimated at 59,126 in 2000,

including 14,685 Asian Indians (up from 6,093 in 1990), 12,531 Chinese (6,128 in 1990), 6,674 Filipinos, 7,502 Koreans, 5,065 Japanese, and 4,843 Vietnamese (2,420 in 1990). Pacific Islanders numbered 2,005. In 2004, 1.2% of the population was Asian, and the Pacific Islander population was negligible.

The natives of early-19th-century Indiana came from a variety of Algonkian-speaking tribes, including Delaware, Shawnee, and Potawatomi. By 1846, however, all Indian lands in the state had been seized or ceded, and most Native Americans had been removed. In 2000, there were 15,815 Native Americans. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was composed of Native Americans.

8 LANGUAGES

Several Algonkian Indian tribes, including some from the east, met the white settlers who arrived in Indiana in the early 1800s. The heritage of the Delaware, Potawatomi, Miami, and other groups survives in many place-names, from Kokomo to Nappanee, Muncie, and Shipshewana.

In 2000, 93.5% of all Hoosiers five years old and older spoke only English at home, down from 95.2% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	5,657,818	100.0
Speak only English	5,295,736	93.6
Speak a language other than English	362,082	6.4
Speak a language other than English	362,082	6.4
Spanish or Spanish Creole	185,576	3.3
German	44,142	0.8
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	18,065	0.3
Other West Germanic languages	15,706	0.3
Chinese	9,912	0.2
Polish	7,831	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	5,843	0.1
Japanese	5,339	0.1
Arabic	5,338	0.1
Other Slavic languages	5,129	0.1
Korean	5,032	0.1
Italian	4,798	0.1
Vietnamese	4,746	0.1
Greek	4,233	0.1
Tagalog	4,016	0.1

Except for the dialect mixture in the industrial northwest corner and the Northern-dialect fringe of counties along the Michigan border, Indiana speech is essentially that of the South Midland pioneers from south of the Ohio River, with a transition zone toward North Midland, north of Indianapolis. Between the Ohio River and Indianapolis, South Midland speakers use evening for late afternoon, eat *clabber cheese* instead of cottage cheese, are wary of *frogstools* rather than toadstools, once held that *toadfrogs* and not plain toads caused warts, eat *goobers* instead of peanuts at a ball game, and may therefore be *sick at the stomach*. In the same region, some Hoosiers use a few Midland words that also occur north of Indianapolis, such as *rock fence* (stone wall), *French harp* (harmonica), *mud dauber* (wasp), *shucks* (leaves on an ear of corn), and perhaps even some expanding North Midland words, such as *run* (a small stream), *teetertotter* (seesaw), and *fishworm*. North of Indianapolis, speakers with a Midland Pennsylvania background

wish on the *pullybone* of a chicken, may use a *trestle* (sawhorse), and are likely to get their hands *greezy* rather than *greasy*. Such was the Hoosier talk of James Whitcomb Riley.

9 RELIGIONS

The first branch of Christianity to gain a foothold in Indiana was Roman Catholicism, introduced by the French settlers in the early 18th century. The first Protestant church was founded near Charlestown by Baptists from Kentucky in 1798. Three years later, a Methodist church was organized at Springville; in 1806, Presbyterians established a church near Vincennes; and the following year, Quakers built their first meetinghouse at Richmond. The Disciples of Christ, Lutherans, the United Brethren, Mennonites, and Jews were among the later 19th-century arrivals.

A dissident religious sect, the Shakers, established a short-lived community in Sullivan County in 1808. In 1815, some German separatists led by George Rapp founded a community called the Harmonie Society, which flourished briefly. Rapp moved his followers to Pennsylvania and sold the town to a Scottish social reformer, Robert Owen, in 1825. Owen renamed the town New Harmony and tried to establish a nonreligious utopia there, but the experiment failed after three years. A group of religious dissidents founded the Pentecostal Church of God at Beaver Dam in 1881; the world headquarters of the church, which had 101,921 adherents nationwide in 2000, is now at Anderson. The Youth for Christ movement started in Indianapolis in 1943.

The Roman Catholic Church is the largest single denomination, with about 765,699 adherents in 2004. One of the largest Protestant denominations is the United Methodist Church, which had about 212,667 members in 2004. Others (with 2000 membership data) include the Church of Christ (205,408 adherents), the Southern Baptist Convention (124,452), the American Baptist Church (115,101), and the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod (111,522). The Southern Baptist Convention reported 3,769 newly baptized members in the state in 2002. The estimated Jewish population of the state in 2000 was 18,000, down from 20,314 members in 1990. The Muslim community had about 11,000 members in 2000. There were also over 17,000 Mennonites and over 19,000 members of Amish communities statewide. About 57% of the population (over 3.4 million people) was not counted as part of any religious organization.

Indianapolis services as a home base for several religious organizations, including the Christian Fellowship International, the international headquarters of the Pentecostal Assemblies of the World, Inc., and the Office of the General Minister and President of the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ), as well as several other offices of this denomination.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Indiana's central location in the United States and its position between Lake Michigan to the north and the Ohio River to the south gave the state its motto, "The Crossroads of America." Historically, the state took advantage of its strategic location by digging canals to connect Indiana rivers and by building roads and railroads to provide farmers access to national markets.

The success of the state's first railroad, completed in 1847 between Madison and Indianapolis, led to a tenfold increase in track mileage during the 1850s, and more railroad expansion took place

after the Civil War. In 2003, there were 37 railroads operating on 5,136 rail mi (8,269 km) of track, of which the state's five Class I railroads operated 3,828 route mi (6,163 km) of track. As of 2006, regularly scheduled Amtrak passenger trains served Indianapolis, Hammond/Whiting, South Bend, and seven other stations in the state. Indianapolis and other major cities have public transit systems that are subsidized heavily by the state and federal governments. The South Shore commuter railroad connects South Bend, Gary, and East Chicago with Chicago, Illinois.

The east–west National Road (US 40) reached Indiana in 1827, and the north–south Michigan Road (US 421) was built in the late 1830s. In 2003, there were 94,597 mi (152,301 km) of public roads of all types in the state. In 2004, motor vehicle registrations totaled around 5.587 million, including 3.043 million passenger cars and 2.382 million trucks of all types. Several of the nation's largest moving companies have their headquarters in Indiana.

Water transportation has been important from the earliest years of European settlement. The Wabash and Erie Canal, constructed in the 1830s from Fort Wayne east to Toledo, Ohio, and southwest to Lafayette, was vital to the state's market economy. In 1836, the state legislature earmarked \$10 million for an ambitious network of canals, but excessive construction costs and the financial panic of 1837 caused the state to go virtually bankrupt and default on its bonds. Nevertheless, the Wabash Canal was extended to Terre Haute and Evansville by the early 1850s.

The transport of freight via Lake Michigan and the Ohio River helped to spark Indiana's industrial development. A deepwater port on Lake Michigan, which became operational in 1970, provided access to world markets via the St. Lawrence Seaway. Indiana Harbor handled 18.228 million tons of goods in 2004, making it the 40th-busiest port in the United States, while the tonnage at the port of Gary totaled 8.531 million tons that same year. In 2004, Indiana had 353 mi (586 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 68.059 million tons.

In 2005, Indiana had a total of 629 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 492 airports, 121 heliports, 3 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 13 seaplane bases. Indianapolis International Airport is the state's main airport. In 2004, it handled 3,992,097 enplanements, making it the 45th-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

When the first human beings inhabited Indiana is not known. Hundreds of sites used by primitive hunters, fishermen, and food gatherers before 1000 BC have been found in Indiana. Burial mounds of the Woodland culture (1000 BC to AD 900), when the bow and arrow appeared, have been located across the state. The next culture, called Mississippian and dating about AD 900 to 1500, is marked by gardens, ceramics, tools, weapons, trade, and social organization. It is well illustrated by remains of an extensive village on the north side of the Ohio River near Newburgh. The unidentified inhabitants are believed to have come up from the south about 1300, for reasons not known, and to have migrated back before 1500, again for unknown reasons.

The next Indian invaders, and the first to be seen by white men, were the Miami and Potawatomi tribes that drifted down the west side of Lake Michigan and turned across the northern sector of what is now Indiana after the middle of the 17th century. The

Kickapoo and Wea tribes pushed into upper Indiana from northern Illinois. The southern two-thirds of the present state was a vast hunting ground, without villages.

The first European penetration was made in the 1670s by the French explorers Father Jacques Marquette and René-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle. After the founding of Detroit in 1701, the Maumee-Wabash river route to the lower Ohio was discovered. At the portage between the two rivers, Jean Baptiste Bissot, Sieur de Vincennes, lived at Kekionga, the principal village of the Miami and the present site of Fort Wayne. The first French fort was built farther down the Wabash among the Wea, near modern Lafayette, in 1717. Three years later, Fort Miami was erected. Vincennes's son constructed another fort on the Wabash in 1732, at the site of the town later named for him.

English traders venturing down the Ohio River disputed the French trade monopoly, and as a result of the French and Indian War, French Canada was given up to the British in 1760. Indians under Chief Pontiac captured the two forts in northern Indiana, and the area was not securely in English hands until 1765. The prerevolutionary turbulence in the Atlantic seaboard colonies was hardly felt in Indiana, although the region did not escape the Revolutionary War itself. Colonel George Rogers Clark, acting for Virginia, captured Vincennes from a British garrison early in 1779 after a heroic march. Two years later, a detachment of 108 Pennsylvanians, passing down the Ohio to reinforce Clark, was surprised by a force of French Canadians and Indians under Mohawk Captain Joseph Brant; most of the Pennsylvanians were killed during the battle or after capture.

Following the Revolutionary War, the area northwest of the Ohio River was granted to the new nation; known as the Northwest Territory, it included present-day Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota. The first US settlement in Indiana was made in 1784 on land opposite Louisville, Kentucky, granted to Clark's veterans by Virginia. (The new town, called Clarksville, still exists.) Americans also moved into Vincennes. Government was established by the Continental Congress under the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. Again, Indiana unrest endangered all settlements north of the Ohio, and the small US Army, with headquarters at Cincinnati, met defeat at what is now Fort Wayne in 1790 and disaster in neighboring Ohio in 1791. General Anthony Wayne was put in command of an enlarged army and defeated the Indians in 1794 at Fallen Timbers (near Toledo, Ohio). British meddling was ended by Jay's Treaty later the same year. Wayne then built a new fort—named for him—among the Miami.

In 1800, as Ohio prepared to enter the Union, the rest of the Northwest Territory was set off and called the Indiana Territory, with its capital at Vincennes. There, Elihu Stout established a newspaper, the *Indiana Gazette*, in 1804. After the Michigan Territory was detached in 1805 and the Illinois Territory in 1809, Indiana assumed its present boundaries. The federal census counted 24,520 people in Indiana in 1810, including a new Swiss colony on the Ohio, where settlers planted vineyards and made wine.

William Henry Harrison was appointed the first governor and, with a secretary and three appointed judges, constituted the government of the Indiana Territory. Under the Northwest Ordinance, when the population reached 5,000 adult males, it was allowed to elect an assembly and nominate candidates for an upper

house. When the population totaled 60,000—as it did in 1815—the voters were allowed to write a state constitution and apply for admission to the Union. A short constitution excluding slavery and recommending public schools was adopted, and Indiana became the 19th state on 11 December 1816.

Meanwhile, Indiana had seen Governor Harrison lead US troops up the Wabash in 1811 and beat off an Indian attack at Tippecanoe. The War of 1812 took Harrison away from Indiana, and battles were fought in other theaters. Hoosiers suffered Indian raids, and two forts were besieged for a few days. After the war, new settlers began pouring into the state from the upper South and in fewer numbers from Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and New England. A group of German Pietists led by George Rapp settled Harmonie on the lower Wabash in 1815 and stayed 10 years before selling out to Robert Owen, a visionary with utopian dreams that failed at the village he renamed New Harmony. In 1816, Tom Lincoln brought his family from Kentucky, and his son Abe grew up in southern Indiana from age 7 to 21.

Unlike most other states, Indiana was settled from south to north. The inhabitants were called Hoosiers; the origin of the word is obscure, but the term may have come from an Anglo-Saxon word for hill dwellers. Central and northern Indiana were opened up as land was purchased from the Indians. The Potawatomi were forced to go west in 1838, and the Miami left in 1846. Commerce flowed south to the Ohio River in the form of corn, hogs, whiskey, and timber. Indianapolis was laid out as a planned city and centrally located capital in 1820, but 30 years passed before its population caught up to the size of Madison and New Albany on the Ohio.

An overambitious program of internal improvements (canals and roads) in the 1830s plunged the state into debts it could not pay. Railroads, privately financed, began to tie Indiana commercially with the east. The Irish came to dig canals and lay the rails, and Germans, many of them Catholics, came to do woodworking and farming. Levi Coffin, a Quaker who moved to Fountain City in 1826, opened a different kind of road, the Underground Railroad, to help escaping slaves from the South.

A new constitution in 1851 showed Jacksonian preferences for more elective offices, shorter terms, a one-term governorship, limited biennial legislative sessions, county government, obligatory common schools, and severe limits on state debt. But this constitution also prohibited blacks from entering the state.

Hoosiers showed considerable sympathy with the South in the 1850s, and there was considerable “copperhead” activity in the early 1860s. Nevertheless, Indiana remained staunchly in the Union under Governor Oliver P. Morton, sending some 200,000 soldiers to the Civil War. The state suffered no battles, but General John Hunt Morgan's Confederate cavalry raided the southeastern sector of Indiana in July 1863.

After the Civil War, small local industries expanded rapidly. The first nonfarm enterprises were gristmills, sawmills, meat-packing plants, distilleries and breweries, leatherworking shops, furniture factories, and steamboat and carriage makers. Wagons made by Studebaker in South Bend won fame during the war, as did Van Camp's canned pork and beans from Indianapolis. Discovery of natural gas in several northeastern counties in 1886, and the resultant low fuel prices, spurred the growth of glass factories. Elwood Haynes of Kokomo designed a one-cylinder horseless carriage in

1894 and drove it. As America became infatuated with the new autos, 375 Indiana factories started turning them out. A racetrack for testing cars was built outside Indianapolis in 1908, and the famous 500-mi (805-km) race on Memorial Day weekend began in 1911. Five years earlier, US Steel had constructed a steel plant at the south end of Lake Michigan. The town built by the company to house the workers was called Gary, and it grew rapidly with the help of the company and the onset of World War I. Oil refineries were developed in the same area, known as the Calumet region.

Of the millions of immigrants who flocked to the United States from 1870 to 1914, very few settled in Indiana. The percentage of foreign-born residents declined from 9% in 1860 to 7% in 1880, all of them from northern Europe and over half from Germany. By 1920, the percentage was down to 5%, although some workers from southern and eastern Europe had gravitated to the industries of the Calumet.

Although many Hoosiers of German and Irish descent favored neutrality when World War I began, Indiana industries eventually boomed with war orders, and public sympathy swung heavily toward the Allies. Indiana furnished 118,000 men and women to the armed forces and suffered the loss of 3,370—a much smaller participation than during the Civil War, from a population more than twice the size.

After 1920, only about a dozen makes of cars were still being manufactured in Indiana, and those factories steadily lost out to the Big Three car makers in Detroit. The exception was Studebaker in South Bend, which grew to more than 23,000 employees during World War II. The company finally closed its doors in 1965. Auto parts continued to be a big business, however, along with steel-making and oil refining in the Calumet region. Elsewhere, there was manufacturing of machinery, farm implements, railway cars, furniture, and pharmaceuticals. Meat packing, coal mining, and limestone quarrying continued to be important. With increasing industrialization, cities grew, particularly in the northern half of the state, and the number of farms diminished. The balance of rural and urban population, about even in 1920, tilted in favor of urban dwellers.

World War II had a greater impact on Indiana than did World War I. Most factories converted to production of war materials; 300 held defense orders in 1942. Du Pont built a huge powder plant near Charlestown. The slack in employment was taken up, women went into factories, more rural families moved to cities, and military training facilities were created. The enormous Jefferson Proving Ground tested ammunition and parachutes.

After the war, many small local industries were taken over by national corporations, and their plants were expanded. By 1984, the largest employer in Indiana was General Motors, with 47,800 employees in six cities. Inland Steel, with 18,500 workers, was second, followed by US Steel with 13,800 workers. Although the state's population in the mid-1980s was about two-thirds urban and one-third rural, agriculture retained much of its importance.

Nostalgia for an older, simpler, rural way of life has pervaded much Hoosier thinking. The shoreline area of industrial Gary notwithstanding (although it, too, was the subject of cleanups during the 1990s), Indiana stands high in conservation, owing to the vision of Richard Lieber, a state official who from 1933 to 1944 promoted the preservation of land for state parks and recreational areas, as well as for state and federal forests.

The percentage of registered voters in Indiana who participate in elections has generally exceeded the national average by a wide margin. The evenness of strength between the two major political parties during much of its history made Indiana a swing state, eagerly courted by Democrats and Republicans alike. However, by the 21st century, Indiana had become one of the safest Republican states in the nation, seen as one of the most conservative states outside of the Deep South. In 1967, Democrat Richard Hatcher became one of the nation's first African Americans to serve as head of a major city when he was elected mayor of Gary. In 1988, Indiana native son J. Danforth Quayle, then a US senator, was elected vice president of the United States on the Republican ticket with George H. W. Bush.

The state legislature was dominated by rural interests until reapportionment in 1966 gave urban counties more representation. Biennial sessions were then changed to annual, although they are still limited in duration. The direct primary for nomination of governor, lieutenant governor, and US senator was mandated in 1975.

In the early 1980s, Indiana, along with other manufacturing-intensive states, suffered a recession that was compounded by declining farm prices and high operating costs for farmers. Later in the decade, the state's economy improved with the expansion of service industries, which continued through the 1990s. While the state's unemployment rate of 3% in 1999 was below the national average, median income and per capita income levels ranked in the mid-ranges nationally, owing in part to the state's agricultural and manufacturing character. Indiana's business leaders remained concerned in 2000 that Indiana had not attracted enough high-tech companies and that the state's economy was too reliant on the "old economy" manufacturing sector, causing many to worry about the consequences of a downturn. At the same time, the Indianapolis area lost several high-profile corporate headquarters.

In October 1999, for the first time in its 183-year history, the state named an African American, Justice Robert D. Rucker, to the Indiana Supreme Court. Governor Frank O'Bannon's appointment won praises from the legal community.

In 2002, the US Supreme Court let stand a 2001 federal appeals court ruling (*Indiana Civil Liberties Union v. O'Bannon*) that a proposed 7-ft stone monument of the Ten Commandments, Bill of Rights, and preamble to the 1851 Indiana constitution on state capitol grounds violated the establishment clause of the First Amendment.

As of January 2003, Indiana had a \$300 million budget deficit—like more than half of the 50 states that year that had budget shortfalls. In the struggle to come up with a two-year budget, Republican legislators squared off against Democratic governor O'Bannon on issues such as funding Medicaid and education. However, on 8 September 2003, Governor O'Bannon suffered a massive stroke while attending a conference in Chicago; he died on 13 September. He was succeeded by Lieutenant Governor Joe Kernan. In November 2004, Kernan lost the governorship to Republican Mitch Daniels Jr., who had been President George W. Bush's director of the Office of Management and Budget (OMB). Upon coming to office in 2005, Daniels, who is a first generation Arab American, called for strict controls on all state spending increases as a way to improve the state's fiscal situation—the budget being some \$700 million out of balance. Daniels also called for

a one-time, one-year tax increase of 1% on all Hoosiers making more than \$100,000 per year. The measure was seen to be out of character for a conservative who had kept a tight rein on spending while at the OMB.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The first state constitution took effect when Indiana became a state in 1816. Reportedly written by convention delegates beneath a huge elm tree in Corydon, the first state capital, the brief document prohibited slavery and recommended a free public school system, including a state university.

This constitution did not allow for amendment, however, and a new constitution that did so was adopted in 1851. The second constitution authorized more elective state officials, gave greater responsibility to county governments, and prohibited the state from going into debt (except under rare circumstances). It also established biennial rather than annual sessions of the state legislature, a provision that was not repealed until 1971. With amendments (46 as of January 2005), the second constitution is still in effect today.

The Indiana General Assembly consists of a 50-member Senate elected to four-year terms, with half the senators elected every two years, and a 100-member House of Representatives elected to two-year terms. Legislators now meet in annual sessions, beginning the second Monday of January and lasting no longer than 61 legislative days during odd-numbered years (or not past April 30) and no longer than 30 legislative days in even-numbered years (or not past March 15). Members of the General Assembly must be US citizens and have been a resident of Indiana for at least two years and a resident of their district for at least one year. A senator must be at least 25 years old, a representative at least 21 years old. Senators and representatives are paid the same base salary and allowances; legislative leaders receive additional compensation. The legislative salary was \$11,600 in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

The state's chief executive is the governor, elected to a four-year term and eligible for reelection, although ineligible to serve more than eight years in a twelve-year period. The governor must be at least 30 years old, a US citizen for at least five years, and a state resident for five years prior to election. Only the governor may call special sessions of the legislature (limited to 30 legislative days or 40 calendar days). The governor may veto bills passed by the legislature, but his or her veto can be overridden by a majority vote of the elected members in each house. If a bill is left unsigned for seven days (whether or not the legislature is in session), it becomes law. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$95,000.

Indiana's other top elected officials are the lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, comptroller, attorney general, and superintendent of public instruction. Each is elected to a four-year term. The lieutenant governor, elected jointly with the governor, is constitutionally empowered to preside over the state Senate and to act as governor if the office should become vacant or the incumbent is unable to discharge his or her duties.

Legislation may be introduced in either house of the General Assembly, although bills for raising revenue must originate in the House of Representatives. A bill approved by both houses goes to the governor for signing into law; if the governor declines to sign it within seven days, the bill becomes law, but if the governor vetoes it, majorities of at least 26 votes in the Senate and 51 votes in

the House are required to override the veto. Should the governor veto a bill after the end of a legislative session, it must be returned to the legislature when that body reconvenes.

A proposed amendment to the state constitution must be approved by a majority vote in two successive legislative sessions and be submitted to the voters for approval or rejection at the next general election.

In order to vote in Indiana, a person must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a resident of the voting precinct for 30 days before the next election. Those jailed for criminal convictions may not vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Democratic Party has been one of the two major political parties since Indiana became a state in 1816, as has the Republican Party since its inception in 1854. In that year, Hoosiers voted for Democrat James Buchanan for president, but in 1860, the voters supported Republican Abraham Lincoln. After voting Republican in four successive presidential elections, Indiana voted Democratic in 1876 and became a swing state. More recently, a Republican trend has been evident: The state voted Republican in 15 out of 16 presidential elections between 1940 and 2000.

Third-party movements have rarely succeeded in Indiana. Native son Eugene V. Debs, the Socialist Party leader who was personally popular in Indiana, received only 36,931 votes in the state in 1912 while garnering more than 900,000 votes nationally. Even in 1932, during the Great Depression, Socialist candidate Norman Thomas won only 21,388 votes in Indiana. The most successful third-party movement in recent decades was George Wallace's American Independent Party, which took 243,108 votes (11.5% of the Indiana total) in 1968. In each of the four presidential elections of the 1970s and early 1980s, minority party candidates together received only 1.1% or less of the votes cast.

In 2000, Indiana gave 57% of the vote to Republican George W. Bush and 41% to Democrat Al Gore. In 2004, Bush increased his margin to 60% of the vote over Democrat John Kerry, who won 39%. In 1996, Democrat Frank L. O'Bannon was voted in to succeed two-term Democratic governor Evan Bayh; O'Bannon was reelected in 2000. However, O'Bannon suffered a massive stroke in September 2003, and Lieutenant Governor Joseph E. Kernan became governor when O'Bannon died. Kernan was defeated by Republican Mitch Daniels in 2004. Republican Richard Lugar won election to his fifth term in the US Senate in 2000. The other Senate seat, which again went to the Republicans in the 1992 election, was surrendered to the Democrats in 1998 when Bayh was voted in; he won reelection in 2004.

Indiana's delegation to the US House of Representatives following the 2004 elections included two Democrats and seven Republicans. In mid-2005, the state Senate had 33 Republicans and 17 Democrats. The state House had 52 Republicans and 48 Democrats. In 2004, there were 4,009,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had 11 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a loss of 1 vote over the 2000 election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 1816, when Indians controlled central and northern Indiana, the state had only 15 counties. By 1824, the number of counties had grown to 49. As of 2005, there were 92 counties.

Counties in Indiana have traditionally provided law enforcement in rural areas, operated county courts and institutions, maintained county roads, administered public welfare programs, and collected taxes. Under a home-rule law enacted by the state in 1980, they also have "all the power they need for the effective operation of government as to local affairs" or, in effect, all powers not specifically reserved by the state. In 1984, counties were given the power to impose local income taxes.

The county's business is conducted by a board of county commissioners, consisting of three members elected to four-year terms. Nine officials who are also elected to four-year terms exercise executive functions: the county auditor, treasurer, recorder, clerk, surveyor, sheriff, prosecuting attorney, coroner, and assessor. The county's appointed officials include the county superintendent of schools, highway supervisor, highway engineer, extension agent, attorney, and physician. An elected seven-member county council exercises taxing power and acts as a check on the board of county commissioners. The major exception to this general pattern is Marion County, which in 1970 was consolidated with the city of Indianapolis and is governed by an elected mayor and council.

Townships (1,008 in 2002) provide assistance for the poor and assess taxable property. Each township is administered by a trustee who is elected to a four-year term. In a few townships, the trustee oversees township schools, but most public schools are run by community school corporations.

Indiana's municipal governments (567 in 2005) are governed by elected city councils. City officials, including the mayor and city clerk, are generally elected for four-year terms. Indianapolis and Marion County were consolidated in 1969.

In 2005, Indiana had 295 public school districts and 1,125 special districts.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 239,827 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Indiana operates under state statute; the homeland security director oversees homeland security in the state.

In 1974, Indiana's state legislature created the State Ethics and Conflicts of Interest Commission to formulate and regulate a code of ethics for state officials. The state ethics commissioner investigates reported cases of misconduct or violations of the code of ethics by any state official or employee. After holding hearings, the commission reports violations to the governor and makes its findings public. Top-level state officials and heads of state departments must provide statements of their financial interests to the commission.

In 1977, the state established an interdepartmental board for the coordination of human service programs. Members include the chief administrative officers of state agencies for senior citizens and community services, mental health, health, corrections, and public welfare. The Family and Social Services Administration provides assistance to persons and families requiring help from one of these agencies and monitors federal service programs in the state.

Indiana Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTES	INDIANA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	PROHIBITION
1948	13	Dewey (R)	807,833	821,079	9,649	14,711
1952	13	*Eisenhower (R)	801,530	1,136,259	1,222	15,335
1956	13	*Eisenhower (R)	783,908	1,182,811	—	6,554
1960	13	*Nixon (R)	952,358	1,175,120	—	6,746
1964	13	*Johnson (D)	1,170,848	911,118	—	8,266
					AMERICAN IND.	
1968	13	*Nixon (R)	806,659	1,067,885	243,108	4,616
					PEOPLE'S	SOC. WORKERS
1972	13	*Nixon (R)	708,568	1,405,154	4,544	5,575
					AMERICAN	
1976	13	Ford (R)	1,014,714	1,185,958	14,048	5,695
					CITIZENS	LIBERTARIAN
1980	13	*Reagan (R)	844,197	1,255,656	4,852	19,627
1984	12	*Reagan (R)	841,481	1,377,230	—	6,741
					NEW ALLIANCE	
1988	12	*Bush (R)	860,643	1,297,763	10,215	—
					IND. (Perot)	
1992	12	Bush (R)	848,420	989,375	455,934	7,936
1996	12	Dole (R)	887,424	1,006,693	224,299	15,632
					(Buchanan)	
2000**	12	*Bush, G. W. (R)	901,980	1,245,836	16,959	15,530
					WRITE-IN (Nader)	
2004	11	*Bush, G. W. (R)	969,011	1,479,438	1,328	18,058

*Won US presidential election.

**WRITE-IN candidate Ralph Nader received 18,531 votes in 2000.

Educational services are provided by the Department of Education and the Commission on Proprietary Education, which accredits private vocational, technical, and trade schools in the state. Health services are supplied by the Department of Health and emergency medical services commission. Disabled citizens are assisted by the Governor's Planning Council for People with Disabilities. The Civil Rights Commission enforces state antidiscrimination laws. The Department of Transportation is responsible for transportation services, and the Department of Veteran Affairs caters to the needs of veterans.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Indiana Supreme Court consists of five justices who are appointed by the governor from names submitted by a nonpartisan judicial nominating committee. To qualify for selection, a nominee must have practiced law in the state for at least 10 years or have served as judge of a lower court for at least five years. A justice serves for two years and then is subject to approval by referendum in the general election. If approved by the voters, the justice serves a 10-year term before again being subject to referendum. The chief justice of the Indiana Supreme Court is chosen by the nominating commission and serves a five-year term.

The Indiana State Court of Appeals consists of 15 justices who serve 10-year terms. The court exercises appellate jurisdiction under rules set by the Indiana Supreme Court. Both the clerk and the reporter for the state's high courts are chosen in statewide elections for four-year terms.

Superior courts, probate courts, and circuit courts all function as general trial courts and are presided over by 279 judges who serve terms of six years. When the justice of the peace system in the counties was abolished by the state legislature in 1976, small-claims dockets (civil cases involving up to \$1,500) were added to circuit and county courts.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 24,008 prisoners were held in Indiana's state and federal prisons, an increase from 23,069 or 4.1% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,892 inmates were female, up from 1,758 or 7.6% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Indiana had an incarceration rate of 383 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Indiana had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 325.4 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 20,294 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 211,929 reported incidents or 3,397.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Indiana has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state executed 17 persons, of which five were executed in 2005 and one in 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, Indiana had 26 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Indiana spent \$110,288,354 on homeland security, an average of \$18 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

US defense installations in Indiana had 1,131 active duty military personnel, 9,877 Reserve and National Guard personnel, and 4,169 civilian personnel in 2004. Army installations include the Jeffer-

son Proving Ground. Grissom Air Force Base, which had been the state's only Air Force base, was closed in 1994. The Navy operates a weapons support center at Crane. Within the state \$3.1 billion in prime defense contracts were awarded in fiscal year 2004, and there was another \$1.2 billion in defense payroll spending.

Indiana supported the Union during the Civil War; about 200,000 Hoosiers served in Northern armies, and some 24,400 died while in service. During World War I, a Hoosier reportedly was the first American soldier to fire a shot, and the first American soldier killed was from Indiana; in all, about 118,000 Indiana citizens served and 3,370 lost their lives. In World War II, about 338,000 Hoosiers served in the armed forces, and some 10,000 died in line of duty. There were 550,871 veterans of US military service in Indiana as of 2003, of whom 74,109 served in World War II; 62,481 in the Korean conflict; 169,679 during the Vietnam era; and 79,307 in the Gulf War. After World War II, the state paid a bonus to veterans for the first time; in fiscal year 2004, veterans' expenditures in Indiana totaled \$1.0 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Indiana State Police employed 1,155 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Indiana's early settlers were predominantly northern Europeans who migrated from eastern and southern states. The influx of immigrants to the United States in the late 19th and early 20th centuries had little impact on Indiana. In 1860, only 9% of the state's population was foreignborn, mostly Germans and Irish. The percentage was only 5.6% in 1900 and further declined to 5.2% by 1920 and to just 1.7% by 1990. The principal migratory pattern since 1920 has been within the state, from the farms to the cities.

In 1860, more than 91% of the population lived in rural areas; the percentage fell to 67% in 1900, 50% in 1920, and 40% in 1960. In 1990, 65% of the population was urban and only 35% was rural.

Since World War II, Indiana has lost population through a growing migratory movement to other states, mostly to Florida and the Southwest. From 1960 to 1970, Indiana suffered a net loss of about 16,000 persons through migration, and from 1970 to 1983, a net total of 340,000 left the state. From 1985 to 1990, however, there was a net gain in migration of over 35,000, 90% of whom came from abroad. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net gain of 76,000 persons through domestic migration and a net gain of 25,000 in international migration. In 1998, 3,981 foreign immigrants arrived in Indiana. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 6.4%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 55,656 and net internal migration was -17,000, for a net gain of 38,656 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Indiana's Commission on Interstate Cooperation promotes cooperation with other states and with the federal government. It acts largely through the Council of State Governments. Indiana is a member of such interstate regulatory bodies as the Great Lakes Commission, the Interstate Mining Compact Commission, the Midwest Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact Com-

mission, the Ohio River Basin Commission, and the Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation Commission.

The Indiana-Kentucky Boundary Compact was signed by Indiana in 1943 and received congressional approval the same year. In 1985, Indiana joined seven other states in signing a Great Lakes Charter, aimed at further protecting the lakes' resources. Federal grants to Indiana totaled \$6.476 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$6.913 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$7.318 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Indiana is both a leading agricultural and industrial state. The economy was almost entirely agricultural until after the Civil War. By 1900, rapid industrial development had tripled the number of factories in the state to 18,000, employing a total of 156,000 workers. During that period, the mechanization of agriculture doubled of the number of farms to a peak of 220,000 in 1900.

Metals and other manufacturing industries surged during and after World War I, lagged during the Great Depression of the 1930s, then surged again during and after World War II. Between 1940 and 1950, the number of wage earners in the state nearly doubled. Job opportunities brought in many workers from other states and encouraged the growth of labor unions.

The state's industrial development in Indianapolis, Gary, and other cities has been based on its plentiful natural resources—coal, natural gas, timber, stone, and clay—and on good transportation facilities. The northwestern corner of the state is the site of one of the world's greatest concentrations of heavy industry, especially steel. Indiana produced 24% of the nation's steel in 1999, the most of any state. Until the end of the 20th century, the manufacturing sector continued to grow in absolute terms (15% between 1997 and 2000) and continued to account for about 30% of the Indiana's total output. In the national recession of 2001, however, manufacturing output fell 9.2%, and manufacturing fell to 27.2% of total output. The Indiana economy experienced 8.1% growth in 1998, which moderated to 2.9% in 1999 and 4.7% in 2000, and then plunged to 0.1% in 2001. Job creation, which had averaged over 2% a quarter since 1993, became negative (layoffs exceeding job creation) by the second half of 2001 and remained negative throughout 2002. Although the unemployment rate remained below the national average, Indiana had the highest foreclosure rate on conventional family mortgages among the states in 2002.

In 2004, Indiana's gross state product (GSP) totaled \$227.569 billion, of which manufacturing accounted for \$63.477 billion or 27.8% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$22.197 billion (9.7% of GSP) and health care and social services \$16.035 billion (7% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 451,437 small businesses in Indiana. Of the 125,746 businesses having employees, a total of 122,716 or 97.6% were small companies. An estimated 13,906 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 3.4% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 15,282, up 1% from 2003. There were 524 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 18.1% from the previous year. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 896 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Indiana as the sixth-highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Indiana had a gross state product (GSP) of \$239 billion, which accounted for 1.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 16 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004, Indiana had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$30,204. This ranked 33rd in the United States and was 91% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.8%. Indiana had a total personal income (TPI) of \$188,064,673,000, which ranked 16th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.6%. Earnings of persons employed in Indiana increased from \$137,378,109,000 in 2003 to \$144,552,055,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$43,003 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period, 10.2% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Indiana numbered 3,252,000. Approximately 159,500 workers were unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.9%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,972,000. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Indiana was 12.8% in November 1982. The historical low was 2.6% in April 1999. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.1% of the labor force was employed in construction; 19.2% in manufacturing; 19.6% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.7% in financial activities; 9.2% in professional and business services; 12.8% in education and health services; 9.4% in leisure and hospitality services; and 14.3% in government.

Most industrial workers live in Indianapolis and the Calumet area of northwestern Indiana. The American Federation of Labor first attempted to organize workers at the US Steel Company's plant in Gary in 1919, but a strike to get union recognition failed. Other strikes by Indiana coal miners and railway workers in 1922 had limited success. By 1936, however, the Congress of Industrial Organizations had won bargaining rights and the 40-hour workweek from US Steel, and union organization spread to other industries throughout the state.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 346,000 of Indiana's 2,789,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 12.4% of those so employed, up from 11.4% in 2004 and just above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 368,000 workers (13.2%) in Indiana were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Although Indiana is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law, the law is applicable only to school system employees.

As of 1 March 2006, Indiana had a state-mandated minimum wage of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Agriculture in Indiana is a large and diverse industry that plays a vital role in the state's economic stability, with 59,300 farms containing 15,000,000 acres (6,800,000 hectares) of farmland. In 2005, cash receipts from the sale of all commodities (crops and livestock) reached \$5.4 billion. In the same year, Indiana ranked 16th in the United States in cash receipts from the sale of all commodities; crop sales amounted to \$3.5 billion, and livestock sales totaled \$1.9 billion.

Over 80% of Indiana's farm operators live on the farm, while more than 55% of farmers have a principal occupation other than farming. The average age for Indiana farmers is 54 years old, and the average farm size is 250 acres (101 hectares).

Corn and soybeans are Indiana's two main crops. In 2004 the state produced 929,040,000 bushels of corn for grain, ranking fifth in the United States. Indiana also grew 287,040,000 bushels of soybeans, the third most in the nation. Other principal field crops, based upon 2004 crop statistics, include spearmint, 64,000 lb; peppermint 594,000 lb; and cantaloupes 500,000 cwt.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Indiana dairy farmers produced an estimated 2.9 billion lb (1.3 billion kg) of milk from 149,000 milk cows in 2003. The state's poultry farmers sold an estimated 24.8 million lb (11.3 million kg) of chicken and an estimated 396.8 million lb of turkey during 2003.

Indiana had an estimated 850,000 cattle and calves worth around \$799 million in 2005.

25 FISHING

Fishing is not of commercial importance in Indiana. Fishing for bass, pike, perch, catfish, and trout is a popular sport with Indiana anglers. In 2004, there were 522,389 sport fishing licenses issued by the state. There are eight state fish hatcheries.

26 FORESTRY

About 20% of Indiana's total land area was forested in 2004. Indiana has 4,501,000 acres (1,822,000 hectares) of forestland, of which 96% or 4,342,000 acres (1,757,000 hectares) is considered commercial timberland. Some 75% of the commercial forestland is located in the southern half of Indiana, where oak, hickory, beech, maple, yellow poplar, and ash predominate in the uplands. Soft maple, sweetgum, pin oak, cottonwood, sycamore, and river birch are the most common species found in wetlands and drainage corridors.

Indiana's wood-using industries manufacture everything from the "crinkle" center lining in cardboard boxes to the finest furniture in the world. Other wood products include pallets, desks, fancy face veneer, millwork, flooring, mobile homes, and recreational vehicle components. In 2004, Indiana produced 333 million board feet of lumber, 99% hardwood. Indiana has always been noted for the quality of its hardwood forests and the trees it produces.

27 MINING

According to data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the value of Indiana's nonfuel mineral production in 2004 was \$764 million, an increase from 2003 of almost 7%. The USGS data ranked Indiana 22nd among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for around 1.7% of total US output.

In 2004, the state's leading nonfuel mineral by value was cement (portland and masonry), followed by crushed stone, construction sand and gravel, and lime, altogether which accounted for almost 92% of all nonfuel mineral output by the state.

The state's top two mineral commodities were crushed stone (estimated 2001 output 56 million metric tons, valued at \$264 million) and cement (portland cement production was an estimated 2.86 million metric tons, valued at \$195 million).

A total of 3,564 people were employed by Indiana's nonfuel minerals sector in 2004, up 1% from the previous year.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Indiana is largely dependent on fossil fuels for its energy supplies. Petroleum has become an important power source for automobiles, home heating, and electricity. Nevertheless, coal has continued to be the state's major source of power, meeting about half of Indiana's energy needs.

As of 2003, Indiana had 119 electrical power service providers, of which 72 were publicly owned and 41 were cooperatives. The remaining six were investor owned. As of that same year, there were 2,966,062 retail customers. Of that total, 2,215,877 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 494,708 customers, while publicly owned providers had 255,477 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 25.640 million kW, with total production that same year at 124.888 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 90% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 117.756 billion kWh (94.3%), came from coal-fired plants, with natural gas plants in second place at 3.049 billion kWh (2.4%) and plants using other gases in third place at 2.952 billion kWh (2.1%). Other renewable power sources, hydroelectric, petroleum, and "other" types of generating facilities accounted for the remainder.

The state has no nuclear power plants. In 1984, construction of the planned Marble Hill nuclear power plant on the Ohio River near Madison was permanently suspended by the Public Service Co. of Indiana because of escalating construction costs; total cost estimates had risen from \$1.4 billion during the planning stage in 1973 to more than \$7 billion.

As of 2004, Indiana had proven crude oil reserves of 11 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 5,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 24th (23rd excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 24th (23rd excluding Federal Offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004, Indiana had 4,788 producing oil wells. The state's two re-

fineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 433,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Indiana had 2,386 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1.464 billion cu ft (0.041 billion cu m). There was no data available on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

In 2004, Indiana had 29 producing coal mines, 22 of which were surface mines and 7 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 35,110,000 short tons, down from 35,355,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, surface mines accounted for 25,018,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 398 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

The industrialization of Indiana that began during the Civil War era was spurred by technological advances in processing agricultural products, manufacturing farm equipment, and improving transportation facilities. Meat-packing plants, textile mills, furniture factories, and wagon works—including Studebaker wagons—were soon followed by metal foundries, machine shops, farm implement plants, and a myriad of other durable goods plants.

New industries included a pharmaceutical house started in Indianapolis in 1876 by a druggist named Eli Lilly, and several automobile manufacturing shops established in South Bend and other cities by 1900. In 1906, the US Steel Co. laid out the new town of Gary for steelworkers and their families.

Indiana is a leading producer of compact discs, elevators, recreational vehicles, mobile homes, refrigerators and freezers, storage batteries, small motors and generators, mobile homes, household furniture, burial caskets, and musical instruments. Most manufacturing plants are located in and around Indianapolis and in the Calumet region.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Indiana's manufacturing sector covered some 18 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$183.563 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$57.766 billion. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing at \$24.151 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$17.522 billion; food manufacturing at \$13.611 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$12.523 billion.

In 2004, a total of 534,942 people in Indiana were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 403,781 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 139,699, with 106,870 actual production workers. It was followed by the fabricated metal product manufacturing industry at 58,816 (44,879 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 45,581 employees (36,807 actual production workers); primary metal manufacturing at 45,220 employees (36,123 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 38,362 employees (27,185 actual production workers); and food manufacturing with 31,693 employees (23,238 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Indiana's manufacturing sector paid \$23.343 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$7.129 billion. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing at \$2.610 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$2.288 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$1.655 billion; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$1.577 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Indiana's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$79.8 billion from 8,213 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 5,080 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,415 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 718 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$31.2 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$39.8 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$8.7 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Indiana was listed as having 24,322 retail establishments with sales of \$67.2 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (3,199); miscellaneous store retailers (2,963); gasoline stations (2,904); and clothing and clothing accessories stores, tied with food and beverage stores (2,633 each). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$17.3 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$11.7 billion; food and beverage stores at \$7.5 billion; gasoline stations at \$7.03 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers \$5.8 billion. A total of 343,551 people were employed by the retail sector in Indiana that year.

Indiana ranked 11th among the 50 states in exports during 2005, when its goods shipped abroad were valued at \$21.4 billion. Major farm exports are soybeans; feed grains; wheat; meat (including poultry) and meat products; fats, oils, and greases; and hides and skins. Principal nonfarm exports include transportation equipment, electric and electronic equipment, nonelectric machinery, primary metals products, chemicals and allied products, food and kindred products, and fabricated metal products.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Division of Consumer Protection of the Office of the Attorney General was created in 1971 and is empowered to investigate consumer complaints, initiate and prosecute civil actions, and warn consumers about deceptive sales practices. There is also a Utility Regulatory Commission that regulates the business of public utilities, including rates and environmental compliance plans.

The Consumer Protection Division consists of three sections. The General Consumer Complaint Investigation and Mediation Section attempts to mediate consumer complaints against businesses that are not regulated as licensed professionals by either the federal or state government. If a pattern of deceptive practices is determined, litigation may follow. The Licensed Professional Section handles complaints against most professionals licensed by the state of Indiana, except medical professionals, which come under the Medical Licensing Section.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil but not criminal proceed-

ings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General's Office cannot represent individual residents or consumers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts. However, the office cannot represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

Indiana's Consumer Protection Division has offices in Indianapolis.

32 BANKING

The large-scale mechanization of agriculture in Indiana after 1850 encouraged the growth of banks to lend money to farmers to buy farm machinery, using their land as collateral. The financial panic of 1893 caused most banks in the state to suspend operations, and the Depression of the 1930s caused banks to foreclose many farm mortgages and dozens of banks to fail. The nation's subsequent economic recovery, together with the federal reorganization of the banking system, helped Indiana banks to share in the state's prosperity during and after World War II.

As of June 2005, Indiana had 193 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 49 state-chartered and 180 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Indianapolis market area accounted for the majority of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 56 institutions and \$24.898 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 12.6% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$14.845 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 87.4% or \$103.420 billion in assets held.

As of fourth quarter 2005, past due/nonaccrual loans accounted for 1.98% of all loans, down from 2.23% in 2004. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) in fourth quarter 2005 stood at 3.79%, up from 3.66% in 2004.

The Department of Financial Institutions regulates the operations of Indiana's state-chartered banks, savings and loan associations, and credit unions and monitors their observance of the state's Uniform Consumer Credit Code. The department is headed by a seven-member board; each board member serves a four-year term, and no more than four members may be of the same political party. A full-time director, also appointed by the governor to a four-year term, is the department's chief executive and administrative officer.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 3.8 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$235.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$380.5 billion. The average coverage amount was \$61,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at over \$1.1 billion.

As of 2003, there were 77 property and casualty and 40 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$10.1 billion. That year, there were 28,854 flood insurance policies in force

in the state, with a total value of \$2.89 billion. About \$526 million of coverage was offered through FAIR (Fair Access to Insurance) Plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high-risk areas.

In 2004, 59% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged 21% for single coverage and 25% for family coverage. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 4.1 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$670.39.

The Department of Insurance licenses insurance carriers and agents in Indiana, and it enforces regulations governing the issuance of policies.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Indiana. In 2005, there were 1,220 personal financial advisers employed. In 2004, there were over 116 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 67 NASDAQ companies, 22 NYSE listings, and 2 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had five Fortune 500 companies; Wellpoint (based in Indianapolis) ranked first in the state and 38th in the nation with revenues of over \$45.1 billion, followed by Eli Lilly (Indianapolis), Cummins (Columbus), NiSource (Merrillville), and Con-seco (Carmel). All five companies are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The State Budget Agency acts as watchdog over state financial affairs. The agency prepares the budget for the governor and presents it to the General Assembly. The budget director, appointed by the governor, serves with four legislators (two from each house) on the state budget committee, which helps to prepare the budget. The state budget agency receives appropriations requests from the heads of state offices, estimates anticipated revenues for the biennium, and administers the budget. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June of the following year. Budgets are prepared for the biennium beginning and ending in odd-numbered years.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$12.2 billion for resources and \$11.9 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Indiana were nearly \$7.4 billion.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Indiana collected \$12,854 million in tax revenues or \$2,049 per capita, which placed it 31st among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total, sales taxes 38.9%,

Indiana—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	26,917,365	4,322.69
General revenue	23,464,893	3,768.25
Intergovernmental revenue	7,057,449	1,133.36
Taxes	11,957,470	1,920.26
General sales	4,759,445	764.32
Selective sales	2,147,509	344.87
License taxes	448,387	72.01
Individual income tax	3,807,861	611.51
Corporate income tax	644,787	103.55
Other taxes	149,481	24.01
Current charges	2,673,197	429.29
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,776,777	285.33
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	3,452,472	554.44
Total expenditure	25,373,330	4,074.73
Intergovernmental expenditure	7,963,397	1,278.85
Direct expenditure	17,409,933	2,795.88
Current operation	13,014,329	2,089.98
Capital outlay	1,700,913	273.15
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,791,377	287.68
Assistance and subsidies	455,884	73.21
Interest on debt	447,430	71.85
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,461,530	555.89
Total expenditure	25,373,330	4,074.73
General expenditure	23,542,970	3,780.79
Intergovernmental expenditure	7,963,397	1,278.85
Direct expenditure	15,579,573	2,501.94
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	9,041,115	1,451.92
Public welfare	5,675,769	911.48
Hospitals	284,348	45.66
Health	590,479	94.83
Highways	1,920,891	308.48
Police protection	226,051	36.30
Correction	675,194	108.43
Natural resources	269,222	43.23
Parks and recreation	63,291	10.16
Government administration	600,690	96.47
Interest on general debt	447,430	71.85
Other and unallocable	3,748,490	601.97
Utility expenditure	38,983	6.26
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	1,791,377	287.68
Debt at end of fiscal year	13,079,818	2,100.50
Cash and security holdings	36,948,023	5,933.52

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

selective sales taxes 17.1%, individual income taxes 32.8%, corporate income taxes 6.4%, and other taxes 4.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, Indiana had one individual income tax bracket of 3.4%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 8.5%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$6,073,538,000 or \$975 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 26th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$6,064,615,000 of the total and the state government \$8,923,000.

Indiana taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 55.5 cents per pack, which ranks 34th among the 50 states and the

District of Columbia. Indiana taxes gasoline at 18 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

For every dollar of federal tax collected in 2004, Indiana citizens received \$0.97 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The state's early economic policy was to provide farmers with access to markets by improving transportation facilities. During the Civil War era, Indiana encouraged industrial growth. In modern times, the state has financed extensive highway construction, developed deepwater ports on Lake Michigan and the Ohio River, and worked to foster industrial growth and develop its tourist industry. Tax incentives to business included a phaseout, by 1994, of the "intangibles" tax on stocks, bonds, and notes.

In the 1990s, the state government focused on a series of economic development initiatives. These included programs offering job training and retraining, the promotion of new businesses and tourism, the development of infrastructure, and the provision of investment capital for start-up companies—as well as programs providing additional tax incentives. The Indiana Economic Development Corporation (IEDC—prior to 2005, the Department of Commerce), which has sole responsibility for economic development, solicits new businesses to locate in Indiana, promotes sales of exports abroad, plans the development of energy resources, continues to foster the expansion of agriculture, and helps minority-group owners of small businesses. In the 2000 budget, the General Assembly provided \$50 million for Governor Frank O'Bannon's 21st Century Research and Technology Fund to stimulate high-technology development. In 2006, the IEDC operated 10 international offices in strategic locations around the world: Sydney, Toronto, São Paulo, Beijing, Jerusalem, Amsterdam, Tokyo, Seoul, Mexico City, and Taipei.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.9 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 9.4 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 81.5% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 79% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.1 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows: heart disease, 248.8; cancer, 208.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 60.4; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 50.9; and diabetes, 27.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.9 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 6.3 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 58.7% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 24.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Indiana had 112 community hospitals with about 18,900 beds. There were about 712,000 patient admissions that year and 15 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 11,000 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,352. Also in 2003, there were about 527 certified nursing facilities in the state with 55,475 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 73.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 66.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental

care within the year. Indiana had 222 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 834 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 2,939 dentists in the state.

About 23% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5.4 million.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 187,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$267. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 556,285 persons (240,045 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$93.87 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$626.6 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. The employment services section of Indiana's TANF program is called IMPACT (Indiana Manpower Placement and Comprehensive Training). In 2004, the state program had 131,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$125 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,038,130 Indiana residents. This number included 657,840 retired workers, 105,260 widows and widowers, 134,020 disabled workers, 54,400 spouses, and 86,610 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.8% of the total state population and 95.2% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$1,003; widows and widowers, \$955; disabled workers, \$899; and spouses, \$507. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$526 per month; children of deceased workers, \$660; and children of disabled workers, \$259. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 96,191 Indiana residents in December 2004, averaging \$398 a month. An additional \$297,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 1,140 residents.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, the state had an estimated 2,690,619 housing units, 2,412,885 of which were occupied; 71.8% were owner occupied. About 21% of all units were built before 1939. About 71.5% of all units are single-family, detached homes. Most units relied on utility gas and electricity for heating, but about 1,030 units were equipped for solar power. It was estimated that 158,051 units lacked telephone service, 10,304 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 12,973 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.51 members.

In 2004, 39,200 privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$110,020. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$963. Renters paid a median of \$589 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$31.5 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

4¹ EDUCATION

Although the 1816 constitution recommended the establishment of public schools, the state legislature did not provide funds for education. The constitution of 1851 more specifically outlined the state's responsibility to support a system of free public schools. Development was rapid following passage of this document; more than 2,700 schoolhouses were built in the state from 1852 to 1857, and an adult literacy rate of nearly 90% was achieved by 1860. The illiteracy rate was reduced to 5.2% for the adult population in 1900, to 1.7% in 1950, and to only 0.7% in 1970, when Indiana ranked 14th among the 50 states. In 2004, 87.2% of those aged 25 years and over were high school graduates, and 21.1% had completed four or more years of college.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Indiana's public schools stood at 1,004,000. Of these, 714,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 290,000 attended high school. Approximately 81.5% of the students were white, 12.4% were black, 4.8% were Hispanic, 1.1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaska Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,009,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 1,029,000 by fall 2014, a 2.5% increase during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003–04 were estimated at \$10 billion or \$8,280 per student, closest to the \$8,287 United States average. There were 109,101 students enrolled in 784 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Indiana scored 282 out of 500 in mathematics, compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 342,064 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 12.6% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005, Indiana had 101 degree-granting institutions. Indiana University, the state's largest institution of higher education, was founded in 1820. It is one of the largest state universities in the United States, with a total of eight campuses. The Bloomington campus has a nationally recognized music program. Other major state universities include Purdue University (Lafayette), Ball State University (Muncie), and Indiana State University (Terre Haute). Well-known private universities in the state include Notre Dame (at South Bend) and Butler (Indianapolis). Small private colleges and universities include DePauw (Greencastle), Earlham (Richmond), Hanover (Hanover), and Wabash (Crawfordsville).

4² ARTS

The earliest center for artists in Indiana was the Art Association of Indianapolis, founded in 1883. It managed the John Herron Art Institute, consisting of a museum and art school (1906–08). Around 1900, art colonies sprang up in Richmond, Muncie, South Bend, and Nashville. Indianapolis remains the state's cultural center, especially since the opening in the late 1960s of the Lilly Pavilion of the Decorative Arts; the Krannert Pavilion, which houses the paintings originally in the Herron Museum; the Clowes Art Pavilion; and the Grace Showalter Pavilion of the Performing Arts (all collectively known as the Indianapolis Museum of Art). Since 1969, the Indiana Arts Commission has taken art—and artists—into many Indiana communities; the commission also sponsors

biennial awards to artists in the state. In 2004, the Indiana Arts Commission awarded 86 artists up to \$1,000 per grant as part of the Individual Artist Project—461 grants were awarded overall for that year, aiding artists in 85 of Indiana's 92 counties.

The state's first resident theater company established itself in Indianapolis in 1840, and the first theater building, the Metropolitan, was opened there in 1858. Ten years later, the Academy of Music was founded as the center for dramatic activities in Indianapolis. In 1875, the Grand Opera House opened there, and the following year it was joined by the English Opera House, where touring performers such as Sarah Bernhardt, Edwin Booth, and Ethel Barrymore held the stage. Amateur theater has been popular since the founding in 1915 of the nation's oldest amateur drama group, the Little Theater Society, which later became the Civic Theater of Indianapolis. The Civic Theater's 2005–06 season included performances of *Annie Get Your Gun*, *Disney's Beauty and the Beast*, and *Brighton Beach Memoirs*.

Music has flourished in Indiana. Connersville reportedly was the first American city to establish a high school band, while Richmond claims the first high school symphony orchestra. The Indianapolis Symphony Orchestra was founded in 1930. There are 23 other symphony orchestras in the state. The Indianapolis Opera was founded in 1975. The Arthur Jordan College of Music is part of Butler University in Indianapolis, and the music program at Indiana University's Bloomington campus has a national reputation, especially its string department, which has attracted some of the world's most renowned musicians to its faculty. The annual Indiana Fiddlers' Gathering, founded in 1973, is a three-day festival featuring the bluegrass, swing fiddle, string band, and Celtic and other ethnic music.

In 2005, the Indiana Arts Commission and other Indiana arts organizations received 19 grants totaling \$935,700 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Indiana Humanities Council sponsors programs that include Habits of the Heart, a youth volunteer leadership development program, and History Alive!—an educational program featuring live portrayals of famous historical figures. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities supported 28 programs in the state with grants totaling \$2,599,475.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the calendar year 2001, Indiana had 239 public library systems with a total of 430 libraries, of which 191 were branches. The state constitution of 1816 provided for the establishment of public libraries. A majority of Indiana cities opened such libraries but neglected to provide adequate financing. Semiprivate libraries did better: Workingmen's libraries were set up by a bequest at New Harmony and 14 other towns. After the state legislature provided for township school libraries in 1852, more than two-thirds of the townships established them, and the public library system has thrived ever since. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$245,243,000, including \$784,000 from federal grants and \$19,947,000 from state grants. The largest book collections are at public libraries in Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, Gary, Evansville, Merrillville, and Hammond. The total book stock of all Indiana public libraries in 2001 was 22,145,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 62,744,000. The system also had 1,146,000 audio and 1,068,000

video items, 72,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 38 bookmobiles.

The Indiana State Library has a strong collection of documents about Indiana's history and a large genealogical collection. The Indiana University Library has special collections on American literature and history and an extensive collection of rare books; the University of Notre Dame has a noteworthy collection on medieval history; and the Purdue University Libraries contain outstanding industrial and agricultural collections, as well as voluminous materials on Indiana history.

Private libraries and museums include those maintained by historical societies in Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, and South Bend. Also of note are the General Lew Wallace Study Museum in Crawfordsville and the Elwood Haynes Museum of early technology in Kokomo. In all, Indiana had 179 museums in 2000 registered with the American Association of Museums. Many county historical societies maintain smaller museums, such as the Wayne County Historical Museum.

Indiana's historical sites of most interest to visitors are the Lincoln Boyhood National Memorial near Gentryville, the Levi Coffin Home (one of the Underground Railroad stops) in Fountain City, the Benjamin Harrison Memorial Home and the James Whitcomb Riley Home in Indianapolis, and the Grouseland Home of William Henry Harrison in Vincennes. Among several archaeological sites are two large mound groups: one at Mounds State Park near Anderson, which dates from about AD 800–900, and a reconstructed village site at Angel Mounds, Newburgh, which dates from 1300–1500.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

About 91.8% of all households had telephone service in 2004. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,844,568 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 59.6% of Indiana households had a computer and 51.0% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 745,511 high-speed lines in Indiana, 678,417 residential and 67,094 for business. The state's first radio station was licensed in 1922 at Purdue University, Lafayette. Indiana had 20 major AM, 102 major FM radio stations, and 30 television stations as of 2005. Powerful radio and television transmissions from Chicago and Cincinnati also blanket the state. In 1999, the Indianapolis area had 963,320 television households, 65% of which received cable. A total of 73,696 internet domain names were registered in the state in 2000.

45 PRESS

The first newspaper was published in Indiana at Vincennes in 1804 and a second pioneer weekly appeared at Madison nine years later. By 1830, newspapers were also being published in Terre Haute, Indianapolis, and 11 other towns; the following year, the state's oldest surviving newspaper, the *Richmond Palladium*, began publication. Most pioneer newspapers were highly political and engaged in acrimonious feuds; in 1836, for example, the *Indianapolis Journal* referred to the editors of the rival *Democrat* as "the Lying, Hireling Scoundrels." By the time of the Civil War, Indiana had 154 weeklies and 13 dailies.

The last third of the 19th century brought a sharp increase in both the number and the quality of newspapers. Two newspapers that later became the state's largest in circulation, the *Indianapo-*

lis News and the *Star*, began publishing in 1869 and 1903, respectively. In 1941, there were 294 weekly and 98 daily newspapers in Indiana; the number declined after World War II because of fierce competition for readers and advertising dollars, rising operating costs, and other financial difficulties.

In 2005, the state had 24 morning dailies and 44 evening dailies; Sunday papers numbered 25. In 2005, the Indianapolis morning *Star* had a daily circulation of 252,021 (Sunday circulation, 358,261) and the Gary *Post-Tribune's* circulation averaged 65,621 daily and 73,795 on Sundays.

A number of magazines are published in Indiana, including *Children's Digest* and the *Saturday Evening Post*.

Indiana is noted for its literary productivity. The list of authors claimed by Indiana up to 1966 showed a total of 3,600. Examination of the 10 best-selling novels each year from 1900 to 1940 (allowing 10 points to the top best-seller, down to 1 point for the 10th best-selling book) showed Indiana with a score of 213 points, exceeded only by New York's 218.

Many Hoosier authors were first published by Indiana's major book publisher, Bobbs-Merrill. Indiana University Press is an important publisher of scholarly books.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 8,895 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 5,099 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National organizations with headquarters in the state include the American Camping Association, located in Martinsville, and the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, the American Legion, the US Gymnastics Federation, and Kiwanis International and Circle K International, all in Indianapolis. National sports and hobby associations based in Indiana include the Academy of Model Aeronautics, the United States Auto Club, the United States Rowing Association, USA Track and Field (which sponsors a Hall of Fame), and USA Gymnastics.

There are several fraternities with national offices in the state, including Delta Psi Omega, Alpha Chi Omega, Alpha Gamma Delta, Kappa Delta Pi, and Lambda Chi Alpha. Professional and educational organizations include the American College of Sports Medicine, American Theatre Critics Association, and Bands of America.

Philanthropic foundations headquartered in Indiana include the Eugene V. Debs Foundation (Terre Haute) and the Irwin Sweeny-Miller Foundation (Columbus). The international headquarters of the Pentecostal Assemblies of the World is located in Indianapolis. The Indiana Arts Commission is the primary state organization for promoting study and appreciation for the arts. There are numerous local arts organizations and many county historical societies. The Quilters Hall of Fame is located in Marion.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is of moderate economic importance to Indiana; in 2004, the industry declined slightly. That year, some 57.7 million visitors to the state spent \$6.5 billion, down from \$6.7 billion in 2003. The industry supported some 94,000 full-time jobs. Tourism payroll is \$1.7 billion.

About 70% of visitors participate in outdoor activities. Summer resorts are located in the north along Lake Michigan and in

Steuben and Kosciusko counties, where there are nearly 200 lakes. Popular tourist sites include the reconstructed village of New Harmony, site of the famous communal living experiments of the early 19th century; the Indianapolis Motor Speedway and Museum (home of the Indianapolis 500 auto race); and the George Rogers Clark National Historic Park at Vincennes. The city of Huntington has a museum dedicated to US vice presidents and Fort Wayne has a Lincoln Museum. The city of Fremont has the Wild Winds Buffalo Preserve, and the College Football Hall of Fame is in South Bend, also home to the University of Notre Dame.

Indiana has 23 state parks comprising 59,292 acres (21,800 hectares). The largest state park is Brown County (15,543 acres/6,290 hectares), near Nashville. There are 15 state fish and wildlife preserves, totaling about 75,200 acres (30,400 hectares). The largest are Pigeon River, near Howe, and Willow Slough, at Morocco. Game animals during the hunting season include deer, squirrel, and rabbit; ruffed grouse, quail, ducks, geese, and partridge are the main game birds.

In addition to the Indiana State Museum, there are 15 state memorials, including the Wilbur Wright State Memorial at his birthplace near Millville, the Ernie Pyle birthplace near Dana, and the old state capitol at Corydon. Among the natural attractions are the Indiana Dunes National Lakeshore on Lake Michigan (12,534 acres/5,072 hectares); the state's largest waterfall, Cataract Falls, near Cloverdale; and the largest underground cavern, at Wyandotte.

48 SPORTS

Indiana is represented in professional sports by the Indiana Pacers of the National Basketball Association, the Indiana Fever of the Women's National Basketball Association, and the National Football League's Colts, which moved to Indianapolis from Baltimore in 1984. There are also several minor league baseball, basketball, and hockey teams in the state.

The state's biggest annual sports event is the Indianapolis 500, which has been held at the Indianapolis Motor Speedway on Memorial Day or the Sunday before every year since 1911 (except for the war years 1917 and 1942–45). The race is now part of a three-day festival held over Memorial Day weekend that attracts crowds of over 300,000 spectators, the largest crowd for any sporting event anywhere in the world.

The state's most popular amateur sport is basketball. The high school boys' basketball tournament culminates on the last Saturday in March, when the four finalists play afternoon and evening games to determine the winner. A tournament for girls' basketball teams began in 1976. Basketball is also popular at the college level: Indiana University won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I basketball championship in 1940, 1953, 1976, 1981, and 1987 and the National Invitational Tournament (NIT) in 1979; Purdue University won the NIT title in 1974; and Indiana State, led by state basketball legend Larry Bird, advanced to the NCAA finals in 1979. Evansville College won the NCAA Division II championships in 1959–60, 1964–65, and 1971.

Collegiate football in Indiana has a colorful tradition stretching back to at least 1913, when Knute Rockne of Notre Dame unleashed the forward pass as a potent football weapon. Notre Dame, which competes as an independent, was recognized as National Champion in 1946–47, 1949, 1966, 1973 (with Alabama),

1977, and 1988. The Notre Dame Fighting Irish won the following string of bowl games: the Orange Bowl in 1975 and 1990; the Cotton Bowl in 1971, 1978, 1979, 1993, and 1994; the Sugar Bowl in 1973 and 1992; and the Fiesta Bowl in 1989. Indiana and Purdue compete in the Big Ten Conference. Purdue won the Rose Bowl in 1967. Indiana State is part of the Missouri Valley Conference.

The Little 500, a 50-mi (80-km) bicycle race, is held each spring at Indiana University's Bloomington campus. The RCA Championships are held annually in Indianapolis.

Other annual sporting events include the National Muzzle-Loading Rifle Association Championship Shoot, which is held in Friendship in September, and the Sugar Creek canoe race, which is held in Crawfordsville in April.

49 FAMOUS INDIANANS

Indiana has contributed one US president and four vice presidents to the nation. Benjamin Harrison (b. Ohio, 1833–1901), the 23rd president, was a Republican who served one term (1889–93) and then returned to Indianapolis, where his home is now a national historic landmark. Three vice presidents were Indiana residents: Thomas Hendricks (b. Ohio, 1819–85), who served only eight months under President Grover Cleveland and died in office; Schuyler Colfax (b. New York, 1823–85), who served under President Ulysses S. Grant; and Charles Fairbanks (b. Ohio, 1852–1918), who served under President Theodore Roosevelt. Two vice presidents were native sons: Thomas Marshall (1854–1925), who served two four-year terms with President Woodrow Wilson, and James Danforth Quayle of Indianapolis (b. 1947), President George H. W. Bush's running mate in the 1988 presidential election. Marshall, remembered for his wit, originated the remark, "What this country needs is a good five-cent cigar."

Other Indiana-born political figures include Eugene V. Debs (1855–1926), Socialist Party candidate for president five times, and Wendell L. Willkie (1892–1944), the Republican candidate in 1940.

A dozen native and adoptive Hoosiers have held cabinet posts. Hugh McCulloch (b. Maine, 1808–95) was twice US secretary of the treasury, in 1865–69 and 1884–85. Walter Q. Gresham (b. England, 1832–95) was successively postmaster general, secretary of the treasury, and secretary of state. John W. Foster (1836–1917) was an editor and diplomat before service as secretary of state under President Benjamin Harrison. Two other postmasters general came from Indiana: Harry S. New (1858–1937) and Will H. Hays (1879–1954). Hays resigned to become president of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors (1922–45) and enforced its moral code in Hollywood films through what became widely known as the Hays Office. Two Hoosiers served as US secretary of the interior: Caleb B. Smith (b. Massachusetts, 1808–64) and John P. Usher (b. New York, 1816–89). Richard W. Thompson (b. Virginia, 1809–1900) was secretary of the Navy. William H. H. Miller (b. New York, 1840–1917) was attorney general. Two native sons and Purdue University alumni have been secretaries of agriculture: Claude R. Wickard (1873–1967) and Earl Butz (b. 1909). Paul V. McNutt (1891–1955) was a governor of Indiana, high commissioner to the Philippines, and director of the Federal Security Administration.

Only one Hoosier, Sherman Minton (1890–1965), has served on the US Supreme Court. Ambrose Burnside (1824–81) and Lew

Wallace (1827–1905) were Union generals during the Civil War; Wallace later wrote popular historical novels. Oliver P. Morton (1823–77) was a strong and meddlesome governor during the war and a leader of the Radical Republicans during the postwar Reconstruction. Colonel Richard Owen (b. England, 1810–90) commanded Camp Morton (Indianapolis) for Confederate prisoners; after the war, some of his grateful prisoners contributed to place a bust of Owen in the Indiana statehouse. Rear Admiral Norman Scott (1889–1942) distinguished himself at Guadalcanal during World War II. Nearly 70 Hoosiers have won the Medal of Honor.

Dr. Hermann J. Muller (b. New York, 1890–1967) of Indiana University won the Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine in 1946 for proving that radiation can produce mutation in genes. Harold C. Urey (1893–1981) won the Nobel Prize in chemistry in 1934, and Wendell Stanley (1904–71) won it in 1946. The Nobel Prize in economics was awarded to Paul Samuelson (b. 1915) in 1970. The Pulitzer Prize in biography was awarded in 1920 to Albert J. Beveridge (b. Ohio, 1862–1927) for his *Life of John Marshall*. Beveridge also served in the US Senate. Booth Tarkington (1869–1946) won the Pulitzer Prize for fiction in 1918 and 1921. A. B. Guthrie (1901–91) won it for fiction in 1950. The Pulitzer Prize in history went to R. C. Buley (1893–1968) in 1951 for *The Old Northwest*.

Aviation pioneer Wilbur Wright (1867–1912) was born in Millville. Other figures in the public eye were chemist Harvey W. Wiley (1844–1930), who was responsible for the Food and Drug Act of 1906; Emil Schram (1893–1897), president of the New York Stock Exchange from 1931 to 1951; and Alfred C. Kinsey (b. New Jersey, 1894–1956), who investigated human sexual behavior and issued the two famous "Kinsey reports" in 1948 and 1953.

Indiana claims such humorists as George Ade (1866–1944), Frank McKinney "Kin" Hubbard (b. Ohio, 1868–1930), and Don Herold (1889–1966). Historians Charles (1874–1948) and Mary (1876–1958) Beard, Claude Bowers (1878–1958), and Glenn Tucker (1892–1976) were Hoosiers. Maurice Thompson (1844–1901) and George Barr McCutcheon (1866–1928) excelled in historical romances. The best-known poets were James Whitcomb Riley (1849–1916) and William Vaughn Moody (1869–1910). Juvenile writer Annie Fellows Johnston (1863–1931) produced the "Little Colonel" series.

Other Indiana novelists include Edward Eggleston (1837–1902), Meredith Nicholson (1866–1947), David Graham Phillips (1868–1911), Gene Stratton Porter (1868–1924), Theodore Dreiser (1871–1945), Lloyd C. Douglas (1877–1951), Rex Stout (1886–1975), William E. Wilson (1906–88), Jessamyn West (1907–84), and Kurt Vonnegut (b. 1922). Well-known journalists were news analyst Elmer Davis (1890–1958), war correspondent Ernie Pyle (1900–45), and columnist Janet Flanner "Genet" (1892–1978) of *The New Yorker*.

Among the few noted painters Indiana has produced are Theodore C. Steele (1847–1928), William M. Chase (1851–1927), J. Ottis Adams (1851–1927), Otto Stark (1859–1926), Wayman Adams (1883–1959), Clifton Wheeler (1883–1953), Marie Goth (1887–1975), C. Curry Bohm (1894–1971), and Floyd Hopper (1909–84).

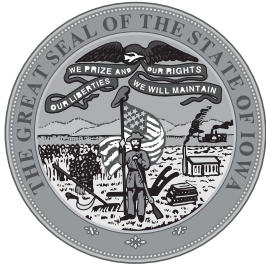
Composers of Indiana origin have worked mainly in popular music: Paul Dresser (1857–1906), Cole Porter (1893–1964), and Howard Hoagland "Hoagy" Carmichael (1899–1981). Howard

Hawks (1896–1977) was a renowned film director. Entertainers from Indiana include actor and dancer Clifton Webb (Webb Hollenbeck, 1896–1966); orchestra leader Phil Harris (1904–95); comedians Ole Olsen (1892–1963), Richard “Red” Skelton (1913–97), and Herb Shriner (b. Ohio, 1918–70); actresses Marjorie Main (1890–1975) and Carole Lombard (Jane Peters, 1908–42); and singer Michael Jackson (b. 1958).

Hoosier sports heroes include Knute Rockne (b. Norway, 1888–1931), famed as a football player and coach at Notre Dame. Star professionals who played high school basketball in Indiana include Oscar Robertson (b. Tennessee, 1938) and Larry Bird (b. 1956), who was honored at Indiana State University in 1978–79 as college basketball’s player of the year.

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IOWA

State of Iowa



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for Iowa Indians of the Siouan family. **NICKNAME:** The Hawkeye State. **CAPITAL:** Des Moines. **ENTERED UNION:** 28 December 1846 (29th). **SONG:** “The Song of Iowa.” **MOTTO:** Our Liberties We Prize and Our Rights We Will Maintain. **FLAG:** There are three vertical stripes of blue, white, and red; in the center a spreading eagle holds in its beak a blue ribbon with the state motto. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A sheaf and field of standing wheat and farm utensils represent agriculture; a lead furnace and a pile of pig lead are to the right. In the center stands a citizen-soldier holding a US flag with a liberty cap atop the staff in one hand and a rifle in the other. Behind him is the Mississippi River with the steamer *Iowa* and mountains; above him an eagle holds the state motto. Surrounding this scene are the words “The Great Seal of the State of Iowa” against a gold background. **BIRD:** Eastern goldfinch. **FLOWER:** Wild rose. **TREE:** Oak. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the western north-central United States, Iowa is the smallest of the midwestern states situated w of the Mississippi River and ranks 25th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Iowa is 56,275 sq mi (145,752 sq km), of which land takes up 55,965 sq mi (144,949 sq km) and inland water 310 sq mi (803 sq km). The state extends 324 mi (521 km) E–W; its maximum extension N–S is 210 mi (338 km).

Iowa is bordered on the N by Minnesota; on the E by Wisconsin and Illinois (with the line formed by the Mississippi River); on the S by Missouri (with the extreme southeastern line defined by the Des Moines River); and on the W by Nebraska and South Dakota (with the line demarcated by the Missouri River and a tributary, the Big Sioux).

The total boundary length of Iowa is 1,151 mi (1,853 km). The state’s geographic center is in Story County near Ames.

²TOPOGRAPHY

The topography of Iowa consists of a gently rolling plain that slopes from the highest point of 1,670 ft (509 m) in the north-west (Osceola County) to the lowest point of 480 ft (146 m) in the southeast at the mouth of the Des Moines River. About two-thirds of the state lies between 800 ft (244 m) and 1,400 ft (427 m) above sea level; the mean elevation of land is 1,100 ft (336 m).

Supremely well suited for agriculture, Iowa has the richest and deepest topsoil in the United States and an excellent watershed. Approximately two-thirds of the state’s area is drained by the Mississippi River, which forms the entire eastern boundary, and its tributaries. The western part of the state is drained by the Missouri River and its tributaries. Iowa has 13 natural lakes. The largest are Spirit Lake (9 mi/14 km long) and West Okoboji Lake (6 mi/10 km long), both near the state’s northwest border.

The Iowa glacial plain was formed by five different glaciers. The last glacier, which covered about one-fifth of the state’s area, re-

treated from the north-central region some 10,000 years ago, leaving the topsoil as its legacy. Glacial drift formed the small lakes in the north. The oldest rock outcropping, located in the state’s northwest corner, is about 1 billion years old.

³CLIMATE

Iowa lies in the humid continental zone and generally has hot summers, cold winters, and wet springs.

Temperatures vary widely during the year, with an annual average of 49°F (9°C). The state averages 166 days of full sunshine and 199 cloudy or partly cloudy days. Des Moines, in the central part of the state, has an average maximum temperature of 86°F (30°C) in July and an average minimum of 11°F (-4°C) in January. The record low temperature for the state is -47°F (-44°C), established at Washta on 12 January 1912 and recorded again on Elkader on 3 February 1996; the record high is 118°F (48°C), registered at Keokuk on 20 July 1934. Annual precipitation averages 32.4 in (82 cm) at Des Moines; statewide, snowfall averages 33.2 in (84 cm) annually and relative humidity averages 72%.

⁴FLORA AND FAUNA

Although most of Iowa is under cultivation, such unusual wild specimens as bunchberry and bearberry can be found in the northeast, where the loess soil supports tumblegrass, western beard-tongue, and prickly pear cactus. Other notable plants are pink lady’s slipper and twinleaf in the eastern woodlands, arrowgrass in the northwest, and erect dryflower and royal and cinnamon ferns in sandy regions. More than 80 native plants can no longer be found, and at least 35 others are confined to a single location. The federal government classified five plant species as threatened as of April 2006. Among these are the northern wild monkshood and the eastern and western prairie fringed orchids.

Common Iowa mammals include red and gray foxes, raccoon, opossum, woodchuck, muskrat, common cottontail, gray fox, and flying squirrel. The bobolink and purple martin have flyways

over the state; the cardinal, rose-breasted grosbeak, and eastern goldfinch (the state bird) nest there. Game fish include rainbow trout, smallmouth bass, and walleye; in all, Iowa has 140 native fish species.

Rare animals include the pygmy shrew, ermine, black-billed cuckoo, and crystal darter. Listed as threatened or endangered by the federal government in April 2006 were eight species of animal, including the Indiana bat, bald eagle, Higgins' eye pearlymussel, piping plover, Topeka Shiner, Iowa Pleistocene snail, pallid sturgeon, and the least tern.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Because this traditionally agricultural state's most valuable resource has been its topsoil, Iowa's conservation measures beginning in the 1930s were directed toward preventing soil erosion and preserving watershed runoff. In the 1980s and 1990s, Iowans were particularly concerned with improving air quality, preventing chemical pollution, and preserving water supplies. While wetlands once covered about 11% of the state, as of 1997, that percentage had dwindled down to about 1.2%. The Wetlands Reserve Program of the 1990 Food, Agriculture, Conservation and Trade Act was created to reclaim some of the state's lost wetlands.

On 1 July 1983, the Department of Water, Air and Waste Management came into operation, with responsibility for environmental functions formerly exercised by separate state agencies. Functions of the new department include regulating operation of the state's 2,900 public water supply systems, overseeing nearly 1,200 municipal and industrial wastewater treatment plants, inspecting dams, and establishing chemical and bacterial standards to protect the quality of lakes. The department also enforces laws prohibiting open dumping of solid wastes, regulates the construction and operation of 140 solid waste disposal projects, and monitors the handling of hazardous wastes. It also establishes standards for air quality and regulates the emission of air pollutants from more than 600 industries and utilities.

In 2003, 37.4 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, Iowa had 172 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 11 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Iowa Ammunition Plant and the John Deere Ottumwa works landfill. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$17.9 million for a clean water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Iowa ranked 30th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 2,966,934 in 2005, an increase of 1.4% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Iowa's population grew from 2,776,755 to 2,926,324, an increase of 5.4%. The population is projected to reach 2,993,222 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 52.9 persons per sq mi.

Iowa's population growth was rapid during the early years of settlement. When the first pioneers arrived in the early 19th century, an estimated 8,000 Indians were living within the state's present boundaries. From 1832 to 1840, the number of white settlers increased from fewer than 50 to 43,112. The population had almost doubled to more than 80,000 by the time Iowa became a state in 1846. The great influx of European immigrants who came via other states during the 1840s and 1850s caused the new state's

population to soar to 674,913 at the 1860 Census. By the end of the next decade, the population had reached nearly 1,200,000; by 1900, it had surpassed 2,200,000. The state's population growth leveled off in the 20th century.

In 2004, the median age in Iowa was 38. About 23% of the populace was under age 18, while 14.7% was age 65 or older.

In 2004, the largest cities with populations of 100,000 or more were Des Moines, 194,311, and Cedar Rapids, 122,206. Other large cities include Davenport, Sioux City, Waterloo, Dubuque, and Iowa City. In 2004, the Des Moines metropolitan area had 511,878 residents; the Davenport metropolitan area had 375,437 residents that year.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

In 2000, there were 61,853 black Americans, 8,989 American Indians, and 82,473 Hispanics and Latinos living in Iowa. In 2004, blacks made up 2.3% of the population, Hispanics and Latinos 3.5%, Asians 1.4%, and American Indians 0.3%. That year, 0.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

In 2000, among Iowans of European descent, there were 1,046,153 Germans (35.7% of the state total); 395,905 Irish (13.5%); and 277,487 English (9.5%). The foreign-born population numbered 91,085 (3.1%), more than double the total of 43,316 in 1990. Primary countries of origin included Germany, Mexico, Laos, Canada, Korea, and Vietnam.

8 LANGUAGES

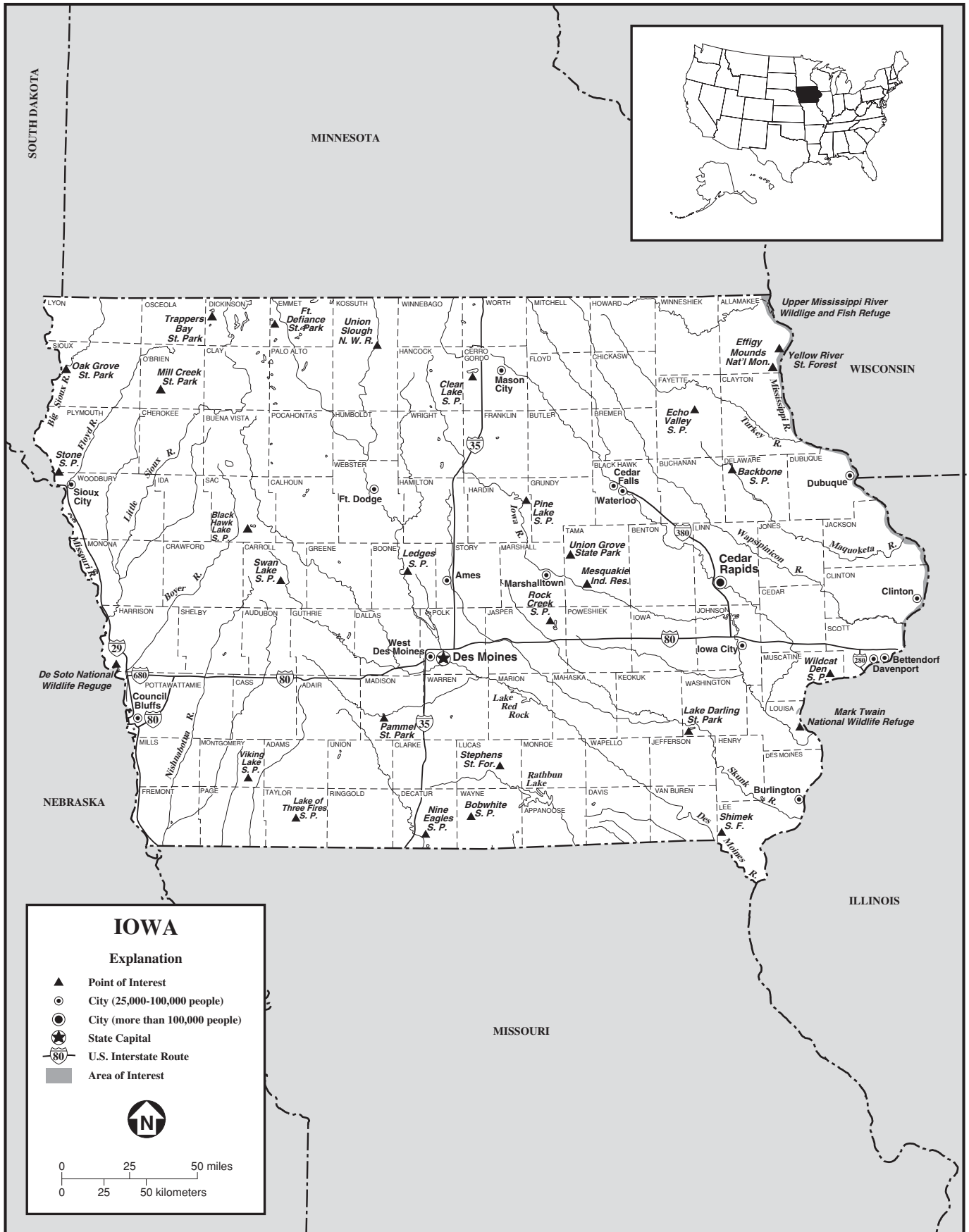
A few Indian place-names are the legacy of the early Siouan Iowa Indians and the westward-moving Algonkian Sauk and Fox tribes who pushed them out: Iowa, Ottumwa, Keokuk, Sioux City, Oskaloosa, Decorah.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	2,738,499	100.0
Speak only English	2,578,477	94.2
Speak a language other than English	160,022	5.8
Speak a language other than English	160,022	5.8
Spanish or Spanish Creole	79,491	2.9
German	17,262	0.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	7,476	0.3
Serbo-Croatian	6,452	0.2
Vietnamese	6,182	0.2
Chinese	5,191	0.2
Laotian	3,939	0.1
Other West Germanic languages	3,552	0.1
Korean	2,493	0.1
Scandinavian languages	2,385	0.1
Russian	2,233	0.1
African languages	2,137	0.1
Arabic	2,053	0.1

In 2000, 94.2% of all Iowans aged five or more spoke only English at home, down from 96.1% in 1990.

Iowa English reflects the three major migration streams: Northern in that half of the state above Des Moines and North Midland



in the southern half, with a slight South Midland trace in the extreme southeastern corner. Although some Midland features extend into upper Iowa, rather sharp contrasts exist between the two halves. In pronunciation, Northern features contrast directly with Midland: /hyumor/ with /yumor/, /ah/ in *on* and *fog* with /aw/, the vowel of *but* in *bulge* with the vowel of *put*, and /too/ with /tyoo/ for *two*. Northern words also contrast with Midland words: *crab* with *crawdad*, *corn on the cob* with *roasting ears*, *quarter* to with *quarter till*, *barnyard* with *barn lot*, and *gopher* with *ground squirrel*.

9 RELIGIONS

The first church building in Iowa was constructed by Methodists in Dubuque in 1834; a Roman Catholic church was built in Dubuque the following year. By 1860, the largest religious sects were the Methodists, Presbyterians, Catholics, Baptists, and Congregationalists. Other religious groups who came to Iowa during the 19th century included Lutherans, Dutch Reformers, Quakers, Mennonites, Jews, and the Community of True Inspiration, or Amana Society, which founded seven communal villages.

Mainline Protestantism is predominant in the state, even though the largest single Protestant denomination is the Evangelical Free Church of America, which had about 268,211 members in 2000. Other major Protestant denominations include the United Methodist Church (with 195,024 adherents in 2004), the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod (120,075 adherents in 2000), the Presbyterian Church USA (69,974 adherents in 2000), and the United Church of Christ (36,326 adherents in 2005). Roman Catholic Church membership was about 506,698 in 2004. The Jewish community had about 6,400 members in 2000. The same year, Muslims numbered about 4,717. Nearly 41.5% (over 1.2 million) of the state population did not specify a religious affiliation.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Early settlers came to Iowa by way of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and the Great Lakes, then traveled overland on trails via wagon and stagecoach. The need of Iowa farmers to haul their products to market over long distances prompted the development of the railroads, particularly during the 1880s. River traffic still plays a vital role in the state's transport.

In 2003, Iowa had 4,248 mi (6,839 km) of track, including 2,849 route miles (4,587 km) of Class I track operated by four railroads. Amtrak operates the long-distance California Zephyr (Chicago to Oakland, California) and Southwest Chief (Chicago to Los Angeles, California), serving six major stations in Iowa.

Iowa had 113,377 mi (182,536 km) of public roadway in 2004. In that same year, there were about 3.461 million registered vehicles in the state, including some 1.872 million automobiles, approximately 1.448 million trucks of all types, and around 1,000 buses, with 2,003,723 licensed drivers.

Iowa is bordered by two great navigable rivers, the Mississippi and the Missouri. They provided excellent transport facilities for the early settlers via keelboats and paddle-wheel steamers. Today, rivers remain an important part of Iowa's intermodal transportation system. In 2004, Iowa had 492 miles (792 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 14.471 million tons. Important terminal ports on the Mississippi are Dubuque and Davenport, and on the Missouri, Sioux City and

Council Bluffs. These rivers provide shippers a gateway to an extensive inland waterway system that has access to ports in St. Paul, Chicago, Pittsburgh, Houston, and New Orleans. Most docks in Iowa are privately owned, and all are privately operated.

In 2005, Iowa had a total of 322 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 233 airports, 87 heliports, and 2 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing). Iowa's busiest airfield is Des Moines International Airport, which in 2004 had 975,859 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

The fertile land now known as the state of Iowa was first visited by primitive hunting bands of the Paleo-Indian period some 12,000 years ago. The first permanent settlers of the land were the Woodland Indians, who built villages in the forested areas along the Mississippi River, introduced agriculture, and left behind only their animal-shaped burial mounds.

Not until June 1673 did the first known white men come to the territory. When Louis Jolliet, accompanied by five French voyageurs and a Jesuit priest, Jacques Marquette, stopped briefly in Iowa on his voyage down the Mississippi, the region was uninhabited except for the Sioux in the west and a few outposts of Illinois and Iowa Indians in the east. Iowa was part of the vast, vaguely defined Louisiana Territory that extended from the Gulf of Mexico to the Canadian border and was ruled by the French until title was transferred to Spain in 1762. Napoleon took the territory back in 1800 and then promptly sold all of the Louisiana Territory to the amazed American envoys who had come to Paris seeking only the purchase of New Orleans and the mouth of the Mississippi. After Iowa thus came under US control in 1803, the Lewis and Clark expedition worked its way up the Missouri River to explore the land that President Thomas Jefferson had purchased so cheaply. Iowa looked as empty as it had to Jolliet 130 years earlier. The only white man who had come to explore its riches before the American annexation was an enterprising former French trapper, Julien Dubuque. Soon after the American Revolution, he obtained from the Fox Indians the sole right to work the lead mines west of the Mississippi, and for 20 years Dubuque was the only white settler in Iowa.

The first wave of migrants into Iowa were the Winnebago, Sauk, and Fox, driven there by the US Army, which was clearing Wisconsin and Illinois of their Indian populations to make way for white farmers. Although President Andrew Jackson had intended that the Louisiana Territory lying north of Missouri should forever be Indian land, the occupation of Iowa by the Indians was brief. Following an abortive attempt by an aging Sauk chieftain, Black Hawk, to win his lands in Illinois, the Sauk and Fox were driven westward in 1832 and forced to cede their lands in eastern Iowa to the incoming white settlers.

Placed under the territorial jurisdiction of Michigan in 1834, and then two years later under the newly created territory of Wisconsin, Iowa became a separate territory in 1838. The first territorial governor, Robert Lucas, extended county boundaries and local government westward, planned for a new capital city to be located on the Iowa River, resisted Missouri's attempt to encroach on Iowa territory, and began planning for statehood by drawing boundary lines that included not only the present state of Iowa but also southern Minnesota up to present-day Minneapolis.

Because a new state seeking admission to the Union at that time could expect favorable action from Congress only if accompanied by a slave state, Iowa was designed to come into the Union with Florida as its slaveholding counterpart. A serious dispute over how large the state would be delayed Iowa's admission into the Union until 28 December 1846, but by the delay the people of Iowa got what they wanted—all the land between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers—even though they had to abandon Lucas's northern claim.

The settlement of Iowa was rapidly accomplished. With one-fourth of the nation's fertile topsoil located within its borders, Iowa was a powerful magnet that drew farmers by the thousands from Indiana, Ohio, and Tennessee, and even from faraway Virginia, the Carolinas, New York, and New England. Except for German and Irish immigrants along the eastern border and later Scandinavian immigrants during the 1870s and 1880s, Iowa was settled primarily by Anglo-American stock. The settlers were overwhelmingly Protestant in religion and remarkably homogeneous in ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Although New Englanders made up only 5% of Iowa's early population, they had a cultural influence that far exceeded their numbers. Many small Iowa towns—with their large frame houses, elm-lined streets, and Congregational churches—looked like New England villages faithfully replicated on the prairie.

Fiercely proud of its claim to be the first free state created out of the Louisiana Purchase, Iowa was an important center of abolitionist sentiment throughout the 1850s. The Underground Railroad for fugitive slaves from the South ran across the southern portion of Iowa to the Mississippi River. Radical abolitionist John Brown spent the winters of 1857 and 1859 in the small Quaker village of Springdale, preparing for his attack on the US arsenal at Harpers Ferry, in western Virginia.

Although the Democrats had a slight edge over their Whig opposition in the early years of statehood, a majority of Iowa voters in 1856 supported the new Republican Party and, for the most part, did so in succeeding years. A Republican legislative majority in 1857 scrapped the state's first constitution, which had been written by Jacksonian Democrats 12 years earlier. The new document moved the state capital from Iowa City westward to Des Moines, but it provided that the state university would remain forever in Iowa City.

When the Civil War came, Iowa overwhelmingly supported the Union cause. Iowans fought not only for their ideals, the abolition of slavery, and the preservation of the Union but also for the very practical objective of keeping open the Mississippi River, the main artery for transport of agricultural products.

In the decades following the Civil War, Iowans on the national scene, most notably US senators James Harlan and his successor William B. Allison, belonged to the conservative Republican camp, but they frequently faced liberal Republican and Populist opposition inside the state. The railroad had been lavishly welcomed by Iowans in the 1850s; by the 1870s, Iowa farmers were desperately trying to free themselves from the stranglehold of the rail lines. The National Grange was powerful enough in Iowa to put through the legislature the so-called Granger laws to regulate the railroads. At the turn of the century, as the aging Allison's hold on the state weakened, Iowa became a center for Republican progressivism.

Following World War I, the conservatives regained control of the Republican Party. They remained in control until, during the 1960s, new liberal leadership was forced on the party because of the debacle of Barry Goldwater's 1964 presidential campaign, controversy over US involvement in Vietnam, and effective opposition from a revitalized Democratic Party led by Harold Hughes. After Hughes gave up the governorship in 1969 to become a US senator, Republicans once more dominated the executive branch, but Democrats gained control of the state legislature and made strong inroads at the top levels of state government.

Iowa's economy suffered in the 1980s from a combination of high debt, high interest rates, numerous droughts, and low crop prices. Businesses left the state or automated, shrinking their workforces. The population dropped by 7.9%. By the 1990s, the companies that had survived were in a much stronger position, and diversification efforts in both the agricultural and manufacturing sectors had ushered in a period of prosperity. The number of jobs in the service sector grew by 10%, and the state's unemployment rate in 1992 was 4.7%, substantially lower than the national average. By 1999, it had dropped to 2.5%, the lowest rate in the nation. In Iowa, as elsewhere in the Midwest, high-tech and service industries continued to pull workers away from farming—and away from the state, causing many to worry about a disappearing way of life. While the governor worked with state officials to entice young Iowans who had fled the state to return home, farming promised to be a hard sell for even the best marketers, as many of the state's agricultural producers eked by. By 2003, the US economy was slowly recovering from its 2001 recession, and Iowa was also feeling the effects.

A debilitating drought hit Iowa in 1988, reducing corn and soybean harvests to their lowest levels in 14 years and prompting Governor Terry Branstad to declare a statewide emergency. In 1993, unusually heavy spring and summer rains produced record floods along the Mississippi River by mid-July. Countless levees, or earthen berms designed to raise the height of river banks, collapsed or were overrun. The entire state of Iowa was declared a disaster area. Altogether, it was estimated that 40 million acres of farmland had been severely damaged and 500,000 acres permanently ruined. Agricultural woes continued to plague the state later in the decade. In 1999, Governor Tom Vilsack declared that Iowa was in a farm crisis, warning that problems plaguing the state's agricultural economy would soon affect urban and suburban areas. With the state's farmers getting record low prices for corn, soybeans, cattle, and hogs, producers were struggling to pay their loans.

In 1999, Governor Vilsack proposed one of the most dramatic increases in environmental spending in the state's recent history, asking for \$10.5 million in new spending to improve the quality of Iowa's rivers and streams. He said the money was necessary to clean the state's waterways and boost recreation.

In 2001, the state took steps to allow refugees from other countries, including Afghanistan, to locate in small Iowa towns. During the early 2000s Governor Vilsack established a record for promoting education, signing into law over \$200 million in new bills aimed at reducing class sizes. In 2003, he aimed to further improve education, health care, and the environment. Iowa House and Senate Republican leaders created an "Iowa Values Fund," a \$503 economic development program, also supported by Vilsack. In 2005,

the state was pursuing a comprehensive economic growth strategy focusing on renewable energy, life sciences, financial services, advanced manufacturing, and improving cultural and recreational opportunities. The governor made Iowa's energy independence a goal, and to that effect, the state from 2000 to 2005 nearly tripled its ethanol production and by 2006 was projected to be the nation's leading producer of ethanol.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Iowa has had two state constitutions. The constitution of 1857 replaced the original constitution of 1846 and, with 52 amendments as of January 2005 (three of which were later nullified by the state supreme court), is still in effect.

The state legislature, or General Assembly, consists of a 50-member Senate and a 100-member House of Representatives. Senators serve four-year terms, with half the members elected every two years. Representatives are elected to two-year terms. The legislature convenes each year on the second Monday in January. Length of the session is 110 calendar days in odd years, and 100 calendar days in even years. Special sessions may only be called by the governor and length is not limited. Each house may introduce or amend legislation, with a simple majority vote required for passage. Proposed amendments must be approved by a majority vote in two sessions of the legislature before they are sent to voters for ratification. The governor's veto of a bill may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members in both houses. Unless vetoed, a bill becomes law after three days when the legislature is in session. Legislators must be US citizens and must have resided in the state for a year and in the district for at least 60 days prior to election; a representative must be at least 21 years old, and a senator 25. The legislative salary was \$21,380.54 in 2004.

The state's elected executives are the governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, attorney general, auditor, and secretary of agriculture, all serving four-year terms. The governor and lieutenant governor, elected jointly, must be US citizens for at least two years, at least 30 years old, and residents of the state for at least two years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$107,482.

To vote in Iowa, a person must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, a state resident, and not able to claim the right to vote elsewhere. Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court to be mentally incompetent to vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

For 70 years following the Civil War, a majority of Iowa voters supported the Republicans over the Democrats in nearly all state and national elections. During the Great Depression of the 1930s, Iowa briefly turned to the Democrats, supporting Franklin D. Roosevelt in two presidential elections. But from 1940 through 1984, the majority of Iowans voted Republican in 10 of 12 presidential elections. Republicans won 35 of the 45 gubernatorial elections from 1900 through 2002 and controlled both houses of the state legislature for 112 of the 130 years from 1855 to 1984.

In the 1960s, Iowa showed signs of a Democratic upsurge. Harold Hughes, a liberal Democrat, revitalized the party in Iowa and was elected governor for three two-year terms before moving on to the US Senate. During the post-Watergate period of the mid-1970s, Democrats captured both US Senate seats, five of the six congressional seats, and both houses of the Iowa legislature.

By the 1990s, a balance had reasserted itself. In 2000, Iowa gave Democrat Al Gore 49% of the vote, while Republican George W. Bush received 48%, and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader picked

Iowa Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	IOWA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	PROHIBITION	SOCIALIST LABOR
1948	10	*Truman (D)	522,380	494,018	12,125	3,382	4,274
1952	10	*Eisenhower (R)	451,513	808,906	5,085	2,882	—
							CONSTITUTION
1956	10	*Eisenhower (R)	501,858	729,187	—	—	3,202
1960	10	Nixon (R)	550,565	722,381	—	—	—
1964	9	*Johnson (D)	733,030	449,148	—	1,902	—
					SOC. WORKERS	AMERICAN IND.	
1968	9	*Nixon (R)	476,699	619,106	3,377	66,422	—
						AMERICAN	PEACE AND FREEDOM
1972	8	*Nixon (R)	496,206	706,207	—	22,056	1,332
							LIBERTARIAN
1976	8	Ford (R)	619,931	632,863	—	3,040	1,452
					CITIZENS		
1980	8	*Reagan (R)	508,672	676,026	2,191	NA	12,324
1984	8	*Reagan (R)	605,620	703,088	—	—	—
1988	8	Dukakis (D)	670,557	545,355	755	540	2,494
					IND. (Perot)		
1992	7	*Clinton (D)	586,353	504,891	253,468	3,079	1,177
1996	7	*Clinton (D)	620,258	492,644	105,159	—	2,315
					REFORM	GREEN	
2000	7	Gore (D)	638,517	634,373	5,731	29,374	3,209
					CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)	NOMINATED BY PETITION (Nader)	
2004	7	*Bush, G. W. (R)	741,898	751,957	1,304	5,973	2,992

*Won US presidential election.

up 2%. In 2004, Bush increased his support to 50% to Democrat John Kerry's 49%. In 2004, there were 2,107,000 registered voters. In 1998, 32% of registered voters were Democratic, 33% Republican, and 35% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had seven electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

Republican Terry Branstad won election to a fifth term as governor in 1994. But in the 1998 election, he was succeeded by Democrat Tom Vilsack, who won reelection in 2002. As of 2005, a Democrat and a Republican both served in the US Senate—Republican Charles Grassley, who won election to a fourth term in 1998, and Democrat Tom Harkin, who won reelection in 2002. In the 2004 elections, Iowans sent four Republicans and one Democrat to represent them in the US House. In mid-2005, in the state Senate was evenly split, with 25 Democrats and 25 Republicans. The state House was narrowly controlled by the Republicans, with 51 to the Democrats 49.

Iowa's presidential caucuses are held in January of presidential campaign years (ahead of New Hampshire, which also has a primary in January). This is earlier than any other state, thus giving Iowans a degree of influence in national politics.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The state's 99 counties are governed by boards of supervisors. In general, county officials, including the auditor, treasurer, recorder, and sheriff, are elected to four-year terms. They enforce state laws, collect taxes, supervise welfare activities, and manage roads and bridges.

Local government was exercised by 948 municipal units in 2005. The mayor-council system functioned in the great majority of these municipalities, though some of the larger cities employ the council-manager or commission system. Iowa's towns and cities derive their local powers from the state constitution, but the power to tax is authorized by the state General Assembly. In 2005, there were 374 public school districts and 542 special districts.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 132,928 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Iowa operates under gubernatorial authority and state statute; the emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

The Department of Education is responsible for educational services in Iowa. It assists local school boards in supplying special educational programs and administers local education agencies.

Transportation services are directed by the Department of Transportation, which is responsible for the safe and efficient operation of highways, motor vehicles, airports, railroads, public transit, and river transportation. The department's Motor Vehicle Division licenses drivers, road vehicles, and car dealers. Other departments include those for corrections, cultural affairs, economic development, human services, justice, and revenue. Iowa 2010 and IowaAccess provide internet gateways to the state.

Health and welfare services are provided by the Department of Human Services. Public protection is the responsibility of the Departments of Public Defense and of Public Safety.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Iowa Supreme Court consists of seven justices who are appointed by the governor and confirmed to eight-year terms by judicial elections held after they have served on the bench for at least one year. Judges may stand for reelection before their terms expire. The justices select one of their number as chief justice. The court exercises appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases, supervises the trial courts, and prescribes rules of civil and appellate procedure. The Iowa Supreme Court transfers certain cases to the court of appeals, a six-member appellate court that began reviewing civil and criminal cases in 1977, and may review its decisions. Judges on the court of appeals are appointed and confirmed to six-year terms in the same manner as supreme court justices; they elect one of their members as chief judge.

The state is divided into eight judicial districts, each with a chief judge appointed to a two-year term by the chief justice of the supreme court. District court judges are appointed to six-year terms by the governor from nominations submitted by district nominating commissions. Appointees must stand for election after they have served as judges for at least one year.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 8,525 prisoners were held in Iowa's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 8,546 or 0.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 757 inmates were female, up from 716 or 5.7% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Iowa had an incarceration rate of 288 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Iowa in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 270.9 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 8,003 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 85,836 reported incidents or 2,905.3 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Iowa does not have a death penalty.

In 2003, Iowa spent \$52,308,231 on homeland security, an average of \$18 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, 2,772 active-duty military personnel were stationed in Iowa: Reserves and National Guard personnel numbered 5,008. Iowa firms received defense contract awards amounting to \$733 million in 2004, and another \$480 million in defense payroll spending was paid in the state.

There were 265,960 veterans of US military service in Iowa as of 2003, of whom 41,922 served in World War II; 35,402 in the Korean conflict; 84,106 during the Vietnam era; and 34,411 in Persian Gulf War. The federal government expended \$586 million for veterans in Iowa during fiscal year 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Iowa Department of Public Safety employed 559 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Iowa was opened, organized, and settled by a generation of native migrants from other states. According to the first federal census of Iowa in 1850, 31% of the total population of 192,214 came from nearby midwestern states (Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Michigan,

and Ohio), 14% from the five southern border states, and 13% from the Middle Atlantic states.

Another 10% of the state's 1850 population consisted of immigrants from northern Europe. The largest group were Germans who had fled military conscription; the next largest group had sought to escape the hardships of potato famine in Ireland or agricultural and technological displacement in Scotland, England, and Wales. They were joined in the 1850s by Dutch immigrants seeking religious liberty, and in the 1860s and 1870s by Norwegians and Swedes. During and immediately after the Civil War, some former slaves fled the South for Iowa, and more blacks settled in Iowa cities after 1900.

But many of the migrants who came to Iowa did not stay long. Some Iowans left to join the gold rush, and others settled lands in the West. Migration out of the state has continued to this day as retired Iowans seeking warmer climates have moved to California and other southwestern states; from 1970 through 1990, Iowa's net loss through migration amounted to over 266,000.

An important migratory trend within the state has been from the farm to the city. Although Iowa has remained a major agricultural state, the urban population surpassed the rural population by 1960 and increased to over 60.6% of the total population by 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, Iowa had a net loss of 13,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 19,000 in international migration. In 1998, 1,655 foreign immigrants arrived in the state. Between 1990 and 1998, Iowa's overall population increased by 3.1%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 29,386 and net internal migration was -41,140, for a net loss of 11,754 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Iowa is a signatory to the Midwest Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact Commission, the Iowa-Missouri and Iowa-Nebraska boundary compacts, and a number of other major interstate compacts and agreements. Federal grants to the Iowa state government amounted to \$2.951 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$3.056 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$3.119 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Iowa's economy is based on agriculture. Although the value of the state's manufactures exceeds the value of its farm production, manufacturing is basically farm centered. The major industries are food processing and the manufacture of agriculture-related products, such as farm machinery.

Periodic recessions—and especially the Great Depression of the 1930s—have afflicted Iowa farmers and adversely affected the state's entire economy. But technological progress in agriculture and the proliferation of manufacturing industries have enabled Iowans to enjoy general prosperity since World War II. Because the state's population is scattered, the growth of light manufacturing has extended to hundreds of towns and cities.

In the late 1970s, the state's major economic problem was inflation, which boosted the cost of farm equipment and fertilizers. In the early 1980s, high interest rates and falling land prices created serious economic difficulties for farmers and contributed to the continuing decline of the farm population. By 1992, the state had recovered, but annual growth rates remained comparatively low. At the end of the 20th century, growth rates accelerated

somewhat (from 1.7% in 1998 to 3% in 1999 to 4.8% in 2000), but then fell to 1.4% in the national recession of 2001. The recession's impact on Iowa's unemployment rate was relatively mild, as the increase peaked at 4.4% in January 2002, and then fell to 3.9% by the end of the year. From 1997 to 2001, manufacturing output decreased almost every year in both absolute and relative terms, declining 5.7% in absolute terms across these five years, and, as a share of total state output, from about 25% in 1997 to 21% of the total in 2001. During the same period, output from general services increased 28.6%; from financial services, 24.4%; from the transportation and utilities sector, 23.7%; and from the government sector, 21.6%. Performance in Iowa's agricultural sector was positive in 2002, largely because Iowa escaped the drought that was hampering output in other states and the prices received by Iowa farmers.

In 2001, Iowa's gross state product (GSP) totaled \$111.114 billion, of which manufacturing contributed \$22.859 billion or 20.5% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$9.834 billion (8.8% of GSP) and health care and social services at \$7.475 billion (6.7% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 243,932 small businesses in Iowa. Of the 69,354 businesses having employees, an estimated 67,648 or 97.5% were small companies. An estimated 5,954 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 7.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 7,391, up 0.2% from 2003. There were 360 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 11.5% from the previous year. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 417 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Iowa as the 36th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Iowa had a gross state product (GSP) of \$114 billion, which accounted for 0.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 30 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Iowa had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$31,058. This ranked 28th in the United States and was 94% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.3%. Iowa had a total personal income (TPI) of \$91,712,120,000, which ranked 30th in the United States and reflected an increase of 9.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.7%. Earnings of persons employed in Iowa increased from \$62,520,383,000 in 2003 to \$69,573,490,000 in 2004, an increase of 11.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$43,042 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period, 9.7% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Iowa numbered 1,674,200. Approximately 59,800 workers were unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,502,600. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemploy-

ment rate recorded in Iowa was 8.5% in May 1983. The historical low was 2.6% in January 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5% of the labor force was employed in construction; 15.5% in manufacturing; 20.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.6% in financial activities; 7.6% in professional and business services; 13.2% in education and health services; 8.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 16.4% in government.

The labor movement generally has not been strong in Iowa, and labor unions have had little success in organizing farm laborers. The Knights of Labor, consisting mostly of miners and railroad workers, was organized in Iowa in 1876 and enrolled 25,000 members by 1885. But the Knights practically disappeared after 1893, when the American Federation of Labor (AFL) established itself in the state among miners and other workers. The Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) succeeded in organizing workers in public utilities, meat packing, and light industries in 1937. After 1955, when the AFL and CIO merged, the power and influence of labor unions increased in the state.

Iowa did not forbid the employment of women in dangerous occupations or prohibit the employment of children under 14 years of age in factories, shops, or mines until the early 1900s.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 157,000 of Iowa's 1,369,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 11.5% of those so employed, up from 10.5% in 2004 but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 185,000 workers (13.5%) in Iowa were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Iowa is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Iowa had a state-mandated minimum wage of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Iowa recorded a (realized) gross farm income of \$14.2 billion in 2005, the third-highest in the United States. Nearly half of all cash receipts from marketing came from the sale of livestock and meat products; about one-fifth derived from the sale of feed grains. During 2000–04, Iowa ranked first in output of corn for grain and soybeans and fifth for oats.

The early settlers planted wheat. Iowa ranked second in wheat production by 1870, but as the Wheat Belt moved farther west, the state's farmers turned to raising corn to feed their cattle and hogs. Two important 20th-century developments were the introduction in the 1920s of hybrid corn and the utilization of soybeans as a feed grain on a massive scale during World War II. Significant postwar trends included the rapid mechanization of farming and the decline of the farm population.

In 2004, Iowa had 89,700 farms, with an average size of 353 acres (143 hectares) per farm. This total represents a decrease of 50,000 farms since 1970, although the amount of land being farmed has only declined 1% to 31,700,000 acres (14,400,000 hectares) over the same period.

Nearly all of Iowa's land is tillable, and about nine-tenths of it is given to farmland. Corn is grown practically everywhere; wheat is raised in the southern half of the state and in counties bordering the Mississippi and Missouri rivers.

In 2004, production of corn for grain totaled 2.24 billion bushels, valued at \$4.26 billion; soybeans, 497.4 million bushels, \$2.51 billion; oats, 10.1 million bushels; and hay, 6.24 million tons.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Iowa had an estimated 3.6 million cattle and calves in 2005, worth around \$3.2 billion. In 2004, Iowa was ranked first among the 50 states in the number of hogs and pigs with 16.1 million, worth around \$1.77 billion.

Pigs, calves, lambs, and chickens are raised throughout the state, particularly in the Mississippi and Missouri river valleys, where good pasture and water are plentiful. Iowa farmers are leaders in applying modern livestock breeding methods to produce lean hogs, tender corn-fed cattle, and larger-breasted chickens and turkeys.

In 2003, Iowa farmers produced an estimated 30.7 million lb (14 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which grossed a total of around \$31.6 million. Also during 2003, Iowa farmers produced 267.7 million lb (121.6 million kg) of turkeys, worth \$96.4 million. In the same year an estimated 10.4 billion eggs were produced (first in the United States), worth around \$460.5 million.

Iowa dairy farmers produced 3.8 billion lb (1.7 million kg) of milk from 201,000 dairy cows in 2003.

25 FISHING

Fishing has very little commercial importance in Iowa. Game fishing in the rivers and lakes, however, is a popular sport. In 2004, there were 429,689 sport fishermen licensed in the state.

26 FORESTRY

Lumber and woodworking were important to the early settlers, but the industry has since declined in commercial importance. In 2004, Iowa had 2.7 million acres (1.1 million hectares) of forestland, which represents 7.5% of the state's land area, up from 1.6 million acres (650,000 hectares) in 1974. The state's lumber industry produced 78 million board feet of lumber in 2004.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the value of Iowa's nonfuel mineral production in 2003 (the latest year for which data was available) was \$478 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 2%. The USGS data ranked Iowa as 29th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1% of total US output.

In descending order, the data showed cement (portland and masonry), crushed stone, construction sand and gravel, and gypsum as the state's leading nonfuel minerals produced in 2003, which collectively accounted for 97% of total output by value.

The preliminary data for 2003 showed crushed stone output by Iowa as totaling 34.7 million metric tons, with a value of \$187 million, while construction grade sand and gravel production stood at 13 million metric tons or \$60.2 million. That same year Iowa was also shown to be a producer of common clays with output at 256,000 metric tons, and with a value of \$763,000.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Although Iowa's fossil fuel resources are extremely limited, the state's energy supply has been adequate.

As of 2003, Iowa had 186 electrical power service providers, of which 138 were publicly owned and 44 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were investor owned, and one was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year, there were 1,477,518 retail customers. Of that total, 1,068,855 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 205,658 customers, while publicly owned providers had 202,844 customers. There were 161 independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 10.074 million kW, with total production that same year at 42.116 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 93.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 35.819 billion kWh (85%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 3.987 billion kWh (9.5%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.6% of all power generated, with hydroelectric, petroleum, and natural gas-fueled generating plants accounting for the remainder.

As of 2006, Iowa had one nuclear power generating plant, the single-reactor Duane Arnold plant in the town of Palo.

Extensive coalfields in southeastern Iowa were first mined in 1840. The boomtown of Buxton, in Monroe County, mined sufficient coal in 1901 to support a population of 6,000 people, of whom 5,500 were transplanted southern blacks, but the mines closed in 1918 and Buxton became a ghost town. The state's annual bituminous coal production reached nearly 9 million tons in 1917-18. Coal output in 1994 was only 46,000 tons; recoverable coal reserves totaled 1.1 billion tons in 2001.

As of 2004, Iowa had no known proven reserves nor any production of crude oil or natural gas. However, the state did have a single rotary rig in operation. There were no refineries in Iowa.

29 INDUSTRY

Because Iowa was primarily a farm state, the first industries were food processing and the manufacture of farm implements. These industries have retained a key role in the economy, with over 100,000 farms operating in the state in 2000. Iowa has also added a variety of other manufactures—including pens, washing machines, and even mobile homes.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Iowa's manufacturing sector covered some 18 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$79.469 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$28.137 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$13.726 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$9.244 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$3.770 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$3.541 billion.

In 2004, a total of 217,229 people in Iowa were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 157,675 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest

portion of all manufacturing employees at 49,239, with 39,085 actual production workers. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at 31,014 employees (20,233 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 16,410 employees (13,196 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 19,804 employees (15,355 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 15,004 employees (12,168 actual production workers); and electrical equipment, appliance, and component manufacturing at 10,704 employees (7,806 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Iowa's manufacturing sector paid \$8.496 billion in wages. Of that amount, the food manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.742 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$1.432 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$752.822 million; and transport equipment manufacturing at \$597.232 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Iowa's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$33.5 billion from 4,926 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,635 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,018 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 273 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$11.3 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$18.8 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$3.2 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Iowa was listed as having 13,859 retail establishments with sales of \$31.1 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were gasoline stations stores (1,997); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,879); building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (1,705); and miscellaneous store retailers (1,590). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$7.9 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$4.9 billion; food and beverage stores \$4.2 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers \$3.7 billion. A total of 176,251 people were employed by the retail sector in Iowa that year.

The leading export commodities are feed grains and products, soybeans and soybean products, and meats and meat products. Diversity has been rising with the addition of industrial machinery, instruments and measurement devices, electronics, specialized transportation equipment, and chemicals and pharmaceuticals. Exports of goods from Iowa in 2005 were valued at \$7.3 billion.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Iowa has laws prohibiting fraud and misrepresentation in sales and advertising and harassment in debt collecting, in addition to other consumer protection laws. There is a cooling-off period of three days for door-to-door purchases, and there is also a defective motor vehicle or "Lemon Law" statute. The Iowa attorney general's Consumer Protection Division deals with consumer fraud complaints, educates the public about such schemes, and litigates cases of consumer fraud. The Iowa Consumer Fraud Act is the

primary piece of legislation enforced by the Consumer Protection Division.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office (through its Consumer Protection Division) can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In anti-trust actions, the Attorney General's Office cannot act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own but can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the office has no authority to represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Iowa attorney general's Consumer Protection Division is located in Des Moines.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Iowa had 413 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 155 state-chartered and only two federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Omaha-Council Bluffs market area (which includes portions of Nebraska and Iowa) had the bulk of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004 at 74 and \$14.442 billion, respectively. The Des Moines area was second with 49 institutions and \$9.845 billion in deposits for that same year. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 9.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$5.275 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 90.7% or \$51.740 billion in assets held.

The Division of Banking supervises and regulates the state's chartered banks, loan companies, and mortgage bankers/brokers. As of fourth quarter 2005, the net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 3.73%, down from 3.80% in 2004 and 3.79% in 2003, which has resulted in an earnings decline for 2005.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 2.1 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$145 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$213 billion. The average coverage amount was \$68,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at over \$651 million.

In 2003, Iowa had 26 life and health and 55 property and casualty insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$4.4 billion. That year, there were 9,746 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1 billion. About \$119 million of coverage was offered through FAIR (Fair Access to Insurance) Plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high-risk areas.

In 2004, 59% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 7% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 10% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged 21% for single coverage and 26% for family coverage. The state offers a nine-month health benefits ex-

pansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.2 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$580.15, the third-lowest average in the nation (above South Dakota and North Dakota).

The commissioner of insurance, appointed by the governor, supervises all insurance business transacted in the state.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Iowa. In 2005, there were 780 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 2,120 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 49 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 18 NASDAQ companies and 15 NYSE listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; Principal Financial Group ranked first in the state and 261st in the nation with revenues of over \$9 billion, followed by Maytag. Rockwell Collins ranked 550th in the Fortune 1,000 listing. All three companies are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The state budget is prepared by the Department of Management with the governor's approval and is adopted or revised by the General Assembly. Each budget is prepared for the biennium of the upcoming fiscal year (FY) and the one following. The fiscal year runs from 1 July to 30 June.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$5.2 billion for resources and \$4.9 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Iowa were nearly \$4.0 billion.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Iowa collected \$5,751 million in tax revenues or \$1,939 per capita, which placed it 33rd among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 29.9% of the total, selective sales taxes 15.7%, individual income taxes 39.2%, corporate income taxes 3.2%, and other taxes 11.9%.

As of 1 January 2006, Iowa had nine individual income tax brackets ranging from 0.36 to 8.98%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 6.0 to 12.0% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$3,188,869,000 or \$1,080 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 18th nationally. Iowa does not collect property taxes at the state level.

Iowa taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 36 cents per pack, which ranks 42nd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Iowa taxes gasoline at 20.7 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

Iowa—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	15,291,539	5,178.31
General revenue	11,845,227	4,011.25
Intergovernmental revenue	4,038,220	1,367.50
Taxes	5,143,126	1,741.66
General sales	1,617,505	547.75
Selective sales	819,818	277.62
License taxes	575,515	194.89
Individual income tax	1,958,697	663.29
Corporate income tax	89,826	30.42
Other taxes	81,765	27.69
Current charges	1,776,175	601.48
Miscellaneous general revenue	887,706	300.61
Utility revenue	410	.14
Liquor store revenue	135,957	46.04
Insurance trust revenue	3,309,945	1,120.88
Total expenditure	13,424,350	4,546.00
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,529,971	1,195.38
Direct expenditure	9,894,379	3,350.62
Current operation	7,063,915	2,392.11
Capital outlay	1,103,983	373.85
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,299,364	440.01
Assistance and subsidies	265,644	89.96
Interest on debt	161,473	54.68
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,299,205	778.60
Total expenditure	13,424,350	4,546.00
General expenditure	12,031,051	4,074.18
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,529,971	1,195.38
Direct expenditure	8,501,080	2,878.79
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	4,670,535	1,581.62
Public welfare	3,112,742	1,054.09
Hospitals	898,849	304.39
Health	195,740	66.29
Highways	1,365,758	462.50
Police protection	71,393	24.18
Correction	219,859	74.45
Natural resources	224,415	76.00
Parks and recreation	20,330	6.88
Government administration	470,965	159.49
Interest on general debt	161,473	54.68
Other and unallocable	618,992	209.61
Utility expenditure	855	.29
Liquor store expenditure	93,080	31.52
Insurance trust expenditure	1,299,364	440.01
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,857,614	1,644.98
Cash and security holdings	27,063,116	9,164.62

Abbreviations and symbols: – zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Iowa citizens received \$1.11 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Since World War II, the state government has attracted new manufacturing industries to Iowa by granting tax incentives and by encouraging a favorable business climate. The Iowa Department of Economic Development (IDED) coordinates economic development activity in the state. It helps local communities diversify their economies, assists companies already in the state, and helps

exporters to sell their products abroad. In the 1990s, the Iowa state government stressed such development goals as agricultural diversification, increased small business support, creation of high-tech jobs, and expansion of tourism. The Iowa Values Fund (IVF) is a 10-year economic development program designed to transform Iowa's economy by creating high-quality jobs through business development and expansion across Iowa. With a \$35 million annual appropriation for business development and marketing, the IVF assists Iowa companies to expand, as well as attract new businesses to the state. The Venture Network of Iowa is a statewide forum operated by the Iowa Communications Network where Iowa entrepreneurs, investors, and business advisers interact, network, and find financial and intellectual capital. Iowa combines community development block grant and HOME funding from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) to fund housing activities, including rehabilitation, new construction, assistance to homebuyers, assistance to tenants, administrative costs, and lead-safe housing. The state also offers financial assistance programs to businesses for programs to retain or create jobs, capital investment, to utilize agricultural commodities, to establish or expand minority and women-owned enterprises, to support low income and disabled entrepreneurs, to build or improve a community's infrastructure (railroads, roads, etc.), and to foster construction of new industrial facilities. In 2006, the US Chamber of Commerce ranked all 50 states on legal fairness toward business. The chamber found Iowa to be one of five states with the best legal environment for business. The other four were Nebraska, Virginia, Connecticut, and Delaware.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 9.8 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 88.9% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 86% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows: heart disease, 278.6; cancer, 220.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 75.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 53.8; and diabetes, 25. Iowa has the second-highest rate in the nation for cerebrovascular disease, following Arizona. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1 per 100,000 population, the lowest in the nation. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 2.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 58.8% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Iowa had 116 community hospitals with about 11,000 beds. There were about 363,000 patient admissions that year and 9.7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 6,500 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$952. Also in 2003, there were about 454 certified nursing facilities in the state with 35,428 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 78.5%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 75.1% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Iowa had 218 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 1,009 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,546 dentists in the state.

About 23% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 10% of the state was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.7 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 89,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$261. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 206,696 persons (89,655 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.60 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$219.7 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Iowa's TANF program is called the Family Investment Program (FIP). In 2004, the state program had 45,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$60 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 545,990 Iowa residents. This number included 358,340 retired workers, 60,150 widows and widowers, 58,310 disabled workers, 34,490 spouses, and 34,700 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18.6% of the total state population and 96.1% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$952; widows and widowers, \$925; disabled workers, \$857; and spouses, \$480. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$517 per month; children of deceased workers, \$644; and children of disabled workers, \$266. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 42,618 Iowa residents in December 2004, averaging \$370 a month. An additional \$1.4 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 4,448 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were 1,292,976 housing units in Iowa, of which 1,175,771 were occupied; 73.8% were owner occupied, placing the state fourth in the nation in the percentage of homeowner-ship. About 74.7% of all units were single-family, detached homes. About 31.5% of all units were built in 1939 or earlier. Most households relied on utility gas and electricity for heating. It was estimated that 52,215 lacked telephone service, 4,728 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 5,037 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.42 members.

In 2004, 16,300 privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. Median home value was \$95,901. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$942. Renters paid a median of \$533 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$26.4 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 89.8% of Iowans age 25 and older were high school graduates, compared to the national average of 84%. Some 24.3% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Iowa's public schools stood at 482,000. Of these, 326,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 156,000 attended high school. Approximately 88.2% of the students were white, 4.5% were black, 4.9% were Hispanic, 1.8% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.6% were American Indian/Alaska Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 476,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 452,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 6.3% during the period 2002–14. There were 45,309 students enrolled in 266 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003–04 were estimated at \$4.28 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Iowa scored 284 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 202,546 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 8.2% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Iowa had 63 degree-granting institutions. Iowa has three state universities and 35 private four-year colleges. Since the public community college system began offering vocational and technical training in 1960, total enrollment has increased rapidly, and the number of different career programs has grown. Iowa's small liberal arts colleges and universities include Briar Cliff College, Sioux City; Coe College, Cedar Rapids; Cornell College, Mt. Vernon; Drake University, Des Moines; Grinnell College, Grinnell; Iowa Wesleyan College, Mt. Pleasant; Loras College, Dubuque; and Luther College, Decorah.

42 ARTS

Beginning with the public lecture movement in the late 19th century and the Chautauqua shows in the early 20th century, cultural activities have gradually spread throughout the state. There is now an opera company in Des Moines and art galleries, little theater groups, symphony orchestras, and ballet companies in other major cities and college towns. The University of Iowa receives funding from the National Endowment for the Arts to support the development of its music and theater activities.

The Des Moines Arts Center is a leading exhibition gallery for native painters and sculptors. The Des Moines Arts Festival, established in 1998, draws an attendance of nearly 800,000 people each year. There are regional theater groups in Des Moines, Davenport, and Sioux City. The Writers' Workshop at the University of Iowa has an international reputation and was the first creative writing degree program in the United States. In 2003, the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded a National Humanities Medal to the workshop—the first medal awarded to the university and only the second medal given to an institution rather than an individual.

The Iowa Arts Council (IAC) was established as a state agency in 1967. In 1986, the IAC became a division of the Department of Cultural Affairs, which also includes the State Historical Society of Iowa. In 2005, state organizations received 16 grants totaling \$776,700 from the National Endowment for the Arts. Humanities

Iowa, founded in 1971, sponsors over \$1.5 million of programs each year. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities sponsored 11 programs with grants totaling \$906,482. The state also contributes to the efforts of the Arts Council and Humanities Iowa, and private sources provide additional funding.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

Iowa's first tax-supported public library was founded in Independence in 1873. Since then, the system has continued to expand. For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, the state had 537 public library systems, with a total of 561 libraries, of which 24 were branches. In that same year, Iowa's public library system had total book and serial publication holdings of 11,450,000 volumes, and a total circulation of 25,498,000. The system also had 446,000 audio and 402,000 video items, 15,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and six bookmobiles. Among the principal libraries in Iowa are the State Library in Des Moines, the State Historical Society Library in Iowa City, the libraries of the University of Iowa (also in Iowa City), and the Iowa State University Library in Ames. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$73,270,000, which included \$582,000 from federal grants and \$2,236,000 from the state.

Iowa had 134 museums and zoological parks in 2000. The Herbert Hoover National Historic Site, in West Branch, houses the birthplace and grave of the 31st US president and a library and museum with papers and memorabilia. Other historical sites include the grave of French explorer Julien Dubuque, near the city named for him; the girlhood home of suffragist Carrie Chapman Cat at Charles City; and the seven communal villages of the Amana colonies.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

The first post office in Iowa was established at Augusta in 1836. Mail service developed slowly with the spread of population, and rural free delivery of mail did not begin until 1897.

The first telegraph line was built between Burlington and Bloomington (now Muscatine) in 1848. Telegraph service throughout the state is provided by Western Union. In 2004, about 95.4% of all occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 1,445,711 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 64.7% of Iowa households had a computer and 57.1% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 325,711 high-speed lines in Iowa, 293,824 residential and 31,887 for business.

Among the first educational radio broadcasting stations in the United States was one established in 1919 at the State University in Iowa City and another in 1921 at Iowa State University in Ames. The first commercial radio station west of the Mississippi, WDC at Davenport, began broadcasting in 1921. In 2005, there were 110 major radio stations, including 37 AM stations and 73 FM stations. In the same year, Iowa had a total of 21 network television stations.

A total of 34,789 internet domain names were registered in the state in 2000.

4⁵ PRESS

Iowa's first newspaper, the *Dubuque Visitor*, was founded in 1836 but lasted only a year. The following year, the *Fort Madison Patriot* and the *Burlington Territorial Gazette* were established; the latter

paper, now the *Hawk Eye*, is the oldest newspaper in the state. In 1860, the *Iowa State Register* was founded. As the *Des Moines Register and Tribune*, it grew to be the state's largest newspaper. The *Tribune* ceased publication in 1982; the *Register* remains preeminent, with a morning circulation of 152,800 and a Sunday circulation of 243,302 as of 2005.

Major newspapers and their estimated circulations at 2001–02 are listed as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Cedar Rapids	<i>Gazette</i> (m,S)	63,493	76,828
Des Moines	<i>Register</i> (m,S)	152,800	243,302
Dubuque	<i>Telegraph Herald</i> (m,S)	28,621	34,195
Sioux City	<i>Journal</i> (m,S)	41,182	42,268
Waterloo	<i>Courier</i> (e,S)	42,679	51,836

Overall, Iowa had 37 dailies (21 evening, 16 morning) and 12 Sunday papers in 2005. Also published in Iowa were over 100 periodicals, among them *Better Homes and Gardens* and *Successful Farming*, *Midwest Today*, and *The Iowan*.

4⁶ ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 5,085 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 3,031 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the organizations headquartered in Iowa are the National Farmers Organization (Corning), the American College Testing Program (Iowa City), the National Meals on Wheels Foundation (Iowa City), the National Collegiate Honors Council (Ames), and the Antique Airplane Association (Ottumwa). State educational and cultural organizations include the Iowa Arts Council, the Iowa Historic Preservation Alliance, and the State Historical Society of Iowa. There is a Czech Heritage Foundation in Cedar Rapids and a Danish American Heritage Society in Ames. Special interest associations with offices in Iowa include the Balloon Federation of America and the Bohemia Ragtime Society.

4⁷ TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

The Mississippi and Missouri rivers offer popular water sports facilities for both out-of-state visitors and resident vacationers. Iowa's "Little Switzerland" region in the northeast, with its high bluffs of woodlands overlooking the Mississippi, is popular for hiking and camping. Notable tourist attractions in the area include the Effigy Mounds National Monument (near Marquette), which has hundreds of prehistoric Indian mounds and village sites, and the Buffalo Ranch (at Fayette), with its herd of live buffalo. Tourist sites in the central part of the state include the state capitol and the Herbert Hoover National Historic Site, with its Presidential Library and Museum. Tourists can also visit the Amana colonies, a reconstructed site of an experimental living community. Arnolds Park is the home of the Iowa Rock and Roll Museum. The city of Le Mars is known as the ice cream capital of the world and the home of Well Dairy. Sioux City hosts the Lewis and Clark Interpretive Center. The city of Boone is the birthplace of Mamie Doud Eisenhower, wife of President Dwight D. Eisenhower.

Iowa has about 85,000 acres (34,400 hectares) of lakes and reservoirs and 19,000 mi (30,600 km) of fishing streams. There are 52 state parks covering 33,811 acres and seven state forests, covering

25,000 acres (10,000 hectares); these and other state recreational areas attract numerous visitors every year.

In 2005, there were some 30.5 million visitors to the state. This showed an increase from 17.1 million in 2001. Travel generated expenditures of \$4.3 billion in 2002 and increased to \$5.0 billion. In 2005, there were over 62,290 travel-related jobs in the state in 2005, generating a \$969 million payroll. Travel and tourism is fast becoming one of the major sources of income in Iowa.

48 SPORTS

Iowa has no major professional sports teams, but the state is proud of its Iowa Barnstormers in the Arena Football League. The team has advanced to two Arena Bowls in the league's short existence. Minor league baseball and basketball teams make their home in Des Moines, Cedar Rapids, Clinton, Sioux City, Burlington, and the Quad Cities. High school and college basketball and football teams draw thousands of spectators, particularly to the state high school basketball tournament at Des Moines in March. Large crowds also fill stadiums and fieldhouses for the University of Iowa games in Iowa City and Iowa State University games in Ames. In intercollegiate competition, the University of Iowa Hawkeyes belong to the Big Ten Conference. They have a legendary wrestling program that has won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Championship 20 times. Iowa went to the Rose Bowl in 1957, 1959, 1982, 1986, and 1991, winning in 1957 and 1959. The Iowa State University Cyclones are in the Big Twelve Conference. A popular track-and-field meet for college athletes is the Drake Relays, held every April in Des Moines. Horse racing is popular at state and county fairgrounds, as is stock car racing at small-town tracks. The Register's Annual Great Bicycle Ride across Iowa is held each July. There are rodeos in Sidney and Fort Madison, and the National Balloon Classic is held in Indianola.

49 FAMOUS IOWANS

Iowa was the birthplace of Herbert Clark Hoover (1874–1964), the first US president born west of the Mississippi. Although he was orphaned and left the state for Oregon at the age of 10, he always claimed Iowa as his home. His long and distinguished career included various relief missions in Europe, service as US secretary of commerce (1921–29), and one term in the White House (1929–33). Hoover was buried in West Branch, the town of his birth. Iowa also produced one US vice president, Henry A. Wallace (1888–1965), who served in that office during Franklin D. Roosevelt's third term (1941–45). Wallace was also secretary of agriculture (1933–41) and commerce (1945–47); he ran unsuccessfully as the Progressive Party's presidential candidate in 1948.

Two Kentucky-born members of the US Supreme Court were residents of Iowa prior to their appointments: Samuel F. Miller (1816–90) and Wiley B. Rutledge (1894–1949). Iowans who served in presidential cabinets as secretary of the interior were James Harlan (b.Illinois, 1820–99), Samuel J. Kirkwood (b.Maryland, 1813–94), Richard Ballinger (1858–1922), and Ray Lyman Wilbur (1875–1949). Ray Wilbur's brother Curtis (1867–1954) was secretary of the Navy, and James W. Good (1866–1929) was secretary of war. Appropriately enough, Iowans have dominated the post of secretary of agriculture in this century. They included, in addition to Wallace, James "Tama Jim" Wilson (b.Scotland, 1835–1920), who served in that post for 16 years and set a record for

longevity in a single cabinet office; Henry C. Wallace (b.Illinois, 1866–1924), the father of the vice president; and Edwin T. Meredith (1876–1928). Harry L. Hopkins (1890–1946) was Franklin D. Roosevelt's closest adviser in all policy matters, foreign and domestic, and served in a variety of key New Deal posts. Prominent US senators from Iowa have included James W. Grimes (b.New Hampshire, 1816–72), whose vote, given from a hospital stretcher, saved President Andrew Johnson from being convicted of impeachment charges in 1868; earlier, Grimes had been governor of the state when its 1857 constitution was adopted. William Boyd Allison (b.Ohio, 1829–1908) was the powerful chairman of the Senate Appropriations Committee for nearly 30 years.

Among Iowa's most influential governors were the first territorial governor, Robert Lucas (b.Virginia, 1781–1853); Cyrus C. Carpenter (b.Pennsylvania, 1829–98); William Larrabee (b.Connecticut, 1832–1912); Horace Boies (b.New York, 1827–1923); and, in recent times, Harold Hughes (1922–96) and Robert D. Ray (b.1928).

Iowa has been home to a large number of radical dissenters and social reformers. Abolitionists, strong in Iowa before the Civil War, included James W. Grimes, Josiah B. Grinnell (b.Vermont, 1821–91), and Asa Turner (b.Massachusetts, 1799–1885). George D. Herron (b.Indiana, 1862–1925) made Iowa a center of the Social Gospel movement before helping to found the Socialist Party. William "Billy" Sunday (1862–1935) was an evangelist with a large following among rural Americans. James B. Weaver (b.Ohio, 1833–1912) ran for the presidency on the Greenback-Labor ticket in 1880 and as a Populist in 1892. John L. Lewis (1880–1969), head of the United Mine Workers, founded the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO).

Iowa can claim two winners of the Nobel Peace Prize: religious leader John R. Mott (b.New York, 1865–1955) and agronomist and plant geneticist Norman E. Borlaug (b.1914). Three other distinguished scientists who lived in Iowa were George Washington Carver (b.Missouri 1864–1943), Lee De Forest (1873–1961), and James Van Allen (b.1914). George H. Gallup (1904–84), a public-opinion analyst, originated the Gallup Polls.

Iowa writers of note include Hamlin Garland (b.Wisconsin, 1860–1940), Octave Thanet (Alice French, b.Massachusetts, 1850–1934), Bess Streeter Aldrich (1881–1954), Carl Van Vechten (1880–1964), James Norman Hall (1887–1951), Thomas Beer (1889–1940), Ruth Suckow (1892–1960), Phillip D. Strong (1899–1957), MacKinlay Kantor (1904–77), Wallace Stegner (1909–93), and Richard P. Bissell (1913–77). Iowa's poets include Paul H. Engle (1908–91), who directed the University of Iowa's famed Writers' Workshop, and James S. Hearst (1900–83). Two Iowa playwrights, Susan Glaspell (1882–1948) and her husband, George Cram Cook (1873–1924), were instrumental in founding influential theater groups.

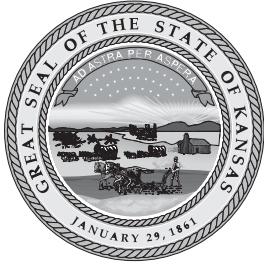
Iowans who have contributed to America's musical heritage include popular composer Meredith Willson (1902–84), jazz musician Leon "Bix" Beiderbecke (1903–31), and bandleader Glenn Miller (1904–44). Iowa's artists of note include Grant Wood (1892–1942), whose *American Gothic* is one of America's best-known paintings, and printmaker Mauricio Lasansky (b.Argentina, 1914).

Iowa's contributions to the field of popular entertainment include William F. "Buffalo Bill" Cody (1846–1917); circus impres-

sario Charles Ringling (1863–1926) and his four brothers; the reigning American beauty of the late 19th century, Lillian Russell (Helen Louise Leonard, 1860–1922); and one of America's best-loved movie actors John Wayne (Marion Michael Morrison, 1907–79). Johnny Carson (1925–2005), host of the *Tonight Show* for many years, was born in Corning. Iowa sports figures of note are baseball Hall of Famers Adrian C. "Cap" Anson (1851–1922) and Robert "Bob" Feller (b.1918) and football All-American Nile Kinnick (1918–44).

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KANSAS

State of Kansas

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for the Kansa (or Kaw) Indians, the “people of the south wind.” **NICK-NAME:** The Sunflower State; the Jayhawker State. **CAPITAL:** Topeka. **ENTERED UNION:** 29 January 1861 (34th). **SONG:** “Home on the Range;” “The Kansas March.” (march). **MOTTO:** *Ad astra per aspera* (To the stars through difficulties). **FLAG:** The flag consists of a dark blue field with the state seal in the center; a sunflower on a bar of twisted gold and blue is above the seal; the word “Kansas” is below it. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A sun rising over mountains in the background symbolizes the east; commerce is represented by a river and a steamboat. In the foreground, agriculture, the basis of the state’s prosperity, is represented by a settler’s cabin and a man plowing a field. Beyond this is a wagon train heading west and a herd of buffalo fleeing from two Indians. Around the top is the state motto above a cluster of 34 stars; the circle is surrounded by the words “Great Seal of the State of Kansas, January 29, 1861.” **BIRD:** Western meadowlark. **FLOWER:** Wild native sunflower. **TREE:** Cottonwood. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT; 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the western north-central United States, Kansas is the second-largest Midwestern state (following Minnesota) and ranks 14th among the 50 states.

The total area of Kansas is 82,277 sq mi (213,097 sq km), of which 81,778 sq mi (211,805 sq km) are land, and the remaining 499 sq mi (1,292 sq km) inland water. Shaped like a rectangle except for an irregular corner in the NE, the state has a maximum extension E–W of about 411 mi (661 km) and an extreme N–S distance of about 208 mi (335 km).

Kansas is bounded on the N by Nebraska, on the E by Missouri (with the line in the NE following the Missouri River), on the S by Oklahoma, and on the W by Colorado, with a total boundary length of 1,219 mi (1,962 km). The geographic center of Kansas is in Barton County, 15 mi (24 km) NE of Great Bend.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Although the popular image of the state is one of unending flatlands, Kansas has a diverse topography. Three main land regions define the state. The eastern third consists of the Osage Plains, Flint Hills, Dissected Till Plains, and Arkansas River Lowlands. The central third comprises the Smoky Hills (which include the Dakota sandstone formations, Greenhorn limestone formations, and chalk deposits) to the north and several lowland regions to the south. To the west are the Great Plains proper, divided into the Dissected High Plains and the High Plains. Kansas generally slopes eastward from a maximum elevation of 4,039 ft (1,232 m) at Mt. Sunflower (a mountain in name only) on the Colorado border to 679 ft (207 m) by the Verdigris River at the Oklahoma border. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 2,000 ft (610 m). More than 50,000 streams run through the state, and there

are hundreds of artificial lakes. Major rivers include the Missouri, which defines the state’s northeastern boundary; the Arkansas, which runs through Wichita; and the Kansas (Kaw), which runs through Topeka and joins the Missouri at Kansas City.

The geographic center of the 48 contiguous states is located in Smith County, in north-central Kansas, at 39°50’N and 98°35’W. Forty miles (64 km) south of this point, in Osborne County at 39°13’27”N and 98°32’31”W, is the North American geodetic datum, the controlling point for all land surveys in the United States, Canada, and Mexico. Extensive beds of prehistoric ocean fossils lie in the chalk beds of two western counties, Logan and Gove.

³ CLIMATE

Kansas’s continental climate is highly changeable. The average mean temperature is 55°F (13°C). The record high is 121°F (49°C), recorded near Alton on 24 July 1936, and the record low, -40°F (-40°C), was registered at Lebanon on 13 February 1905. The normal annual precipitation ranges from slightly more than 40 in (101.6 cm) in the southeast to as little as 16 in (40.6 cm) in the west; in Wichita, average annual precipitation (1971–2000) was 30.4 in (77.2 cm). The overall annual precipitation for the state averages 27 in (68.6 cm), although years of drought have not been uncommon. About 70%–77% of the precipitation falls between 1 April and 30 September. The annual mean snowfall ranges from about 36 in (91.4 cm) in the extreme northwest to less than 11 in (27.9 cm) in the far southeast. Tornadoes are a regular fact of life in Kansas. Dodge City is said to be the windiest city in the United States, with an average wind speed of 14 mph (23 km/h).

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Native grasses, consisting of 60 different groups subdivided into 194 species, cover one-third of Kansas, which is much overgrazed.

Bluestem—both big and little—which grows in most parts of the state, has the greatest forage value. Other grasses include buffalo grass, blue and hairy grammas, and alkali sacaton. One native conifer, eastern red cedar, is found generally throughout the state. Hackberry, black walnut, and sycamore grow in the east while box elder and cottonwood predominate in western Kansas. There are no native pines. The wild native sunflower, the state flower, is found throughout the state. Other characteristic wildflowers include wild daisy, ivy-leaved morning glory, and smallflower verbena. The western prairie fringed orchid and Mead's milkweed, listed as threatened species by the US Fish and Wildlife Service in April 2006, are protected under federal statutes.

Kansas's indigenous mammals include the common cottontail, black-tailed jackrabbit, black-tailed prairie dog, muskrat, opossum, and raccoon; the white-tailed deer is the state's only big-game animal. There are 12 native species of bat, 2 varieties of shrew and mole, and 3 types of pocket gopher. The western meadowlark is the state bird. Kansas has the largest flock of prairie chickens remaining on the North American continent. The US Fish and Wildlife Service named 12 animal species occurring in the state as threatened or endangered in April 2006. Among these are the Indiana and gray bats, bald eagle, Eskimo curlew, Topeka Shiner, and black-footed ferret.

Cheyenne Bottoms, a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance, serves as a habitat for the endangered whooping crane and is also considered to be an important site for over 800,000 migratory birds each year. Nearly 45% of all migratory shorebirds that nest in North America use Cheyenne Bottoms as a staging area. The salt marshes of the Quivira National Wildlife Refuge (also a Ramsar site) serve as a nesting, migration, and winter habitat for over 311 species of bird, including the endangered peregrine falcon and bald eagle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

No environmental problem is more crucial for Kansas than water quality, and its protection remains a primary focus of the state's environmental efforts, which include active regulatory and remedial programs for both surface and groundwater sources. Maintenance of air quality is also a primary effort, and the state works actively with the business community to promote pollution prevention.

Strip-mining for coal is decreasing in southeast Kansas, and the restoration of resources damaged by previous activities is ongoing.

Kansas is home to two Ramsar Wetlands of International Importance. Cheyenne Bottoms, located in Barton County, was designated in 1988. The site includes a state wildlife area, managed by the Kansas Department of Wildlife and Parks, and the Cheyenne Bottoms Preserve, managed by the Nature Conservancy. The site is also considered to be part of the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network. The Quivira National Wildlife Refuge was designated by Ramsar in 2002. It includes freshwater and inland salt marshes. This site has been a National Wildlife Refuge since 1955.

In 2003, 28.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. The state has sufficient capacity for handling solid waste, although the total number of solid waste facilities has decreased in recent years. In 2003, Kansas had 307 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database,

10 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. Five sites were deleted from the National Priority List in 2006, but another two, the Sunflower Army Ammunition Plant and the Tri-County Public Airport, were proposed. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$512,000 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$9.7 million for a wastewater state revolving fund and \$4.2 million for additional water quality projects.

6 POPULATION

Kansas ranked 33rd in population in the United States with an estimated total of 2,744,687 in 2005, an increase of 2.1% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Kansas's population grew from 2,477,574 to 2,688,418, an increase of 8.5%. The population is projected to reach 2.85 million by 2015 and 2.91 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 33.4 persons per sq mi.

When it was admitted to the Union in 1861, Kansas's population was 107,206. During the decade that followed, the population grew by 240%, more than 10 times the US growth rate. Steady growth continued through the 1930s, but in the 1940s, the population declined by 4%. Since then, the population has risen, though at a slower pace than the national average.

In 2004, the median age for Kansans was 36.1; 25% of the population was below the age of 18 while 13% was 65 or older.

Whereas the populations of Wichita and Topeka grew 8.6% and 1.0% respectively, the population of Kansas City dropped 7.1% during the 1980s. Estimates for 2004 showed about 353,823 residents for Wichita, 162,728 for Overland Park, and 145,004 for Kansas City. The Wichita metropolitan area had an estimated 584,671 residents.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

White settlers began to pour into Kansas in 1854, dispersing the 36 Indian tribes living there and precipitating a struggle over the legal status of slavery. Remnants of six of the original tribes still make their homes in the state. Some Indians live on three reservations covering 30,000 acres (12,140 hectares); others live and work elsewhere, returning to the reservations several times a year for celebrations and observances. There were 24,936 Indians in Kansas as of 2000. In 2004, American Indians made up 1% of the population.

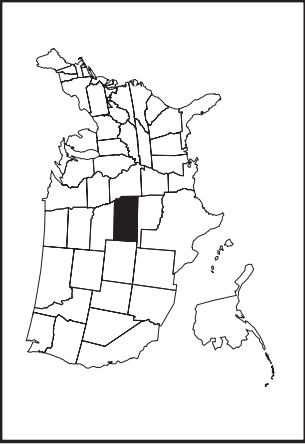
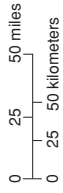
Black Americans in Kansas numbered 154,198, or 5.7% of the population, in 2000, when the state also had 188,252 Hispanics and Latinos. In 2004, 5.9% of the population was black and 8.1% of Hispanic or Latino origin. The 2000 Census recorded 46,806 Asian residents, the largest group being 11,623 Vietnamese (up from 6,001 in 1990), followed by 8,153 Asian Indians and 7,624 Chinese. There were also sizable communities of Laotians and Cambodians. In 2004, 2.1% of the population was Asian, and 0.1% was of Pacific Island origin. That year, 1.6% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

The foreign born numbered 80,271 (2% of the population) in 2000, the most common lands of origin being Mexico, Germany, and Vietnam. Among persons who reported descent from a single ancestry group, the leading nationalities were German (914,955), English (391,542), and Irish (424,133).

KANSAS

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (20,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ⊙ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



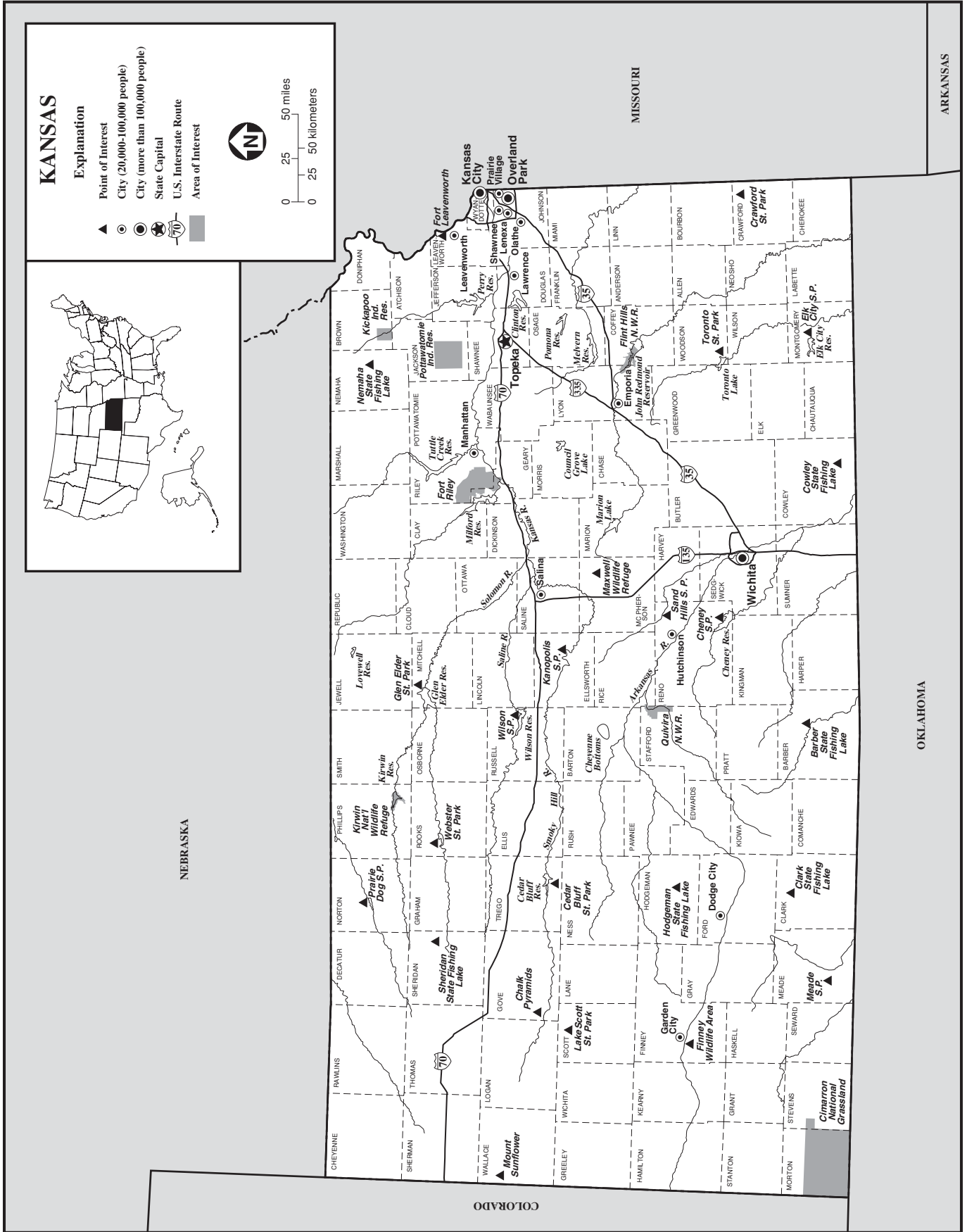
NEBRASKA

COLORADO

MISSOURI

OKLAHOMA

ARKANSAS



8 LANGUAGES

Plains Indians of the Macro-Siouan group originally populated what is now Kansas; their speech echoes in such place-names as Kansas, Wichita, Topeka, Chetopa, and Ogallah.

Regional features of Kansas speech are almost entirely those of the Northern and North Midland dialects, reflecting the migration into Kansas in the 1850s of settlers from the East. Kansans typically use *fish(ing) worms* as bait, play as children on a *teetertotter*, see a *snakefeeder* (dragonfly) over a /krik/ (creek), make *white bread* sandwiches, carry water in a *pail*, and may designate the time 2:45 as a *quarter to*, or *of*, or *till* three.

The migration by southerners in the mid-19th century is evidenced in southeastern Kansas by such South Midland terms as *pullybone* (wishbone) and *light bread* (white bread); the expression *wait on* (wait for) extends farther westward.

In 2000, 2,281,705 Kansans—91.3% of the residents five years old or older (down from 94.3% in 1990)—spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	2,500,360	100.0
Speak only English	2,281,705	91.3
Speak a language other than English	218,655	8.7
Speak a language other than English	218,655	8.7
Spanish or Spanish Creole	137,247	5.5
German	16,821	0.7
Vietnamese	10,393	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	6,591	0.3
Chinese	6,473	0.3
Korean	3,666	0.1
Laotian	3,147	0.1
Arabic	2,834	0.1
Tagalog	2,237	0.1
Russian	1,994	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Protestant missions played an important role in early Kansas history. Isaac McCoy, a Baptist minister, was instrumental in founding the Shawnee Baptist Mission in Johnson County in 1831. Later, Baptist, Methodist, Quaker, Presbyterian, and Jesuit missions became popular stopover points for pioneers traveling along the Oregon and Santa Fe trails. Mennonites were drawn to the state by a law passed in 1874 allowing exemption from military service on religious grounds. Religious freedom is specifically granted in the Kansas constitution, and a wide variety of religious groups are represented in the state.

Roman Catholics constitute the single largest religious group in the state, with 409,906 adherents in 2004. One of the leading Protestant denominations is the United Methodist Church, with 162,202 members in 2004. Others (with 2000 membership data) include the Southern Baptist Convention with 101,696 adherents; the American Baptist Church, 64,312; the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod, 62,712; and the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ), 56,908. The estimated Jewish population in 2000 was 14,500, which represents an increase of over 5,000 adherents since 1990. There were over 18,000 Mennonites throughout the state and about 3,470 Muslims. About 50.6% of the population (or

over 1.3 million people) did not report affiliation with a religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

In the heartland of the nation, Kansas is at the crossroads of US road and railway systems. In 2001, Kansas had 25,638 bridges (third in the nation behind Texas and Ohio). In 2004, the state had 135,017 mi (217,377 km) of public roads. In that same year, there were some 845,000 automobiles, around 1.71 million trucks of all types, and some 1,000 buses registered in Kansas. In 2004, Kansas had 1,979,746 licensed drivers.

In the late 1800s, the two major railroads, the Kansas Pacific (now the Union Pacific) and the Santa Fe (now the Burlington Northern-Santa Fe) acquired more than 10 million acres (4 million hectares) of land in the state and then advertised for immigrants to come and buy it. By 1872, the railroads stretched across the state, creating in their path the towns of Ellsworth, Newton, Caldwell, Wichita, and Dodge City. One of the first “cow towns” was Abilene, the terminal point for all cattle shipped to the East.

In 2003, the state had 6,269 route mi (10,093 km) of railroad track. As of 2006, Amtrak’s Southwest Chief passenger train crosses Kansas, serving six stations in the state en route from Chicago to Los Angeles.

In 2005, Kansas had a total of 409 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 370 airports, 38 heliports, and 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing). The state’s busiest airport is Kansas City International. In 2004, the airport had 5,040,595 enplanements, making it the 39th busiest airport in the United States.

River barges move bulk commodities along the Missouri River. The chief river ports are Atchison, Leavenworth, Lansing, and Kansas City. In 2004, Kansas had 120 mi (193 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 1.694 million tons.

11 HISTORY

Present-day Kansas was first inhabited by Paleo-Indians approximately 10,000 years ago. They were followed by several prehistoric cultures, forerunners of the Plains tribes—the Wichita, Pawnee, Kansa, and Osage—that were living or hunting in Kansas when the earliest Europeans arrived. These tribes were buffalo hunters who also farmed and lived in small permanent communities. Around 1800, they were joined on the Central Plains by the nomadic Cheyenne, Arapaho, Comanche, and Kiowa.

The first European, explorer Francisco Coronado, entered Kansas in 1541, searching for riches in the fabled land of Quivira. He found no gold but was impressed by the land’s fertility. A second Spanish expedition to the Plains was led by Juan de Onate in 1601. Between 1682 and 1739, French explorers established trading contacts with the Indians. France ceded its claims to the area to Spain in 1762 but received it back from Spain in 1800.

Most of Kansas was sold to the United States by France as part of the Louisiana Purchase of 1803. (The extreme southwestern corner was gained after the Mexican War.) Lewis and Clark examined the country along the Missouri River in 1804, and expeditions under the command of Zebulon Pike (1806) and Stephen Long (1819) traversed the land from east to west. Pike and Long were not impressed with the territory’s dry soil, the latter calling

the area “unfit for civilization, and of course uninhabitable by a people depending on agriculture for their subsistence.”

Largely because of these negative reports, early settlement of Kansas was sparse, limited to a few thousand eastern Indians who were removed from their lands and relocated in what is now eastern Kansas. Included were such once-powerful tribes as the Shawnee, Delaware, Ojibwa, Wyandot, Ottawa, and Potawatomi. They were joined by a number of Christian missionaries seeking to transform the Indians into Christian farmers.

William Becknell opened the Santa Fe Trail to wagon traffic in 1822, and for 50 years that route, two-thirds of which lay in Kansas, was of commercial importance to the West. During the 1840s and 1850s, thousands of migrants crossed northeastern Kansas on the California-Oregon Trail. In 1827, Ft. Leavenworth was established, followed by Ft. Scott (1842) and Ft. Riley (1853). Today, Ft. Leavenworth and Ft. Riley are the two largest military installations in the state.

The Kansas Territory was created by the Kansas-Nebraska Act (30 May 1854), with its western boundary set at the Rocky Mountains. Almost immediately, disputes arose as to whether Kansas would enter the Union as a free or slave state. Both free-staters and proslavery settlers were brought in, and a succession of governors tried to bring order out of the chaos arising from the two groups’ differences. Free-staters established an extralegal government at Topeka following the establishment of a territorial capital at Lecompton.

Because of several violent incidents, the territory became known as “Bleeding Kansas.” One of the most memorable attacks came in May 1856, when the town of Lawrence was sacked by proslavery forces. John Brown, an abolitionist who had recently arrived from upstate New York, retaliated by murdering five proslavery settlers. Guerrilla skirmishes continued for the next few years along the Kansas–Missouri border. The final act of violence was the Marais des Cygnes massacre in 1858, which resulted in the death of several free-staters. In all, about 50 people were killed in the territorial period—not an extraordinary number for a frontier community.

After several attempts to write a constitution acceptable to both anti- and proslavery groups, the final document was drafted in 1859. Kansas entered the Union on 29 January 1861 as a free state. Topeka was named the capital, and the western boundary was moved to its present location.

Although Kansas lay west of the major Civil War action, more than two-thirds of its adult males served in the Union Army, giving it the highest military death rate among the northern states. Kansas units saw action in the South and West, most notably at Wilson’s Creek, Cane Hill, Prairie Grove, and Chickamauga. The only full-scale battle fought in Kansas was at Mine Creek in 1864, at the end of General Sterling Price’s unsuccessful Confederate campaign in the West. The most tragic incident on Kansas soil came on 21 August 1863, when Confederate guerrilla William C. Quantrill raided Lawrence, killing at least 150 persons and burning the town.

Following the Civil War, settlement expanded in Kansas, particularly in the central part of the state. White settlers encroached on the hunting grounds of the Plains tribes, and the Indians retaliated with attacks on white settlements. Treaty councils were held, the largest at Medicine Lodge in 1867, but not until 1878 did conflict cease between Indians and whites. Most of the Indians were even-

tually removed to the Indian Territory in what is now Oklahoma. Also during this period, buffalo, slaughtered for food and hides, all but disappeared from the state.

By 1872, both the Union Pacific and the Santa Fe railroads crossed Kansas, and other lines were under construction. Rail expansion brought more settlers, who established new communities. It also led to the great Texas cattle drives that meant prosperity to a number of Kansas towns—including Abilene, Ellsworth, Wichita, Caldwell, and Dodge City—from 1867 to 1885. This was when Bat Masterson, Wyatt Earp, Doc Holliday, and Wild Bill Hickok reigned in Dodge City and Abilene—the now romantic era of the Old West.

A strain of hard winter wheat that proved particularly well suited to the state’s soil was brought to Kansas in the 1870s by Russian Mennonites fleeing czarist rule, and Plains agriculture was thereby transformed. There were also political changes: The state adopted limited female suffrage in 1887. Prohibition, made part of the state constitution in 1880, was a source of controversy until its repeal in 1948.

Significant changes in agriculture, industry, transportation, and communications came after 1900. Mechanization became commonplace in farming, and vast areas were opened to wheat production, particularly during World War I. Some automobile manufacturing took place, and the movement for “good roads” began. The so-called agrarian revolt of the late 19th century, characterized politically by populism, evolved into the Progressive movement of the early 1900s, which focused attention on control of monopolies, public health, labor legislation, and more representative politics. Much of the Progressive leadership came from Kansas; Kansan newspaper editor and national Progressive leader William Allen White devoted considerable energy to Theodore Roosevelt’s Bull Moose campaign in 1912.

Kansas suffered through the Great Depression of the 1930s. The state’s western region, part of the Dust Bowl, was hardest hit. Improved weather conditions and the demands of World War II revived Kansas agriculture in the 1940s. The World War II era also saw the development of industry, especially in transportation. Wichita had been a major center of the aircraft industry in the 1920s and 1930s, and its plants became vital to the US war effort. Other heavy industry grew, and mineral production—oil, natural gas, salt, coal, and gypsum—expanded greatly. In 1952, a native Kansan, Dwight D. Eisenhower, was elected to the first of two terms as president of the United States. Two years later, Topeka became the focal point of a landmark in US history—the US Supreme Court ruling in the *Brown v. Board of Education* case that banned racial segregation in the nation’s schools.

After World War II, Kansas grew increasingly urban. Agriculture became highly commercialized and the state became home to dozens of large companies that process and market farm products and supply materials to crop producers. Livestock production, especially in closely controlled feedlots, is a major enterprise. Kansas farmers were hit hard by the recession of the 1980s. Agricultural banks failed and many farms were lost, their owners forced into bankruptcy. As part of a solution, the state government worked to expand international exports of Kansas products, securing, for example, a trade agreement with the St. Petersburg region of Russia in 1993. The late 1980s and early 1990s also saw dramatic extremes of weather. Kansas received less than 25% of its

normal average rainfall in 1988. Topsoil erosion damaged 865,000 acres (354,650 hectares) and drought drove up commodity prices and depleted grain stocks. From April through September of 1993, Kansas experienced the worst floods of the century. Some 13,500 people evacuated their homes, and the floods caused \$574 million worth of damage.

In the 1990s, in response to the economic problems created by severe weather and a slowdown in industrial growth, the state government implemented a number of measures, including block grants to cities, to bolster economic development. Amid the sustained economic boom of the late 1990s, Kansas generally prospered. Unemployment dropped to just 3%, more than 1 percentage point below the national average, in 1999. The state's poverty rate declined in the period between 1989 (when it was 11.5%) and 1998, when it was 9.6%. But with farmers and ranchers still struggling in 1999, a bipartisan group of rural legislators came together to introduce a plan to address what was by then perceived as a crisis in the state's agricultural economy. Their nine-point plan aimed to shore up the farming sector by restraining the anticompetitive market forces they believed threatened family farmers.

In 1996, native son and US Senate majority leader Robert Dole won the Republican presidential nomination but was defeated by Democratic incumbent Bill Clinton, although Dole carried his home state with 54% of the vote to Clinton's 36%.

In 1999, the Kansas Board of Education voted 6–4 to adopt standards that downplayed the importance of evolution and omitted the Big Bang theory of the universe's origin from the curriculum. Though the standards were not mandatory, they drew national attention, with critics decrying the standards as “backward looking.” The decision was later reversed. In 2005, Kansas adopted a constitutional amendment to ban same-sex marriage, and the Kansas Board of Education resumed hearings to determine whether evolution should once again be eliminated from state science standards.

The Kansas economy was improving in 2003, after the 2001 US recession. Unemployment in Kansas stood at 5% in July 2003.

The national unemployment rate in July 2003 was 6.2%. In 2003, Kansas had a \$230 million budget deficit for 2004, and Governor Kathleen Sebelius in April called for bond sales, expanded gambling, and more rapid tax collection to cover the shortfall. Her plans were met with opposition from the Republican-controlled legislature, however. In 2003, Sebelius focused on education, health care, transportation, and the economy. She also set forth plans to streamline state government and encourage citizen involvement in local communities. Sebelius in 2005 continued to stress goals of improving education, health care, and creating jobs. From 2003 to 2005, Wichita's aircraft industry was shored up, business development in small Kansas towns was increasing, and heavy investments were made in bioscience research at universities and medical centers.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The form of Kansas's constitution was a matter of great national concern, for the question of whether Kansas would be a free or slave state was in doubt throughout the 1850s. After three draft constitutions failed to win popular support or congressional approval, a fourth version, banning slavery, was drafted in July 1859 and ratified by Kansas voters that October. Signed by President James Buchanan on 29 January 1861, this constitution (with 92 subsequent amendments as of 2005, one of which was subsequently nullified by the state supreme court) governs Kansas to the present day.

The Kansas legislature consists of a 40-member Senate and a 125-member House of Representatives. Senators serve four-year terms and House members serve for two years; elections are held in even-numbered years. Legislative sessions, which begin the second Monday of January each year, are limited to 90 calendar days in even-numbered years but are unlimited in odd-numbered years. Legislators may call a special session by petition to the governor of two-thirds the membership of each house. Length of special sessions is not limited. Legislators must be at least 18 years old, state citizens, residents of their districts, and qualified voters.

Kansas Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	KANSAS WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	PROHIBITION
1948	8	Dewey (R)	351,902	423,039	4,603	2,807	6,468
1952	8	*Eisenhower (R)	273,296	616,302	6,038	530	6,038
1956	8	*Eisenhower (R)	296,317	566,878	—	—	3,048
1960	8	Nixon (R)	363,213	561,474	—	—	4,138
1964	7	*Johnson (D)	464,028	386,579	—	1,901	5,393
					AMERICAN IND.		
1968	7	*Nixon (R)	302,996	478,674	88,921	—	2,192
1972	7	*Nixon (R)	270,287	619,812	21,808	—	4,188
						LIBERTARIAN	
1976	7	Ford (R)	430,421	502,752	4,724	3,242	1,403
1980	7	*Reagan (R)	326,150	566,812	7,555	14,470	—
1984	7	*Reagan (R)	333,149	677,296	—	3,329	—
1988	7	*Bush (R)	422,636	554,049	3,806	12,553	—
					IND. (Perot)		
1992	6	Bush (R)	390,434	449,951	312,358	4,314	—
1996	6	Dole (R)	387,659	583,245	92,639	4,557	—
					(Nader)		REFORM
2000	6	*Bush, G. W. (R)	399,276	622,332	36,086	4,525	7,370
					REFORM (Nader)		INDEPENDENT
2004	6	*Bush, G. W. (R)	434,993	736,456	9,348	4,013	2,899

*Won US presidential election.

In 2004, legislators received a per diem salary of \$78.75 during regular sessions.

Constitutional amendments are proposed by the legislature, where they must be approved by two-thirds of the members before being sent to the voters for ratification. A maximum of five proposed amendments may be submitted to the state's voters at any one time.

Officials elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, and commissioner of insurance. Members of the state Board of Education are elected by districts. All elected state officials serve four-year terms. The governor cannot serve more than two consecutive terms. Every office in the executive branch is controlled by either the governor or another elected official. There are no formal age, citizenship, or residency provisions for a gubernatorial candidate's qualifications for office. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$98,331.

A bill becomes law when it has been approved by 21 senators and 63 representatives and signed by the governor. A veto can be overridden by two-thirds of the elected members of both houses. If the governor neither vetoes nor signs a bill, it becomes law after 10 days (whether or not the legislature is in session).

To vote in the state, a person must be a US citizen, 18 years old at the time of the election, a resident of Kansas, and not able to claim the right to vote elsewhere. Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court to be mentally incompetent to vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Kansas was dominated by the Republican Party for the first three decades of statehood (1860s–1880s). Although the Republicans remain the dominant force in state politics, the Democrats controlled the governorship in the early 2000s.

The Republican Party of early Kansas espoused the abolitionist ideals of the New England settlers who sought to ban slavery from the state. After the Civil War, the railroads played a major role in Republican politics and won favorable tax advantages from the elected officials. The party's ranks swelled with the arrival of immigrants from Scandinavia and Germany, who tended to side with the party's strongly conservative beliefs.

The Republicans' hold over state life was shaken by the Populist revolt toward the end of the 19th century. The high point of Populist Party power came in 1892, when the insurgents won all statewide elective offices and also took control of the Senate. When electoral irregularities denied them control of the House, they temporarily seized the House chambers. The two parties then set up separate houses of representatives, the Populists meeting one day and the Republicans the next. This continued for six weeks, until the Kansas Supreme Court ruled that the Republicans constituted the rightful legal body. After a Republican sweep in 1894, the Populists returned to office in 1896, but the party declined rapidly thereafter.

The Democrats rose to power in the state as a result of a split between the conservative and progressive wings of the Republican Party in 1912. Nevertheless, the Democrats were very much a minority party until after World War II. Democratic Kathleen Sebelius was elected governor in 2002. Republicans have regularly controlled the legislature. In 2004, there were 1,694,000 registered

voters. In 1998, 29% of registered voters were Democratic, 45% Republican, and 26% unaffiliated or members of other parties.

In 1988 and 1992, Kansans voted for George H. W. Bush in the presidential elections. In the 1996 election, native Kansan Bob Dole won 54% of the vote; Bill Clinton received 36%; and Independent Ross Perot garnered 9%. In the 2000 and 2004 elections, Republican George W. Bush won 58% and 62% of the vote, respectively, to Democrat Al Gore's 37% (in 2000) and Democrat John Kerry's 36% (in 2004). The state had six electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

Bob Dole, first elected to the US Senate in 1968 and elected Senate majority leader in 1984, reclaimed the post of majority leader when the Republicans gained control of the Senate in the elections of 1994. In a surprise move in May 1996, Dole announced his retirement from the Senate to concentrate on his presidential campaign. In November, the race to fill his remaining term was won by Republican Sam Brownback. Completing the term, Brownback won his first full term in November 1998; he was reelected in 2004. Kansas's other Republican senator, Nancy Landon Kassebaum, also vacated her seat in 1996; it was won by Republican congressman Pat Roberts, who was reelected in 2002. In the 2004 elections, Kansas voters sent three Republicans and one Democrat to the US House. In the state legislature in mid-2005, there were 30 Republicans and 10 Democrats in the state Senate and 83 Republicans and 42 Democrats in the state House.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Kansas had 105 counties, 627 municipal governments, 304 public school districts, and 1,533 special districts. As of 2002, there were 1,299 townships.

By law, no county can be less than 432 sq mi (1,119 sq km). Each county government is headed by elected county commissioners. Other county officials include the county clerk, treasurer, register of deeds, attorney, sheriff, clerk of district court, and appraiser. Most cities are run by mayor-council systems.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 137,278 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Kansas operates under the authority of the governor; the adjutant general is designated as the state homeland security adviser.

All education services, including community colleges, are handled by the state Board of Education; the state university system lies within the jurisdiction of the Board of Regents. The Department of Human Resources administers employment and worker benefit programs. The Kansas Housing Resources Corporation creates housing opportunities for Kansans. Social, vocational, and children's and youth programs are run by the Department of Social and Rehabilitation Services. The Department of Health and Environment supervises health, environment, and laboratory services. Other departments focus on agriculture, corrections, revenue, transportation, wildlife and parks, aging, and information systems and communication.

A "Sunset Law" automatically abolishes specified state agencies at certain times unless they receive renewed statutory authority.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Kansas Supreme Court, the highest court in the state, is composed of a chief justice and six other justices. All justices are appointed by the governor but after one year must run for election in the next general election. They are then elected for six-year terms. In case of rejection by the voters, the vacancy is filled by appointment. An intermediate-level court of appeals consists of a chief judge and six other judges appointed by the governor; like supreme court justices, they must be elected to full terms, in this case for four years.

In January 1977, probate, juvenile, and county courts, as well as magistrate courts of countywide jurisdiction, were replaced by district courts. The 31 district courts are presided over by 156 district and associate district judges and 69 district magistrate judges.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 8,966 prisoners were held in state and federal prisons in Kansas, a decrease (from 9,132) of 1.8% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 620 inmates were female, down from 629 or 1.4% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (includes some sentenced to one year or less), Kansas had an incarceration rate of 327 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Kansas in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 374.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 10,245 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 108,694 reported incidents or 3,973.5 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Kansas had a death penalty until 17 December 2004 when the state's death penalty statutes were declared unconstitutional. However, as of 1 January 2006, eight inmates remained on death row.

In 2003, Kansas spent \$56,896,421 on homeland security, an average of \$21 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The US Army's First Infantry Division, known as the Big Red One, was located at Ft. Riley in Junction City until 1996, when the colors of the First Infantry Division moved to Würzburg, Germany. Founded in 1827, Ft. Leavenworth is the oldest continuously active military fort west of the Mississippi. The Army's Combined Arms Center Command (CAC) and General Staff College is housed there. McConnell Air Force Base is located in Wichita. A total of 20,039 active-duty federal military personnel, along with 3,762 civilian personnel, were stationed in Kansas in 2004. In 2004, \$1.4 billion in defense contracts was awarded to state firms, up from \$762 million in 1995–96 and down from \$2.4 billion in 1983–84. In addition, another \$1.5 billion in defense payroll spending, including retired military pay, came to the state.

There were 246,359 veterans of US military service in Kansas as of 2003, of whom 36,042 served in World War II; 26,804 in the Korean conflict; 76,710 during the Vietnam era; and 38,422 in the Gulf War. During fiscal year 2004, expenditures on veterans were \$592 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the Kansas Highway Patrol employed 535 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

By the 1770s, Kansas was inhabited by a few thousand Indians, mainly from five tribes: the Kansa (Kaw) and the Osage, both of whom had migrated from the East, the Pawnee from the North, and the Wichita and Comanche, who had come from the Southwest. In 1825, the US government signed a treaty with the Kansa and Osage that allowed eastern Indians to settle in the state.

The first wave of white migration came during the 1850s with the arrival of New England abolitionists who settled in Lawrence, Topeka, and Manhattan. They were followed by a much larger wave of emigrants from the eastern Missouri and the upper Mississippi Valley, drawn by the lure of wide-open spaces and abundant economic opportunity.

The population swelled as a result of the Homestead Act of 1862, which offered land to anyone who would improve it and live on it for five years. The railroads promoted the virtues of Kansas overseas and helped sponsor immigrant settlers. By 1870, 11% of the population was European. More than 30,000 blacks, mostly from the South, arrived during 1878–80. Crop failures caused by drought in the late 1890s led to extensive out-migration from the western half of the state. Another period of out-migration occurred in the early 1930s, when massive dust storms drove people off the land. Steady migration from farms to cities has been a feature of Kansas since the early 20th century, with urban population surpassing farm population after World War II. From 1980 to 1990, the urban population increased from 66.7% to 69.1% of the state's total. Also from 1980 to 1990, Kansas had a net loss of 63,411 from migration. Only 10 of Kansas's 105 counties recorded a net gain from migration in the 1980s. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 13,000 in domestic migration and a gain of 24,000 in international migration. In 1998, 3,184 foreign immigrants arrived in the state. Between 1990 and 1998, Kansas's overall population increased 6.1%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 38,222 and net internal migration was -57,763, for a net loss of 19,541 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Kansas is a member of the Arkansas River Compact of 1949, Arkansas River Compact of 1965, Central Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact, Kansas-Nebraska Big Blue River Compact, Kansas City Area Transportation Authority, Kansas-Missouri Boundary Compact and Culture District Compact, Missouri River Toll Bridge Compact, Republican River Compact, and other interstate bodies. The Interstate Cooperation Commission assists state officials and employees in maintaining contact with governmental units in other states. In fiscal year 2001, Kansas received over \$2.7 billion in federal grants. Following a national trend, that amount dropped to \$2.561 billion in fiscal year 2005, before gradually recovering to an estimated \$2.663 billion in fiscal year 2006 and an estimated \$2.755 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Although wheat production has long been the mainstay of the Kansas economy, efforts to bring other industries into the state began as early as the 1870s, when the railroads linked Kansas to eastern markets. By 2000, agricultural products and meat-packing industries were rivaled by the large aircraft industry centered in

Wichita. Four Kansas companies, all located in Wichita, manufacture 70% of the world's general aviation aircraft. The Kansas City metropolitan area is a center of automobile production and printing. Metal fabrication, printing, and mineral products industries predominate in the nine southeastern counties. Kansas continues to lead all states in wheat production. The national recession of 2001 had a relatively mild impact on the Kansas economy. The annual economic growth rate, which had averaged 5% from 1998 to 2000, dipped to 3.2% in 2001. Net job creation, though sharply slowed by layoffs in 2001 and 2002, including several rounds of layoffs in the Wichita aircraft manufacturing industry, remained positive, in contrast to the nation as whole, in which job creation turned to net layoffs in the second half of 2001 and stayed negative throughout 2002. In December 2002, however, unemployment in Kansas was at the relatively high level of 4.6%. The farm sector was also afflicted by drought conditions, which persisted into the winter of 2002–03. In 2002, on a year-by-year basis, wheat production was down 19%, corn production down 26%, and soybean production down 29%. Kansas's rural population continues its long-term decline as people migrate to urban areas seeking better employment opportunities. Since 1970, 67 of the state's 105 counties have lost population, and in 19 of these, the rate of decrease accelerated during the 1990s. From 1997 to 2001, Kansas farm output experienced a net decrease of 34.5%, from \$2.7 billion to \$1.8 billion.

The state's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$98.946 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest portion at \$14.897 billion or 15% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$8.790 billion (8.8% of GSP) and health care and social services at \$6.930 billion (7% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 229,776 small businesses in Kansas. Of the 69,241 businesses that had employees, a total of 67,120 or 96.9% were small companies. An estimated 6,742 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 11.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 7,250, down 13.6% from 2003. There were 268 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 11.6% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 585 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Kansas as the 21st highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005, Kansas had a gross state product (GSP) of \$105 billion, which accounted for 0.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 32 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004, Kansas had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$31,078. This ranked 27th in the United States and was 94% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.0%. Kansas had a total personal income (TPI) of \$84,957,195,000, which ranked 31st in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.0% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.6%. Earnings of persons employed in Kansas increased from \$61,785,883,000 in 2003 to \$65,176,017,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$43,725 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same peri-

od, 10.7% of the population was below the poverty line, compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Kansas numbered 1,481,300. Approximately 67,400 workers were unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,345,900. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Kansas was 7.4% in September 1982. The historical low was 2.9% in October 1978. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.9% of the labor force was employed in construction; 19.3% in manufacturing; 19.3% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 9.8% in professional and business services; 12.4% in education and health services; 8.4% in leisure and hospitality services; and 18.9% in government. Data were unavailable for financial services.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 85,000 of Kansas's 1,210,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 7% of those so employed, down from 8.4% in 2004 and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 115,000 workers (9.5%) in Kansas were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Kansas is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law, which is a part of the state's constitution.

As of 1 March 2006, Kansas had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$2.65 per hour. However, that rate does not apply to employment covered by the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Known as the Wheat State and the breadbasket of the nation, Kansas typically produces more wheat than any other state. It ranked fifth in total farm income in 2005, with cash receipts of \$9.7 billion.

Because of fluctuating prices, Kansas farmers have always risked economic disaster. During the 1920s, depressed farm prices forced many new farmers out of business. By World War II, Kansas farmers were prospering again, as record prices coincided with record yields. Since then, improved technology has favored corporate farms at the expense of small landholders. Between 1940 and 2002, the number of farms declined from 159,000 to 64,500, while the average size of farms more than doubled (to 732 acres/296 hectares). Income from crops in 2005 totaled \$3.1 billion.

Other leading crops are alfalfa, hay, oats, barley, popcorn, rye, dry edible beans, corn and sorghums for silage, wild hay, red clover, and sugar beets.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2001, Kansas dairy farmers had an estimated 111,000 milk cows that produced 2.11 billion lb (0.96 billion kg) of milk.

In 2005, Kansas farmers had an estimated 6.65 million cattle and calves (second in the United States) worth \$5.51 billion. Kan-

sas farmers had an estimated 1.72 million hogs and pigs worth around \$160 million in 2004. An estimated 6.9 million lb (3.1 million kg) of sheep and lambs were produced by Kansas farmers in 2003 and sold for \$6.1 million. The wool clip in 2004 totaled 485,000 lb (220,000 kg).

2⁵ FISHING

There is little commercial fishing in Kansas. Sport fishermen can find bass, crappie, catfish, perch, and pike in the state's reservoirs and artificial lakes. In 2004, there were 265,238 fishing licenses issued by the state. The Kansas Department of Wildlife and Parks' objectives for fisheries include provision of 11.7 million angler trips annually on Kansas reservoirs, lakes, streams, and private waters, while maintaining the quantity and quality of the catch. There are four state hatcheries.

2⁶ FORESTRY

Kansas was at one time so barren of trees that early settlers were offered 160 acres (65 hectares) free if they would plant trees on their land. This program was rarely implemented, however, and today much of Kansas is still treeless.

Kansas has 1,545,000 acres (625,000 hectares) of forestland, 2.9% of the total state area. There are 1,491,000 acres (491,000 hectares) of commercial timberland, of which 96% are privately owned.

2⁷ MINING

According to data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the value of nonfuel mineral production by Kansas in 2004 was \$754 million, an increase from 2003 of 8.3%. The USGS data ranked Kansas as 23rd among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for almost 1.7% of total US output.

Portland cement, Grade-A helium, salt, and crushed stone were the leading nonfuel mineral commodities produced by the state, accounting for around 28%, 25%, 17%, and 14%, respectively, of all nonfuel mineral production by value in 2004 and about 84% of all output collectively. Nationally, Kansas continued to rank first out of only two states in the production of Grade-A and crude helium. In addition, the state was fifth in the production of salt and eighth in the production of gypsum.

Portland cement production in 2004 totaled 2.69 million metric tons and was valued at an estimated \$212 million. Grade-A helium output that same year totaled 82 million cu m and was valued at \$189 million, while salt production totaled 2.89 million metric tons, with a value of \$127 million. The production of crushed stone totaled 19.8 million metric tons and was valued at \$109 million. Kansas was also a producer of common clays and dimension stone in 2004.

A total of 7,041 people were employed in Kansas in all aspects of mining during 2004.

2⁸ ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Kansas had 154 electrical power service providers, of which 119 were publicly owned and 29 were cooperatives. The remaining, six were investor owned. As of that same year, there were 1,400,945 retail customers. Of that total, 952,229 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives ac-

counted for 212,001 customers, while publicly owned providers had 236,715 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 10.887 million kW, with total production that same year at 46.567 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 99.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 35.109 billion kWh (75.4%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 8.889 billion kWh (19.1%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 0.8% of all power generated, with petroleum and natural gas-fired plants at 2.1% and 2.6%, respectively.

As of 2006, Kansas had one single-unit nuclear plant, the Wolf Creek plant in Burlington.

As of 2004, Kansas had proven crude oil reserves of 245 million barrels, or 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 92,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 11th (10th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and ninth (eighth excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004, Kansas had 40,474 producing oil wells. As of 2005, the state's three refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 296,200 barrels per day.

In 2004, Kansas had 18,120 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 397.121 billion cu ft (11.2 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 4,652 billion cu ft (132.1 billion cu m).

Kansas in 2004, had only one producing coal mine, a surface operation. Coal production that year totaled 71,000 short tons, down from 154,000 short tons in 2003. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

2⁹ INDUSTRY

Kansas is a world leader in aviation, claiming a large share of both US and world production and sales of commercial aircraft. Wichita is a manufacturing center for Boeing, Cessna, Learjet, and Raytheon, which combined manufacture approximately 70% of the world's general aviation aircraft.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Kansas's manufacturing sector covered some 17 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$56.464 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$15.553 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$14.704 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$4.413 billion; petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$4.286 billion; and chemical manufacturing at \$3.654 billion.

In 2004, a total of 167,982 people in Kansas were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 117,307 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 40,982 with 24,250 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 30,574 employees (24,828 actual pro-

duction workers); machinery manufacturing at 17,677 employees (11,786 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 13,598 employees (9,941 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 11,632 employees (9,782 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Kansas's manufacturing sector paid \$6.937 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.239 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$918.509 million; machinery manufacturing at \$710.873 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$483.794 million; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$435.765 million.

30 COMMERCE

Domestically, Kansas is not a major commercial state. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Kansas's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$44.1 billion from 4,705 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,535 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,741 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 429 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$18.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$21.9 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$4.03 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Kansas was listed as having 11,890 retail establishments with sales of \$26.5 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,612); gasoline stations (1,464); miscellaneous store retailers (1,382); and food and beverage stores (1,379). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$6.8 billion, followed by general merchandise stores \$4.7 billion; food and beverage stores at \$3.8 billion; gasoline stations \$2.6 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers \$2.3 billion. A total of 144,874 people were employed by the retail sector in Kansas that year.

Exporters located in Kansas exported \$6.7 billion in merchandise during 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The attorney general's Consumer Protection and Antitrust Division enforces the Kansas Consumer Protection Act, which protects consumers against fraud and false advertising. The consumer credit commissioner is responsible for administering the state's investment and common credit codes.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office (through its Consumer Protection Division) can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts. However, the office cannot commence criminal proceedings, nor can it represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The attorney general's Consumer Protection and Antitrust Division is located in Topeka. County government-based consumer protection offices are located in the cities of Olathe and Wichita.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Kansas had 371 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 94 state-chartered and 26 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Kansas City (Missouri and Kansas) market area had the most financial institutions in the state with 152 and deposits at \$32.593 billion, followed by Wichita at 58 and \$8.453 billion, respectively. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 5% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$3.082 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 95% or \$58.460 billion in assets held.

Regulation of Kansas's state-chartered financial institutions is handled by the Kansas Office of the State Bank Commissioner. In 1993, the state savings and loan commissioner's office was merged into the state bank commissioner's office.

In 2005, the state's insured financial institutions reported a median return on assets (ROA) of 1.02%, up slightly from 2004, which stood at 1%. The improvement in ROA resulted from lower loan losses and improved net interest margins.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were over 1.6 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$129 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$195 billion. The average coverage amount was \$76,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$570 million.

In 2003, 12 life and health and 27 property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled in Kansas. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$4.4 billion. That year, there were 9,933 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1 billion. About \$290 million of coverage was offered through FAIR (Fair Access to Insurance) Plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 59% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 6% held individual policies, and 21% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 23% for single coverage and 29% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.2 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection and uninsured motorist coverage are also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$610.29.

34 SECURITIES

There are no stock exchanges in Kansas. In 2005, there were 800 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,480 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 46 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 26 NASDAQ companies, 4 NYSE listings, and 2 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 500 company; YRC Worldwide (on NASDAQ) ranked 263rd in the nation with revenues of over \$8.7 million. Seaboard (AMEX), Payless Shoesource (NYSE), Ferrellgas Partners (NYSE), and Westar Energy (NYSE) all made the Fortune 1,000 list.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The state budget is prepared by the Division of the Budget and submitted by the governor to the legislature for approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June. Generally, according to state law, no Kansas governmental unit may issue revenue bonds to finance current activities. These must operate on a cash basis. Bonds may be issued for such capital improvements as roads and buildings.

In fiscal year 2006, general funds were estimated at \$5.6 billion for resources and \$5.1 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Kansas were \$3.4 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Kansas was slated to receive \$33.9 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006. The state was also scheduled to receive \$14.5 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Kansas fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 13% increase over fiscal year 2006.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Kansas collected \$5,599 million in tax revenues or \$2,040 per capita, which placed it 32nd among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 1.1% of the total, sales taxes 35.6%, selective sales taxes 14.1%, individual income taxes 36.6%, corporate income taxes 4.4%, and other taxes 8.2%.

As of 1 January 2006, Kansas had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 3.5% to 6.45%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 4.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$3,246,616,000 or \$1,187 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 14th nationally. Local governments collected \$3,189,062,000 of the total and the state government \$57,554,000.

Kansas taxes retail sales at a rate of 5.30%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 3%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8.30%. Food purchased for consumption off premises is taxable, although an income tax credit is allowed to offset sales tax on food. The tax on cigarettes is 79 cents per pack, which ranks 27th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Kansas taxes gasoline at 24 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Kansas citizens received \$1.12 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The first state commission to promote industrial development was formed in 1939. In 1986, this commission was reorganized into the Kansas Department of Commerce, and in 1992 it became the Department of Commerce and Housing. The department later renamed itself the Department of Commerce (KDOC) once again. The department in 2006 consisted of five divisions: Agriculture

Kansas—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	11,044,146	4,039.56
General revenue	9,868,956	3,609.71
Intergovernmental revenue	3,000,037	1,097.31
Taxes	5,283,676	1,932.58
General sales	1,932,927	707.00
Selective sales	790,225	289.04
License taxes	274,619	100.45
Individual income tax	1,915,530	700.63
Corporate income tax	166,609	60.94
Other taxes	203,766	74.53
Current charges	897,814	328.39
Miscellaneous general revenue	687,429	251.44
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	1,175,190	429.84
Total expenditure	11,207,121	4,099.17
Intergovernmental expenditure	2,878,801	1,052.96
Direct expenditure	8,328,320	3,046.20
Current operation	5,736,524	2,098.22
Capital outlay	1,032,362	377.60
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,104,320	403.92
Assistance and subsidies	288,708	105.60
Interest on debt	166,406	60.87
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,639,641	599.72
Total expenditure	11,207,121	4,099.17
General expenditure	10,102,801	3,695.25
Intergovernmental expenditure	2,878,801	1,052.96
Direct expenditure	7,224,000	2,642.28
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	4,444,689	1,625.71
Public welfare	2,475,046	905.28
Hospitals	107,780	39.42
Health	287,430	105.13
Highways	1,225,504	448.25
Police protection	74,193	27.14
Correction	316,669	115.83
Natural resources	185,658	67.91
Parks and recreation	7,466	2.73
Government administration	420,302	153.73
Interest on general debt	166,406	60.87
Other and unallocable	391,658	143.25
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	1,104,320	403.92
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,571,408	1,672.06
Cash and security holdings	14,077,579	5,149.08

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Marketing Development; Community Development; Travel and Tourism; Business Development; and Trade Development. In the 21st century, the KDOC has recommended investments in the fields of aviation, plastics, value-added agriculture, call centers, administrative service centers, and wholesale, packaging, and distribution. Events sponsored by the KDOC include training in downtown revitalization, conferences on finding new markets through international trade and, for leaders, facilitating international business, and workshops on applying for community development block grants (CDBGs).

Kansas provides tax-exempt bonds to help finance business and industry. Specific tax incentives include job expansion and investment tax credits; tax exemptions or moratoriums on land, capital improvements, and specific machinery; and certain corporate income tax exemptions.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.3 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 21.4 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 87.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 78% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were as follows: heart disease, 246; cancer, 197.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 67.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 50.3; and diabetes, 28.2. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 4.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 57.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Kansas had 134 community hospitals with about 10,600 beds. There were about 331,000 patient admissions that year and 6 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 5,900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$952. Also in 2003, there were about 374 certified nursing facilities in the state with 27,045 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 78%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 74.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Kansas had 235 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 923 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,360 dentists in the state.

About 21% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.7 billion.

The University of Kansas has the state's only medical and pharmacology schools. The university's Mid-America Cancer Center and Radiation Therapy Center are the major cancer research and treatment facilities in the state. The Menninger Foundation has a research and treatment center for mental health.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Public assistance and social programs are coordinated through the Department of Human Resources and the Department of Social and Rehabilitation Services. In 2004, about 68,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly un-

employment benefit at \$272. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 177,782 persons (78,165 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$84.37 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$179.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Kansas's TANF program is called Kansas Works. In 2004, the state program had 44,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$83 million fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 447,140 Kansas residents. This number included 291,570 retired workers, 45,770 widows and widowers, 51,520 disabled workers, 24,660 spouses, and 33,620 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.4% of the total state population and 93.7% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$979; widows and widowers, \$956; disabled workers, \$866; and spouses, \$497. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$497 per month; children of deceased workers, \$628; and children of disabled workers, \$253. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments went to 38,476 Kansas residents in December 2004, averaging \$384 a month.

40 HOUSING

Kansas has relatively old housing stock. According to a 2004 survey, about 20% of all housing units were built in 1939 or earlier and 49.6% were built between 1940 and 1979. The overwhelming majority (73.8%) were one-unit, detached structures and 69.5% were owner occupied. The total number of housing units in 2004 was estimated at 1,185,114, of which 1,076,366 were occupied. Most units relied on utility gas and electricity for heating. It was estimated that 46,269 units lacked telephone service, 3,554 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 5,093 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.47 members.

In 2004, 13,300 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$102,458. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,013. Renters paid a median of \$567 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$17.2 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 89.6% of those age 25 and older were high school graduates, compared to the national average of 84%. Some 30% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

In 1954, Kansas was the focal point of a US Supreme Court decision that had enormous implications for US public education. The court ruled in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* that Topeka's "separate but equal" elementary schools for black and white students were inherently unequal, and it ordered the school system to integrate.

Total public school enrollment for fall 2002 stood at 471,000. Of these, 322,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade

eight, and 149,000 attended high school. Approximately 76.4% of the students were white, 8.9% were black, 11% were Hispanic, 2.3% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.4% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 465,000 in fall 2003 and was estimated to be 471,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 0.1% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$3.96 billion. There were 41,762 students enrolled in 229 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Kansas scored 284 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 188,049 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 13.3% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Kansas had 63 degree-granting institutions. There are 9 four-year public institutions, 27 public two-year schools, and 21 private nonprofit four-year institutions. In addition, Kansas has a state technical institute, a municipal university (Washburn University, Topeka), and an American Indian university. Kansas State University was the nation's first land-grant university. Washburn University and the University of Kansas have the state's two law schools. The oldest higher-education institution in Kansas is Highland Community College, which was chartered in 1857. The oldest four-year institution is Baker University, a United Methodist institution, which received its charter just three days after Highland's was issued. The Kansas Board of Regents offers scholarships and tuition grants to Kansas students in need.

42 ARTS

The Kansas Arts Commission is a state arts agency governed by a 12-member panel of commissioners appointed for four-year rotating terms by the governor. The commission's annual budget is made up of funds appropriated by the Kansas legislature and grants awarded to the agency by the National Endowment for the Arts. In 2005, the Kansas Arts Commission and other Kansas arts organizations received 12 grants totaling \$767,470 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Arts Commission is also in partnership with the regional Mid-America Arts Alliance. The Kansas Humanities Council, founded in 1972, sponsors programs involving over 500,000 people each year. In 2005, the state received \$864,264 in the form of 13 grants from the National Endowment for the Humanities.

The largest and most active arts organization in the state is the Wichita Symphony Orchestra; established in 1944, it is one of the oldest arts organizations in the state. The Koch Industries Twilight Pops Concert has become the largest event of the annual Wichita River Festival. Attracting some 100,000 people, the Wichita Symphony performs a wide range of music at this outdoor concert, including favorite patriotic pieces and rock choices. The Topeka Performing Arts Center presents concerts and shows of a variety of music. Topeka also hosts the Topeka Symphony, established in 1946. The 2005/06 season marked the Topeka Symphony's 60th Anniversary Diamond Jubilee celebration.

The Wichita Art Museum, established in 1915, is noted for its emphasis on American art and American artistic heritage. Its per-

manent Roland P. Murdock Collection boasts works by Mary Cassatt, Winslow Homer, and Edward Hopper.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Kansas had 321 public library systems, with a total of 373 libraries, of which 53 were branches. In that same year, the state's public library system had 10,438,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves and a total circulation of 21,488,000. The system also had 339,000 audio and 411,000 video items, 21,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and five bookmobiles. The Dwight D. Eisenhower Library in Abilene houses a collection of papers and memorabilia from the 34th president. There is also a museum. The Menninger Foundation Museum and Archives in Topeka maintains various collections pertaining to psychiatry. The Kansas State Historical Society Library (Topeka) contains the state's archives. Volumes of books and documents on the Old West are found in the Cultural Heritage and Arts Center Library in Dodge City, with 10,207,000 volumes and a circulation of 20,808,000. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$770,029,000, which included \$607,000 in federal grants and \$1,870,000 in state grants.

Almost 188 museums, historical societies, and art galleries were scattered across the state in 2000. The Dyche Museum of Natural History at the University of Kansas, Lawrence, draws many visitors. The Kansas State Historical Society maintains an extensive collection of ethnological and archaeological materials in Topeka.

Among the art museums are the Mulvane Art Center in Topeka, the Helen Foresman Spencer Museum of Art at the University of Kansas, and the Wichita Art Museum. The Dalton Museum in Coffeyville displays memorabilia from the famed Dalton family of desperadoes. La Crosse is the home of the Barbed Wire Museum, displaying more than 500 varieties of barbed wire. The Emmett Kelly Historical Museum in Sedan honors the world-famous clown born there. The US Cavalry Museum is on the grounds of Ft. Riley. The Sedgwick County Zoo in Wichita and the Topeka Zoo are the largest of seven zoological gardens in Kansas.

The entire town of Nicodemus, where many blacks settled after the Civil War, was made a national historic landmark in 1975. The chalk formations of Monument Rocks in western Kansas constitute the state's only national natural landmark. Ft. Scott and Ft. Larned are national historic parks.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

About 94.8% of all households had telephone service in 2004. Additionally, by June of that same year, there were 1,345,160 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 63.8% of Kansas households had a computer and 54.3% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 419,938 high-speed lines in Kansas, 385,369 residential and 34,569 for business.

The state had 15 major AM and 54 major FM radio stations, 14 major commercial television stations, and 4 public television stations in 2005. In 2000, Kansas had registered a total of 42,009 Internet domain names.

45 PRESS

Starting with the *Shawnee Sun*, a Shawnee-language newspaper founded by missionary Jotham Meeker in 1833, the press has

played an important role in Kansas history. The most famous Kansas newspaperman was William Allen White, whose *Emporia Gazette* was a leading voice of Progressive Republicanism around the turn of the century. Earlier, John J. Ingalls launched his political career by editing the *Atchison Freedom's Champion*. Captain Henry King came from Illinois to found the *State Record* and *Daily Capital* in Topeka.

In 2005, Kansas had 43 daily newspapers (9 morning and 34 evening) and 14 Sunday papers.

Leading newspapers and their circulations in 2005 were as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Topeka	<i>Capital-Journal</i> (m,S)	89,469	64,585
Wichita	<i>Eagle</i> (m,S)	96,506	146,727

The *Kansas City* (Missouri) *Star* (275,747 daily; 388,425 Sundays) is widely read in the Kansas as well as in the Missouri part of the metropolitan area.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 3,790 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,440 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the national organizations headquartered in Kansas are the American Association for Public Opinion Research, American Institute of Baking, American Medical Society for Sports Medicine, International Association for Jazz Education, and Lefthanders International.

State and regional cultural and educational organizations include the Association of Community Arts Agencies of Kansas and the Kansas State Historical Society, as well as a number of county historical societies and regional arts groups. The national offices of Mennonite Women USA and Mennonite Voluntary services are in Newton.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Kansas has 23 state parks, 2 national historic sites, 24 federal reservoirs, 48 state fishing lakes, more than 100 privately owned campsites, and more than 304,000 acres (123,000 hectares) of public hunting and game management lands. The two major national historic sites are Ft. Larned and Ft. Scott, both 19th-century Army bases on the Indian frontier. In 2002, the top five parks (based on number of visitors) were Hillsdale State Park (1.6 million), El Dorado State Park (1 million), Clinton Lake, Perry Lake, and Tuttle Creek Lake.

The most popular tourist attraction, with over 2.4 million visitors in 2002, is Cabela's (Kansas City), a 190,000 square-foot showroom and shopping center featuring a mule deer museum, a 65,000 gallon aquarium, a gun library, and Yukon base camp grill. The next-ranking visitor sites in 2002 were Harrah's Prairie Band Casino (Mayetta), the Kansas City Speedway, Sedgwick County Zoo (Wichita), Woodlands Race Tracks (Kansas City), New Theatre Restaurant (Overland Park), Exploration Place (Wichita) and the Kansas Cosmosphere and Space Center (Hutchinson).

Topeka features a number of tourist attractions, including the state capitol, state historical museum, and Menninger Foundation. Dodge City offers a reproduction of Old Front Street as it was when the town was the "cowboy capital of the world." Historic Wichita Cowtown is another frontier-town reproduction. In

Hanover stands the only remaining original and unaltered Pony Express station. A recreated "Little House on the Prairie," near the childhood home of Laura Ingalls Wilder, is 13 mi (21 km) southwest of Independence. The Eisenhower Center in Abilene contains the 34th president's family home, library, and museum. The state fair is held in Hutchinson.

Kansas has six national parks including the site of the famous school desegregation lawsuit *Brown v. the Board of Education* (in Shawnee County). Carrie Nation (of Medicine Lodge) founded the Temperance Movement leading to the Prohibition Act, which outlawed the sale and consumption of alcohol. The University of Kansas (at Lawrence) is home to the Dole Institute of Politics, founded by former vice president Robert Dole. Famous aviator Amelia Earhart hails from Abilene, as does President Dwight D. Eisenhower. Each April, the city of Flint Hills hosts the Prairie Fire Festival, when there is a controlled burn of dead prairie material.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Kansas. The minor league Wichita Wranglers play in the Double-A Texas League and the Kansas City T-Bones play in the Northern League. There is also a minor league hockey team in Wichita. During spring, summer, and early fall, horses are raced at Eureka Downs. The national Greyhound Association Meet is held in Abilene.

The University of Kansas and Kansas State both play collegiate football in the Big Twelve Conference. Kansas went to the Orange Bowl in 1948 and 1969, losing both times. The Jayhawks won the Aloha Bowl in 1992 and 1995. Kansas State played in the Cotton Bowl in 1996 and 1997, winning in 1996, and they won the Fiesta Bowl in 1998. In basketball, Kansas won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Championship in 1952 and 1988 and has appeared in 12 Final Four Tournaments. The National Junior College Basketball Tournament is held in Hutchinson each March. The Kansas Relays take place at Lawrence in April. The Flint Hills Rodeo in Strong City is one of many rodeos held statewide. The Kansas Speedway hosts the NASCAR Nextel Cup and Busch series event.

A US sporting event unique to Kansas is the International Pancake Race, held in Liberal each Shrove Tuesday. Women wearing housedresses, aprons, and scarves run along an S-shaped course carrying skillet and flipping pancakes as they go.

Hall of Fame pitcher Walter Johnson was born in Humboldt, NFL great Barry Sanders in Wichita, and basketball legend Adolph Rupp in Halstead.

49 FAMOUS KANSANS

Kansas claims only one US president and one US vice president. Dwight D. Eisenhower (b.Texas, 1890–1969) as elected the 34th president in 1952 and reelected in 1956; he had served as the Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in World War II. He is buried in Abilene, his boyhood home. Charles Curtis (1860–1936) was vice president during the Herbert Hoover administration.

Two Kansans have been associate justices of the US Supreme Court: David J. Brewer (1837–1910) and Charles E. Whittaker (1901–73). Other federal officeholders from Kansas include William Jardine (1879–1955), secretary of agriculture; Harry Woodring (1890–1967), secretary of war; and Georgia Neese Clark Gray (1900–95), treasurer of the Unites States. Prominent US sen-

ators include Edmund G. Ross (1826–1907), who cast a crucial acquittal vote at the impeachment trial of Andrew Johnson; John J. Ingalls (1833–1900), who was also a noted literary figure; Joseph L. Bristow (1861–1944), a leader in the Progressive movement; Arthur Caper (1865–1951), a former publisher and governor; Robert Dole (b.1923), who was the Republican candidate for vice president in 1976, twice served as Senate majority leader, and was his party's presidential candidate in 1996; and Nancy Landon Kassebaum (b.1932), elected to the US Senate in 1978. Among the state's important US representatives were Jeremiah Simpson (1842–1905), a leading Populist, and Clifford R. Hope (1893–1970), important in the farm bloc. Gary Hart, a senator and a presidential candidate in 1984 and 1988, was born in Ottawa, Kansas, on 28 November 1936.

Notable Kansas governors include George W. Glick (1827–1911); Walter R. Stubbs (1858–1929); Alfred M. Landon (1887–1984), who ran for US president on the Republican ticket in 1936; and Frank Carlson (1893–1984). Other prominent political figures were David L. Payne (1836–84), who helped open Oklahoma to settlement; Carry Nation (1846–1911), the colorful prohibitionist; and Frederick Funston (1865–1917), hero of the Philippine campaign of 1898 and a leader of San Francisco's recovery after the 1906 earthquake and fire.

Earl Sutherland (1915–74) won the Nobel Prize in 1971 for physiology or medicine. Other leaders in medicine and science include Samuel J. Crumbine (1862–1954), a public health pioneer; the doctors Menninger—C. F. (1862–1953), William (1899–1966), and Karl (1893–1990)—who established the Menninger Foundation, a leading center for mental health; Arthur Hertzler (1870–1946), a surgeon and author; and Clyde Tombaugh (1906–97), who discovered the planet Pluto.

Kansas also had several pioneers in aviation, including Clyde Cessna (1880–1954), Glenn Martin (1886–1955), Walter Beech (1891–1950), Amelia Earhart (1898–1937), and Lloyd Stearman (1898–1975). Cyrus K. Holliday (1826–1900) founded the Santa Fe Railroad; William Coleman (1870–1957) was an innovator in lighting; and Walter Chrysler (1875–1940) was a prominent automotive developer.

Most famous of Kansas writers was William Allen White (1868–1944), whose son, William L. White (1900–73), also had a distinguished literary career; Damon Runyon (1884–1946) was a popular journalist and storyteller. Novelists include Edgar Watson Howe (1853–1937), Margaret Hill McCarter (1860–1938), Dorothy Canfield Fisher (1879–1958), Paul Wellman (1898–1966), and Frederic Wakeman (b.1909). Gordon Parks (1912–2006) has made his mark in literature, photography, and music. William Inge (1913–73) was a prize-winning playwright who contributed to the Broadway stage. Notable painters are Sven Birger Sandzen (1871–1954), John Noble (1874–1934), and John Steuart Curry (1897–1946). Sculptors include Robert M. Gage (1892–1981), Bruce Moore (1905–80), and Bernard Frazier (1906–76). Among

composers and conductors are Thurlow Lieurance (b.Iowa 1878–1963), Joseph Maddy (1891–1966), and Kirke L. Mecham (b.1926). Jazz great Charlie “Bird” Parker (Charles Christopher Parker Jr., 1920–55) was born in Kansas City.

Stage and screen notables include Fred Stone (1873–1959), Joseph “Buster” Keaton (1895–1966), Milburn Stone (1904–80), Charles “Buddy” Rogers (1904–99), Vivian Vance (1912–79), Edward Asner (b.1929), and Shirley Knight (b.1937). The clown Emmett Kelly (1898–1979) was a Kansan. Operatic performers include Marion Talley (1906–83) and Kathleen Kersting (1909–65).

Glenn Cunningham (1909–88) and Jim Ryun (b.1947) both set running records for the mile. Also prominent in sports history were James Naismith (1861–1939), the inventor of basketball; baseball pitcher Walter Johnson (1887–1946); and Gale Sayers (b.1943), a football running back.

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KENTUCKY

Commonwealth of Kentucky

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Possibly derived from the Wyandot Indian word *Kah-ten-tah-teh* (land of tomorrow). **NICKNAME:** The Bluegrass State. **CAPITAL:** Frankfort. **ENTERED UNION:** 1 June 1792 (15th). **SONG:** “My Old Kentucky Home.” **MOTTO:** United We Stand, Divided We Fall. **FLAG:** A simplified version of the state seal on a blue field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the center are two men exchanging greetings; above and below them is the state motto. On the periphery are two sprigs of goldenrod and the words “Commonwealth of Kentucky.” **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FISH:** Bass. **FLOWER:** Goldenrod. **TREE:** Tulip poplar. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January, plus one extra day; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, March or April, half-day holiday; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November, plus one extra day; Christmas Day, 25 December, plus one extra day. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT; 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern south-central United States, the Commonwealth of Kentucky is the smallest of the eight south-central states and ranks 37th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Kentucky is 40,409 sq mi (104,659 sq km), of which land makes up 39,669 sq mi (102,743 sq km) and inland water 740 sq mi (1,917 sq km). Kentucky extends about 350 mi (563 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is about 175 mi (282 km).

Kentucky is bordered on the N by Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio (with the line roughly following the north bank of the Ohio River); on the NE by West Virginia (with the line formed by the Big Sandy and Tug Fork rivers); on the SE by Virginia; on the S by Tennessee; and on the W by Missouri (separated by the Mississippi River). Because of a double bend in the Mississippi River, about 10 sq mi (26 sq km) of SW Kentucky is separated from the rest of the state by a narrow strip of Missouri.

After 15 years of litigation, Kentucky in 1981 accepted a US Supreme Court decision giving Ohio and Indiana control of at least 100 feet (30 meters) of the Ohio River from the northern shore. This in effect returned Kentucky’s border to what it was in 1792, when Kentucky entered the Union.

The total boundary length of Kentucky is 1,290 mi (2,076 km). The state’s geographic center is in Marion County, 3 mi (5 km) NW of Lebanon.

²TOPOGRAPHY

The eastern quarter of the state is dominated by the Cumberland Plateau, on the western border of the Appalachians. At its western edge, the plateau meets the uplands of the Lexington Plain (known as the Bluegrass region) to the north and the hilly Pennyroyal to the south. These two regions, which together make up nearly half

the state’s area, are separated by a narrow curving plain known as the Knobs because of the shapes of its eroded hills. The most level area of the state consists of the western coalfields bounded by the Pennyroyal to the east and the Ohio River to the north. In the far west are the coastal plains of the Mississippi River; this region is commonly known as the Purchase, having been purchased from the Chickasaw Indians.

The highest point in Kentucky is Black Mountain on the southeastern boundary in Harlan County, at 4,139 ft (2,162 m). The lowest point is 257 ft (78 m), along the Mississippi River in Fulton County. The state’s mean altitude is 750 ft (229 m).

The only large lakes in Kentucky are artificial. The biggest is Cumberland Lake (79 sq mi/205 sq km); Kentucky Lake, Lake Barkley, and Dale Hollow Lake straddle the border with Tennessee.

Including the Ohio and Mississippi rivers on its borders and the tributaries of the Ohio, Kentucky claims at least 3,000 mi (4,800 km) of navigable rivers—sometimes said to have more water than any other state except Alaska. Among the most important of Kentucky’s rivers are the Kentucky, 259 mi (417 km); the Cumberland, partly in Tennessee; the Tennessee, also in Tennessee and Alabama; and the Big Sandy, Green, Licking, and Tradewater rivers. All, except for a portion of the Cumberland, flow northwest into the Ohio and thence to the Mississippi. Completion in 1985 of the Tennessee–Tombigbee Waterway, linking the Tennessee and Tombigbee rivers in Alabama, gave Kentucky’s Appalachian coalfields direct water access to the Gulf of Mexico for the first time.

Drainage through porous limestone rock has honeycombed much of the Pennyroyal with underground passages, the best known of which is Mammoth Cave, now a national park. The Cumberland Falls, 92 ft (28 m) high and 100 ft (30 m) wide, are located in Whitley County.

3 CLIMATE

Kentucky has a moderate, relatively humid climate, with abundant rainfall.

The southern and lowland regions are slightly warmer than the uplands. In Louisville, the normal monthly average temperature ranges from 33°F (1°C) in January to 78°F (25°C) in July. The record high for the state was 114°F (46°C), registered in Greensburg on 28 July 1930; the record low, -37°F (-40°C), in Shelbyville on 19 January 1994.

Average daily relative humidity in Louisville ranges from 58% to 81%. The average annual precipitation at Louisville is about 43.6 in (110 cm); snowfall totals about 16 in (41 cm) a year.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Kentucky's forests are mostly of the oak/hickory variety, with some beech/maple stands. Four species of magnolia are found, and the tulip poplar, eastern hemlock, and eastern white pine are also common; the distinctive "knees" of the cypress may be seen along riverbanks. Kentucky's famed bluegrass is said to be actually blue only in May when dwarf iris and wild columbine are in bloom. Rare plants include the swamp loosestrife and showy gentian. In April 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed eight Kentucky plant species as threatened or endangered, including Braun's rock-cress, Cumberland sandwort, running buffalo clover, and Short's goldenrod.

Game mammals include the raccoon, muskrat, opossum, mink, gray and red foxes, and beaver; the eastern chipmunk and flying squirrel are common small mammals. At least 300 bird species have been recorded, of which 200 are common. Blackbirds are a serious pest, with some roosts numbering 5–6 million; more desirable avian natives include the cardinal (the state bird), robin, and brown thrasher, while eagles are winter visitors. More than 100 types of fish have been identified.

Rare animal species include the swamp rabbit, black bear, raven (*Corvus corax*), and mud darter. In April 2006, a total of 31 animal species occurring within the state (vertebrates and invertebrates) were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included three species of bat (Indiana, Virginia big-eared, and gray), the bald eagle, puma, piping plover, Kentucky cave shrimp, and three species of pearly mussel.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The National Resources and Environmental Protection Cabinet, with broad responsibility, includes the departments of Natural Resources, Environmental Protection, and Surface Mining Reclamation and Enforcement, as well as the Kentucky Nature Preserves Commission. The Environmental Quality Commission, created in 1972 to serve as a watchdog over environmental concerns, is a citizen's group of seven members appointed by the governor.

The most serious environmental concern in Kentucky is repairing and minimizing damage to land and water from strip-mining. Efforts to deal with such damage are relatively recent. The state has had a strip-mining law since 1966, but the first comprehensive attempts at control did not begin until the passage in 1977 of the Federal Surface Mining Control and Reclamation Act.

Also active in environmental matters is the Department of Environmental Protection, consisting of four divisions. The Division of

Water administers the state's Safe Drinking Water and Clean Water acts and regulation of sewage disposal. The Division of Waste Management oversees solid waste disposal systems in the state. The Air Pollution Control Division monitors industrial discharges into the air and other forms of air pollution. Most air pollution has declined since the 1970s, with lead air concentrations down by 97% since 1970. A special division is concerned with Maxey Flats, a closed nuclear waste disposal facility in Fleming County, where leakage of radioactive materials was discovered.

There are 15 major dams in Kentucky, and more than 900 other dams. Flooding is a chronic problem in southeastern Kentucky, where strip-mining has exacerbated soil erosion.

In 2003, Kentucky had 149 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 14 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Maxey Flats Nuclear Disposal in Hillsboro. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$1.8 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$16.8 million for the state clean water revolving fund program and \$3.4 million for implementation of nonpoint source management programs. In 2003, 90.6 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

6 POPULATION

Kentucky ranked 26th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 4,173,405 in 2005, an increase of 3.2% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Kentucky's population grew from 3,685,296 to 4,041,769, an increase of 9.7%. The population is projected to reach 4.35 million by 2015 and 4.48 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 104.7 persons per sq mi.

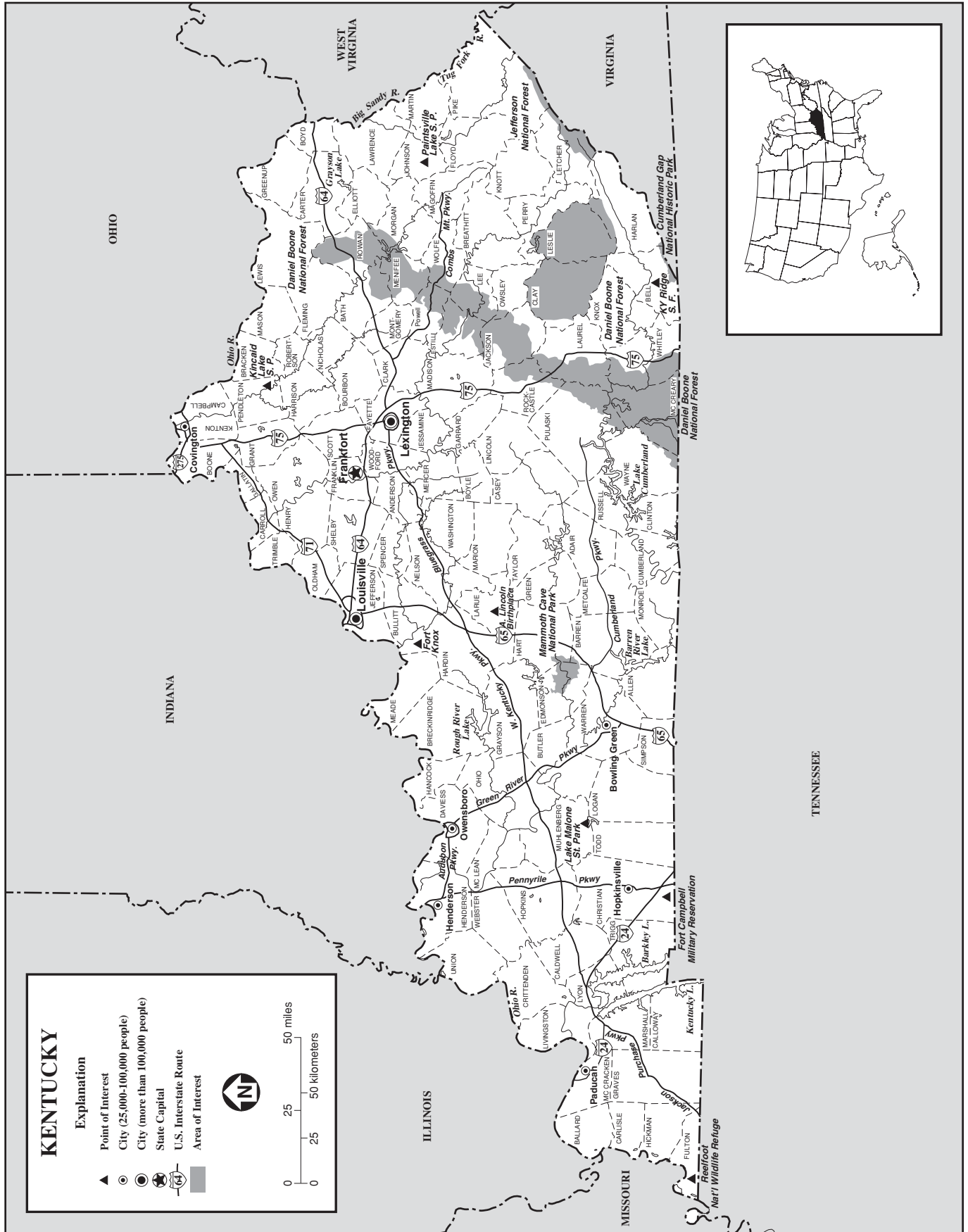
In 2004 the median age was 37.3. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 23.6% of the population while 12.5% was age 65 or older.

During the early decades of settlement, population grew rapidly, from a few hundred in 1780 to 564,317 in 1820, by which time Kentucky was the sixth most populous state. By 1900, however, when the population was 2,147,174, growth had slowed considerably. For most of the 20th century, Kentucky's growth rate was significantly slower than the national average.

As of 2004, Louisville–Jefferson County had an estimated population of about 556,332. Lexington–Fayette had an estimated population of 266,358. The population of the Louisville (Kentucky–Indiana) metropolitan area was estimated at 1,200,847; the Lexington metropolitan area had 424,661.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Though a slave state, Kentucky never depended on a plantation economy. In 1830, almost 25% of the population was black. After the Civil War, a lack of jobs and migration to the industrial cities of the Midwest in the 1890s may have accounted for a dwindling black population. In 2000 the black population of Kentucky was relatively low at 295,994 (7.3%). In 2004, 7.5% of the population was black. Kentucky was a center of the American (or Know-Nothing) Party, a pre-Civil War movement whose majority were staunchly anti-immigration and anti-Catholic. With relatively little opportunity for industrial employment, Kentucky attracted small numbers of foreign immigrants in the 19th and 20th cen-



turies. The state had 80,271 foreign-born residents in 2000 (2% of the total population), up from 34,119 in 1990. Among persons reporting a single ancestry in the 2000 census, a total of 391,542 claimed English descent, 514,955 German, 424,133 Irish, and 66,147 French.

In 2000, the Asian population was estimated at 29,744, and the American Indian population was estimated at 8,616. The 2000 census reported 3,818 Koreans, 6,771 Asian Indians (up from 2,367 in 1990), 3,683 Japanese, 3,596 Vietnamese (up from 1,340 in 1990), and 5,397 Chinese (up from 3,137). In 2004, 0.9% of the population was Asian, and American Indians accounted for 0.2% of the population. In 2000, a total of 59,939 (1.5%) state residents were Hispanic or Latino, up from 33,000 (0.8%) in 1990, with 31,385 reporting Mexican ancestry and 6,469 Puerto Rican ancestry. In 2004, 1.9% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. Pacific Islanders numbered 1,460 in 2000. In 2004, 1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Kentucky was a fought-over hunting ground for Ohio Shawnee, Carolina Cherokee, and Mississippi Chickawaw Indians. Place-names from this heritage include Etowah (Cherokee) and Paducah (Chickasaw).

Speech patterns in the state generally reflect the first settlers' Virginia and Kentucky backgrounds. South Midland features are best preserved in the mountains, but some common to Midland and Southern are widespread.

Other regional features are typically both South Midland and Southern. After a vowel, the /r/ may be weak or missing. *Coop* has the vowel of *put*, but *root* rhymes with *boot*. In southern Kentucky, earthworms are *redworms*, a burlap bag a *tow sack* or the Southern *grass sack*, and green beans *snap beans*. A young man may *carry*, not *escort*, his girlfriend to a party. Subregional terms appear in abundance. In the east, kindling is *pine*, a seesaw is a *ridyhorse*, and the freestone peach is an *openstone peach*. In central Kentucky, a moth is a *candlefly*.

In 2000, 96.1% of all residents five years old and older spoke only English at home, down from 97.5% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	3,776,230	100.0
Speak only English	3,627,757	96.1
Speak a language other than English	148,473	3.9
Speak a language other than English	148,473	3.9
Spanish or Spanish Creole	70,061	1.9
German	17,898	0.5
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	12,499	0.3
Chinese	4,608	0.1
Japanese	3,777	0.1
Korean	3,730	0.1
Other West Germanic languages	3,616	0.1
Arabic	3,165	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	3,070	0.1
Vietnamese	3,018	0.1
Russian	2,162	0.1
Tagalog	2,070	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Throughout its history, Kentucky has been predominantly Protestant. A group of New Light Baptists who, in conflict with established churches in Virginia, immigrated to Kentucky under the leadership of Lewis Craig and built the first church in the state in 1781, near Lancaster. The first Methodist Church was established near Danville in 1783; within a year, Roman Catholics had also built a church, and a presbytery of 12 churches had been organized. There were 42 churches in Kentucky by the time of statehood, with a total membership of 3,095.

Beginning in the last few years of the 18th century, the Great Revival sparked a new religious fervor among Kentuckians, a development that brought the Baptists and Methodists many new members. The revival, which had begun among the Presbyterians, led to a schism in that sect. Presbyterian minister Barton W. Stone organized what turned out to be the era's largest frontier revival meeting, at Cane Ridge (near Paris), in August 1801. Differences over doctrine led Stone and his followers to withdraw from the Synod of Kentucky in 1803, and they formed their own church, called simply "Christian." The group later formed an alliance with the sect now known as the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ).

As of 2000, Evangelical Protestantism was predominant with the single largest denomination within the state being the Southern Baptist Convention with 979,994 adherents; there were 17,528 new baptized members in 2002. The next largest Protestant denomination is the United Methodist Church, which had 208,720 adherents in 2000, but reported only 152,727 members in 2003. The Christian Churches and Churches of Christ had 106,638 adherents in 2000 and the Roman Catholic Church had about 382,042 members in 2004. There were an estimated 11,350 Jews in Kentucky in 2000 and about 4,696 Muslims. Over 1.8 million people (46.6% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization in the 2000 survey.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Statewide transportation developed slowly in Kentucky. Although freight and passengers were carried by river and later by rail during the 19th century, mountains and lack of good roads made land travel in eastern Kentucky so arduous that the region was for a long time effectively isolated from the rest of the state.

The first railroad in Kentucky, the Lexington and Ohio, opened on 15 August 1832 with a 26-mi (42-km) route from Lexington to Frankfort. Not until 1851 did the railroad reach the Ohio River. In November 1859, Louisville was connected with Nashville, Tennessee, by the Louisville and Nashville Railroad; heavily used by the Union, it was well maintained during the Civil War. Railroad construction increased greatly after the conflict ended. By 1900, Kentucky had three times the track mileage it had in 1870. As of 2003, Kentucky had 2,823 rail mi (4,545 km), of which 2,299 miles were Class I track. In that same year, there were five Class I railroads operating in the state. Coal was the top commodity originating in the state shipped by the railroads. Rail service to the state, nearly all of which was freight, was provided by 15 railroads. As of 2006, there were four Amtrak stations in Kentucky.

The trails of Indians and buffalo became the first roads in Kentucky. Throughout the 19th century, counties called on their citi-

zens to maintain some roads although maintenance was haphazard. The best roads were the toll roads. This system came to an end as a result of the “tollgate war” of the late 19th and early 20th centuries—a rebellion in which masked Kentuckians, demanding free roads, raided tollgates and assaulted their keepers. Not until 1909, however, was a constitutional prohibition against the spending of state funds on highways abolished. In 1912, a state highway commission was created, and by 1920, roads had improved considerably. In 2004, Kentucky had 77,366 mi (124,559 km) of public roads and 2.8 million licensed drivers. In that same year, there were some 1.855 million automobiles, about 1.415 million trucks of all types, and around 2,000 buses registered in the state.

Until displaced by the railroads in the late 1800s, the Ohio River and its tributaries, along with the Mississippi, were Kentucky’s primary commercial routes for trade with the South and the West. The Kentucky Port and River Development Commission was created by the legislature in 1966 to promote river transportation. Louisville, on the Ohio River, is the chief port. In 2004, traffic through the port totaled 7.799 million tons. Paducah is the outlet port for traffic on the Tennessee River. In that same year, Kentucky had 1,591 mi (2,561 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 99.332 million tons.

In 2005, Kentucky had a total of 208 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 149 airports, 58 heliports, and 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing). The largest of these was Cincinnati/Northern Kentucky International Airport, with 10,864,547 enplanements in 2004, making it the 22nd-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

Six distinctive Indian cultures inhabited the region now known as Kentucky. The earliest nomadic hunters occupied the land for several thousand years, and were followed by the seminomadic Woodland and Adena cultures (1000 BC–AD 1000). Remains of the Mississippian and Fort Ancient peoples (AD 1000–1650) indicate that they were farmers and hunters who often dwelled in stockaded villages, subsisting on plentiful game and fish supplemented by crops of beans, corn, and squash.

No Indian nations resided in central and eastern Kentucky when these areas were first explored by British-American surveyors Thomas Walker and Christopher Gist in 1750 and 1751. The dominant Shawnee and Cherokee tribes utilized the region as a hunting ground, returning to homes in the neighboring territories of Ohio and Tennessee. Early descriptions of Kentucky generated considerable excitement about the fertile land and abundant wildlife. The elimination of French influence after the French and Indian War intensified pressures to open the region to American settlement—pressures that were initially thwarted by Britain’s Proclamation of 1763, barring such western migration until Native American interests could be protected. This artificial barrier proved impossible to maintain, however, and the first permanent white settlement in Kentucky was finally established at Harrodstown (now Harrodsburg) in 1774 by a group of settlers from Virginia and Pennsylvania.

The most ambitious settlement scheme involved the Transylvania Land Company, a creation of North Carolina speculator Richard Henderson, assisted by the famed woodsman Daniel Boone. Henderson purchased a huge tract of land in central Kentucky

from the Cherokee and established Fort Boonesborough. The first political meeting by whites in Kentucky, held at Fort Boonesborough on 23 May 1775, provided for rule by the Transylvania proprietors and a representative assembly. Henderson then sought approval for creation of a 14th colony, but the plan was blocked by Virginians determined to claim Kentucky as a possession of the Old Dominion. On 1 December 1776, the new state of Virginia incorporated its new County of Kentucky.

Kentucky’s image soon changed from “western Eden” to “dark and bloody ground,” as it became the scene of frequent clashes between Ohio-based Indians and the growing number of white settlements dotting the central Bluegrass region. Nevertheless, immigrants continued to come westward, down the Ohio River and through the Cumberland Gap. Kentucky became the principal conduit for migration into the Mississippi Valley. By the late 1780s, settlements were gaining in population, wealth, and maturity, and it was obvious that Kentucky could not long remain under the proprietorship of distant Virginia. Virginia yielded permission for the drafting of a Kentucky state constitution, and in June 1792, Kentucky entered the Union as the 15th state.

Over the next several decades, Kentucky prospered because of its diverse agricultural and processing industries. Although there were 225,483 slaves in the state in 1860, Kentucky was spared the evils of one-crop plantation agriculture. Nevertheless, its economy was tightly linked to the lower South’s, a tie facilitated by the completion in 1829 of a canal around the Ohio River falls at Louisville. Hemp was one such connection; the plant was the principal source of rope and bagging used to bind cotton bales. Kentucky was also a major supplier of hogs, mules, workhorses, prepared meats, salt, flour, and corn for the plantation markets of the South. The state became a center for breeding and racing fine thoroughbred horses, an industry that thrives today on Bluegrass horse farms as virtually the state symbol. More important was the growing and processing of tobacco, an enterprise accounting for half the agricultural income of Kentucky farmers by 1860. Finally, whiskey began to be produced in vast quantities by the 1820s, culminating in the standardization of a fine, aged amber-red brew known throughout the world as bourbon, after Bourbon County.

Despite this economic development, several social and cultural problems disturbed the state. Much of the agricultural productivity came from farms employing slave labor, while the less affluent majority of white families often dwelled on less fertile upland farms. Efforts were repeatedly made to consider the slavery question. Leaders such as Henry Clay, Reverend Robert J. Breckinridge, and the fiery antislavery advocate Cassius Marcellus Clay urged an end to the “peculiar institution.” Because of racial phobias and hostility to “Yankee meddling,” the appeal was rejected. During the Civil War, Kentuckians were forced to choose sides between the Union, led in the north by Kentucky native Abraham Lincoln, and the Confederacy, led in the South by Kentucky native Jefferson Davis.

Although the state legislature finally opted for the Union side, approximately 30,000 men went south to Confederate service, while up to 100,000—including nearly 24,000 black soldiers—served in the Union army. For four years the state was torn with conflict over the collapse of slavery and wracked with guerrilla warfare and partisan feuds. Vigilantism and abuse of black people continued into the turbulent Reconstruction period, until legisla-

tive changes in the early 1870s began to restrain Ku Klux Klan violence and bring increased civil rights to black people.

The decades to 1900 saw other progress. Aided by liberal tax exemptions, railroad construction increased threefold, and development of timber and coal reserves began in eastern Kentucky. Industrial employment and productivity increased by more than 200%, drawing rural folk into the growing cities of Louisville and Lexington. In 1900, Kentucky ranked first among Southern states in per capita income.

An economic and political crisis was developing, however, that would send shock waves across the state. Farmers, especially western Kentucky “dark leaf” tobacco farmers, were feeling the brunt of a prolonged price depression. The major national farm protest movements—the Grange, the Farmers’ Alliance, and the Populist Party—all found support here, for by 1900 a third of all Kentucky farmers were landless tenants, and the size of the average family farm had fallen below 10 acres (4 hectares). Calls for currency inflation, reform of corporate monopolies, and improved rights for industrial workers reached a climax in the gubernatorial election of 1899. Republican William S. Taylor narrowly defeated the more reform-minded Democrat William Goebel and was sworn into office. Democrats, claiming electoral fraud, instituted a recount. On 30 January 1900, Goebel, a state senator, was shot while approaching the capitol; as he lingered near death, the legislature, controlled by Democrats, declared him governor. Goebel died immediately thereafter, and his lieutenant governor, J. C. W. Beckham, was administered the oath of office. Further bloodshed was averted, the courts upheld the Goebel–Beckham election, and “Governor” Taylor fled the state.

Goebel’s assassination weighed heavily, however. The state was polarized, outside investment plummeted, and Kentucky fell into a prolonged economic and moral depression. By 1940, the state

ranked last among the 48 states in per capita income and was burdened by an image of clan feuding and homicide, poverty, and provincial courthouse politics. The Great Depression hit the state hard, though an end to Prohibition revived the dormant whiskey industry.

Kentucky changed greatly after World War II. Between 1945 and 1980, the farm population decreased by 76% and the number of farms by 53%. In later decades, after tobacco was revealed to be a public health hazard, many farmers turned to raising other crops. Although Kentucky remained relatively poor, positive change was evident even in rural communities—the result of better roads, education, and government programs. The state’s poverty rate fell steadily over the decades, from 22.9% in 1969 to 13.5% in 1998, when it ranked as the 18th-poorest state in the nation (a great improvement from earlier in the century). However, in 2003–04, the state’s poverty rate had increased to 16%, up from 14.3% in 2002–03. The national poverty rate in 2003–04 was 12.6%.

In response to lawsuits by a coalition of school districts, Kentucky’s supreme court ruled in 1990 that the state’s public education system was unconstitutional and ordered the legislature to design a new system of school funding and administration. In response, the Kentucky Education Reform Act was passed that year and implemented over the next five years. But more questions regarding the constitutionality of school programs, or prospective programs, lay ahead. By 2000 legislators were considering a proposal that would allow the Ten Commandments to be displayed in classrooms, alongside other historical documents. The proposal was part of a larger movement that urged officials to allow public schools to teach the role of religion in American history and culture. At the same time, many Kentuckians supported the return of prayer to schools. By 2003, federal judges had ordered the Ten Commandments be removed from school classrooms and court-

Kentucky Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	KENTUCKY WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES’ RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROHIBITION	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST
1948	11	*Truman (D)	466,756	341,210	10,411	1,245	1,567	1,284
1952	10	Stevenson (D)	495,729	495,029	—	1,161	—	—
1956	10	*Eisenhower (R)	476,453	572,192	—	2,145	—	—
1960	10	Nixon (R)	521,855	602,607	—	—	—	—
					STATES’ RIGHTS			
1964	9	*Johnson (D)	669,659	372,977	3,469	—	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.			SOC. WORKERS
1968	9	*Nixon (R)	397,541	462,411	193,098	—	—	2,843
						AMERICAN	PEOPLE’S	
1972	9	*Nixon (R)	371,159	676,446	—	17,627	1,118	—
1976	9	*Carter (D)	615,717	531,852	2,328	8,308	—	—
							LIBERTARIAN	CITIZENS
1980	9	*Reagan (R)	617,417	635,274	—	—	5,531	1,304
1984	9	*Reagan (R)	539,539	821,702	—	—	1,776	599
1988	9	*Bush (R)	580,368	734,281	4,994	1,256	2,118	—
					IND. (Perot)			
1992	8	*Clinton (D)	665,104	617,178	203,944	430	4,513	989
1996	8	*Clinton (D)	636,614	623,283	120,396	—	4,009	—
						REFORM		GREEN
2000	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	638,898	872,492	—	4,173	2,896	23,192
					WRITE-IN	CONSTITUTION		INDEPENDENT
					(Brown)	(Peroutka)		(Nader)
2004	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	712,733	1,069,439	13	2,213	2,619	8,856

*Won US presidential election.

houses in several Kentucky counties, ruling that the postings of the commandments had violated the separation between church and state.

The Paducah Gaseous Diffusion Plant was a point of concern for state environmentalists in 2000. Senior Kentucky environmental officials complained that the US Department of Energy (DOE) had used security clearances to prevent state environmental inspectors from getting full access to the plant, which enriches uranium for nuclear-reactor fuel. The plant was also the site of a massive cleanup effort in 2000, as DOE officials crushed drums that once contained uranium. Critics charged that the drums had been left in the open for decades and rain water had washed radioactivity into the environment.

Republican Ernie Fletcher was elected governor in 2003. By 2005 he had set about to make Kentucky more business-friendly, to create a flexible tax code, encourage healthy lifestyles (the governor is a physician), provide for quality education for Kentucky's children, and improve the transportation infrastructure. He reorganized the state government, eliminating some cabinet positions, and worked to make sure state resources were being used efficiently.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Kentucky's current and fourth constitution was adopted on 28 September 1891. By January 2005, it had been amended 41 times. Earlier constitutions were adopted in 1792, 1799, and 1850.

The state legislature, called the General Assembly, consists of the House of Representatives, which has 100 members elected for two-year terms, and the Senate, with 38 members elected for staggered four-year terms. A constitutional amendment approved by the voters in November 1979 provided for the election of legislators in even-numbered years, a change scheduled for completion by November 1988. The assembly meets in regular sessions of no more than 60 legislative days, beginning Tuesday after the first Monday in January of each even-numbered year. Only the governor may call special sessions, which are not limited in length. Except for revenue-raising measures, which must be introduced in the House of Representatives, either chamber may introduce or amend a bill. Most bills may be passed by voting majorities equal to at least two-fifths of the membership of each house. Measures requiring an absolute majority in each house include those that appropriate money or create a debt or enact emergency measures to take effect immediately. Proposed amendments to the constitution require a three-fifths vote of each house. A majority of the members of each house is required to override the governor's veto. If the governor neither vetoes nor signs a bill, it becomes law after 10 days when the legislature is in session, and 90 days after the adjournment of the legislature when it is not in session.

A member of the Senate must have been a citizen of Kentucky for six years preceding election, a representative for two. A senator must be at least 30 years old and a representative at least 24 years old. Legislators must have been residents in their districts for at least one year prior to election. The constitutional limit of \$12,000 for salaries of public officials, which is thought to apply to legislators, has been interpreted by the courts in terms of 1949 dollars and thus may be increased considerably—and has been. In 2004 most legislators in Kentucky probably received less than \$14,000 per year based on per diem in-session salaries of \$166.34.

The elected executive officers of Kentucky are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, auditor of public accounts, and commissioner of agriculture. All serve four-year terms; a constitutional amendment allows a second term for those offices. The governor and lieutenant governor must be at least 30 years old, US citizens, and citizens and residents of Kentucky for six years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$127,146.

A three-fifths majority of each house plus a voting majority of the electorate must approve any proposed constitutional amendment. Before a constitutional convention may be called, two regular sessions of the General Assembly must approve it, and the call must be ratified at the polls by a majority voting on the proposal and equal to at least one-fourth the number of voters who cast ballots in the last general election.

To vote in Kentucky, one must be a US citizen, be at least 18 years old, have been a resident in the county for at least 28 days prior to election day, and not able to claim the right to vote elsewhere. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

A rift was created in Kentucky politics by the presidential election of 1824, which had to be determined in the US House of Representatives because neither John Quincy Adams nor Andrew Jackson won a majority of the Electoral College. Representative Henry Clay voted for Adams, despite orders by the Kentucky General Assembly to support Jackson, thereby splitting the state into two factions: supporters of Clay, who became Whigs, and supporters of Jackson, who became Democrats. The Whigs dominated Kentucky politics until Clay's death in 1852, after which, as the Whigs divided over slavery, most Kentuckians turned first to the Native American (or Know-Nothing) Party and then to the Democrats. Regional divisions in party affiliation during the Civil War era, according to sympathy with the South and slavery (Democrats) or with the Union and abolition (Republicans), have persisted in the state's voting patterns. In general, the poorer mountain areas tend to vote Republican, while the more affluent lowlanders in the Bluegrass and Pennyroyal tend to vote Democratic.

Republican presidential candidate George W. Bush won the state by large margins in both 2000 and 2004—57% to Democrat Al Gore's 41% (2000) and 59.5% to Democrat John Kerry's 39.7% (2004). In 2004 there were 2,819,000 registered voters. In 1998, 61% of registered voters were Democratic, 32% Republican, and 7% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had eight electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

In 1983, Martha Layne Collins, a Democrat, defeated Republican candidate Jim Bunning to become Kentucky's first woman governor. Republican Ernie Fletcher was elected governor in 2003. In mid-2005, Republicans held 21 seats in the state Senate, Democrats held 15; and an Independent held 1. The Democrats dominated the House of Representatives, with 57 seats to the Republicans' 43. At the national level, Kentucky was represented by Republican Senator Mitch McConnell, reelected in 2002; and Republican Senator Jim Bunning, first elected in 1998 and reelected in 2004. As of 2004, Kentucky voters had elected five Republicans and one Democrat to the US House.

1⁴ LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The form of Kentucky's county government is of English origin. The chief governing body is the fiscal court, consisting of the county judge and district magistrates or commissioners. Other elected officials are the sheriff, jailer, attorney, and court clerk. All are elected for four-year terms. As of 2005, the state had 120 counties.

In 2005, Kentucky had 424 municipalities. Cities are assigned by the state's General Assembly to six classes, based on population. The two largest cities, categorized as first-class, are Louisville and Lexington. The mayor or other chief executive officer in the top three classes must be elected; in the bottom classes, the executive may be either elected by the people or appointed by a city council or commission. Mayors serve four-year terms; members of city legislative boards, also provided for in the state constitution, are generally elected for terms of two years.

Other units of local government in Kentucky include special districts (720 in 2005), such as districts for sewer and flood control and area-development districts for regional planning. The state had 176 public school districts in 2005.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 159,190 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

1⁵ STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Kentucky operates under executive order; the homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Educational services are provided through the Department of Education. The Council on Postsecondary Education oversees the state-supported colleges, universities, and technical schools. The Human Rights Commission and the Commission on Women are administered by the governor's office. Transportation services are administered by the Transportation Cabinet. Health, welfare, and other human services are provided primarily by the Health and Family Services Cabinet. Among the agencies that provide public protection services are the Department of Military Affairs, the Public Protection Department, and the Consumer Protection and Education Division. Corrections and parole were transferred in 1981 from the Department of Justice to the Corrections Department. The Department of State Police is part of the Justice and Public Safety Cabinet.

Housing rights for members of minority groups are provided by the Commission on Human Rights. The Cabinet for Economic Development oversees industrial and community development programs. Also assisting in community development are programs within the Office of Local Government, which was organized as an independent agency of the office of the governor in 1982.

Natural resource protection services are provided by the separate departments of Natural Resources and Environmental Protection, and by the Division of Mine Reclamation and Enforcement. The Commerce Cabinet deals with Kentucky's parks, tourism, cultural heritage, and arts.

Labor services are administered by the Labor Department; its areas of concern include labor-management relations, occupational safety and health, and occupational injury and disease com-

pensation. Other cabinets include those for finance and administration and personnel.

1⁶ JUDICIAL SYSTEM

In accordance with a constitutional amendment approved in 1975 and fully implemented in 1978, judicial power in Kentucky is vested in a unified court of justice. The highest court is the Kentucky Supreme Court, consisting of a chief justice and six associate justices. It has appellate jurisdiction and also bears responsibility for the budget and administration of the entire system. Justices are elected from seven supreme court districts for terms of eight years; they elect one of their number to serve for the remaining term as chief justice.

The Court of Appeals consists of 14 judges, 2 elected from each supreme court district. The court divides itself into panels of at least 3 judges that may sit anywhere in the state. The judges also serve eight-year terms and elect one of their number to serve a four-year term as chief judge.

Circuit courts, with original and appellate jurisdiction, are held in each county. There are 56 judicial circuits. Circuit court judges are elected for terms of eight years. In 1999, there were 108 circuit court judges. In circuits with more than one judge, the judges elect one of their number as chief judge for a two-year term. Under the revised judicial system, district courts, which have limited and original jurisdiction, replaced various local and county courts. There is no mandatory retirement age.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 17,814 prisoners were held in Kentucky's state and federal prisons, an increase from 16,622 of 7.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,560 inmates were female, up from 1,411 or 10.6% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Kentucky had an incarceration rate of 412 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Kentucky in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 244.9 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 10,152 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 105,209 reported incidents or 2,537.7 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Kentucky has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution for those sentenced after 31 March 1998. Inmates sentenced prior to that date may select lethal injection or electrocution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has executed only two persons. There were no executions in 2005 or 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, Kentucky had 37 inmates on death row.

In the past, Kentucky had a reputation for lawlessness. In 1890, more homicides were reported in Kentucky than in any other state except New York. Blood feuds among Kentucky families were notorious throughout the country. However, crime rates have diminished to a comparatively low level.

In 2003, Kentucky spent \$144,012,593 on homeland security, an average of \$35 per state resident.

1⁷ ARMED FORCES

The US Department of Defense had 22,861 personnel in Kentucky in 2004, including 17,039 active-duty military and 3,762 civilians.

US Army installations in the state include Ft. Knox (site of the US gold depository) near Louisville, and Ft. Campbell (partly in Tennessee). Kentucky received \$4.1 billion in prime federal defense contracts in 2004, and \$2.4 billion in defense payroll spending.

There were 359,845 veterans of US military service in Kentucky as of 2003, of whom 46,266 served in World War II; 40,025 in the Korean conflict; 111,844 during the Vietnam era; and 57,006 during the Gulf War. Expenditures on Kentucky veterans amounted to more than \$1.0 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Kentucky State Police employed 943 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

During the frontier period, Kentucky first attracted settlers from eastern states, especially Virginia and North Carolina. Prominent among early foreign immigrants were people of English and Scotch-Irish ancestry, who tended to settle in the Kentucky highlands, which resembled their Old World homelands.

Kentucky's black population increased rapidly during the first 40 years of statehood. By the 1830s, however, slavery had become less profitable in the state, and many Kentucky owners either moved to the Deep South or sold their slaves to new owners in that region. During the 1850s, nearly 16% of Kentucky's slave population—more than 43,000 blacks—were sold or moved from the state. A tiny percentage of Kentucky's blacks, probably fewer than 200, emigrated to Liberia under the auspices of the Kentucky Colonization Society.

The waves of European immigration that inundated many states during the late 19th century left Kentucky virtually untouched. In 1890, Kentucky's population was nearly 98% native-born. At that time, there were more than 284,000 blacks in the state—a number that was to fall precipitously until the 1950s because of migration to industrial cities in the Midwest.

Until the early 1970s there was a considerable out-migration of whites, especially from eastern Kentucky to industrial areas of Ohio, Indiana, and other nearby states. The state's net loss to migration from 1960 to 1970 totaled 153,000 persons. This tide of out-migration was temporarily reversed during the 1970s, with Kentucky recording a net migration gain of 131,000 persons. From 1980 to 1990, net loss to migration totaled about 22,000. Between 1990 and 1998, Kentucky had net gains of 90,000 in domestic migration and 14,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,017 foreign immigrants arrived in the state. Between 1990 and 1998, Kentucky's overall population increased 6.8%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 27,435 and net internal migration was 32,169, for a net gain of 59,604 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the many interstate regional commissions in which Kentucky participates are the Breaks Interstate Park Compact with Virginia, Appalachian Regional Commission, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Ohio River Basin Commission, Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation Commission, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Regional Energy Board, Southern States Energy Board, and Tennessee–Tombigbee Waterway Development Authority. Kentucky also participates in the Tennessee

Valley Authority. The Council of State Governments, founded in 1925 to foster interstate cooperation, has its headquarters in Lexington. Kentucky received \$5.251 billion in federal grants in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$5.555 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$5.647 billion in federal grants in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Between statehood and the Civil War, Kentucky was one of the preeminent agricultural states, partly because of good access to river transportation down the Ohio and the Mississippi to southern markets. Coal mining had become an important part of the economy by the late 19th century. Although agriculture is still important in Kentucky, manufacturing has grown rapidly since World War II and was, by the mid-1980s, the most important sector of the economy as a source of both employment and personal income. Kentucky leads the nation in the production of bituminous coal and whiskey, and ranks second in tobacco output.

In contrast to the generally prosperous Bluegrass area and the growing industrial cities, eastern Kentucky, highly dependent on coal mining, has long been one of the poorest regions in the United States. Beginning in the early 1960s, both the state and federal governments undertook programs to combat poverty in Appalachian Kentucky. Personal income is much lower, and unemployment higher, than in the rest of the state. In 1997, 38 of the 49 Appalachian counties received Local Government Economic Development Fund (LGEDF) aid from the coal severance tax. The Kentucky Rural Development Act, covering all 49 Appalachian counties, gives liberal tax incentives to new manufacturing start-ups in those areas that have had higher unemployment rates than the state during the previous five years, or a have current rate that is at least twice the state average. During the 1990s, declines in Kentucky's traditional sectors—tobacco, textiles, apparel, and coal mining—was compensated for by job growth in motor vehicle manufacturing, fabricated metals, appliances, and other durable goods. The establishment of a major UPS hub in Kentucky plus growth in agricultural research and commercialization activity helped further the state's economic transformation. Manufactures reached more than 27.5% of gross state product by 1998, when overall growth reached 6%. Growth in 1999 and 2000 averaged 4.35%, and then dropped to 2.6% in 2001 in the context of the national recession. Manufacturing output, which had grown 10.6% from 1997 to 2000, fell 1.9% in 2001, and to 25.2% as a percent of total state output. In 2002, job losses in manufacturing slowed while employment in service-producing sectors strengthened. Kentucky was one of only five states where employment grew more than 1% in 2002.

Kentucky's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$136.446 billion, of which manufacturing contributed the largest portion at \$28.708 billion (21% of GSP), followed by real estate at \$12.306 billion (9% of GSP), and health care and social services at \$10.484 billion (7.6% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 317,115 small businesses in Kentucky. Of the 83,046 businesses that had employees, a total of 80,595 or 97% were small companies. An estimated 8,807 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 8% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 8,597, down 20.4% from 2003. There were 319 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 2.4% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and

Chapter 13) filing rate was 722 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Kentucky 11th in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Kentucky had a gross state product (GSP) of \$140 billion which accounted for 1.1% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 27 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Kentucky had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$27,265. This ranked 44th in the United States and was 82% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.1%. Kentucky had a total personal income (TPI) of \$112,925,244,000, which ranked 27th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.7% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.9%. Earnings of persons employed in Kentucky increased from \$81,381,470,000 in 2003 to \$85,767,091,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$37,396, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 15.4% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Kentucky numbered 2,022,000, with approximately 123,600 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 6.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,843,500. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Kentucky was 12.1% in December 1982. The historical low was 4% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 14.1% in manufacturing; 20.7% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.8% in financial activities; 9.4% in professional and business services; 12.9% in education and health services; 9.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17% in government.

Although a small number of trade unions existed in Kentucky before the 1850s, it was not until after the Civil War that substantial unionization took place. During the 1930s, there were long, violent struggles between the United Mine Workers (UMW) and the mine owners of eastern Kentucky. The UMW won bargaining rights in 1938, but after World War II, the displacement of workers because of mechanization, a drastic drop in the demand for coal, and evidence of mismanagement and corruption within the UMW served to undercut the union's position. Following the announcement by the UMW in 1962 that its five hospitals would be sold or closed, unemployed mine workers began protracted picketing of nonunion mines. Episodes of violence accompanied the movement, which succeeded in closing the mines but not in keeping them closed. The protests dissipated when public works jobs were provided for unemployed fathers among the miners, beginning in late 1973. Increased demand for coal in the 1970s led to

a substantial increase in jobs for miners, and the UMW, under different leaders, began a new drive to organize the Cumberland Plateau.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 164,000 of Kentucky's 1,696,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 9.7% of those so employed, up from 9.6% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 184,000 workers (10.8%) in Kentucky were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Kentucky is one of 28 states that do not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Kentucky had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 45.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

With cash receipts totaling \$3.9 billion—\$1.2 million from crops and \$2.7 billion from livestock—Kentucky ranked 24th among the 50 states in farm marketings in 2005.

Kentucky tobacco, first marketed in New Orleans in 1787, quickly became the state's most important crop. Kentucky ranked first among tobacco-producing states until it gave way to North Carolina in 1929. Corn has long been one of the state's most important crops, not only for livestock feed but also as a major ingredient in the distilling of whiskey. Although hemp is no longer an important crop in Kentucky, its early significance to Kentucky farmers, as articulated in Congress by Henry Clay, was partly responsible for the establishment by the United States of a protective tariff system. From 1849 to 1870, the state produced nearly all the hemp grown in the United States.

In 2004 there were approximately 85,000 farms in Kentucky, with an average size of 162 acres (66 hectares). In 2005, 43% of Kentucky's population was considered rural, and 18% of the state's population owed its living to agriculture. In 2004 Kentucky farms produced some 234,500,000 lb of tobacco, the second most in the nation. Leading field crops (in bushels) in 2004 included corn for grain, 173,280,000; soybeans, 57,200,000; wheat, 20,520,000; sorghum, 1,040,000; and barley, 616,000. Farmers also harvested 5,928,000 tons of hay, including 888,000 tons of alfalfa.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Since early settlement days, livestock raising has been an important part of Kentucky's economy. The Bluegrass region, which offers excellent pasturage and drinking water, has become renowned as a center for horse breeding, including thoroughbreds, quarter horses, American saddle horses, Arabians, and standardbreds. In 2004, sales of horses accounted for 23% of Kentucky's farm receipts.

In 2005, Kentucky had an estimated 2.25 million cattle and calves worth \$1.82 billion. In 2004, Kentucky farmers had an estimated 350,000 hogs and pigs, worth around \$27.6 million. Kentucky produced an estimated 1.46 billion lb (0.66 billion kg) of milk from 116,000 dairy cows in 2003.

25 FISHING

Fishing is of little commercial importance in Kentucky. In 2004, Kentucky had 580,917 fishing license holders. In 2005 there were 60 catfish farms covering 600 acres (243 hectares), with an inventory of 800,000 fingerlings in early 2006. The Wolf Creek National Fish Hatchery in Jamestown raises rainbow and brown trout and stocks 90 different areas within the state.

26 FORESTRY

In 2004 there were 11,391,000 acres (4,828,000 hectares) of forested land in Kentucky—47% of the state's land area. Over 90% of the forestland is classified as commercially viable for timber production.

The most heavily forested areas are in the river valleys of eastern Kentucky, in the Appalachians. In 2004, Kentucky produced 662 million board feet of lumber, nearly all of it in hardwoods. The Division of Forestry of the Department of Natural Resources manages approximately 30,000 acres (12,300 hectares) of state-owned forestland and operates two forest tree nurseries producing 7–9 million seedling trees a year.

There are two national forests—the Daniel Boone and the Jefferson on Kentucky's eastern border—enclosing two national wilderness areas. These two national forests had a combined area of 1,415,744 acres (572,952 hectares) in 2005. Gross acreage of all Kentucky lands in the National Forest System was 2,212,000 acres (895,000 hectares) in 2003. National parks in the state include the Mammoth Cave National Park and the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park on Kentucky's eastern border.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Kentucky in 2003 was \$559 million, an increase from 2002 of 3%. The USGS data ranked Kentucky as 24th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for about 1.5% of total US output.

According to preliminary figures, crushed stone was the state's leading nonfuel mineral commodity, accounting for around 57% (51.9 million metric tons; \$317 million) of Kentucky's nonfuel mineral production by value in 2003. It was followed (in descending order) by lime, cement (portland and masonry), and construction sand and gravel. Collectively, these four commodities accounted for about 98% of the state's nonfuel mineral output by value. Nationally, the state ranked third in ball clays and in lime, and 10th in common clay. According to preliminary USGS data for 2003, the state produced 8.8 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel, with a value of \$35.2 million.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Kentucky had 62 electrical power service providers, of which 30 were publicly owned and 24 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, six were investor owned, one was federally operated, and one was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,117,138 retail customers. Of that total, 1,170,276 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 744,263 customers, while publicly owned providers had 202,575

customers. There were 22 federal customers and two were independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 19.068 million kW, with total production that same year at 91.718 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 88% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 84.060 billion kWh (91.6%), came from coal-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 3.948 billion kWh (4.3%) and petroleum fueled plants in third at 2.944 billion kWh (3.2%). Other renewable power sources and natural gas fueled plants accounted for 0.3% and 0.5%, respectively.

Southern Kentucky shares in the power produced by the Tennessee Valley Authority, which supports a coal-fired steam electric plant in Kentucky at Paducah.

Most of Kentucky's coal came from the western fields of the interior coal basin until late in the 19th century, when the lower-sulfur Cumberland Plateau coal reserves of the Appalachian region were discovered. In 2004, eastern Kentucky produced 90,871,000 short tons of coal, and western Kentucky 23,373,000 short tons. Overall, Kentucky in 2004, had 419 producing coal mines, 196 of which were surface mines and 223 were underground. Total coal output that year totaled 114,244,000 short tons, up from 112,806,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, surface mines accounted for 42,487,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 1.129 billion short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

As of 2004, Kentucky had proven crude oil reserves of 27 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 7,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 21st (20th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 21st (20th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Kentucky had 18,075 producing oil wells. As of 2005, the state's two refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 227,500 barrels per day.

Oil shale is found in a band stretching from Lawrence County in the northeast through Madison and Washington counties in central Kentucky to Jefferson County in the north-central region.

In 2004, Kentucky had 13,920 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In 2003 (the latest year for which data was available), marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 87.608 billion cu ft (2.49 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 1.880 billion cu ft (0.157 billion cu m).

29 INDUSTRY

Although primarily an agricultural state during the 19th century, Kentucky was a leading supplier of manufactures to the South before the Civil War. Manufacturing activities are largely concentrated in Louisville and Jefferson County and other cities bordering the Ohio River. Kentucky is the leading producer of American whiskey. It also is one of the nation's largest producers of trucks in

assembly plants at Louisville as well as for automobiles at Bowling Green and Georgetown.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Kentucky's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$97.253 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$34.220 billion. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing at \$9.178 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$7.984 billion; food manufacturing at \$7.646 billion; and paper manufacturing at \$4.418 billion.

In 2004, a total of 246,749 people in Kentucky were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 187,621 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 50,032, with 41,325 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 22,863 employees (17,400 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 21,442 employees (15,783 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 18,858 employees (15,068 actual production workers); and machinery manufacturing with 17,535 employees (11,982 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Kentucky's manufacturing sector paid \$10.344 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.626 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$794.193 million; chemical manufacturing at \$739.002 million; food manufacturing at \$730.046 million; machinery manufacturing at \$710.472 billion; and primary metal manufacturing at \$634.640 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Kentucky's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$51.8 billion from 4,630 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,827 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,447 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 356 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$20.5 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$27.1 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$4.08 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Kentucky was listed as having 16,847 retail establishments with sales of \$40.06 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (2,443); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,171); miscellaneous store retailers (1,978); and food and beverage stores (1,961). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$9.5 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$7.6 billion; food and beverage stores at \$5.5 billion; gasoline stations at \$4.5 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$3.6 billion. A total of 214,192 people were employed by the retail sector in Kentucky that year.

Exporters located in Kentucky exported \$14.8 billion in merchandise during 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection is primarily the responsibility of the Office of Consumer Protection, which is a part of the state Attorney General's Office. Created in 1972, the office assists consumers with disputes in the marketplace through the mediation of consumer complaints; the litigation of violators of the Consumer Protection Act; and the education of consumers. The mediation branch handles consumer complaints.

However, other state agencies also operate consumer protection divisions that are specific to the particular agency. The Office of Insurance, which regulates insurance companies and agents within the state, has a Division of Consumer Protection and Education. The state's Department of Agriculture has a Division of Regulation and Inspection under its Office for Consumer and Environmental Services. The Division's responsibilities include the inspection of gas pumps, amusement park rides, weight and measurement devices, tobacco warehouses, and eggs. The state's Public Service Commission, which regulates utilities operating within the state, has a Division of Consumer Services.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Consumer Protection Division has offices in the cities of Louisville and Frankfort.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Kentucky had 230 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 33 state-chartered and 75 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Louisville market area had the most number of financial institutions with 53, as well as the largest portion of deposits at \$19.289 billion in 2004, followed by the Lexington-Fayette area at 21 and \$6.683 billion, respectively. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 7.7% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$4.378 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 92.3% or \$52.280 billion in assets held.

Eighty-one percent of the state's insured banks have less than \$250 million in assets. The median return on assets (ROA) ratio (the measure of earnings in relation to all resources) and net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) increased in 2004 for Kentucky's banks. For that year, ROA stood at 1.10%, up from 1.05% in 2003, while NIM in 2004 stood at 4.01%, up from 3.95% in the previous year.

Regulation of Kentucky's state-chartered financial institutions is carried out by the state's Office of Financial Institutions.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, Kentuckians held some 2.6 million life insurance policies, with a total value of over \$139 billion; total value for all categories

of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$213 billion. The average coverage amount is \$52,500 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at about \$679.3 million.

As of 2003, there were 8 property and casualty and 10 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$5.75 billion. The same year, there were 20,921 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$2 billion. About \$150 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 52% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 28% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 20% for single coverage and 25% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.8 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$737.46.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Kentucky. In 2005, there were 480 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 2,350 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 64 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 30 NASDAQ companies, 13 NYSE listings, and 3 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had six Fortune 500 companies; Humana (in Louisville) ranked first in the state and 150th in the nation with revenues of over \$14.4 million, followed by Ashland, Inc. (Covington), Yum Brands (Louisville), Omnicare (Covington), Lexmark International (Lexington), and Kindred Healthcare all of which are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The Kentucky biennial state budget is prepared by the Governor's Office for Policy and Management late in each odd-numbered year and submitted by the governor to the General Assembly for approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$9.1 billion for resources and \$8.4 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Kentucky were \$6.7 billion.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Kentucky collected \$9.1 billion in tax revenues, or \$2,179 per capita, which placed it 23rd among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 5.2% of the total; sales taxes, 28.5%; selective

sales taxes, 18.2%; individual income taxes, 33.4%; corporate income taxes, 5.3%; and other taxes, 9.3%.

As of 1 January 2006, Kentucky had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.0% to 6.0%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 4.0% to 7.0% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$2.14 billion, or \$516 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 45th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$1,680,995,000 of the total and the state government \$455,460,000.

Kentucky taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is

Kentucky—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	20,180,416	4,872.14
General revenue	17,382,099	4,196.55
Intergovernmental revenue	5,795,618	1,399.23
Taxes	8,463,400	2,043.31
General sales	2,466,033	595.37
Selective sales	1,540,274	371.87
License taxes	542,480	130.97
Individual income tax	2,819,393	680.68
Corporate income tax	381,538	92.11
Other taxes	713,682	172.30
Current charges	1,895,335	457.59
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,227,746	296.41
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,798,317	675.60
Total expenditure	20,072,526	4,846.10
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,967,334	957.83
Direct expenditure	16,105,192	3,888.26
Current operation	11,108,836	2,682.00
Capital outlay	1,604,185	387.30
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,430,915	586.89
Assistance and subsidies	533,329	128.76
Interest on debt	427,927	103.31
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,067,912	740.68
Total expenditure	20,072,526	4,846.10
General expenditure	17,641,550	4,259.19
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,967,334	957.83
Direct expenditure	13,674,216	3,301.36
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	6,392,502	1,543.34
Public welfare	5,274,909	1,273.52
Hospitals	682,476	164.77
Health	535,507	129.29
Highways	1,730,937	417.90
Police protection	155,292	37.49
Correction	452,482	109.24
Natural resources	345,119	83.32
Parks and recreation	134,567	32.49
Government administration	667,476	161.15
Interest on general debt	427,927	103.31
Other and unallocable	842,356	203.37
Utility expenditure	61	.01
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,430,915	586.89
Debt at end of fiscal year	8,116,460	1,959.55
Cash and security holdings	33,990,295	8,206.25

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

30 cents per pack, which ranks 45th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Kentucky taxes gasoline at 18.5 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Kentucky citizens received \$1.45 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Kentucky Cabinet for Economic Development seeks to encourage businesses to locate in Kentucky and to expand through its job creation program. Various available programs offer companies tax credits totaling as much as 100% of their investment. Low interest loans and bonds also are available. Additional incentives are available to qualified businesses for locating in one of Kentucky's enterprise zones, Appalachian counties, or in Kentucky's federal empowerment zone. Incentives also are available for tourist attractions that locate in Kentucky. Regional industrial parks are currently being developed to provide available, accessible, and marketable land in areas where an abundant labor force is available. The Kentucky Economic Development Finance Authority (KEDFA) was established within the Cabinet for Economic Development to further the state's economic goals through financial assistance and tax credit programs. Tax credit programs offered include those under the Bluegrass State Skills Corporation Skills Training Investment Act; the Kentucky Rural Economic Development Act (to support manufacturing enterprises in rural areas); the Kentucky Jobs Act (for the expansion of service and technology related projects); the Kentucky Industrial Development Act (for new and expanding manufacturing projects); the Kentucky Economic Opportunity Zone Program (for certified Opportunity Zones); and the Kentucky Investment Fund Act (for approved venture capital investments). Other incentives are offered under programs for Enterprise Zones, Industrial Revenue Bonds, the Commonwealth Small Business Development Corporation, the Kentucky Tourism Development Act, and the Local Government Economic Development Fund.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.6 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 5.3 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 87% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 79% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.8 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 285.8; cancer, 230.6; cerebrovascular diseases, 62.4; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 58.7; and diabetes, 30.9. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 6.1 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 59.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, Kentucky hosted the highest percentage of resident smokers, with about 27.4%.

In 2003, Kentucky had 103 community hospitals with about 14,900 beds. There were about 600,000 patient admissions that

year and 8.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 9,300 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,106. Also in 2003, there were about 296 certified nursing facilities in the state with 25,629 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 89%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 71.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Kentucky had 233 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 904 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 2,325 dentists in the state.

About 28% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state population uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 121,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$257. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 570,277 persons (245,707 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$89.36 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$611.4 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Kentucky's TANF program is called the Kentucky Transition Assistance Program (K-TAP). In 2004, the state program had 78,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$119 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 784,910 Kentucky residents. This number included 408,110 retired workers, 92,390 widows and widowers, 152,410 disabled workers, 50,400 spouses, and 81,590 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18.9% of the total state population and 92.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$903; widows and widowers, \$814; disabled workers, \$879; and spouses, \$425. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$441 per month; children of deceased workers, \$596; and children of disabled workers, \$261. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 179,438 Kentucky residents, averaging \$392 a month. An additional \$1.4 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 4,406 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, Kentucky had 1,842,971 housing units, 1,647,464 of which were occupied. About 70.1% were owner-occupied. About 67% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 13.9% were mobile homes. Though most units relied on utility gas or electricity for heating, about 11,533 units used coke or coal and 37,785 relied on wood. It was estimated that 109,895 units lacked telephone service,

13,677 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 9,421 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.45 members.

In 2004, 22,600 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$98,438. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$888. Renters paid a median of \$503 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$2.15 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$27.3 million in community development block grants.

4¹ EDUCATION

Kentucky was relatively slow to establish and support its public education system and has consistently ranked below the national average in the educational attainments of its citizens. In 2004, 81.8% of all adults had completed four years of high school, below the national average of 84%; 21% had completed four or more years of college, below the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Kentucky's public schools stood at 661,000. Of these, 477,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 184,000 attended high school. Approximately 87% of the students were white, 10.4% were black, 1.5% were Hispanic, 0.8% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 650,000 in fall 2003 but was expected to be 618,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 6.5% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$5.24 billion. There were 71,067 students enrolled in 368 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Kentucky scored 274 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 225,489 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 10.8% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Kentucky had 77 degree-granting institutions. Kentucky's higher education facilities include 8 public 4-year institutions, 26 public 2-year schools, and 26 private 4-year nonprofit institutions. The University of Kentucky, established in 1865 at Lexington, is the state's largest public institution. The University of Louisville (1798) is also state supported. Loans and grants to Kentucky students are provided by the Kentucky Higher Education Assistance Authority.

In 1990 the Kentucky Education Reform Act established SEEK (Support Education Excellence in Kentucky). SEEK is a program that balances the available education dollars among poor and wealthy counties.

4² ARTS

The Kentucky Arts Council (KAC) was formed in 1965. The council is a division of the Kentucky Department of the Arts within the Commerce Cabinet and is authorized to promote the arts through such programs as Arts in Education and the State Arts Resources Program. Other ongoing programs include the Craft Marketing Program, which promotes the state's craft industry, and the Folklife Program, a partnership with the Kentucky Historical Society. The

Arts Kentucky is a statewide membership organization for artists, performers, craftspeople, and community arts groups.

The Kentucky Center for the Arts in Louisville, dedicated in 1983, serves as home to the Louisville Orchestra (est. 1937) and the Kentucky Opera the twelfth-oldest opera company in the United States. The Louisville Ballet (est. 1952) also resides in the Kentucky Center for the Arts. Over the years, the Louisville Orchestra has recorded numerous works by contemporary composers. As of 2006, the Louisville Ballet entertained more than 75,000 people each year and reached over 15,000 children annually, through their education programs.

Bluegrass, a form of country music performed on fiddle and banjo and played at a rapid tempo is named after the style pioneered by Kentuckian Bill Monroe and his Blue Grass Boys. The Actors Theater of Louisville holds the annual Humana Festival of New American Plays; in 2006 the festival celebrated its 30th anniversary.

In 2005, the KAC and other arts organizations received 22 grants totaling \$1,020,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts. KAC also receives funding from the state to develop its arts education programs. Kentucky Chautauqua, an ongoing program of the Kentucky Humanities Council, sponsors impersonations of historical characters from Kentucky's past that travel across the state for presentations. In 2005, the state received nine grants totaling \$1,576,792 from the National Endowment for the Humanities.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Kentucky had 116 public library systems, with a total of 189 libraries, of which 73 were branches. In that same year, the systems had a combined total of 7,891,000 volumes of books and serial publications on their shelves, and a total circulation of 20,807,000. The system also had 269,000 audio and 225,000 video items, 12,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 94 bookmobiles. The regional library system included university libraries and the state library at Frankfort, as well as city and county libraries. The Kentucky Historical Society in Frankfort also maintains a research library of more than 85,000 volumes. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$79,874,000, including \$458,000 in federal grants and \$5,033,000 in state funding. For that same year, operating expenditures totaled \$70,421,000, of which 56.4% was spent on staff members, and 16.4% on the collection.

The state has more than 107 museums. Art museums include the University of Kentucky Art Museum and the Headley-Whitney Museum in Lexington, the Allen R. Hite Art Institute at the University of Louisville, and the J. B. Speed Art Museum, also in Louisville. Among Kentucky's equine museums are the International Museum of the Horse and the American Horse Museum, both in Lexington, and the Kentucky Derby Museum in Louisville. The John James Audubon Museum is located in Audubon State Park at Henderson.

Leading historical sites include Abraham Lincoln's birthplace at Hodgenville and the Mary Todd Lincoln and Henry Clay homes in Lexington. The Kentucky Historical Society in Frankfort operates three museums, supports a mobile museum system that

brings exhibits about Kentucky history to schools, parks, and local gatherings, and aids over 400 local historical organizations.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Only 91.4% of all occupied housing units in the state had a telephone in 2004. In addition, by June of that same year there were 2,000,459 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 58.1% of Kentucky households had a computer and 49.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 370,337 high-speed lines in Kentucky, 330,957 residential and 39,362 for business.

In 1922, Kentucky's first radio broadcasting station, WHAS, was established. By 2005, there were 73 major radio stations, 15 AM and 58 FM. That year there were 29 major television broadcasting stations, including 17 public broadcasting stations. There were 576,850 television households, 65% of which received cable in 1999. By 2000, Kentucky had registered a total of 39,264 Internet domain names.

45 PRESS

In 2005, Kentucky had 23 daily newspapers (10 morning, 13 evening), and 14 Sunday papers.

The following table shows the leading Kentucky newspapers with their approximate 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Lexington	<i>Herald-Leader</i> (m,S)	114,234	145,500
Louisville	<i>Courier-Journal</i> (m,S)	207,655	273,891

Magazines include *Kentucky Living* and *Kentucky Monthly*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 3,895 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,524 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Notable organizations with headquarters in Kentucky include the Thoroughbred Club of America, the United States Polo Association, the Jockeys' Guild, and the Burley Tobacco Growers Cooperative Association (all in Lexington); the Burley Auction Warehouse Association (Mt. Sterling); the National Softball Association in Nicholasville, and Sons of the American Revolution and the American Saddlebred Horse Association (all in Louisville).

The Council of State Governments in Lexington is a co-sponsor of the National Crime Prevention Institute and the National Emergency Management Association (both are also in Lexington). The National Police Officers Association of America is based in Louisville.

The American Quilter's Society is located in Paducah. State organizations for local arts and culture include the Filson Club, the Kentucky Guild of Artists and Craftsmen, and the Ohio Valley Art League. Special interest organizations in the state include the American Checker Federation and the Corvette Club of America.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

The economic impact of tourism within the state approached \$10 billion and supported of over 164,000 travel-related jobs. The strength of this sector of the economy was attributed, in part, to

the impact of the Kentucky Tourism Development Act of 1996, which provides incentives for new or expanding tourist-related businesses. As of 2003, total private investment in tourism reached \$500 million.

One of the state's top tourist attractions is Mammoth Cave National Park, which contains an estimated 150 mi (241 km) of underground passages. Other units of the national park system in Kentucky include a re-creation of Abraham Lincoln's birthplace in Hodgenville and Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, which extends into Tennessee and Virginia.

The state operates 15 resort parks (13 of them year round). The state also operates 15 recreational parks and 9 shrines. Breaks Interstate Park, on the Kentucky-Virginia border, is noted for the Russell Fork River Canyon, which is 1,600 feet (488 meters) deep; the park is supported equally by the two states.

In 1979, the Kentucky Horse Park opened in Lexington. The Kentucky State Fair is held every August at Louisville. The Kentucky Derby (horse racing) is the first leg of the prestigious Triple Crown held in May in Lexington. Cave City is home to Dinosaur World.

48 SPORTS

There are no major league professional sports teams in Kentucky. There is a minor league baseball team in Louisville that plays in the Triple-A International League. There are also two minor league hockey teams in Kentucky that play in the American Hockey League.

The first known horse race in Kentucky was held in 1783. The annual Kentucky Derby, first run on 17 May 1875, has become the single most famous event in US thoroughbred racing. Held on the first Saturday in May at Churchill Downs in Louisville, the Derby is one of three races for three-year-olds constituting the Triple Crown. Keeneland Race Course in Lexington is the site of the Blue Grass Stakes and other major thoroughbred races. The Kentucky Futurity, an annual highlight of the harness racing season, is usually held on the first Friday in October at the Red Mile in Lexington.

Rivaling horse racing as a spectator sport is collegiate basketball. The University of Kentucky Wildcats, who play in the Southeastern Conference, won National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I basketball championships in 1948–49, 1951, 1958, 1978, 1996, and 1998, and the National Invitation Tournament (NIT) in 1946 and 1976. The University of Louisville Cardinals, who play in Conference USA, captured the NCAA crown in 1980 and 1986, and won an NIT title in 1956. Kentucky Wesleyan, at Owensboro, was the NCAA Division II titleholder in 1966, 1968–69, 1973, 1987, 1990, 1999, and 2001.

49 FAMOUS KENTUCKIANS

Kentucky has been the birthplace of one US president, four US vice presidents, the only president of the Confederacy, and several important jurists, statesmen, writers, artists, and sports figures.

Abraham Lincoln (1809–65) the 16th president of the United States, was born in Hodgenville, Hardin (now Larue) County, and spent his developing years in Indiana and Illinois. Elected as the first Republican president in 1860 and reelected in 1864, Lincoln

reflected his Kentucky roots in his opposition to secession and the expansion of slavery, and in his conciliatory attitude toward the defeated southern states. His wife, Mary Todd Lincoln (1818–82), was a native of Lexington.

Kentucky-born US vice presidents have all been Democrats. Richard M. Johnson (1780–1850) was elected by the Senate after a deadlock in the Electoral College; John C. Breckinridge (1821–75) in 1857 became the youngest man ever to hold the office; Adlai E. Stevenson (1835–1914) served in Grover Cleveland's second administration. The best-known vice president was Alben W. Barkley (1877–1956), who, before his election with President Harry S Truman in 1948, was a US senator and longtime Senate majority leader.

Frederick M. Vinson (1890–1953) was the only Kentuckian to serve as chief justice of the United States. Noteworthy associate justices were John Marshall Harlan (1833–1911), famous for his dissent from the segregationist *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision (1896), and Louis B. Brandeis (1856–1941), the first Jew to serve on the Supreme Court and a champion of social reform.

Henry Clay (b. Virginia, 1777–1852) came to Lexington in 1797 and went on to serve as speaker of the US House of Representatives, secretary of state, and US senator; he was also a three-time presidential candidate. Other important federal officeholders from Kentucky include attorneys general John Breckinridge (b. Virginia, 1760–1806) and John J. Crittenden (1787–1863), who also served with distinction as US senator; treasury secretaries Benjamin H. Bristow (1830–96) and John G. Carlisle (1835–1910); and US senator John Sherman Cooper (1901–91). Zachary Taylor (1784–1850), 12th US president, spent much of his adult life in Kentucky and is buried there.

Among noteworthy state officeholders, Isaac Shelby (b. Maryland 1750–1826) was a leader in the movement for statehood and the first governor of Kentucky. William Goebel (1856–1900) was the only US governor assassinated in office. Albert B. (“Happy”) Chandler (1898–1991), twice governor, also served as US senator and as commissioner of baseball.

A figure prominently associated with frontier Kentucky is the explorer and surveyor Daniel Boone (b. Pennsylvania, 1734–1820). Other frontiersmen include Kit Carson (1809–68) and Roy Bean (1825?–1903). During the Civil War, Lincoln's principal adversary was another native Kentuckian, Jefferson Davis (1808–89). Davis moved south as a boy to a Mississippi plantation home, subsequently serving as US senator from Mississippi, US secretary of war, and president of the Confederate States of America.

Other personalities of significance include James G. Birney (1792–1857) and Cassius Marcellus Clay (1810–1903), both major antislavery spokesmen. Clay's daughter Laura (1849–1941) and Madeline Breckinridge (1872–1920) were important contributors to the women's suffrage movement. Henry Watterson (1840–1921) founded and edited the *Louisville Courier-Journal* and was a major adviser to the Democratic Party. Carry Nation (1846–1911) was a leader of the temperance movement. During the 1920s, Kentuckian John T. Scopes (1900–70) gained fame as the defendant in the “monkey trial” in Dayton, Tenn.; Scopes was prosecuted for teaching Darwin's theory of evolution. Whitney M.

Young (1921–71), a prominent black leader, served as head of the National Urban League.

Thomas Hunt Morgan (1866–1945), honored for his work in heredity and genetics, was a Nobel Prize winner. Journalists born in Kentucky include Irvin S. Cobb (1876–1944), who was also a humorist and playwright, and Arthur Krock (1887–1974), a winner of four Pulitzer Prizes. Notable businessmen include Harland Sanders (b. Indiana, 1890–1980), founder of Kentucky Fried Chicken restaurants.

Kentucky has produced several distinguished creative artists. These include painters Matthew Jouett (1787–1827), Frank Duveneck (1848–1919), and Paul Sawyer (1865–1917); folk song collector John Jacob Niles (1891–1980); and novelists Harriette Arnow (1908–86) and Wendell Berry (b. 1934). Robert Penn Warren (1905–89), a novelist, poet, and critic, won the Pulitzer Prize three times and was the first author to win the award in both the fiction and poetry categories.

Among Kentuckians well recognized in the performing arts are film innovator D. W. Griffith (David Lewelyn Wark Griffith, 1875–1948), Academy Award-winning actress Patricia Neal (b. 1926), and country music singer Loretta Lynn (b. 1932). Kentucky's sports figures include basketball coach Adolph Rupp (b. Kansas, 1901–77), shortstop Harold (“Pee Wee”) Reese (1919–99), football great Paul Hornung (b. 1935), and world heavyweight boxing champions Jimmy Ellis (b. 1940) and Muhammad Ali (Cassius Clay, b. 1942).

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LOUISIANA

State of Louisiana

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named in 1682 for France's King Louis XIV. **NICKNAME:** The Pelican State. **CAPITAL:** Baton Rouge. **ENTERED UNION:** 30 April 1812 (18th). **SONG:** "Give Me Louisiana;" "You are My Sunshine;" "State March Song." **MOTTO:** Union, Justice, and Confidence. **FLAG:** On a blue field, fringed on three sides, a white pelican feeds her three young, symbolizing the state providing for its citizens; the state motto is inscribed on a white ribbon. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the center, a pelican and its young are as depicted on the flag; the state motto encircles the scene, and the words "State of Louisiana" surround the whole. **BIRD:** Eastern brown pelican. **FISH:** Crustacean: Crawfish. **FLOWER:** Magnolia; Louisiana iris (wildflower). **TREE:** Bald cypress. **GEM:** Agate. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Mardi Gras Day, Tuesday before Ash Wednesday, February; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Independence Day, 4 July; Huey Long's Birthday, 30 August, by proclamation of the governor; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Election Day, 1st Tuesday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans' Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. Legal holidays in Baton Rouge parish also include Inauguration Day, once every four years in January. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the western south-central United States, Louisiana ranks 31st in size among the 50 states. The total area of Louisiana is 47,751 sq mi (123,675 sq km), including 44,521 sq mi (115,309 sq km) of land and 3,230 sq mi (8,366 sq km) of inland water. The state extends 237 mi (381 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 236 mi (380 km). Louisiana is shaped roughly like a boot, with the heel in the SW corner and the toe at the extreme SE.

Louisiana is bordered on the N by Arkansas; on the E by Mississippi (with part of the line formed by the Mississippi River and part, in the extreme SE, by the Pearl River); on the S by the Gulf of Mexico; and on the W by Texas (with part of the line passing through the Sabine River and Toledo Bend Reservoir). The state's geographic center is in Avoyelles Parish, 3 mi (5 km) SE of Marks-ville. The total boundary length of Louisiana is 1,486 mi (2,391 km). Louisiana's total tidal shoreline is 7,721 mi (12,426 km).

² TOPOGRAPHY

Louisiana lies wholly within the Gulf Coastal Plain. Alluvial lands, chiefly of the Red and Mississippi rivers, occupy the north-central third of the state. East and west of this alluvial plain are the upland districts, characterized by rolling hills sloping gently toward the coast. The coastal-delta section, in the southernmost portion of the state, consists of the Mississippi Delta and the coastal lowlands. The highest elevation in the state is Driskill Mountain at 535 ft (163 m), in Bienville Parish; the lowest, 8 ft (2 m) below sea level, in New Orleans. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 100 ft (31 m).

Louisiana has the most wetlands of all the states, about 11,000 sq mi (28,000 sq km) of floodplains and 7,800 sq mi (20,200 sq km) of coastal swamps, marshes, and estuarine waters. The largest lake, actually a coastal lagoon, is Lake Pontchartrain, with an area of more than 620 sq mi (1,600 sq km). Toledo Bend Reservoir, an

artificial lake along the Louisiana–Texas border, has an area of 284 sq mi (736 sq km). The most important rivers are the Mississippi, Red, Pearl, Atchafalaya, and Sabine. Most drainage takes place through swamps between the bayous, which serve as outlets for overflowing rivers and streams. Louisiana has nearly 2,500 coastal islands covering some 2,000 sq mi (5,000 sq km).

³ CLIMATE

Louisiana has a relatively constant semitropical climate. Rainfall and humidity decrease, and daily temperature variations increase, with distance from the Gulf of Mexico. The normal daily temperature in New Orleans is 69°F (20°C), ranging from 53°F (11°C) in January to 82°F (27°C) in July. The all-time high temperature is 114°F (46°C), recorded at Plain Dealing on 10 August 1936; the all-time low, -16°F (-27°C), was set at Minden on 13 February 1899. New Orleans has sunshine 58% of the time, and the average annual rainfall is about 61.6 in (156 cm). Snow falls occasionally in the north, but rarely in the south.

Prevailing winds are from the south or southeast. During the summer and fall, tropical storms and hurricanes frequently batter the state, especially along the coast. The 2005 hurricane season devastated much of the Gulf region, primarily through Hurricane Katrina. Katrina made landfall at Buras on 29 August 2005 as a Category 4 storm. The combination of high winds and flooding led to levee damage around New Orleans, allowing flood waters to cover about 80% of the city, with depths as high as 20 ft (6.3 m). One month later, Hurricane Rita made landfall near Johnson's Bayou as a Category 3 storm. Initial reports from Hurricane Rita alone included 119 deaths and \$8 billion in damage. As of early 2006, damage assessments for Hurricane Katrina were still underway. Over 1,300 deaths had been reported, well over 1 million people were displaced, and the cost of rebuilding was estimated at over \$150 billion.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Forests in Louisiana consist of four major types: shortleaf pine uplands, slash and longleaf pine flats and hills, hardwood forests in alluvial basins, and cypress and tupelo swamps. Important commercial trees also include beech, eastern red cedar, and black walnut. Among the state's wildflowers are the ground orchid and several hyacinths; two species (Louisiana quillwort and American chaffseed) were listed as endangered in April 2006. Spanish moss (actually a member of the pineapple family) grows profusely in the southern regions but is rare in the north.

Louisiana's varied habitats—tidal marshes, swamps woodlands, and prairies—offer a diversity of fauna. Deer, squirrel, rabbit, and bear are hunted as game, while muskrat, nutria, mink, opossum, bobcat, and skunk are commercially significant furbearers. Prized game birds include quail, turkey, woodcock, and various waterfowl, of which the mottled duck and wood duck are native. Coastal beaches are inhabited by sea turtles, and whales may be seen offshore. Freshwater fish include bass, crappie, and bream; red and white crawfishes are the leading commercial crustaceans. Threatened animal species include five species (green, hawksbill, Kemp's ridley, leatherback, and loggerhead) of sea turtle. In April 2006, a total of 23 species occurring within the state were on the threatened and endangered species list of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. These included 20 animal (vertebrates and invertebrates) and 3 plant species. Among those listed were the Louisiana black bear, bald eagle, Alabama heelsplitter, and red-cockaded woodpecker.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Louisiana's earliest and most pressing environmental problem was the chronic danger of flooding by the Mississippi River. In April and May 1927, one of the worst floods in the state's history inundated more than 1,300,000 acres (526,000 hectares) of agricultural land, left 300,000 people homeless, and would have swept away much of New Orleans had levees below the city not been dynamited. The following year, the US Congress funded construction of a system of floodways and spillways to divert water from the Mississippi when necessary. These flood control measures and dredging for oil and gas exploration created another environmental problem—the slowing of the natural flow of silt into the wetlands. As a result, salt water from the Gulf of Mexico has seeped into the wetlands.

The city of New Orleans suffered a major environmental disaster under Hurricane Katrina, which swept through the area in September 2005. High winds and flooding eventually led to a breach in the levees around New Orleans, allowing flood waters to cover about 80% of the city, with depths as high as 20 ft (6.3 m). Hundreds of homes, industries, and other public buildings were destroyed releasing a myriad of contaminants into the air, water, and soil. As of early 2006, environmental cleanup and damage assessments were still underway.

In 1984, Louisiana consolidated much of its environmental protection efforts into a new state agency—The Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ). Among its responsibilities are maintenance of air and water quality, solid-waste management, hazardous waste disposal, and control of radioactive materials. According to the Louisiana Environmental Action Plan (LEAP to 2000 Project), toxic air pollution, industrial and municipal waste-

water discharges, and coastal wetland loss head the list of state residents' environmental concerns. Louisiana's problem in protecting its wetlands differs from that of most other states in that its wetlands are more than wildlife refuges—they are central to the state's agriculture and fishing industries. Assessment of the environmental impact of various industries on the wetlands has been conducted under the Coastal Zone Management Plan of the Department of Natural Resources.

The two largest wildlife refuges in the state are the Rockefeller Wildlife Refuge, comprising 84,000 acres (34,000 hectares) in Cameron and Vermilion parishes, and the Marsh Island Refuge, 82,000 acres (33,000 hectares) of marshland in Iberia Parish. Both are managed by the Department of Wildlife and Fisheries. Louisiana's coastal marshes represent almost 40% of such lands in the country. Catahoula Lake, located in LaSalle and Rapides parishes, was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1991, primarily for its role as a habitat for migratory birds. The site is managed jointly by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, the US Army Corps of Engineers, and the Louisiana Department of Wildlife and Fisheries. In 1996, wetlands, which once covered more than half the state, accounted for about one-third of Louisiana's land.

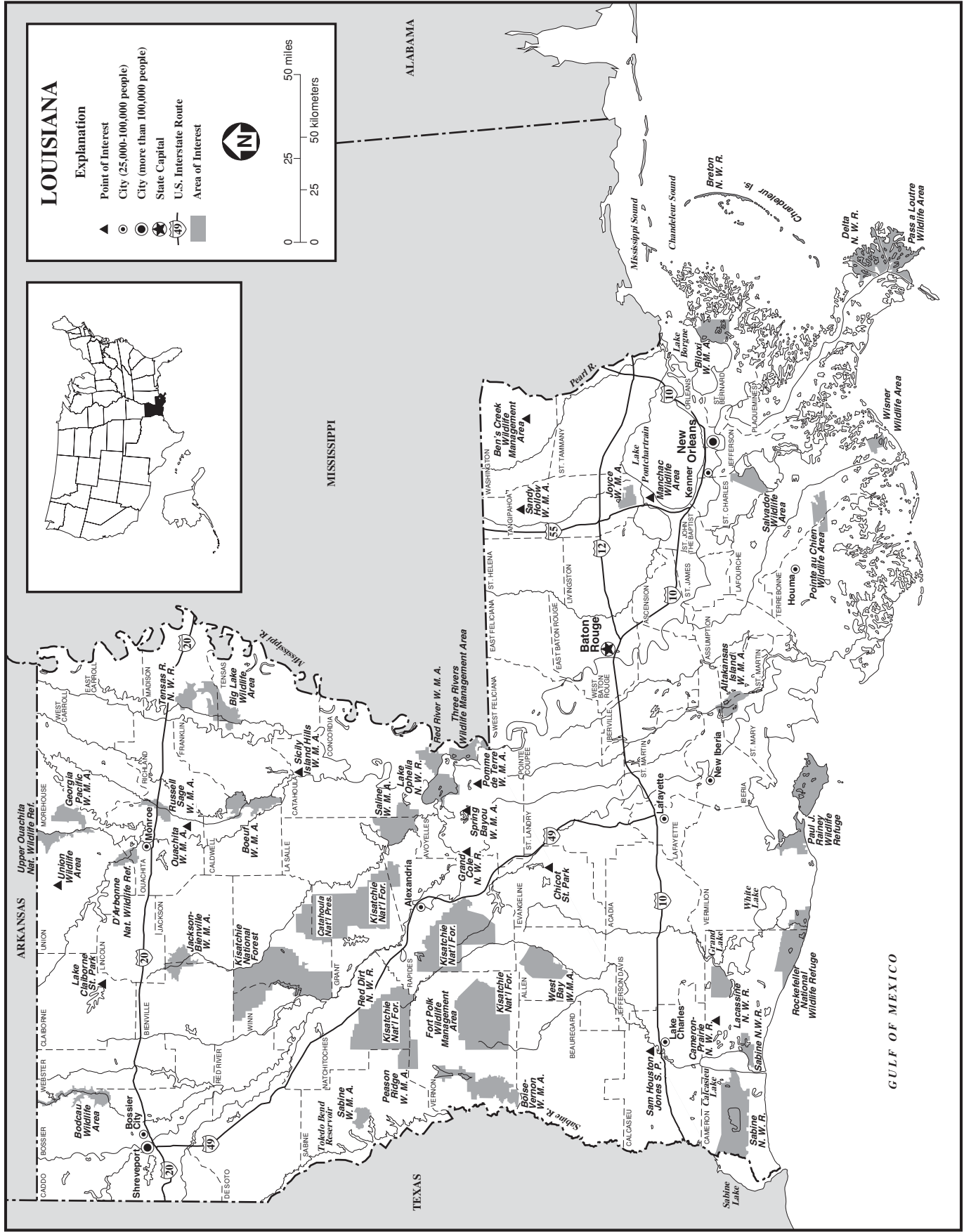
With approximately 100 major chemical and petrochemical manufacturing and refining facilities located in Louisiana, many DEQ programs deal with the regulation of hazardous waste generation, management and disposal, and chemical releases to the air and water. Trends in air monitoring have, for example, continued to show decreases in criteria pollutants. In 1993, Louisiana became one of the first states in the nation to receive federal approval for stringent new solid waste landfill regulations, and the department has developed a Statewide Solid Waste Management Plan which encourages waste reduction. In 2003, Louisiana had 155 hazardous waste sites included in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 11 of which were included on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Louisiana Army Ammunition Plant in Doyline. Nine sites were deleted from the National Priority List in 2006, but three new sites were proposed. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$14.8 million for the state revolving loan program (in support of water quality projects) and \$2.4 million for water pollution control projects in urban and agricultural settings.

In 2003, 126.8 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Of the total river miles in the state impacted by pollution, 69% of the pollution is due to nonpoint sources such as agricultural and urban runoff. Efforts by DEQ to curb nonpoint source pollution have included the support and cooperation of the agricultural community and other state and federal agencies.

Among the most active citizen's groups on environmental issues are the League of Women Voters, the Sierra Club (Delta Chapter), and the Louisiana Environmental Action Network (LEAN). Curbside recycling programs exist in 28 parishes.

6 POPULATION

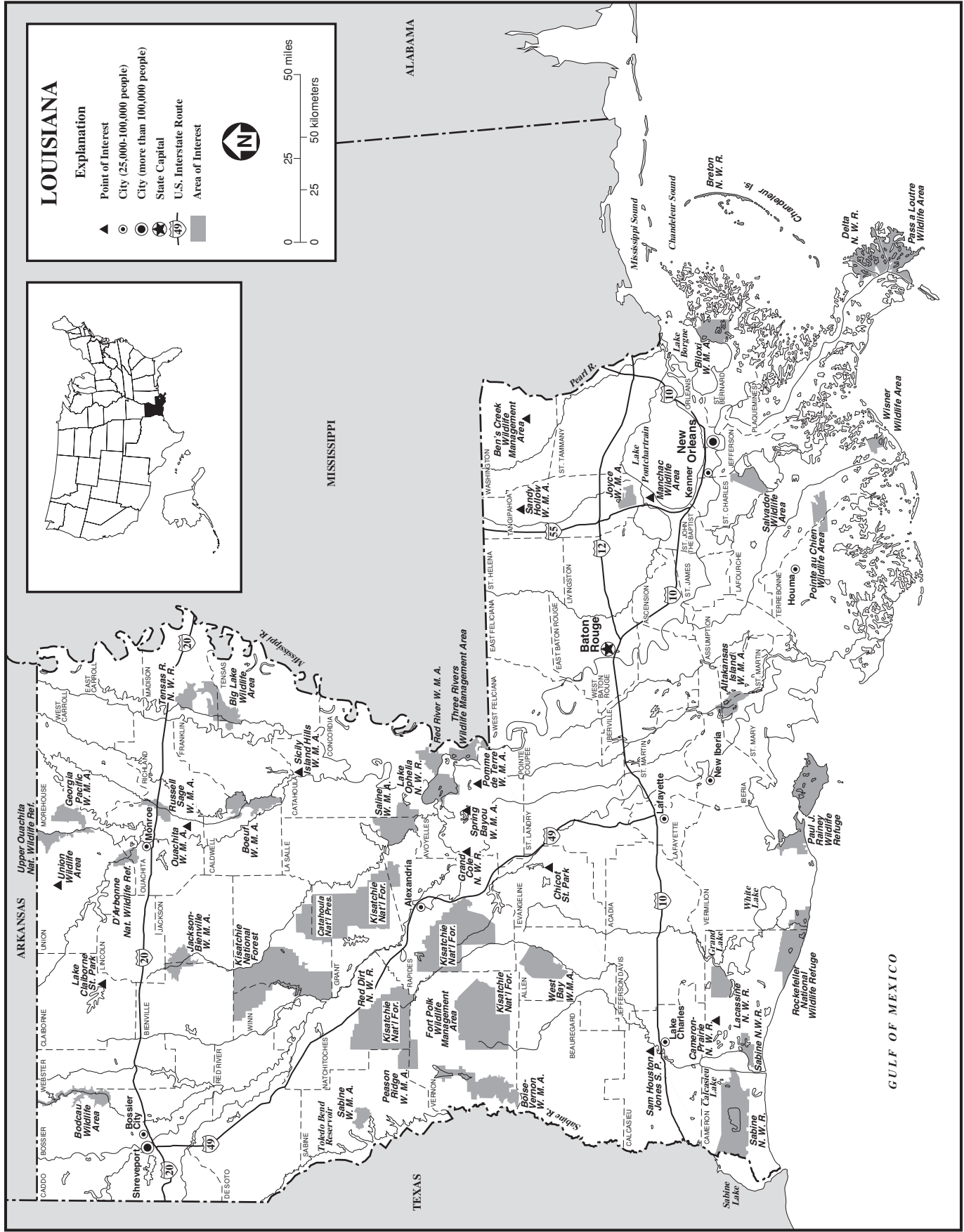
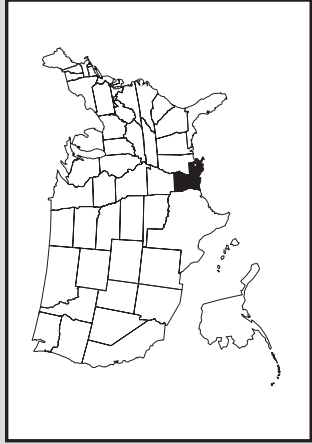
Louisiana ranked 24th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 4,523,628 in 2005, an increase of 1.2% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Louisiana's population grew from



LOUISIANA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



4,219,973 to 4,468,976, an increase of 5.9%. The population is projected to reach 4.67 million by 2015 and 4.76 million by 2025.

At the time of the 1980 census, Louisiana ranked 19th among the 50 states, with a population of 4,203,972, representing an increase of more than 15% since 1970. However, by 1990 the population was 4,219,973, representing only a 0.3% gain, and ranking had slipped to 21st. The population density in 2004 was 104.2 persons per sq mi.

In 2004 the median age was 35.2. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 25.8% of the population while 11.7% was age 65 or older.

New Orleans is the largest city, with an estimated 2004 population of 462,269, followed by Baton Rouge, 224,097; and Shreveport, 198,675. Baton Rouge, the capital, had grown with exceptional speed since 1940, when its population was 34,719; however, since 1980, the population has been decreasing. Among the state's largest metropolitan areas are New Orleans, with an estimated 1,319,589, and Baton Rouge, with 728,731.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Louisiana, most notably the Delta region, is an enclave of ethnic heterogeneity in the South. At the end of World War II, the established population of the Delta, according to descent, included blacks, French, Spanish (among them Central and South Americans and Islenos, Spanish-speaking migrants from the Canary Islands), Filipinos, Italians, Chinese, American Indians, and numerous other groups.

Blacks made up about 32.5% of the population in 2000 (the second-highest percentage among the 50 states), and were estimated to number 1,451,944. They include descendants of "free people of color," some of whom were craftsmen and rural property owners before the Civil War (a few were slaveholding plantation owners). Many of these, of mixed blood, are referred to locally as "colored Creoles" and have constituted a black elite in both urban and rural Louisiana. The black population of New Orleans constituted 67.3% of the city's residents in 2000; New Orleans elected its first black mayor, Ernest N. "Dutch" Morial, in 1977. In 2004, 33% of the state's population was black.

Two groups that have been highly identified with the culture of Louisiana are Creoles and Acadians (also called Cajuns). Both descend primarily from early French immigrants to the state, but the Cajuns trace their origins from the mainly rural people exiled from Acadia (Nova Scotia) in the 1740s, while the Creoles tend to be city people from France and, to a lesser extent, from Nova Scotia or Hispaniola. (The term "Creole" also applies to the relatively few early Spanish settlers and their descendants.) Although Acadians have intermingled with Spaniards and Germans, they still speak a French patois and retain a distinctive culture and cuisine. In 2000, 179,739 residents claimed Acadian/Cajun ancestry. In 2000, 107,738, or 2.4% of the population, were Hispanic or Latino. That figure had risen to 2.8% of the population by 2004.

At the time of the 2000 census, 115,885 Louisianians (2.6% of the population) were foreign born. France, Germany, Ireland, and the United Kingdom provided Louisiana with the largest ancestry groups. As of 2000, there were 25,477 American Indians in Louisiana, along with 54,758 and Asians, including 24,358 Vietnamese. Pacific Islanders numbered 1,240. In 2004, 0.6% of the popula-

tion was American Indian, 1.4% Asian, and 0.8% of the population claimed origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

White settlers in Louisiana found several Indian tribes of the Caddoan confederacy, from at least five different language groups. In 1990, about 495 Louisiana residents spoke an American Indian language at home. Place-names from this heritage include Coushatta, Natchitoches, and Ouachita.

Louisiana English is predominantly Southern. Notable features of the state's speech patterns are *pen* and *pin* as sound-alikes and, in New Orleans, the so-called Brooklyn pronunciation of *bird* as /boyd/. A pecan sugar candy is well known as *praline*.

In 2000, 3,771,003 Louisiana residents—90.8% of the population five years old and older (up from 89.9% in 1990)—spoke only English at home.

Unique to Louisiana is a large enclave, west of New Orleans, where a variety of French called Acadian (Cajun) is the first language. From it, and from early colonial French, English has taken such words as *pirogue* (dugout canoe), *armoire* (wardrobe), *boudin* (blood sausage), and *lagniappe* (extra gift).

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	4,153,367	100.0
Speak only English	3,771,003	90.8
Speak a language other than English	382,364	9.2
Speak a language other than English	382,364	9.2
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	194,314	4.7
Spanish or Spanish Creole	105,189	2.5
Vietnamese	23,326	0.6
German	8,047	0.2
Chinese	5,731	0.1
Arabic	5,489	0.1
French Creole	4,470	0.1
Italian	3,730	0.1
Tagalog	3,335	0.1
Korean	2,402	0.1
African languages	2,278	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Spanish missionaries brought Roman Catholicism to Louisiana in the early 16th century, and many of them were killed in their attempts to convert the Indians. During the early days, the most active religious orders were the Jesuits, Capuchins, and Ursuline nuns. Until the Louisiana Purchase, the public practice of any but the Catholic religion was prohibited, and Jews were entirely banned.

Joseph Willis, a mulatto preacher who conducted prayer meetings at what is now Lafayette in 1804, organized the first Baptist church west of the Mississippi, at Bayou Chicot in 1812. In the Opelousas region, in 1806, the first Methodist church in the state was organized. The first Episcopal church was established in New Orleans in 1805, a Methodist church in 1813, a Presbyterian church in 1817, a synagogue in 1828, and a Baptist church in 1834. After the Civil War, blacks withdrew from white-dominated churches to form their own religious groups, mainly Baptist and Methodist.

The Roman Catholic Church is the largest Christian denomination, with 1,312,237 church members statewide in 2004; the archdiocese of New Orleans had 488,004 members that year. One of the leading Protestant denominations is the Southern Baptist Convention, with 768,587 members in 2000 and 13,391 newly baptized members reported in 2002. The United Methodist Church had about 127,059 members statewide in 2004. Other Protestant denominations (with 2000 membership data) include Assemblies of God, 49,041, and the Episcopal Church, 33,653. There were about 16,500 Jews residing in Louisiana in 2000, a majority of them in New Orleans. The Muslim community had about 13,050 members. Voodoo, in some cases blended with Christian ritual, is more widespread in Louisiana than anywhere else in the United States, although the present number of practitioners is impossible to ascertain. Over 1.8 million people (about 41.2% of the population) did not claim any religious affiliation in the 2000 survey.

10 TRANSPORTATION

New Orleans is a major center of domestic and international freight traffic. In volume of domestic and foreign cargo handled, however, the Port of South Louisiana, which stretches 54 miles along the Mississippi River, is the largest tonnage port in the Western Hemisphere and third in the world. Although Louisiana's roads remained poor until the 1930s, the state was one of the nation's major rail centers by the end of the 19th century, and New Orleans was one of the first cities to develop a mass transit system.

Several short-run railroads were built in Louisiana during the 1830s. The first of these, and the first rail line west of the Alleghenies, was the Pontchartrain Railroad, which opened, using horse-drawn vehicles, on 23 April 1831. New Orleans was connected with New York before the Civil War, with Chicago by 1873, and with California in 1883 via a line that subsequently became part of the Southern Pacific. Railroads soon rivaled the Mississippi River in the movement of goods to and from New Orleans. There were six Class I line-haul railroads in Louisiana in 2003. Total railroad mileage was 3,426 route mi (5,515 km), of which 2,788 miles (4,488 km) was Class I right-of-way. Chemicals that same year, were the top commodity originating in the state that were transported by rail. As of 2006, Amtrak provided connecting passenger service to Los Angeles, Chicago, and New York, carrying passengers from seven stations through the state. The New Orleans and Carrollton Railroads, a horse-drawn trolley system, began service in 1835. Fifty-nine years later, electric trolleys came into use.

Louisiana's first road-building boom began after Huey Long entered the statehouse. When Long took office in 1928, the state had no more than 300 mi (480 km) of paved roads. By 1931 there were 1,583 mi (2,548 km). At the end of 2004, Louisiana had a total of 60,941 mi (98,115 km) of public roads, most of them rural. Also that year, there were 1.926 million automobiles and 1.747 million trucks registered in the state, with 3,169,627 drivers' licenses in force.

Early in the nation's history, the Mississippi River emerged as the principal route for north-south traffic, and New Orleans soon became the South's main port. The advent of the steamboat in 1812 solved the problem of upstream navigation, which previously had required three or four months for a distance that could be covered downstream in 15 days. (Barges moved by towboats eventually supplanted steamboats as cargo carriers.) An impor-

tant breakthrough in international transportation was the deepening of the channel at the mouth of the Mississippi by means of jetties, the first of which were completed in 1879. The port of New Orleans is served by more than 100 steamship lines, 20 common carrier lines, and about 100 contract carrier barge lines. The Louisiana Offshore Oil Port (LOOP), the first deepwater oil port in the United States, was opened in 1981. Located south of New Orleans in the Gulf of Mexico, the supertanker facility has a designed capacity of 1,400,000 barrels of oil a day. Large ports include Baton Rouge, with a tonnage of 57.082 million tons in 2004 (tenth-busiest port in the United States); New Orleans, with 78.085 million tons (seventh-busiest in the United States); and the Port of Plaquemines, with 54.404 million tons (13th busiest). The Port of South Louisiana in that same year handled 224.187 million tons was the busiest port in the United States. Louisiana in 2004 had 2,823 mile (4,545 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 469.461 million tons.

In 2005, Louisiana had a total of 495 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 242 airports, 237 heliports, and 16 seaplane bases. The state's busiest airport was the Louis Armstrong New Orleans International Airport. In 2004, the airport had 4,839,400 enplanements, making it the 40th-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

The region now known as Louisiana is largely the creation of the Mississippi River; the process of land building still goes on in the Atchafalaya Basin and below New Orleans on the Mississippi Delta. Louisiana was never densely inhabited in prehistoric times, and at no time, probably, did as many as 15,000 Indians live inside the present boundaries of the state. The main relic of prehistoric inhabitants is the great earthwork at Poverty Point, near Marksville, but other Indian mounds are to be found in alluvial and coastal regions.

When white exploration and settlement of North America began, various tribes of Caddo Indians inhabited northwestern Louisiana, and small Tunican-speaking groups lived in the northeast. In the southwest were a number of rather primitive people of the Atakapa group; in south-central Louisiana, the Chitimacha ranged through the marshes and lowlands. Various small Muskogean tribes, related to the Choctaw, lived east of the Mississippi in the "Florida parishes," so called because they were once part of Spanish West Florida. The Natchez Indians, whose main villages were in present-day Mississippi near the city that still bears their name, fought with the French settlers in Louisiana's early history but were exterminated in the process.

Several Spanish explorers sailed along the coast of Louisiana, but Hernando de Soto was probably the first to penetrate the state's present boundaries, in 1541. Almost a century and a half passed before Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, departing from Canada, reached the mouth of the Mississippi on 9 April 1682, named the land there Louisiana in honor of King Louis XIV, and claimed it for France. La Salle's later attempt at a permanent settlement failed, but in 1699 an expedition headed by Pierre le Moyne, Sieur d'Iberville, made a settlement on Biloxi Bay. In 1714, Louis Juchereau de St. Denis established Natchitoches, the first permanent European settlement in Louisiana; Iberville's brother, the Sieur de Bienville, established New Orleans four years later.

Louisiana did not thrive economically under French rule, either as a royal colony or, from 1712 to 1731, under the proprietorship first of Antoine Crozat and then of John Law's Company of the Indies. On the other hand, French culture was firmly implanted there, and non-French settlers, especially Germans from Switzerland and the Rhineland, were quickly Gallicized. In 1762, on the verge of losing the rest of its North American empire to Great Britain in the French and Indian War, France ceded Louisiana to Spain. Governed by Spaniards, the colony was much more prosperous, although it was a burden on the Spanish treasury. New settlers—Americans, Spaniards, Canary Islanders, and, above all, Acadian refugees from Nova Scotia—added to the population. By 1800 there were about 50,000 inhabitants, a considerable number of them black slaves imported from Africa and the West Indies. The availability of slave labor, Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton gin, and Étienne de Boré's development of a granulation process for making cane sugar set the stage for future prosperity, though not under Spanish auspices. In 1800, by the secret Treaty of San Ildefonso, Napoleon forced the feeble Spanish government to return Louisiana to France. Three years later, having failed to reestablish French rule and slavery in Haiti, Napoleon sold Louisiana to the United States to keep it from falling into the hands of Great Britain.

President Thomas Jefferson concluded what was probably the best real estate deal in history, purchasing 800,000 sq mi (2,100,000 sq km) for \$15,000,000 and thus more than doubling the size of the United States at a cost of about 3 cents per acre. He made William C. C. Claiborne the governor of the huge new acquisition. The next year, that part of the purchase south of 33°N was separated from the remainder and designated the Territory of Orleans. The people of the territory then began the process of learning self-government, something with which they had had no experience under France and Spain. After the census of 1810 showed that the population had risen to 76,556, the people were authorized by Congress to draw up a state constitution. The constitutional convention met under the presidency of Julian Poydras in a coffeehouse in New Orleans and adopted, with a few changes, the constitution then in effect in Kentucky. In the meantime, in 1810, a revolt against Spain had taken place in West Florida. When the proposed Louisiana constitution reached Washington, Congress added that part of West Florida between the Mississippi and Pearl rivers to the new state, which entered the Union on 30 April 1812.

The key event in the Americanization of Louisiana was the campaign for New Orleans in December 1814 and January 1815, actually fought after the War of 1812 had ended. A force of British veterans under General Sir Edward Pakenham sailed into Lake Borgne and established itself below New Orleans at Chalmette. There they were met by detachments of Creoles, Acadians, blacks, and even Jean Lafitte's pirates, all from Louisiana, as well as Tennesseans, Kentuckians, and Choctaw Indians, with the whole army under the command of Andrew Jackson. After several preliminary battles, the British were bloodily defeated when they launched an all-out assault on Jackson's line.

From 1815 to 1861, Louisiana was one of the most prosperous states in the South, producing sugar and cotton on its rich alluvial lands and grazing hogs and cattle in the wooded hills of the north and on the prairies of the southwest. Yeoman farmers and

New Orleans workers far outnumbered the wealthy planters but the planters, whose slaves made up almost half the population, dominated Louisiana politically and economically. When the secession crisis came in 1861, the planters led Louisiana into the Confederacy and, after four bloody years, to total defeat. The state suffered crippling economic losses during the Civil War, but the greatest loss was the lives of tens of thousands of young white men who died in defense of the South, and of thousands of blacks who died seeking and fighting for freedom. Louisiana did not fully recover from this disaster until the mid-20th century.

After the Civil War, radical Republican governments elected by black voters ruled the state, but declining support from the North and fierce resistance from Louisiana whites brought the Reconstruction period to an end. Black people and their few white allies lost control of state government, and most of the former slaves became laborers on sugar plantations or sharecroppers in the cotton fields. There, as the years passed, they were joined by more and more landless whites. In 1898, blacks were disfranchised almost entirely by a new state constitution drawn up primarily for that purpose. This constitution also significantly reduced the number of poorer whites who voted in Louisiana elections.

The vast majority of Louisiana whites—whether hill farmers, Cajuns along the southern rivers and bayous, lumbermen in the yellow pine forests, or workers in New Orleans—were little better off than the black or white sharecroppers. Many economic changes had taken place: rice had become a staple crop on the southwestern prairies, and an oil boom had begun after the turn of the century. But just as before the Civil War, large landowners—combined with New Orleans bankers, businessmen, and politicians—dominated state government, effectively blocking political and social reform. The Populist movement, which succeeded in effecting some change in other southern states, was crushed in Louisiana.

Not until 1928, with the election of Huey P. Long as governor, did the winds of change strike Louisiana; having been so long delayed, they blew with gale force. The years from 1928 through 1960 could well be called the Long Era: three Longs—Huey, who was assassinated in 1935; his brother Earl, who served as governor three times; and Huey's son Russell, who became a powerful US senator—dominated state politics for most of the period. From a backward agricultural state, Louisiana evolved into one of the world's major petrochemical-manufacturing centers. Offshore drilling sent clusters of oil wells 60 mi (97 km) out into the Gulf. The pine lands were reforested, and soybeans provided a new source of income. What had been one of the most parsimonious states became one of the most liberal in welfare spending, care for the aged, highway building, and education. The state could afford these expanding programs because of ever-increasing revenues from oil and gas.

In the mid-1980s, a drop in world oil prices rocked Louisiana's economy, hurting the oil exploration and service industries and raising the state's unemployment rate in 1986 to 13%, the highest in the nation. For most of the 1990s, in spite of an increase in service-sector and high-tech jobs, Louisiana had more people living in poverty than any other state. Louisiana had for decades been among the nation's poorest; the percentage of residents living in poverty in 1998 was 19.1%, making it the second-poorest state in the nation. In 1999 it was reported that Louisiana also ranked second-lowest in the nation for its care of children; the report took

into account such factors as infant mortality rates, teen pregnancy rates, and children who lived in poverty or lacked health care. Other problems confronting the state at the turn of the century included racial tensions, disposing of toxic wastes from the petrochemical industry, depletion of oil and gas resources, and the ongoing struggle to institute good government.

The announcement in February 1985 by Russell B. Long, senator since 1948, that he would not seek reelection, and the indictment of former Governor Edwin W. Edwards by a federal grand jury on conspiracy charges during the same month, caused turmoil in Louisiana's political arena. Edwards was defeated in 1987 by Buddy Roemer, a young, well-educated Republican who promised to clean up government. In 1989, racial tensions surfaced when white supremacist David Duke, running as a Republican, narrowly won a seat in the Louisiana state legislature. Duke later ran unsuccessfully for the US Senate and for governor, but his runs for office had raised concerns about the level of frustration of many white voters. In 1995 gubernatorial candidate Murphy "Mike" Foster, Republican, promised more Roemer-like reforms. As he faced reelection four years later, some analysts said the Bayou State had made progress in building a trustworthy and responsive government. Nevertheless, Foster was criticized for favoring the oil industry and being soft on big gambling. He still managed to win another term, claiming 64% of the vote, becoming the first Republican governor in Louisiana history to be reelected. He offered the New Orleans Saints professional football team \$186.5 million in subsidies in 2002 to keep the team from moving out of the state. Foster maintained the football team had a salutary effect on Louisiana's economy.

On 29 August 2005, Hurricane Katrina landed on the state, in what was one of the worst natural disasters in US history. New Orleans had been evacuated, but some 150,000 people were unable to leave before the storm hit. A day after the storm appeared to have bypassed the city's center, levees were breached by the storm surge and water submerged the metropolis. Those unable to leave the city were sheltered in the Louisiana Superdome and New Orleans Convention Center; air conditioning, electricity, and running water failed, making for unsanitary and uncomfortable conditions. They were later transferred to other shelters, including the Houston Astrodome. The costs of the hurricane and flooding were exceedingly high in terms of both loss of life and economic damage: more than 1,000 people died and damages were estimated to reach \$150 billion. Katrina had global economic consequences, as imports, exports, and oil supplies—including production, importation, and refining—were disrupted. The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) of the Department of Homeland Security, and President George W. Bush were criticized in varying degrees for their lack of adequate response to the disaster. Race and class issues also came to the fore, as the majority of New Orleans residents unable to evacuate the city and affected by the catastrophe were poor and black.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Louisiana has had 11 constitutions (more than any other state), the latest, as of 2006, was enacted in 1974. By January 2005 it had been amended 129 times. The state legislature consists of a 39-member Senate and a 105-member House of Representatives. The legislature meets annually, beginning the last Monday in March

in even-numbered years and on the last Monday in April in odd-numbered years. The even-numbered year session is limited to 60 legislative days in 85 calendar days; the odd-numbered year session is limited to 45 legislative days in 60 calendar days. Special sessions may be called by a majority petition of each house, with length limited to 30 calendar days. All legislators are elected for concurrent four-year terms; they must be at least 18 years old, qualified voters, and have resided in the state for two years and in their districts for at least one year preceding election. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$16,800.

Statewide elected executive officials include the governor and lieutenant governor (separately elected), secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, commissioner of agriculture, commissioner of insurance, and commissioner of elections. All are elected for four-year terms. The governor must be a qualified elector, be at least 25 years old, and a US and Louisiana citizen for five years preceding election; after two full consecutive terms, a governor may not run for reelection. The same eligibility requirements apply to the lieutenant governor, except that there is no limit on succession to the latter office. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$94,532. Other executive agencies are the State Board of Elementary and Secondary Education, whose eight elected members and three appointed members serve four-year terms, and the Public Service Commission, whose five members serve for six years.

To become law, a bill must receive majority votes in both the Senate and the House and be signed by the governor, be left unsigned (for 10 days when the legislature is in session or for 20 days following the legislature's adjournment) but not vetoed by the governor, or be passed again by two-thirds votes of elected members of both houses over the governor's veto. Appropriation bills must originate in the House but may be amended by the Senate. The governor has an item veto on appropriation bills. Constitutional amendments require approval by two-thirds of the elected members of each house and ratification by a majority of the people voting on it at the next general election.

Voters in Louisiana must be US citizens, 18 years old, and state residents. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The major political organizations are the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, each affiliated with the national party. However, differences in culture and economic interests have made Louisiana's politics extremely complex. Immediately following statehood, the primary political alignment was according to ethnic background, Anglo or Latin. By the 1830s, however, Louisiana politics reflected the national division of Jacksonian Democrats and National Republicans, who were by mid-decade replaced by the Whigs. By and large, the Whigs were favored by the Anglo-Americans while the Democrats were favored by those of French and Spanish descent. When the Whig Party fell apart over slavery, many former Whigs supported the Native American (Know-Nothing) Party.

Louisiana was one of the three southern states whose disputed electoral votes put Republican Rutherford B. Hayes in the White House in 1877, in return for his agreement to withdraw federal troops from the South, thus putting an end to Reconstruction. The ensuing period of Bourbon Democratic dominance in Louisiana,

a time of reaction and racism in politics (though a few blacks continued to hold office), lasted until the early 1890s, when worsening economic conditions inspired Populists and Republicans to challenge Democratic rule. The attempt failed largely because Democratic landowners were able to control the ballots of their black sharecroppers and “vote” them Democrats. The recognition that it was the black vote, however well-controlled, that held the balance in Louisiana politics impelled the Democrats to seek its elimination as an electoral factor. The constitution of 1898 imposed a poll tax, a property requirement, a literacy test, and other measures that succeeded in reducing the number of registered black voters from 130,000 at the beginning of 1897 to 5,320 in March 1900 and 1,342 by 1904. White registration also declined, from 164,000 in 1897 to 92,000 in 1904, because the new constitutional requirements tended to disfranchise poor whites as well as blacks.

Between 1900 and 1920, the New Orleans Ring, or Choctaw Club, was the dominant power in state politics. Growing political discontent led 5,261 Louisianians (6.6% of those voting) to cast their ballots for the Socialist presidential candidate in 1912. A few Socialists won local office that year in Winn Parish, a center of Populist activity in the 1890s and the birthplace of Huey Long in 1893.

During his relatively brief career as a member of the Railroad Commission, governor, and US senator, Long committed government resources to public service to an extent without precedent in the state. He also succeeded in substituting for the traditional Democratic Party organization a state machine geared primarily toward loyalty to himself and, after his assassination in 1935, to the Long family name, which kept its hold on the voters despite a series of scandals that publicized the corruption of his associates. When blacks began voting in increasing numbers during the

1940s, they tended to favor Democratic candidates from the Long camp. The Longs repaid their loyalty: when race became a bitterly divisive issue in the late 1940s and 1950s—Louisiana gave its presidential vote to the States’ Rights “Dixiecrat” candidate in 1948—the Longs supported the national Democratic ticket.

The 1960s and 1970s saw a resurgence of the Republican Party and the election in 1979 of David C. Treen, the state’s first Republican governor since Reconstruction. Treen was succeeded by Democrat Edwin Edwards in 1983, Democrat Charles Roemer in 1987, and Edwin Edwards again in 1991. In 1995, Louisiana elected another Republican governor—Murphy J. “Mike” Foster, who was reelected in 1999. Foster was unable to run for reelection in November 2003, due to term limits. In 2003, Democrat Kathleen Babineaux Blanco won the governor’s election, and became Louisiana’s first female governor. In 2004 there were 2,806,000 registered voters. In 1998, 62% of registered voters were Democratic, 21% Republican, and 16% unaffiliated or members of other parties.

In 2005, US senators from Louisiana were Republican David Vitter (elected in 2004) and Democrat Mary L. Landrieu (elected 1996 to replaced retiring Senator J. Bennett Johnston Jr. and reelected in 2002). Landrieu is the daughter of former New Orleans mayor Moon Landrieu. Following the 2004 elections Louisiana’s delegation of US representatives consisted of two Democrats and five Republicans. In mid-2005, 24 of the state senators were Democrats and 15 were Republicans; 67 of the state representatives were Democrats and 37 were Republicans.

In 2000 and 2004, Louisianians gave Republican George W. Bush 53% and 56% of the vote, respectively in the presidential elections, while Democrat Al Gore received 45% (2000) and Dem-

Louisiana Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	LOUISIANA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES’ RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROGRESSIVE	AMERICAN IND.
1948	10	Thurmond (SRD)	136,344	72,657	204,290	3,035	—
1952	10	Stevenson (D)	345,027	306,925	—	—	—
					UNPLEDGED		
1956	10	*Eisenhower (R)	243,977	329,047	44,520	—	—
					NAT’L STATES’ RIGHTS		
1960	10	*Kennedy (D)	407,339	230,980	169,572	—	—
1964	10	Goldwater (R)	387,068	509,225	—	—	—
1968	10	Wallace (AI)	309,615	257,535	—	—	530,300
					AMERICAN	SOC. WORKERS	
1972	10	*Nixon (R)	298,142	686,852	44,127	12,169	—
					LIBERTARIAN	COMMUNIST	
1976	10	*Carter (D)	661,365	587,446	3,325	7,417	10,058
						CITIZENS	
1980	10	*Reagan (R)	708,453	792,853	8,240	1,584	10,333
1984	10	*Reagan (R)	651,586	1,037,299	1,876	9,502	—
						POPULIST	NEW ALLIANCE
1988	10	*Bush (R)	717,460	883,702	4,115	18,612	2,355
						IND. (Perot)	AMERICA FIRST
1992	9	*Clinton (D)	815,971	733,386	3,155	211,478	18,545
1996	9	*Clinton (D)	927,837	712,586	7,499	123,293	—
						GREEN	REFORM
2000	9	*Bush, G. W. (R)	792,344	927,871	2,951	20,473	14,356
						THE BETTER LIFE (Nader)	CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)
2004	9	*Bush, G. W. (R)	820,299	1,102,169	2,781	7,032	5,203

*Won US presidential election.

ocrat John Kerry received 42% (2004). The state had nine electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The ecclesiastical districts, called parishes, into which Louisiana was divided in the late 17th century remain the primary political divisions in the state, serving functions similar to those of counties in other states.

In 2005, there were 64 parishes, most of them governed by police jury (governing board). Juries range from 3 to 15 elected members. Other parish officials are the sheriff, clerk of court, assessor, and coroner. Each parish elects a school board whose members generally serve six-year terms; all other officers serve four-year terms. In 2005, there were 78 public school districts in the state.

As of 2005, Louisiana also had 302 municipal governments. Municipalities are classed by the state (based on population) as village, town, or city. Municipal officials include the mayor, chief of police, and council or board of aldermen. In 2005, Louisiana had 45 special districts established by the legislature.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 192,400 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Louisiana operates under the authority of state statute and executive order; the adjutant general is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Louisiana's ethics laws are administered by the Board of Ethics under the Department of Civil Service. Departments focus on labor, natural resources, revenue, environmental quality, social services, state civil service, wildlife and fisheries, and youth services.

Educational services are provided through the Department of Education, which has jurisdiction over elementary, secondary, higher, and vocational-technical instruction, as well as the state schools for the visually impaired, hearing-impaired, and other handicapped children. Highways, waterways, airports, and mass transit are the province of the Department of Transportation and Development. Environmental affairs, conservation, forestry, and mineral resources are the responsibility of the Department of Natural Resources. The Motor Vehicle Office, Fire Protection Office, Emergency Preparedness Office, and Alcoholic Beverage Control Office are all within the Department of Public Safety.

Health services are administered mainly through the Department of Health and Hospitals (DHH), including Medicare, Medicaid, mental health services, services for citizens with developmental disabilities, and public health services. Such programs as supplemental food stamps, child welfare services, and services for the disabled, blind, and deaf, are administered by the Department of Social Services.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Louisiana's legal system is the only one in the United States to be based on civil or Roman law, specifically the Code Napoléon of France. Under Louisiana state law, cases may be decided by judicial interpretation of the statutes, without reference to prior court cases, whereas in other states and in the federal courts the common law prevails, and decisions are generally based on previous

judicial interpretations and findings. In actual practice, Louisiana laws no longer differ radically from US common law, and most Louisiana lawyers and judges now cite previous cases in their arguments and rulings.

The highest court in Louisiana is the Supreme Court, with appellate jurisdiction. It consists of a chief justice who is chosen by seniority of service, and seven associate justices, all of them elected from six supreme court districts (the first district has two judges) for staggered 10-year terms. There are five appellate circuits in the state, each divided into three districts; the five circuits are served by 54 judges, all of them elected for overlapping 10-year terms. Each of the state's district courts serves at least one parish and has at least one district judge, elected for a six-year term; there are 222 district judges. District courts have original jurisdiction in criminal and civil cases. City courts are the principal courts of limited jurisdiction.

Louisiana may have been the first state to institute a system of leasing convict labor. Large numbers of convicts were leased, especially after the Civil War, until the practice was discontinued in the early 1900s. The abuses entailed in this system may be suggested by the fact that, of 700 convicts leased in 1882, 149 died in service.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 36,939 prisoners were held in Louisiana's state and federal prisons, an increase from 36,047 of 2.5% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,386 inmates were female, down from 2,405 or 0.8% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Louisiana had an incarceration rate of 816 people per 100,000 population in 2004, the highest in the United States.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Louisiana in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 638.7 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 28,844 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 199,153 reported incidents or 4,410.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Louisiana has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has executed 27 persons, although there were no executions in 2005, or in 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, Louisiana had 85 inmates on death row.

Judges may also impose sentences of hard labor.

In 2003, Louisiana spent \$530,079,419 on homeland security, an average of \$117 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, the US Department of Defense had 33,000 personnel in Louisiana including 22,254 active-duty military and 3,315 civilians. There was one major army installation in the state, Ft. Polk at Leesville; an Air Force base at Barksdale near Bossier City; and a naval air station and support station in the vicinity of New Orleans. During fiscal year 2004, Louisiana firms received defense contracts totaling \$2.5 billion. In addition, \$1.8 billion in defense payroll, including retired military pay, was paid in the state.

There were 366,957 veterans of US military service in Louisiana as of 2003, of whom 48,602 served in World War II; 37,321 in the Korean conflict; 109,441 during the Vietnam era; and 66,646 dur-

ing the Persian Gulf War. Expenditures on veterans during fiscal year 2004 amounted to \$1.1 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Louisiana State Police employed 1,199 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Louisiana was settled by an unusually diverse assortment of immigrants. The Company of the Indies, which administered Louisiana from 1717 until 1731, at first began importing French convicts, vagrants, and prostitutes because of the difficulty of finding willing colonists. Next the company turned to struggling farmers in Germany and Switzerland, who proved to be more suitable and productive settlers. The importation of slaves from Africa and the West Indies began early in the 18th century.

Attracted by generous land grants, perhaps 10,000 Acadians, or Cajuns—people of French descent who had been exiled from Nova Scotia (Acadia) during the 1740s—migrated to Louisiana after the French and Indian War. They settled in the area of Lafayette and Breaux Bridge and along Bayou Lafourche and the Mississippi River. Probably the second-largest group to migrate in the late 18th century came from the British colonies and, after the Revolution, from the United States. Between 1800 and 1870, Americans settled the area north of the Red River. Small groups of Canary Islanders and Spaniards from Malaga also settled in the south, and in 1791, a number of French people fled to Louisiana during the slave insurrection on Hispaniola.

During the 1840s and 1850s, masses of Irish and German immigrants came to New Orleans. In the late 1880s, a large number of Midwestern farmers migrated to the prairies of southwestern Louisiana to become rice farmers. Louisiana did not immediately begin losing much of its black population after the Civil War. In fact, the number of blacks who migrated to Louisiana from the poorer southeastern states during the postwar years may have equaled the number of blacks who migrated before the war or were brought into the state as slaves. In 1879, however, “Kansas fever” struck blacks from the cotton country of Louisiana and Mississippi, and many of them migrated to the Wheat State; however, many later returned to their home states.

Beginning in World War II, large numbers of both black and white farm workers left Louisiana and migrated north and west. During the 1960s, the state had a net out-migration of 15% of its black population, but the trend had slowed somewhat by 1975.

Recent migration within the state has been from north to south, and from rural to urban areas, especially to Shreveport, Baton Rouge, and the suburbs of New Orleans. From 1980 to 1990, however, the state’s urban population fell from 68.6% to 68.1%. Overall, Louisiana suffered a net loss from migration of about 368,000 from 1940 to 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 117,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 25,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,193 foreign immigrants arrived in Louisiana. Between 1990 and 1998, the state’s overall population increased 3.5%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 20,174 and net internal migration was -89,547, for a net loss of 69,373 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the interstate and regional efforts in which Louisiana participates are the Central Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste

Compact, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, Gulf States Marine Fisheries Commission, Red River Compact, Sabine River Compact, Tangipahoa River Waterway Compact, South Central Interstate Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern Dairy Compact, Southern Rapid Rail Transit Compact, Southern States Energy Board, and Southern Regional Education Board. Federal grants to Louisiana during fiscal year 2005 amounted to \$6.6 billion; that figure rose to an estimated \$6.897 billion in fiscal year 2006 and an estimated \$6.949 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Before the Civil War, when Louisiana was one of the most prosperous of southern states, its economy depended primarily on two then-profitable crops—cotton and sugar—and on its position as the anchor of the nation’s principal north–south trade route. But the upheaval and destruction wrought by the war, combined with severe flood damage to cotton crops, falling cotton prices, and the removal of the federal bounty on sugar, left the economy stagnant through the end of the 19th century, although New Orleans retained its commercial importance as an exporter of cotton and grain.

With the addition of two major crops, rice and soybeans, the rebirth of the timber industry as a result of reforestation, the demand for pine for paper pulp, and most dramatically, the rise of the petrochemical industry, Louisiana’s economy has regained much of its former vitality. Today, Louisiana ranks second only to Texas in the value of its mineral products.

Louisiana is primarily an industrial state, but its industries are to a large degree based on its natural resources, principally oil, natural gas, water, and timber. This reliance on a natural resource-based industrial sector has come at a price. These industries, and the state’s economy, are subject to sharp commodity price swings, leading to a boom and bust cycle, particularly in the oil and natural gas sectors, as well as in those industries that are heavily reliant upon the price of oil and natural gas. A booming oil industry in the 1970s fueled an expansion in Louisiana’s economy, but that expansion ended in the early 1980s, when the price of oil dropped from \$37 a barrel in 1981 to \$15 a barrel in 1986. Employment in oil and gas extraction consequently dropped from 100,000 to 55,000. In addition, energy-related industries such as barge building, machinery manufacturing, and rig/platform production also suffered. At the same time that oil prices dropped, natural gas prices rose, forcing a contraction in the chemical industry which uses large quantities of natural gas. Chemicals were also hurt by a leap in the exchange value of the dollar in the mid-1980s, as Louisiana exports a large part of its chemical production. A subsequent drop in the dollar’s exchange value in the late 1980s and early 1990s enabled the chemical industry not only to rebound, but to expand. A higher dollar in the late 1990s once again reversed the chemical industry’s growth. In an attempt to offset losses in employment, Louisiana built several riverboat casinos and a land-based casino in 1995 which added about 7,000 jobs. The oil and gas extraction sector, however, continued to grow in both absolute and relative terms. While Louisiana has also seen growth in the state’s various service sectors, output from manufacturing as a percent of gross state product has decreased from 16.8% in 1997 to 7.5% in 2004. During the national recession in 2001, employment gains contin-

ued in health services, lodging establishments, state services, and in the transportation and public utilities sector. In August 2005, the state, along with the city and port of New Orleans, and the oil and natural gas industries were severely affected by Hurricane Katrina, and it was expected to take years for the state to recover from the damage inflicted.

Louisiana's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$152.944 billion, of which mining (about 99% is oil and gas production) contributed \$19.669 billion or 12.8% of GSP, followed by real estate at \$15.354 billion (10% of GSP), and manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$11.522 billion (7.5% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 347,436 small businesses in Louisiana. Of the 96,084 businesses that had employees, a total of 93,742 or 97.6% were small companies. An estimated 9,875 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 6.2% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 9,668, down 20.6% from 2003. There were 622 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 24.6% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 649 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Louisiana as the 17th-highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Louisiana had a gross state product (GSP) of \$166 billion which accounted for 1.3% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 24 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Louisiana had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$27,297. This ranked 43rd in the United States and was 83% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.0%. Louisiana had a total personal income (TPI) of \$123.0 billion, which ranked 25th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.9% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.4%. Earnings of persons employed in Louisiana increased from \$86.9 billion in 2003 to \$91.3 billion in 2004, an increase of 5.1%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$35,523 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 17.0% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Louisiana was 1,872,700, with approximately 90,100 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.8%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,759,500. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Louisiana was 12.9% in September 1986. The historical low was 4.3% in February 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 8.1% in manufacturing; 20.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.3% in financial activities; 9.6% in professional and business

services; 11.9% in education and health services; 9.6% in leisure and hospitality services; and 21% in government.

During the antebellum period, Louisiana had both the largest slave market in the United States—New Orleans—and the largest slave revolt in the nation's history, in St. Charles and St. John the Baptist parishes in January 1811. New Orleans also had a relatively large free black population, and many of the slaves in the city were skilled workers, some of whom were able to earn their freedom by outside employment. Major efforts to organize Louisiana workers began after the Civil War. There were strikes in the cane fields in the early 1880s, and in the mid-1880s, the Knights of Labor began to organize the cane workers. The strike they called in 1886 was ended by hired strikebreakers, who killed at least 30 blacks. Back in New Orleans, the Knights of Labor led a general strike in 1892. The Brotherhood of Timber Workers began organizing in 1910 but had little to show for their efforts except the scars of violent conflict with the lumber-mill owners.

A right-to-work law was passed in 1976, partly as a result of violent conflict between an AFL-CIO building trades union and an independent union over whose workers would build a petrochemical plant near Lake Charles. In 1979, a police strike began in New Orleans on the eve of Mardi Gras, causing the cancellation of most of the parades, but it collapsed the following month.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 114,000 of Louisiana's 1,778,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 6.4% of those so employed, down from 7.6% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 132,000 workers (7.4%) in Louisiana were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Louisiana is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Louisiana did not have a state-mandated minimum wage law. Employees in that state however, were covered under federal minimum wage statutes. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.8% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

With a farm income of \$2.1 billion in 2005—57% from crops—Louisiana ranked 34th among the 50 states. Nearly every crop grown in North America can be raised somewhere in Louisiana. In the south are strawberries, oranges, sweet potatoes, and truck crops; in the southeast, sugarcane; and in the southwest, rice and soybeans. Soybeans—which were introduced into Louisiana after World War I—are also raised in the cotton-growing area of the northeast and in a diagonal belt running east-northwest along the Red River. Oats, alfalfa, corn, potatoes, and peaches are among the other crops grown in the north.

As of 2004, there were an estimated 27,200 farms covering 7.85 million acres (3.18 million hectares) with an average farm size of 290 acres (117 hectares). Louisiana ranked second in the United States in sugar cane production. Cash receipts for the sugar crop in 2003 amounted to \$304.2 million 10,320,000 tons. Louisiana ranked third in the value of its rice production in 2004, \$223.9 million for 28,522,000 hundredweight (a unit of measure equal to 100 lb); and eighth for upland cotton in 2004, \$200.5 million for 885,000 bales.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In the mid-19th century, before rice production began there, southwestern Louisiana was a major cattle-raising area. Today, cattle are raised mainly in the southeast (between the Mississippi and Pearl rivers), in the north-central region, and in the west.

In 2005, there were an estimated 860,000 cattle and calves worth \$670.8 million. In 2004, Louisiana had an estimated 16,000 hogs and pigs worth around \$1.7 million. Dairy farmers had an estimated 43,000 milk cows, which produced 519 million lb (236 million kg) of milk in 2003. Also during 2003, poultry farmers produced an estimated 7.5 million lb (3.4 million kg) of chicken, which sold for \$631,000, and an estimated 487 million eggs worth around \$35.9 million.

25 FISHING

In 2004, Louisiana was second behind only Alaska in the size and value of its commercial landings, with nearly 1.1 billion lb (500 million kg) valued at \$274.4 million. Leading ports in volume were Empire-Venice (379 million lb/172 million kg, third in the nation), Intracoastal City (301.8 million lb/137.2 million kg, fifth in the nation), and Cameron (243.1 million lb/110.5 million kg, sixth in the nation). In value, Empire-Venice was sixth in the nation with \$60.2 million and Dulac-Chauvin was 11th with \$42.8 million.

The most important species caught in Louisiana are shrimp, hard blue crab, and oysters. In 2004, shrimp landings in Louisiana amounted to 134.3 million lb/61 million kg, the highest in the nation. Hard blue crab landings in the state accounted for 26% of the national total. In 2002, the state commercial fleet had 8,874 boats and 2,084 vessels. In 2003, there were 90 processing and 114 wholesale plants in the state.

Louisiana produces most of the US crawfish harvest. With demand far exceeding the natural supply, crawfish farming began about 1959. In 2004, 1,126 crawfish farms covered some 118,250 acres (47,856 hectares), producing 69.5 million lb (28.1 million kg). Spring water levels of the state's Atchafalaya Basin cause the wild crawfish harvest to vary from year to year. Catfish are also cultivated in Louisiana, on 38 farms covering some 7,600 acres (3,075 hectares) in 2005, with a 2006 inventory of about 18.4 million fingerlings and 12.2 million stocker-sized catfish. Cash receipts from sales of catfish were \$14.3 million in 2004.

The Natchitoches National Fish Hatchery focuses on paddlefish, striped bass, and pallid sturgeon, but also raises largemouth bass, bluegill, and catfish in limited quantities.

Louisiana had 639,139 sport fishing license holders in 2004.

26 FORESTRY

As of 2004, there were 14,017,000 acres (5,673,000 hectares) of forestland in Louisiana, representing over half the state's land area and 2% of all US forests. The principal forest types are loblolly and shortleaf pine in the northwest, longleaf and slash pine in the south, and hardwood in a wide area along the Mississippi River. More than 99% of Louisiana's forests are commercial timberland, over 90% of it privately owned. Lumber production totaled 1.52 billion board feet in 2004.

Louisiana has one national forest, Kisatchie, with a gross area of 1,022,373 acres (413,754 hectares) within its boundaries; gross

acreage of National Forest System lands in the state was 2,049,000 acres (829,000 hectares) in 2005. Near the boundaries of Kisatchie's Evangeline Unit is the Alexander State Forest, established in 1923.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Louisiana in 2003 was \$331 million, an increase from 2002 of about 6%. The USGS data ranked Louisiana as 34th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for around 1% of total US output.

Salt was the state's leading nonfuel mineral commodity in 2003, accounting for about 41% of all nonfuel mineral production (by value) that year. It was followed by construction sand and gravel, which accounted for 32% of all nonfuel mineral output (by value), crushed stone, industrial sand and gravel (about 4% of output by value), and lime. According to preliminary data, the production of salt in 2003 totaled 12.1 million metric tons and was valued at \$135 million, while the output of construction sand and gravel totaled 19.7 million metric tons, with a value of \$107 million. Industrial sand and gravel output in 2003 totaled 529,000 metric tons and was valued at \$11.8 million, according to the preliminary data. Louisiana in 2003 was the largest salt producing state in the United States.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Louisiana had 43 electrical power service providers, of which 22 were publicly owned and 13 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, five were investor owned, and three were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,131,340 retail customers. Of that total, 1,611,090 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 366,208 customers, while publicly owned providers had 153,740 customers. There were 302 independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 25,748 million kW, with total production that same year at 94.885 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 45.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder (54.2%) coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 45.434 billion kWh (47.9%), came from natural gas fired plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 22.888 billion kWh (24.1%) and nuclear fueled plants in third at 16.126 billion kWh (17%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 3.3% of all power generated, with petroleum fired plants at 3.1%, plants using other types of gases at 2.8%, hydroelectric at 0.9% and "other" types of generating facilities at 0.8%.

As of 2006, Louisiana had two nuclear power plants: the River Bend plant in West Feliciana, near Baton Rouge; and the Waterford plant near Taft, in St. Charles Parish.

Oil and gas production has expanded greatly since World War II, but production reached its peak in the early 1970s and proven reserves are declining. As of 2004, Louisiana had proven crude oil reserves of 427 million barrels, or 2% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 228,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked eighth

(seventh excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and fifth (fourth excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Louisiana had 19,970 producing oil wells and accounted for 4% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's 17 refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 2,772,723 barrels per day.

In 2004, Louisiana had 20,734 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1,357.366 billion cu ft (38.5 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 9,588 billion cu ft (272.2 billion cu m).

Louisiana in 2004, had two producing coal mines, both of which were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 3,805,000 short tons, down from 4,028,000 short tons in 2003. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Louisiana's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$124.304 billion. Of that total, petroleum and coal products manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$53.365 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$39.911 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$7.369 billion; food manufacturing at \$6.601 billion; and paper manufacturing at \$4.456 billion.

In 2004, a total of 140,985 people in Louisiana were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 103,159 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the chemical manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 22,903 with 14,458 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 19,992 employees (15,284 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 19,184 employees (14,788 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 17,607 employees (12,995 actual production workers); and paper manufacturing with 8,680 employees (6,964 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Louisiana's manufacturing sector paid \$6.704 billion in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.630 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$940.776 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$793.515 million; petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$774.905 million; and food manufacturing at \$517.504 million.

The Standard Oil Refinery (now owned by Exxon) that is today the largest in North America began operations in Louisiana in 1909, the same year construction started on the state's first long-distance oil pipeline. Since then, a huge and still-growing petrochemical industry has become a dominant force in the state's economy. Other expanding industries are wood products and, especially since World War II, shipbuilding.

The principal industrial regions extend along the Mississippi River from north of Baton Rouge to New Orleans, and also include the Monroe, Shreveport, Morgan City, and Lake Charles areas.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Louisiana's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$47.1 billion from 5,904 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 3,672 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,987 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 245 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$15.2 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$28.9 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$3.01 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Louisiana was listed as having 17,613 retail establishments with sales of \$41.8 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (2,545); food and beverage stores (2,336); clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,299); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,998). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$11 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$7.8 billion; food and beverage stores at \$5.4 billion; gasoline stations at \$4.3 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$3.3 billion. A total of 228,290 people were employed by the retail sector in Louisiana that year.

Exporters located in Louisiana exported \$19.2 billion in merchandise during 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection is the responsibility of the Consumer Protection Section, which is under the state's Office of the Attorney General. The section investigates and mediates consumer complaints, takes action against companies allegedly engaging in unfair business practices, distributes consumer publications, and registers multi-level marketing, telemarketing, and charitable organizations, as authorized by the state's Unfair and Deceptive Trade Practices Act. However, the section does not handle the areas of insurance, banking, or utilities.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General's office cannot represent individual consumers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and represent counties, cities, and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law. However, the Office cannot file for criminal proceedings for antitrust actions.

The offices of the Consumer Protection Section of the Attorney General's Office is located in Baton Rouge. A county government office is also located in the city of Gretna.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Louisiana had 164 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 53 state-chartered and 201 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the New Or-

leans-Metairie-Kenner market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 42 institutions and \$20.066 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 8.9% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$5.986 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 91.1% or \$61.010 billion in assets held.

Louisiana state-chartered banks are regulated by the Office of Financial Institutions under the Department of Economic Development. Federally chartered banks are regulated by the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency.

As of fourth quarter 2005, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans), was 4.59%, up from 4.42% in 2004 and 4.40% in 2003. Prior to Hurricanes Katrina and Rita, 2005 was on track to be a record year for earnings by the financial institutions based in Louisiana. However, those insured institutions located in the most heavily impacted parishes, as of early 2006 continued to report significant decreases in profits. In fourth quarter 2005, median return on assets for those parishes was 0.46%.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were over 4.6 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$179 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$267 billion. The average coverage amount is \$38,500 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at about \$910.6 million.

There were 58 life and health and 33 property and casualty insurance companies domiciled in the state at the end of 2003. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$7.4 billion. That year, there were 380,192 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$53.9 billion. About \$1.2 billion of coverage was held in Beach and Windstorm plans and another \$22.7 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 48% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 28% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 19% of residents were uninsured. Louisiana tied with four other states as having the fourth-highest percentage of uninsured residents in the nation. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage. The average employee contribution for family coverage was one of the highest in the nation at 30%. The state offers a 12-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.6 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$10,000 per individual and \$20,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$1,013.93, the sixth-highest average in the nation.

The Department of Insurance administers Louisiana's laws governing the industry.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities or commodities exchanges in Louisiana. In 2005, there were 670 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,340 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 73 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 18 NASDAQ companies, 17 NYSE listings, and 5 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; Entergy (based in New Orleans) ranked first in the state and 218th in the nation with revenues of over \$10.7 billion, followed by Freeport-McMoRan Copper and Gold, Inc. (New Orleans) at 480th in the nation. Shaw Group (Baton Rouge), CenturyTel (Monroe), and SCP Pool (Covington) were listed in the Fortune 1,000. SCP Pool is listed on NASDAQ and the others are listed with the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The budget is prepared by the state executive budget director and submitted annually by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$7.1 billion for resources and \$6.7 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Louisiana were \$7.7 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Louisiana was slated to receive: \$37.5 million in incremental funding for a \$150 million project for the construction of the 36-mile segment of I-49 between the Arkansas State line and I-220 in Shreveport; \$25 million for planning, design, and science-related efforts to restore the Louisiana coastal wetlands and barrier island ecosystem.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Louisiana collected \$8,639 million in tax revenues or \$1,910 per capita, which placed it 36th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.5% of the total, sales taxes 33.1%, selective sales taxes 20.0%, individual income taxes 27.7%, corporate income taxes 4.1%, and other taxes 14.6%.

As of 1 January 2006, Louisiana had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 2% to 6%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 4% to 8% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$2.5 billion or \$502 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state fifth-lowest nationally. Local governments collected \$2.2 billion of the total and the state government \$39.7 million.

Louisiana taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 6.25%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 10.25%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is exempt from state tax, but subject to local taxes. The tax on cigarettes is 36 cents per pack, which ranks 42nd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Louisiana taxes gasoline at 20 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Louisiana citizens received \$1.45 in federal spending.

Louisiana—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	23,730,239	5,265.20
General revenue	19,156,139	4,250.31
Intergovernmental revenue	6,995,885	1,552.23
Taxes	8,030,495	1,781.78
General sales	2,680,716	594.79
Selective sales	1,929,796	428.18
License taxes	429,068	95.20
Individual income tax	2,192,038	486.36
Corporate income tax	236,745	52.53
Other taxes	562,132	124.72
Current charges	2,390,841	530.47
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,738,918	385.83
Utility revenue	4,870	1.08
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	4,569,230	1,013.81
Total expenditure	20,471,959	4,542.26
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,410,251	978.53
Direct expenditure	16,061,708	3,563.72
Current operation	11,117,933	2,466.81
Capital outlay	1,303,178	289.15
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,459,609	545.73
Assistance and subsidies	501,576	111.29
Interest on debt	679,412	150.75
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,754,815	833.11
Total expenditure	20,471,959	4,542.26
General expenditure	18,007,725	3,995.50
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,410,251	978.53
Direct expenditure	13,597,474	3,016.97
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	6,433,899	1,427.53
Public welfare	4,122,416	914.67
Hospitals	1,648,253	365.71
Health	471,892	104.70
Highways	1,138,233	252.55
Police protection	259,125	57.49
Correction	608,725	135.06
Natural resources	396,585	87.99
Parks and recreation	214,417	47.57
Government administration	672,278	149.16
Interest on general debt	679,412	150.75
Other and unallocable	1,362,490	302.31
Utility expenditure	4,625	1.03
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,459,609	545.73
Debt at end of fiscal year	10,182,940	2,259.36
Cash and security holdings	43,125,998	9,568.67

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Office of Commerce and Industry in the Department of Economic Development seeks to encourage investment and create jobs in the state and to expand the markets for Louisiana products. Financial assistance services for industrial development include state and local tax incentives and state “Enterprise Zone” legislation. The Louisiana Small Business Equity Corporation and the Louisiana Minority Business Development Authority offer financial assistance. Beginning in 1999, the Louisiana Economic Development Council prepared annual reports and action plans

with a view to the implementation of the state’s Master Plan for Economic Development dubbed Vision 2020. The three main goals of Vision 2020 were to, by 2020, recreate Louisiana as a place where all citizens are engaged in the pursuit of knowledge; create an economy driven by technology-intensive industries, and rank among the top 10 states in standard of living indicators. Successes in 2002 were reported in providing economic development incentives, and developing infrastructure for biosciences, information technology, research and development, and education.

With the devastation wrought by Hurricane Katrina and the breaching of the levees in New Orleans in 2005, Louisiana was faced with an entirely new economic development scenario. In September 2005, President George W. Bush announced he would create a Gulf Opportunity Zone for Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama. Businesses would be able to double to \$200,000 the amount they could deduct from their taxes for investments in new equipment. It would also provide a 50% bonus depreciation and make loan guarantees available. Congress passed the Gulf Opportunity Zone Act in December 2005, which provides a number of tax incentives to encourage the rebuilding of areas ravaged by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 9.5 per 1,000 live births, representing the third-highest rate in the country (following the District of Columbia and Mississippi). The birth rate in 2003 was 14.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 13 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84.1% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 75% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 249.5; cancer, 210.6; cerebrovascular diseases, 57.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 37.8; and diabetes, 39.6. Louisiana had the second-highest diabetes death rate in the nation, following West Virginia. The state also had the second-highest homicide death rate at 13.5 per 100,000 population (following the District of Columbia at 40.1 per 100,000); the national average death rate by homicide is 6.1 per 100,000. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 8.1 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 22.4 per 100,000 population, the fifth-highest rate in the nation. In 2002, about 58.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 23.4% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Louisiana had 127 community hospitals with about 17,800 beds. There were about 690,000 patient admissions that year and 10.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 10,600 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,177. Also in 2003, there were about 314 certified nursing facilities in the state with 38,397 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 75.9%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Louisiana had 262 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 873 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 2,040 dentists in the state.

About 28% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 19% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$6.3 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 90,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$195. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 807,896 persons (318,126 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$100.96 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$978.7 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Louisiana's TANF cash assistance program is called the Family Independent Temporary Assistance Program (FITAP), and the work program is called FIND Work (Family Independence Work Program). In 2004, the state program had 46,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$73 million fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 739,180 Louisiana residents. This number included 377,770 retired workers, 104,640 widows and widowers, 109,910 disabled workers, 57,750 spouses, and 89,110 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.4% of the total state population and 90.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$888; widows and widowers, \$826; disabled workers, \$887; and spouses, \$438. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$420 per month; children of deceased workers, \$563; and children of disabled workers, \$253. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 169,549 Louisiana residents, averaging \$391 a month. An additional \$38,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 4,797 residents.

40 HOUSING

The Indians of Louisiana built huts with walls made of clay kneaded with Spanish moss and covered with cypress bark or palmetto leaves. The earliest European settlers used split cypress boards filled with clay and moss; a few early 18th-century houses with clay and moss walls remain in the Natchitoches area. Examples of later architectural styles also survive, including buildings constructed of bricks between heavy cypress posts, covered with plaster; houses in the raised cottage style, supported by brick piers and usually including a wide gallery and colonettes; the Creole dwellings of the Vieux Carre in New Orleans, built of brick and characterized by balconies and French windows; and urban and plantation houses from the Greek Revival period of antebellum Louisiana.

In 2004, Louisiana had an estimated 1,919,859 housing units, of which 1,713,680 were occupied. About 66.2% were owner-occupied. An estimated 65.7% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Nearly 39% of all housing units were built between 1970

and 1989. Most units relied on utility gas or electricity for heating. It was estimated that 121,505 units lacked telephone service, 7,424 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 8,581 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.56 members.

In 2004, 23,000 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$95,910. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$902. Renters paid a median of \$540 per month. In September 2005, the state received a grant of \$300,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$29.3 million in community development block grants (CDBG). New Orleans received over \$15.4 million in CDBG grants the same year. Also in 2006, HUD offered an additional \$6.2 billion to the state in emergency funds to rebuild housing that was destroyed by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma in late 2005.

41 EDUCATION

Most education in Louisiana was provided through private (often parochial) schools until Reconstruction. Not until Huey Long's administration, when spending for education increased greatly and free textbooks were supplied, did education become a high priority of the state. As of 2004, 78.7% of Louisianians 25 years and older had completed high school, well below the national average of 84%. Some 22.4% had completed four or more years of college, below the national average of 26%.

Integration of New Orleans public schools began in 1960; two years later, the archbishop of New Orleans required that all Catholic schools under his jurisdiction be desegregated. However, it took a federal court order in 1966 to bring about integration in public schools throughout the state. By 1980, 36% of minority students in Louisiana were in schools with less than 50% minority enrollment, and 25% were in schools with 99–100% minority enrollment.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Louisiana's public schools stood at 730,000. Of these, 537,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 194,000 attended high school. Approximately 48.5% of the students were white, 47.7% were black, 1.8% were Hispanic, 1.3% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.7% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 709,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 707,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 3.3% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003–04 were estimated at \$5.7 billion. In fall 2003, there were 140,492 students enrolled in 440 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Louisiana scored 268 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 232,140 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 34.7% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Louisiana had 90 degree-granting institutions. There are 16 public four-year schools, 46 public two-year institutions, and 10 private four-year non-profit institutions. The center of the state university system is Louisiana State University (LSU), founded at Baton Rouge; LSU also has campuses at Alexandria, Eunice, and Shreveport, and includes the University of New Orleans. Tulane University, founded in New

Orleans in 1834, is one of the most distinguished private universities in the South, as is Loyola University, also in New Orleans. Southern University Agricultural and Mechanical System at Baton Rouge (1881) is one of the largest predominantly black universities in the country; other campuses are in New Orleans and Shreveport. Another mainly black institution is Grambling State University (1901).

The Louisiana Student Financial Assistance Commission and the Louisiana Tuition Trust Authority administer state loan, grant, and scholarship programs managed by the Louisiana Office of Student Financial Assistance. The state Council for the Development of French in Louisiana (CODOFIL) organizes student exchanges with Quebec, Belgium, and France and aids Louisianians studying French abroad.

4² ARTS

The Louisiana Division of the Arts (LDOA; est. 1977), the largest arts grantmaker in the state, is an agency of the state Office of Cultural Development, Department of Culture, Recreation and Tourism. In the aftermath of Hurricanes Katrina and Rita of 2005, the LDOA worked with the Louisiana Partnership for the Arts to assess the impact these disasters had on the art communities. Arts projects are funded in every parish (county) in the state through the LDOA Decentralized Arts Funding Program. In 2005, Louisiana arts organizations received 24 grants totaling \$1,150,100 from the National Endowment for the Arts.

The Louisiana Endowment for the Humanities was established in 1971. As of 2006, ongoing programs included "Relic: Readings in Literature and Culture" and "Prime Time Family Reading Time." In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded 17 grants totaling \$2,037,337 to state organizations.

New Orleans has long been one of the most important centers of artistic activity in the South. The earliest theaters were French, and the first of these was started by refugees from Hispaniola, who put on the city's first professional theatrical performance in 1791. The American Theater, which opened in 1824, attracted many of the finest actors in America, as did the nationally famous St. Charles. Showboats traveled the Mississippi and other waterways, bringing dramas, musicals, and minstrel shows to river towns and plantations as early as the 1840s, with their heyday being the 1870s and 1880s.

Principal theaters included the New Orleans Theater of the Performing Arts, the Saenger Theater in New Orleans (one of the "grand old theaters"), the Tulane Theater, and Le Petit Theatre du Vieux Carre. Le Petit Theatre was established in 1916 and has been recognized as one of the leading community theaters in the nation. During the 2004–05 season Le Petit Theatre began a construction project on the main stage providing a complete orchestra pit, a new stage, and a fly loft—the stage had been unchanged since 1922. Junebug Productions is a black touring company based in New Orleans. Louisiana State University (LSU) at Baton Rouge has theaters for both opera and drama. Baton Rouge, Shreveport, Monroe, Lake Charles, and Hammond are among the cities with little theaters, and Baton Rouge, Lafayette, and Lake Charles have ballet companies. There are symphony orchestras in most of the larger cities, the Louisiana Philharmonic Orchestra (LPO) being the best known. Although Hurricane Katrina battered the state, devastating New Orleans in 2005, the LPO returned to New Or-

leans with a spring concert season during March, April, and May 2006.

It is probably in music that Louisiana has made its most distinctive contributions to culture. Jazz was born in New Orleans around 1900; among its sources was the music played by brass bands at carnivals and at Negro funerals, and its immediate precursor was the highly syncopated music known as ragtime. Early jazz in the New Orleans style is called Dixieland; Louis Armstrong pioneered the transformation of jazz from the Dixieland ensemble style to a medium for solo improvisation. Traditional Dixieland has been played by performers associated with the Preservation Hall, Dixieland Hall, and the New Orleans Jazz Club. In 2005, many of the buildings that housed these organizations and clubs were either severely damaged or destroyed by the forces of Hurricane Katrina. Despite having to close buildings, groups like the Hall Jazz Band of the Preservation Hall continued touring; the Preservation Hall celebrated its 45th anniversary on tour in 2006. Equally distinctive is Cajun music, dominated by the sound of the fiddle and accordion.

Visual arts in the state flourish, especially in New Orleans, home to the Ogden Museum of Southern Art. Prompted by the devastation of Hurricane Katrina the museum showcased several special exhibits including, *Come Hell and High Water: Portraits of Hurricane Katrina Survivors*, *New Housing Prototypes for New Orleans*, and *Louisiana Story: A Photographic Journey*.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the calendar year 2001, Louisiana's 64 parishes were served by 65 public library systems, with a total of 329 libraries, of which 264 were branches. In that same year, the public library system had 10,850,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves, and had a total circulation of 18,376,000. The system also had 230,000 audio and 309,000 video items, 13,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 30 bookmobiles. The New Orleans Public Library, with 14 branches and 739,473 books, features a special collection on jazz and folk music, and the Tulane University Library (1,765,000 volumes) has special collections on jazz and Louisiana history. Among the libraries with special black-studies collections are those of Grambling State University, Southern University Agricultural and Mechanical System at Baton Rouge, Xavier University of Louisiana at New Orleans, and the Amistad Collection at Tulane University. The library of Northwestern State University at Natchitoches has special collections on Louisiana history, folklore, Indians, botany, and oral history. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$112,068,000, which included \$107,000 in federal funds and \$6,817,000 in state funds.

As of 2000, Louisiana had 89 museums and historic sites, as well as more than 27 art collections. Leading art museums are the New Orleans Museum of Art, the Lampe Gallery in New Orleans, and the R. W. Norton Art Gallery at Shreveport. The art museum of the Louisiana Arts and Science Center at Baton Rouge is located in the renovated Old Illinois Central Railroad Station. The oldest and largest museum in the state is the Louisiana State Museum, an eight-building historic complex in the Vieux Carre. There is a military museum in Beauregard House at Chalmette National Historical Park, on the site of the Battle of New Orleans, and a Confederate Museum in New Orleans. The Bayou Folk Muse-

um at Cloutierville is in the restored home of author Kate Chopin; the Longfellow-Evangeline State Commemorative Area has a historical museum on its site. Among the state's scientific museums are the Lafayette Natural History Museum, Planetarium, and Nature Station, and the Museum of Natural Science in Baton Rouge. Audubon Park and Zoological Gardens are in New Orleans. The "Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collection" at LSU is an extensive collection of Louisiana history, photographs, and manuscripts.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

The second rural free delivery route in the United States, and the first in Louisiana, was established on 1 November 1896 at Thibodaux. As of 2004, 90.9% of Louisiana's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,547,153 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 52.3% of Louisiana households had a computer and 44.1% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 536,339 high-speed lines in Louisiana, 475,284 residential and 610,055 for business.

In 2005, the state had 77 major radio broadcasting stations (15 AM and 62 FM) as well as 32 television stations. In 1999, New Orleans had 629,820 television households, 76% of which had cable TV.

As of 2000, a total of 46,786 Internet domain names had been registered in Louisiana.

45 PRESS

At one time, New Orleans had as many as nine daily newspapers (four English, three French, one Italian, and one German), but by 1997 there was only one, the *Times-Picayune*. In 2005, Louisiana had a total of 15 morning dailies, 11 evening dailies, and 21 Sunday papers.

The following table shows the principal dailies with their approximate 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Baton Rouge	<i>Advocate</i> (m,S)	87,026	115,442
New Orleans	<i>Times-Picayune</i> (m,S)	252,799	281,374
Shreveport	<i>Times</i> (m,S)	62,551	77,090

Two influential literary magazines originated in the state. The *Southern Review* was founded at Louisiana State University in the 1930s by Robert Penn Warren and Cleanth Brooks. The *Tulane Drama Review*, founded in 1955, moved to New York University in 1967 but is still known by its original acronym, *TDR*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 3,076 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,085 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among business or professional organizations with headquarters in Louisiana are the American Shrimp Processors Association and the Southern Pine Council. Blue Key, a national honor society, has its headquarters in Metairie. The American Bone Marrow Donor Registry is based in Mandeville.

State and local organization for the arts include the Acadiana Arts Council, the Louisiana Division of the Arts, the Louisiana Historical Association, the Louisiana Preservation Alliance, the

New Orleans Jazz Club, the North Central Louisiana Arts Council, and the Northeast Louisiana Arts Council.

Civil rights groups represented in the state include the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the Urban League. Especially active during the 1970s were the local branches of the American Civil Liberties Union, the Louisiana Coalition on Jails and Prisons, and its legal arm, the Southern Prisoners Defense Council, and the Fishermen's and Concerned Citizens Association of Plaquemines Parish, which organized a campaign against the continued domination of the parish by the descendants of Leander Perez, a racist judge who wielded power there for 50 years until his death in 1969.

The Invisible Empire, Knights of the Ku Klux Klan, is headquartered in Denham Springs.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2000, there were 15.4 million visitors to the state of Louisiana. Initial reports for 2001 estimated a total travel-related economic impact of \$9 billion, including support for 124,200 jobs. The two most popular activities for tourists were shopping and gambling. However, in 2005 Hurricane Katrina devastated New Orleans and surrounding areas, and tourism was virtually eliminated. Because two-thirds of New Orleans was submerged, a majority of the population was forced to relocate, either temporarily or permanently. Tulane and Loyola universities were forced to cancel at least one semester of classes. Many of those students did not return. As of 2006, only the French Quarter of New Orleans was able to support some tourism. A Mardi Gras celebration was held, but it was shortened from its usual month to a week.

New Orleans is one of the major tourist attractions in the United States. Known for its fine restaurants, serving such distinctive fare as gumbo, jambalaya, crawfish, and beignets, along with an elaborate French-inspired haute cuisine, New Orleans also offers jazz clubs, the graceful buildings of the French Quarter, and a lavish carnival called Mardi Gras ("Fat Tuesday"). Beginning on the Wednesday before Shrove Tuesday, parades and balls staged by private organizations called krewes are held almost nightly. In other towns, people celebrate Mardi Gras in their own, no less uproarious, manner. Probably the greatest attraction of Louisiana is its French heritage. Everything from French law, to the division of the state into parishes instead of counties, to the French cuisine, and to the use of the Creole language, is a major attraction to tourists.

Among the many other annual events that attract visitors to the state are the blessing of the shrimp fleet at the Louisiana Shrimp and Petroleum Festival in Morgan City on Labor Day weekend and the blessing of the cane fields during the Louisiana Sugar Cane Festival at New Iberia in September. October offers the International Rice Festival (including the Frog Derby) at Crowley, Louisiana Cotton Festival at Ville Platte (with a medieval jousting tournament), the Louisiana Yambilee Festival at Opelousas, and the Louisiana State Fair at Shreveport. Attractions of the Natchitoches Christmas Festival include 170,000 Christmas lights and spectacular fireworks displays. There are tours of plantations starting in St. Francisville. Monroe is the home of the first Coca-Cola bottler, Joseph Biedenhorn. Jean Lafitte National Historical Park has 10 miles of raised boardwalks through the Louisiana swamps

and marshes from which tourists can view wildlife (especially alligators).

Louisiana's 34 state parks and recreation sites total 39,000 acres (15,800 hectares).

48 SPORTS

Louisiana has two major professional sports teams: the Saints of the National Football League and the Hornets of the National Basketball Association. The Hornets were formerly located in Charlotte. Both the Saints and Hornets are located in New Orleans, however, due to Hurricane Katrina, both teams were forced to play in San Antonio and Oklahoma City, respectively. The Super Bowl has been held in New Orleans six times: in 1978, 1981, 1986, 1990, 1997, and 2002. It has been played in the Louisiana Superdome, the largest indoor arena in the United States.

New Orleans also has a minor league baseball team, the Zephyrs, of the Triple-A Pacific Coast League. In Shreveport, the Captains compete in the Double-A Texas League. There are several other minor league baseball and hockey teams scattered throughout the state.

During the 1850s, New Orleans was the horse-racing center of the United States, and racing is still popular in the state. The principal tracks are the Louisiana Jockey Club at the Fair Grounds in New Orleans, and Evangeline Downs at Lafayette. Gambling has long been widespread in Louisiana, particularly in the steamboat days, when races along the Mississippi drew huge wagers.

From the 1880s to World War I, New Orleans was the nation's boxing capital, and in 1893, the city was the site of the longest bout in boxing history, between Andy Bowen and Jack Burke, lasting 7 hours and 19 minutes—110 rounds—and ending in a draw. The TPC of Louisiana at Fairfield is a newly constructed championship-level golf course that became the home of the PGA's HP Classic in 2005.

In 1935, Tulane University inaugurated the Sugar Bowl (which they won that year for the first and only time), an annual New Year's Day event and one of the most prestigious bowl games in college football. Louisiana State University (LSU) won the Sugar Bowl in 1959, 1965, and 1968. They were named National Champions in 1958 and co-champions with USC in 2003. The LSU Tigers baseball team won the College World Series in 1991, 1993, 1996, and 1997. The LSU Tigers appeared in the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Final Four in 1953, 1981, 1986, and 2006, and have had a number of famous basketball alumni, including "Pistol" Pete Maravich and Shaquille O'Neal.

Professional sports heroes Terry Bradshaw, Bill Russell, and Marshall Faulk all were born within the state's borders.

49 FAMOUS LOUISIANIANS

Zachary Taylor (b.Virginia, 1784–1850) is the only US president to whom Louisiana can lay claim. Taylor, a professional soldier who made his reputation as an Indian fighter and in the Mexican War, owned a large plantation north of Baton Rouge, which was his residence before his election to the presidency in 1848. Edward Douglass White (1845–1921) served first as associate justice of the US Supreme Court and then as chief justice.

Most other Louisianians who have held national office won more fame as state or confederate officials. John Slidell (b.New York, 1793–1871), an antebellum political leader, also played an impor-

tant role in Confederate diplomacy. Judah P. Benjamin (b.West Indies, 1811–84), of Jewish lineage, was a US senator before the Civil War; during the conflict he held three posts in the Confederate cabinet, after which he went to England and became a leading barrister. Henry Watkins Allen (b.Virginia, 1820–66) was elected governor of Confederate Louisiana in 1864, after he had been maimed in battle; perhaps the best administrator in the South, he installed a system of near-socialism in Louisiana as the fortunes of the Confederacy waned. During and after the Civil War, many Louisianians won prominence as military leaders. Leonidas Polk (b.North Carolina, 1806–64), the state's first Episcopal bishop, became a lieutenant general in the Confederate Army and died in the Atlanta campaign. Zachary Taylor's son Richard (b.Kentucky, 1826–79), a sugar planter who also became a Confederate lieutenant general, is noted for his defeat of Nathaniel P. Bank's Union forces in the Red River campaign of 1864. Pierre Gustave Toutant Beaufort (1818–93) attained the rank of full general in the Confederate Army and later served as director of the Louisiana state lottery, one of the state's major sources of revenue at that time. In the modern era, General Claire Chennault (b.Texas, 1893–1958) commanded the famous "Flying Tigers" and then the US 14th Air Force in China during World War II.

Throughout the 20th century, the Longs have been the first family of Louisiana politics. Without question, the most important state officeholder in Louisiana history was Huey P. Long (1893–1935), a latter-day Populist who was elected to the governorship in 1928 and inaugurated a period of social and economic reform. In the process, he made himself very nearly an absolute dictator within Louisiana. After his election to the US Senate, the "King Fish" became a national figure, challenging Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal with his "Share the Wealth" plan and flamboyant oratory. Huey's brother Earl K. Long (1895–1960) served three times as governor. Huey's son, US Senator Russell B. Long (1918–2003), was chairman of the Finance Committee—and, consequently, one of the most powerful men in Congress—from 1965 to 1980.

Also prominent in Louisiana history were Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle (b.France, 1643–87), who was the first to claim the region for the French crown; Pierre le Moyne, Sieur d'Iberville (b.Canada, 1661–1706), who commanded the expedition that first established permanent settlements in the lands La Salle had claimed; his brother, Jean Baptiste le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville (b.Canada, 1680–1768), governor of the struggling colony and founder of New Orleans; and Bernardo de Galvez (b.Spain, 1746–86), who, as governor of Spanish Louisiana during the last years of the American Revolution, conquered British-held Florida in a series of brilliant campaigns. William Charles Coles Claiborne (b.Virginia, 1775–1817) was the last territorial and first state governor of Louisiana. The state's first Republican governor, Henry Clay Warmoth (b.Illinois, 1842–1932), came there as a Union officer before the end of the Civil War and was sworn in at age 26. Jean Étienne de Boré (b.France, 1741–1820) laid the foundation of the Louisiana sugar industry by developing a process for granulating sugar from cane; Norbert Rillieux (birthplace unknown, 1806–94), a free black man, developed the much more efficient vacuum pan process of refining sugar.

Andrew Victor Schally (b.Poland, 1926), a biochemist on the faculty of the Tulane University School of Medicine, shared the Nobel Prize for medicine in 1977 for his research on hormones.

Among other distinguished Louisiana professionals have been historian T. Harry Williams (1909–79), who won the Pulitzer Prize for his biography of Huey Long; architect Henry Hobson Richardson (1838–86); and four doctors of medicine: public health pioneer Joseph Jones (b.Georgia, 1833–96), surgical innovator Rudolph Matas (1860–1957), surgeon and medical editor Alton V. Ochsner (b.South Dakota, 1896–1981), and heart specialist Michael De Bakey (b.1908).

Louisiana's important writers include George Washington Cable (1844–1925), an early advocate of racial justice; Kate O'Flaherty Chopin (b.Missouri, 1851–1904); playwright and memoirist Lillian Hellman (1905–84); and novelists Walker Percy (b.Alabama, 1916–1990); Truman Capote (1924–84); Ernest Gaines (b.1933), author of *The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pittman*; Shirley Ann Grau (b.1929); and John Kennedy Toole (1937–69), the last two being winners of the Pulitzer Prize.

Louisiana has produced two important composers, Ernest Guiraud (1837–92) and Louis Gottschalk (1829–69). Jelly Roll Morton (Ferdinand Joseph La Menthe, 1885–1941), Pete Fountain (b.1930), and Sidney Bechet (1897–1959) were important jazz musicians, and Louis "Satchmo" Armstrong (1900–1971) was one of the most prolific jazz innovators and popular performers in the nation. The distinctive rhythms of pianist and singer Professor Longhair (Henry Byrd, 1918–80) were an important influence on popular music. Other prominent Louisianians in music are gospel singer Mahalia Jackson (1911–72), pianist-singer-songwriter Antoine "Fats" Domino (b.1928), and pop singer Jerry Lee Lewis (b.1935).

Louisiana baseball heroes include Hall of Famer Melvin Thomas "Mel" Ott (1909–58) and pitcher Ron Guidry (b.1950). Terry Bradshaw (b.1948), a native of Shreveport, quarterbacked the Super Bowl champion Pittsburgh Steelers during the 1970s. Player-coach William F. "Bill" Russell (b.1934) led the Boston Celtics to 10 National Basketball Association championships between 1956 and 1969. Chess master Paul Morphy (1837–84) was born in New Orleans.

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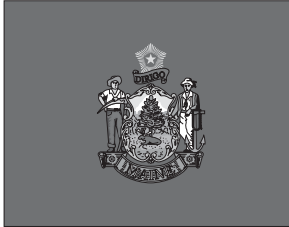
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MAINE

State of Maine



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived either from the French for a historical district of France, or from the early use of “main” to distinguish coast from islands. **NICKNAME:** The Pine Tree State. **CAPITAL:** Augusta. **ENTERED UNION:** 15 March 1820 (23rd). **SONG:** “State of Maine Song.” **MOTTO:** *Dirigo* (“I direct” or “I lead”). **COAT OF ARMS:** A farmer and sailor support a shield on which are depicted a pine tree, a moose, and water. Under the shield is the name of the state; above it are the state motto and the North Star. **FLAG:** The coat of arms is on a blue field, with a yellow fringed border surrounding three sides. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Same as the coat of arms. **BIRD:** Chickadee. **FISH:** Landlocked salmon. **FLOWER:** White pine cone, tassel; wintergreen (herb). **TREE:** White pine. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Patriots’ Day, 3rd Monday in April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and day following; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the extreme northeastern corner of the United States, Maine is the nation’s most easterly state, the largest in New England, and 39th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Maine is 33,265 sq mi (86,156 sq km), including 30,995 sq mi (80,277 sq km) of land and 2,270 sq mi (5,879 sq km) of inland water. Maine extends 207 mi (333 km) E–W; the maximum N–S extension is 322 mi (518 km).

Maine is bordered on the N by the Canadian provinces of Quebec (with the line passing through the St. Francis River) and New Brunswick (with the boundary formed by the St. John River); on the E by New Brunswick (with the lower eastern boundary formed by the Chiputneticook Lakes and the St. Croix River); on the SE and S by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the W by New Hampshire (with the line passing through the Piscataqua and Salmon Falls rivers in the SW) and Quebec.

Hundreds of islands dot Maine’s coast. The largest is Mt. Desert Island; others include Deer Isle, Vinalhaven, and Isle au Haut. The total boundary length of Maine is 883 mi (1,421 km).

The state’s geographic center is in Piscataquis County, 18 mi (29 km) N of Dover-Foxcroft. The easternmost point of the United States is West Quoddy Head, at 66°57’W.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Maine is divided into four main regions: coastal lowlands, piedmont, mountains, and uplands.

The narrow coastal lowlands extend, on average, 10–20 mi (16–32 km) inland from the irregular coastline, but occasionally disappear altogether, as at Mt. Desert Island and on the western shore of Penobscot Bay. Mt. Cadillac on Mt. Desert Island rises abruptly to 1,532 ft (467 m), the highest elevation on the Atlantic coast north of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The transitional hilly belt, or piedmont,

broadens from about 30 mi (48 km) wide in the southwestern part of the state to about 80 mi (129 km) in the northeast.

Maine’s mountain region, the Longfellow range, is at the northeastern end of the Appalachian Mountain system. This zone, extending into Maine from the western border for about 150 mi (250 km) and averaging about 50 mi (80 km) wide, contains nine peaks over 4,000 ft (1,200 m), including Mt. Katahdin, which at 5,267 ft (1,606 m) is the highest point in the state. The summit of Katahdin marks the northern terminus of the 2,000-mi (3,200-km) Appalachian Trail. Maine’s uplands form a high, relatively flat plateau extending northward beyond the mountains and sloping downward toward the north and east. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 600 ft (183 m). The eastern part of this zone is the Aroostook potato-farming region; the western part is heavily forested.

Of Maine’s more than 2,200 lakes and ponds, the largest are Moosehead Lake, 117 sq mi (303 sq km), and Sebago Lake, 13 mi (21 km) by 10 mi (16 km). Of the more than 5,000 rivers and streams, the Penobscot, Androscoggin, Kennebec, and Saco rivers drain historically and commercially important valleys. The longest river in Maine is the St. John, but it runs for most of its length in the Canadian province of New Brunswick. The lowest point of the state is at sea level at the Atlantic Ocean.

³ CLIMATE

Maine has three climatic regions: the northern interior zone, comprising roughly the northern half of the state, between Quebec and New Brunswick; the southern interior zone; and the coastal zone. The northern zone is both drier and cooler in all four seasons than either of the other zones, while the coastal zone is more moderate in temperature year-round than the other two.

The annual mean temperature in the northern zone is about 40°F (5°C); in the southern interior zone, 44°F (7°C); and in the coastal zone, 46°F (8°C). Record temperatures for the state are

-48°F (-44°C), registered at Van Buren on 19 January 1925, and 105°F (41°C) at North Bridgton on 10 July 1911. The mean annual precipitation increases from 40.2 in (102 cm) in the north to 41.5 in (105 cm) in the southern interior and 45.7 in (116 cm) on the coast. Average annual precipitation at Portland is about 43.6 in (110 cm); average annual snowfall is 70.5 in (179 cm).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Maine's forests are largely softwoods, chiefly red and white spruces, balsam fir (*Abies balsamea*), eastern hemlock, and white and red pine. Important hardwoods include beech, yellow and white birches, sugar and red maples, white oak, black willow, black and white ashes, and American elm, which has fallen victim in recent years to Dutch elm disease. Maine is home to most of the flowers and shrubs common to the north temperate zone, including an important commercial resource, the low-bush blueberry. Maine has seventeen rare orchid species. Two species, the small whorled pogonia and the eastern prairie fringed orchid, were classified by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened as of April 2006; the furbish lousewort was classified as endangered that year.

About 30,000 white-tailed deer are killed by hunters in Maine each year, but the herd does not appear to diminish. Moose hunting was banned in Maine in 1935; however, in 1980, 700 moose-hunting permits were issued for a six-day season, and moose hunting has continued despite attempts by some residents to ban the practice. Other common forest animals include the bobcat, beaver, muskrat, river otter, mink, fisher, raccoon, red fox, and snowshoe hare. The woodchuck is a conspicuous inhabitant of pastures, meadows, cornfields, and vegetable gardens. Seals, porpoises, and occasionally finback whales are found in coastal waters, along with virtually every variety of North Atlantic fish and shellfish, including the famous Maine lobster. Coastal waterfowl include the osprey, herring and great black-backed gulls, great and double-crested cormorants, and various duck species. Matinicus Rock, a small uninhabited island about 20 mi (32 km) off the coast near the entrance to Penobscot Bay, is the only known North American nesting site of the common puffin, or sea parrot.

Eleven Maine animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were classified as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service in 2006, including the bald eagle, piping plover, Atlantic Gulf of Maine salmon, two species of whale, and leather-back sea turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Department of Environmental Protection administers laws regulating the development of large residential, commercial, and industrial sites; the protection and improvement of air and water quality; the prevention and cleanup of oil spills; the control of hazardous wastes; the licensing of oil terminals; the protection of state-significant natural resources (including wetlands, rivers, streams and brooks, and fragile mountain areas); and mining. The Land Use Regulation Commission, established in 1969, extends the principles of town planning and zoning to Maine's 411 unorganized townships, 313 "plantations," and numerous coastal islands that have no local government and might otherwise be subject to ecologically unsound development. About 25% of the state

contains wetlands; these generally owned by private landowners, timber companies, or other individuals.

In 2003, 9.3 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, Maine had 59 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 12 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Brunswick Naval Station, Loring Air Force Base, and Portsmouth Naval Shipyard. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$1.7 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, the state received about \$2 million in other federal EPA grants.

6 POPULATION

Maine ranked 40th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,321,505 in 2005, an increase of 3.7% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Maine's population grew from 1,227,928 to 1,274,923, an increase of 3.8%. The population is projected to reach 1.38 million by 2015 and 1.41 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 42.7 persons per sq mi.

In 2004 the median age was 40.7, the highest median in the nation. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 21.4% of the population while 14.4% was age 65 or older.

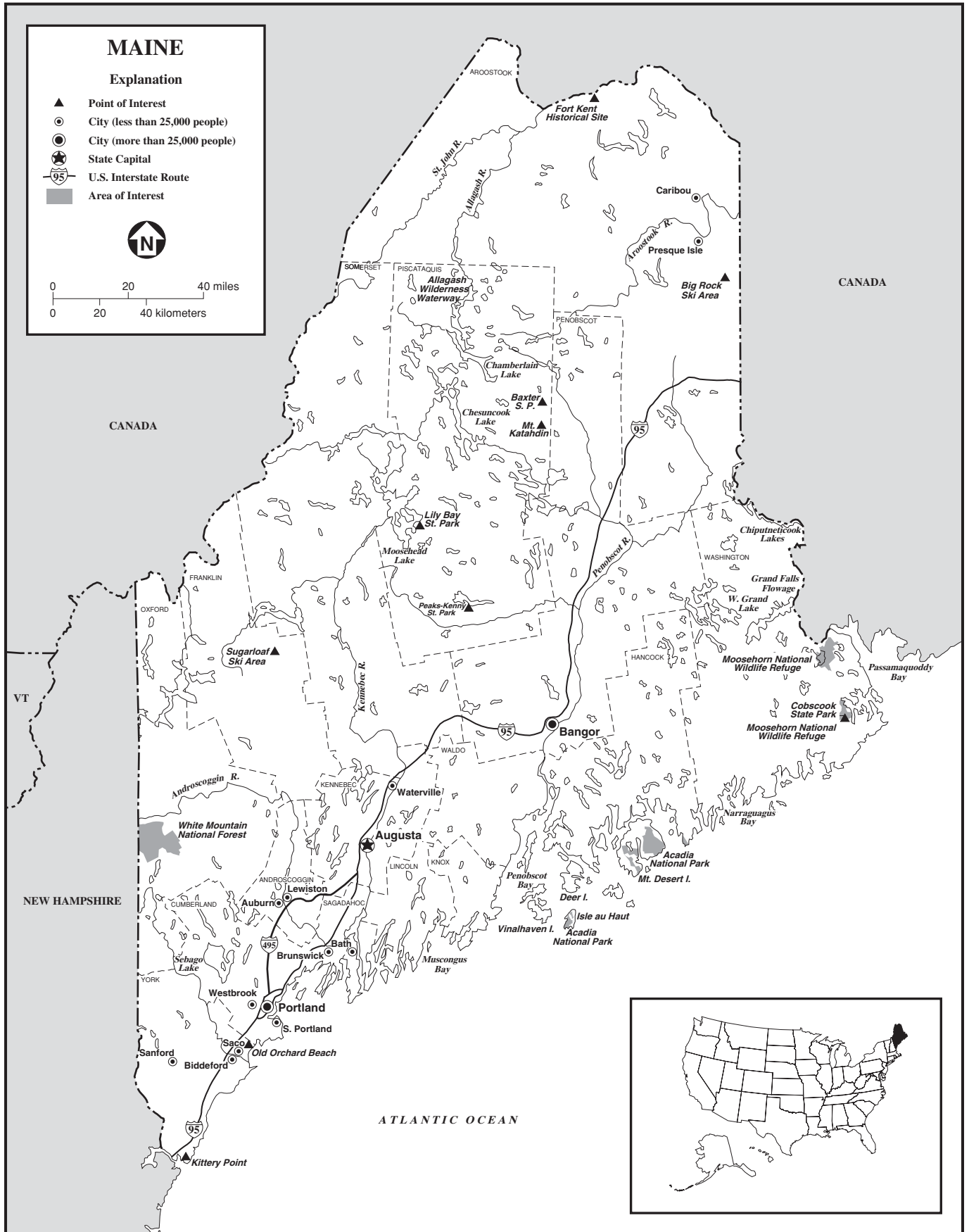
The area that now comprises the state of Maine was sparsely settled throughout the colonial period. At statehood, Maine had 298,335 residents. The population doubled by 1860, but then grew slowly until the 1970s, when its growth rate went above the national average.

More than half the population lives on less than one-seventh of the land, within 25 mi (40 km) of the Atlantic coast, and almost half of the state is virtually uninhabited. Although almost half of Maine's population is classified as urban; much of the urban population lives in towns and small cities. The state's major cities, all with populations under 100,000, are Portland, Bangor, and Lewiston-Auburn. The Portland metropolitan area had an estimated population of 510,791 in 2004. The Bangor metropolitan area had an estimated 148,196 people and the Lewiston-Auburn area had 107,022.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Maine's population is primarily Yankee, both in its English and Scotch-Irish origins and in its retention of many of the values and folkways of rural New England. The largest minority group consists of French-Canadians. Among those reporting at least one specific ancestry group in 2000, 274,423 claimed English ancestry; 181,663 French (not counting 110,344 who claimed Canadian or French-Canadian); and 192,901 Irish. There were 36,691 foreign-born residents. The population of Hispanics and Latinos in 2000 was 9,360, less than 1% of the state total. In 2004, 0.9% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin.

The most notable ethnic issue in Maine during the 1970s was the legal battle of the Penobscot and Passamaquoddy Indians—living on two reservations covering 27,546 acres (11,148 hectares)—to recover 12,500,000 acres (5,059,000 hectares) of treaty lands. A compromise settlement in 1980 awarded them \$81.5 million, two-thirds of which went into a fund enabling the Indians to purchase 300,000 acres (121,000 hectares) of timberland. In 1995, Maine's American Indian population included the following groups living on or near reservations (with population estimates): the Penob-



MAINE

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (less than 25,000 people)
- City (more than 25,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 20 40 miles
0 20 40 kilometers

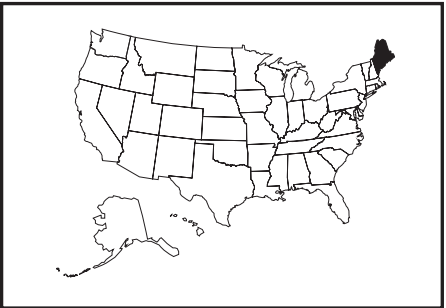
CANADA

CANADA

VT

NEW HAMPSHIRE

ATLANTIC OCEAN



scot Tribe (1,206); the Aristook Band of Micmac (1,155); Pleasant Point (878); the Passamaquoddy (722); and the Houlton Band of Maliseets (331). The Indian population as a whole was reported as 7,098 in 2000. In 2004, 0.6% of the population was composed of American Indians.

As of 2000, Maine had 6,760 black residents and 9,111 Asians, including 2,034 Chinese, 1,159 Filipinos, and 1,021 Asian Indians. Pacific Islanders numbered 382. In 2004, 0.7% of the population was black and 0.8% Asian. That year, 0.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Descendants of the Passamaquoddy and Penobscot Indians of the Algonkian family who inhabited Maine at the time that European settlers arrived still lived there in the mid-1980s. Algonkian place-names abound: Saco, Millinocket, Wiscasset, Kennebec, Skowhegan.

Maine English is celebrated as typical Yankee speech. Final /r/ is absent, a vowel sound between /ah/ and the /a/ in *cat* appears in *car* and *garden*, *aunt* and *calf*. *Coat* and *home* have a vowel that to outsiders sounds like the vowel in *cut*. Maple syrup comes from *rock* or *sugar maple* trees in a *sap* or *sugar orchard*; cottage cheese is *curd cheese*; and pancakes are *fritters*.

In 2000, 92.2% of Maine residents five years old or older report speaking only English in the home, up from 90.8% in 1990.

The decline of parochial schools and a great increase in the number of young persons attending college have begun to erode the linguistic and cultural separateness that marks the history of the Franco-American experience in Maine.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,204,164	100.0
Speak only English	1,110,198	92.2
Speak a language other than English	93,966	7.8
Speak a language other than English	93,966	7.8
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	63,640	5.3
Spanish or Spanish Creole	9,611	0.8
German	4,006	0.3
Italian	1,476	0.1
Chinese	1,259	0.1
Other Native North American languages	1,182	0.1
Mon-Khmer, Cambodian	1,084	0.1
Vietnamese	911	0.1
Russian	896	0.1
Other Indo-European languages	785	0.1
Scandinavian languages	779	0.1
Tagalog	771	0.1
Greek	767	0.1
Polish	763	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Maine had about 217,676 Roman Catholics in 2004 and an estimated 8,290 Jews in 2000. The leading Protestant denominations are the United Methodist Church, with 31,689 adherents (in 2000); the American Baptists USA, 26,259 (in 2000); and the

United Church of Christ, 23,086 (in 2005). The Muslim community had about 800 members. Over 800,000 people (about 63.6% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Railroad development in Maine, which reached its peak in 1924, has declined rapidly since World War II (1939–45), and passenger service has been dropped altogether. Although Maine had no Class I railroads in 2003, seven regional and local railroads operated on 1,148 rail mi (1,848 km) of track. As of 2006, Amtrak provided service to four stations in Maine via its north–south Downeaster train from Portland to Boston.

About three-quarters of all communities and about half the population depend entirely on highway trucking for the overland transportation of freight. In 2004, Maine had 22,748 mi (36,624 km) of public roads. In that same year, there were 1.086 million registered motor vehicles and 984,829 licensed drivers in the state. The Maine Turnpike and I-95, which coincide between Portland and Kittery, are the state's major highways.

River traffic has been central to the lumber industry. Only since World War II has trucking replaced seasonal log drives downstream from timberlands to the mills, a practice that is now outlawed for environmental reasons. Maine has 10 established seaports, with Portland and Searsport being the main depots for overseas shipping. In 2004, Portland harbor handled 29.709 million tons, and Searsport handled 1.832 million tons. Crude oil, fuel oil, and gasoline were the chief commodities. In 2004, Maine had 73 mi (117 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 31.698 million tons.

In 2005, Maine had a total of 153 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 103 airports, 13 heliports, and 37 seaplane bases. Portland International Jetport is the largest and most active airport in Maine. In 2004, Portland International had 687,344 passengers enplaned.

11 HISTORY

The first inhabitants of Maine—dating from 3000 to 1000 BC—are known to archaeologists as the Red Paint People because of the red ocher that has been found in their graves. This Paleolithic group had evidently disappeared long before the arrival of the Algonkian-speaking Abnaki (meaning "living at the sunrise"), or Wabanaki. Just at the time of European settlement, an intertribal war and a disastrous epidemic of smallpox swept away many of the Abnaki, some of whom had begun peaceful contacts with the English. After that, most Indian contacts with Europeans were with the French.

The first documented visit by a European to the Maine coast was that of Giovanni da Verrazano during his voyage of 1524, but one may infer from the record that the Abnaki he met there had encountered white men before. Sometime around 1600, English expeditions began fishing the Gulf of Maine regularly. The first recorded attempts to found permanent colonies, by the French on an island in the St. Croix River in 1604 and by the English at Sagadahoc in 1607, both failed. By 1630, however, there were permanent English settlements on several islands and at nearly a dozen spots along the coast.

The first grant of Maine lands was to Sir Ferdinando Gorges from the Council from New England, a joint-stock company that received and made royal grants of New England territory and which Gorges himself dominated. He and Captain John Mason received the territory between the Merrimack River (in present-day New Hampshire and Massachusetts) and the Kennebec River in 1622. Seven years later, the two grantees divided their land at the Piscataqua River, and Gorges became sole proprietor of the "Province of Maine." The source of the name is not quite clear. It seems likely that some connection with the historical French province of the same name was intended, but the name was also used to distinguish the mainland from the islands.

Sir Ferdinando's various schemes for governing the territory and promoting a feudal-style settlement never worked. A few years after his death in 1647, the government of the Massachusetts Bay Colony began absorbing the small Maine settlements. Massachusetts purchased the title to Maine from the Gorges heirs in 1677, and Maine became a district of Massachusetts with the issuance of a new royal charter in 1691. During the first hundred years of settlement, Maine's economy was based entirely on fishing, trading, and exploitation of the forests. The origin of the Maine shipbuilding industry, the early settlement of the interior parts of southern Maine, and the beginning of subsistence farming all date from about the time that New England's supply center of white-pine masts for the Royal Navy moved from Portsmouth, N.H., to Falmouth (now the city of Portland).

The first naval encounter of the Revolutionary War occurred in Machias Bay, when, on 12 June 1775, angry colonials captured the British armed schooner *Margaretta*. On 8 October 1775, a British naval squadron shelled and set fire to Falmouth. Wartime Maine was the scene of two anti-British campaigns, both of which ended in failure: an expedition through the Maine woods in the fall of 1775 intended to drive the British out of Quebec, and a disastrous 1779 expedition in which a Massachusetts amphibious force, failing to dislodge British troops at Castine, scuttled many of its own ships near the mouth of the Penobscot River.

The idea of separation from Massachusetts began surfacing as early as 1785, but popular pressure for such a movement did not mount until the War of 1812. The overwhelming vote for statehood in an 1819 referendum was a victory for William King, who would become the first governor, and his fellow Jeffersonian Democratic-Republicans. Admission of Maine as a free state was joined with the admission of Missouri as a slave state in the Missouri Compromise of 1820.

Textile mills and shoe factories came to Maine between 1830 and 1860 as part of the industrialization of Massachusetts. After the Civil War, the revolution in papermaking that substituted wood pulp for rags brought a vigorous new industry to Maine. By 1900, Maine was one of the leading papermaking states in the United States, and the industry continues to dominate the state as of 2005. Shipbuilding joined paper manufacturing as a leading employer in the state, enjoying a boom in government contracts in the 1980s.

In 1972, the Penobscot and Passamaquoddy Indians filed a land claims suit against the federal government for property that amounted to the northern two-thirds of Maine, claiming that a 1794 treaty, under which the Passamaquoddy handed over most of its land while receiving nothing in exchange, had not been rat-

ified by Congress, and therefore violated the Indian Non-Inter-course Act of 1790. The government settled the suit in 1980 by paying the tribes \$81.5 million, which was allocated to purchase commercial and industrial properties in Maine.

The rise of tourism and the often conflicting concerns for economic development and environmental protection have been key issues in the state since the 1940s. Tourism grew substantially in the 1980s, 1990s, and into the 2000s, especially in coastal areas, where an influx of residents changed the character of many seaside towns. Former seasonal resorts were converted to year-round communities, posing new challenges for growth management. The state's environmental concerns included sewage treatment, deforestation, overfishing, and hazardous waste disposal.

Maine's economy turned in its best performance in more than a decade in 1999, with strong job growth, continued increases in retail sales, and significant improvement in nearly all other indicators. The state's income growth topped the national average from 1998 to 1999, finishing among the five fastest growing states. According to government figures, income growth in Maine, which still had the lowest per capita income in New England, was fueled by higher wages in services, construction, finance, insurance, and real estate. At the same time, there were concerns that the gain in income was the result of Maine workers holding down more than one job in order to make ends meet. Analysts also warned that the hot state economy could be threatened by a shortage of workers, since the state's population was not growing at a commensurate rate.

Maine's economy suffered with that of the nation's in the early 2000s, coming on the back of a recession in 2001. By 2003, Maine had a \$24 million budget deficit. Governor John Baldacci had plans to implement a large-scale healthcare program for state employees, open it to private employers, and pay for it without increased taxes. This plan, *Dirigo Health*, was signed into law in June 2003. A citizen initiative set for referendum in November 2003 was to mandate a large increase in state assistance to local school systems. It was rejected.

In 2005, the state was making plans for the closing of military bases, including the Brunswick Naval Air Station. Governor Baldacci created a Maine Office of Redevelopment and Re-employment with an Advisory Council to coordinate local and statewide interests with regard to the closures.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The Maine constitution, based on that of Massachusetts but incorporating a number of more democratic features, was adopted in 1819 and amended 169 times by January 2005. (This figure does not include one amendment approved by the voters in 1967 that is inoperative until implemented by legislation.) The state constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the legislature and a majority vote at the next general election.

The bicameral legislature, consisting of a 35-member Senate and a 151-member House of Representatives, convenes biennially (in even-numbered years) in joint session to elect the secretary of state, attorney general, and state treasurer. Legislative sessions begin in December of the general election year and run into June of the following (odd-numbered year); the second session begins in January of the next even-numbered year, runs into April, and is limited to consideration of budgetary matters, legislation in the

governor's call, emergency legislation, and legislation referred to committees for study. The presiding officers of each house may jointly call for a special session as long as they have the support of a majority of members of each political party in each house. All legislators, who serve two-year terms, must have been US citizens for at least five years, residents of the state for at least one year, and have lived in their district at least three months prior to election. The minimum age for representatives is 21, for senators it is 25. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$11,384 for the first year and \$8,302 for the second.

The governor, who serves a four-year term and is limited to two consecutive terms, is the only official elected statewide. (Rules of succession dictate that should the governor become incapacitated, he or she would be succeeded by the president of the state Senate.) A gubernatorial veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of members present and voting in each legislative chamber. An unsigned bill that is not vetoed becomes law after 10 days whether the legislature is in session or not. The governor must be at least 30 years old, a citizen of the United States for at least 15 years, and a state resident for 5 years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$70,000, unchanged from 1999.

To vote in Maine, one must be a US citizen, a resident of the state and municipality, and at least 18 years old. Those under guardianship because of mental illness may not vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Maine's two major political parties are the Democratic and the Republican, each affiliated with the national party. An independent candidate, James B. Longley, beat the candidates of both major parties in the gubernatorial election of 1974.

During the early decades of statehood, Jeffersonian and Jacksonian Democrats remained in power quite consistently. In 1854, however, reformers rallied around the new Republican Party, which dominated Maine politics for the next hundred years. Maine's strong Republican tradition continued into the middle and late 1950s, when Margaret Chase Smith distinguished herself in the US Senate as a leader of national importance. The rise of

Democrat Edmund S. Muskie, elected governor in 1954 and 1956 and to the first of four terms in the US Senate in 1960, signaled a change in Maine's political complexion. Muskie appealed personally to many traditionally Republican voters, but his party's resurgence was also the result of demographic changes, especially an increase in the proportion of French-Canadian voters.

In the November 1994 elections, Independent Angus King was voted into the executive office, and Maine became the only state in the nation with an Independent governor. King was reelected in 1998. In 2002, Democrat John Baldacci was elected governor. In 1994 Republican Olympia Snowe won the US Senate seat vacated by retiring Democrat George J. Mitchell (she was reelected in 2000); in 1996 Republican Susan E. Collins won the seat left vacant by retiring three-term senator William S. Cohen, also a Republican (Collins was reelected in 2002). In the 2000 presidential elections Democrat Al Gore won 49% of the presidential vote, Republican George W. Bush received 44%, and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 6%. In 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 53.4% in his challenge to incumbent President Bush, who garnered 44.6%. In 2004 elections, Maine Democrats retained control of both US House seats. Also in 2002 there were 957,000 registered voters. In 1998, 32% of registered voters were Democratic, 29% Republican, and 39% unaffiliated or members of other parties. In mid-2005, the state House of Representatives had 76 Democrats, 73 Republicans, and 2 independents, while the state Senate had 19 Democrats and 16 Republicans. The state had four electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The principal units of local government in 2005 included 16 counties, 22 municipal governments, 282 public school districts and 222 special districts. Maine's counties function primarily as judicial districts. As is customary in New England, the basic instrument of town government is the annual town meeting, with an elective board of selectmen supervising town affairs between meetings; some of the larger towns employ full-time town managers. In 2002, there were 467 townships in the state.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 54,868 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Maine operates under the authority of the governor; the emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The State Board of Education and Department of Educational and Cultural Services supervise the public education system. The Department of Transportation, established in 1972, includes divisions responsible for aviation and railroads, a bureau to maintain highways and bridges, the Maine Port Authority, the State Ferry Advisory Board, and the Maine Aeronautical Advisory Board.

Various agencies responsible for health and social welfare were combined into the Department of Human Services in 1975 (now the Department of Health and Human Services). The Maine State Housing Authority, established in 1969, provides construction loans and technical assistance and conducts surveys of the state's housing needs. The Commission on Governmental Ethics and

Maine Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MAINE WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	5	Dewey (R)	111,916	150,234
1952	5	*Eisenhower (R)	118,806	232,353
1956	5	*Eisenhower (R)	102,468	249,238
1960	5	*Eisenhower (R)	102,468	249,238
1960	5	Nixon (R)	181,159	240,608
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	262,264	118,701
1968	4	Humphrey (D)	217,312	169,254
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	160,584	256,458
1976	4	Ford (R)	232,279	236,320
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	220,974	238,522
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	214,515	336,500
1988	4	*Bush (R)	243,569	307,131
1992**	4	*Clinton (D)	263,420	206,504
1996**	4	*Clinton (D)	312,788	186,378
2000	4	Gore (D)	319,951	286,616
2004	4	Kerry (D)	396,842	330,201

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 206,820 votes in 1992 and 85,970 votes in 1996.

Election Practices, an advisory and investigative body, was created in 1975 to serve as a watchdog over the legislature. Other organizations include the departments of agriculture, corrections, professional and financial legislation, and labor; and the bureaus of motor vehicles and parks and lands.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The highest state court in Maine is the Supreme Judicial Court, with a chief justice and six associate justices appointed by the governor (with the consent of the legislature) for seven-year terms (as are all other state judges). The Supreme Judicial Court has state-wide appellate jurisdiction in all civil and criminal matters. The 16-member superior court, which has original jurisdiction in cases involving trial by jury and also hears some appeals, holds court sessions in all 16 counties. The district courts hear non-felony criminal cases and small claims and juvenile cases, and have concurrent jurisdiction with the superior court in divorce and civil cases involving less than \$30,000. A probate court judge is elected in each county.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 2,024 prisoners were held in Maine's state and federal prisons, an increase from 2,013 of 0.5% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 125 inmates were female, up from 124 or 0.8% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Maine had an incarceration rate of 148 per 100,000 population in 2004, the lowest in the United States.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Maine in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 103.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population (the second-lowest in the United States after North Dakota), or a total of 1,364 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 31,740 reported incidents or 2,409.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Maine has not had a death penalty since 1887. The state does provide for life without parole.

In 2003, Maine spent \$78,866,791 on homeland security, an average of \$61 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The largest US military installation in Maine is the Naval Air Station at Brunswick, home of a wing of anti-submarine patrol squadrons. Defense Department personnel in Maine totaled 11,051, including 4,535 active military and 5,216 civilians in 2004. State firms received over \$1.5 billion in defense contracts in 2004. General Dynamics, a major defense contractor, is one of the state's largest private employers. Its Bath Iron Works division designs and builds complex, technologically advanced naval ships; another division, the Saco Operations, produces armament systems and is a leading producer of small and medium caliber machine guns, and cannon barrels, as well as, a test facility. In addition, another \$805 million in defense payroll spending, including retired military pay, was paid out.

There were 143,726 veterans of US military service in Maine as of 2003, of whom 19,904 served in World War II; 16,954 in the Korean conflict; 45,061 during the Vietnam era; and 17,991 during the Gulf War. Expenditures on veterans amounted to some \$503 million during 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Maine State Police employed 311 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Throughout the 1600s, 1700s, and early 1800s, Maine's population grew primarily by immigration from elsewhere in New England. About 1830, after agriculture in the state had passed its peak, Maine farmers and woodsmen began moving west. Europeans and French Canadians came to the state, but not in sufficient numbers to offset this steady emigration.

Net losses from migration have continued through most of this century. Between 1940 and 1970, for example, the net loss was 163,000. However, there was a net gain of about 80,000 from 1970 to 1990. From 1980 to 1990, Maine's urban population declined from 47.5% to 44.6% of the state's total. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 15,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 3,000 in international migration. In 1998, Maine admitted 709 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the State's overall population increased 1.3%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 5,004 and net internal migration was 36,804, for a net gain of 41,808 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Regional agreements in which Maine participates include the Maine-New Hampshire School Compact, which authorizes interstate public school districts. Maine also takes part in the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact; and the New England Interstate Water Pollution Control, Corrections Control, Board of Higher Education, and Radiological Health Protection compacts. In fiscal year 2005, Maine received \$2.197 billion in federal grants; that figure fell to an estimated \$2.125 billion in fiscal year 2006, before rising to an estimated \$2.245 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Maine's greatest economic strengths, as they have been since the beginning of European settlement, are its forests and waters, yielding wood products, water power, fisheries, and ocean commerce. As of 2005, paper manufacturing, for which both forests and water power are essential, was among the largest industries. However, since the 1980s manufacturing employment has dropped; and especially since 1992, services sector and trading sector employment has risen.

Maine's greatest current economic weakness is its limited access to the national transportation network that links major production and manufacturing centers with large metropolitan markets. On the other hand, this relative isolation, combined with the state's traditional natural assets, has contributed to Maine's attractiveness as a place for tourism and recreation. It also meant that the national recession in 2001 largely bypassed Maine's economy because of its limited involvement in the growth fields of information technology and equity venture capitalism. Annual growth in Maine's gross state product, which at 5.9% in both 1998 and 1999, and rising to 6.4% in 2000, did moderate to 3.2% in 2001, but employment had returned to peak levels reached before the recession by mid-2002. Tax revenue shortfalls were also less than other New

England states, all more affected by the abrupt decline in capital gains income.

Maine's gross state product in 2004 totaled \$43.336 billion, of which real estate was the largest component at \$5.821 billion or 13.4% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$5.177 billion (11.9% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance at \$4.554 billion (10.5% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 141,936 small businesses in Maine. Of the 40,304 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 39,288 or 97.5% were small companies. An estimated 4,300 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 6.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 4,987, up 5.8% from 2003. There were 138 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 31.4% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 352 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Maine as the 44th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Maine had a gross state product (GSP) of \$45 billion which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 44 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Maine had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$30,046. This ranked 34th in the United States and was 91% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. Maine had a total personal income (TPI) of \$39,510,398,000, which ranked 41st in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.0% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.1%. Earnings of persons employed in Maine increased from \$26,649,983,000 in 2003 to \$28,240,580,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.0%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$39,395 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 12.2% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Maine numbered 716,300, with approximately 30,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.2%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 613,300. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Maine was 9% in March 1977. The historical low was 3% in January 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5% of the labor force was employed in construction; 9.7% in manufacturing; 20.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.5% in financial activities; 8.3% in professional and business services; 18.4% in education and health services; 9.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.1% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 69,000 of Maine's 582,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This

represented 11.9% of those so employed, up from 11.3% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 79,000 workers (13.6%) in Maine were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Maine is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Maine had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.50 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Maine's gross farm income in 2005 was \$546 million (43rd in the United States). There were 7,200 farms in 2004, with an estimated 1,370,000 acres (554,000 hectares) of land.

Maine's agriculture and food processing industries contribute over \$1 billion annually to the state's economy. Maine produces more food crops for human consumption than any other New England state. Maine ranks first in the world in the production of blueberries, producing over 25% of the total blueberry crop and over 50% of the world's wild blueberries. Maine is also home to the largest bio-agricultural firm in the world, which produces breeding stock for the broiler industry worldwide. In New England, Maine ranks first in potato production and second in the production of milk and apples. Nationally, Maine ranks third in maple syrup and seventh in potatoes with 19,220,000 hundred-weight. The greenhouse/nursery and wild blueberry sectors have also shown steady growth in total sales since 1990.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Maine had an estimated 92,000 cattle and calves worth around \$101.2 million. Dairy farmers had an estimated 35,000 milk cows, which produced 624 million lb (283.6 million kg) of milk in 2003. Poultry farmers sold an estimated 10.2 million lb (4.6 million kg) of chickens in the same year. South-central Maine is the leading poultry region.

2⁵ FISHING

Fishing has been important to the economy of Maine since its settlement. In 2004, Maine landings brought a total of 208.4 million lb (84.3 million kg) with a value of \$315.8 million (the third highest value in the nation). Rockland and Portland were main ports.

The most valuable Maine fishery product is the lobster. In 2004, Maine led the nation in landings of American lobster for the 23rd consecutive year, with 58.5 million lb (26.6 million kg), valued at \$238.5 million. Flounder, halibut, scallops, and shrimp are also caught. Maine also was the leading state in soft clams catch, with 2.4 million lb of meats (1.1 million kg) in 2004. In 2003, there were 35 processing and 176 wholesale plants in the state, with a total of about 1,780 employees. The state commercial fleet in 2001 had 5,836 boats and 1,656 vessels.

In 2004, Maine had 15 trout farms, with sales of \$363,000. Maine has nine inland fish hatcheries and hosts two national fish hatcheries. In 2004, there were 270,698 licensed sports fishing participants in the state.

2⁶ FORESTRY

Maine's 17.7 million acres (7.2 million hectares) of forest in 2003 contained over 3.6 billion trees and covered 90% of the state's

land area, the largest percentage for any state in the United States. About 16,952,000 acres (6,860,000 hectares) are classified as commercial timberland, over 96% of it privately owned, and half of that by a dozen large paper companies and land managing corporations. Principal commercial hardwood include ash, hard maple, white and yellow birch, beech, and oak; commercially significant softwoods include white pine, hemlock, cedar, spruce, and fir. Total lumber production in 2004 was 964 million board feet, of which 86% was softwood.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Maine in 2003 was \$100 million, only a marginal increase from 2002.

Construction minerals and materials accounted for the bulk of the state's nonfuel mineral output, by value, in 2003. According to the USGS, construction sand and gravel, and crushed stone collectively accounted for around 65% of the state's nonfuel mineral output, by value that year. According to the preliminary data, Maine produced 9.3 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel, with a value of \$39.1 million, while crushed stone output stood at 4.4 million metric tons and was valued at \$26 million. Portland cement and dimension granite were also important non-fuel mineral commodities produced in Maine that same year.

In 2003, Maine was ranked 12th among the 50 states in the production of gemstones by value (\$262,000), according to the USGS data.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Maine had 29 electrical power service providers, of which 4 were publicly owned and 3 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, one was investor owned, two were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers, fourteen were generation-only suppliers and five were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 760,859 retail customers. Of that total, energy only suppliers had 748,446 customers, while only 33 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 2,402 customers, and publicly owned providers had 9,976 customers. There were only two independent generator or "facility" customers. There was no customer data on delivery-only service providers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 4.285 million kW, with total production that same year at 18.971 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, all of it (100%) came from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 9.438 billion kWh (49.8%), came from natural gas fired plants, with plants using other renewable sources in second place with 3.909 billion kWh (20.6%) and hydroelectric plants in third place at 3.172 billion kWh (16.7%). Petroleum and coal fueled power plants accounted for 10.1% and 2% of all power generated, respectively, while "other" types of generating facilities accounted for 0.8%.

Maine no longer generates electricity through nuclear power. Citing economic and regulatory concerns, the owners of Maine's only nuclear power plant, the Maine Yankee Atomic Power Com-

pany plant in Wicasset, was shut down in 1997, and as of 2003 it was being dismantled and the site restored for other uses.

With no proven reserves or production of crude oil, coal or natural gas, all these products, must be imported into the state from either abroad or from other states. Natural gas is piped into the southwest corner of the state, and is available in Portland and the Lewiston-Auburn area.

29 INDUSTRY

Manufacturing in Maine has always been dependent upon the forests. During the 18th and 19th centuries, the staples of Maine industry were shipbuilding and lumber; as of 2005, papermaking and wood products, footwear, textiles and apparel, shipbuilding, and electronic components and accessories are all important industries.

Maine has the largest paper-production capacity of any state in the nation. There are large paper mills and pulp mills in more than a dozen towns and cities. As of 2004, wood-related industries—paper, lumber, wood products—accounted for about 25% of the value of all manufactured product shipments by value.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Maine's manufacturing sector covered some 16 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$13.656 billion. Of that total, paper manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$3.601 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$2.019 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.623 billion; wood and paper product manufacturing at \$1.240 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$760.719 million; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$710.573 million.

In 2004, a total of 57,901 people in Maine were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 42,472 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 9,005, with 6,618 actual production workers. It was followed by paper manufacturing at 8,454 employees (6,800 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 7,708 employees (5,206 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing at 5,700 employees (4,452 actual production workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing with 3,996 employees (2,978 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Maine's manufacturing sector paid \$2.316 billion in wages. Of that amount, the paper manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$489.690 million. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$373.078 million; food manufacturing at \$251.645 million; wood product manufacturing at \$183.615 million; and computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$167.160 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Maine's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$10.3 billion from 1,669 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 927 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 662 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 80 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$3 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$6.7

billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$584.3 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Maine was listed as having 7,050 retail establishments with sales of \$16.05 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (943); food and beverage stores (940); gasoline stations (893); clothing and clothing accessories stores (636); and building materials/garden equipment and supplies dealers (635). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$3.7 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$2.7 billion; general merchandise stores at \$1.9 billion; gasoline stations at \$1.49 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$1.40 billion. A total of 80,251 people were employed by the retail sector in Maine that year.

Maine has shipping facilities located in Portland, Searsport, and Eastport. Exports from Maine totaled \$2.3 billion in 2005. Maine's largest trading partners are Canada, Singapore, Malaysia, Japan, and the UK.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues in Maine are handled by the state's Attorney General's Office and the Bureau of Financial Institutions. Under the Attorney General's Office are the Consumer Protection Division and the Office of Credit Regulation. The Consumer Protection Division is responsible for the protection of consumers through enforcement of a wide variety of laws including Maine's Unfair Trade Practices Act, and the state's merger statute, the Mini-Sherman Act. The Division also provides a consumer mediation service under its Consumer Mediation Program, which uses volunteer mediators to resolve disputes between businesses and consumers.

The second department is the Office of Consumer Credit Regulation which was established in 1974 to protect state residents from unjust and misleading consumer credit practices, particularly in relation to the federal Truth-in-Lending Act. The agency also administers state laws regulating collection agencies, credit reporting agencies, mortgage companies, loan brokers, rent-to-own companies, pawn brokers, money order issuers, check cashers, and money transmitters.

However, consumer complaints regarding credit cards and banks are the responsibility of the Bureau of Financial Institution's Consumer Outreach Program.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the Attorney General cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Office of Consumer Credit Regulation and the Consumer Protection Division are both located in Augusta.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Maine had 37 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 12 state-chartered and 63 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Portland-South Portland-Biddeford market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 22 institutions and \$8.021 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 7.9% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$3.974 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 92.1% or \$46.590 billion in assets held.

Regulation of Maine's state-chartered banks is the responsibility of the Department of Professional and Financial Regulation's Bureau of Banking.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 583,000 individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of about \$43.8 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$81 billion. The average coverage amount is \$75,200 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at about \$197.4 million.

In 2003, there were 2 life and health and 23 property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$1.89 billion. That year, there were 7,064 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of 1 billion.

In 2004, 51% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 10% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 18% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state offers a 12-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 979,487 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$50,000 per individual and \$100,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. Uninsured and underinsured motorist insurance are also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$630.79.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities or commodities exchanges in Maine. In 2005, there were 300 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 850 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were at least sixteen publicly traded companies within the state, with seven NASDAQ companies, two NYSE listings, and four AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 500 company, Energy East, locate in New Gloucester. Listed

on the NYSE, Energy East was 405 on the list of 500 largest companies in the nation, with revenues in excess of \$5.2 billion.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Maine's biennial budget is prepared by the Bureau of the Budget, within the Department of Administrative and Financial Services, and submitted by the governor to the Legislature for consideration. The fiscal year (FY) extends from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$2.8 billion for resources and \$2.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Maine were \$2.7 billion.

Maine—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	8,309,930	6,319.34
General revenue	6,795,343	5,167.56
Intergovernmental revenue	2,573,528	1,957.06
Taxes	2,896,759	2,202.86
General sales	917,248	697.53
Selective sales	442,904	336.81
License taxes	158,199	120.30
Individual income tax	1,160,028	882.15
Corporate income tax	111,616	84.88
Other taxes	106,764	81.19
Current charges	537,145	408.48
Miscellaneous general revenue	787,911	599.17
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	90,996	69.20
Insurance trust revenue	1,423,591	1,082.58
Total expenditure	7,322,061	5,568.11
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,049,160	797.84
Direct expenditure	6,272,901	4,770.27
Current operation	4,809,684	3,657.55
Capital outlay	412,412	313.62
Insurance benefits and repayments	588,977	447.89
Assistance and subsidies	209,796	159.54
Interest on debt	252,032	191.66
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	667,051	507.26
Total expenditure	7,322,061	5,568.11
General expenditure	6,671,149	5,073.12
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,049,160	797.84
Direct expenditure	5,621,989	4,275.28
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,653,605	1,257.49
Public welfare	2,286,375	1,738.69
Hospitals	54,515	41.46
Health	437,145	332.43
Highways	536,777	408.20
Police protection	61,840	47.03
Correction	112,083	85.23
Natural resources	186,889	142.12
Parks and recreation	11,225	8.54
Government administration	256,764	195.26
Interest on general debt	252,032	191.66
Other and unallocable	821,899	625.02
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	61,935	47.10
Insurance trust expenditure	588,977	447.89
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,643,988	3,531.55
Cash and security holdings	13,952,432	10,610.21

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$1.6 million for Maine.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Maine collected \$3,071 million in tax revenues or \$2,323 per capita, which placed it 19th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 1.4% of the total, sales taxes 30.4%, selective sales taxes 13.9%, individual income taxes 42.3%, corporate income taxes 4.4%, and other taxes 7.5%.

As of 1 January 2006, Maine had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.0 to 8.5%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 3.5 to 8.93% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$2,099,394,000 or \$1,596 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state sixth-highest nationally. Local governments collected \$2,054,086,000 of the total and the state government \$45,308,000.

Maine taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 200 cents per pack, which ranks fourth among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Maine taxes gasoline at 25.9 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Maine citizens received \$1.40 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Finance Authority of Maine (FAME) encourages industrial and recreational projects by insuring mortgage loans, selling tax-exempt bonds to aid industrial development and natural-resource enterprises, authorizing municipalities to issue such revenue bonds, and guaranteeing loans to small businesses, veterans, and natural-resource enterprises. The Department of Economic and Community Development (DECD), created in 1987, provides technical, financial, training, and marketing assistance for existing Maine businesses and companies interested in establishing operations in the state. The DECD offers programs in the areas of business development, international trade, tourism, film, and community development. Pine Tree Development Zone (PTDZ) legislation was enacted in 2003 and amended in 2005. The initiative supports new "qualified business activity" in Maine by offering manufacturers, financial service businesses, and targeted technology companies the chance to greatly reduce, or in some cases, virtually eliminate state taxes for up to 10 years.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.1 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 10.6 per 1,000 population, the lowest rate in the country for that year. The abortion rate stood at 9.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 87.5% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.6 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 244.9; cancer,

247.7; cerebrovascular diseases, 63.6; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 61.1; and diabetes, 31.2. Maine had the second-highest cancer death rate in the nation, following West Virginia. The mortality rate from HIV infection was not available. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 4.6 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 55.9% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.9% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Maine had 37 community hospitals with about 3,700 beds. There were about 149,000 patient admissions that year and 6.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,200 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,416. Also in 2003, there were about 119 certified nursing facilities in the state with 7,552 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 92.1%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 69.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Maine had 302 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 1,009 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 629 dentists in the state.

In 2003, Maine ranked first in the nation for the highest percentage of residents on Medicaid at 29%. In 2004, the state had the second-highest percentage of residents on Medicare at 18%. Approximately 10% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.1 billion.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 33,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$235. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 152,910 persons (78,170 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.40 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$162.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Maine's TANF work program is called Additional Support for People in Retraining and Employment (ASPIRE). In 2004, the state program had 27,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$87 million in fiscal year 2003.

Despite Maine's relatively low personal income and large proportion of residents below the poverty level, welfare payments per capita generally fall short of the national norms. In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 265,470 Maine residents. This number included 160,320 retired workers, 25,390 widows and widowers, 43,580 disabled workers, 13,590 spouses, and 22,590 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 20.2% of the total state population and 95.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$882; widows and widowers, \$856; disabled workers, \$819; and spouses, \$444. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$451 per month; children of deceased workers, \$630; and children of disabled workers, \$231. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 31,641 Maine residents, averaging \$364 a month. An additional \$615,000 of

state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 32,557 residents.

40 HOUSING

Housing for Maine families has improved substantially since 1960, when the federal census categorized 57,000 of Maine's 364,650 housing units as deteriorated or dilapidated. Between 1970 and 1989, over 200,000 new units were built. However, as of 2004, about 31.7% of the entire housing stock was built in 1939 or earlier.

There were an estimated 676,667 housing units in Maine in 2004. Approximately 534,412 of the total units were occupied, with 72.9% being owner-occupied. About 68.9% of all units are single-family, detached homes. Fuel oils and kerosene are the primary heating fuel for most units. It was estimated that 12,214 units lacked telephone service, 3,771 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 3,336 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.39 members.

In 2004, 8,800 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value is \$143,182. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,020. Renters paid a median of \$582 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$548,824 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$14 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 87.1% of Maine residents age 25 and older were high school graduates; 24.2% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Maine's public schools stood at 204,000. Of these, 142,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 63,000 attended high school. Approximately 95.8% of the students were white, 1.7% were black, 0.8% were Hispanic, 1.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 200,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 178,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 12.8% during the period 2002 to 2014. In fall 2003 there were 20,696 students enrolled in 151 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$2.2 billion or \$9,534 per student. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Maine scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 63,308 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 4.9% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005 Maine had 30 degree-granting institutions. Since 1968, the state's public colleges and universities have been incorporated into a single University of Maine System. The original land grant campus is at Orono; the other major campus in the system is the University of Southern Maine at Portland and Gorham. The state also operates the Maine Maritime Academy at Castine and the Maine Technical College System, comprised of seven technical colleges. Of the state's private colleges and professional schools, Bowdoin College in Bruns-

wick, Colby College in Waterville, and Bates College in Lewiston are the best known.

42 ARTS

Maine has long held an attraction for painters and artists, Winslow Homer and Andrew Wyeth among them. The state abounds in summer theaters, the oldest and most famous of which is at Ogunquit. The Ogunquit Playhouse is one of the nation's leading summer theaters and in 2006 it celebrated its 74th anniversary. The Portland Symphony (est. 1923) is Maine's leading orchestra and is recognized as one of the nation's top orchestras of its size. Augusta and Bangor also host symphonies. The Maine State Ballet Company is based in Westbrook. The Portland Ballet is also well known in the state. The Bossov Ballet Theatre in Pittsfield is part of a boarding school for high school students looking for rigorous preprofessional training in dance. In 2001, the Maine Grand Opera Company gave its first performances, at the Camden Opera House. There are many local theater groups.

The Arcady Summer Music Festival (est. 1980) specializes in chamber music performances. The annual Bowdoin Summer Music Festival (est. 1964), presented at Bowdoin College in Brunswick, provides programs for over 200 students—ranging from high school to graduate studies—annually.

In 1979, Maine became the first state to allow inheritance taxes to be paid with qualified artworks. The Maine Arts Commission is an independent state agency funded in part by the Maine State Legislature and the National Endowment for the Arts. The state Department of Educational and Cultural Services has an Arts and Humanities Bureau that provides funds to artists in residence, Maine touring artists, and community arts councils. In 2005, the Maine Arts Commission and other Maine arts organizations received 20 grants totaling \$956,826 from the National Endowment for the Arts. Additional funds are provided from the state and other private sources.

The Maine Humanities Council (MHC), founded in 1975, provides support to approximately 100 nonprofit art organizations each year. In 2004, MHC awarded 87 grants to 81 organizations throughout the state. Several ongoing reading programs sponsored in part by MHC include "Born to Read," for children and youth; "New Books, New Readers," for adult learners; and "Let's Talk About It," for adult readers. In 2005, the state received 10 grants totaling \$1,021,426 from the National Endowment for the Humanities.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the calendar year 2001, Maine had 273 public library systems, with a total of 280 libraries, of which there were seven branches. In that same year, the system had 5,891,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a combined total circulation of 8,155,000. The system also had 126,000 audio and 135,000 video items, and 2,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks). Leading libraries and their book holdings in 1998 included the Maine State Library at Augusta (150,000 volumes), Bowdoin College at Brunswick (901,589), and the University of Maine School of Law (300,000). In 2001, operating income for the state's

public library system was \$27,985,000, which included \$1,000 in federal grants and \$174,000 in state grants.

Maine has at least 121 museums and historic sites. The Maine State Museum in Augusta houses collections in history, natural history, anthropology, marine studies, mineralogy, science, and technology. The privately supported Maine Historical Society in Portland maintains a research library and the Wadsworth Longfellow House, the boyhood home of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The largest of several maritime museums is in Bath.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 96.6% of occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 610,533 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 67.8% of Maine households had a computer and 57.9% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 176,816 high-speed lines in Maine, 165,428 residential and 11,388 for business.

Maine had 33 major commercial radio stations (5 AM, 28 FM) in 2005, along with 11 major television stations. Educational television stations broadcast from Bangor, Calais, Lewiston, Portland, and Presque Isle. By 2000, a total of 25,583 Internet domain names had been registered in Maine.

45 PRESS

Maine had seven daily newspapers in 2005 and four papers with Sunday editions.

The most widely read newspapers with approximate 2005 circulation numbers are as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Augusta	<i>Kennebec Journal</i> (m,S)	15,167	14,422
Bangor	<i>Daily News</i> (m,S)	62,462	74,754 (wknd)
Portland	<i>Press Herald/Sunday Telegram</i>	77,788	125,858

Regional interest magazines include *Maine Times* and *Down East*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,300 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,660 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the organizations with headquarters in Maine are the Maine Potato Council (Presque Isle), the Maine Lobstermen's Association (Stonington), the Wild Blueberry Association of North America (Bar Harbor), and the Potato Association of America (Orono).

State and local organizations for arts and education include the Bluegrass Music Association of Maine, Maine Arts Commission, the Maine Folklife Center, the Maine Historical Society, the Maine Humanities Council, Maine Preservation, and the National Poetry Foundation, based at the University of Maine. There are a number of smaller local arts organizations and municipal and regional historical societies as well.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the state of Maine hosted 43 million travelers who spent \$13.6 billion. About 34 million travelers were on day trips throughout the state, with nearly 71% of tourist activity involved out-of-state travelers. There were 8.9 million overnight trips. Tourism generated 176,600 jobs and created \$3.8 billion in revenue.

Though Maine is a year-round resort destination, 59% of travelers arrive during the months of July, August, and September. Sightseeing and outdoor activities are the primary tourist attractions.

In the summer, the southern coast offers sandy beaches, icy surf, and several small harbors for sailing and saltwater fishing. Northeastward, the scenery becomes more rugged and spectacular, and sailing and hiking are the primary activities. Hundreds of lakes, ponds, rivers, and streams offer opportunities for freshwater bathing, boating, and fishing. Whitewater canoeing lures the adventurous along the Allagash Wilderness Waterway in northern Maine. Maine has always attracted hunters, especially during the fall deer season. Wintertime recreation facilities include nearly 60 ski areas and countless opportunities for cross-country skiing.

There are 12 state parks and beaches. Baxter State Park in central Maine includes Mount Katahdin. Acadia National Park is a popular attraction, along with other wildlife areas, refuges, and forests. Aroostook, Maine's largest and northernmost county, has five state parks. The state fair is held at Bangor. The Acadia area features Acadia National Park and the site of Campobello, Franklin Delano Roosevelt's summer home. The area containing the Kennebec and Moose rivers and Lake George has three state parks. Kennebunkport on the southern coast is the site of the family home of President George H. W. Bush. Route 1, between Kittery and Fort Kent, has the largest three-dimensional model of the solar system in the world.

48 SPORTS

Maine has no major professional sports teams. The Portland Pirates (a minor league hockey team) of the American Hockey League play on their home ice at the Cumberland County Civic Center in Portland. Minor league baseball's Sea Dogs of the Double-A Eastern League play their games at Hadlock Field, which opened in 1994. Harness racing is held at Scarborough Downs and other tracks and fairgrounds throughout the state. Sailing is a popular participant sport with a Windsummer Festival held each July at Boothbay Harbor and a Retired Skippers Race at Castine in August. Joan Benoit-Samuelson, famous distance runner during the 1980s, was born in Cape Elizabeth.

49 FAMOUS MAINERS

The highest federal officeholders born in Maine were Hannibal Hamlin (1809–91), the nation's first Republican vice president, under Abraham Lincoln, and Nelson A. Rockefeller (1908–79), governor of New York State from 1959 to 1973 and US vice president under Gerald Ford. James G. Blaine (b.Pennsylvania, 1830–93), a lawyer and politician, served 13 years as a US representative from Maine and a term in the Senate; on his third try, he won the Republican presidential nomination in 1884 but lost to Grover Cleveland, later serving as secretary of state (1889–92) under Benjamin Harrison. Edmund S. Muskie (1914–96), leader of the Democratic revival in Maine in the 1950s, followed two successful terms as governor with 21 years in the Senate until appointed secretary of state by President Jimmy Carter in 1980.

Other conspicuous state and national officeholders have included Rufus King (1755–1827), a member of the Continental Congress and Constitutional Convention and US minister to Great Britain; William King (1768–1852), leader of the movement for Maine statehood and the state's first governor; Joshua Lawrence

Chamberlain, (1828–1914), Civil War hero and four-term governor who established the college that eventually became the University of Maine; Thomas Brackett Reed (1839–1902), longtime speaker of the US House of Representatives; and Margaret Chase Smith (1897–1995), who served longer in the US Senate—24 years—than any other woman.

Names prominent in Maine's colonial history include those of Sir Ferdinando Gorges (b.England, 1566–1647), the founder and proprietor of the colony; Sir William Phips (1651–95), who became the first American knight for his recovery of a Spanish treasure, later serving as royal governor of Massachusetts; and Sir William Pepperrell (1696–1759), who led the successful New England expedition against Louisburg in 1745, for which he became the first American-born baronet.

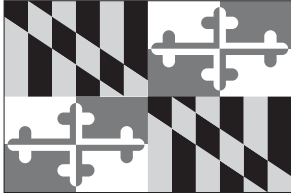
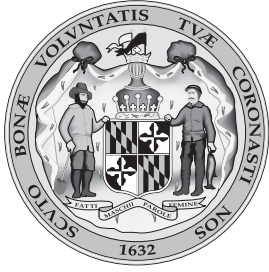
Maine claims a large number of well-known reformers and humanitarians: Dorothea Lynde Dix (1802–87), who led the movement for hospitals for the insane; Elijah Parish Lovejoy (1802–37), an abolitionist killed while defending his printing press from a proslavery mob in St. Louis, Missouri; Neal Dow (1804–97), who drafted and secured passage of the Maine prohibition laws of 1846 and 1851, later served as a Civil War general, and ran for president on the Prohibition Party ticket in 1880; and Harriet Beecher Stowe (b.Connecticut, 1811–96), whose *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1852) was written in Maine.

Other important writers include poet Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–82), born in Portland while Maine was still part of Massachusetts; humorist Artemus Ward (Charles Farrar Browne, 1834–67); Sarah Orne Jewett (1849–1909), novelist and short-story writer; Kate Douglas Wiggin (1856–1923), author of *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm*; Kenneth Roberts (1885–1957), historical novelist; and Robert Peter Tristram Coffin (1892–1955), poet, essayist, and novelist. Edwin Arlington Robinson (1869–1935) and Edna St. Vincent Millay (1892–1950) were both Pulitzer Prize-winning poets, and novelist Marguerite Yourcenar (b.Belgium, 1903–87), a resident of Mt. Desert Island, became in 1980 the first woman ever elected to the Académie Française. Winslow Homer (b.Massachusetts, 1836–1910) had a summer home at Prouts Neck, where he painted many of his seascapes.

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MARYLAND

State of Maryland

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for Henrietta Maria, queen consort of King Charles I of England. **NICK-NAME:** The Old Line State and the Free State. **CAPITAL:** Annapolis. **ENTERED UNION:** 28 April 1788 (7th). **SONG:** “Maryland, My Maryland.” **MOTTO:** *Fatti maschii, parole femine* (Manly deeds, womanly words). **FLAG:** Bears the quartered arms of the Calvert and Crossland families (the paternal and maternal families of the founders of Maryland). **OFFICIAL SEAL:** REVERSE: A shield bearing the arms of the Calverts and Crosslands is surmounted by an earl’s coronet and a helmet and supported by a farmer and fisherman. The state motto (originally that of the Calverts) appears on a scroll below. The circle is surrounded by the Latin legend *Scuto bonae voluntatis tuae; coronasti nos*, meaning “With the shield of thy favor hast thou compassed us”; and “1632,” the date of Maryland’s first charter. OBVERSE: Lord Baltimore is seen as a knight in armor on a charger. The surrounding inscription, in Latin, means “Cecilius, Absolute Lord of Maryland and Avalon New Foundland, Baron of Baltimore.” **BIRD:** Baltimore oriole. **FISH:** Rockfish. **FLOWER:** Black-eyed Susan. **TREE:** White oak. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 12 October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November plus one day; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located on the eastern seaboard of the United States in the South Atlantic region, Maryland ranks 42d in size among the 50 states.

Maryland’s total area—10,460 sq mi (27,092 sq km)—comprises 9,837 sq mi (25,478 sq km) of land and 623 sq mi (1,614 sq km) of inland water. The state extends 199 mi (320 km) E–W and 126 mi (203 km) N–S.

Maryland is bordered on the N by Pennsylvania; on the E by Delaware and the Atlantic Ocean; on the S and SW by Virginia, the District of Columbia, and West Virginia (with the line passing through the Chesapeake Bay and Potomac River); and on the extreme W by West Virginia. Important islands in Chesapeake Bay, off Maryland’s Eastern Shore (the Maryland sector of the Delmarva Peninsula), include Kent, Bloodsworth, South Marsh, and Smith.

The total boundary length of Maryland is 842 mi (1,355 km), including a general coastline of 31 mi (50 km); the total tidal shoreline extends 3,190 mi (5,134 km). The state’s geographic center is in Prince George’s County, 4.5 mi (7.2 km) NW of Davidsonville.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Three distinct regions characterize Maryland’s topography. The first and major area, falling within the Atlantic Coastal Plain, is nearly bisected by the Chesapeake Bay, dividing Maryland into the Eastern Shore and the Western Shore. The Piedmont Plateau, west of the coastal lowlands, is broad, rolling upland with several deep gorges cut by rivers. Further west, from the Catoctin Mountains in Frederick County to the West Virginia border, is the Appalachian Mountain region, containing the state’s highest hills. Backbone Mountain, in Garrett County in westernmost Mary-

land, is the state’s highest point, at 3,360 ft (1,025 m). The mean elevation of the state is approximately 350 ft (107 m).

A few small islands lie in the Chesapeake Bay, Maryland’s dominant waterway. Extending 195 mi (314 km) inland from the Atlantic and varying in width from 3 to 20 mi (5–32 km), the bay comprises 3,237 sq mi (8,384 sq km), of which 1,726 sq km (4,470 sq km) are under Maryland’s jurisdiction. Principal rivers include the Potomac, forming much of the southern and western border; the Patapsco, which runs through Baltimore; the Patuxent, draining the Western Shore; and the Susquehanna, crossing the Pennsylvania border and emptying into the Chesapeake Bay in northeastern Maryland. The state has 23 rivers and other bays, as well as many lakes and creeks, none of any great size. The lowest point of the state is at sea level at the Atlantic Ocean.

³CLIMATE

Despite its small size, Maryland exhibits considerable climatic diversity. Temperatures vary from an annual average of 48°F (9°C) in the extreme western uplands to 59°F (15°C) in the southeast, where the climate is moderated by the Chesapeake Bay and the Atlantic Ocean. The annual average temperature for Baltimore is 56°F (13°C), ranging from 33°F (1°C) in January to 78°F (25°C) in July. The record high temperature for the state is 109°F (43°C), set on 10 July 1936 in Cumberland and Frederick counties; the record low, -40°F (-40°C), occurred on 13 January 1912 at Oakland in Garrett County.

Precipitation averages about 49 in (124 cm) annually in the southeast, but only 36 in (91 cm) in the Cumberland area west of the Appalachians; Baltimore averaged 41.9 in (106 cm) annually 1971–2000. As much as 100 in (254 cm) of snow falls in western

Garrett County, while 8–10 in (20–25 cm) is average for the Eastern Shore; and Baltimore receives about 20.8 in (52 cm).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Maryland's three life zones—coastal plain, piedmont, and Appalachian—mingle wildlife characteristic of both North and South. Most of the state lies within a hardwood belt in which red and white oaks, yellow poplar, beech, blackgum, hickory, and white ash are represented; shortleaf and loblolly pines are the leading softwoods. Honeysuckle, Virginia creeper, wild grape, and wild raspberry are also common. Wooded hillsides are rich with such wild flowers as Carolina cranesbill, trailing arbutus, Mayapple, early blue violet, wild rose, and goldenrod. Seven plant species were listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including Canby's dropwort, sandplain gerardia, northeastern bulrush, and harperella.

The white-tailed (Virginia) deer, eastern cottontail, raccoon, and red and gray foxes are indigenous to Maryland, although urbanization has sharply reduced their habitat. Common small mammals are the woodchuck, eastern chipmunk, and gray squirrel. The brown-headed nuthatch has been observed in the extreme south, the cardinal and tufted titmouse are common in the piedmont, and the chestnut-sided warbler and rose-breasted grosbeak are native to the Appalachians. Among saltwater species, shellfish—especially oysters, clams, and crabs—have the greatest economic importance. Eighteen Maryland animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006, including the Indiana bat, Maryland darter, bald eagle, Delmarva Peninsula fox squirrel, three species of whale, and five species of turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Maryland's Department of Natural Resources manages water allocation, fish and wildlife, state parks and forests, land reclamation and open space. The Maryland Department of the Environment (MDE) serves as the state's primary environmental protection agency. MDE protects and restores the quality of Maryland's land, air, and water by assessing, preventing and controlling sources of pollution for the benefit of public health, the environment and future generations. MDE regulations control the storage, transportation, and disposal of hazardous wastes and ensure long-term, environmentally sound solid waste recycling and disposal capabilities. In 2003, 45.5 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, Maryland had 168 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 17 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Andrews Air Force Base, Curtis Bay Coast Guard Yard, and Patuxent River Naval Air Station. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$962,000 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$2.3 million to support various Chesapeake Bay ecosystem protection projects.

MDE has broad regulatory, planning, and management responsibility for water quality, air quality, solid and hazardous waste management, stormwater management, sediment control, wetlands and waterways management, and water allocation. MDE also plays a pivotal role in Maryland's initiatives to protect and restore the Chesapeake Bay and has divided the state into 10 ma-

ior tributary watershed basins, each of which have specific nutrient reduction strategies designed to give the Bay added protection from the effects of stormwater run-off, airborne pollutants, and direct discharges. The Chesapeake Bay Estuarine Complex was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1987. In total, Maryland has about 591,000 acres (239,169 hectares) of wetlands.

MDE operates an innovative infrastructure financing program that leverages federal, state, and local funds to upgrade wastewater treatment plants, connect residents to public sewer systems, and improve water supply facilities. In addition, the Maryland Environmental Service, a quasi-public agency, contracts with local governments to design, construct, finance, and operate wastewater treatment plants, water supply systems, and recycling facilities.

The Maryland Department of Natural Resources (DNR) is responsible for the management, enhancement, and preservation of the state's living and natural resources. Utilizing an ecosystem approach to land, waterway, and species management, DNR programs and services support the health of the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries, sustainable populations of fishery and wildlife species, and an integrated network of public lands and open space.

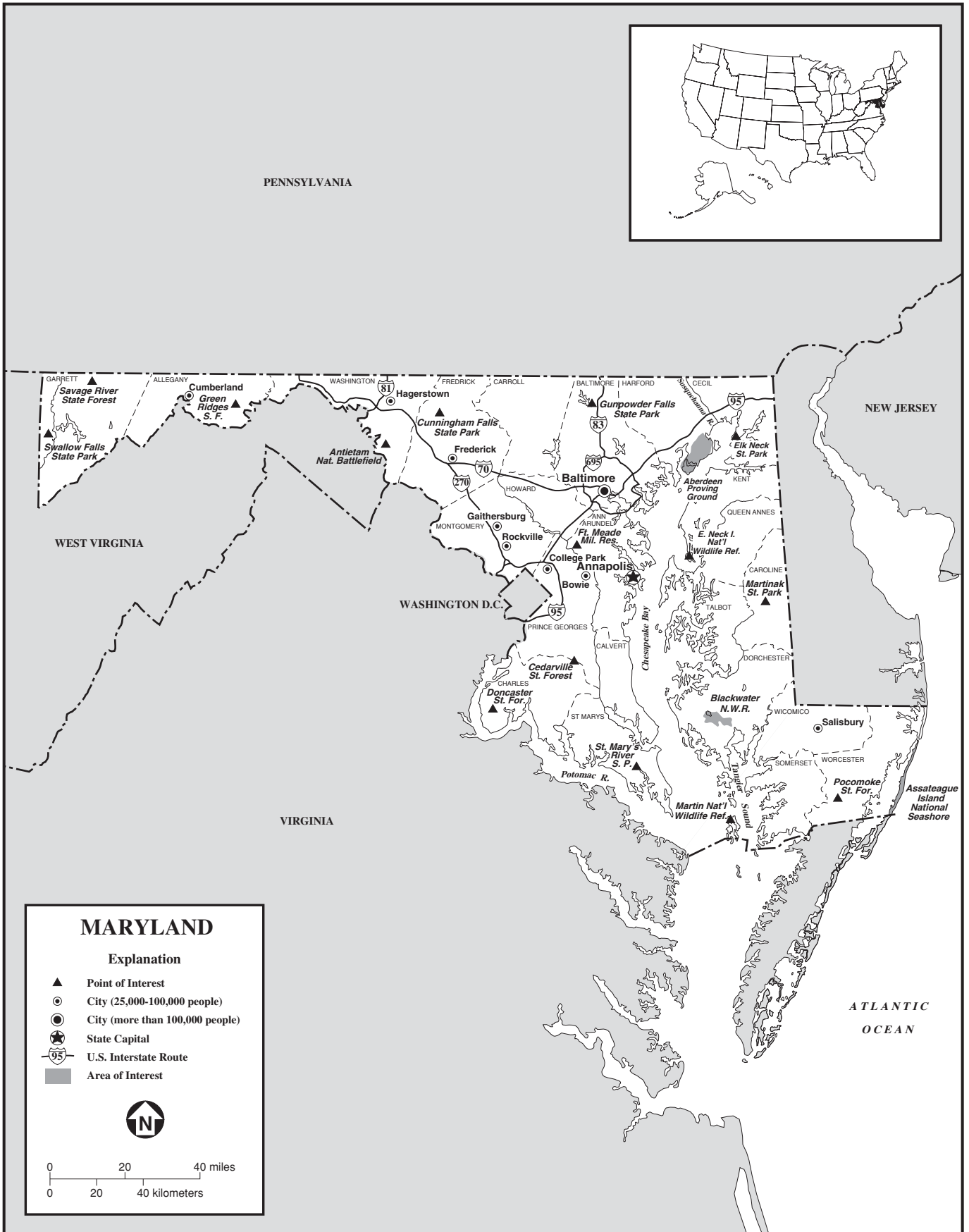
The Maryland Office of Planning's mission is to plan for the most effective development of the state and all of its resources. The Office assists state agencies and local governments to more effectively achieve environmental, agricultural, and natural resource objectives by integrating them with comprehensive planning and land use management. The state has recently embarked on a Neighborhood Conservation and Smart Growth initiative to encourage population and economic growth in priority funding areas, and to use a Rural Legacy Program to preserve agricultural, forest, and other rural lands from development.

6 POPULATION

Maryland ranked 19th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 5,600,388 in 2005, an increase of 5.7% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Maryland's population grew from 4,781,468 to 5,296,486, an increase of 10.8%. The population is projected to reach 6.2 million by 2015 and 6.7 million by 2025. In 2004 the median age was 36.8. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 25.1% of the population while 11.4% was age 65 or older.

The state's population doubled between 1940 and 1970 and increased 7.5% between 1970 and 1980. The enormous expansion of the federal government and exodus of people from Washington, DC, to the surrounding suburbs contributed to the rapid growth that made Maryland the 17th most populous state in 1980, with 4,216,446 residents. There was an increase of 13.4% between 1980 and 1990, when Maryland held the 19th ranking, with 4,781,468 people. The population density in 2004 was 572.3 persons per sq mi, the fifth-highest among the 50 states.

Almost all the growth since World War II has occurred in the four suburban counties around Washington, DC, and Baltimore. Metropolitan Baltimore, embracing Carroll, Howard, Hartford, Anne Arundel, and Baltimore counties, expanded from 2,244,700 to 2,491,254 between 1984 and 2000; the city of Baltimore, on the other hand, declined from 763,570 to 736,000 during the same period, and to an estimated 638,614 in 2002. Baltimore is the state's only major city; the estimated population in 2004 for the city prop-



PENNSYLVANIA



NEW JERSEY

WEST VIRGINIA

WASHINGTON D.C.

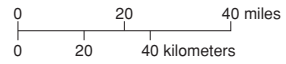
VIRGINIA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

MARYLAND

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 95 U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



er was 636,251. The Baltimore metropolitan area has an estimated population of 2,639,213 in 2004. Several west-central counties belong to the Washington metropolitan area, and Cecil County, in the northeast, is part of metropolitan Wilmington, Delaware.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Blacks, numbering 1,477,411 in 2000, constitute the largest racial minority in Maryland. About one-third of Maryland's black population lives in the city of Baltimore. In 2004, 29.1% of the population was black.

Hispanics and Latinos, mostly from Puerto Rico and Central America, numbered 227,000 in 2000 (4.3% of the total population), up from 125,000. In 2004, 5.4% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2000, the Asian population was relatively large: 39,155 Koreans, 49,400 Chinese (nearly double the 1990 total of 26,479), 26,608 Filipinos, 6,620 Japanese, and 16,744 Vietnamese (up from 7,809 in 1990); the total Asian population was estimated at 210,929 in 2000. In 2004, 4.6% of the population was Asian. Pacific Islanders numbered 2,303 in 2000. In 2004, 0.1% of the population was of Pacific Island origin.

Foreign-born residents numbered 518,315, or 9.8% of the total population, in 2000, up from 313,494, or 6.5%, in 1990. Many immigrated to Maryland in the 1970s. A significant proportion of the state's German, Polish, and Russian immigrants were Jewish refugees arriving just before and after World War II. In 2000, the combined Native American population (including Eskimos and Aleuts) was estimated at 15,423. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was of American Indian or Native Alaskan origin.

8 LANGUAGES

Several Algonkian tribes originally inhabited what is now Maryland. There are some Indian place-names, such as Potomac, Susquehanna, and Allegheny.

The state's diverse topography has contributed to unusual diversity in its basic speech. Geographical isolation of the Delmarva Peninsula, proximity to the Virginia piedmont population, and access to southeastern and central Pennsylvania helped to yield a language mixture that now is dominantly Midland and yet reflects earlier ties to Southern English.

Regional features occur as well. In the northeast are found eastern Pennsylvania *pavement* (sidewalk) and *baby coach* (baby carriage). In the north and west are *poke* (bag), *quarter till*, *sick on the stomach*, *openseed peach* (freestone peach), and Pennsylvania German *ponhaws* (scrapple). In the southern portion are found *light bread* (white bread), *curtain* (shade), *carry* (escort), *crop* as /krap/, and *bulge* with the vowel of *put*. East of Chesapeake Bay are *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), *paled fence* (picket fence), *poor* (rhyming with *mower*), and *Mary* with the vowel of *mate*. In central Maryland, an earthworm is a *baitworm*.

In 2000, some 4,322,329 residents, or 87% of the population five years old or older (down from 91.1% in 1990) spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil,

and Turkish. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	4,945,043	100.0
Speak only English	4,322,329	87.4
Speak a language other than English	622,714	12.6
Speak a language other than English	622,714	12.6
Spanish or Spanish Creole	230,829	4.7
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	42,838	0.9
Chinese	41,883	0.8
African languages	36,967	0.7
Korean	32,937	0.7
German	23,796	0.5
Tagalog	18,495	0.4
Russian	17,584	0.4
Vietnamese	14,891	0.3
Italian	13,798	0.3
Other Asian languages	12,405	0.3
Persian	11,951	0.2
Hindi	11,389	0.2
Other Indic languages	11,345	0.2
Greek	10,717	0.2
Arabic	10,458	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

Maryland was founded as a haven for Roman Catholics, who still make up the largest single religious group in the states although their political supremacy ended in 1692, when Anglicanism (now the Episcopal Church) became the established religion. Laws against "popery" were enacted by 1704 and Roman Catholic priests were harassed; the state constitution of 1776, however, placed all Christian faiths on an equal footing. The state's first Lutheran church was built in 1729, the first Baptist church in 1742, and the earliest Methodist church in 1760. Jews settled in Baltimore in the early 1800s, with a much larger wave of Jewish immigration in the late 19th century.

As of 2000, there were 952,389 Roman Catholics in Maryland; the Archdiocese of Baltimore reported 517,679 Catholics in 2005. Adherents of the major Protestant denominations (with 2000 data) include United Methodists, 297,729 members; Southern Baptists, 142,401 members; Evangelical Lutherans, 103,644 members; and Episcopalians, 81,061 members. In 2000, there were an estimated 216,000 Jews and about 52,867 Muslims. Though membership numbers were unavailable, reports indicate there were about 32 Buddhist congregations and 26 Hindu congregations in 2000. Over 3 million people (about 56.7% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

The Lutheran World Relief organization is based in Baltimore as is World Relief, an affiliate of the National Association of Evangelicals. The Adventist Community Services relief program is based in Silver Springs.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Some of the nation's earliest efforts toward the development of a reliable transportation system began in Maryland. In 1695, a public postal road was opened from the Potomac River through Annapolis and the Eastern Shore to Philadelphia. Construction on the National Road (now US 40) began at Cumberland in 1811; within seven years, the road was a conduit for settlers in Ohio. The first commercial steamboat service from Baltimore started in 1813, and steamboats were active all along the Chesapeake during

the 1800s. The Delaware and Chesapeake Canal, linking Chesapeake Bay and the Delaware River, opened in 1829.

Maryland's first railroad, the Baltimore and Ohio (B&O), was started in 1828. In 1835, it provided the first passenger train service to Washington, DC, and Harpers Ferry, Virginia (now West Virginia). By 1857, the line was extended to St. Louis, and its freight capacity helped build Baltimore into a major center of commerce. In the 1850s, the Pennsylvania Railroad began to buy up small Maryland lines and provide direct service to northern cities.

CSX Transportation and Norfolk Southern are the Class I railroads operating in the state, along with one regional, five local, and two switching and terminal railroads. As of 2003, total rail miles in Maryland amounted to 1,153 mi (1,856 km), including about 835 mi (1,343 km) of Class I track. The Maryland Transportation Department's Railroad Administration subsidizes four commuter lines, as well as freight lines in western Maryland and on the Eastern Shore. As of 2006, Amtrak operated four stations in Maryland, providing east–west service from Washington DC to Chicago and north–south service on the Northeast Corridor main line.

The Maryland Mass Transit Administration inaugurated Baltimore's first subway line on 21 November 1983. The combined underground-elevated line ran for 8 mi (13 km) from downtown Baltimore to Reisterstown Plaza. Later, the Baltimore Metro was extended for 6 mi (10 km) to Owings Mills, just outside the city limits. The Metro cost nearly \$1 billion to build. In 1984, the Washington, DC, mass transit system was extended to the Maryland suburbs, including Bethesda and Rockville.

About half of Maryland's roads serve metropolitan Baltimore and Washington. As of 2004, there were 30,809 mi (49,602 km) of public roadway. The major toll road is the John F. Kennedy Memorial Highway (I-95), linking Baltimore with Wilmington, Delaware, and the New Jersey Turnpike. There were 3,594,251 licensed drivers and 4.150 million motor vehicles of all types registered in Maryland as of 2004.

The Port of Baltimore handled 47.399 million tons of cargo in 2004, making it the 17th busiest port in the United States. Of that total, 24.950 million tons were imports that year. For that same year, Maryland had 532 mi (856 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 47.533 million tons.

In 2005, Maryland had a total of 221 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 145 airports, 69 heliports, 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 6 seaplane bases. Baltimore-Washington International (BWI) Airport is the state's main air terminal and also serves the Washington DC, area. In 2004, Baltimore–Washington had 10,103,563 enplanements, making it the 23rd-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

The Indian tribes living in the region that was to become Maryland were Algonkian-speakers: the Accomac, Nanticoke, and Wicomico on the Eastern Shore, and the Susquehannock, Yacomico, and Piscataway on the Western Shore. The Susquehannock, the most powerful tribe at the time of English colonization, claimed all the land lying between the Susquehanna and Potomac rivers. Although the Algonkian Indians hunted for much of their food, many tribes (including the Susquehannock) also had permanent settlements where they cultivated corn (maize), vegetables, tobac-

co, and other crops. George Alsop, in his *Character of the Province of Maryland* (1666), noted that Susquehannock women “are the Butchers, Cooks, and Tillers of the ground but the men think it below the honour of a Masculine to stoop to any thing but that which their Gun, or Bow and Arrows can Command.” European penetration of the Chesapeake region began early in the 16th century, with the expeditions of Giovanni da Verrazano, a Florentine navigator, and the Spaniard Lucas Vázquez de Ayllón. Captain John Smith, leader of the English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, was the first English explorer of Chesapeake Bay (1608) and produced a map of the area that was used for years.

The founding of Maryland is intimately tied to the career of another Englishman, George Calvert. A favorite of King James I, Calvert left the Church of England in 1624 to become a Roman Catholic. He announced his conversion in 1625 and—because Catholics were not allowed to hold public office in England at that time—then resigned his post as secretary of state and, against the king's wishes, retired from the royal court. As a reward for Calvert's service, the king bestowed upon him large Irish estates and a peerage with the title of Baron of Baltimore. Two years later, Calvert sailed for the New World, landing in Newfoundland, to which he had received title in 1621. After a severe winter, however, Calvert decided to seek his fortunes where the weather was warmer—in Virginia. Not well-received there because of his religion, Calvert returned to England and asked King Charles I (James's successor) for land south of Virginia; instead he received a grant north of the Potomac. Virginia's agents in England contested Calvert's right to this land strenuously but unsuccessfully, and when he died in 1632, the title passed to his son Cecilius Calvert, 2nd Baron Baltimore (usually called Lord Baltimore), who named the region Maryland after the queen consort of Charles I, Henrietta Maria. At this time, the land grant embraced not only present-day Maryland but also the present State of Delaware, a large part of Pennsylvania, and the valley between the north and south branches of the Potomac River. Not until the 1760s was the final boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland (as surveyed by Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon) established by royal decree, and nearly a century passed before Maryland conceded to Virginia the land between the north and south branches of the Potomac.

The government of provincial Maryland was absolute, embodying the most extensive grant of royal powers to a colonial settlement. Lord Baltimore's main source of income as lord proprietary was the quitrents settlers paid for their land; in return for his authority, Calvert had to give the king only two Indian arrows yearly. Lord Baltimore assigned to his half-brother, Leonard Calvert, the task of organizing the settlement of the colony. On 22 November 1633, Calvert and approximately 250 settlers, including many Roman Catholics and two Jesuit priests, set sail for America on two ships, the *Ark* and the *Dove*. They landed at St. Clements Island on 25 March 1634. Two days later, Calvert purchased a site from the Indians, named it St. Marys (the first capital of Maryland), and assumed the governorship of the colony.

The early days of settlement were tumultuous. The refusal by a Virginia colonist, William Claiborne of Kent Island, to acknowledge Lord Baltimore's charter led to a small war that ended in 1638 with a temporary victory for Governor Calvert. The conflict in England during the 1640s found an echo in the struggle between Puritans and Roman Catholics in Maryland, a conflict that saw

the two-year exile of Governor Calvert to Virginia, the assumption of power by English representatives (including Claiborne and one of the Puritan leaders) in 1652, a subsequent civil war, and finally the recognition of Lord Baltimore's charter by Oliver Cromwell in 1657.

Cecilius Calvert died in 1675. His successor was Charles Calvert, 3rd Baron Baltimore and the next lord proprietary. His tenure, which lasted until 1715, saw a decisive change in the character of the province. In 1689, with Protestants ascendant in both England and Maryland, the British crown assumed direct control over the province, and in 1692, the Church of England became Maryland's established religion. When Charles Calvert died, his successor, Benedict Leonard Calvert, 4th Baron Baltimore, was granted full proprietary rights—but only because he had embraced the Protestant faith. Proprietary rule continued through his legitimate heirs until the eve of the American Revolution.

Throughout this period, the upper and lower houses of the colonial assembly—consisting, respectively, of the governor and his council and of delegates elected from the counties—quarreled over taxation and the extension of English statutes to free Marylanders. Having already secured most rights from the proprietor, the lower house was somewhat reluctant to vote for independence from the British crown, on whose authority the proprietary government now rested. After its initial hesitancy, however, Maryland cast its lot with the Revolution and sent approximately 20,000 soldiers to fight in the war. The Continental Congress met in Baltimore from December 1776 to March 1777 and in Annapolis from November 1783 to June 1784. These cities were thus among the eight that served as US capitals before the designation of a permanent seat of government in Washington, DC.

Maryland was one of the last states to sign the Articles of Confederation, not ratifying them until other states dropped their claims to what later became the Northwest Territory. On 28 April 1788, Maryland became the seventh state to ratify the federal Constitution. The state constitution, drawn up in 1776, was weighted heavily in favor of property holders and the rural counties, at the expense of the propertyless and the city of Baltimore; the legislature removed the property qualifications in 1810.

Maryland's prosperity during the colonial and early federal period waxed and waned according to the world price of tobacco, the staple crop of tidewater and southern Maryland. Planters increasingly employed slave labor on farms and plantations, and the black population grew rapidly in the 18th century. German immigrants began moving into western Maryland, where wheat became the primary crop. The cultivation of wheat also helped make Baltimore's fortune. Founded in 1729 and incorporated in 1796, the city of Baltimore was blessed with a harbor well suited to the export and import trade. As commerce developed, shipbuilding emerged as a major economic activity. By the early 19th century, Baltimore was already the state's major center of commerce and industry.

The city and harbor were the site of extensive naval and military operations during the War of 1812. It was during the bombardment of Ft. McHenry in 1814 that Francis Scott Key, detained on the British frigate, composed "The Star-Spangled Banner," which became the US national anthem in March 1931.

After the War of 1812, Maryland history was marked by the continued growth of Baltimore and increasing division over im-

migration, slavery, and secession. The chartering in 1827 of the Baltimore and Ohio (B and O) Railroad, which eventually linked Maryland with the markets of the Ohio Valley and the West, added to the city's economic vitality. But distrust of the thousands of newcomers—especially of Irish immigrants and their Roman Catholicism—and fear of the economic threat they supposedly represented spurred the rise of nativist political groups, such as the Know-Nothings, who persecuted the immigrants and dominated Maryland politics in the 1850s.

Although not many Marylanders were in favor of secession, they were hostile to the idea of using force against the secessionist states. On 19 April 1861, as the 6th Massachusetts Regiment passed through Baltimore, it was attacked by a mob of southern sympathizers in a riot that left 4 soldiers and 12 civilians dead. Ten days later, the Maryland house of delegates, following the lead of Governor Thomas Hicks, rejected a bill of secession. Throughout the Civil War, Maryland was largely occupied by Union troops because of its strategic location and the importance for the northern cause of the B and O Railroad. Marylanders fought on both sides during the war, and one major battle took place on Maryland soil—the Battle of Antietam (1862), during which a Union army thwarted a Confederate thrust toward the north, but at an enormous cost to both sides. Confederate armies invaded the state on two other occasions, when General Robert E. Lee brought his troops through the state on the way to Gettysburg in 1863 and when Lieutenant general Jubal Early ravaged the Hagerstown area and threatened Baltimore in 1864. The Maryland legislature, almost totally pro-Union by 1864, passed a new constitution, which among other things abolished slavery.

The state's economic activity increased during Reconstruction, as Maryland, and especially Baltimore, played a major role in rebuilding the South. Maryland's economic base gradually shifted from agriculture to industry, with shipbuilding, steelmaking, and the manufacture of clothing and shoes leading the way. The decades between the Civil War and World War I were also notable for the philanthropic activities of such wealthy businessmen as John Hopkins, George Peabody, and Enoch Pratt, who endowed some of the state's most prestigious cultural and educational institutions. The years after World War I saw the emergence of a political figure without equal in Maryland's more recent history: Albert C. Ritchie, a Democrat who won election to the governorship in 1919 and served in that office until 1935, just one year before his death. Stressing local issues, states' rights, and opposition to prohibition, Ritchie remained in power until Harry W. Nice, a Republican but an advocate of New Deal reforms, defeated him in 1934.

The decades after World War II were marked by significant population growth. From 1980 to 1990 alone, Maryland grew by 13.4%, well above the national rate of 9.8%. Baltimore, which, though still the hub of the state's economy, had fallen into decay and became the focus of a redevelopment project. Much of the downtown area and harbor facilities were revitalized by urban projects, begun in the late 1970s and continued into the 21st century. These featured the Charles Center development, the waterfront renovation of the Inner Harbor, Oriole Park at Camden Yards, and a \$150-million convention center at the Inner Harbor.

Although Maryland's economy declined less than those of other states during the recession of the late 1980s, the state suffered from the contraction of defense industry. Nevertheless, service indus-

try employment, primarily in the Baltimore-Washington corridor, gave Maryland the fifth-highest state income in the country as of the mid-1990s—a ranking it maintained as of 1998. Federal government and high-tech employment accounted for many of these jobs. As of 2004, Maryland had the third-highest median household income among the states, at \$57,424, which is 29% higher than the national median. Maryland in 2004 ranked fourth among the states in per capita personal income (\$39,247). Maryland had the sixth-lowest poverty rate in the nation in 2004, at 8.8%, compared with 13.1% for the nation as a whole.

Maryland's 370-year history of tobacco farming appeared to be drawing to a close in 2000. Nearly 90% of the state's tobacco farmers indicated they would accept a government buyout later that year. The crop that had settled the Chesapeake had become risky, with the tobacco industry under attack for the health hazards of its products. The state by 2003 had implemented a tobacco buyout program, whereby the state agreed to pay farmers \$1 per pound of tobacco that they would sell for the following 10 years based on the average amount of tobacco they sold between 1996 and 1998. Farmers agree to plant alternative crops instead of tobacco. As of January 2004, 785 growers were to participate in the buyout program, representing 80% of eligible growers and 7.3 million lb of tobacco.

The environmental cleanup of Chesapeake Bay, begun in the mid-1980s, continued into the 21st century. In an effort to further protect the bay's ecosystem, in 1999 Maryland Governor Parris Glendening announced a plan to protect 60,000 forested acres on the Eastern Shore from development. Nevertheless, the bay faced more immediate threats such as the April 2000 oil spill into the Patuxent River, which flows into the Chesapeake. Federal officials faulted Maryland Power Company for its efforts to clean up the spill, the worst in the company's 104-year history. Governor Rob-

ert L. Ehrlich Jr., elected in 2002, was continuing the cleanup of the Chesapeake Bay.

In 2005, Governor Ehrlich announced conservation of 828 acres near Antietam Battlefield. The plan supported Maryland's \$9.3 billion tourism industry, and provides environmental benefits for the state. Annually, 11 million visitors take advantage of Maryland's parks and natural, historic, and cultural resources.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Maryland's first state constitution was enacted in 1776. Subsequent constitutions were ratified in 1851, 1864, and 1867. By January 2005, it had 218 amendments.

Under the 1867 constitution, as amended, the General Assembly, Maryland's legislative body, consists of two branches: a 47-member Senate and a 141-member house of delegates. Legislative sessions begin the second Wednesday of January of each year and are limited to 90 calendar days. Special sessions, which are limited to 30 calendar days, may be called by a petition of the majority in each house. All legislators serve four-year terms and must have been citizens of the state for at least a year and of their district for at least six months prior to election. Senators must be at least 25 years old, delegates 21. The legislative salary was \$31,509 in 2004.

Executives elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (who run jointly), the comptroller of the treasury, and the attorney general; all serve four-year terms. The state treasurer is elected by joint ballot of the General Assembly, while the secretary of state is appointed by the governor. The governor, who may serve no more than two four-year terms in succession, also appoints other members of the executive council (cabinet) and the heads of major boards and commissions. The chief executive must be a US citizen at least 30 years old, must have been a resident of Maryland for five years before election, and must have been a reg-

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MARYLAND WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	SOCIALIST
1948	8	Dewey (R)	286,521	294,814	9,983	2,467	2,941
1952	9	*Eisenhower (R)	395,337	499,424	7,313	—	—
1956	9	*Eisenhower (R)	372,613	559,738	—	—	—
1960	9	*Kennedy (D)	565,808	489,538	—	—	—
1964	10	*Johnson (D)	730,912	385,495	—	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.		
1968	10	Humphrey (D)	538,310	517,995	178,734	—	—
					AMERICAN		
1972	10	*Nixon (R)	505,781	829,305	18,726	—	—
1976	10	*Carter (D)	759,612	672,661	—	—	—
						LIBERTARIAN	
1980	10	Carter (D)	726,161	680,606	—	14,192	—
1984	10	*Reagan (R)	787,935	879,918	—	5,721	—
1988	10	*Bush (R)	826,304	876,167	5,115	6,748	—
							IND. (Perot)
1992	10	*Clinton (D)	988,571	707,094	2,786	4,715	281,414
1996	10	*Clinton (D)	966,207	681,530	—	8,765	115,812
					GREEN		REFORM
2000	10	Gore (D)	1,145,782	813,797	53,768	5,310	4,248
							POPULIST
							(Nader)
2004	10	Kerry (D)	1,334,493	1,024,703	3,632	6,094	11,854

*Won US presidential election.

istered voter in the state for five years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$135,000.

Bills passed by majority vote of both houses of the assembly become law when signed by the governor or if left unsigned for six days while the legislature is in session or 30 days if the legislature has adjourned. The only exception is the budget bill, which becomes effective immediately upon legislative passage. Gubernatorial vetoes may be overridden by three-fifths votes of the elected members in both houses. Proposed constitutional amendments also require approval by three-fifths of both houses of the legislature before submission to the voters at the next general election.

Eligible voters are US citizens who are at least 18 years old and are residents of the Maryland county in which they will vote. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republican and Democratic parties are the dominant political groups in Maryland. Before the Civil War, the Democrats drew much of their strength from the slaveholding Eastern Shore, while their opponents, the Whigs, were popular in Baltimore and other centers of antislavery activity. The collapse of the Whigs on both the national and local levels corresponded with the rise in Maryland of the Native American ("Know-Nothing") Party, whose anti-immigrant and anti-Catholic attitudes appealed to Marylanders who saw their livelihood threatened by Roman Catholic immigrants. The Know-Nothings swept Baltimore in 1855 and won the governorship in 1857; Maryland was the only state to cast its electoral votes for the Know-Nothing presidential candidate, Millard Fillmore, in 1856. The Native American Party declined rapidly, however, and by 1860, Maryland was back in the Democratic column, voting for the secessionist John Breckinridge.

Revelations of influence peddling and corruption afflicted both major parties during the 1970s. In 1973, Republican Spiro T. Agnew, then vice president of the United States, was accused of taking payments from people who had done business with the state government while he was Baltimore County executive and then governor of Maryland until 1969. Agnew pleaded nolo contendere to a federal charge of income tax evasion and resigned from the vice-presidency on 10 October 1973. His gubernatorial successor, Democrat Marvin Mandel, was convicted of mail fraud and racketeering in 1977; he served 20 months of a 36-month prison sentence before receiving a presidential pardon in 1981.

Maryland was one of the few states carried by President Jimmy Carter in the November 1980 presidential election, but four years later the state went for President Ronald Reagan in the national Republican landslide. In 2000, Maryland gave 57% of its vote to Democrat Al Gore, 40% to Republican George W. Bush, and 3% to Green Party candidate Ralph Nader. In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerry won 55.7% of the vote to incumbent Bush's 44.6%.

In the 1994 governor's race, one of the closest in Maryland history, Democrat Parris N. Glendening won; he was reelected in 1998. Republican Robert L. Ehrlich Jr. was elected governor in 2002. The two senators from Maryland, Paul S. Sarbanes and Barbara Mikulski, both Democrats, were reelected in 2000 and 2004, respectively. In 2004 there were 3,105,000 registered voters. In

1998, 58% of registered voters were Democratic, 20% Republican, and 12% unaffiliated or members of other parties.

Following the November 2004 elections, Maryland's US congressional delegation consisted of six Democrats and two Republicans. In mid-2005 there were 33 Democrats and 14 Republicans in the state Senate, and 98 Democrats and 43 Republicans in the state House. The state had 10 electoral votes in the 2000 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, there were 24 counties, 157 municipal governments, and 85 special districts in Maryland. Most counties have charter governments, in which voters elect a county executive and council members. The other counties, which tend to be rural, are governed by boards of county commissioners. County government is highly developed in Maryland, and there are numerous appointed county officials with responsibilities ranging from civil defense to liquor licensing.

The city of Baltimore is the only one in Maryland not contained within a county. It provides the same services as a county, and shares in state aid according to the same allocation formulas. The city (not to be confused with Baltimore County, which surrounds the city of Baltimore but has its county seat at Towson) is governed by an elected mayor and city council. Other cities and towns are each governed by a mayor, with or without a council, depending on the local charter. In 2005, Maryland had 25 public school systems.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 187,955 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Maryland operates under the authority of executive order; the homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The State Ethics Commission, established in 1979, monitors compliance by state officeholders and employees with the Maryland public ethics law in order to avoid conflicts of interest; the Joint Committee on Legislative Ethics, created in 1972, has similar responsibilities with respect to General Assembly members. The Fair Campaign Financing Commission provides for the public financing of elections and sets campaign spending limits.

The State Board of Education is an independent policymaking body whose 12 members are appointed by the governor; its responsibilities include selection of a superintendent of schools to run the Education Department. The growth and development of postsecondary institutions are the responsibility of the Maryland Higher Education Commission. The Department of Transportation oversees air, road, rail, bridge, and mass transit. The Department of Health and Mental Hygiene coordinates public health programs, regulates in-state medical care, and supervises the 24 local health departments. Social services and public assistance programs as well as employment security lie within the jurisdiction of the Department of Human Resources. The Department of Housing and Community Development assures the provision of low-cost housing. The Department of Business and Economic Development advances job opportunities and works to bring new

businesses into the state. It also serves in a public relations capacity at home and abroad to stimulate international trade and tourism, and also invests in the arts and promotes sports events.

Maryland's Department of Public Safety and Correctional Services has statewide responsibility for the supervision and rehabilitation of adjudicated individuals, while the Department of Labor, Licensing, and Regulation supervises employment training, job match services, unemployment insurance, and many of the state's licensing and regulatory boards for businesses and trades. The Department of State Police enforces state motor vehicle and criminal laws, preserves public peace, maintains safe traffic on public streets and highways, enforces laws relating to narcotics, and incorporates the office of the State Fire Marshal. Other organizations include the departments of agriculture, assessments and taxation, natural resources, personnel, and rehabilitation services (for those with disabilities).

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Court of Appeals is Maryland's highest court. It is comprised of a chief judge and six associate judges. Each is appointed to the court by the governor, but must be confirmed by the voters within two years of appointment. Most criminal appeals are decided by the court of special appeals, consisting of a chief judge and 12 associate judges, selected in the same manner as judges of the high court. Each case must be heard by a panel of at least three judges of the high court. All state judges serve 10-year terms.

In 1971, 12 district courts took the place of all justices of the peace, county trial judges, magistrates, people's courts, and the municipal court of Baltimore. District courts handle all criminal, civil, and traffic cases, with appeals being taken to one of eight circuit courts. Circuit court judges are appointed by the governor and stand for election to 15-year terms. District court judges are appointed by the governor and confirmed by the Senate to 10-year terms. The city of Baltimore and all counties except Montgomery and Hartford have orphans' courts composed of two judges and one chief judge, all of them elected to four-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 23,285 prisoners were held in Maryland's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 23,791 of 2.1% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,180 inmates were female, down from 1,248 or 5.4% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Maryland had an incarceration rate of 406 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Maryland in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 700.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population (third-highest among the states in the United States after Florida and South Carolina), or a total of 38,932 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 202,326 reported incidents or 3,640.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Maryland has a death penalty, of which lethal injection or lethal gas are the methods of execution. However, the latter method is open only to those inmates convicted of capital offenses that were committed on or after 25 March 1994. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state executed five persons, including one execution in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, Maryland had eight inmates on death row.

In 2003, Maryland spent \$495,455,173 on homeland security, an average of \$91 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

As of 2004, there were 35,531 active US military personnel in Maryland, 2,593 National Guard and Reserve, and 25,417 civilian personnel. Ft. Meade is located in Baltimore, and the Aberdeen Proving Ground is in Harford County. Perhaps Maryland's best-known defense installation is Andrews Air Force Base in Camp Springs, a military airlift center. Annapolis is the home of the US Naval Academy. Total military personnel at all naval facilities, including the National Naval Medical Center at Bethesda, was 7,335 in 2004. Federal defense contract awards to Maryland firms were approximately \$9.2 billion in 2004, fourth-highest in the United States for that year. In addition, there was another \$4.9 billion in defense payroll spending, including retired military pay.

There were 486,298 veterans of US military service in Maryland as of 2003, of whom 57,970 served in World War II; 46,740 in the Korean conflict; 142,266 during the Vietnam era; and 86,225 in the Gulf War. In 2004, expenditures on veterans exceeded \$1.1 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Maryland State Police employed 1,575 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Maryland's earliest white settlers were English; many of them farmed lands on the Eastern Shore. As tobacco crops wore out the soil, these early immigrants moved on to the fertile Western Shore and piedmont. During the 19th century, Baltimore ranked second only to New York as a port of entry for European immigrants. First to come were the Germans, followed by the Irish, Poles, East European Jews, and Italians; a significant number of Czechs settled in Cecil County during the 1860s. After the Civil War, many blacks migrated to Baltimore, both from rural Maryland and from southern states.

Since World War II, intrastate migration has followed the familiar urban/suburban pattern: both the Baltimore metropolitan area and the Maryland part of the metropolitan Washington, DC, area have experienced rapid growth while the inner cities have lost population. Overall, Maryland experienced a net loss from migration of about 36,000 between 1970 and 1980, much of it to Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Florida; the out-migration stopped during the 1980s, however, with a net gain of over 200,000 from 1980 to 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, Maryland had a net loss of 49,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 118,000 in international migration. Maryland's foreign-born population totaled 412,000, or 8% of the total population, in 1996. In 1998, 15,561 foreign immigrants arrived in the state—the 10th-highest total of any state for that year. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 7.4%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 108,972 and net internal migration was 9,752, for a net gain of 118,724 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Maryland is active in several regional organizations, including the Southern Regional Education Board, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Appalachian Regional

Commission, Susquehanna River Basin Commission (with Pennsylvania and New York), and the Potomac River Fisheries Commission (with Virginia). Representatives of Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia form the Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Authority, which coordinates regional mass transit. Other cooperation focuses on the Chesapeake Bay, and on the creation of the Woodrow Wilson Bridge and Tunnel. The Delmarva Advisory Council, representing Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, works with local organizations on the Delmarva Peninsula to develop and implement economic improvement programs. In fiscal year 2005, federal grants to Maryland totaled \$8.589 billion, an estimated \$8.892 billion in fiscal year 2006, before falling to an estimated \$8.217 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Throughout the colonial period, Maryland's economy was based on one crop—tobacco. Not only slaves but also indentured servants worked the fields, and when they earned their freedom, they too secured plots of land and grew tobacco for the European market. By 1820, however, industry was rivaling agriculture for economic preeminence. Shipbuilding, metalworking, and commerce transformed Baltimore into a major city. Within 60 years, it was a leading manufacturer of men's clothing and had the largest steel making plant in the United States.

Although manufacturing output continues to rise, the biggest growth areas in Maryland's economy are government, construction, trade, and services. Maryland employees are the best educated in the nation, with more than one-third of those over age 25 possessing a bachelor's degree in 2000. With the expansion of federal employment in the Washington metropolitan area by 40% from 1961 to 1980, many US government workers settled in suburban Maryland, primarily Prince George's and Montgomery counties. Construction and services in those areas expanded accordingly. The growth of state government boosted employment in Anne Arundel and Baltimore counties. Also of importance to the economy are fishing and agriculture (primarily dairy and poultry farming) on the Eastern Shore and coal mining in Garrett and Allegheny counties. Manufacturing has shifted toward high technology, information, and health-related products. While manufacturing output (durable and nondurable goods) has continued to grow, its relative weight in the gross state product has fallen from 8.5% in 1997 to 6.1% in 2004. Annual growth rates averaged 6.2% 1998 to 2000, and only fell to 5.4% in the national recession and slowdown of 2001. Increased federal government spending, particularly in defense-related industries, is expected to assure Maryland's economic recovery in 2002, and into 2003.

Maryland's gross state product (GSP) was \$227.991 billion in 2004, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest portion at \$34.763 billion or 15.2% of GSP, followed by professional and technical services at \$22.780 billion (9.9% of GSP), and health-care and social services at \$16.815 billion (7.3% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 477,233 small businesses in Maryland. Of the 137,338 businesses that had employees, a total of 134,095 or 97.6% were small companies. An estimated 21,751 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 5.1% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 20,636, down 4.9% from 2003. There were 417 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 20.3% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's per-

sonal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 618 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Maryland as the 19th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Maryland had a gross state product (GSP) of \$245 billion which accounted for 2.0% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 15 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Maryland had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$39,631. This ranked fifth in the United States and was 120% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. Maryland had a total personal income (TPI) of \$220,402,185,000, which ranked 14th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.5%. Earnings of persons employed in Maryland increased from \$145,140,178,000 in 2003 to \$155,190,491,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.9%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$56,763 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 8.6% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Maryland numbered 2,997,700, with approximately 105,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.5%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,580,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Maryland was 8.3% in August 1982. The historical low was 3.3% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 7.3% of the labor force was employed in construction; 5.3% in manufacturing; 18.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.2% in financial activities; 15% in professional and business services; 14% in education and health services; 9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 18.2% in government.

Baltimore was a leading trade union center by the early 1830s although union activity subsided after the Panic of 1837. The Baltimore Federation of Labor was formed in 1889, and by 1900, the coal mines had been organized by the United Mine Workers. In 1902, Maryland passed the first workers' compensation law in the United States. It was declared unconstitutional in 1904 but was subsequently revived.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 337,000 of Maryland's 2,530,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 13.3% of those so employed, up from 10.9% in 2004, and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 379,000 workers (15%) in Maryland were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Maryland is one of 28 states that do not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Maryland had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Maryland ranked 36th among the 50 states in agricultural income in 2005, with estimated receipts of \$1,666 million, about 41% of that in crops.

Until the Revolutionary War, tobacco was the state's only cash crop; in 2004, Maryland produced an estimated 1,870,000 lb of tobacco. Corn and cereal grains are grown mainly in southern Maryland. Production in 2004 included 65,025,000 bushels of corn for grain; 21,285,000 bushels of soybeans, \$112,811,000; 8,555,000 bushels of wheat, \$26,093,000, and 2,847,000 bushels of barley, \$5,409,000. Commercial vegetables, cultivated primarily on the Eastern Shore, were valued at \$36.6 million in 2004. Fruits are also cultivated.

Maryland had some 12,100 farms covering 2,050,000 acres (830,000 hectares) in 2004.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The Eastern Shore is an important dairy and poultry region; cattle are raised in north-central and western Maryland, while the central region is notable for horse breeding. In 2003, poultry farmers produced an estimated 6.4 million lb (2.9 million kg) of chickens and 1.37 billion lb (0.63 billion kg) of broilers for around \$494.7 million. Also in 2003, Maryland farmers produced an estimated 813 million eggs worth around \$46.2 million.

An estimated 1.2 billion lb (0.6 billion kg) of milk was produced in 2003 from 78,000 dairy cows. Maryland farms and ranches had an estimated 235,000 cattle and calves worth around \$237 million in 2005. In 2004, there were an estimated 26,000 hogs and pigs, worth \$2.6 million.

25 FISHING

In 2004, Maryland had a total commercial catch of 49.5 million lb (22.5 million kg), valued at \$49.2 million. Maryland is a leading source of oysters, clams, and crabs. About 19% of the nation's supply of hard blue crabs comes from Maryland. Ocean City is the state's leading fishing port.

In 2003, the state had 17 processing and 58 wholesale plants with a total of about 1,417 employees. In 2001, the commercial fleet had at least 32 vessels.

The Fisheries Administration of the Department of Natural Resources monitors fish populations and breeds and implants oysters. It also stocks inland waterways with finfish. The state has five cold water and four warm water hatcheries. Maryland had 362,181 licensed sport anglers in 2004.

26 FORESTRY

Maryland's 2,566,000 acres (1,139,000 hectares) of forestland covers about 40% of the state's land area. More than 90% of that (2,372,000 acres/961,570 hectares) was classified as commercial forest, 90% of it privately owned. Hardwoods predominate, with red and white oaks and yellow poplar among the leading hard-

wood varieties. Lumber production in 2004 was 272 million board feet.

Forest management and improvement lie within the jurisdiction of the Maryland Department of Natural Resources Forest Service.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Maryland in 2003 was \$382 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 4.5%. The USGS data ranked Maryland as 33rd among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for 1% of total US output.

Portland cement, crushed stone, and construction sand and gravel were the state's leading nonfuel minerals, by value, in 2003. Collectively, these three commodities (with crushed marble, shell and taprock) accounted for over 95% of the state's output of non-fuel minerals, by value.

According to preliminary figures from the USGS for 2003, the production of portland cement in Maryland totaled 1.9 million metric tons, and was valued at \$143 million. Crushed stone output that same year stood at 21.8 million metric tons, and had a value of \$138 million, while construction sand and gravel production totaled 11.4 million metric tons and was valued at \$78.1 million). Maryland in 2003 was also a producer of dimension stone and common clays.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Maryland had 24 electrical power service providers, of which 5 were publicly owned and 3 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, one was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers, while six were generation only suppliers and five were delivery only service providers. As of that same year there were 2,295,305 retail customers. Of that total, 2,010,338 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 174,291 customers, while publicly owned providers had 32,111 customers. There was only one independent generator or "facility" customer. Generation-only suppliers had 78,564 customers. There was no data on the number of customers using delivery-only providers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 12.472 million kW, with total production that same year at 52.244 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, only 0.1% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 99.9% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 29.939 billion kWh (57.3%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 13.690 billion kWh (18.9%) and petroleum fueled plants in third at 3.572 billion kWh (6.8%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 1.7% of all power generated, with hydroelectric accounting for 5.1%, natural gas fueled plants at 2.3%, plants using other types of gases at 0.6%.

As of 2006, Maryland had one nuclear power generating facility, the Calvert Cliffs plant.

Coal, Maryland's lone fossil fuel resource, is mined in Allegheny and Garrett counties, along the Pennsylvania border. In 2004, Maryland had 19 producing coal mines, 16 of which were surface

mines and 3 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 5,225,000 short tons, up from 5,056,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, the state's three underground mines accounted for the bulk at 3,339,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2001 totaled 17 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

As of 2004, Maryland had no crude oil refineries, nor any proven reserves, or production.

In 2004, Maryland had seven producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In 2003 (the latest year for which data was available), marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 48 million cu ft (1.36 million cu m). There was no data available on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

29 INDUSTRY

During the early 1800s, Maryland's first industries centered around the Baltimore shipyards. Small ironworks cast parts for sailing vessels, and many laborers worked as shipbuilders. By the 1850s, Baltimore was also producing weather-measuring instruments and fertilizers, and by the 1930s, it was a major center of metal refining. The city remains an important manufacturer of automobiles and parts, steel, and instruments. Manufacturing is led by the printing and publishing industry, the food industry, the machinery industry, and the chemical industry.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Maryland's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$36.489 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$5.839 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$5.477 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$4.990 billion; transport equipment manufacturing at \$2.394 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$2.175 billion.

In 2004, a total of 135,773 people in Maryland were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 85,668 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 23,880, with 6,897 actual production workers. It was followed by printing and related support activities at 15,332 employees (11,195 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 14,147 employees (10,187 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 12,297 employees (8,699 actual production workers); chemical manufacturing at 9,626 employees (5,694 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 8,224 employees (5,003 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 6,851 employees (5,189 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Maryland's manufacturing sector paid \$6.309 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.653 billion. It was followed by printing and related support activities at \$556.758 million; chemical manufacturing at \$528.906 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$490.015 million; and food manufacturing at \$471.262 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Maryland's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$60.6 billion from 6,104 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 3,764 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,813 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 527 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$30.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$22.8 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$6.9 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Maryland was listed as having 19,394 retail establishments with sales of \$60.06 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (3,332); clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,918); miscellaneous store retailers (2,075); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,746). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$16.3 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$10.5 billion; general merchandise stores at \$7.7 billion; building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$4.8 billion; and gasoline stations at \$4.1 billion. A total of 285,561 people were employed by the retail sector in Maryland that year.

Most of Maryland's retail facilities are located in the Baltimore metropolitan area and Montgomery and Prince George's counties surrounding Washington, DC. These counties are home to about 90% of Maryland's 5 million residents. The Washington-Baltimore Consolidated Metropolitan Statistical Area is among the nation's top 10 retail markets.

Exports by Maryland companies totaled \$7.1 billion in 2005. While export activities in established markets such as Europe and Canada are still predominant, strong inroads have been made in targeted trade areas of Asia and Latin America.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The state agency generally responsible for controlling unfair and deceptive trade practices is the Division of Consumer Protection within the Attorney General's Office. However, consumer complaints involving state-chartered financial institutions are the responsibility of the Office of Financial Regulation, while the state's automotive "Lemon Law" is the responsibility of the Motor Vehicle Administration, which is part of the Department of Transportation, although any litigation is handled by the Attorney General's Office.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings (the latter must be done in conjunction with the local district attorney); administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General cannot represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office cannot act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own, but can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; file criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other

governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Consumer Protection Division's main office is located in Baltimore, but it also has regional offices in Cumberland, Frederick, Hagerstown, Hughesville and Salisbury. County government consumer protection offices are located in Columbia and Rockville.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Maryland had 113 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 11 state-chartered and 109 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Washington DC-Arlington-Alexandria market area, the Baltimore-Towson -Alexandria market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, at 90 and \$43.864 billion, respectively. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 21.5% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$13.558 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 78.5% or \$49.420 billion in assets held.

All state-chartered banks, savings and loan associations and trusts are regulated by the state's Commissioner of Financial Regulation, within the Department of Labor, Licensing and Regulation.

In 2004, the median percentage of past-due and nonaccrual loans to total loans was 0.93%, down from 1.14% in 2003. As of fourth quarter 2005 that same rate had fallen further to 0.89%.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were over 3.47 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of about \$275 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$433 billion. The average coverage amount is \$79,200 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at over \$1.17 billion.

As of 2003, there were 46 property and casualty and 10 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$8.28 billion. That year, there were 54,882 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$8 billion.

The Maryland Automobile Insurance Fund, a quasi-independent agency created in 1972, pays claims against uninsured motorists (i.e., hit-and-run drivers, out-of-state uninsured motorists, and state residents driving in violation of Maryland's compulsory automobile insurance law), and sells policies to Maryland drivers unable to obtain insurance from private companies.

In 2004, 61% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 19% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 23% for single coverage and 29% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.7 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. Personal injury protection and uninsured motorist coverage are also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$890.86.

The State Insurance Division of the Department of Licensing and Regulation licenses all state insurance companies, agents, and brokers, and must approve all policies for sale in the state.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities or commodities exchanges in Maryland. In 2005, there were 2,450 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 3,600 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 175 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 67 NASDAQ companies, 37 NYSE listings, and 13 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had five Fortune 500 companies; Lockheed Martin (in Bethesda) ranked first in the state and 52nd in the nation with revenues of over \$37.2 billion, followed by Constellation Energy (Baltimore), Marriott International (Bethesda), Coventry Health Care (Bethesda), and Black and Decker (Towson). All five companies are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The state budget, prepared by the Department of Budget and Management, is submitted annually by the governor to the General Assembly for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$13.5 billion for resources and \$12.3 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Maryland were \$8.8 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Maryland was slated to receive: \$178.5 million for the continued consolidation of Food and Drug Administration facilities at White Oak. The request includes funding for the Building One renovation and for construction of the Office of the Commissioner and Office of Regulatory Affairs office building, and for other infrastructure needs; \$6 million for improvements at the Center for Veterinary Medicine in Laurel. These funds will support the replacement of the underground water distribution systems for a central utility plant and 13 laboratory buildings with a modern, high efficiency, high quality, and low maintenance system; \$5.8 million for improvements at the Center for Devices and Radiological Health's (CDRH) White Oak site in Silver Spring. These funds will allow for the upgrade of the major mechanical systems of an old laboratory and convert it into a machine fabrication shop and a photo science laboratory for the CDRH.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Maryland collected \$13,497 million in tax revenues or \$2,410 per capita, which placed it 14th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 3.9% of the total, sales taxes 21.4%,

Maryland—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	28,395,564	5,106.20
General revenue	22,841,717	4,107.48
Intergovernmental revenue	6,456,870	1,161.10
Taxes	12,314,799	2,214.49
General sales	2,945,060	529.59
Selective sales	2,267,364	407.73
License taxes	511,559	91.99
Individual income tax	5,277,844	949.08
Corporate income tax	447,487	80.47
Other taxes	865,485	155.63
Current charges	2,304,963	414.49
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,765,085	317.40
Utility revenue	107,076	19.25
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	5,446,771	979.46
Total expenditure	25,343,680	4,557.40
Intergovernmental expenditure	5,632,520	1,012.86
Direct expenditure	19,711,160	3,544.54
Current operation	14,025,013	2,522.03
Capital outlay	1,624,740	292.17
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,493,018	448.30
Assistance and subsidies	697,114	125.36
Interest on debt	871,275	156.68
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	4,011,309	721.33
Total expenditure	25,343,680	4,557.40
General expenditure	22,299,005	4,009.89
Intergovernmental expenditure	5,632,520	1,012.86
Direct expenditure	16,666,485	2,997.03
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	7,366,076	1,324.60
Public welfare	5,490,400	987.30
Hospitals	405,108	72.85
Health	1,524,186	274.08
Highways	1,655,814	297.75
Police protection	418,856	75.32
Correction	1,064,123	191.35
Natural resources	484,135	87.06
Parks and recreation	255,796	46.00
Government administration	785,901	141.32
Interest on general debt	871,275	156.68
Other and unallocable	1,977,335	355.57
Utility expenditure	551,657	99.20
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,493,018	448.30
Debt at end of fiscal year	13,600,741	2,445.74
Cash and security holdings	44,014,692	7,914.89

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

selective sales taxes 17.7%, individual income taxes 41.9%, corporate income taxes 6.0%, and other taxes 9.0%.

As of 1 January 2006, Maryland had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.0 to 4.75%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 7.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to about \$6 billion or \$1,082 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 17th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$5,539,833,000 of the total and the state government \$478,796,000.

Maryland taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is

100 cents per pack, which ranks 19th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Maryland taxes gasoline at 23.5 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Maryland citizens received \$1.44 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Department of Business and Economic Development (DBED), created in 1995, encourages new firms to locate in Maryland and established firms to expand their in-state facilities, promotes the tourist industry, and disseminates information about the state's history and attractions. The department helps secure industrial mortgage loans for businesses that create new jobs, and also provides small-business loans, low-interest construction loans, assistance in plant location and expansion; and supports the Division of Business Development to allow companies to maximize their use of state services. In addition, the department assists local governments in attracting federal funds for economic development and maintains programs to encourage minority businesses, the marketing of seafood, and the use of Ocean City Convention Hall. In 2006, the DBED maintained international offices in Mexico City, Monterrey (Mexico), Beijing, Shanghai, Taipei, Singapore, Bangalore (India), Shorashim (Israel), and Paris. The Department of State Planning oversees state and regional development programs and helps local governments develop planning goals.

During the 1930s, Maryland pioneered in urban design with the new town of Greenbelt, in Prince George's County. A wholly planned community, Columbia, was built in Howard County during the 1960s. More recently, redevelopment of Baltimore's decaying inner city has been aggressively promoted. Harborplace, a waterside pavilion featuring hundreds of shops and restaurants, formally opened in 1980, and an industrial park was developed in a high-unemployment section of northwest Baltimore during the early 1980s. Not far from Harborplace are the 33-story World Trade Center and the National Aquarium. Urban restoration has also been encouraged by urban homesteading: a Baltimorean willing to make a commitment to live in an old brick building and fix it up can submit a closed bid to buy it. An analogous "shopsteading" program to attract merchants has also been encouraged.

In 1982, Maryland initiated a program of state enterprise zones to encourage economic growth by focusing state and local resources on designated areas requiring economic stimulus. Five of these enterprise zones were located in western Maryland, four in the central part of the state, and one on the Eastern Shore. There were 29 state enterprise zones in 2006. With Delaware, Virginia, and Washington DC, Maryland has been recognized as part of an international life sciences hub, dubbed the BioCapital hub. Maryland companies and agencies participate in bioscience "hotbed" campaigns, concerted efforts by groups made up of government development agencies, pharmaceutical and bioscience companies, research institutes, universities, and nonprofits to attract capital, personnel and resources to develop a life sciences cluster. Over 500 foreign-based businesses have been established in Maryland, creating over 75,000 jobs. The Office of International Business (OIB) within the DBED, offers assistance to foreign companies for

location, relocation, and expansion, in addition to providing assistance to Maryland exporters.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.6 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 29 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 83.7% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 80% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.1 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 220; cancer, 190.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 51.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 35.6; and diabetes, 27.8. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 11.2 per 100,000 population, representing the second-highest rate in the country (following the District of Columbia at 40.8 per 100,000); the national HIV death rate was 4.9 per 100,000. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 26.1 per 100,000 population, the fourth-highest rate in the country. In 2002, about 55.2% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.5% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Maryland had 51 community hospitals with about 11,600 beds. There were about 645,000 patient admissions that year and 6.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 8,700 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,571. Also in 2003, there were about 243 certified nursing facilities in the state with 29,362 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 86.1%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 75.8% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Maryland had 389 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 875 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 4,169 dentists in the state.

About 19% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$6.8 million.

Maryland's two medical schools are at Johns Hopkins University, which operates in connection with the Johns Hopkins Hospital and has superbly equipped research facilities, and at the University of Maryland—both located in Baltimore. Johns Hopkins Hospital ranked first on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*; in the same report, it ranked third for best pediatric hospitals and best care for cancer and heart disease. Federal health centers located in Bethesda include the National Institutes of Health and the National Naval Medical Center.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 109,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$254. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 288,943 persons (131,556 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$92.33 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$320.1 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reautho-

rized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Maryland's TANF program is called the Family Investment Program (FIP). In 2004, the state program had 59,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$32 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 761,160 Maryland residents. This number included 499,620 retired workers, 75,210 widows and widowers, 86,860 disabled workers, 35,200 spouses, and 64,270 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 13.7% of the total state population and 87.4% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$962; widows and widowers, \$923; disabled workers, \$926; and spouses, \$493. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$511 per month; children of deceased workers, \$639; and children of disabled workers, \$287. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 92,776 Marylanders, averaging \$408 a month. An additional \$641,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 2,973 residents.

40 HOUSING

Maryland has sought to preserve many of its historic houses. Block upon block of two-story brick row houses, often with white stoops, fill the older parts of Baltimore, and stone cottages built to withstand rough winters are still found in the western counties. Greenbelt and Columbia exemplify changing modern concepts of community planning.

There were an estimated 2,250,339 housing units in Maryland in 2004, of which 2,077,900 were occupied; 69.5% were owner-occupied. About 51.9% of all units are single-family, detached homes. Most units rely on utility gas and electricity for heating. It was estimated that 61,901 units lacked telephone service, 6,034 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 5,885 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.61 members.

In 2004, 27,400 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$216,529. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,406. Renters paid a median of \$837 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$8 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). The city of Baltimore received over \$23.9 million in community development block grants.

The Department of Housing and Community Development, formed in 1987, oversees all housing and cultural resource areas, providing neighborhood rehabilitation and revitalization, development financing, historical and cultural programs, and information technology. The Maryland Housing Fund of the Department insures qualified lending institutions against losses on home mortgage loans.

41 EDUCATION

As of 2004, 87.4% of Marylanders 25 years and older had completed high school compared the national average of 84%. Some 35.2% had at least four years of college, far surpassing the national

average of 26%. Maryland students must pass state High School Assessments (HSA) in order to graduate from high school.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Maryland's public schools stood at 867,000. Of these, 610,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 256,000 attended high school. Approximately 50.4% of the students were white, 37.9% were black, 6.4% were Hispanic, 4.9% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.4% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 863,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 858,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 1% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 149,253 students enrolled in 727 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$8.7 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Maryland scored 278 out of 500 in mathematics, matching the national average.

As of fall 2002, there were 300,269 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 36% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Maryland had 63 degree-granting institutions. The institutions of higher education in Maryland are organized as follows: (1) the public four-year colleges and universities, (2) the community colleges, (3) the independent colleges and universities, and (4) the private career schools.

The state's public four-year institutions include the University of Maryland System, Morgan State University, and St. Mary's College of Maryland. The University of Maryland System is comprised of 13 separate degree-granting institutions located throughout the state. Included, there are two research and public service institutions reporting to the System—the Center for Environmental and Estuarine Studies and the University of Maryland Biotechnology Institute. These institutions are governed by a single board of regents and a system administration. Morgan State University, the designated public urban teaching university, is governed by a single board of regents. Morgan is one of Maryland's four historically black institutions. St. Mary's College of Maryland, the State's public honors college, is the state's only "state-related" institution. As such, the college has more operational autonomy than the other public four-year institutions, particularly concerning procurement, budget, and personnel administration.

The 16 community colleges are two-year, open-admission institutions with courses and programs leading to certificates and associate degrees, as well as career-oriented and continuing education/community service programs. They receive their funding from three sources: 1) state funding through a funding formula; 2) local funding through a negotiated budget process; and 3) students' tuition and fees. Baltimore City Community College became a state institution in 1990/91 and receives the majority of its funding from the state. The state provides funding to independent colleges and universities in Maryland under a statutory formula. Eligible independent institutions must meet certain standards concerning the date of establishment, type of degrees conferred, accreditation, and affirmative action programs. St. John's College in Annapolis is known for its unique program that includes study of the ancient Greek and Latin classics in their original languages.

The Maryland Higher Education Commission serves as the state's agency that provides, as part of its primary mission, coordination, regulatory oversight, and program approval for Mary-

land's postsecondary education system. The State Scholarship Administration oversees state scholarship programs.

42 ARTS

Although close to the arts centers of Washington, DC, Maryland has its own cultural attractions. Baltimore, a major theatrical center in the 1800s, still has many legitimate theaters. Center Stage in Baltimore is the designated state theater of Maryland, and the Olney Theatre in Montgomery County is the official state summer theater. Arts organizations are aided by the Maryland State Arts Council, established in 1967 and led by a body of 17 appointed citizens.

The state's leading orchestra is the Baltimore Symphony; it began in 1916 and is the only major American orchestra that started as an established branch of the municipal government. In early February 2005, the Baltimore Symphony began performing in the new Music Center at Strathmore. Baltimore is also the home of the Baltimore Opera Company, and its jazz clubs were the launching pads for such musical notables as Eubie Blake, Ella Fitzgerald, and Cab Calloway. Annapolis hosts a symphony, an opera company, and the Ballet Theatre of Maryland. The National Ballet (est. 1948) is the oldest professional ballet company in the state. One of the newest additions to the arts community is the Maryland Symphony Orchestra in Hagerstown, established in 1982. The Peabody Institute of Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore is one of the nation's most distinguished music schools. As of 2006, the Peabody Institute's conservatory offered 26 major fields including opera, chamber music, composition, computer music, recording arts, and music education. Both the Maryland Ballet Company and Maryland Dance Theater are nationally known.

In 2005, the Maryland State Arts Council and other arts organizations received grants totaling 36 grants totaling \$2,507,890 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). The Maryland Humanities Council (MHC) was founded in 1973. The MHC reached approximately 900,000 Marylanders through their programs in 2004. As of 2006, MHC provided programs such as "Maryland Center for the Book" and the first annual Youth Film JAM in May 2006—a festival providing free screenings of award-winning films followed by discussions with film critics and the festival advisory committee. In 2005, the state received 26 grants, totaling \$2,645,201, from the National Endowment for the Humanities.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending June 2001, Maryland's 24 public library systems had 175 libraries, of which 158 were branches. In that same year, the system also operated 19 bookmobiles, had 15,323,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves, and had a combined total circulation of 46,595,000. The system also had 774,000 audio and 443,000 video items, and 5,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks). The center of the state library network is the Enoch Pratt Free Library in the city of Baltimore. Founded in 1886, it had 28 branches, over 2.8 million volumes, and a circulation of over 1.5 million in 1999. Each county also has its own library system. The largest academic libraries are those of Johns Hopkins University (2,507,232 volumes in 1999) and the University of Maryland at College Park (2.2 million). The Maryland Historical Society Library specializes in genealogy, heraldry, and state history. The Maryland State Archives

houses government records, private manuscripts, maps, and photographs. Maryland is also the site of several federal libraries, including the National Agricultural Library at Beltsville, with over 2 million volumes; the National Library of Medicine at Bethesda, 2,200,000; and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Library at Rockville, with about 1 million volumes in 1999. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$182,940,000, including \$1,854,000 in federal grants and \$24,406,000 in state grants.

Of the approximately 147 museums and historic sites in the state, the major institutions are the US Naval Academy Museum in Annapolis and Baltimore's Museum of Art, National Aquarium Seaport and Maritime Museum, Maryland Academy of Sciences, the Maryland Historical Society Museum, and Peale Museum, the oldest museum building in the United States. Important historic sites include Ft. McHenry National Monument and Shrine in Baltimore (inspiration for "The Star-Spangled Banner") and Antietam National Battlefield Site near Sharpsburg.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 93.4% of Maryland's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 3,575,747 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 66.0% of Maryland households had a computer and 59.2% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 913,068 high-speed lines in Maryland, 822,436 residential and 90,632 for business.

The state had 12 major AM and 35 major FM radio stations in 2005. Maryland has 13 major television stations, including public broadcasting stations in Annapolis, Baltimore, Frederick, Hagerstown, Oakland, and Salisbury. Maryland also receives the signals of many Washington, DC. broadcast stations. The Baltimore area had almost 1 million television households, 68% of which received cable in 1999.

45 PRESS

The *Maryland Gazette*, established at Annapolis in 1727, was the state's first newspaper. It wasn't until 1773 that Baltimore got its first paper, the *Maryland Journal and Baltimore Advertiser*, but by 1820 there were five highly partisan papers in the city. The *Baltimore Sun*, founded in 1837, reached its heyday after 1906, when H. L. Mencken became a staff writer. Mencken, who was also an important editor and critic, helped found the *American Mercury* magazine in 1924.

As of 2005, Maryland had 10 morning and 3 afternoon dailies, as well as 9 Sunday papers. The most influential newspaper published in Baltimore is the *Sun* (daily, 280,717; Sunday, 454,045). The *Washington Post* (707,690 daily; 1,007,487 Sundays) is also widely read in Maryland.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 6,690 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 4,804 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National medically oriented organizations with headquarters in Maryland include the National Federation of the Blind, the American Urological Association, the American Occupational Therapy Association, National Foundation for Cancer Research, the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation, the

National Association of the Deaf, and the American Music Therapy Association.

Leading commercial, professional, and trade groups include the Aircraft Owners and Pilots Association, the American Fisheries Society, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the Retailer's Bakery of America.

Lacrosse, a major sport in the state, is represented by the Lacrosse Foundation in Baltimore and the US Intercollegiate Lacrosse Association in Chestertown. The National Amateur Baseball Federation, the American Tennis Association, and the National 4-H Council are also based in the state.

A number of military organizations are based in Maryland, including the Air Force Historical Foundation, the American Military Society, AMVETS (American Veterans of World War II, Korea, and Vietnam), the Black Military History Institute of America, the Vietnam Veterans of America, and the Blue Star Mothers of America. The National Flag Day Foundation is based in Baltimore.

Historical and cultural organizations include the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Historical Society, the Edgar Allan Poe Society of Baltimore, and the Folk Alliance. There are also a number of county and regional historical societies. Education and research associations on the national level include the Jane Goodall Institute for Wildlife Research, Education, and Conservation, and the Wildlife Society.

Social action and civil rights organizations based in Maryland include the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Catholic Relief Services, and Goodwill Industries International.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the state hosted over 21 million travelers. About 80% of all travelers were residents of one of the following states: Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, New York, New Jersey, Florida, North Carolina, California, Ohio, Delaware, and West Virginia.

Attractions include parks, historical sites, and national seashore (Assateague Island). Annapolis, the state capital, is the site of the US Naval Academy. On Baltimore's waterfront are monuments to Francis Scott Key and Edgar Allan Poe, historic Ft. McHenry, and many restaurants serving the city's famed crab cakes and other seafood specialties. Ocean City is the state's major seaside resort, and there are many resort towns along Chesapeake Bay. Camp David, in Thurmont, is the home of presidential retreat. The Richard M. Nixon Presidential Library is in College Park. The state's office of tourism developed a "Star Spangled Banner Tour"—a 100-mi (160-km) scenic driving tour ending at Fort McHenry, where the national anthem was composed. Near Camden Yard (home of the Baltimore Orioles) is the childhood home of Babe Ruth, who played for the New York Yankees. Baltimore also features the National Aquarium. The Preakness Race (thoroughbred racing) is the second leg of the Triple Crown and is run at the State Fairgrounds in Baltimore. There are 19 state parks with camping facilities and 10 recreation areas. The Civil War battlefield at Antietam and other Civil War trails are located in Maryland.

48 SPORTS

Maryland has two major professional sports teams: the Baltimore Orioles of Major League Baseball and the Baltimore Ravens of

the National Football League. The Ravens (formerly the Browns) moved from Cleveland after the 1995 season, and play in a downtown stadium, built in 1998, near Oriole Park at Camden Yards. The NFL's Washington Redskins play in a new stadium, Jack Kent Cooke Stadium, in Landover, but are still considered a team of the District of Columbia. The Orioles won the World Series in 1966, 1970, and 1983, and American League titles in 1969, 1971, 1979, and 1983.

There are several minor league baseball teams in the state, including teams in Bowie, Frederick, Delmarva, Aberdeen, and Hagerstown.

Ever since 1750, when the first Arabian thoroughbred horse was imported by a Maryland breeder, horse racing has been a popular state pastime. The major tracks are Pimlico (Baltimore), Bowie, and Laurel. Pimlico is the site of the Preakness Stakes, the second leg of racing's Triple Crown. Harness racing is held at Ocean Downs in Ocean City; quarter-horse racing takes place at several tracks throughout the state; and several steeplechase events, including the prestigious Maryland Hunt Cup, are held annually.

In men's collegiate basketball, the University of Maryland won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Championship in 2002, the ACC Tournament title in 2004, and the National Invitation Tournament in 1972. The Maryland women's basketball team won the National Championship in 2006. Morgan State took the NCAA Division II title in 1974. Another major sport is lacrosse; Johns Hopkins, the Naval Academy, and the University of Maryland all have performed well in intercollegiate competition. In fact, Johns Hopkins has won the NCAA National Championship eight times, most recently in 2005.

Every weekend from April to October, Marylanders compete in jousting tournaments held in four classes throughout the state. In modern jousting, designated as the official state sport, horseback riders attempt to pick up small rings with long, lance-like poles. The state championship is held in October.

Babe Ruth, perhaps the greatest baseball player to ever play the game, was one of many star athletes to be born in the state.

49 FAMOUS MARYLANDERS

Politicians

Maryland's lone US vice president was Spiro Theodore Agnew (1918–96), who served as governor of Maryland before being elected as Richard Nixon's running mate in 1968. Reelected with Nixon in 1972, Agnew resigned the vice-presidency in October 1973 after a federal indictment had been filed against him. Roger Brooke Taney (1777–1864) served as attorney general and secretary of the treasury in Andrew Jackson's cabinet before being confirmed as US chief justice in 1836; his most historically significant case was the *Dred Scott* decision in 1856, in which the Supreme Court ruled that Congress could not exclude slavery from any territory.

Three associate justices of the US Supreme Court were also born in Maryland. Thomas Johnson (1732–1819), a signer of the Declaration of Independence, served as the first governor of the State of Maryland before his appointment to the Court in 1791. Samuel Chase (1741–1811) was a Revolutionary leader, another signer of the Declaration of Independence, and a local judicial and political leader before being appointed to the high court in

1797; impeached in 1804 because of his alleged hostility to the Jeffersonians, he was acquitted by the Senate the following year. As counsel for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Thurgood Marshall (1908–93), argued the landmark *Brown v. Board of Education* school desegregation case before the Supreme Court in 1954; President Lyndon Johnson appointed him to the Court 13 years later.

Other major federal officeholders born in Maryland include John Hanson (1721–83), a member of the Continental Congress and first president to serve under the Articles of confederation (1781–82); Charles Carroll of Carrollton (1737–1832), a signer of the Declaration of Independence and US senator from 1789 to 1792; John Pendleton Kennedy (1795–1870), secretary of the Navy under Millard Fillmore and a popular novelist known by the pseudonym Mark Littleton; Reverdy Johnson (1796–1876), attorney general under Zachary Taylor; Charles Joseph Bonaparte (1851–1921) secretary of the Navy and attorney general in Theodore Roosevelt's cabinet; and Benjamin Civiletti (b.New York, 1935), attorney general under Jimmy Carter. Among the many important state officeholders are William Paca (1740–99), a signer of the Declaration of Independence and later governor; Luther Martin (b.New Jersey, 1748–1826), Maryland's attorney general from 1778 to 1805 and from 1818 to 1822, as well as defense counsel in the impeachment trial of Chase and in the treason trial of Aaron Burr; John Eager Howard (1752–1827), Revolutionary soldier, governor, and US senator; and Albert C. Ritchie (1876–1936), governor from 1919 to 1935. William D. Schaefer (b.1921) was mayor of Baltimore from 1971–87; he was elected governor in 1987.

Lawyer and poet Francis Scott Key (1779–1843) wrote "The Star-Spangled Banner"—now the national anthem—in 1814. The prominent abolitionists Frederick Douglass (Frederick Augustus Washington Bailey, 1817?–95) and Harriet Tubman (1820?–1913) were born in Maryland, as was John Carroll (1735–1815), the first Roman Catholic bishop in the United States and founder of Georgetown University. Elizabeth Ann Bayley Seton (b.New York, 1774–1821), canonized by the Roman Catholic Church in 1975, was the first native-born American saint. Stephen Decatur (1779–1820), a prominent naval officer, has been credited with the toast "Our country, right or wrong!"

Business Leaders

Prominent Maryland business leaders include Alexander Brown (b.Ireland, 1764–1834), a Scotch-Irish immigrant who built the firm that is now the second-oldest private investment banking house in the United States; George Peabody (b.Massachusetts, 1795–1869), founder of the world-famous Peabody Conservatory of Music (now the Peabody Institute of Johns Hopkins University); and Enoch Pratt (b.Massachusetts, (1808–96) who endowed the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore. Benjamin Banneker (1731–1806), a free black, assisted in surveying the new District of Columbia and published almanacs from 1792 to 1797. Ottmar Mergenthaler (b.Germany, 1854–99), who made his home in Baltimore, invented the linotype machine.

Educators and Physicians

Financier-philanthropist Johns Hopkins (1795–1873) was a Marylander, and educators Daniel Coit Gilman (b.Connecticut, 1831–1908) and William Osler (b.Canada, 1849–1919, also a famed phy-

sician), were prominent in the establishment of the university and medical school named in Hopkins' honor. Peyton Rous (1879–1970) won the 1966 Nobel Prize for physiology or medicine.

Writers

Maryland's best-known modern writer was H(enry) L(ouis) Mencken (1880–1956), a Baltimore newspaper reporter who was also a gifted social commentator, political wit, and student of the American language. Edgar Allan Poe (b.Massachusetts, 1809–49), known for his poems and eerie short stories, died in Baltimore, and novelist-reformer Upton Sinclair (1878–1968) was born there. Other writers associated with Maryland include James M. Cain (1892–1976), Leon Uris (1924–2003), John Barth (b.1930), and Russell Baker (b.1925). Painters John Hesselius (b.Pennsylvania, 1728–78) and Charles Willson Peale (1741–1827) are also linked with the state.

Actors and Musicians

Most notable among Maryland actors are Edwin Booth (1833–93) and his brother John Wilkes Booth (1838–65), notorious as the assassin of President Abraham Lincoln. Maryland was the birthplace of several jazz musicians, including James Hubert “Eubie” Blake (1883–1983), William Henry “Chick” Webb (1907–39), and Billie Holiday (1915–59).

Sports Figures

Probably the greatest baseball player of all time, George Herman “Babe” Ruth (1895–1948) was born in Baltimore. Other prominent ballplayers include Robert Moses “Lefty” Grove (1900–75), James Emory “Jimmy” Foxx (1907–67), and Al Kaline (b.1934). Former lightweight boxing champion Joe Gans (1874–1910) was a Maryland native.

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MASSACHUSETTS

Commonwealth of Massachusetts

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the name of the Massachusetts Native American tribe that lived on Massachusetts Bay; the name is thought to mean “at or about the Great Hill.” **NICKNAME:** The Bay State. **CAPITAL:** Boston. **ENTERED UNION:** 6 February 1788 (6th). **SONG:** “All Hail to Massachusetts;” “Massachusetts” (folksong). **MOTTO:** *Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem* (By the sword we seek peace, but peace only under liberty). **COAT OF ARMS:** On a blue shield, a Native American depicted in gold holds in his right hand a bow, in his left an arrow pointing downward. Above the bow is a five-pointed silver star. The crest shows a bent right arm holding a broadsword. Around the shield beneath the crest is a banner with the state motto in green. **FLAG:** The coat of arms on a white field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Same as the coat of arms, with the inscription *Sigillum Reipublicæ Massachusettensis* (Seal of the Republic of Massachusetts). **BIRD:** Chickadee. **FISH:** Cod. **FLOWER:** Mayflower (ground laurel). **TREE:** American elm. **GEM:** Rhodonite. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Patriots’ Day, 3rd Monday in April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, appointed by the governor, customarily the 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. Legal holidays in Suffolk County include Evacuation Day, 17 March; and Bunker Hill Day, 17 June. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the northeastern United States, Massachusetts is the fourth-largest of the six New England states and ranks 45th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Massachusetts is 8,284 sq mi (21,456 sq km), of which land comprises 7,824 sq mi (20,265 sq km) and inland water occupies 460 sq mi (1,191 sq km). Massachusetts extends about 190 mi (306 k) E–W; the maximum N–S extension is about 110 mi (177 km). Massachusetts is bordered on the N by Vermont and New Hampshire; on the E by the Atlantic Ocean; on the S by the Atlantic Ocean and by Rhode Island and Connecticut; and on the W by New York.

Two important islands lie south of the state’s fishhook-shaped Cape Cod peninsula: Martha’s Vineyard (108 sq mi or 280 sq km) and Nantucket (57 sq mi or 148 sq km). The Elizabeth Islands, SW of Cape Cod and NW of Martha’s Vineyard, consist of 16 small islands separating Buzzards Bay from Vineyard Sound. The total boundary length of Massachusetts is 515 mi (829 km), including a general coastline of 192 mi (309 km); the tidal shoreline, encompassing numerous inlets and islands, is 1,519 mi (2,444 km). The state’s geographic center is located in Worcester County, in the northern section of the city of Worcester.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Massachusetts is divided into four topographical regions: coastal lowlands, interior lowlands, dissected uplands, and residuals of ancient mountains. The coastal lowlands, located on the state’s eastern edge, extend from the Atlantic Ocean 30–50 mi (48–80 km) inland and include Cape Cod and the offshore islands. The northern shoreline of the state is characterized by rugged high

slopes, but at the southern end, along Cape Cod, the ground is flatter and covered with grassy heaths.

The Connecticut River Valley, characterized by red sandstone, curved ridges, meadows, and good soil, is the main feature of west-central Massachusetts. The Berkshire Valley to the west is filled with streams in its northern end, including the two streams that join below Pittsfield to form the Housatonic River.

East of the Connecticut River Valley are the eastern uplands, an extension of the White Mountains of New Hampshire. From elevations of 1,100 ft (335 m) in midstate, this ridge of heavily forested hills slopes down gradually toward the rocky northern coast.

In western Massachusetts, the Taconic Range and Berkshire Hills (which extend southward from the Green Mountains of Vermont) are characterized by numerous hills and valleys. Mt. Greylock, close to the New York border, is the highest point in the state, at 3,487 ft (1,064 m). Northeast of the Berkshires is the Hoosac Range, an area of plateau land. Its high point is Spruce Hill, at 1,974 ft (602 m). The mean elevation of the state is approximately 500 ft (153 m). The lowest point is at sea level on the Atlantic Ocean.

There are more than 4,230 mi (6,808 km) of rivers in the state. The Connecticut River, the longest, runs southward through west-central Massachusetts; the Deerfield, Westfield, Chicopee, and Millers rivers flow into it. Other rivers of note include the Charles and the Mystic, which flow into Boston harbor; the Taunton, which empties into Mount Hope Bay at Fall River; the Blackstone, passing through Worcester on its way to Rhode Island; the Housatonic, winding through the Berkshires; and the Merrimack, flowing from New Hampshire to the Atlantic Ocean via the state’s northeast corner. Over 1,100 lakes dot the state; the largest, the artificial Quabbin Reservoir in central Massachusetts, covers 24,704 acres

(9,997 hectares). The largest natural lake is Assawompset Pond in southern Massachusetts, occupying 2,656 acres (1,075 hectares).

Hilly Martha's Vineyard is roughly triangular in shape, as is Nantucket Island to the east. The Elizabeth Islands are characterized by broad, grassy plains.

Millions of years ago, three mountainous masses of granite rock extended northeastward across the state. The creation of the Appalachian Mountains transformed limestone into marble, mud, and gravel into slate and schist, and sandstone into quartzite. The new surfaces were worn down several times. Then, during the last Ice Age, retreating glaciers left behind the shape of Cape Cod as well as a layer of soil, rock, and boulders.

3 CLIMATE

Although Massachusetts is a relatively small state, there are significant climatic differences between its eastern and western sections. The entire state has cold winters and moderately warm summers, but the Berkshires in the west have both the coldest winters and the coolest summers. The normal January temperature in Pittsfield in the Berkshires is 21°F (-5°C), while the normal July temperature is 67°F (19°C). The interior lowlands are several degrees warmer in both winter and summer; the normal July temperature is 71°F (22°C). The coastal sections are the warmest areas of the state; the normal January temperature for Boston is 30°F (-1°C), and the normal July temperature is 74°F (23°C). The record high temperature in the state is 107°F (42°C), established at Chester and New Bedford on 2 August 1975; the record low is -35°F (-37°C), registered at Chester on 12 January 1981.

Precipitation ranges from 39 to 46 in (99 to 117 cm) annually, with an average for Boston of 42.9 in (108 cm). The average snowfall for Boston is 40.9 in (103 cm), with the range in the Berkshires considerably higher. Boston's average wind speed is 13 mph (21 km/hr).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Maple, birch, beech, oak, pine, hemlock, and larch cover the Massachusetts uplands. Common shrubs include rhodora, mountain laurel, and shadbush. Various ferns, maidenhair and osmund among them, grow throughout the state. Typical wildflowers include the Maryland meadow beauty and false loosestrife, as well as several varieties of orchid, lily, goldenrod, and aster. In April 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed the northeastern bulrush, sandplain gerardia, and small whorled pogonia as threatened and endangered plant species within the state.

As many as 76 species of mammals, 74 of them native species, have been counted in Massachusetts. Common native mammals include the white-tailed deer, bobcat, river otter, striped skunk, mink, ermine, fisher, raccoon, black bear, gray fox, muskrat, porcupine, beaver, red and gray squirrels, snowshoe hare, little brown bat, and masked shrew. Among the Bay State's 336 resident bird species are the mallard, ruffed grouse, bobwhite quail, ring-necked pheasant, herring gull, great horned and screech owls, downy woodpecker, blue jay, mockingbird, cardinal, and song sparrow. Native inland fish include brook trout, chain pickerel, brown bullhead, and yellow perch; brown trout, carp, and smallmouth and largemouth bass have been introduced. Native amphibians include the Jefferson salamander, red-spotted newt, eastern American toad, gray tree frog, and bullfrog. Common reptiles are the

snapping turtle, stinkpot, spotted turtle, northern water snake, and northern black racer. The venomous timber rattlesnake and northern copperhead are found mainly in Norfolk, Hampshire, and Hampden counties. The Cape Cod coasts are rich in a variety of shellfish, including clams, mussels, shrimps, and oysters. Twenty Massachusetts animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were classified as threatened or endangered in 2006. Among them were the American burying beetle, the bald eagle, puma, short-nose sturgeon, five species of whale, and four species of turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

All environmentally related programs are administered by the Executive Office of Environmental Affairs (EOEA) and its five agencies: the Department of Environmental Management (DEM); the Department of Environmental Protection (DEP); the Department of Fisheries, Wildlife and Environmental Law Enforcement (DFWELE); the Department of Food and Agriculture (DFA); and the Metropolitan District Commission (MDC).

EOEA agencies protect the state's more than 3,100 lakes and ponds covering about 150,000 acres (61,000 hectares); some 2,000 rivers and streams flowing 10,700 mi (17,200 km); 810,000 acres (about 328,000 hectares) of medium- and high-yield aquifers underlying about a sixth of the state; over a half-million acres (about 200,000 hectares) of wetlands covering about a 12% of the state; and 1,500 mi (2,400 km) of coastal capes, coves, and estuaries.

With disposal of treated sewage sludge in Boston Harbor halted in 1991 and with improved sewage treatment, the harbor as of 2005 was markedly cleaner. In 1988, 10% of the flounder caught in Boston Harbor had liver tumors caused by toxic chemicals; as of 1993, no flounder tested had tumors. In 1994, the state opened a new primary water treatment plant, and in 1996, a second new treatment facility also began operation.

Between 1978 and 1985, Massachusetts averaged 24 air pollution (i.e., ozone) violation days per year; between 1985 and 1993, the average dropped to 14. Since 1990, the state has averaged 7 violation days per year. With the adoption of Massachusetts acid rain legislation in 1985, sulfur dioxide output from Massachusetts sources has been cut by 17%. Additional decreases, particularly from out-of-state power plants, are expected to further cut sulfur dioxide emissions in half by 2000. In response to the Massachusetts Toxic Use Reduction Program and certain federal requirements, toxic air emissions were reduced by about a third between 1989 and 1996. In 2003, 9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

The state's solid waste recycling and composting rate stood at 28% in 1994; its goal for 2000 was 46%. In the mid-1990s, 341 of the state's 351 communities had some type of recycling program, and about 49% of solid waste was incinerated. In 2003, Massachusetts had 411 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 31 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Materials Technology Laboratory (US Army), Otis Air National Guard Base, and South Weymouth Naval Air Station. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$47.5 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$29.6 million for the drinking water state revolving fund program. A \$771,279 grant was awarded to implement coastal beach monitoring projects and a \$74,000 grant

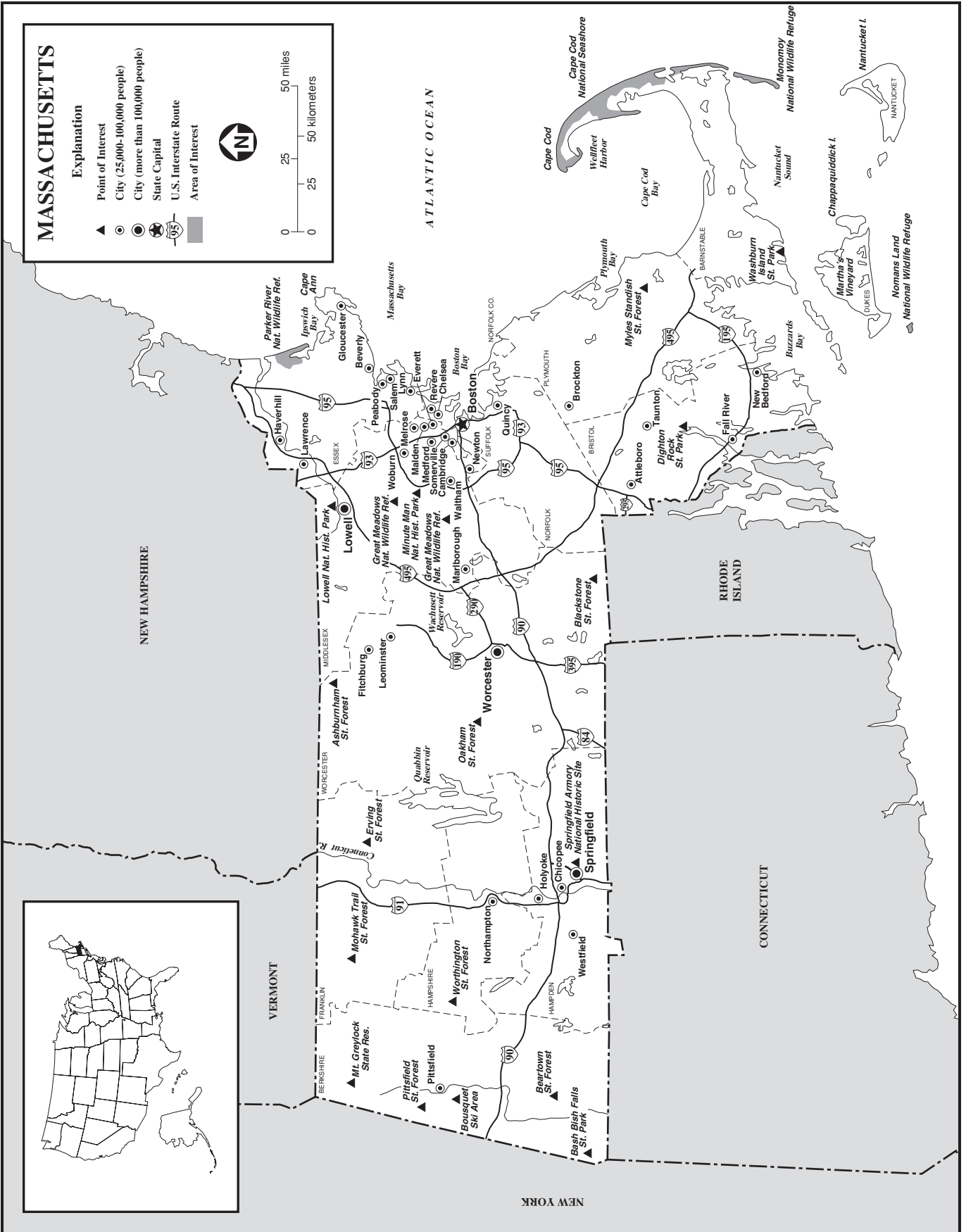
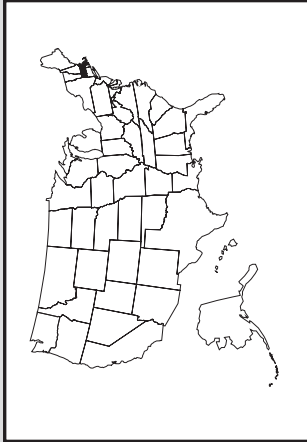
MASSACHUSETTS

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ⊙ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- ▭ Area of Interest



0 25 50 miles
 0 25 50 kilometers



was awarded for a project to encourage food waste composting in the supermarket industry.

Since about 1900, the Commonwealth has protected 528,400 acres (208,730 hectares) through acquisitions or restrictions, an area equal to 10% of the total land mass of the state. In 1993/94, the state added 8,930 acres (3,614 hectares) to its stock of protected land, expending \$41 million in the effort. Federal, county, local, and private nonprofit agencies and organizations provide another 375,680 acres (152,038 hectares) of open space.

6 POPULATION

As New England's most populous state, Massachusetts has seen its population grow steadily since colonial times. However, since the early 1800s, its growth rate has often lagged behind that of the rest of the nation. Massachusetts's population, according to the 1990 federal census, was 6,016,425 (13th in the nation), an increase of 4.9% over 1980, and much better than the 0.8% growth rate of the 1970s. Reasons behind the population lag include a birthrate well below the US average, and a net out-migration of 301,000 people between 1970 and 1983, the largest drop of all New England states.

Massachusetts ranked 13th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 6,398,743 in 2005, an increase of 0.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Massachusetts's population grew from 6,016,425 to 6,349,097, an increase of 5.5%. The population is projected to reach 6.7 million by 2015 and 6.9 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 818.2 persons per sq mi, the third highest in the nation. In 2004 the median age was 38.1. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 22.8% of the population while 13.3% was age 65 or older.

The state's biggest city is Boston, which ranked 24th among the largest US cities with a population of 569,165 in 2004, up from an estimated 547,725 in 1994. Other large cities (with their 2004 estimated populations) are Worcester, 175,966, and Springfield, 152,091. The Greater Boston area had an estimated metropolitan population of 4,424,649.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Early industrialization helped make Massachusetts a mecca for many European migrants, particularly the Irish. As late as 1990 more than half of the population identified with at least one single ancestry group. As of 2000 the largest were the Irish (22.5% of the population), Italian (13.5%), English (11.4%), French (8%), Polish (5.1%), and Portuguese (4.4%). In that year, the foreign born numbered 772,983, or 12.2% of the state's population.

Massachusetts has always had a black population, and has contributed such distinguished figures as poet Phillis Wheatley and NAACP founder W.E.B. DuBois (the first black Ph.D. from Harvard) to US cultural and public life. A sizable class of black professionals has developed, and the 20th century has seen an influx of working-class blacks from southern states. In 2000 there were 343,454 black Americans in Massachusetts, 5.4% of the population. Blacks constituted more than 25% of Boston's population. In 2004, 6.8% of Massachusetts' population was black. The state also had 428,729 Hispanics and Latinos in 2000, predominantly Puerto Rican and Dominican. In 2004, 7.7% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin.

Greater Boston has a small, well-organized Chinatown; in the suburbs reside many Chinese professionals and businesspeople, as well as those connected with the region's numerous educational institutions. Statewide, there were 84,392 Chinese in 2000 (up from 47,245 in 1990), 33,962 Vietnamese (up from 13,101 in 1990), 19,696 Cambodians, 17,369 Koreans, and 10,539 Japanese. In 2000, the total Asian population was estimated at 238,124, and the Native American population (including Eskimos and Aleuts) totaled an estimated 15,015. Pacific Islanders numbered 2,489. In 2004, 4.6% of the population was Asian, 0.3% American Indian or Alaskan Native, and 0.1% of Pacific Island origin. That year, 1.3% of the population reported origin of two or more races. Cape Cod has settlements of Portuguese fishermen, as has New Bedford.

8 LANGUAGES

Some general Algonkian loanwords and a few place-names—such as Massachusetts itself, Chicopee, Quebbin, and Naukeag—are the language echoes of the Massachuset, Pennacook, and Mahican Indians so historically important in the founding of Massachusetts Bay Colony and Old Colony, now Plymouth.

On the whole, Massachusetts English is classed as Northern, but early migration up the Connecticut River left that waterway a sometimes sharp, sometimes vague boundary, setting off special variations within the eastern half of the state. Two conspicuous but now receding features long held prestige because of the cultural eminence of Boston: the absence of /r/ after a vowel, as in *fear* and *port*, and the use of a vowel halfway between the short /a/ of *cat* and /ah/ in *half* and *past* as well as in *car* and *park*. Eastern Massachusetts speakers are likely to have /ah/ in *orange* and to pronounce *on* and *fog* with the same vowel as in form. In the east, a sycamore is a *buttonwood*, a tied and filled quilt is a *comforter*, a *creek* is a saltwater inlet, and pancakes may be called *fritters*.

Around Boston are heard the intrusive /r/ as in “the lawr of the land,” the /oo/ vowel in *butcher*, *tonic* for soft drink, *submarine* for a large sandwich, and *milkshake* for a concoction lacking ice cream. West of the Connecticut River are heard the /aw/ sound in *orange*, / ah/ in *on* and *fog*, and the short /a/ of *cat* in *half* and *bass*; *buttonball* is a sycamore, and *comfortable* is a tied quilt.

In 2000, 81.3% of the population five years of age or older (down from 84.8% in 1990) spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	5,954,249	100.0
Speak only English	4,838,679	81.3
Speak a language other than English	1,115,570	18.7
Speak a language other than English	1,115,570	18.7
Spanish or Spanish Creole	370,011	6.2
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	159,809	2.7
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	84,484	1.4
Chinese	71,412	1.2
Italian	59,811	1.0
French Creole	43,519	0.7
Russian	32,580	0.5
Vietnamese	30,400	0.5
Greek	28,819	0.5
Polish	27,631	0.5
Mon-Khmer, Cambodian	21,549	0.4
German	20,029	0.3
Arabic	18,742	0.3

⁹RELIGIONS

While Protestant sects have contributed greatly to the state's history and development, more than half the state's population is Roman Catholic, a fact that has had a profound effect on Massachusetts politics and policies.

Both the Pilgrims, who landed on Plymouth Rock in 1620, and the Puritans, who formed the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1629, came to the land to escape harassment by the Church of England. These early communities were based on strict religious principles and forbade the practice of differing religions. Religious tolerance was included in the Charter of 1692, to protect the Baptists, Anglicans, and Catholics who had by then arrived in the colony.

The major influx of Roman Catholics came in the 1840s with the arrival of the Irish in Boston. By the 1850s, they had migrated to other towns and cities and formed the backbone of the state's industrial workforce. Later migration by Italian Catholics, German Catholics, and Eastern European Jews turned the state, by 1900, into a melting pot of religions and nationalities, although many of these minorities did not win substantial acceptance from the Protestant elite until the World War II era.

As of 2004, there were 3,033,367 Roman Catholics in Massachusetts, representing nearly half of the total population; the archdiocese of Boston held 2,077,487 members that year. The largest Protestant denominations in 2000 were: the Episcopal Church, 98,963; the United Methodist Church, 64,028; and the American Baptists (USA), 52,716. In 2005, the United Church of Christ reported a statewide membership of 89,264. The second largest religious affiliation is Judaism, with about 275,000 adherents in 2000. The Muslim population the same year was about 41,497 people. Though membership numbers were not available, reports noted that there were about 57 Buddhist congregations and 20 Hindu congregations throughout the state. About 35% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

Although small, the Church of Christ, Scientist, is significant to Massachusetts's history. Its first house of worship was founded in 1879 in Boston by Mary Baker Eddy, who four years earlier had published the Christian Science textbook *Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures*. In Boston, the church continues to publish an influential newspaper, the *Christian Science Monitor*. Membership numbers are not published, but the church claims about 2,000 branch churches and societies in over 80 countries. Administrative and special group offices for the Unitarian Universalist Association are also located in Boston.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

The first rail line in the United States, a 3-mi (5-km) stretch from the Neponset River to the granite quarries in Quincy, was built in 1826. The first steam railroad in New England, connecting Boston and Lowell, was completed seven years later. By the late 1830s, tracks were laid from Boston to Worcester and to Providence, Rhode Island, and during the next two decades, additional railroad lines opened up new cities for industrial expansion.

As of 2003, 10 railroads transported freight through Massachusetts: CSX Transportation, the state's sole Class I railroad; the Providence & Worcester and Guilford Rail, the state's regional railroads; and seven other local and switching and terminal railroads.

In that same year, the state had 1,255 rail mi (2,020 km) of railroad. As of 2006, Boston was the northern terminus of Amtrak's Northeast Corridor route, linking New England with Washington, DC, via New York City and Philadelphia. East-west service from Boston to Chicago was also provided by Amtrak.

Commuter service is coordinated by the Massachusetts Bay Transportation Authority (MBTA), formed in 1964 to consolidate bus, commuter rail, high-speed trolley, and subway services to the 79 cities and towns in the Greater Boston area. The Boston subway, which began operation in 1897, is the oldest subway system in the United States. Boston also is one of the few cities in the United States with an operating trolley system. About 40% of all Bostonians commute to work by public transportation, the second-highest percentage in the nation, following New York City.

In 2004, there were 35,783 mi (57,610 km) of public roadways crisscrossing the state. The major highways, which extend from and through Boston like the spokes of a wheel, include I-95, which runs north-south; the Massachusetts Turnpike (I-90), which runs west to the New York State border; I-93, which leads north to New Hampshire; State Highway 3 to Cape Cod; and State Highway 24 to Fall River. The other major road in the state is I-91, which runs north-south through the Connecticut River Valley. More than \$3 billion was spent by all units of government for highways in 1997. In 2004, some 5.532 million motor vehicles registered in the state, of which about 3.486 were automobiles, approximately 1.898 million were trucks of all types, and around 11,000 were buses. There were also around 137,000 motorcycles registered with the state in that same year. There were 4,645,857 licensed driver's licenses in the state for 2004.

Because it is the major American city closest to Europe, Boston is an important shipping center for both domestic and foreign cargo. In 2004, a total of 25.796 million tons of cargo passed through the Port of Boston. All port activity is under the jurisdiction of the Massachusetts Port Authority, which also operates Logan International Airport and Hanscom Field in Bedford. Fall River was another important port with a cargo total of 3.161 million tons that same year. In 2004, Massachusetts had 90 mi (144 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 30.655 million tons.

In 2005, Massachusetts had a total of 232 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 76 airports, 137 heliports, 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 18 seaplane bases. Logan International, near Boston, is the busiest airport in the state. In 2004, the airport had 12,758,020 enplanements, making it the 18th-busiest airport in the United States.

¹¹HISTORY

Some 15,000 years ago, when the last of the glaciers receded from the land we call Massachusetts, what remained was a rocky surface scoured of most of its topsoil. In time, however, forests grew to support a rich variety of wildlife. When the first Indians arrived from the south, game abounded and fish were plentiful in streams and along the coast. These first Indians were hunter-gatherers; their successors not only foraged for food but also cleared fields for planting corn (maize) and squash. Periodically they burned away the woodland underbrush, a technique of forest management that stimulated the vegetation that supported game. When English settlers arrived, they encountered five main Algonkian

tribes: the Nauset, a fishing people on Cape Cod; the Wampanoag in the southeast; the Massachusetts in the northeast; the Nipmuc in the central hills; and the Pocumtuc in the west.

The earliest European explorers—including the Norsemen, who may have reached Cape Cod—made no apparent impact on these Algonkian groups, but in the wake of John and Sebastian Cabot's voyages (1497 and following), fishermen from England, France, Portugal, and Spain began fishing off the Massachusetts coast. By the mid-16th century, they were regularly going ashore to process and pack their catch. Within 50 years, fur trading with the Indians was established.

Permanent English settlement, which would ultimately destroy the Algonkian peoples, began in 1620 when a small band of Puritans left their haven at Leiden in the Netherlands to start a colony in the northern part of Virginia lands, near the Hudson River. Their ship, the *Mayflower*, was blown off course by an Atlantic storm, and they landed on Cape Cod before settling in an abandoned Wampanoag village they called Plymouth. Ten years later, a much larger Puritan group settled the Massachusetts Bay Colony, some miles to the north in Salem. Between 1630 and 1640, about 20,000 English people, chiefly Puritans, settled in Massachusetts with offshoots moving to Connecticut and Rhode Island.

The leaders of the Massachusetts settlement, most notably John Winthrop, a country gentleman with some legal training, intended to make their colony an exemplary Christian society. Though church and state were legally separate, they were mutually reinforcing agencies; thus, when Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson were separately found guilty of heresy in the 1630s, they were banished by the state. All male church members had a voice in both church and state leadership, though both institutions were led by college-educated men. In order to provide for future leaders, Harvard College (now Harvard University) was founded in 1636.

After the beginning of the English revolution in 1640, migration to Massachusetts declined abruptly. Farming soon overtook fishing and fur trading in economic importance; after the trade in beaver skins was exhausted, the remaining Indian tribes were decimated in King Philip's War (1675–76). Shipbuilding and Atlantic commerce also brought prosperity to the Massachusetts Bay Colony, which was granted a new charter by King William and Queen Mary in 1692, merging Massachusetts and the colony of Plymouth. In that year, 19 people were executed for witchcraft on the gallows at Salem before Massachusetts authorities put a stop to the proceedings.

During the 18th century, settlement spread across the entire colony. Boston, the capital, had attained a population of 15,000 by 1730; it was an urbane community of brick as well as wooden buildings, with nearly a dozen church spires distinguishing its skyline by the 1750s. Religious revivals, also occurring elsewhere in America, swept Massachusetts in the 1730s and 1740s, rekindling piety and dividing the inhabitants into competing camps. Although the conflicts had ebbed by the 1750s, Massachusetts did not achieve unity again until the resistance to British imperial actions during the next two decades.

Up to this time, imperial government had rested lightly on Massachusetts, providing more advantages than drawbacks for commerce. The colony had actively supported British expeditions against French Canada, and supply contracts during the French

and Indian War had enriched the economy. But the postwar recession after 1763 was accompanied by a new imperial policy that put pressure on Massachusetts as well as other colonies. None of the crown's three objectives—tight regulation of trade, the raising of revenue, and elimination of key areas of colonial political autonomy—were popular among the merchants, tradespeople, and farmers of Massachusetts. From 1765, when Bostonians violently protested the Stamp Act, Massachusetts was in the vanguard of the resistance.

At first, opposition was largely confined to Boston and surrounding towns, although the legislature, representing the entire colony, was active in opposing British measures. By December 1773, when East India Company tea was dumped into Boston harbor to prevent its taxation, most of the colony was committed to resistance. Newspaper polemics composed by Samuel Adams and his cousin John, among others, combined with the persuasive activities of the Boston Committee of Correspondence, helped convince a majority of Massachusetts residents that the slogan “no taxation without representation” stood for the preservation of their communities. When Parliament retaliated for the Tea Party by closing the port of Boston in 1774, rescinding the colony's 1692 charter, and remaking the government to put it under London's control, Massachusetts was ready to rebel. Military preparations began immediately on both sides. After almost a year of confrontation, battle began at Lexington and Concord on 19 April 1775. By this time, Massachusetts had the backing of the Continental Congress.

For Massachusetts, the battlefield experience of the Revolution was largely confined to 1775, the climax being the Battle of Bunker Hill and the British evacuation of Boston the following year. Thereafter, Massachusetts soldiers were active throughout the colonies, but the theater of action shifted southward. A new republican constitution, adopted in 1780, was the first state constitution to be submitted to the electorate for ratification.

Social and economic conditions in post-Revolutionary Massachusetts were much like those of the colonial era. Although the Shays Rebellion, an uprising of central and western farmers led by Daniel Shays in 1786–87, challenged the political hegemony of commercially oriented eastern leaders, the latter succeeded in maintaining their hold on the state. Massachusetts, which entered the Union on 6 February 1788, was the center of Federalism from 1790 until the mid-1820s. Although Jeffersonian Republicans and Jacksonian Democrats achieved substantial followings, Federalist policies, embodied in the Whigs in the 1830s and the Republicans from the late 1850s, were dominant. This political continuity was based on the importance of national commercial and industrial development to the state.

Even before 1800, it was clear that Massachusetts could not sustain growth in agriculture. Its soil had never been excellent, and the best lands were tired, having been worked for generations with little regard for conservation. Much of the state's population departed for New York, Ohio, and beyond during the first decades of the 19th century. Those who stayed maintained productive agriculture, concentrating more and more on fruits and dairying, but they also developed commerce and industry. At Waltham, Lowell, and Lawrence the first large-scale factories in the United States were erected, and smaller textile mills throughout the state helped to make Massachusetts a leader in the cloth industry. At Spring-

field and Watertown, US armories led the way in metalworking, while shoes and leather goods brought prosperity to Lynn, and whale products and shipbuilding to New Bedford. By the 1850s, steam engines and clipper ships were both Bay State products.

The industrial development of Massachusetts was accompanied by a literary and intellectual flowering that was partly in reaction to the materialism and worldliness associated with urban and industrial growth. Concord, the home of Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry David Thoreau, and a cluster of others, became the center of the transcendentalist movement in philosophy. Social reform also represented an assertion of moral values, whether in the field of education, health care, temperance, or penology. Abolitionism, the greatest of the moral reform efforts, found some of its chief leaders in Massachusetts, among them William Lloyd Garrison and Wendell Phillips, as well as a host of supporters.

In the years following the Civil War, Massachusetts emerged as an urban industrial state. Its population, fed by immigrants from England, Scotland, Germany, and especially Ireland, grew rapidly in the middle decades of the century. Later, between 1880 and 1920, another wave of immigrants came from French Canada, Italy, Russia, Poland, Scandinavia, Portugal, Greece, and Syria. Still later, between 1950 and 1970, black southerners and Puerto Ricans settled in the cities.

From the election of Lincoln in 1860 through the 1920s, Massachusetts was led by Protestant Yankee Republicans; most Democrats were Catholics. Class, ethnic, and religious tensions were endemic, occasionally erupting into open conflict. Three such episodes gained national attention. In 1912, immigrant textile workers in Lawrence were pitted against Yankee capitalists. A highly publicized strike of 1919 had the largely Irish-American police force rebelling against Yankees in city and state government, and brought Governor Calvin Coolidge—who suppressed the strike and refused to reinstate the striking policemen—to national prominence. In 1921, Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, Italian immigrant anarchists, were convicted for a payroll robbery and murder, though there was bitter controversy regarding the quality of the evidence against them. Before they were executed in 1927, their case and the issues it raised polarized political opinion throughout the United States. Subsequently, electoral competition between Democrats and Republicans emerged as a less divisive outlet for class and ethnic tensions. Since 1959, the Democrats have enjoyed ascendance statewide, and Republicans have won only when their candidates stood close to the Democrats on the issues. Party loyalties as such have waned, however.

The Massachusetts economy, relatively stagnant between 1920 and 1950, revived in the second half of the 20th century through a combination of an educated and skilled workforce, capital resources, and political clout. As the old industries and the mill cities declined, new high-technology manufacturing developed in Boston's suburban perimeter, centering on start-up manufacturing firms along Route 128 outside Boston. Electronics, computers, and defense-oriented industries led the way, stimulating a general prosperity in which service activities such as banking, insurance, health care, and higher education were especially prominent. As a result, white-collar employment and middle-class suburbs flourished, though run-down mill towns and Yankee dairy farms and orchards still dotted the landscape.

In this respect, as in its politics, Massachusetts resembled many other areas of the Northeast. It was a multiracial state in which the general welfare was defined by shifting coalitions of ethnic groups and special interests. From a national perspective, Massachusetts voters appeared liberal; the Bay State was the only one to choose Democrat George McGovern over President Richard M. Nixon in 1972, and, since the 1970s, has been a perennially secure base for Senator Edward M. Kennedy. Yet Boston was also the site of some of the most extreme anti-integration tension during the same era; Massachusetts was simultaneously a center of efforts in favor of the Equal Rights Amendment and against abortion.

Massachusetts's defiance of political categories continued into the 1990s. In 1990, blaming the current governor, Democrat Michael Dukakis, for the economy's decline, Massachusetts voters elected a Republican, William Weld, as governor. Yet Weld in fact espoused a blend of liberal and conservative positions. A fiscal conservative who called for cutting taxes and reducing programs such as Medicaid and state employee pension plans, Weld took a liberal stance on social issues, supporting gay rights, abortion rights, and strict protection of the environment. In August 1997, Weld resigned as governor to pursue an appointment as ambassador to Mexico.

Beginning in 1989, the Massachusetts economy declined dramatically, losing 14% of its total jobs in three years. Like other parts of New England, Massachusetts was hit hard by the recession of the early 1990s, and the state's economic woes were aggravated by the collapse in the late 1980s of speculative real estate ventures. The saturation of the real estate market forced retrenchments not only of that industry but of construction as well. By 1992, a number of indications suggested that a recovery had begun to take hold, aided in part by the privatization of highway maintenance, prison health care, and some other state-run operations.

By the mid-1990s, the Massachusetts economy was in the midst of a vigorous upturn, credited largely to the strength of its leading local industries, including software and mutual funds, and the health of the US economy as a whole. In 1996 the state's unemployment level fell to 4%, the lowest it had been since 1989. By 1999 the unemployment rate had dropped further, to 3.2%. Its 1998 per capita income of \$32,902 was the third highest in the nation and had grown at the second-fastest rate (second only to that of Wyoming). Massachusetts' per capita personal income was \$41,801 in 2004, second highest in the nation, behind Connecticut.

Despite that record, the thriving economy came to an abrupt halt in 2001, as the United States entered a recession marked by a large increase in job losses. In 2003, Massachusetts had a \$3 billion budget deficit. Issues facing the legislature that year included Medicaid spending and a prescription drug program for senior citizens. The state Senate had approved a measure calling for a ban on smoking in the workplace, which was being considered by the House of Representatives. (This ban on smoking in the workplace, including in bars and restaurants—private clubs and cigar bars excepted—came into effect in July 2004.) In addition, the state was considering the legality of same-sex marriages. Republican governor Mitt Romney, a business executive and fiscal conservative elected in 2002, took a liberal stand on some social issues, such as supporting abortion choice and gay rights, but he also advocated reinstatement of the death penalty. Romney recommended a 0.3%

reduction in the personal income tax for his 2006 budget, from 5.3% to 5.0%.

Balancing development with environmental conservation was among the issues the state grappled with at the dawn of the 21st century. In 2000 the legislature approved a statewide initiative to preserve open space through local land-acquisition funds. The funds were to come from a \$20 surcharge on all transactions at the Registry of Deeds and Land Court; communities would also be given the option to allow voters to approve a property tax increase of up to 3% to support the measure.

The state was the setting of a national controversy in April 2000: in a report condemning lax oversight of the largest public works project in US history, a federal task force charged that managers of Boston's multibillion-dollar highway project intentionally concealed cost overruns. Known as "Big Dig," the massive project includes building a 10-lane expressway under Boston and extending the Massachusetts Turnpike beneath Boston Harbor to Logan International Airport. State officials had revealed in February that the project, which began in 1991, was \$1.4 billion over its \$10.8 billion budget, making it more expensive than the Boston Harbor cleanup. The project to restore the harbor, considered the nation's filthiest in 1990, was drawing to a successful close in 2000, in spite of cost overruns. Portions of the highway project, including the extension of I-90 through the Ted Williams Tunnel to Logan Airport were completed in January 2003. During 2004, the old elevated Central Artery (formerly I-93) came down, creating 27 acres for a new tree-lined boulevard and cross streets, sidewalks, parks, and other refurbished open space. As of October 2005, 97% of the construction on the Big Dig project was complete.

Massachusetts was at the center of the sexual abuse scandals plaguing the Catholic Church in the early 2000s. Cardinal Bernard F. Law stepped down as Archbishop of Boston in December 2002 after widespread criticism of his handling of charges that priests sexually abused children, and of allegations of cover-ups. The Vatican replaced Law with Sean Patrick O'Malley as Archbishop of Boston in 2003.

In November 2003, the Massachusetts Supreme Court became the first state supreme court in the nation to rule that same-sex marriages were legal. The court ruled that denying individuals from the "protections, benefits, and obligations of civil marriage solely because that person would marry a person of the same sex violates the Massachusetts constitution." Massachusetts became the first state to legally allow gay marriages to take place on 17 May 2004. In September 2005, the Massachusetts state legislature rejected a proposed state constitutional amendment that would have banned gay marriage but allowed civil unions.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The first state constitution, drawn up soon after the signing of the Declaration of Independence, was rejected by the electorate. A revised draft was not approved by the state voters until 15 June 1780, following two constitutional conventions. This constitution, as amended (120 times by January 2005), governs Massachusetts and is, according to the state, the oldest written constitution in the world still in effect.

The legislature of Massachusetts, known as the General Court, is composed of a 40-member Senate and 160-member House of Representatives, all of whom are elected every two years in

even-numbered years. Annual legislative sessions begin the first Wednesday in January and must conclude by November 15 one year and by July 31 the following year. Additionally, legislators may petition to convene special sessions. Members of the Senate must have resided in Massachusetts for at least five years and must be residents of their districts; representatives must have lived in their districts for at least one year prior to election. The minimum age for all legislators is 18, and they must be qualified voters. The legislative salary was \$53,379.93 in 2004.

The governor and lieutenant governor are elected jointly every four years. The governor appoints all state and local judges, as well as the heads of the executive offices. Both the governor and lieutenant governor must have resided in the state for at least seven years; there is no minimum age specified for the offices. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$135,000 (Gov. Mitt Romney waives his salary). Other elected officials include the attorney general, secretary of the commonwealth, treasurer and receiver-general, and auditor of the commonwealth. All serve four-year terms.

Any Massachusetts citizen may file a bill through a state legislator, or a bill may be filed directly by a legislator or by the governor. To win passage, a bill must gain a majority vote of both houses of the legislature. After a bill is passed, the governor has 10 days in which to sign it, return it for reconsideration (usually with amendments), veto it, or hold onto it until after the legislature adjourns ("pocket veto"). A veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the members present in both houses.

An amendment to the constitution may be introduced by any house or Senate member (legislative amendment); if it is approved by two successive sessions of the legislature, the amendment is then submitted to the voters at the next general election. An amendment may also be introduced by a petition signed by 3% of the total votes cast for governor in the last state election, which must be at least 25,000 qualified voters, and that is presented in a joint session of the General Court. No more than one-fourth of the signatures may come from any one county. The majority vote on the amendment must be 30% of the total ballots cast at the election.

To vote in a Massachusetts district, a person must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a state resident. Convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court may not vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Federalist Party, represented nationally by John Adams, dominated Massachusetts in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. The state turned to the Whig Party in the second quarter of the 19th century. Predominantly Yankee in character, the Whigs supported business growth, promoted protective tariffs, and favored such enterprises as railroads and factories. The new Republican Party, to which most Massachusetts Whigs gravitated when their party split in the 1850s, was a prime mover of abolitionism and played an important role in the election of Abraham Lincoln as president in 1860. Republicans held most of the major state elective offices, as well as most US congressional seats, until the early 1900s.

The Democratic Party's rise starting in the 1870s was tied directly to massive Irish immigration. Other immigrant groups also gravitated toward the Democrats, and in 1876, the state's first Democratic congressman was elected. In 1928, the state voted

for Democratic presidential candidate Alfred E. Smith, a Roman Catholic, the first time the Democrats won a majority in a Massachusetts presidential election. Democrats have subsequently, for the most part, dominated state politics. In 1960, John F. Kennedy, who had been a popular US senator from Massachusetts, became the first Roman Catholic president in US history. Since then the state has voted for all Democratic presidential candidates except Republican Ronald Reagan in 1980 and 1984; in 1972, it was the only state carried by Democrat George McGovern. Massachusetts chose its native son, Democratic governor Michael Dukakis, for president in 1988 and voted again for a Democrat in the next three elections, giving Al Gore 60% of the vote, Republican George W. Bush 33%, and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader 6% in 2000. In 2004, state voters gave native son, Democrat John Kerry, 53.4% of the vote to incumbent George W. Bush's 44.6%. In 2004 there were 3,973,000 registered voters. In 1998, 37% of registered voters were Democratic, 13% Republican, and 50% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had 12 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

From 1990 to 1997, the governorship was held by a Republican, William Weld. Weld resigned in 1997 to pursue an appointment as ambassador to Mexico, at which time he was succeeded by lieutenant governor and fellow Republican Argeo Paul Cellucci. Cellucci was elected in his own right in November 1998. In 2002, Republican Mitt Romney was elected governor. Following the 2004 election, the US Senate seats for Massachusetts were held by Democrats Edward Kennedy (last elected in 2000) and John Kerry (last elected in 2002). In 2003, Kerry launched an unsuccessful campaign for the presidency. The 10-member US House delegation following the 2004 elections again consisted entirely of Democrats. In December 2005 the Massachusetts state Senate had 34 Democrats and 6 Republicans, while the state House of Representatives, known as the General Court, had 139 Democrats, 20 Republicans, with 1 Independent.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Massachusetts had 14 counties, 45 municipal governments, 349 school districts, and 403 special districts. In 2002 there were also 306 townships.

In most counties, which mostly serve judicial purposes, executive authority is vested in commissioners elected to four-year terms. Other county officials include the register of probate and family court, sheriff, clerk of courts, county treasurer, and register of deeds.

All Massachusetts cities are governed by mayors and city councils. Towns are governed by selectmen, who are usually elected to either one- or two-year terms. Town meetings—a carryover from the colonial period, when every taxpayer had an equal voice in town government—still take place. By state law, to be designated as a city, a place must have at least 12,000 residents. Towns with more than 6,000 inhabitants may hold representative town meetings limited to elected officials.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 233,729 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Massachusetts operates under the authority of state statute; activities are overseen by the public safety director.

State services are provided through the 14 executive offices and major departments that constitute the governor's cabinet. The heads of these departments are appointed by the governor. The Ethics in Massachusetts State Government organization distributes information on state government scandals.

Educational services are administered by the Department of Education. Included under its jurisdiction are the State Board of Education and Board of Higher Education, the Massachusetts community college and state college systems, the University of

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MASSACHUSETTS WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	SOCIALIST LABOR	PROGRESSIVE
1948	16	*Truman (D)	1,151,788	909,370	5,535	38,157
1952	16	*Eisenhower (R)	1,083,525	1,292,325	1,957	4,636
1956	16	*Eisenhower (R)	948,190	1,393,197	5,573	—
1960	16	*Kennedy (D)	1,487,174	976,750	3,892	—
1964	14	*Johnson (D)	1,786,422	549,727	4,755	—
						AMERICAN IND.
1968	14	Humphrey (D)	1,469,218	766,844	6,180	87,088
					SOC. WORKERS	AMERICAN
1972	14	McGovern (D)	1,332,540	1,112,078	10,600	2,877
1976	14	*Carter (D)	1,429,475	1,030,276	8,138	7,555
					LIBERTARIAN	
1980	14	*Reagan (R)	1,048,562	1,054,213	21,311	—
1984	13	*Reagan (R)	1,239,600	1,310,936	—	—
						NEW ALLIANCE
1988	13	Dukakis (D)	1,401,415	1,194,635	24,251	9,561
						IND. (Perot)
1992	12	*Clinton (D)	1,318,639	805,039	9,021	630,731
1996	12	*Clinton (D)	1,571,763	718,107	20,426	227,217
						GREEN
2000	12	Gore (D)	1,616,487	878,502	16,366	173,564
2004	12	Kerry (D)	1,803,800	1,071,109	15,022	10,623

*Won US presidential election.

Massachusetts, the Council of the Arts and Humanities, and the State Library.

The Executive Office of Transportation supervises the Department of Public Works and has responsibility for the planning and development of transportation systems within the state, including the Massachusetts Port Authority, the Massachusetts Highway Department, the Massachusetts Turnpike Authority, the Massachusetts Bay Transportation Authority, the Registry of Motor Vehicles, and the Massachusetts Aeronautics Commission.

All public health, mental health, youth, and veterans' programs are administered by the Executive Office of Health and Human Services. Also under its jurisdiction is the Department of Public Health. The Executive Office of Public Safety includes the Department of Correction, Emergency Management Agency, National Guard, and State Police.

The Executive Office of Consumer Affairs and Business Regulation regulates state standards and registers professional workers. The departments of telecommunications and energy are also part of this office, as are the divisions regulating banks and insurance. Housing services are provided through the Department of Housing and Community Development.

The Executive Office of Environmental Affairs protects the state's marine and wildlife, and monitors the quality of its air, water, and food. Labor and industrial relations are monitored through the Department of Labor, which administers the minimum wage law, occupational safety laws, and child labor laws, among others. The Executive Office of Economic Development helps to improve the economic climate in the state and promotes exports and tourism.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

All statewide judicial offices are filled by the governor, with the advice and consent of the executive council.

The Supreme Judicial Court, composed of a chief justice and six other justices, is the highest court in the state. It has appellate jurisdiction in matters of law and also advises the governor and legislature on legal questions. The superior courts, actually the highest level of trial court, have a chief justice and 79 other justices; these courts hear law, equity, civil, and criminal cases, and make the final determination in matters of fact. The appeals court, consisting of a chief justice and 13 other justices, hears appeals of decisions by district and municipal courts. There are also district and municipal courts and trial court judges. Other court systems in the state include the land court, probate and family court, housing court (with divisions in Boston and Hampden counties), and juvenile court (with divisions in Boston, Springfield, Worcester, and Bristol counties).

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 10,144 prisoners were held in Massachusetts' state and federal prisons, a decrease from 10,232 of 0.9% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 741 inmates were female, up from 708 or 4.7% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Massachusetts had an incarceration rate of 232 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Massachusetts in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 458.8 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 29,437 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 157,825

reported incidents or 2,459.7 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Massachusetts has no death penalty.

Under Massachusetts' gun control laws, all guns must be registered, and there is a mandatory one-year jail sentence for possession without a permit.

In 2003, Massachusetts spent \$299,944,420 on homeland security, an average of \$48 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The military installations located in Massachusetts in 2004 had 4,382 active-duty military personnel, 7,315 National Guard and Reserve, and 3,049 civilian personnel. The largest installation in the state is the Laurence G. Hanscom Air Force Base in Bedford. Other installations include the Army reserve and development center at Natick, Westover Air Reserve Base, one of 11 Air Force Reserve host bases, home to the 439th Airlift Wing, and, the Navy's South Weymouth Naval Air Station closed in 1997 and redeveloped for multiple uses including parks and recreation. Defense contracts awarded in 2004 totaled \$6.96 billion, eighth-highest in the United States for that year. In addition, Massachusetts received another \$1.1 billion in defense payroll spending, including retired military pay.

There were 490,882 military veterans living in the state in 2003, of which 90,933 served in World War II; 65,672 during the Korean conflict; 142,892 during the Vietnam era; and 51,292 during the Persian Gulf War. In 2004, expenditures on veterans exceeded \$1.3 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the Massachusetts State Police employed 2,199 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Massachusetts was founded by the migration of English religious groups to its shores, and for over a century their descendants dominated all activity in the state. The first non-English to enter Massachusetts in significant numbers were the Irish, who migrated in vast numbers during the 1840s and 1850s. By 1860, one-third of Boston's population was Irish, while nearly one-fourth of Middlesex and Norfolk counties and one-fifth of the inhabitants of Berkshire, Bristol, Essex, and Hampden counties were Irish-born. Other ethnic groups—such as the Scottish, Welsh, Germans, and Poles—were also entering the state at this time, but their numbers were small by comparison. During the late 1880s and 1890s, another wave of immigrants—from Portugal, Spain, Italy, Russia, and Greece—arrived. Irish and Italians continued to enter the state during the 20th century.

A slow but steady migration from Massachusetts farm communities began during the mid-1700s and continued well into the 1800s. The first wave of farmers resettled in northern Connecticut, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine. Later farmers moved to New York's Mohawk Valley, Ohio, and points farther west. Out-migration has continued into recent times: from 1970 to 1990, Massachusetts lost nearly 400,000 residents in net migration to other states but experienced an overall net increase from migration of 59,000 due to migration from abroad. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 237,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 135,000 in international migration. In 1996, Massachusetts's foreign-born population numbered 591,000, or nearly 10% of the state's total population. In 1998, 15,869 foreign immi-

grants arrived in Massachusetts, the 8th-highest total of any state for that year. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 2.2%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 162,674 and net internal migration was -236,415, for a net loss of 73,741 people.

The only significant migration from other areas of the United States to Massachusetts has been the influx of southern blacks since World War II. According to census estimates, Massachusetts gained 84,000 blacks between 1940 and 1975; between 1990 and 1998, the black population grew from 300,000 to 395,000 persons, mostly in the Boston area.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Massachusetts participates in numerous regional agreements, including the New England Interstate Corrections, Police, Board of Higher Education, Radiological Health Protection, and Interstate Water Pollution Control compacts. The state is also a party to the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, the Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, the Connecticut River Valley Flood Control Compact, the Bay State-Ocean State Compact with Rhode Island, the Merrimack River Basin Flood Control Compact, the Thames River Flood Control Compact, and the Connecticut River Atlantic Salmon Compact.

Border agreements include the Connecticut-Massachusetts Boundary Compact (ratified by Massachusetts in 1908), the Massachusetts-New York Compact of 1853, and the Massachusetts-Rhode Island Compact of 1859. During fiscal year 2001, the state received over \$9.7 billion in federal grants. Following a national trend, that amount was decreased significantly to \$8.589 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$8.892 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$8.217 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

From its beginnings as a farming and seafaring colony, Massachusetts became one of the most industrialized states in the country in the late 19th century and, more recently, a leader in the manufacture of high-technology products.

During the colonial and early national periods, the towns of Salem, Gloucester, Marblehead, and Boston, among others, gave the state strong fishing and shipbuilding industries. Boston was also an important commercial port and a leading center of foreign commerce. Agriculture was important, but productivity of the rocky soil was limited, and by the mid-1800s, farming could not sustain the expanding population. The opening of the Erie Canal, and subsequent competition with cheaper produce grown in the West, hastened agriculture's decline in the Bay State.

Massachusetts's rise as a center of manufacturing began in the early 1800s, when cottage industries developed in small farming communities. Large factories were then built in towns with water power. The country's first "company town," Lowell, was built in the early 1820s to accommodate the state's growing textile industry. Throughout the rest of the 19th century, the state supplied the nation with most of its shoes and woven goods.

Underbid by cheap labor in the south and in other countries, the shoe and textile industries died a slow and painful death. Manufacturing remained central to Massachusetts's economy, however. Fueled in part by a dramatic increase in the Pentagon's budget during the Reagan administration which focused on high-tech-

nology weaponry, as well as by significant advances in information technology, high-tech companies sprung up around the periphery of Boston in the 1970s and early 1980s. Wholesale and retail trade, transportation and public utilities also prospered. In the late 1980s, the boom ended. The minicomputer industry failed to innovate at the same pace as its competitors elsewhere at the same time that the market became increasingly crowded, and defense contractors suffered from cuts in military spending. Between 1988 and 1991, jobs in both high-tech and non-high tech manufacturing declined by 17%. The early 1980s also saw the rise of speculative real estate ventures which collapsed at the end of the decade when the market became saturated. Employment in construction dropped 44% between 1988 and 1991, and real estate jobs declined 23.8%. Wholesale and retail trade lost 100,000 jobs. Hurt by unsound loans, banks were forced to retrench. Unemployment rose to 9% in 1991.

The economy recovered in the 1990s, as evidenced by several banks' announcement of new lending programs as well as a reduction in the unemployment rate to 4% by 1997. Annual growth rates soared to 7.8% in 1998, 6.8% in 1999 and 9.8% in 2000 as Massachusetts benefited from information technology (IT) and stock market booms of the late 1990s. However, in the collapse of the dot.com bubble in the national recession of 2001, Massachusetts was the hardest hit among the New England economies, as growth abruptly plummeted to 1.7% in 2001. Continued weakness in national business investment and in equity markets continued to impede economic growth in Massachusetts in 2002.

Massachusetts's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$317.798 billion, of which real estate accounted for the largest portion at \$43.439 billion or 13.6% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$34.912 billion (10.9% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance at \$26.353 billion (8.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 599,389 small businesses in Massachusetts. Of the 178,752 businesses that had employees, a total of 175,217 or 98% were small companies. An estimated 18,822 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 0.9% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 20,270, down 7.3% from 2003. There were 315 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 20.5% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 278 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Massachusetts as the 50th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Massachusetts had a gross state product (GSP) of \$329 billion which accounted for 2.6% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 13 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Massachusetts had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$42,176. This ranked third in the United States and was 128% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.8%. Massachusetts had a total personal income (TPI) of \$270,235,901,000, which ranked 11th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.4%. Earnings of persons employed in Massachusetts increased from \$204,746,728,000 in 2003

to \$218,451,912,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.7%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$52,354 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.8% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Massachusetts numbered 3,338,600, with approximately 163,900 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.9%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 3,218,000. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Massachusetts was 10.9% in January 1976. The historical low was 2.7% in December 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.4% of the labor force was employed in construction; 9.4% in manufacturing; 17.7% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.9% in financial activities; 14.5% in professional and business services; 18.4% in education and health services; 9.1% in leisure and hospitality services; and 12.7% in government.

Some of the earliest unionization efforts took place in Massachusetts in the early 1880s, particularly in the shipbuilding and construction trades. However, the most important trade unions to evolve were those in the state's textile and shoe industries. The workers had numerous grievances: shoebinders' salaries of \$1.60–\$2.40 a week during the 1840s, workdays of 14 to 17 hours, wages paid in scrip that could be cashed only at company stores (which charged exorbitantly high prices), and children working at dangerous machinery. In 1867, a seven-week-long shoemakers' strike at Lynn, the center of the shoe business, was at that time the longest strike in US history.

After the turn of the century, the state suffered a severe decline in manufacturing, and employers sought to cut wages to make up for lost profits. This resulted in a number of strikes by both the United Textile Workers and the Boot and Shoe Workers Union. The largest strike of the era was at Lawrence in 1912, when textile workers (led by a radical labor group, the Industrial Workers of the World) closed the mills, and the mayor called in troops in an attempt to reopen them. Although the textile and shoe businesses are no longer major employers in the state, the United Shoe Workers of America, the Brotherhood of Shoe and Allied Craftsmen, the United Textile Workers, and the Leather Workers International Union of America have their headquarters in Massachusetts.

Massachusetts was one of the first states to enact child labor laws. In 1842, it established the 10-hour day for children under 12. In 1867, it forbade employment for children under 10. The nation's first Uniform Child Labor Law, establishing an 8-hour day for children ages 14 to 16, was enacted by Massachusetts in 1913. Massachusetts was also the first state to enact minimum wage guidelines (1912).

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 402,000 of Massachusetts' 2,886,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 13.9% of those so employed, up from 13.5% in

2004, and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 431,000 workers (14.9%) in Massachusetts were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Massachusetts is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Massachusetts had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.75 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48.3% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

As of 2004, there were 6,100 farms in Massachusetts, covering 520,000 acres (210,000 hectares). Farming was mostly limited to the western Massachusetts counties of Hampshire, Franklin, and Berkshire, and southern Bristol County. Total agricultural income for 2005 was estimated at \$390 million (47th of the 50 states), of which crops provided 76%. Although the state is not a major farming area, it is the second-largest producer of cranberries in the United States; production for 2004 was 180,400,000 lb, about 28% of the US total. Output totals for other crops in 2004 were as follows: corn for silage, 374,000 tons; hay, 181,000 tons; and tobacco, 989,000 lb. While of local economic importance, these figures are tiny fractions of US totals.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Massachusetts is not a major producer of livestock. The state had 48,000 cattle and calves worth around \$52.8 million in 2005, and an estimated 12,000 hogs and pigs worth \$1.3 million in 2004. Also during 2003, poultry farmers sold 863,000 lb (392,000 kg) of chickens, and the state produced an estimated 73 million eggs, worth around \$4.8 million. An estimated 19,000 milk cows produced 332 million lb (151 million kg) of milk in 2003. During 2003, the state produced around 1.8 million lb (0.8 million kg) of turkeys worth \$2.7 million.

2⁵ FISHING

The early settlers earned much of their income from the sea. The first shipyard in Massachusetts opened at Salem Neck in 1637 and, during the years before independence, the towns of Salem, Newburyport, Plymouth, and Boston were among the colonies' leading ports. By 1807, Massachusetts's fishing fleet made up 88% of the US total. For much of the 19th century, Nantucket and, later, New Bedford were the leading US whaling centers. But with the decline of the whaling industry came a sharp drop in the importance of fishing to the livelihood of the state. By 1978, the fishing industry ranked 13th in importance of the 15 industries monitored by the state. However, the fishing ports of New Bedford and Gloucester were still among the busiest in the United States in 2004. New Bedford ranked first in the nation in catch value at \$206.5 million and seventh in the nation for catch volume at 175.1 million lb (79.6 million kg). Gloucester was 12th in the nation in catch value (\$42.7 million) and tenth in volume (113.3 million lb/51.5 million kg).

In 2004, Massachusetts ranked second in the nation for total commercial catch value at \$326.1 million. The total catch volume that year was 336.9 million lb (153.1 million kg). The quahog catch of 14.1 million lb (6.4 million kg) was the second largest in the nation. The lobster catch was also the second largest with 11.3 million lb (5.1 million kg) valued at \$51.5 million. Massachusetts

was the leading producer of sea scallops with 28.1 million lb (12.8 million kg). In 2003, there were 232 fish processing and wholesale plants with an annual average of 4,504 employees in the state. The commercial fleet in 2001 had about 5,235 boats and vessels.

The state's long shoreline and many rivers make sport fishing a popular pastime for both deepsea and freshwater fishermen. The fishing season runs from mid-April through late October, with the season extended through February for bass, pickerel, panfish, and trout. In 2004, there were 203,139 fishing license holders.

26 FORESTRY

Forestry is a minor industry in the state. Forested lands cover about 3,126,000 acres (1,265,000 hectares), 76% of which are private lands. Wooded areas lost to urbanization in recent years have been offset by the conversion of inactive agricultural areas into forests. Red oak and white ash are found in the west; specialty products include maple syrup and Christmas trees. The wood and paper products industries require more pulp than the state currently produces. Lumber production in 2004 totaled 60 million board ft, 60% hardwood.

Massachusetts has the sixth-largest state park system in the nation, with 38 state parks and 74 state forests totaling some 273,000 acres (110,000 hectares). There are no national forests in Massachusetts.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Massachusetts in 2003 was \$186 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 4%.

By value, crushed stone, construction sand and gravel, and lime were the state's top three nonfuel mineral commodities in 2003, according to USGS data. Collectively, these commodities accounted for around 94% of the state's nonfuel mineral output, by value. According to preliminary figures for 2003, a total of 13.2 million metric tons of crushed stone, valued at \$104 million, were produced, while 11.4 million metric tons of sand and gravel, worth \$70.7 million, were produced. Massachusetts in 2003 was also a producer of dimension stone and common clays. Dimension stone output that year totaled 81,000 metric tons and was valued at \$10.5 million, while output of common clays totaled 36,000 metric tons and was valued at \$321,000, according to the preliminary data. Nationally, the state ranked fifth in dimension stone in 2003.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Massachusetts had 69 electrical power service providers, of which 41 were publicly owned, 7 were investor owned, 4 were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers, 9 were generation-only suppliers, and 8 were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 2,927,308 retail customers. Of that total, 2,456,890 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Publically owned providers had 382,808 customers, while 132 were independent generator or "facility" customers. Generation-only suppliers had 87,478 customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only service customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 13.877 million kW, with to-

tal production that same year at 48.385 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, only 4.2% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 95.8% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 22.423 billion kWh (46.3%), came from natural gas fired plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 10.896 billion kWh (22.5%) and petroleum fueled plants in third at 7.459 billion kWh (15.4%). Nuclear power accounted for 10.3% of all power generated followed by other renewable power sources and hydroelectric sources.

In 2006, the Pilgrim power plant in Plymouth was Massachusetts' only operating nuclear power plant.

Boston Edison supplies electricity to the city of Boston; the rest of the state is served by 13 other companies, although a few municipalities do generate their own power. Power companies are regulated by the Department of Public Utilities, which establishes rates and monitors complaints from customers.

As of 2004, Massachusetts had no proven reserves of crude oil or coal, although oil exploration off the coast of Cape Cod did take place 1979 following a lengthy court battle. Environmentalists and fishermen had sought to prevent development of an oil industry in the region, which is one of the richest fishing grounds in the country. The state has no refineries.

The state consumes but does not produce natural gas. In 2004 about 373 billion cu ft (10.5 billion cu m) of natural gas were delivered. Slightly more than 30% of the gas sold was for residential use, 54% for industries and electricity generation, and 15% for commercial use.

The state encourages energy conservation and the development of alternative energy systems by granting tax credits to qualifying industries. Private researchers and the state have established demonstration projects for solar energy systems and other alternatives to fossil fuels.

29 INDUSTRY

Massachusetts was the nation's first major industrial state, and during the later part of the 19th century, it was the US leader in shoemaking and textile production. By 1860, the state was a major producer of machinery and milled nearly one-fourth of the country's paper.

Massachusetts remains an important manufacturing center. Nearly all the major manufacturing sectors had plants in Massachusetts's eastern counties. Significant concentrations of industrial machinery employment are in Attleboro, Wilmington, Worcester, and the Springfield area. Much of the manufacturing industry is located along Route 128, a superhighway that circles Boston from Gloucester in the north to Quincy in the south and is unique in its concentration of high-technology enterprises. Massachusetts's future as a manufacturing center depends on its continued pre-eminence in the production of computers, optical equipment, and other sophisticated instruments.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Massachusetts' manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$76.538 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$20.757 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$9.254 billion; miscellaneous

manufacturing at \$6.437 billion; food manufacturing at \$6.053 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$5.823 billion.

In 2004, a total of 302,263 people in Massachusetts were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 179,747 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 58,806, with 25,353 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 34,054 employees (24,028 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing at 31,425 employees (19,006 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 23,887 employees (13,294 actual production workers); chemical manufacturing at 23,305 employees (10,354 actual production workers); and food manufacturing with 21,120 employees (13,743 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Massachusetts' manufacturing sector paid \$14.895 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$3.766 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.528 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$1.501 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.354 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$1.327 billion.

30 COMMERCE

Massachusetts's machinery and electrical goods industries are important components of the state's wholesale trade, along with motor vehicle and automotive equipment, and paper and paper products. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Massachusetts' wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$127.1 billion from 9,333 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 5,546 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,826 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 961 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$52.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$55.1 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$19.8 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Massachusetts was listed as having 25,761 retail establishments with sales of \$73.9 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (4,529); clothing and clothing accessories stores (3,764); miscellaneous store retailers (2,979); and gasoline stations (2,333). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$17.6 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$13.7 billion; general merchandise stores at \$7.1 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers \$6.1 billion. A total of 359,149 people were employed by the retail sector in Massachusetts that year.

Exporters located in Massachusetts exported \$22.04 billion in merchandise during 2005, ranking 10th in the nation.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection in Massachusetts is handled by two state entities: the Executive Office of Consumer Affairs and Business Regulation, which serves as an information and referral center for

consumer complaints and oversees the activities of many of the state's regulatory agencies; and the Office of the Attorney General which has a Consumer Protection and Antitrust Division that handles consumer complaints either through litigation or nine face-to-face mediation programs. The Massachusetts Consumer Council also advises the governor and legislature and there are many local consumer councils.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Executive Office of Consumer Affairs and Business Regulation and the Attorney General Office's Consumer Protection and Antitrust Division are both located in Boston. The Attorney General's Office also has regional offices in New Bedford, Springfield and Worcester. County government consumer affairs offices are located in Greenfield, Northampton, Pittsfield, Quincy, Worcester, Boston, Cambridge, Fall River, Haverhill, Hyannis, Lawrence, Lowell, Medford, Natick, Newton, North Weymouth, Plymouth, Revere, Springfield and Waltham.

32 BANKING

By the mid-1800s, Boston had developed into a major banking center whose capital financed the state's burgeoning industries. As of 2005 banking remained an important sector of the state's economy.

As of June 2005, Massachusetts had 195 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 103 state-chartered and 149 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Boston-Cambridge-Quincy market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 154 institutions and \$141.035 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 8.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$22.128 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 91.2% or \$230.670 billion in assets held.

State chartered savings banks, trust companies, co-operative banks, credit unions, and other financial service providers, including mortgage lenders and brokers, debt collection agencies, foreign transmittal agencies, check cashers, and credit grantors, are regulated by the state's Division of Banks, within the Office of Consumer Affairs and Business Regulation. The division administers the state's banking laws and oversees bank and financial institution practices and policies.

In 2004, the median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans stood at 0.60%, down from 0.70% in 2003. In that same year, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for the state's insured institutions stood at 3.50%, down from 3.54% in 2003. Around 82% of insured institutions headquartered

in Massachusetts are savings institutions, and residential real estate loans make up some 65% of the average loan portfolio.

3³ INSURANCE

Insurance is an important business in Massachusetts, and some of the largest life and property and casualty insurance companies in the nation have their headquarters in Boston.

In 2004 there were over 3.1 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$349 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$571 billion. The average coverage amount is \$111,700 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at over \$1.2 billion.

As of 2003, there were 55 property and casualty and 19 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$11.8 billion. That year, there were 40,473 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$7.1 billion. About \$39 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

On 4 April 2006, the Massachusetts legislature approved a bill designed to make the purchase of health insurance a requirement for all state residents by 1 July 2007. The governor accepted most of the bill into law on 13 April. Under the terms of the bill, government subsidies will be available to assist low-income residents and employers with 11 employees or more may be required to either provide coverage for their workers or to pay an annual per employee fee to the government. Beginning in January 2008, residents could be required to report information concerning their health insurance policy on their state income tax return. Those who do not provide such proof of coverage may lose their personal state tax exemption and face penalties of up to half the cost of the lowest priced insurance policy. This bill, the first such legislation in the United States, is designed to address the issue of paying for the health care for over 500,000 of uninsured and underinsured residents.

In 2004, 60% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 25% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 20% for single coverage and 24% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 4.1 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$5,000. Personal injury protection and uninsured motorist coverage are also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$1,051.60, which ranked as the fourth-highest average in the nation (after New Jersey, New York, and the District of Columbia).

New England Mutual Life Insurance Co. of Boston was the first mutual company to be chartered in the United States and remains one of the largest firms in the business. John Hancock Mutual Life, also of Boston, is one of the largest life insurance companies in the United States.

All aspects of the insurance business in Massachusetts, including the licensing of agents, and brokers and the examination of all insurance companies doing business in the state, are controlled by the Division of Insurance, under the Executive Office of Consumer Affairs and Business Regulation.

3⁴ SECURITIES

The Boston Stock Exchange, founded in 1834, is the only stock exchange in Massachusetts. The BSE has approximately 200 members, handles over 2,000 stocks, and is the fastest-growing stock exchange in the United States (increasing trade volume tenfold during the 1990s). In 2005, there were 7,070 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents employed in the state. In 2004, there were over 468 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 235 NASDAQ companies, 101 NYSE listings, and 64 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had nine Fortune 500 companies; Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance (based in Springfield) ranked first in the state and 92nd in the nation with revenues of over \$22.7 billion, followed by Raytheon (Waltham), Liberty Mutual Insurance Group (Boston), Staples (Framingham), and TJX Companies (Framingham). Staples is listed on NASDAQ while the other four companies are on the NYSE.

The Securities Division of the Office of the Secretary of the Commonwealth is responsible for licensing and monitoring all brokerage firms in the state.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The Massachusetts budget is prepared by the Executive Office of Administration and Finance and is presented by the governor to the legislature for revision and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$28.1 billion for resources and \$25.5 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Massachusetts were \$13.8 billion.

In 5 January 2006 the Bush administration released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$4.7 million for Massachusetts.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Massachusetts collected \$18,015 million in tax revenues or \$2,815 per capita, which placed it seventh among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 21.6% of the total, selective sales taxes 10.5%, individual income taxes 53.8%, corporate income taxes 7.4%, and other taxes 6.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, Massachusetts had a single individual income tax bracket of 5.3%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 9.5%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$9,814,315,000 or \$1,532 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state seventh-highest nationally. Local governments collected \$9,814,264,000 of the total and the state government \$51,000.

Massachusetts taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 151 cents per pack, which ranks eighth among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Massachusetts taxes gasoline at 21 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Massachusetts citizens received \$0.77 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Executive Office of Economic Development is responsible for setting economic policy, promoting Massachusetts as a place to do business, increasing the job base, and generating economic activity in the Commonwealth.

The following agencies are within the Executive Office of Economic Development: Department of Business and Technology; Office of Consumer Affairs and Business Regulation; Department of Labor; and Department of Workforce Development. Other agencies addressing issues of economic development are: the Massachusetts Development Finance Agency (Mass Development); the Massachusetts Alliance for Economic Development; the Workforce Training Fund; the Massachusetts Office of International Trade and Investment; the Massachusetts Technology Collaborative, the Massachusetts Technology Development Corp., and the Department of Housing and Community Development.

Throughout most of the 1990's and up to 2002, the state economic development plan was guided by the 1993 report entitled "Choosing to Compete: A Statewide Strategy for Economic Growth and Job Creation." The Massachusetts Economic Development Incentive Program (EDIP), launched in 1993, was a series of initiatives geared to stimulate job creation, attract new businesses, and help firms expand. There were 34 Economic Target Areas (ETAs) throughout the state. Cities and towns, in partnership with the Commonwealth and private enterprises, also developed economic programs to attract new business. In 2002, building on what was seen as the success of the Choosing to Compete campaign, the former Department of Economic Development issued a new framework entitled "Toward a New Prosperity: Building Regional Competitiveness Across the Commonwealth." The approach divides the state economy into seven regional clusters, each with unique developmental needs and potentials. Six overall goals were stated: to improve the business climate for all business clusters; to support entrepreneurship and innovation; to prepare the workforce for the future; to build an information infrastructure for the 21st century; to ensure that economic growth is compatible with communities and the environment, and to the improve the outcome from government actions.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 21.4 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 90% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 89% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.8 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per

Massachusetts—State Government Finances		
(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)		
	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	41,615,765	6,495.36
General revenue	32,979,924	5,147.48
Intergovernmental revenue	8,997,317	1,404.29
Taxes	16,839,243	2,628.26
General sales	3,743,204	584.24
Selective sales	1,859,410	290.22
License taxes	664,556	103.72
Individual income tax	8,830,334	1,378.23
Corporate income tax	1,301,076	203.07
Other taxes	440,663	68.78
Current charges	2,594,314	404.92
Miscellaneous general revenue	4,549,050	710.01
Utility revenue	130,376	20.35
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	8,505,465	1,327.53
Total expenditure	38,405,514	5,994.31
Intergovernmental expenditure	6,202,583	968.09
Direct expenditure	32,202,931	5,026.21
Current operation	20,238,600	3,158.83
Capital outlay	4,317,975	673.95
Insurance benefits and repayments	4,318,252	673.99
Assistance and subsidies	702,842	109.70
Interest on debt	2,625,262	409.75
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	4,117,062	642.59
Total expenditure	38,405,514	5,994.31
General expenditure	33,646,572	5,251.53
Intergovernmental expenditure	6,202,583	968.09
Direct expenditure	27,443,989	4,283.44
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	7,580,759	1,183.20
Public welfare	10,552,819	1,647.08
Hospitals	414,685	64.72
Health	686,758	107.19
Highways	3,015,459	470.65
Police protection	407,951	63.67
Correction	972,276	151.75
Natural resources	272,138	42.48
Parks and recreation	305,471	47.68
Government administration	1,389,776	216.92
Interest on general debt	2,566,137	400.52
Other and unallocable	5,482,343	855.68
Utility expenditure	440,690	68.78
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	4,318,252	673.99
Debt at end of fiscal year	50,981,152	7,957.10
Cash and security holdings	65,110,609	10,162.42

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 229.3; cancer, 216.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 55.4; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 42.7; and diabetes, 22.1. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 3.6 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 8.8 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 51.3% of the population was considered overweight or obese, representing the lowest percentage among the 50 states. As of 2004, about 18.4% of state residents were smokers.

Programs for treatment and rehabilitation of alcoholics are administered by the Division of Alcoholism of the Department of

Health, under the Executive Office of Human Services. The Division of Communicable Disease Control operates venereal disease clinics throughout the state and provides educational material to schools and other groups. The Division of Drug Rehabilitation administers drug treatment from a statewide network of hospital agencies and self-help groups. The state also runs a lead-poisoning prevention program. In Massachusetts, all health-care facilities are registered by the Department of Public Health. The Division of Health Care Quality inspects and licenses hospitals, clinics, school infirmaries, and blood banks every two years. Licensing of nursing homes is also under its control.

In 2003, Massachusetts had 79 community hospitals with about 16,000 beds. There were about 785,000 patient admissions that year and 19.6 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 11,900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,631. Also in 2003, there were about 478 certified nursing facilities in the state with 52,323 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 89.8%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 79.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year; this was the third-highest dental care percentage in country (after Connecticut and Minnesota). Massachusetts had 451 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 1,201 nurses per 100,000 in 2005; these rates some of the highest health-care worker–population rates in the nation. In 2004, there were a total of 5,143 dentists in the state.

Four prominent medical schools are located in the state: Harvard Medical School, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston University School of Medicine, and the University of Massachusetts School of Medicine. In 2005, Massachusetts General Hospital in Boston ranked third on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, it ranked fifth in the nation for care of heart disease and heart surgery and twelfth for care of cancer. Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston ranked twelfth on the Honor Roll and sixth for best care in heart disease and heart surgery. The Children's Hospital Boston was ranked as second in the nation for best pediatric care. The Dana-Farber Cancer Institute in Boston was ranked fourth in the nation for cancer care.

About 25% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$7.7 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 239,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$351. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 368,122 persons (176,121 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$82.18 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$363 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. The Massachusetts TANF cash assistance program is called

Transitional Aid to Families with Dependent Children (TAFDC), and the work program is called the Employment Services Program (ESP). In 2004, the state program had 108,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$355 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,066,620 Massachusetts residents. This number included 692,260 retired workers, 96,030 widows and widowers, 146,990 disabled workers, 47,430 spouses, and 83,910 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.6% of the total state population and 90.7% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$961; widows and widowers, \$933; disabled workers, \$883; and spouses, \$483. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$480 per month; children of deceased workers, \$677; and children of disabled workers, \$266. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 169,205 Massachusetts residents, averaging \$438 a month.

40 HOUSING

Massachusetts's housing stock, much older than the US average, reflects the state's colonial heritage and its ties to English architectural traditions. Two major styles are common: colonial, typified by a wood frame, two stories, center hall entry, and center chimney; and Cape Cod, one-story houses built by fishermen, typified by shallow basements, shingled roofs, clapboard fronts, and unpainted shingled sides weathered gray by the salt air. Many new houses are also built in these styles.

As of 2004, there were an estimated 2,672,061 housing units in the state, of which 2,435,421 were occupied; 64.6% were owner-occupied. About 52.5% of all housing units were single-family, detached homes. About 37.1% of all units were built before or during 1939. Nearly 42% of all units rely on utility gas for heating and 33.6% use fuel oil or kerosene. It was estimated that 50,724 units lacked telephone service, 7,775 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 10,402 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.55 members.

In 2004, 22,500 new housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$331,200, the fourth highest in the United States. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,645. Renters paid a median of \$852 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$34.3 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). The city of Boston received over \$20.9 million in community development block grants.

The Executive Office of Communities and Development administers federal housing programs for the state. The Massachusetts Housing Finance Agency finances the construction and rehabilitation of housing by private and community groups.

41 EDUCATION

Massachusetts has a long history of support for education. The Boston Latin School opened in 1635 as the first public school in the colonies. Harvard College—the first college in the United States—was founded the following year. In 1647, for the first time, towns with more than 50 people were required by law to establish tax-supported school systems. More firsts followed: the country's first board of education, compulsory school attendance law, train-

ing school for teachers, state school for the retarded, and school for the blind. The drive for quality public education in the state was intensified through the efforts of educator Horace Mann, who during the 1830s and 1840s was also a leading force for the improvement of school systems throughout the United States.

In 2004, 86.9% of state residents age 25 or older were high school graduates, and 36.7% had completed four or more years of college. Total public school enrollment for fall 2002 stood at 983,000. Of these, 701,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 282,000 attended high school. Approximately 74.6% of the students were white, 8.8% were black, 11.5% were Hispanic, 4.7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 978,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 919,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 6.5% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$11.7 billion or \$10,693 per student, the sixth-highest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Massachusetts scored 292 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

The early years of statehood saw the development of private academies, where the students could learn more than the basic reading and writing skills that were taught in the town schools at the time. Some of these private preparatory schools remain, including such prestigious institutions as Andover, Deerfield, and Groton. In fall 2003 there were 134,708 students enrolled in 688 private schools.

As of fall 2002, there were 431,224 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 20.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Massachusetts had 122 degree-granting institutions. The major public university system is the University of Massachusetts, with campuses at Amherst, Boston, Dartmouth, and Lowell, and a medical school at Worcester. The Amherst campus was established in 1863, and the Boston campus in 1965. The state has a total of 15 public colleges and universities, while the Massachusetts Board of Regional Community Colleges has 16 campuses.

Harvard University, which was established in Cambridge originally as a college for clergymen and magistrates, has grown to become one of the country's premier institutions. Also located in Cambridge are Radcliffe College (whose enrollment is included in Harvard's), founded in 1879, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, or MIT (1861). Mount Holyoke College, the first US college for women, was founded in 1837. Other prominent private schools and their dates of origin are Amherst College (1821); Boston College (1863); Boston University (1869); Brandeis University (1947); Clark University (1887); Hampshire College (1965); the New England Conservatory of Music (1867); Northeastern University (1898); Smith College (1871); Tufts University (1852); Wellesley College (1875); and Williams College (1793).

Among the tuition assistance programs available to state residents are the Massachusetts General Scholarships, awarded to thousands of college students annually, and Massachusetts Honor Scholarships, for outstanding performance on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). The State Board of Education establishes standards and policies for the public schools throughout the state;

its programs are administered by the Department of Education. Higher education planning and programs are under the control of the Higher Education Coordinating Council.

The landmark Education Reform Act of 1993 established new systems of financial support for public elementary and secondary schools and instituted major reforms in governance, professional development, student educational goals, curricula, and assessments.

42 ARTS

Boston is the center of artistic activity in Massachusetts, and Cape Cod and the Berkshires are areas of significant seasonal artistic activity. In 1979, Massachusetts became the first state to establish a lottery solely for funding the arts. Boston is the home of several small theaters, some of which offer previews of shows bound for Broadway. Well-known local theater companies include the American Repertory Theatre and the Huntington Theatre. The 2006/07 season marked the Huntington Theatre's 25th anniversary; productions that season included the pre-Broadway, *Radio Golf* and the world premiere, *Mauritius*. Of the regional theaters scattered throughout the state, the Williamstown Theater in the Berkshires and the Provincetown Theater on Cape Cod are especially noteworthy.

The Boston Symphony, one of the major orchestras in the United States, was founded in 1881, and its principal conductors have included Serge Koussevitzky, Charles Munch, Erich Leinsdorf, and Seiji Ozawa. Emmanuel Church in Boston's Back Bay is known for its early music concerts, and chamber music by first-rate local and internationally known performers is presented at the New England Conservatory's Jordan Hall and other venues throughout the city. During the summer, the Boston Symphony is the main attraction of the Berkshire Music Festival at Tanglewood in Lenox. An offshoot of the Boston Symphony, the Boston Pops Orchestra, gained fame under the conductorship of Arthur Fiedler. Its mixture of popular, jazz, and light symphonic music continued under the direction of Fiedler's successors, John Williams and Keith Lockhart. As of the 2006, Lockhart still presided over the Boston Pops as director and opened the season with a performance featuring Elvis Costello. Boston is also the headquarters of the Boston Lyric Opera. Prominent in the world of dance are the Boston Ballet Company and the Jacob's Pillow Dance Festival in the Berkshires. *Ploughshares*, a literary journal published through Emerson College in Boston, has become well known nationally as a showplace for new writers.

The Massachusetts Cultural Council provides grants and services to support public programs in the arts, sciences, and the humanities. Grants are made to organizations, schools, communities and artists. In 2005, the Massachusetts Cultural Council and other arts organizations received 87 grants totaling \$4,587,600 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). The Massachusetts Foundation for the Humanities was founded in 1974. The foundation offers unique traveling seminars; the 2005 "Saudades de Portugal" seminar provided the opportunity to travel to Portugal. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$7,502,287 to 79 state programs.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

The first public library in the United States was established in Boston in 1653. Massachusetts has one of the most important university libraries in the country, and numerous museums and historical sites commemorate the state's rich colonial history. For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Massachusetts had 371 public library systems, with a total of 490 libraries, of which 119 were branches. The system served 351 towns and cities, and had 30,465,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves, with a total circulation of 45,803,000 in that same year. The system also had 858,000 audio and 742,000 video items, 39,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 10 bookmobiles. The major city libraries are in Boston, Worcester, and Springfield. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public libraries was \$220,510,000 including \$1,107,000 in federal grants and \$20,725,000 in state grants.

The Boston Athenaeum, with 650,000 volumes, is the most noteworthy private library in the state. The American Antiquarian Society in Worcester has a 690,000-volume research library of original source material dating from colonial times to 1876.

Harvard University's library system is one of the largest in the world, with 14,311,152 volumes in 1999. Other major academic libraries are those of Boston University, the University of Massachusetts (Amherst), Smith College, and Boston College.

Boston houses a number of important museums, among them the Museum of Fine Arts with vast holdings of artwork including extensive Far East and French impressionists collections and American art and furniture, the Isabella Stewart Gardner Museum, the Museum of Science, the Massachusetts Historical Society, and the Children's Museum. Harvard University's museums include the Fogg Art Museum, the Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, the Museum of Comparative Zoology, and the Botanical Museum. Other museums of note are the Whaling Museum in New Bedford, the Essex Institute in Salem, the Worcester Art Museum, the Clark Art Institute in Williamstown, the Bunker Hill Museum near Boston, and the National Basketball Hall of Fame in Springfield. In addition, many towns have their own historical societies and museums, including Historic Deerfield, Framingham Historical and Natural History Society, Ipswich Historical Society, Lexington Historical Society, and Marblehead Historical Society. Plymouth Plantation in Plymouth is a re-creation of life in the 17th century, and Old Sturbridge Village, a working historical farm, displays 18th- and 19th-century artifacts. The state had over 344 museums in 2000.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

The first American post office was established in Boston in 1639. Alexander Graham Bell first demonstrated the telephone in 1876 in Boston. As of 2004, 93.4% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 3,919,139 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 64.1% of Massachusetts households had a computer and 58.1% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,235,672 high-speed lines in Massachusetts, 1,123,606 residential and 112,066 for business.

The state had 32 major AM stations and 64 major FM stations in 2005, when 10 major television stations were also in operation. In Boston, WGBH is a major producer of programming for the

Public Broadcasting Service. In 1999, the Boston metropolitan area had 2,210,580 television-owning households, 80% of which received cable (the second-highest penetration rate for any city).

In 2000, Massachusetts had 239,358 Internet domain name registrations, ranking seventh among all the states.

45 PRESS

Milestones in US publishing history that occurred in the state include the first book printed in the English colonies (Cambridge, 1640), the first regularly issued American newspaper, the *Boston News-Letter* (1704), and the first published American novel, William Hill Brown's *The Power of Sympathy* (Worcester, 1789). During the mid-1840s, two noted literary publications made their debut, the *North American Review* and the *Dial*, the latter under the editorial direction of Ralph Waldo Emerson and Margaret Fuller. The *Atlantic*, which began publishing in 1857, *Harvard Law Review*, *Harvard Business Review*, and *New England Journal of Medicine* are other influential publications.

As of 2005 there were 32 daily newspapers in the state (including 14 morning, 18 evening) and 16 papers with Sunday editions. The *Boston Globe*, the most widely read newspaper in the state, has won numerous awards for journalistic excellence on the local and national levels. The *Christian Science Monitor* is highly respected for its coverage of national and international news.

Major daily newspapers and their average circulations in 2005 were:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Boston	<i>Christian Science Monitor</i> (m)	60,723	
	<i>Globe</i> (m,S)	451,471	707,813
	<i>Herald</i> (m,S)	240,759	152,813
Hyannis	<i>Cape Cod Times</i> (m,S)	50,896	60,004
Worcester	<i>Telegram & Gazette</i> (m,S)	103,113	121,437

Massachusetts is also a center of book publishing, with more than 100 publishing houses. Among them are Little, Brown and Co.; Houghton Mifflin; Merriam-Webster; and Harvard University Press.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 10,485 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 7,701 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Headquartered in Massachusetts are the National Association of Independent Schools, the National Commission for Cooperative Education, both in Boston, and the National Bureau of Economic Research in Cambridge. The Union of Concerned Scientists in Cambridge and the International Physicians for the Prevention of Nuclear War in Boston—recipient of the 1985 Nobel Peace Prize—are major public affairs associations based in the state.

Academic and scientific organizations headquartered in Boston include the American Meteorological Society, American Society of Law and Medicine, American Surgical Association, the Visiting Nurse Associations of America and Optometric Research Institute. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences is located in Cambridge. Other education and research organizations with national scope and membership include the Albert Einstein Institution, the Albert Schweitzer Fellowship, the Bostonian Society, the Plymouth Rock Foundation, the Thoreau Society, and the Titan-

ic Historical Society. There are numerous municipal and regional historical, preservation, and arts organizations.

Among the many professional, business, and consumer organizations based in Massachusetts are the American Institute of Management and the International Brotherhood of Police Officers in Quincy; the Wood Products Manufacturers Association in Gardner; and the National Consumer Law Center, Northern Textile Association, and Wool Manufacturers Council in Boston.

The national Organic Trade Association is based in Greenfield and the Cranberry Institute is in East Wareham. Local environmental groups include the Association to Preserve Cape Cod, the Boston Harbor Association, the Nantucket Conservation Foundation, a few chapters of Trout Unlimited.

Oxfam-America, the US affiliate of the international humanitarian relief agency, is located in Boston. Students Against Destructive Decisions/Students Against Drunk Driving (SADD) is based in Marlborough. The Christian Science Publishing Society, which publishes the *Christian Science Monitor*, is located in Boston. The Unitarian Universalist Association of Congregations, a major body of the Unitarian Church, is also based in Boston.

Major sports associations in the state are the Eastern College Athletic Conference in Centerville and the American Hockey League in Springfield.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, there were over 31.2 million travelers to and within the state. There were 1.4 million international visitors to the state, with Canada and the United Kingdom being the largest markets. About 20% of all tourist activity involves residents traveling within the state. The travel industry supports over 125,300 jobs with a payroll of \$3.2 billion.

A trip to Boston might include visits to such old landmarks as the Old North Church, the USS *Constitution*, and Paul Revere's House, and such newer attractions as the John Hancock Observatory, the skywalk above the Prudential Tower, Quincy Market, Faneuil Hall, and Copley Place. Boston Common, one of the oldest public parks in the country, is the most noteworthy municipal park. The well-marked Freedom Trail takes visitors on a walking and driving tour of historical sites, including the cities of Lexington and Concord.

About 19% of all trips are made to Cape Cod (Barnstable County). Among its many attractions are beaches, fishing, good dining spots, several artists' colonies with arts and crafts fairs, antique shops, and summer theaters. Beaches, fishing, and quaint villages are also the charms of Nantucket Island and Martha's Vineyard.

The Berkshires are the summer home of the Berkshire Music Festival at Tanglewood and the Jacob's Pillow Dance Festival in Lee, and during the winter also provide recreation for cross-country and downhill skiers. Essex County on the North Shore of Massachusetts Bay offers many seaside towns and the art colony of Rockport. Its main city, Salem, contains the Witch House and Museum as well as Nathaniel Hawthorne's House of Seven Gables. Middlesex County, to the west of Boston, holds the university city of Cambridge as well as the battlegrounds of Lexington and Concord. In Concord are the homes of Henry David Thoreau, Ralph Waldo Emerson, and Louisa May Alcott. Norfolk County, south of Boston, has the homes of three US presidents: John Adams and John Quincy Adams in Quincy and John F. Kennedy in Brookline.

The seaport town and former whaling center of New Bedford and the industrial town of Fall River are in Bristol County. Plymouth County offers Plymouth Rock, Plymouth Plantation, and a steam-train ride through some cranberry bogs. The town of Springfield, birthplace of basketball, hosts the Basketball Hall of Fame; in June 1985 it opened in its present location, which welcomed its one-millionth visitor in July 1988. Springfield also has the Dr. Seuss National Memorial Sculpture Garden and the Eric Carle Museum of Picture Book Arts. Plum Island has a nature preserve and a natural barrier reef. Many visitors visit Massachusetts in the fall to travel the Mohawk Trail to view the fall foliage. The John Fitzgerald Kennedy Presidential Library is in Boston.

Massachusetts has 79 operational state parks.

48 SPORTS

There are five major professional sports teams in Massachusetts: the Boston Red Sox of Major League Baseball, the New England Patriots of the National Football League, the Boston Celtics of the National Basketball Association, the Boston Bruins of the National Hockey League, and the New England Revolution of Major League Soccer.

The Red Sox won the World Series in 2005 by defeating their rivals, the New York Yankees. The Patriots have won nine division championships, five conference championships, and the Super Bowl in 2001, 2003, and 2004. The Celtics are the winningest team in NBA history; they have won the championship 16 times, including the seemingly unbeatable record of 8 consecutive titles from 1959 to 1966. They last won an NBA championship in 1986. The Bruins won the Stanley Cup in 1929, 1939, 1941, 1970, and 1972. Additionally, there are minor league hockey teams in Springfield, Worcester, and Lowell.

Suffolk Downs in East Boston features thoroughbred horse racing and harness racing takes place at the New England Harness Raceway in Foxboro. Dog racing can be seen at Raynham Park in Raynham, Taunton Dog Track in North Dighton, and Wonderland Park in Revere.

Probably the most famous amateur athletic event in the state is the Boston Marathon, a race of more than 26 mi (42 km) held every Patriots' Day (third Monday in April). It attracts many of the world's top long-distance runners. During the summer, a number of boat races are held. Rowing is also popular. Each October the traditional sport is celebrated at the Head of the Charles, a regatta held on the Charles River between collegiate rowing teams.

In collegiate sports, the University of Massachusetts has become a nationally ranked basketball powerhouse, reaching the Final Four in 1996; Boston College has appeared in 12 bowl games, highlighted by a victory in the Cotton Bowl in 1985; and the annual Harvard–Yale football game is one of the traditional rites of autumn.

49 FAMOUS BAY STATERS

Massachusetts has produced an extraordinary collection of public figures. Its four US presidents were John Adams (1735–1826), a signer of the Declaration of Independence; his son John Quincy Adams (1767–1848); John Fitzgerald Kennedy (1917–63), and George Herbert Walker Bush (b.Milton, 12 June 1924). All four served in Congress. John Adams was also the first US vice president; John Quincy Adams served as secretary of state under James

Monroe, Calvin Coolidge (b.Vermont, 1872–1933) was governor of Massachusetts before his election to the vice-presidency in 1920 and his elevation to the presidency in 1923. George Bush was elected vice president on the Republican ticket in 1980 and reelected in 1984. Bush was elected president in 1988. Two others who held the office of vice president were another signer of the Declaration of Independence, Elbridge Gerry (1744–1814), for whom the political practice of gerrymandering is named, and Henry Wilson (b.New Hampshire, 1812–75), a US senator from Massachusetts before his election with Ulysses S. Grant.

Massachusetts's great jurists include US Supreme Court Justices Joseph Story (1779–1845), Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr. (1841–1935), Louis D. Brandeis (b.Kentucky, 1856–1941), and Felix Frankfurter (b.Austria, 1882–1965). David Souter (b.1939), a Supreme Court justice appointed during the Bush administration, was born in Melrose. Stephen Breyer (b.California, 1939), another Supreme Court justice, was a Circuit Court of Appeals judge in Boston before his appointment. Important federal officeholders at the cabinet level were Henry Knox (1750–1806), the first secretary of war; Timothy Pickering (1745–1820), the first postmaster general and later secretary of war and secretary of state under George Washington and John Adams; Levi Lincoln (1749–1820), attorney general under Jefferson; William Eustis (1753–1825), secretary of war under Madison; Jacob Crowninshield (1770–1808), secretary of the navy under Jefferson, and his brother Benjamin (1772–1851), who held the same office under Madison; Daniel Webster (b.New Hampshire, 1782–1852), US senator from Massachusetts who served as secretary of state under William Henry Harrison, John Tyler, and Millard Fillmore; Edward Everett (1794–1865), a governor and ambassador who served as secretary of state under Fillmore; George Bancroft (1800–91), a historian who became secretary of the Navy under James K. Polk; Caleb Cushing (1800–79), attorney general under Franklin Pierce; Charles Devens (1820–91), attorney general under Rutherford B. Hayes; Christian Herter (1895–1966), secretary of state under Dwight Eisenhower; Elliot L. Richardson (1920–99), secretary of health, education and welfare, secretary of defense, and attorney general under Richard Nixon; Henry Kissinger (b.Germany, 1923), secretary of state under Nixon and Gerald Ford and a Nobel Peace Prize winner in 1973; and Robert F. Kennedy (1925–68), attorney general under his brother John and later US senator from New York.

Other federal officeholders include some of the most important figures in American politics. Samuel Adams (1722–1803), the Boston Revolutionary leader, served extensively in the Continental Congress and was later governor of the Bay State. John Hancock (1737–93), a Boston merchant and Revolutionary, was the Continental Congress's first president and later became the first elected governor of the state. In the 19th century, Massachusetts sent abolitionist Charles Sumner (1811–74) to the Senate. As ambassador to England during the Civil War, John Quincy Adams's son Charles Francis Adams (1807–86) played a key role in preserving US-British amity. At the end of the century, Henry Cabot Lodge (1850–1924) emerged as a leading Republican in the US Senate, where he supported regulatory legislation, protectionist tariffs, and restrictive immigration laws, and opposed women's suffrage and the League of Nations; his grandson, also Henry Cabot Lodge (1902–85), was an internationalist who held numerous federal posts and was a US senator. Massachusetts has provided two US

House speakers: John W. McCormack (1891–1980) and Thomas P. "Tip" O'Neill Jr. (1912–94). Other well-known legislators include Edward W. Brooke (b.1919), the first black US senator since Reconstruction, and Edward M. Kennedy (b.1932), President Kennedy's youngest brother and a leading Senate liberal. Paul Tsongas (1941–97), a senator and presidential candidate during the 1992 election, was born in Lowell, Massachusetts. Michael S. Dukakis (b.1933), a former governor of the state and the 1988 Democratic nominee for president, was born in Brookline.

Among other historic colonial and state leaders were John Winthrop (b.England, 1588–1649), a founder of Massachusetts and longtime governor; William Bradford (b.England, 1590–1657), a founder of Plymouth, its governor, and author of its classic history; Thomas Hutchinson (1711–80), colonial lieutenant governor and governor during the 1760s and 1770s; and Paul Revere (1735–1818), the Patriot silversmith-courier, who was later an industrial pioneer.

Literary genius has flourished in Massachusetts. In the 17th century, the colony was the home of poets Anne Bradstreet (1612–72) and Edward Taylor (1645–1729) and of the prolific historian, scientist, theologian, and essayist Cotton Mather (1663–1728). Notables of the 18th century include the theologian Jonathan Edwards (b.Connecticut, 1703–58), poet Phillis Wheatley (b.Senegal, 1753–84), and numerous political essayists and historians. During the 1800s, Massachusetts was the home of novelists Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–64), Louisa May Alcott (b.Pennsylvania, 1832–88), Horatio Alger (1832–99), and Henry James (b.New York, 1843–1916); essayists Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–82) and Henry David Thoreau (1817–62); and such poets as Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (b.Maine, 1807–82), John Greenleaf Whittier (1807–92), Oliver Wendell Holmes Sr. (1809–94), James Russell Lowell (1819–91), and Emily Dickinson (1830–86). Classic historical writings include the works of George Bancroft, William Hickling Prescott (1796–1859), John Lothrop Motley (1814–77), Francis Parkman (1823–93), and Henry B. Adams (1838–1918). Among 20th-century notables are novelists John P. Marquand (b.Delaware, 1893–1960) and John Cheever (1912–82); poets Elizabeth Bishop (1911–79), Robert Lowell (1917–77), Anne Sexton (1928–74), and Sylvia Plath (1932–63); and historian Samuel Eliot Morison (1887–1976). In philosophy, Charles Sanders Peirce (1839–1914) was one of the founders of pragmatism; Henry James's elder brother, William (b.New York, 1842–1910), was a pioneer in the field of psychology; and George Santayana (b.Spain, 1863–1952), philosopher and author, grew up in Boston. Mary Baker Eddy (b.New Hampshire, 1821–1910) founded the Church of Christ, Scientist, during the 1870s.

Reformers have abounded in Massachusetts, especially in the 19th century. William Lloyd Garrison (1805–79), Wendell Phillips (1811–84), and Lydia Maria Child (1802–80) were outstanding abolitionists. Lucretia Coffin Mott (1793–1880), Lucy Stone (1818–93), Abigail Kelley Foster (1810–87), Margaret Fuller (1810–50), and Susan Brownell Anthony (1820–1906) were leading advocates of women's rights. Horace Mann (1796–1859), the state secretary of education, led the fight for public education; and Mary Lyon (1797–1849) founded Mount Holyoke, the first women's college.

Efforts to improve the care and treatment of the sick, wounded, and handicapped were led by Samuel Gridley Howe (1801–76), Dorothea Lynde Dix (1802–87), and Clara Barton (1821–1912),

founder of the American Red Cross. The 20th-century reformer and NAACP leader William Edward Burghardt Du Bois (1868–1963) was born in Great Barrington.

Leonard Bernstein (1918–90) was a composer and conductor of worldwide fame. Arthur Fiedler (1894–79) was the celebrated conductor of the Boston Pops Orchestra. Composers include William Billings (1746–1800), Carl Ruggles (1876–1971), and Alan Hovhaness (1911–2000). Charles Bulfinch (1763–1844), Henry H. Richardson (b.Louisiana, 1838–86), and Louis Henri Sullivan (1856–1924) have been among the nation's important architects. Painters include John Singleton Copley (1738–1815), James Whistler (1834–1903), Winslow Homer (1836–1910), and Frank Stella (b.1936); Horatio Greenough (1805–52) was a prominent sculptor.

Among the notable scientists associated with Massachusetts are Nathaniel Bowditch (1773–1838), a mathematician and navigator; Samuel F. B. Morse (1791–1872), inventor of the telegraph; and Robert Hutchins Goddard (1882–1945), a physicist and rocketry pioneer.

Two professors at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in Cambridge, have won the Nobel Prize in economics—Paul A. Samuelson (b.Indiana, 1915), in 1970, and Franco Modigliani (b.Italy, 1918–2003), in 1985. Other winners of the Nobel Prize include: Merton Miller (1923–2000), in economics; William Sharpe (b.1934), in economics; Douglass C. North (b.1920), 1993 co-recipient in economics; Elias James Carey (b.1928); Henry Kendall (1926–99), 1990 co-recipient in physics; and Joseph E. Murray (b.1919), the 1990 winner in medicine or physiology.

Massachusetts's most famous journalist has been Isaiah Thomas (1750–1831). Its great industrialists include textile entrepreneurs Francis Lowell (1775–1817) and Abbott Lawrence (1792–1855). Elias Howe (1819–67) invented the sewing machine.

Massachusetts was the birthplace of television journalists Mike Wallace (b.1918) and Barbara Walters (b.1931). Massachusetts-born show business luminaries include director Cecil B. DeMille (1881–1959); actors Walter Brennan (1894–1974), Jack Haley (1901–79), Ray Bolger (1904–84), Bette Davis (1908–84), and Jack Lemmon (1925–2001); and singers Donna Summer (b.1948) and

James Taylor (b.1948). Outstanding among Massachusetts-born athletes was world heavyweight boxing champion Rocky Marciano (Rocco Francis Marchegiano, 1925–69), who retired undefeated in 1956.

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MICHIGAN

State of Michigan

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Possibly derived from the Fox Indian word *mesikami*, meaning “large lake.”
NICKNAME: The Wolverine State. **CAPITAL:** Lansing. **ENTERED UNION:** 26 January 1837 (26th). **SONG:** “Michigan, My Michigan” (unofficial). **MOTTO:** *Si quaeris peninsulam amoenam circumspice* (If you seek a pleasant peninsula, look about you). **COAT OF ARMS:** In the center, a shield depicts a peninsula on which a man stands, at sunrise, holding a rifle. At the top of the shield is the word “Tuebor” (I will defend), beneath it the state motto. Supporting the shield are an elk on the left and a moose on the right. Over the whole, on a crest, is an American eagle beneath the US motto, *E pluribus unum*. **FLAG:** The coat of arms centered on a dark blue field, fringed on three sides. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms surrounded by the words “The Great Seal of the State of Michigan” and the date “A.D. MDCCCXXXV.” (1835, the year the state constitution was adopted). **BIRD:** Robin. **FISH:** Trout. **FLOWER:** Apple blossom. **TREE:** White pine. **GEM:** Chlorastrolite (Isle Royale Greenstone). **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after the first Monday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November plus one day; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT; 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern north-central United States, Michigan is the third-largest state E of the Mississippi River and ranks 23rd in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Michigan (excluding Great Lakes waters) is 58,527 sq mi (151,585 sq km), of which land takes up 56,954 sq mi (147,511 sq km) and inland water 1,573 sq mi (4,074 sq km). The state consists of the upper peninsula adjoining three of the Great Lakes—Superior, Huron, and Michigan—and the lower peninsula, projecting northward between Lakes Michigan, Erie, and Huron. The upper peninsula extends 334 mi (538 km) E–W and 215 mi (346 km) N–S; the lower peninsula’s maximum E–W extension is 220 mi (354 km), and its greatest N–S length is 286 mi (460 km).

Michigan’s upper peninsula is bordered on the N and E by the Canadian province of Ontario (with the line passing through Lake Superior, the St. Mary’s River, and Lake Huron); on the S by Lake Huron, the Straits of Mackinac separating the two peninsulas, and Lake Michigan; and on the SW and W by Wisconsin (with the line passing through the Menominee, Brule, and Montreal rivers). The lower peninsula is bordered on the N by Lake Michigan, the Straits of Mackinac, and Lake Huron; on the E by Ontario (with the line passing through Lake Huron, the St. Clair River, Lake St. Clair, and the Detroit River); on the SE by Ontario and Ohio (with the line passing through Lake Erie); on the S by Ohio and Indiana; and on the W by Illinois and Wisconsin (with the line passing through Lake Michigan and Green Bay). The state’s geographic center is in Wexford County, 5 mi (8 km) NNW of Cadillac.

Among the most important islands are Isle Royale in Lake Superior; Sugar, Neebish, and Drummond islands in the St. Mary’s River; Bois Blanc, Mackinac, and Les Cheneaux islands in Lake

Huron; Beaver Island in Lake Michigan; and Belle Isle and Grosse Ile in the Detroit River.

The state’s total boundary length is 1,673 mi (2,692 km). The total freshwater shoreline is 3,121 mi (5,023 km).

²TOPOGRAPHY

Michigan’s two peninsulas are generally level land masses. Flat lowlands predominate in the eastern portion of both peninsulas and in scattered areas elsewhere. The state’s lowest point, 571 ft (174 m), is found in southeastern Michigan along Lake Erie. Higher land is found in the western area of the lower peninsula, where elevations rise to as much as 1,600 ft (500 m); the hilly uplands of the upper peninsula attain elevations of 1,800 ft (550 m). The state’s highest point, at 1,979 ft (603 m), is Mt. Arvon, in Baraga County. The mean elevation is approximately 900 ft (275 m).

Michigan’s political boundaries extend into four of the five Great Lakes, giving Michigan jurisdiction over 16,231 sq mi (42,038 sq km) of Lake Superior, 13,037 sq mi (33,766 sq km) of Lake Michigan, 8,975 sq mi (23,245 sq km) of Lake Huron, and 216 sq mi (559 sq km) of Lake Erie, for a total of 38,459 sq mi (99,608 sq km). In addition, Michigan has about 35,000 inland lakes and ponds, the largest of which is Houghton Lake, on the lower peninsula, with an area of 31 sq mi (80 sq km).

The state’s leading river is the Grand, about 260 mi (420 km) long, flowing through the lower peninsula into Lake Michigan. Other major rivers that flow into Lake Michigan include the St. Joseph, Kalamazoo, Muskegon, Pere Marquette, and Manistee. On the eastern side of the peninsula, the Saginaw River and its tributaries drain an area of some 6,000 sq mi (15,500 sq km), forming the state’s largest watershed. Other important rivers that flow into Lake Huron include the Au Sable, Thunder Bay, and Cheboygan.

In the southeast, the Huron and Raisin rivers flow into Lake Erie. Most major rivers in the upper peninsula (including the longest, the Menominee) flow southward into Lake Michigan and its various bays. Tahquamenon Falls, in the eastern part of the upper peninsula, is the largest of the state's more than 150 waterfalls. Wetlands account for about 15% of the total land area of the state.

Most of the many islands belonging to Michigan are located in northern Lake Michigan and in Lake Huron, although the largest, Isle Royale, about 44 mi (71 km) long by 8 mi (13 km) wide, is found in northern Lake Superior. In northern Lake Michigan, Beaver Island is the largest, while Drummond Island, off the eastern tip of the upper peninsula, is the largest island in the northern Lake Huron area.

Michigan's geological development resulted from its location in what was once a basin south of the Laurentian Shield, a landmass covering most of eastern and central Canada and extending southward into the upper peninsula. Successive glaciers that swept down from the north dumped soil from the shield into the basin and eroded the basin's soft sandstone, limestone, and shale. With the retreat of the last glacier from the area about 6000 BC, the two peninsulas, the Great Lakes, and the islands in these lakes began to emerge, assuming their present shapes about 2,500 years ago.

3 CLIMATE

Michigan has a temperate climate with well-defined seasons. The warmest temperatures and longest frost-free period are found most generally in the southern part of the lower peninsula; Detroit has an average temperature of 49°F (9°C), ranging from 24°F (-4°C) in January to 73°F (22°C) in July. Colder temperatures and a shorter growing season prevail in the more northerly regions; Sault Ste. Marie has an average of 40°F (4°C), ranging from 14°F (-10°C) in January to 64°F (17°C) in July. The coldest temperature ever recorded in the state is -51°F (-46°C), registered at Vanderbilt on 9 February 1934; the all-time high of 112°F (44°C) was recorded at Mio on 13 July 1936. Both sites are located in the interior of the lower peninsula, away from the moderating influence of the Great Lakes.

Detroit had an average annual precipitation of 32.3 in (82 cm). The greatest snowfall is found in the extreme northern areas, where cloud cover created by cold air blowing over the warmer Lake Superior waters causes frequent heavy snow along the northern coast; Houghton and Calumet, on the Keweenaw Peninsula, average 183 in (465 cm) of snow a year, more than any other area in the state. Similarly, Lake Michigan's water temperatures create a snow belt along the west coast of the lower peninsula.

Cloudy days are more common in Michigan than in most states, in part because of the condensation of water vapor from the Great Lakes. Detroit has sunshine, on average, only 35% of the days in December and January, and 53% year-round. The annual average relative humidity at Detroit is 81% at 7 AM, dropping to 60% at 1 PM; at Sault Ste. Marie, the comparable percentages are 85% and 67%, respectively. The southern half of the lower peninsula is an area of heavy thunderstorm activity. Late spring and early summer are the height of the tornado season.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Maple, birch, hemlock, aspen, spruce, and fir predominate in the upper peninsula; maple, birch, aspen, pine, and beech in the lower.

Once common in the state, elms have largely disappeared because of the ravages of disease, while the white pine (the state tree) and red pine, which dominated northern Michigan forests and were prime objects of logging operations, have been replaced in cutover lands by aspen and birch. The area south of a line from about Muskegon to Saginaw Bay formerly held the only significant patches of open prairie land (found chiefly in southwestern Michigan) and areas of widely scattered trees, called oak openings. Intensive agricultural development, followed by urban industrial growth, leveled much of this region's forests, although significant wooded acreage remains, especially in the less populated western regions.

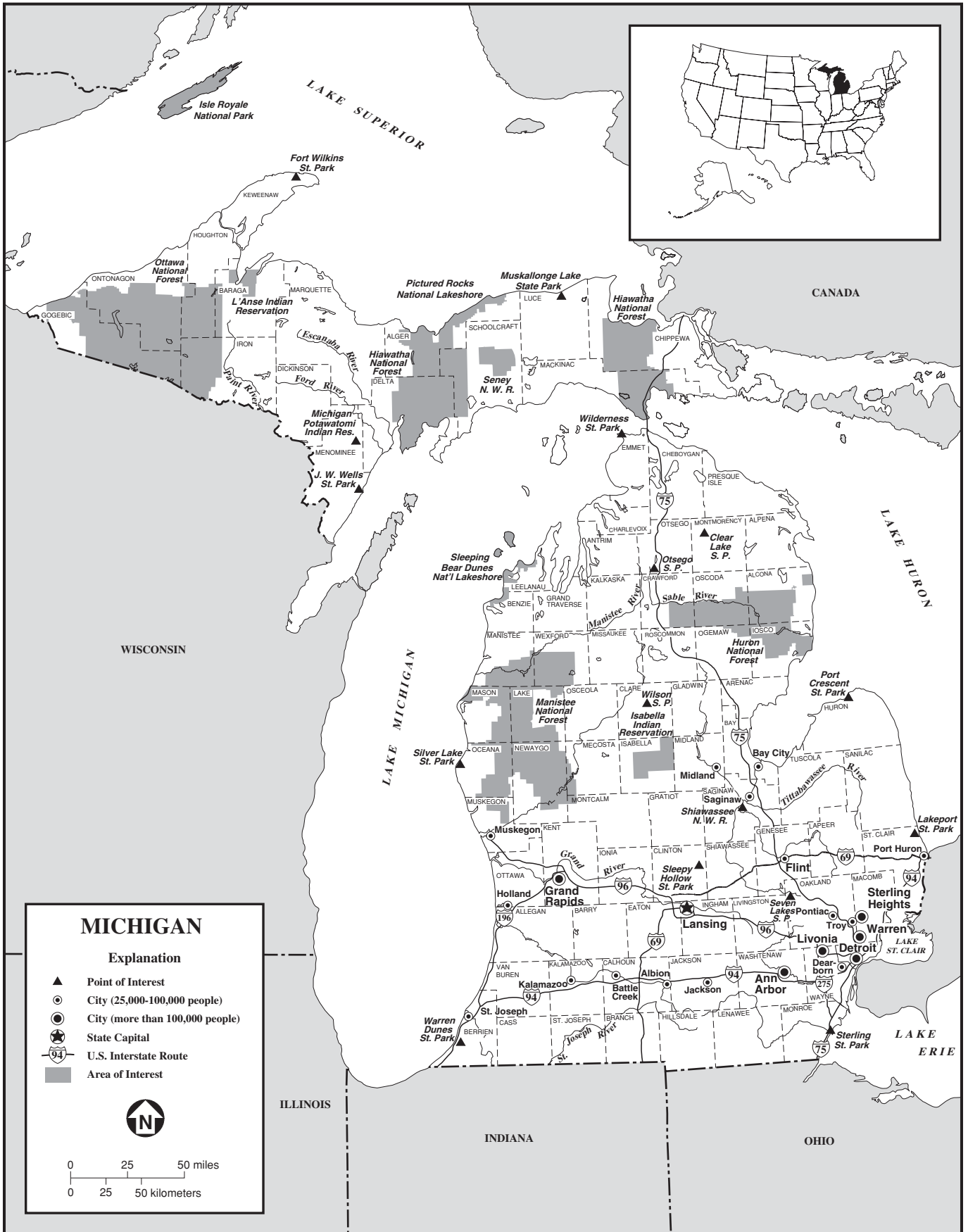
Strawberries, raspberries, gooseberries, blueberries, and cranberries are among the fruit-bearing plants and shrubs that grow wild in many areas of the state, as do mushrooms and wild asparagus. The state flower, the apple blossom, calls to mind the importance of fruit-bearing trees and shrubs in Michigan, but wild flowers also abound, with as many as 400 varieties found in a single county. Eight Michigan plant species were listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened or endangered as of April 2006, including the American hart's-tongue fern, dwarf lake iris, Michigan Monkey-flower, and Eastern prairie fringed orchid.

Michigan's fauna, like its flora, has been greatly affected by settlement and, in a few cases, by intensive hunting and fishing. Moose are now confined to Isle Royale, as are nearly all the remaining wolves, which once roamed throughout the state. The caribou and passenger pigeon have been extirpated, but the elk and turkey have been successfully reintroduced in the 20th century. There is no evidence that the state's namesake, the wolverine, was ever found in Michigan, at least in historic times. Despite intensive hunting, the deer population remains high. Other game animals include the common cottontail, snowshoe hare, raccoon, and various squirrels. In addition to the raccoon, important native furbearers are the river otter and the beaver, once virtually exterminated but now making a strong comeback.

More than 300 types of birds have been observed. Aside from the robin (the state bird), the most notable bird is Kirtland's warbler, which nests only in a 60-sq-mi (155-sq-km) section of jack-pine forest in north-central Michigan. Ruffed grouse, bobwhite quail, American woodcock, and various ducks and geese are hunted extensively. Populations of ring-necked pheasant, introduced in 1895, have dropped at an alarming rate in recent decades. Reptiles include the painted turtle and the massasauga, the state's only poisonous snake.

Whitefish, perch, and lake trout (the state fish) are native to the Great Lakes while perch, bass, and pike are indigenous to inland waters. In 1877, the carp was introduced, with such success that it has since become a nuisance. Rainbow and brown trout have also been planted, and in the late 1960s, the state enjoyed its most spectacular success with the introduction of several species of salmon.


The first Michigan list of threatened or endangered animals in 1976 included 64 species, 15 endangered and 49 threatened. In 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 13 Michigan animals as threatened or endangered. These included the Indiana bat, two species of beetle, two species of butterfly, gray wolf, bald eagle, piping plover, and Kirtland's warbler.



MICHIGAN

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest


 0 25 50 miles
 0 25 50 kilometers

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Michigan Department of Natural Resources (DNR) is the state's 4th-largest department employing approximately 3,700 persons. It is responsible for the administration of hundreds of programs affecting every aspect of the environment. These programs are based on state and federal laws calling for the protection and management of natural resources, including: air, water, fish, wildlife, recreational activities, wetlands, forests, minerals, oil, and gas. The regulatory programs operated by the DNR conserve and manage natural resources by controlling access or limiting their use and removal. Most of these programs rely on permit or license systems such as hunting or fishing licenses, forest use permits, and air/wastewater discharge permits.

Responding to citizens' concerns and new federal legislation, Michigan enacted programs to address water and air pollution as well as waste problems. At least 10 major environmental programs were established under Michigan law during the 1970s and 1980s, directing the DNR to assume new responsibilities and authorities. These included the Wetland Protection Act of 1980, Inland Lakes and Streams Act, the Resource Recovery Act, the Solid Waste Management Act, and the Hazardous Waste Management Act. In addition, changes in administrative rules and amendments to existing statutes greatly expanded the scope of some programs such as air and water pollution control (Air Pollution Control Act and Water Resources Commission Act). These legislated changes, coupled with reorganization measures enacted by executive order, greatly expanded the state's role in environmental protection matters and substantially increased the scope of DNR's mission.

Governor William Milliken decided Michigan would be better served if all environmental programs were under one roof. Executive Order 1973-2 transferred three programs from the Department of Public Health to the DNR, including sewage system maintenance and certification; solid waste disposal; and licensing of septic tank cleaners. Further transfers were accomplished under Executive Order 1973-2a, which changed the status of the Water Resources Commission (WRC), making it subordinate to the Natural Resources Commission (NRC). Additionally, Executive Order 1973-2a transferred the Air Pollution Control Commission to the DNR under the jurisdiction of the NRC. The Executive Order divided the DNR for the first time into two branches: the natural resources branch, and the environmental protection branch. The Executive Orders of 1973 clearly consolidated and defined the DNR's environmental protection responsibilities.

As the 1970s drew to a close, Michigan enacted two major pollution control laws: the Solid Waste Management Act and the Hazardous Waste Management Act. These acts provide the legal basis for the separate management of hazardous wastes under a detailed regulatory program. The two waste management laws substantially increased the DNR's enforcement and administrative responsibilities. In addition to these two acts, several other laws were enacted or amended by the legislature in the late 1970s and 1980s which had a major impact on the Department. For example, the Environmental Response Act provides for the identification of sites of environmental contamination throughout the state and an appropriation procedure to support the cleanup of contamination sites in the state. Other programs created by statute included the Clean Michigan Fund and the Leaking Underground Storage

Tanks Act. Each of these statutes required the DNR to assume new program responsibilities and authorities in the 1980s.

As the policy body over the DNR, the NRC consists of seven members appointed by the governor, with the advice of the Senate. The NRC sets the overall direction of the department and hires the director to carry out its policies. The department is organized both programmatically and geographically. The three program areas, each headed by a deputy director, include: resource management; environmental protection; and policy, budget, and administration. The three geographical regions split the state into the north, central, and south zones, each headed by a deputy director. The deputy directors report to the director of the DNR.

The mission of the department is to conserve and develop the state's natural resources and to protect and enhance the state's environmental quality in order to provide clean air, clean water, productive land, and healthy life. Additionally, the department seeks to provide quality recreational opportunities to the people of Michigan through the effective management of state recreational lands and parks, boating facilities, and population of fish and wildlife.

In 2003, 101.6 million pounds of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, Michigan had 343 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 66 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Shiawassee River, the Clare City Water Supply, and the Sturgis Municipal Wells. In 2006, Michigan ranked at fifth in the nation for the highest number of sites on the National Priority List. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$21.5 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$46.3 million for the state clean water revolving fund and \$33.9 million for the drinking water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Michigan ranked eighth in population in the United States with an estimated total of 10,120,860 in 2005, an increase of 1.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Michigan's population grew from 9,295,297 to 9,938,444, an increase of 6.9%. The population is projected to reach 10.59 million by 2015 and 10.71 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 178.5 persons per sq mi.

Michigan was never inhabited by more than a few thousand Indians. As late as 1810, the non-Indian population of Michigan Territory was only 4,762. The late 1820s marked the start of steady, often spectacular, growth. The population increased from 31,639 people in 1830 to 212,267 in 1840 and 397,654 in 1850. Subsequently, the state's population grew by about 400,000 each decade until 1910, when its population of 2,810,173 ranked eighth among the 46 states. Industrial development sparked a sharp rise in population to 4,842,325 by 1930, pushing Michigan ahead of Massachusetts into seventh place.

In 2004, the median age of Michigan's population was 36.6. In the same year, 25.1% of the on under age 18 while 12.3% was age 65 or older. Approximately half of the state's population is concentrated in the Detroit metropolitan area.

Detroit has always been Michigan's largest city since its founding in 1701, but its growth, like the state's, was slow until well into the 19th century. The city's population grew from 21,019 in 1850 to 285,704 in 1900, when it ranked as the 13th-largest city

Michigan—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Alcona	Harrisville	679	11,653	Lake	Balwin	568	12,069
Alger	Munising	912	9,662	Lapeer	Lapeer	658	93,361
Allegan	Allegan	832	113,174	Leelanau	Leland	341	22,157
Alpena	Alpena	568	30,428	Lenawee	Adrian	753	102,033
Antrim	Bellaire	480	24,422	Livingston	Howell	575	181,517
Arenac	Standish	368	17,154	Luce	Newberry	905	6,789
Baraga	L'Anse	901	8,746	Mackinac	St. Ignace	1,025	11,331
Barry	Hastings	560	59,892	Macomb	Mt. Clemens	483	829,453
Bay	Bay City	447	109,029	Manistee	Manistee	543	25,226
Benzie	Beulah	322	17,644	Marquette	Marquette	1,822	64,760
Berrien	St. Joseph	576	162,611	Mason	Ludington	495	28,986
Branch	Coldwater	508	46,460	Mecosta	Big Rapids	560	42,391
Calhoun	Marshall	712	139,191	Menominee	Menominee	1,045	24,996
Cass	Cassopolis	496	51,996	Midland	Midland	525	84,064
Charlevoix	Charlevoix	421	26,722	Missaukee	Lake City	565	15,299
Cheboygan	Cheboygan	720	27,463	Monroe	Monroe	557	153,935
Chippewa	Sault Ste. Marie	1,590	38,780	Montcalm	Stanton	713	63,893
Clare	Harrison	570	31,653	Montmorency	Atlanta	550	10,445
Clinton	St. Johns	573	69,329	Muskegon	Muskegon	507	175,554
Crawford	Grayling	559	15,074	Newaygo	White Cloud	847	50,019
Delta	Escanaba	1,173	38,347	Oakland	Pontiac	875	1,214,361
Dickinson	Iron Mt.	770	28,032	Oceana	Hart	541	28,473
Eaton	Charlotte	579	107,394	Ogemaw	West Branch	569	21,905
Emmet	Petoskey	468	33,580	Ontonagon	Ontonagon	1,311	7,363
Genesee	Flint	642	443,883	Osceola	Reed City	569	23,750
Gladwin	Gladwin	505	27,209	Oscoda	Mio	568	9,298
Gogebic	Bessemer	1,105	16,861	Otsego	Gaylord	516	24,665
Grand Traverse	Traverse City	466	83,971	Ottawa	Grand Haven	567	255,406
Graiot	Ithaca	570	42,345	Presque Isle	Rogers City	656	14,330
Hillsdale	Hillsdale	603	47,066	Roscommon	Roscommon	528	26,079
Houghton	Houghton	1,014	35,705	Saginaw	Saginaw	815	208,356
Huron	Bad Axe	830	34,640	St. Clair	Port Huron	734	171,426
Ingham	Mason	560	278,592	St. Joseph	Centreville	503	62,984
Ionia	Ionia	577	64,608	Sanilac	Sandusky	964	44,752
Iosco	Tawas City	546	26,992	Schoolcraft	Manistique	1,173	8,819
Iron	Crystal Falls	1,163	12,299	Shiawassee	Corunna	541	72,945
Isabella	Mt. Pleasant	576	65,618	Tuscola	Caro	812	58,428
Jackson	Mackson	705	163,629	Van Buren	Paw Paw	612	78,812
Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo	562	240,536	Washtenaw	Ann Arbor	710	341,847
Kalkaska	Kalkaska	563	17,239	Wayne	Detroit	615	1,998,217
Kent	Grand Rapids	862	596,666	Wexford	Cadillac	566	31,876
Keweenaw	Eagle River	544	2,195	TOTALS		56,959	10,120,860

in the country. Within the next 30 years, the booming automobile industry pushed the city up into fourth place, with a population of 1,568,662 in 1930. Since 1950, when the total reached 1,849,568, Detroit has lost population, dropping to 1,514,063 in 1970, 1,203,369 in 1980 and to 1,028,000 in 1990, when it held seventh place among US cities. The 2004 population was estimated at 900,198, putting Detroit in 11th place. As Detroit lost population, however, many of its suburban areas grew at an even greater rate. The Detroit metropolitan area totaled an estimated 4,493,165 in 2004, up from 4,320,203 in 1995 and 3,950,000 in 1960.

Other Michigan cities with estimated 2004 populations in excess of 100,000 include Grand Rapids with a population of 195,115; Warren, 136,118; Sterling Heights, 127,476; Flint, 119,716; Lansing (the capital), 116,941; and Ann Arbor, 113,567.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

The 2000 census counted about 58,479 American Indians, including Eskimos and Aleuts. Most were scattered across the state, with a small number concentrated on the four federal reservations,

comprising 16,635 acres (6,732 hectares). In the 1990s the Ottawa, Ojibwa, and Potawatomi were the principal groups with active tribal organizations. In 2004, 0.6% of the population was American Indian.

In 2000, the black population of Michigan totaled an estimated 1,412,742. In 1980, nearly two-thirds lived in Detroit, where they made up 75.7% of the population, the highest percentage in any US city of 1 million or more. Detroit, which experienced severe race riots in 1943 and 1967, has had a black mayor since 1974. In 2004, 14.3% of the state's residents were black.

The 2000 census found that 523,589 state residents (5.3%) were foreign born, up from 355,393 (3.8%) in 1990. There were 323,877 Hispanics and Latinos living in the state in 2000, of which 220,769 were of Mexican descent. In 2004, 3.7% of the state's population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. The state's Asian population has been increasing: as of 2000, the total number of Asians was 176,510. The census reported 54,631 Asian Indians (up from 18,100 in 1990), 17,377 Filipinos, 33,189 Chinese (up from 17,100 in 1990), 20,886 Koreans, 11,288 Japanese, and 13,673 Vietnam-

ese (up from 5,229 in 1990). In 2004, 2.2% of the population was Asian. Pacific Islanders numbered 2,692 in 2000. In 2004, 1.4% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

Although state residents of first- or second-generation European descent are, almost without exception, decreasing in number and proportion, their influence remains great. Detroit continues to have numerous well-defined ethnic neighborhoods, and Hamtramck, a city surrounded by Detroit, is still dominated by its Polish population. Elsewhere in Michigan, Frankenmuth is the site of an annual German festival, and the city of Holland has an annual tulip festival that attracts about 400,000 people each spring. In the upper peninsula, the Finnish culture dominates in rural areas; in the iron and copper mining regions, descendants of immigrants from Cornwall in England, the original mining work force, and persons of Scandinavian background predominate.

⁸LANGUAGES

Before white settlement, Algonkian-language tribes occupied what is now Michigan, with the Menomini and Ojibwa in the upper peninsula and Ottawa on both sides of the Straits of Mackinac. Numerous place-names recall their presence: Michigan itself, Mackinaw City, Petoskey, Kalamazoo, Muskegon, Cheboygan, and Dowagiac.

Except for the huge industrial area in southeastern Michigan, English in the state is remarkably homogeneous in its retention of the major Northern dialect features of upper New York and western New England. Common are such Northern forms as *pail*, *wishbone*, *darning needle* (dragonfly), *mouth organ* (harmonica), *sick to the stomach*, *quarter to four* (3:45), and *dove* as past tense of *dive*. Common also are such pronunciations as the /ah/ vowel in *fog*, *frog*, and *on*; the /aw/ vowel in *horrid*, *forest*, and *orange*; *creek* as /krik/; *root* and *roof* with the vowel of *put*; and *greasy* with an /s/ sound. *Swale* (a marsh emptying into a stream) and *clock shelf* (mantel) are dying Northern words not carried west of Michigan. *Pank* (to pack down, as of snow) is confined to the upper peninsula, and *pasty* (meat-filled pastry) is borrowed from Cornish miners and heard in the upper peninsula and a few other areas. A minister is a *dominie* in the Dutch area around Holland and Zeeland.

Southern blacks have introduced into the southeastern automotive manufacturing areas a regional variety of English that, because it has class connotations in the North, has become a controversial educational concern. Three of its features are perhaps more widely accepted than others: the coalescence of /e/ and /i/ before a nasal consonant, so that *pen* and *pin* sound alike; the loss of /r/ after a vowel, so that *cart* and *cot* also sound alike; and the lengthening of the first part of the diphthong /ai/, so that *time* and *Tom* sound alike, as do *ride* and *rod*.

In 2000, 91.6% of the state's population five years old or older spoke only English at home, down from 93.4% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	9,268,782	100.0
Speak only English	8,487,401	91.6
Speak a language other than English	781,381	8.4
Speak a language other than English	781,381	8.4
Spanish or Spanish Creole	246,688	2.7
Arabic	75,412	0.8
German	52,366	0.6
Polish	40,372	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	38,914	0.4
Other and unspecified languages	32,189	0.3
Italian	30,052	0.3
Other Indo-European languages	27,241	0.3
Chinese	26,955	0.3
Other Slavic languages	14,682	0.2
Other Asian languages	14,611	0.2
Other Indic languages	14,140	0.2
Korean	13,314	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	11,950	0.1
Tagalog	11,917	0.1
Vietnamese	11,776	0.1
Russian	11,701	0.1
Japanese	11,480	0.1
Greek	11,167	0.1

⁹RELIGIONS

The Roman Catholic Church was the only organized religion in Michigan until the 19th century. Detroit's St. Anne's parish, established in 1701, is the second-oldest Catholic parish in the country. In 1810, a Methodist society was organized near Detroit. After the War of 1812, as settlers poured in from the east, Presbyterian, Congregational, Baptist, Episcopal, and Quaker churches were founded. The original French Catholics, reduced to a small minority by the influx of American Protestants, were soon reinforced by the arrival of Catholic immigrants from Germany, Ireland, and, later, from eastern and southern Europe. The Lutheran religion was introduced by German and Scandinavian immigrants; Dutch settlers were affiliated with the Reformed Church in America. The first Jewish congregations were organized in Detroit by German Jews, with a much greater number of eastern European Jews arriving toward the end of the 1800s. The Orthodox Christian Church and the Islamic religion have been introduced by immigrants from the Near East during the 20th century.

Michigan had 2,265,286 Roman Catholics in 2004; with 1,481,866 in the archdiocese of Detroit. Among Protestant denominations, the largest groups are the Missouri Synod Lutherans, with about 244,231 adherents (in 2000), and the United Methodists, with about 171,916 adherents (in 2004). Evangelical Lutherans numbered about 160,836 adherents in 2000. The Christian Reformed Church had about 112,711 members that year and the Presbyterian Church USA had 104,471. The Seventh Day Adventists, who had their world headquarters in Battle Creek from 1855 to 1903, numbered 37,712 in 2000. The Jewish community had about 110,000 members. Over 5.7 million people (about 58% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Because of Michigan's location, its inhabitants have always depended heavily on the Great Lakes for transportation. Not until the 1820s did land transportation systems begin to be developed. Although extensive networks of railroads and highways now reach

into all parts of the state, the Great Lakes remain major avenues of commerce.

The first railroad company in the Midwest was chartered in Michigan in 1830, and six years later the Erie and Kalamazoo, operating between Toledo, Ohio, and Adrian, became the first railroad in service west of the Appalachians. Between 1837 and 1845, the state government sought to build three lines across southern Michigan, before abandoning the project and selling the two lines it had partially completed to private companies. The pace of railroad construction lagged behind that in other Midwestern states until after the Civil War. Only then did the combination of federal and state aid, and Michigan's booming economy lead to an enormous expansion in trackage, from fewer than 800 mi (1,300 km) in 1860 to a peak of 9,021 mi (14,518 km) in 1910. With the economic decline of northern Michigan and the resulting drop in railroad revenues, Class I trackage declined to 2,752 rail mi (4,430 km) by 2003, out of a total of 4,495 rail mi (7,236 km) in that year. A total of 23 railroads provided freight service in the state as of 2003, of which four were Class I railroads. The Michigan state government, through the Department of Transportation, has helped to revive the railroad system through its Rail Program. Most railroad passenger service is provided by Amtrak, which as of 2006, provided service to 23 stations in the state, connecting them to Chicago.

Railroads have been used only to a limited degree in the Detroit area as commuter carriers, although efforts have been made to improve this service. In the early 1900s, more than 1,000 mi (1,600 km) of inter-urban rail lines provided rapid transit service in southern Michigan, but automobiles and buses drove them out of business, and the last line shut down in 1934. Street railway service began in a number of cities in the 1860s, with Detroit taking over its street railways in 1922. Use of these public transportation systems declined sharply after World War II. By the 1950s, streetcars had been replaced by buses, but by 1960 many small communities had abandoned city bus service altogether. During the 1970s, with massive government aid, bus service was restored to many cities and was improved in others, and the number of riders generally increased.

As of 2004, the state had 122,382 mi (197,035 km) of roads. Major expressways included I-94 (Detroit to Chicago), I-96 (Detroit to Grand Rapids), and I-75 (from the Ohio border to Sault Ste. Marie). In 2004, there were some 4.632 million registered passenger cars, about 3.613 million trucks of all types, around 10,000 buses, and some 227,000 motorcycles. Licensed drivers numbered 7,103,404 during that same year.

The completion in 1957 of the Mackinac Bridge, the fourth-longest suspension span in the world, eliminated the major barrier to easy movement between the state's two peninsulas. The International Bridge at Sault Ste. Marie, the Blue-Water Bridge at Port Huron, the Ambassador Bridge at Detroit, and the Detroit–Windsor Tunnel link Michigan with Canada.

The opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway in 1959 made it possible for a large number of oceangoing vessels to dock at Michigan ports. In 2004, the port of Detroit handled 16.858 million tons of cargo making it the 42nd-busiest port in the United States. Other major ports in Michigan that same year were Presque Isle, which handled, 10.134 million tons, while Escanaba handled 6.620 million tons, and the limestone-shipping port of Calcite handled

8.949 million tons. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 66.387 million tons.

Michigan was a pioneer in developing air transportation service. The Ford Airport at Dearborn in the 1920s had one of the first air passenger facilities and was the base for some of the first regular airmail service. In 2005, Michigan had a total of 485 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 381 airports, 95 heliports, 2 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 7 seaplane bases. The state's major airport is Detroit Metropolitan Wayne County Airport. In 2004, the airport had 17,046,176 enplaned passengers, making it the 11th-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

Indian hunters and fishermen inhabited the region now known as Michigan as early as 9000 BC; these peoples were making use of copper found in the upper peninsula—the first known use of a metal by peoples anywhere in the western hemisphere. Around 1000 BC, their descendants introduced agriculture into southwestern Michigan. In the latter part of the prehistoric era, the Indians appear to have declined in population.

In the early 17th century, when European penetration began, Michigan's lower peninsula was inhabited by tribes of Native Americans who may have moved west of Lake Michigan for temporary periods during periods of war. In the upper peninsula there were small bands of Ojibwa along the St. Marys River and the Lake Michigan shore; in the west, Menomini Indians lived along the present Michigan-Wisconsin border. Both tribes were of Algonkian linguistic stock, as were most Indians who later settled in the area, except for the Winnebago of the Siouan group in the Green Bay region of Lake Michigan, and the Huron of Iroquoian stock in the Georgian Bay area of Canada. In the 1640s, the Huron were nearly wiped out by other Iroquois tribes from New York, and the survivors fled westward with their neighbors to the north, the Ottawa Indians. Eventually, both tribes settled at the Straits of Mackinac before moving to the Detroit area early in the 18th century. During the same period, the Potawatomi and Miami Indians moved from Wisconsin into southern Michigan.

For two centuries after the first Europeans came to Michigan, the Indians remained a vital force in the area's development. They were the source of the furs that the whites traded for, and they also were highly respected as potential allies when war threatened between the rival colonial powers in North America. However, after the War of 1812, when the fur trade declined and the possibility of war receded, the value of the Indians to the white settlers diminished. Between 1795 and 1842, Indian lands in Michigan were ceded to the federal government, and the Huron, Miami, and many Potawatomi were removed from the area. Some Potawatomi were allowed to remain on lands reserved for them, along with most of the Ojibwa and Ottawa Indians in the north.

The first European explorer known to have reached Michigan was a Frenchman, Etienne Brulé, who explored the Sault Ste. Marie area around 1620. Fourteen years later, Jean Nicolet explored the Straits of Mackinac and the southern shore of the upper peninsula en route to Green Bay. Missionary and fur trading posts, to which were later added military forts, were established at Sault Ste. Marie by Father Jacques Marquette in 1668, and then at St. Ignace in 1671. By the 1860s, several temporary posts had been

established in the lower peninsula. In 1701, Antoine Laumet de la Mothe Cadillac founded a permanent settlement at the site of present-day Detroit.

Detroit and Michigan grew little at first, however, because the rulers of the French colony of New France were obsessed with the fur trade, which did not attract large numbers of settlers. After France's defeat in the French and Indian War, fears that the British would turn the area over to English farmers from the coastal colonies, with the consequent destruction of the Indian way of life, led the Indians at Detroit to rebel in May 1763, under the leadership of the Ottawa chief Pontiac. Other uprisings resulting from similar grievances soon spread throughout the west but ended in failure for the Indians. Pontiac gave up his siege of Detroit after six months, and by 1764 the British were in firm control. Nevertheless, the British authorities did not attempt to settle the area. The need to protect the fur trade placed the people of Michigan solidly on the British side during the American Revolution, since a rebel triumph would likely mean the migration of American farmers into the west, converting the wilderness to cropland. The British occupied Michigan and other western areas for 13 years after the Treaty of Paris in 1783 had assigned these territories to the new United States. The US finally got possession of Michigan in the summer of 1796.

Michigan became a center of action in the War of 1812. The capture of Detroit by the British on 16 August 1812 was a crushing defeat for the Americans. Although Detroit was recaptured by the Americans in September 1813, continued British occupation of the fort on Mackinac Island, which they had captured in 1812, enabled them to control most of Michigan. The territory was finally returned to American authority under the terms of the Treaty of Ghent at the end of 1814. With the opening in 1825 of the Erie Canal, which provided a cheap, all-water link between Michigan and New York City, American pioneers turned their attention to these northern areas, and during the 1820s settlers for the first time pushed into the interior of southern Michigan.

Originally part of the Northwest Territory, Michigan had been set aside in 1805 as a separate territory, but with boundaries considerably different from those of the subsequent state. On the south, the territory's boundary was a line set due east from the southernmost point of Lake Michigan; on the north, only the eastern tip of the upper peninsula was included. In 1818 and 1834, areas as far west as Iowa and the Dakotas were added to the territory for administrative purposes. By 1833, Michigan had attained a population of 60,000, qualifying it for statehood. The territorial government's request in 1834 that Michigan be admitted to the Union was rejected by Congress, however, because of a dispute over Michigan's southern boundary. When Indiana became a state in 1816, it had been given a 10-mi (16-km) strip of land in southwestern Michigan, and Michigan now refused to accede to Ohio's claim that it should be awarded lands in southeastern Michigan, including the present site of Toledo. In 1835, Michigan militia defeated the efforts of Ohio authorities to take over the disputed area during the so-called Toledo War, in which no one was killed. Nevertheless, Ohio's superior political power in Congress ultimately forced Michigan to agree to relinquish the Toledo Strip. In return, Congress approved the state government that the people of Michigan had set up in 1835. As part of the compromise that finally brought Michigan into the Union on 26 January 1837, the new

state was given land in the upper peninsula west of St. Ignace as compensation for the loss of Toledo.

Youthful Stevens T. Mason, who had led the drive for statehood, became Michigan's first elected governor, but he and the Democratic Party fell out of grace when the new state was plunged into financial difficulties during the depression of the late 1830s. The party soon returned to power and controlled the state until the mid-1850s. In Michigan, as elsewhere, it was the slavery issue that ended Democratic dominance. In July 1854, antislavery Democrats joined with members of the Whig and Free-Soil parties at a convention in Jackson to organize the Republican Party. In the elections of 1854, the Republicans swept into office in Michigan, controlling the state, with rare exceptions, until the 1930s.

Abraham Lincoln was not the first choice of Michigan Republicans for president in 1860, but when he was nominated, they gave him a solid margin of victory that fell and again in 1864. Approximately 90,000 Michigan men served in the Union army, taking part in all major actions of the Civil War. Michigan's Zachariah Chandler was one of the leaders of the Radical Republicans in the US Senate who fought for a harsh policy toward the South during Reconstruction.

Michigan grew rapidly in economic importance. Agriculture sparked the initial growth of the new state and was responsible for its rapid increase in population. By 1850, the southern half of the lower peninsula was filling up, with probably 85% of the state's population dependent in some way on agriculture for a living. Less than two decades later, exploitation of vast pine forests in northern Michigan had made the state the top lumber producer in the United States. Settlers were also attracted to the same area by the discovery of rich mineral deposits, which made Michigan for a time the nation's leading source of iron ore, copper, and salt.

Toward the end of the 19th century, as timber resources were being exhausted and as farming and mining reached their peak stages of development, new opportunities in manufacturing opened up. Such well-known Michigan companies as Kellogg, Dow Chemical, and Upjohn had their origins during this period. The furniture industry in Grand Rapids, the paper industry in Kalamazoo, and numerous other industries were in themselves sufficient to ensure the state's increasing industrial importance. But the sudden popularity of Ransom E. Olds's Oldsmobile runabout, manufactured first in Lansing, inspired a host of Michiganders to produce similar practical, relatively inexpensive automobiles. By 1904, the most successful of the new models, Detroit's Cadillac and the first Fords, together with the Oldsmobile, had made Michigan the leading automobile producer in the country—and, later, in the world. The key developments in Michigan's auto industry were the creation of General Motors by William C. Durant in 1908; Henry Ford's development of the Model T in 1908, followed by his institution of the moving assembly line in 1913–14; and Walter P. Chrysler's 1925 formation of the automobile corporation named after him.

Industrialization brought with it urbanization; the census of 1920 for the first time showed a majority of Michiganders living in towns and cities. Nearly all industrial development was concentrated in the southern third of the state, particularly the southeastern area, around Detroit. The northern two-thirds of the state, where nothing took up the slack left by the decline in lumber and mining output, steadily lost population and became increasingly troubled

economically. Meanwhile, the Republican Party, under such progressive governors as Fred Warner and Chase Osborn—and, in the 1920s, under a brilliant administrator, Alexander Groesbeck—showed itself far better able than the Democratic opposition to adjust to the complexities of a booming industrial economy.

The onset of the depression of the 1930s had devastating effects in Michigan. The market for automobiles collapsed; by 1932, half of Michigan's industrial workers were unemployed. The ineffectiveness of the Republican state and federal governments during the crisis led to a landslide victory for the Democrats. In traditionally Republican areas of rural Michigan, the defection to the Democratic Party in 1932 was only temporary, but in the urban industrial areas, the faith of the factory workers in the Republican Party was, for the great majority, permanently shaken. These workers, driven by the desire for greater job security, joined the recruiting campaign launched by the new Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO). By 1941, with the capitulation of Ford Motor, the United Automobile Workers (UAW) had organized the entire auto industry, and Michigan had been converted to a strongly pro-union state.

Eventually, the liberal leadership of the UAW and of other CIO unions in the state allied itself with the Democratic Party to provide the funds and organization the party needed to mobilize worker support. The coalition elected G. Mennen Williams governor in 1948 and reelected him for five successive two-year terms. By the mid-1950s, the Democrats controlled virtually all statewide elective offices. Because legislative apportionment still reflected an earlier distribution of population, however, the Republicans maintained their control of the legislature and frustrated the efforts of the Williams administration to institute social reforms. In the 1960s, as a result of US Supreme Court rulings, the legislature was reapportioned on a strictly equal-population basis. This shifted a majority of legislative seats into urban areas, enabling the Democrats generally to control the legislature at that time.

In the meantime, Republican moderates, led by George Romney, gained control of their party's organization. Romney was elected governor in 1962 and served until 1969, when he was succeeded by William G. Milliken, who held the governorship for 14 years. When Milliken chose not to run in the 1982 election, the statehouse was captured by the Democrats, ending 20 years of Republican rule. The new governor, James J. Blanchard, faced the immediate tasks of saving Michigan from bankruptcy and reducing the unemployment rate, which had averaged more than 15% in 1982 (60% above the US average).

The nationwide recession of the early 1980s hit Michigan harder than most other states because of its effect on the auto industry, which had already suffered heavy losses primarily as a result of its own inability to foresee the demise of the big luxury cars and because of the increasing share of the American auto market captured by foreign, mostly Japanese, manufacturers. In 1979, Chrysler had been forced to obtain \$1.2 billion in federally guaranteed loans to stave off bankruptcy, and during the late 1970s and the first two years of the 1980s, US automakers were forced to lay off hundreds of thousands of workers, tens of thousands of whom left the state. Many smaller businesses, dependent on the auto industry, closed their doors, adding to the unemployment problem and to the state's fiscal problem; as the tax base shrank, state revenues plummeted, creating a budget deficit of nearly \$1 billion. Two

months after he took office in January 1983, Governor Blanchard was forced to institute budget cuts totaling \$225 million and lay off thousands of government workers; at his urging, the state legislature increased Michigan's income tax by 38%.

As the recession eased in 1983, Michigan's economy showed some signs of improvement. The automakers became profitable, and Chrysler was even able to repay its \$1.2 billion in loans seven years before it was due, rehire 100,000 workers, and make plans to build a \$500-million technological center in the northern Detroit suburb of Auburn Hills. By May 1984, Michigan's unemployment rate had begun to drop, but the state faced the difficult task of restructuring its economy to lessen its dependence on the auto industry.

By the late 1980s, there were signs that Michigan had succeeded in diversifying its economy. Fewer than one in four wage earners worked in factories in 1988, a drop from 30% in 1978. Despite continued layoffs and plant closings by auto manufacturers between 1982 and 1988, Michigan added half a million more jobs than it lost. Many of the new jobs were in small engineering and applied technology companies, which found opportunities in the big manufacturers' efforts to automate. The state established a \$100-million job retraining program to upgrade the skills of displaced factory workers, and contributed \$5 million to a joint job training program created by General Motors and the United Automobile Workers. In the mid-1990s, the manufacture of transportation equipment was still Michigan's most important industry, with 28% of domestic automobiles produced in the state. Employment, wages, exports, and housing starts were all on the rise.

In the late 1990s prosperity across the nation had boosted Americans' appetite for new automobiles, including gas-guzzling sports utility vehicles. Combined with sales of other light trucks, SUVs bolstered the Big Three, now leaner and more competitive than in the pre-recession era. In 1998 Chrysler Corporation merged with German-based Daimler-Benz to form DaimlerChrysler, with headquarters in Michigan and Germany. Construction in the state was boosted by numerous road improvement projects during the late 1990s, a new Northwest Airlines terminal at Detroit Metropolitan Airport, voter-approved casinos in Detroit, and demand for new housing. In 1999, the robust economy had resulted in a low unemployment rate of 3.8%. In 2000 the state led the nation in home ownership, exceeding the national average by as much as 10%.

Republican governor John Engler, first elected in 1990 and winning his third term in 1998, aggressively courted business during his administration. He was criticized by some for doing so at the expense of the state's environment. Engler had also, early on, garnered intense opposition to his plan to cut the state's welfare role. Nevertheless, he continued to be reelected. Among the state's challenges in 2000 were education reform (and the question of school vouchers), preserving farmlands in the face of development and urban sprawl, and, in conjunction with neighboring states and Canada, further cleanup and conservation of the Great Lakes system.

In 2002, Jennifer Granholm was elected Michigan's first female governor and the first Democrat to win the office since John Engler took office. In 2003, Granholm pledged to balance the state's budget (the state had a \$1.8 billion deficit for fiscal year 2003/04), planned to create a corridor to attract technology companies to

Michigan (particularly in the biotech and pharmaceutical sectors), to support education, and to purchase prescription drugs in bulk. In 2005, Granholm announced a plan (the MI Opportunity Partnership) to fill 90,000 job vacancies. The plan allows for job training to place out-of-work citizens in such needed positions as health care and the skilled trades.

Michigan was one of the states affected by the 14 August 2003 massive power blackout in Canada, the Northeast, and Midwestern states. The largest electrical outage in US history affected 9,300 square miles and a population of over 50 million.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Michigan has had four constitutions. The first, adopted in 1835 when Michigan was applying for statehood, was followed by constitutions adopted in 1850, 1908, and 1963. By January 2005, there were 25 amendments.

The legislature consists of a Senate of 38 members, elected for terms of four years, and a House of Representatives of 110 members, elected for two-year terms. The legislature meets annually, beginning the second Wednesday of January, for a session of indeterminate length. Special sessions may only be called by the governor. Legislation may be adopted by a majority of each house, but to override a governor's veto a two-thirds vote of the elected and serving members of each house is required. A legislator must be at least 21 years old, a US citizen, and a qualified voter of the district in which he or she resides. The legislative salary was \$79,650 in 2004.

Elected executive officials include the governor and lieutenant governor (who run jointly), secretary of state, and attorney general, all serving four-year terms. Elections are held in even-numbered years between US presidential elections. The governor and

lieutenant governor must be at least 30 years old and must have been registered voters in the state for at least four years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$177,000. The governor, who is limited to serving two consecutive terms, appoints the members of the governing boards and/or directors of executive departments, with the exception of the Department of Education, whose head is appointed by the elected State Board of Education. The trustees of Michigan State University, the University of Michigan, and Wayne State University are also elected by the state's voters. Trustees serve eight-year terms.

Legislative action is completed when a bill has been passed by both houses of the legislature and signed by the governor. A bill also becomes law if not signed by the governor after a 14-day period when the legislature is in session. The governor may stop passage of a bill by vetoing it or, if the legislature adjourns before the 14-day period expires, by refusing to sign it.

The constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of both houses of the legislature and a majority vote at the next general election. An amendment also may be proposed by registered voters through petition and submission to the general electorate; the petition must be signed by 10% of total voters for all candidates at the last gubernatorial election. Every 16 years, the question of calling a convention to revise the constitution must be submitted to the voters; the question was first put on the ballot in 1978 and was rejected.

A voter in Michigan must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and must have been a resident of the state and city or township for 30 days prior to election day. Those confined to jail after conviction and sentencing are ineligible to vote, but convicted felons may vote after completing their entire sentence, including parole and probation.

Michigan Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MICHIGAN WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	PROHIBITION
1948	19	Dewey (R)	1,003,448	1,038,595	46,515	6,063	13,052
1952	20	*Eisenhower (R)	1,230,657	1,551,529	3,922	655	10,331
1956	20	*Eisenhower (R)	1,359,898	1,713,647	—	—	6,923
					SOC. LABOR		
1960	20	*Kennedy (D)	1,687,269	1,620,428	1,718	4,347	2,029
1964	21	*Johnson (D)	2,136,615	1,060,152	1,704	3,817	—
							AMERICAN IND.
1968	21	Humphrey (D)	1,593,082	1,370,665	1,762	4,099	331,968
							AMERICAN
1972	21	*Nixon (R)	1,459,435	1,961,721	2,437	1,603	63,321
					PEOPLE'S		LIBERTARIAN
1976	21	Ford (R)	1,696,714	1,893,742	3,504	1,804	5,406
					CITIZENS	COMMUNIST	
1980	21	*Reagan (R)	1,661,532	1,915,225	11,930	3,262	41,597
1984	20	*Reagan (R)	1,529,638	2,251,571	1,191	—	10,055
					NEW ALLIANCE	WORKERS LEAGUE	
1988	20	*Bush (R)	1,675,783	1,965,486	2,513	1,958	18,336
					IND. (Perot)	TISCH IND. CITIZENS	
1992	18	*Clinton (D)	1,871,182	1,554,940	824,813	8,263	10,175
1996	18	*Clinton (D)	1,989,653	1,481,212	336,670	—	27,670
						GREEN	
2000	18	Gore (D)	2,170,418	1,953,139	—	84,165	16,711
					IND. (Nader)		
2004	17	Kerry (D)	2,479,183	2,313,746	24,035	5,325	10,552

*Won US presidential election

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

From its birth in 1854 through 1932, the Republican Party dominated state politics, rarely losing statewide elections and developing strong support in all parts of the state, both rural and urban. The problems caused by the economic depression of the 1930s revitalized the Democratic Party and made Michigan a strong two-party state. Democratic strength was concentrated in metropolitan Detroit, while Republicans maintained their greatest strength in "outstate" areas, except for the mining regions of the upper peninsula, where the working class, hit hard by the depression, supported the Democrats.

Most labor organizations, led by the powerful United Automobile Workers union, have generally supported the Democratic Party since the 1930s. But in recent years, moderate Republicans have had considerable success in attracting support among previously Democratic voters.

Among minor parties, only Theodore Roosevelt's Progressive Party, which captured the state's electoral vote in 1912, has succeeded in winning a statewide contest. George Wallace captured 10% of the total vote cast for president in 1968; Ross Perot almost doubled that showing in 1992 with 19% of the vote.

Between 1948 and 1992, the Republican candidate for president carried Michigan in nine out of 13 elections, but Michiganians gave Democrat Bill Clinton 44% of the vote in 1992 and 52% in 1996. In 2000, Democrat Al Gore received 51% of the presidential vote to Republican George W. Bush's 47%. Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 2%. In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerry won 51% of the vote to Bush's 48%. The state had 17 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a decrease of 1 over 2000.

Republican governor John Engler served three terms as governor, ending in January 2003. (Michigan limits its governors to serving two consecutive terms, but the law became effective after Engler's election, so he was grandfathered.) In November 2002, Democrat Jennifer Granholm became Michigan's first female governor. In 2004 there were 7,164,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state.

Four-term Democratic Senator Carl Levin was reelected in 2002. Republican Spencer Abraham was elected to the Senate in 1994, replacing retiring Democrat Donald Riegel. Abraham sought a second term in 2000, but failed to win reelection. He was named President George W. Bush's Secretary of Energy in 2001. Democrat Debbie Stabenow, Michigan's first female US senator, defeated Abraham in 2000 for the Senate seat. After the 2004 elections, the state's 15-member US House delegation consisted of six Democrats and nine Republicans. On the state level, in mid-2005 there were 22 Republicans and 16 Democrats in the state Senate, and 58 Republicans and 52 Democrats in the House.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, local government included 83 counties, 533 municipal governments, 734 public school districts, and 366 special districts. In 2002, there were also 1,242 townships. Each county is administered by a county board of commissioners whose members, ranging in number from 3 to 35 according to population, are elected for two-year terms. Executive authority is vested in officers (the sheriff, prosecuting attorney, treasurer, clerk, and register of deeds), who are generally elected for four-year terms. Some coun-

ties place overall administrative responsibility in the hands of a county manager or administrator.

Most cities are governed by home-rule legislation, adopted in 1909, enabling them to establish their own form of government under an adopted charter. Some charters provide for the election of a mayor, who usually functions as the chief executive officer of the city. Other cities have chosen the council-manager system, with a council appointing the manager to serve as chief executive and the office of mayor being largely ceremonial. Many villages are incorporated under home-rule legislation in order to provide services such as police and fire protection.

Township government, its powers strictly limited by state law, consists of a supervisor, clerk, treasurer, and up to four trustees, all elected for four-year terms and together forming the township board.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 363,776 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Michigan operates under the authority of the executive order; the state emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Educational services are handled in part by the Department of Education, which distributes state school-aid funds, certifies teachers, and operates the Schools for the Deaf and Blind at Flint. The state-supported colleges and universities are independent of the department's control, each being governed by an elected or appointed board. Although most of the funds administered by the Department of Transportation go for highway construction and maintenance, some allocations support improvements of railroad, bus, ferry, air, and port services.

Health and welfare services are provided by the Department of Community Health and the Department of Civil Rights, as well as through programs administered by the Department of Labor and Economic Growth, the Office of Services to the Aging, the Department of Environmental Quality, the Michigan Women's Commission, the Spanish-Speaking Affairs Commission, and the Veterans Trust Fund. The state's Army and Air National Guard units are maintained by the Department of Military and Veterans Affairs. Civil defense is part of the Department of State Police, and state prisons and other correctional facilities are maintained by the Department of Corrections.

Housing services are provided by the State Housing Development Authority. The Department of Labor and Economic Growth establishes and enforces rules and standards relating to safety, wages, licenses, fees, and conditions of employment. The Employment Security Commission administers unemployment benefits and assists job seekers.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Michigan's highest court is the state supreme court, consisting of seven justices elected for eight-year terms. The chief justice is elected by the members of the court. The court hears cases on appeal from lower state courts and also administers the state's entire court system. The 1963 constitution provided for an 18-member court of appeals to handle most of the cases that previously had

clogged the high court's calendar. Unless the supreme court agrees to review a court of appeals ruling, the latter's decision is final. As of 1999, 28 appeals court justices are elected from each of four districts for six-year terms. The supreme court appoints a chief judge of the appeals court.

The major trial courts in the state as of 1999 were the circuit courts, encompassing 210 judicial seats, with the judges elected for six-year terms. The circuit courts have original jurisdiction in all felony criminal cases, civil cases involving sums of more than \$10,000, and divorces. As of January 1998, the circuit courts have a "family" division to better serve families and individuals. The circuit courts also hear appeals from lower courts and state administrative agencies. Probate courts have original jurisdiction in cases involving juveniles and dependents, and also handle wills and estates, adoptions, and commitments of the mentally ill. The 1963 constitution provided for the abolition of justice-of-the-peace courts and nearly all municipal courts, although the Detroit "Recorders Court" was not abolished until 1996 in a controversial move supported by the Republican governor and legislative majority but opposed by most Democratic leaders. To replace them, 101 district courts, some consisting of two or more divisions, have been established. These courts handle civil cases involving sums of less than \$10,000, minor criminal violations, and preliminary examinations in all felony cases.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 48,883 prisoners were held in Michigan's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 49,358 of 1% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,113 inmates were female, up from 2,198 or 1.5% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Michigan had an incarceration rate of 483 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Michigan in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 490.2 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 49,577 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 309,208 reported incidents or 3,057.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Michigan has had no death penalty on its law books since 1846, when it became the first state in the United States to abolish capital punishment. Although there have been efforts to restore the death penalty, none of these attempts had been successful as of 2006.

In 2003, Michigan spent \$226,349,928 on homeland security, an average of \$23 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there 4,419 active-duty military personnel, 11,373 Guard, National Guard, and Reserve, and 3,572 civilian personnel in Michigan. The Detroit Arsenal at Warren is the state's largest center for civilians, 3,009. In 2004 Michigan firms received over \$2.6 billion in defense contracts, and \$1.2 billion in defense payroll, including retired military pay.

As of 2003, there were 836,950 veterans of US military service living in Michigan. Of these, 124,006 served in World War II; 98,681 served in the Korean conflict; 264,267 served during the Vietnam era, and 110,061 served in the Gulf War. Expenditures on veterans exceeded \$1.4 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Michigan State Police employed 1,591 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The earliest European immigrants were the French and English. The successive opening of interior lands for farming, lumbering, mining, and manufacturing proved an irresistible attraction for hundreds of thousands of immigrants after the War of 1812, principally Germans, Canadians, English, Irish, and Dutch. During the second half of the 19th century, lumbering and mining opportunities in northern Michigan attracted large numbers of Cornishmen, Norwegians, Swedes, and Finns. The growth of manufacturing in southern Michigan at the end of the century brought many Poles, Italians, Russians, Belgians, and Greeks to the state. After World War II, many more Europeans immigrated to Michigan, plus smaller groups of Mexicans, other Spanish-speaking peoples from Latin America, and large numbers of Arabic-speaking peoples, particularly in Detroit, who by the late 1970s were more numerous there than in any other US city.

The first large domestic migration into Michigan came in the early 19th century after the War of 1812. Heavy immigration took place in the 1920s and 1930s, especially from northeastern states, particularly New York and Pennsylvania, and from Ohio. Beginning in 1916, the demand for labor in Michigan's factories started the second major domestic migration to Michigan, this time by southern blacks who settled mainly in Detroit, Flint, Pontiac, Grand Rapids, and Saginaw. During World War II, many southern whites migrated to the same industrial areas. Between 1940 and 1970, a net total of 518,000 migrants were drawn to Michigan. The economic problems of the auto industry in the 1970s and 1980s caused a significant reversal of this trend, with the state suffering a net loss of 496,000 by out-migration in the 1970s and over 460,000 in the 1980s. Between 1990 and 1998, Michigan had a net loss of 190,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 87,000 in international migration. In 1996, Michigan's foreign-born population totaled 491,000, or 5% of its total population. In 1998, 13,943 foreign immigrants entered the state, the 11th-highest total for any state that year. Michigan's overall population increased 5.6% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 122,901 and net internal migration was -165,084, for a net loss of 42,183 people.

Intrastate migration has been characterized since the late 19th century by a steady movement from rural to urban areas. Most parts of northern Michigan have suffered a loss of population since the early years of this century although a back-to-the-land movement, together with the growth of rural Michigan as a retirement area, appeared to reverse this trend beginning in the 1970s. Since 1950, the central cities have experienced a steady loss of population to the suburbs, in part caused by the migration of whites from areas that were becoming increasingly black. By 1998, Michigan's black population numbered 1,405,000, of whom over 1,100,000 lived in the Detroit–Ann Arbor–Flint metropolitan area.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Commission on Intergovernmental Cooperation of the Michigan legislature represents the state in dealings with the Council of State Governments and its allied organizations. Since 1935, the state has joined more than 20 interstate compacts, dealing mainly with such subjects as gas and oil problems, law enforcement, pest control, civil defense, tax reciprocity, and water resources. Com-

pacts include the Boundary Compact Between Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan; Interstate Compact for Juveniles, and the Great Lakes Commission. In 1985, Michigan, seven other Great Lakes states, and the Canadian provinces of Quebec and Ontario signed the Great Lakes Charter, designed to protect the lakes' water resources.

The International Bridge Authority, consisting of members from Michigan and Canada, operates a toll bridge connecting Sault Ste. Marie, Mich., and Sault Ste. Marie, Ontario. Federal grants to Michigan totaled \$10.355 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$10.078 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$10.210 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

On the whole, Michigan benefited from its position as the center of the auto industry during the first half of the 20th century when Detroit and other south Michigan cities were the fastest-growing industrial areas in the United States. But the state's dependence on automobile production has caused grave and persistent economic problems since the 1950s. Michigan's unemployment rates in times of recession have far exceeded the national average, since auto sales are among the hardest hit in such periods. Even in times of general prosperity, the auto industry's emphasis on labor-saving techniques and its shifting of operation from the state have reduced the number of jobs available to Michigan workers. Although the state was relatively prosperous during the record automotive production years of the 1960s and 1970s, the high cost of gasoline and the encroachment of imports on domestic car sales had disastrous effects by 1980, when it became apparent that the state's future economic health required greater diversification of industry. Agriculture, still dominant in the rural areas of southern Michigan, remains an important element in the state's economy, and in northern Michigan, forestry and mining continue but generally at levels far below earlier boom periods. Output from manufactures peaked in 1999 at close to \$84 billion, about 27% of gross state product, but in 2001, after an 11.85% fall from 2000 levels, manufacturing output accounted for only 23.1% of gross state product. By contrast, services of various sorts accounted for over 70% of total output in 2001. In 2002, Michigan lagged the national economy, and was not expected to recover in the short-term, while its manufacturing sector goes through restructuring.

Michigan's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$372.169 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest portion at \$76.261 billion or 20.4% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$42.930 (11.5% of GSP), and professional and technical services at \$28.977 billion (7.7% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 765,487 small businesses in Michigan. Of the 213,104 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 209,751 or 98.4% were small companies. An estimated 24,625 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 11.8% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 24,584, down 0.7% from 2003. There were 681 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 0.4% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 618 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Michigan as the 18th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Michigan had a gross state product (GSP) of \$378 billion which accounted for 3.0% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 9 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Michigan had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$32,079. This ranked 23rd in the United States and was 97% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.5%. Michigan had a total personal income (TPI) of \$324,134,088,000, which ranked ninth in the United States and reflected an increase of 1.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.1%. Earnings of persons employed in Michigan increased from \$251,820,728,000 in 2003 to \$254,041,008,000 in 2004, an increase of 0.9%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$44,476 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 12.1% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Michigan numbered 5,157,600, with approximately 369,500 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 7.2%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 4,387,200. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Michigan was 16.9% in November 1982. The historical low was 3.2% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.3% of the labor force was employed in construction; 15% in manufacturing; 18.1% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5% in financial activities; 13.6% in professional and business services; 13% in education and health services; 9.4% in leisure and hospitality services; and 15.3% in government.

Michigan's most powerful and influential industrial union since the 1930s has been the United Automobile Workers (UAW); its national headquarters is in Detroit. Under its long-time president Walter Reuther and his successors, Leonard Woodcock, Douglas Fraser, Owen Bieber, and Stephen Yokich, the union has been a dominant force in the state Democratic Party. In recent years, as government employees and teachers have been organized, unions and associations representing these groups have become increasingly influential. Under the Michigan Public Employment Relations Act of 1965, public employees have the right to organize and to engage in collective bargaining, but are prohibited from striking. However, strikes of teachers, college faculty members, and government employees have been common since the 1960s, and little or no effort was made to enforce the law.

Certain crafts and trades were organized in Michigan in the 19th century, with one national labor union, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, having been founded at meetings in Michigan in 1863, but efforts to organize workers in the lumber and mining industries were generally unsuccessful. Michigan ac-

quired a reputation as an open-shop state, and factory workers showed little interest in unions at a time when wages were high. But the catastrophic impact of the depression of the 1930s completely changed these attitudes. With the support of sympathetic state and federal government officials, Michigan workers were in the forefront of the greatest labor-organizing drive in American history. The successful sit-down strike by the United Automobile Workers against General Motors in 1936–37 marked the first major victory of the new Congress of Industrial Organizations. Since then, a strong labor movement has provided manufacturing workers in Michigan with some of the most favorable working conditions in the country.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 880,000 of Michigan's 4,288,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 20.5% of those so employed, down from 21.6% in 2004, but well above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 916,000 workers (21.4%) in Michigan were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Michigan is one of only five states whose union membership rate is over 20% and is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Michigan had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

In 2005, Michigan's agricultural income was estimated at over \$3.9 billion, placing Michigan 22nd among the 50 states. About 60% came from crops and the rest from livestock and livestock products; dairy products, nursery products, cattle, corn, and soybeans were the principal commodities. The state in 2004 ranked second in output of tart cherries, third in apples, and fourth in prunes and plums.

The growing of corn and other crops indigenous to North America was introduced in Michigan by the Indians around 100 BC, and early French settlers tried to develop European-style agriculture during the colonial era. But little progress was made until well into the 19th century, when farmers from New York and New England poured into the interior of southern Michigan. By mid-century, 34,000 farms had been established, and the number increased to a peak of about 207,000 in 1910. The major cash crop at first was wheat, until soil exhaustion, insect infestations, bad winters, and competition from huge wheat farms to the west forced a de-emphasis on wheat and a move toward agricultural diversity. Both the number of farms and the amount of farm acreage had declined by 2004 to 53,200 farms and 10,100,000 acres (4,088,000 hectares).

The southern half of the lower peninsula is the principal agricultural region, and the area along Lake Michigan is a leader in fruit growing. Potatoes are profitable in northern Michigan, while eastern Michigan (the "Thumb" area near Lake Huron) is a leading bean producer. The Saginaw Valley leads the state in sugar beets. The south-central and southeastern counties are major centers of soybean production. Leading field crops in 2004 included 257,280,000 bushels of corn for grain, valued at \$463,104,000; 75,240,000 bushels of soybeans, worth \$379,962,000; and

40,960,000 bushels of wheat, worth \$122,880,000. Output of commercial apples totaled 720,000,000 lb (327,000,000 kg).

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The same areas of southern Michigan that lead in crop production also lead in livestock and livestock products, except that the northern counties are more favorable for dairying than for crop production.

In 2005, there were an estimated 1,010,000 cattle and calves, valued at \$1.07 billion. The state had an estimated 940,000 hogs and pigs in 2004, valued at \$103.4 million.

In 2003, dairy farmers had an estimated 302,000 milk cows which produced around 6.36 million lb (2.89 million kg) of milk. Poultry farmers produced 1.89 billion eggs, valued at around \$93.7 million, in 2003.

25 FISHING

Commercial fishing, once an important factor in the state's economy, was relatively minor by the early 2000s. In 2004, the commercial catch was 8.4 million lb (3.8 million kg) valued at \$6.2 million. Principal species landed are silver salmon and alewives.

Sport fishing continues to flourish and is one of the state's major tourist attractions. A state salmon-planting program, begun in the mid-1960s, has made salmon the most popular game fish for Great Lakes sport fishermen. The state has also sought, through breeding and stocking programs, to bring back the trout, which was devastated by an invasion of lamprey. In 2004, the state issued 1,171,742 sport fishing licenses.

A bitter dispute raged during the 1970s between state officials and Ottawa and Ojibwa commercial fishermen, who claimed that Indian treaties with the federal government exempted them from state fishing regulations. The state contended that without such regulations, Indian commercial fishing would have a devastating impact on the northern Great Lakes' fish population. A federal court in 1979 upheld the Indians' contention; but in 1985, the state secured federal court approval of a compromise settlement intended to satisfy both Indian and non-Indian groups.

There are three national fisheries in Michigan. In 2005/06, \$9.5 million of federal funds were allocated for sport fish restoration projects in Michigan.

26 FORESTRY

In 2004, Michigan's forestland totaled 19.3 million acres (7.8 million hectares), or more than half the state's total land area. Approximately 96% of it is classified as timberland, about two-thirds of it privately owned. The major forested regions are in the northern two-thirds of the state, where great pine forests enabled Michigan to become the leading lumber-producing state in the last four decades of the 19th century. These cutover lands regenerated naturally or were reforested in the 20th century. Lumber production was 844 million board feet in 2004.

State and national forests covered 6.9 million acres (2.8 million hectares), or about one-fifth of the state's land area.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Michigan in 2003 was \$1.35 billion, a decrease from 2002 of

about 9%. The USGS data ranked Michigan as seventh among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for around 3.5% of total US output.

Although Michigan in 2003 was the second-largest iron ore producing state in the United States, portland cement was the state's top nonfuel mineral, by value, which was followed by iron ore, construction sand and gravel, crushed stone, salt and magnesium compounds. Collectively, these six commodities accounted for about 91% of all nonfuel mineral output in the state, by value.

Michigan was first nationally in magnesium chloride produced, and ranked second in the production of peat, industrial sand and gravel, bromine and of course, iron ore (after Minnesota). Michigan ranked third in construction sand and gravel, and potash, fourth in portland cement, seventh in salt and eighth in masonry cement.

According to preliminary figures for 2003, Michigan's production of construction sand and gravel totaled 70 million metric tons, which was valued at \$245 million, while output of crushed stone, that year totaled 41.2 million metric tons, and was valued at \$173 million. Salt output in 2003, according to the preliminary data totaled 1.53 million metric tons and was valued at \$105 million.

Michigan also produced small quantities of copper, silver and other mineral specimens for sale to collectors and museums.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Michigan had 79 electrical power service providers, of which 41 were publicly owned and 10 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, nine were investor owned, five were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers, twelve were generation-only suppliers, and two were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 4,713,966 retail customers. Of that total, 4,136,049 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 277,906 customers, while publicly owned providers had 299,378 customers. Generation-only suppliers had 628 customers and 5 were independent generator or "facility" customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 30.450 million kW, with total production that same year at 111.347 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 86.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 67.777 billion kWh (60.9%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear power plants in second place with 27.953 billion kWh (25.1%), and natural gas fueled plants in third place at 11.374 billion kWh (10.2%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.5% of all power generated. Petroleum fired plants, and hydroelectric generating facilities accounted for the remainder.

The two major electric utilities are Detroit Edison, serving the Detroit area and portions of the eastern part of the lower peninsula, and Consumers Power, serving most of the remainder of the lower peninsula. Rates of the utility companies are set by the Public Service Commission.

As of 2006, Michigan had three operating nuclear power plants; the Donald C Cook plant in Berrien County; the Enrico Fermi plant near Detroit; and the Palisades plant near South Haven.

Michigan is dependent on outside sources for most of its fuel needs. As of 2004, Michigan had proven crude oil reserves of 53 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 18,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 17th (16th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 18th (17th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Michigan had 3,675 producing oil wells. As of 2005, the state's single refinery had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 74,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Michigan had 8,500 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 259.681 billion cu ft (7.37 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 3,091 billion cu ft (87.8 billion cu m).

Bituminous coal reserves (estimated at 127.7 million tons) remain in southern Michigan, but production is negligible. There was no recorded coal production in 2004.

29 INDUSTRY

Manufacturing, a minor element in Michigan's economy in the mid-19th century, grew rapidly in importance until, by 1900, an estimated 25% of the state's jobholders were factory workers. The rise of the auto industry in the early 20th century completed the transformation of Michigan into one of the most important manufacturing areas in the world.

Motor vehicles and equipment dominate the state's economy, representing almost 40% of the state's manufacturing payroll, while the value of shipments by these manufacturers was slightly more than half of the total. Production of nonelectrical machinery, primary and fabricated metal products, and metal forgings and stampings was directly related to automobile production.

The Detroit metropolitan area is the major industrial region: this area includes not only the heavy concentration of auto-related plants in Wayne, Oakland, and Macomb counties, but also major steel, chemical, and pharmaceutical industries, among others. Flint, Grand Rapids, Saginaw, Ann Arbor, Lansing, and Kalamazoo are other major industrial centers.

The auto industry's preponderance in Michigan manufacturing has come to be viewed in recent years as more of a liability than an asset. When times are good, as they were in the 1960s and early 1970s, automobile sales soar to record levels and Michigan's economy prospers. But when the national economy slumps, these sales plummet, pushing the state into a far deeper recession than is felt by the nation as a whole.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Michigan's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$220.454 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$111.568 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$17.549 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$14.024 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$11.823 billion; and food manufacturing at \$11.659 billion.

In 2004, a total of 651,947 people in Michigan were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of

that total, 478,466 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 202,998, with 167,690 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 82,746 employees (60,331 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 75,818 employees (47,854 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 60,688 employees (45,689 actual production workers); and furniture and related product manufacturing with 29,664 employees (19,086 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Michigan's manufacturing sector paid \$32.547 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$12.753 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$4.039 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$3.335 billion; plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$2.119 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$1.745 billion; and primary metal manufacturing at \$1.442 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Michigan's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$165.9 billion from 12,876 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 8,102 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 3,370 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,404 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$92.9 billion. Sales data was unavailable for nondurable goods and for electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Michigan was listed as having 38,876 retail establishments with sales of \$109.3 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (5,973); clothing and clothing accessories stores (4,792); miscellaneous store retailers (4,486); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (4,234). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$31.7 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$13.1 billion; building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$9.4 billion; gasoline stations at \$8.7 billion; and health and personal care stores \$6.6 billion. A total of 520,958 people were employed by the retail sector in Michigan that year.

With its ports open to oceangoing vessels through the St. Lawrence Seaway, Michigan is a major exporting and importing state for foreign as well as domestic markets. Exports of Michigan's manufactured goods totaled \$37.5 billion in 2005, ranking the state fifth in the United States.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Michigan's Office of the Attorney General is responsible for the enforcement of most of the state's consumer protection laws through its Consumer Protection Division. However, other departments, such as the Department of Consumer and Industry Services which has the responsibility of regulating professions,

corporations and nursing homes, may also have their own consumer protection sections.

Under the state's Consumer Protection Act of 1976, a range of specific misrepresentations in advertising and commerce are prohibited. In addition, the law also regulates down payment returns, the signing of service contracts and other agreements and mandates that sellers of business opportunities must file with the state Attorney General. The state also has an item pricing law and regulations covering the volume and availability of advertised items. Michigan also has laws that regulate motor vehicle services and repairs, as well as a so-called "Lemon Law" that is applicable to the sale of new motor vehicles.

A number of local governments have instituted consumer affairs offices, with Detroit's being especially active.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However the Attorney General's Office cannot represent counties, cities or other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The state's Consumer Protection Division is located in Lansing. County and city government consumer protection offices are respectively located in Mt Clemens and Detroit.

32 BANKING

Michigan's banks in the territorial and early statehood years were generally wildcat speculative ventures. More restrained banking activities date from the 1840s when the state's oldest bank, the Detroit Bank and Trust, was founded. A crisis that developed in the early 1930s forced Governor William Comstock to close all banks in February 1933 in order to prevent collapse of the entire banking system. Federal and state authorities supervised a reorganization and reform of the state's banks that has succeeded in preventing any major problems from arising since that time.

As of June 2005, Michigan had 173 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 251 state-chartered and 152 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Detroit-Warren-Livonia market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 58 institutions and \$77.033 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 12.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$31.221 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 87.2% or \$211.930 billion in assets held.

In 2004, banks with less than \$1 billion in assets ("community banks") accounted for about 92.5% of the state's insured institutions, but larger banks held most of the state's assets. In that same year, the median net interest margin (NIMs) (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans), stood at 4.08%, down from 4.12% in 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans in 2004 was 1.82%, down from 2.15% in 2003.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004 there were over 4.9 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of about \$362 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$629.7 billion. The average coverage amount is \$72,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$1.9 billion.

As of 2003, there were 65 property and casualty and 19 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$16 billion. That year, there were 25,447 flood insurance policies in force in

the state, with a total value of \$3.1 billion. About \$15.3 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 59% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 26% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 15% for single coverage and 18% for family coverage. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 6.4 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection is also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$931.14.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities or commodity exchanges in Michigan. In 2005, there were 2,410 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 6,040 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 166 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 65 NASDAQ companies, 43 NYSE listings, and 5 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 21 Fortune 500 companies; General Motors (based in Detroit) ranked first in the state and third in the nation with revenues of over \$192.6 billion, followed by Ford Motor (Dearborn), Dow Chemical (Midland, Delphi (Troy), and Lear (Southfield). All five companies were listed on the NYSE. Ford Motor was ranked at fifth in the nation on the Fortune 500 list with revenues of over \$177.2 billion.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The state constitution requires the governor to submit a budget proposal to the legislature each year. This executive budget, prepared by the Department of Management and Budget, is reviewed, revised, and passed by the legislature. During the fiscal year (FY), which extends from 1 October to 30 September, if actual revenues drop below anticipated levels, the governor, in consultation with the legislative appropriations committees, must reduce expenditures to meet the constitutional requirement that the state budget be kept in balance.

In 1977, the legislature created a budget stabilization fund. A portion of tax revenues collected in good times is held in reserve to be used during periods of recession, when the funding of essential state services is threatened. In 1978, a tax limitation amendment put a lid on government spending by establishing a fixed ratio of state revenues to personal income in the state. Further efforts to limit taxes were rejected by the voters in 1980 and 1984.

F2006 general funds were estimated at \$9.0 billion for resources and \$9.0 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Michigan were \$13.2 billion.

Michigan—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	57,461,347	5,686.99
General revenue	46,780,063	4,629.86
Intergovernmental revenue	13,749,908	1,360.84
Taxes	24,061,065	2,381.34
General sales	7,894,458	781.32
Selective sales	2,949,792	291.94
License taxes	1,545,457	152.95
Individual income tax	6,576,065	650.84
Corporate income tax	1,841,010	182.21
Other taxes	3,254,283	322.08
Current charges	5,385,255	532.98
Miscellaneous general revenue	3,583,835	354.69
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	675,747	66.88
Insurance trust revenue	10,005,537	990.26
Total expenditure	52,684,622	5,214.23
Intergovernmental expenditure	19,035,055	1,883.91
Direct expenditure	33,649,567	3,330.32
Current operation	23,462,732	2,322.12
Capital outlay	2,452,289	242.70
Insurance benefits and repayments	5,627,428	556.95
Assistance and subsidies	1,010,175	99.98
Interest on debt	1,096,943	108.57
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	6,741,508	667.21
Total expenditure	52,684,622	5,214.23
General expenditure	46,507,284	4,602.86
Intergovernmental expenditure	19,035,055	1,883.91
Direct expenditure	27,472,229	2,718.95
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	20,341,302	2,013.19
Public welfare	9,950,158	984.77
Hospitals	1,812,750	179.41
Health	3,350,239	331.58
Highways	3,259,528	322.60
Police protection	295,537	29.25
Correction	1,637,305	162.05
Natural resources	453,032	44.84
Parks and recreation	125,377	12.41
Government administration	930,080	92.05
Interest on general debt	1,096,943	108.57
Other and unallocable	3,255,033	322.15
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	549,910	54.42
Insurance trust expenditure	5,627,428	556.95
Debt at end of fiscal year	20,959,946	2,074.42
Cash and security holdings	70,891,515	7,016.18

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Michigan was slated to receive: \$16.9 million to develop a national cemetery in Great Lakes.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, Michigan collected \$24,340 million in tax revenues or \$2,405 per capita, which placed it 15th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 8.8% of the total, sales taxes 33.2%, selective sales taxes 14.2%, individual income taxes 28.4%, corporate income taxes 7.8%, and other taxes 7.5%.

As of 1 January 2006, Michigan had one individual income tax bracket of 3.9%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$11,978,654,000 or \$1,186 per capita, which ranks the state 15th nationally in per capita taxation. Local governments collected \$9,886,721,000 of the total and the state government \$2,091,933,000.

Michigan taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 200 cents per pack, which ranks fourth among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Michigan taxes gasoline at 19 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Michigan citizens received \$0.85 in federal spending.

3⁷ECONOMIC POLICY

The Michigan Economic Development Corporation (MEDC) has a long tradition of promoting economic development. Through the Michigan CareerSite web page, economic development and job training programs are outlined. The mission of MEDC is to work with businesses, state government, and local communities to make Michigan more business-friendly. MEDC is a corporation, not a traditional government agency.

Michigan is part of the so-called Rust Belt, the region of the country dominated by steel-based industries from the 1940s to the 1980s. To focus economic development on new industries, Michigan has taken a number of steps, including cutting taxes for individuals and businesses. In the 1990s, Michigan taxpayers, both individuals and businesses, benefited from 21 tax cuts. The result has been the 13th-lowest tax burden in the country for 2000 and a robust economy with unemployment levels lower than the national average since 1995.

Michigan's Economic Growth Authority offers generous tax breaks to firms that locate a facility in Michigan, and offers substantial employment opportunities to Michigan workers. The state's Renaissance Zone program exempts companies and individuals within designated areas throughout the state from all state and local taxes as an incentive to rebuild and revitalize specific areas. Renaissance Zones include urban, rural, and former military installation sites. In 2006, Michigan also had 11 designated Smart Zones, which are collaborations between universities, industry, research organizations, government, and other community institutions to stimulate growth of technology-based businesses, particularly those focused on commercializing ideas and patents that result from R&D efforts.

3⁸HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.7 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 21.6 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 86.1% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 81% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.6 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 265.3; cancer, 198.8; cerebrovascular diseases, 57.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 44.1; and diabetes, 27.7. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 6.5 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 60.2% of the resident population was considered overweight or obese, representing the fourth-highest rate in the country for this category. As of 2004, about 23.2% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Michigan had 144 community hospitals with about 25,800 beds. There were about 1.1 million patient admissions that year and 27 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 17,100 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,382. Also in 2003, there were about 431 certified nursing facilities in the state with 49,225 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 84.4%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 76.9% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Michigan had 289 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 804 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 6,039 dentists in the state.

In 2005, the University of Michigan Medical Center in Ann Arbor ranked eleventh on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, the hospital ranked ninth in the nation for best care in cancer.

About 26% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$11.5 billion.

3⁹SOCIAL WELFARE

Until the 1930s, Michigan's few limited welfare programs were handled by the counties, but the relief load during the Depression shifted the burden to the state and federal levels. In 2004, about 462,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$289. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,047,594 persons (469,976 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$87.41 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was over \$1 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Michigan's TANF program is called the Family Independence Program (FIP). In 2004, the state program had 212,000 re-

ipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$416 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,716,290 Michigan residents. This number included 1,059,530 retired workers, 179,870 widows and widowers, 226,060 disabled workers, 99,620 spouses, and 151,210 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17% of the total state population and 95.6% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$1,029; widows and widowers, \$967; disabled workers, \$950; and spouses, \$514. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$519 per month; children of deceased workers, \$660; and children of disabled workers, \$277. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 219,337 Michigan residents, averaging \$424 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 4,433,482 housing units in Michigan, 3,923,135 of which were occupied. That year, Michigan ranked second in the nation (after Minnesota) for the highest percentage of owner-occupied housing units, at 74.7%. About 70.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Most homes rely on utility gas for heating. It was estimated that 218,182 units lacked telephone service, 8,787 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 12,705 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.51 members.

In 2004, 54,700 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$145,177. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,137. Renters paid a median of \$628 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$849,997 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$36.3 million in community development block grants (CDBG). The city of Detroit received over \$38.8 million in CDBG grants. A limited amount of state aid for low-income housing is available through the State Housing Development Authority.

41 EDUCATION

Historically, Michigan has strongly supported public education. In 2004, 87.9% of Michigan residents age 25 and older were high school graduates, and 24.4% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Michigan's public schools stood at 1,785,000. Of these, 1,254,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 531,000 attended high school. Approximately 72.7% of the students were white, 20.1% were black, 4.1% were Hispanic, 2.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,786,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 1,728,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 3.2% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$19.2 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Michigan scored 277 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

In fall 2003 there were 160,049 students enrolled in 983 private schools. The largest number of these students were enrolled in Catholic schools. Lutherans, Seventh-Day Adventists, and Reformed and Christian Reformed churches also have maintained schools for some time; in the 1970s, a number of new Christian schools, particularly those of fundamentalist Baptist groups, were established.

As of fall 2002, there were 605,835 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 18.9% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Michigan had 110 degree-granting institutions. The oldest state school is the University of Michigan, originally established in Detroit in 1817; its Ann Arbor campus was founded in 1835, and classes there began in 1841. Among the public universities are the University of Michigan, including the Dearborn and Flint campuses, Michigan State University, and Wayne State University. Among the state's private colleges and universities, the University of Detroit Mercy, a Jesuit school, is one of the largest. Kalamazoo College (founded in 1833), Albion College (1835), Hope College (1866) and Alma College (1886) are some of the oldest private liberal arts colleges in the state.

42 ARTS

Michigan's major center of arts and cultural activities is the Detroit area. The city's refurbished Orchestra Hall is the home of the Detroit Symphony Orchestra as well as chamber music concerts and other musical events. The Detroit Symphony has a long history having been founded in 1914; in the 1920s and 30s the symphony hosted several famous guest artists including Igor Stravinsky, Isadora Duncan, Richard Strauss, and Anna Pavlova. The Music Hall and the Masonic Auditorium present a variety of musical productions; the Fisher Theater and the Masonic Temple Theater are the major home for Broadway productions; and the Detroit Cultural Center supports a number of cultural programs. In 2006, the Masonic Temple Theater featured the three-time Tony Award winning *Wicked*. The new Detroit Opera House is sponsored by the Michigan Opera Theatre. Nearby Meadow Brook, in Rochester, has a summer music program. At the University of Michigan, in Ann Arbor, the Power Center for the Performing Arts and Hill Auditorium host major musical, theatrical, and dance presentations.

Programs relating to the visual arts tend to be academically centered; the University of Michigan, Michigan State, Wayne State, and Eastern Michigan University have notable art schools. The Cranbrook Academy of Arts, which was created by the architect Eliel Saarinen, is a significant art center, and the Ox-bow School at Saugatuck is also outstanding. The Ann Arbor Art Fair, established in 1960, is the largest and most prestigious summer outdoor art show in the state hosting over 500,000 annual attendees. As of 2006, the Ann Arbor Art Fair had won four awards, including being named as the number one art fair in the country by *AmericanStyle* magazine in 2004. The Waterfront Film Festival in Saugatuck and the touring Ann Arbor Film Festival promote the art of independent filmmaking.

The Meadow Brook Theater in Rochester, founded on Oakland University's campus is the largest nonprofit professional theater company in the state. In the 2004/05 season Meadow Brook won a series of local awards including a Lawrence Devine Award, an OPie, and a Wilde Award—all recognizing either outstanding performances or distinguished career achievements. Detroit features

a number of little theater groups and successful summer theaters include the Cherry County Playhouse at Traverse City and the Star Theater in Flint.

The Detroit Symphony Orchestra, founded in 1914, is nationally known. Grand Rapids and Kalamazoo have regional orchestras that perform on a part-time, seasonal basis. The National Music Camp at Interlochen is a mecca for young musicians in the summer, and a prestigious private high school for the arts year round. As of 2006 the Interlochen music camp included over 400 presentations that incorporated more than 2,000 students and 25 special guest performances, annually.

There are local ballet and opera groups in Detroit and in a few other communities. Michigan's best-known contribution to popular music was that of Berry Gordy Jr., whose Motown recording company in the 1960s popularized the "Detroit sound" and featured such artists as Diana Ross and the Supremes, Smokey Robinson and the Miracles, Aretha Franklin, the Four Tops, the Temptations, and Stevie Wonder, among many others. In the 1970s however, Gordy moved his operations to California.

The state of Michigan generates federal and state funds for its arts programs. In 2005, the Michigan Council for the Arts and other Michigan arts organizations received 33 grants totaling \$1,322,745 from the National Endowment for the Arts. Private sources also provided funding for the activities of the Council. The Michigan Humanities Council (MHC) was founded in 1974. One of its ongoing programs is the Michigan's Arts and Humanities Touring Program, which includes performing artists and cultural interpreters/educators. In 2006, the MHC awarded grants totaling \$36,847 to support the touring program that season, which then included 146 live artistic and cultural presentations. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed 33 grants totaling \$3,083,441 to state programs.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

As of September 2001, Michigan had 381 public library systems, with a total of 654 libraries, of which 278 were branches. In that same year, the system had a total of 27,188,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 51,773,000. The system also had 1,445,000 audio and 839,000 video items, 78,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 17 bookmobiles. The Library of Michigan in Lansing functions as the coordinator of library facilities in the state. The largest public library is the Detroit Public Library, which in 1999 had over 2.5 million books and print materials in its main library and 26 branches. Outstanding among its special collections are the Burton Historical Collection, a major center for genealogical research, the National Automotive History Collection, and the E. Azalia Hackley Collection, a notable source for material pertaining to African Americans in the performing arts, especially music. Grand Rapids, Kalamazoo, Lansing, Flint, and Ann Arbor are among the larger public libraries. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$329,283,000 and included \$548,000 in federal grants and \$16,031,000 in state grants.

Among academic libraries, the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor, with 6,283,385 volumes and 56,663 periodical subscriptions in 1999, features the William L. Clements collection of books and manuscripts on the colonial period, the Labadie Collection

relating to the history of American radicalism, and the Bentley Library's distinctive collection of books and manuscripts, particularly the one on Michigan, the largest such collection.

In 1980, the Gerald R. Ford Presidential Library was opened on the University of Michigan's Ann Arbor campus. The Michigan State University Library at East Lansing had 4,274,375 volumes and 27,314 periodical subscriptions in 1999. At Wayne State University in Detroit, the Walter P. Reuther Library houses the largest collection of labor history records in the United States, as well as primary materials relating to social, economic, and political reform and urban affairs.

The Detroit Institute of Arts is the largest art museum in the state and has an outstanding collection of African art. It is located in the Detroit Cultural Center, along with the Public Library and the Detroit Historical Museum, one of the largest local history museums in the country. The Kalamazoo Institute of Art, the Flint Institute of Art, the Grand Rapids Art Museum, and the Hackley Art Gallery in Muskegon are important art museums. The University of Michigan and the Cranbrook Academy of Arts in Bloomfield Hills also maintain important collections.

The Detroit Historical Museum heads 229 museums in the state, including the State Historical Museum in Lansing and museums in Grand Rapids, Flint, Kalamazoo, and Dearborn. In the latter city, the privately run Henry Ford Museum and Greenfield Village are leading tourist attractions. In 1996 the world's largest museum of African American history was established in Detroit. A major Holocaust Memorial Center is located in the West Bloomfield Hills area of metropolitan Detroit.

The major historical sites open to the public include the late-18th-century fort on Mackinac Island and the reconstructed early-18th-century fort at Mackinaw City. The latter site has also been the scene of an archaeological program that has accumulated one of the largest collections of 18th-century artifacts in the country. Major investigations of prehistoric Indian sites have also been conducted in recent years.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

Michigan's remote position in the interior of the continent hampered the development of adequate communications services, and the first regular postal service was not instituted until the early 19th century.

Telephone service began in Detroit in 1877. By 2004, 93.7% of the occupied housing units in the state had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 5,430,637 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 59.9% of Michigan households had a computer and 52.0% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,359,079 high-speed lines in Michigan, 1,256,759 residential and 102,320 for business.

Michigan had 62 major AM radio stations and 110 major FM stations in 2005. Radio station WWJ, originally owned by the Detroit News, began operating in 1920 as one of the country's first commercial broadcasting stations, and the News also started Michigan's first television station in 1947. As of 2005 there were 33 major television stations in the state. In the Detroit area, 68% of 1,855,500 television households had cable, and in the Grand Rapids-Kalamazoo-Battle Creek area, 62% of 671,320 television households had cable in 1999.

By 2000, a total of 145,596 Internet domain names had been registered in Michigan.

45 PRESS

The first newspaper to appear in Michigan was Father Richard's *Michigan Essay or Impartial Observer*, published in August 1917. Continuous newspaper coverage in Michigan dates from the appearance of the weekly *Detroit Gazette*, also in 1817. The state's oldest paper still being published is the *Detroit Free Press*, founded in 1831 and the state's first daily paper since 1835.

In 2005 there were 48 daily newspapers in Michigan, with 27 Sunday editions published in the state. Two of the state's largest newspapers—Knight Ridder's *Detroit Free Press* and Gannett's *Detroit News*—entered into a joint operating agreement (JOA) in 1989. The advertising, business, delivery, and production of each paper joined forces in a company called Detroit Newspapers; the editorial and news operations remain separate and report to their respective parent companies. During the struggle, the *Detroit Journal* was published weekly by locked-out newspaper workers. The *News* had the sixth-largest daily circulation of any paper in the United States in 1994. By 2004, however, the *News* had dropped to number 46 in daily circulation among newspapers nationwide and the *Free Press* was at number 21.

The following table shows leading daily newspapers in Michigan with average daily and Sunday circulation in 1998:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Detroit	<i>News and Free Press</i> (m,S)	510,736	710,036
Flint	<i>Journal</i> (e,S)	84,313	102,154
Grand Rapids	<i>Press</i> (e,S)	138,126	189,690
Kalamazoo	<i>Gazette</i> (e,S)	62,350	72,945
Lansing	<i>State Journal</i> (m,S)	70,725	90,502
Pontiac	<i>Oakland Press</i> (m,S)	78,213	80,737
Saginaw	<i>News</i> (e,S)	46,439	55,690

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 11,310 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 7,137 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. The most important trade association headquartered in Michigan is the Motor Vehicle Manufacturers Association, with offices in Detroit. Its labor union counterpart—the United Automobile, Aerospace and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (UAW)—also has its international headquarters in that city.

Others with headquarters in the state include the American Concrete Institute, the Detroit; Society of Manufacturing Engineers, Dearborn; American Society of Agricultural Engineers, St. Joseph; the American Board of Emergency Medicine, East Lansing, and the National Association of Investment Corporations, Madison Heights.

Organizations for arts and education include the Association of College Honor Societies, the Children's Literature Association, the American Guild of Music, Interlochen Center for the Arts, and the Institute for Social Research. There are also a number of municipal and regional arts groups and historical societies. State organizations of art and culture include the Michigan Humanities Council, the Michigan Historical Society, and the Michigan Historic Preservation Network. Several organizations focus on regional environmental issues, including the Great Lakes Maritime

Institute and the Great Lakes Commission. The United Kennel Club is a hobby organization with national memberships.

Charitable organizations include the Good Fellows, based in Detroit. Founded in 1914, the organization was called the Newsboys, since its first members were newspaper carriers. Though the group participates in a number of charitable causes, its primary program is A Christmas for Every Needy Child. There are chapters of Good Fellows nationwide. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation based in Battle Creek also supports a number of community, national, and international projects. The Islamic Assembly of North America, which serves as a coordinating body for US Islamic centers and organizations, is based in Ann Arbor.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism has been an important source of economic activity in Michigan since the 19th century and now rivals agriculture as the second most important segment of the state's economy. About 54% of all travel is in the form of day trips for state residents or visitors from neighboring states. In 2003, Michigan had 150,000 people employed in tourism.

Michigan's tourist attractions are diverse and readily accessible to much of the country's population. The opportunities offered by Michigan's water resources are the number one attraction; no part of the state is more than 85 mi (137 km) from one of the Great Lakes, and most of the population lives only a few miles away from one of the thousands of inland lakes and streams. Southwestern Michigan's sandy beaches along Lake Michigan offer sunbathing and swimming on 8,000 mi (5,000 km) of Great Lakes coastline. Inland lakes numbering 11,000 in southern Michigan are favored by swimmers while the Metropolitan Beach on Lake St. Clair, northeast of Detroit, claims to be the largest artificial-lake beach in the world. Camping has enjoyed an enormous increase in popularity; in addition to the extensive public camping facilities, there are many private campgrounds. The beach towns of Silver Lake, Sand Dunes, Holland, South Haven, and St. Joseph receive most of their tourists in the summer months. Ann Arbor and Grand Rapids share the presidential library of Gerald R. Ford. Ann Arbor also hosts the country's oldest art fair in July.

Although the tourist and resort business has been primarily a summer activity, the rising popularity of ice fishing, skiing, and other winter sports, autumn scenic tours, hunting, and spring festivals has made tourism a year-round business in many parts of the state. Historic attractions have been heavily promoted in recent years, following the success of Dearborn's Henry Ford Museum and Greenfield Village; such as the Motown Historical Museum. Tours of Detroit automobile factories and other industrial sites, such as Battle Creek's breakfast-food plants, are also important tourist attractions. The Spirit of Ford, a 50,000 sq ft center in Dearborn, offers a "behind the scenes" look at how the automaker designs, engineers, tests, and produces cars and trucks.

Camping and recreational facilities are provided by the federal government at three national forests comprising 2.8 million acres (1.1 million hectares), three facilities operated by the National Park Service (Isle Royale National Park, the Pictured Rocks National Lakeshore, and Sleeping Bear Dunes National Lakeshore), and several wildlife sanctuaries. A wild African-style village covering 70 acres (28.3 hectares) at the Binder Park Zoo in Battle Creek features giraffes, zebras, and ostrich, plus a variety of endangered

African species roaming freely on the grassy savannah. Michigan is the only state divided into two parts—the Upper Peninsula and the Lower Peninsula—which are connected by the well-known Mackinac Bridge.

State-operated facilities include 64 parks and recreational areas with 172,343 acres (69,747 hectares), and state forests and wild-life areas totaling 4,250,000 acres (1,720,000 hectares). Holland and Warren Dunes state parks, located on Lake Michigan, have the largest annual park attendances; Ludington State Park, also on Lake Michigan, attracts the largest number of campers.

48 SPORTS

Michigan has five major professional sports teams, all of them centered in Detroit: the Tigers of Major League Baseball, the Lions of the National Football League, the Pistons of the National Basketball Association, the Shock of the Women's National Basketball Association, and the Red Wings of the National Hockey League. The Tigers won the World Series in 1935, 1945, 1968, and 1984. The Pistons won the NBA Championship in 1989, 1990, and 2004. The Red Wings, arguably the most renowned hockey club ever, won the Stanley Cup in 1936, 1937, 1943, 1950, 1952, 1954, 1955, 1997, 1998, and 2002.

The state also has minor league hockey teams in Detroit, Flint, Grand Rapids, Motor City, Muskegon, Kalamazoo, Plymouth, Port Huron, and Saginaw; and baseball teams in Grand Rapids, Battle Creek, Lansing, and Traverse City.

Horse racing, Michigan's oldest organized spectator sport, is controlled by the state racing commissioner, who regulates thoroughbred and harness-racing seasons at tracks in the Detroit area and at Jackson. Attendance and betting at these races is substantial, although the modest purses rarely attract the nation's leading horses. Auto racing is also popular in Michigan. The state hosts four major races: the Tenneco Automotive Grand Prix of Detroit, the Michigan 500 Indy car race on the CART circuit, and two NASCAR Nextel Cup races.

Interest in college sports centers on the football and basketball teams of the University of Michigan and Michigan State University, which usually are among the top-ranked teams in the country. The University of Michigan football team was named national champion in 1901 (with Harvard), 1902, 1903, 1904 (with Penn), 1918 (with Pittsburgh), 1923 (with Illinois), 1932, 1933, 1947, 1948, and 1997. The team won the Rose Bowl in 1948, 1951, 1965, 1981, 1989, 1993, and 1998, the Citrus Bowl in 1999, and the Orange Bowl in 2000. Michigan State won the Rose Bowl in 1954, 1956, and 1988, and was named national champion in 1952 (with Georgia Tech), 1965 (with Alabama), and 1966 (with Notre Dame). The University of Michigan basketball team won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) tournament in 1989, and Michigan State won it in 1979 and 2000. Michigan also advanced to the championship game in 1965, 1976, 1992, and 1993.

Other colleges also have achieved national rankings in basketball, hockey, baseball, and track. Elaborate facilities have been built for sporting competitions in Michigan; for example the University of Michigan's football stadium, seating 107,501, is one of the largest college-owned stadiums in the country.

Other annual sporting events include the Snowmobile Poker Runs in St. Ignace and, in July, the yacht races from Chicago and Port Huron to Mackinac Island.

49 FAMOUS MICHIGANIANS

Only one Michigianian has held the offices of US president and vice president. Gerald R. Ford (Leslie King Jr., b.Nebraska, 1913), the 38th US president, was elected to the US House as a Republican in 1948 and served continuously until 1973, becoming minority leader in 1965. Upon the resignation of Vice President Spiro T. Agnew in 1973, President Richard M. Nixon appointed Ford to the vice-presidency. When Nixon resigned on 9 August 1974, Ford became president, the first to hold that post without having been elected to high national office. Ford succeeded in restoring much of the public's confidence in the presidency, but his pardoning of Nixon for all crimes he may have committed as president helped cost Ford victory in the presidential election of 1976. Ford subsequently moved his legal residence to California.

Lewis Cass (b.New Hampshire, 1782–1866), who served as governor of Michigan Territory, senator from Michigan, secretary of war and secretary of state, is the only other Michigan resident nominated by a major party for president; he lost the 1848 race as the Democratic candidate. Thomas E. Dewey (1902–72), a native of Owosso, was the Republican presidential nominee in 1944 and 1948, but from his adopted state of New York.

Two Michigianians have served as associate justices of the Supreme Court: Henry B. Brown (b.Massachusetts, 1836–1913), author of the 1896 segregationist decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson*; and Frank Murphy (1890–1949), who also served as US attorney general, mayor of Detroit, governor of Michigan, and was a notable defender of minority rights during his years on the court. Another justice, Potter Stewart (1915–85), was born in Jackson but appointed to the court from Ohio.

Other Michigianians who have held high federal office include Robert McClelland (b.Pennsylvania, 1807–80), secretary of the interior; Russell A. Alger (b.Ohio, 1836–1907), secretary of war; Edwin Denby (b.Indiana, 1870–1929), secretary of the Navy, who was forced to resign because of the Teapot Dome scandal; Roy D. Chapin (1880–1936), secretary of commerce; Charles E. Wilson (b.Ohio, 1890–1961), and Robert S. McNamara (b.California, 1916), secretaries of defense; George Romney (b.Mexico, 1907–96), secretary of housing and urban development; Donald M. Dickinson (b.New York, 1846–1917) and Arthur E. Summerfield (1899–1972), postmasters general; and W. Michael Blumenthal (b.Germany, 1926), secretary of the treasury.

Zachariah Chandler (b.New Hampshire, 1813–79) served as secretary of the interior but is best remembered as a leader of the Radical Republicans in the US Senate during the Civil War era. Other prominent US senators have included James M. Couzens (b.Canada, 1872–1936), a former Ford executive who became a maverick Republican liberal during the 1920s; Arthur W. Vandenberg (1884–1951), a leading supporter of a bipartisan internationalist foreign policy after World War II; and Philip A. Hart Jr. (b.Pennsylvania, 1912–76), one of the most influential senators of the 1960s and 1970s. Recent well-known US representatives include John Conyers Jr. (b.1929) and Martha W. Griffiths (b.Missouri, 1912–2003), a representative for 20 years who served as the state's lieutenant governor from 1983–91.

In addition to Murphy and Romney, important governors have included Stevens T. Mason (b.Virginia, 1811–43), who guided Michigan to statehood; Austin Blair (b.New York, 1818–94), Civil War governor; Hazen S. Pingree (b.Maine, 1840–1901) and Chase S. Osborn (b.Indiana, 1860–1949), reform-minded governors; Alexander Groesbeck (1873–1953); G. Mennen Williams (1911–88); and William G. Milliken (b.1922), governor from 1969 to January 1983. From 1974 to 1994, Detroit's first black mayor, Coleman A. Young (b.Alabama, 1918–97), promoted programs to revive the city's tarnished image.

The most famous figure in the early development of Michigan is Jacques Marquette (b.France, 1637–75). Other famous historical figures include Charles de Langlade (1729–1801), a leader of the Ottawa people and a French-Indian soldier in the French and Indian War and the American Revolution; the Ottawa chieftain Pontiac (1720?–69), leader of an ambitious Indian uprising; and Gabriel Richard (b.France, 1769–1832), an important pioneer in education and the first Catholic priest to serve in Congress. Laura Haviland (b.Canada, 1808–98) was a noted leader in the fight against slavery and for black rights, while Lucinda Hinsdale Stone (b.Vermont, 1814–1900) and Anna Howard Shaw (b.England, 1847–1919) were important in the women's rights movement.

Nobel laureates from Michigan include diplomat Ralph J. Bunche (1904–71), winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1950; Glenn T. Seaborg (1912–99), Nobel Prize winner in chemistry in 1951; and Thomas H. Weller (b.1915) and Alfred D. Hershey (1908–97), Nobel Prize winners in physiology or medicine in 1954 and 1969, respectively. Among leading educators, James B. Angell (b.Rhode Island, 1829–1916), president of the University of Michigan, led that school to the forefront among American universities while John A. Hannah (1902–91), longtime president of Michigan State University, successfully strove to expand and diversify its programs. General Motors executive Charles S. Mott (b.New Jersey, 1875–1973) contributed to the growth of continuing education programs through huge grants of money.

In the business world, William C. Durant (b.Massachusetts, 1861–1947), Henry Ford (1863–1947) and Ransom E. Olds (b.Ohio 1864–1950) are the three most important figures in making Michigan the center of the American auto industry. Ford's grandson, Henry Ford II (1917–87), was the dominant personality in the auto industry from 1945 through 1979. Two brothers, John Harvey Kellogg (1852–1943) and Will K. Kellogg (1860–1951), helped make Battle Creek the center of the breakfast-food industry. William E. Upjohn (1850–1932) and Herbert H. Dow (b.Canada, 1866–1930) founded major pharmaceutical and chemical companies that bear their names. James E. Scripps (b.England, 1835–1906), founder of the *Detroit News*, was a major innovator in the newspaper business. Pioneer aviator Charles A. Lindbergh (1902–74) was born in Detroit.

Among prominent labor leaders in Michigan were Walter Ruther (b.West Virginia, 1907–70), president of the United Automobile Workers, and his controversial contemporary, James Hoffa (b.Indiana, 1913–1975?), president of the Teamsters Union, whose disappearance and presumed murder remain a mystery.

The best-known literary figures who were either native or adopted Michiganians include Edgar Guest (b.England, 1881–1959), writer of enormously popular sentimental verses; Ring Lardner (1885–1933), master of the short story; Edna Ferber (1885–1968),

best-selling novelist; Paul de Kruif (1890–1971), popular writer on scientific topics; Steward Edward White (1873–1946), writer of adventure tales; Howard Mumford Jones (1892–1980), critic and scholar; and Bruce Catton (1899–1978), Civil War historian.

Other prominent Michiganians past and present include Frederick Stuart Church (1842–1924), painter; Liberty Hyde Bailey (1858–1954), horticulturist and botanist; Albert Kahn (b.Germany, 1869–1942), noted architect and innovator in factory design; and (Gottlieb) Eliel Saarinen (b.Finland, 1873–1950), architect and creator of the Cranbrook School of Art, and his son Eero (1910–61), designer of the General Motors Technical Center in Warren and many distinctive structures throughout the United States. Malcolm X (Malcolm Little, b.Nebraska, 1925–65) developed his black separatist beliefs while living in Lansing.

Popular entertainers born in Michigan include Danny Thomas (Amos Jacobs, 1914–91), David Wayne (1914–91), Betty Hutton (b.1921), Ed McMahon (b.1923), Julie Harris (b.1925), Ellen Burstyn (Edna Rae Gilhooley, b.1932), Della Reese (Dellareese Patricia Early, b.1932), William "Smokey" Robinson (b.1940), Diana Ross (b.1944), Bob Seger (b.1945), and Stevie Wonder (Stevland Morris, b.1950), along with film director Francis Ford Coppola (b.1939).

Among sports figures who had notable careers in the state were Fielding H. Yost (b.West Virginia, 1871–1946), University of Michigan football coach; Joe Louis (Joseph Louis Barrow, b.Alabama, 1914–81), heavyweight boxing champion from 1937 to 1949; "Sugar Ray" Robinson (1921–89), who held at various times the welterweight and middleweight boxing titles; and baseball Hall of Famers Al Kaline (b.Maryland, 1934) and Tyrus Raymond ("Ty") Cobb (b.Georgia, 1886–1961), who won 12 batting titles, were Detroit Tigers stars. Earvin "Magic" Johnson (b.1959), who broke Oscar Robertson's record for most assists, was born in Lansing, Michigan.

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MINNESOTA

State of Minnesota

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Sioux Indian word *minisota*, meaning “sky-tinted waters.”
NICKNAME: The North Star State. **CAPITAL:** St. Paul. **ENTERED UNION:** 11 May 1858 (32nd). **SONG:** “Hail! Minnesota.” **MOTTO:** *L’Etoile du Nord* (The North Star). **FLAG:** On a blue field bordered on three sides by a gold fringe, a version of the state seal is surrounded by a wreath with the statehood year (1858), the year of the establishment of Ft. Snelling (1819), and the year the flag was adopted (1893). Five clusters of gold stars and the word “Minnesota” fill the outer circle. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A farmer, with a powder horn and musket nearby, plows a field in the foreground, while in the background, before a rising sun, a Native American on horseback crosses the plains; pine trees and a waterfall represent the state’s natural resources. The state motto is above, and the whole is surrounded by the words “The Great Seal of the State of Minnesota 1858.” Another version of the seal in common use shows a cowboy riding across the plains. **BIRD:** Common loon. **FISH:** Walleye. **FLOWER:** Pink and white lady slipper. **TREE:** Red (Norway) pine. **GEM:** Lake Superior agate. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November plus one day; Christmas Day, 25 December. By statute, schools hold special observances on Susan B. Anthony Day, 15 February; Arbor Day, last Friday in April; Minnesota Day, 11 May; Frances Willard Day, 28 September; Leif Erikson Day, 9 October. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the western north-central United States, Minnesota is the largest of the Midwestern states and ranks 12th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Minnesota is 84,402 sq mi (218,601 sq km), of which land accounts for 79,548 sq mi (206,029 sq km) and inland water 4,854 sq mi (12,572 sq km). Minnesota extends 406 mi (653 km) N–S; its extreme E–W extension is 358 mi (576 km).

Minnesota is bordered on the N by the Canadian provinces of Manitoba and Ontario (with the line passing through the Lake of the Woods, Rainy River, Rainy Lake, a succession of smaller lakes, the Pigeon River, and Lake Superior); on the E by Michigan and Wisconsin (with the line passing through Lake Superior and the St. Croix and Mississippi rivers); on the S by Iowa; and on the W by South Dakota and North Dakota (with the line passing through Big Stone Lake, Lake Traverse, the Bois de Sioux River, and the Red River of the North).

The length of Minnesota’s boundaries totals 1,783 mi (2,870 km). The state’s geographic center is in Crow Wing County, 10 mi (16 km) sw of Brainerd.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Minnesota, lying at the northern rim of the Central Plains region, consists mainly of flat prairie, nowhere flatter than in the Red River Valley of the west. There are rolling hills and deep river valleys in the southeast; the northeast, known as Arrowhead Country, is more rugged and includes the Vermilion Range and the Mesabi Range, with its rich iron deposits. Eagle Mountain, in the extreme northeast, rises to a height of 2,301 ft (702 m), the highest point in the state; the surface of nearby Lake Superior, 601 ft (183 m) above

sea level, is the state’s lowest elevation. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,200 ft (366 m).

With more than 15,000 lakes and extensive wetlands, rivers, and streams, Minnesota has more inland water than any other state except Alaska. Some of the inland lakes are quite large: Lower and Upper Red Lake, 451 sq mi (1,168 sq km); Mille Lacs, 207 sq mi (536 sq km); and Leech Lake, 176 sq mi (456 sq km). The Lake of the Woods, 1,485 sq mi (3,846 sq km), is shared with Canada, as is Rainy Lake, 345 sq mi (894 sq km). A total of 2,212 sq mi (5,729 sq km) of Lake Superior lies within Minnesota’s jurisdiction.

Lake Itasca, in the northwest, is the source of the Mississippi River, which drains about three-fifths of the state and, after meeting with the St. Croix below Minneapolis–St. Paul, forms part of the eastern boundary with Wisconsin. The Minnesota River, which flows across the southern part of the state, joins the Mississippi at the Twin Cities. The Red River of the North, which forms much of the boundary with North Dakota, is part of another large drainage system; it flows north, crosses the Canadian border above St. Vincent, and eventually empties into Lake Winnipeg in Canada. North River is the source of the St. Lawrence River.

Most of Minnesota, except for small areas in the southeast, was covered by ice during the glacial ages. When the ice melted, it left behind a body of water known as Lake Agassiz, which extended into what we now call the Dakotas and Canada and was larger than the combined Great Lakes are today; additional melting to the north caused the lake to drain away, leaving flat prairie in its wake. The glaciers also left behind large stretches of pulverized limestone, enriching Minnesota’s soil, and the numerous shallow depressions that have developed into its modern-day lakes and streams.

3 CLIMATE

Minnesota has a continental climate, with cold, often frigid winters and warm summers. The growing season is 160 days or more in the south-central and southeastern regions, but 100 days or less in the northern counties. Average temperatures range from 8°F (-13°C) in January to 66°F (18°C) in July for Duluth, and from 12°F (-11°C) in January to 74°F (23°C) in July for Minneapolis–St. Paul, often called the Twin Cities. The lowest temperature recorded in Minnesota was -60°F (-51°C), at Tower on 2 February 1996; the highest, 114°F (46°C), at Moorhead on 6 July 1936.

Annual precipitation is at about 31 in (79 cm) at Duluth and 29.4 in (75 cm) at Minneapolis–St. Paul. Precipitation is lightest in the northwest, where it averaged 19 in (48 cm) per year. Heavy snowfalls occur from November to April, averaging about 70 in (178 cm) annually in the northeast and 30 in (76 cm) in the southeast. Blizzards hit Minnesota twice each winter on the average. Tornadoes occur mostly in the south; on average there are 18 tornadoes in the state each year.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Minnesota is divided into three main life zones: the wooded lake regions of the north and east, the prairie lands of the west and southwest, and a transition zone in between. Oak, maple, elm, birch, pine, ash, and poplar still thrive although much of the state's woodland has been cut down since the 1850s. Common shrubs include thimbleberry, sweetfern, and several varieties of honeysuckle. Familiar among some 1,500 native flowering plants are puccoon, prairie phlox, and blazing star; the pink and white (showy) lady slipper is the state flower. White and yellow water lilies cover the pond areas, with bulrushes and cattails on the shore. Three plant species were listed as threatened by the US Fish and Wildlife Service in April 2006—Leedy's roseroot, prairie bush-clover, and western prairie fringed orchid; the Minnesota dwarf trout lily was listed as endangered that year.

Among Minnesota's common mammals are the opossum, eastern and star-nosed moles, little brown bat, raccoon, mink, river otter, badger, striped and spotted skunks, red fox, bobcat, 13-lined ground squirrel (also known as the Minnesota gopher, symbol of the University of Minnesota), beaver, porcupine, eastern cottontail, moose, and white-tailed deer. The common loon (the state bird), western meadowlark, Brewer's blackbird, Carolina wren, and Louisiana water thrush are among some 240 resident bird species; introduced birds include the English sparrow and ring-necked pheasant. Teeming in Minnesota's many lakes are such game fishes as walleye, muskellunge, northern pike, and steelhead, rainbow, and brown trouts. The two poisonous snakes in the state are the timber rattler and the massasauga.

Classification of rare, threatened, and endangered species is delegated to the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources. Among rare species noted by the department are the white pelican, short-eared owl, rock vole, pine marten, American elk, woodland caribou, lake sturgeon, and paddlefish; threatened species include the bobwhite quail and piping plover. Nine species of animals occurring within the state (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006 by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including the gray wolf, bald eagle, piping plover, Topeka shiner, and Higgins' eye pearl mussel.

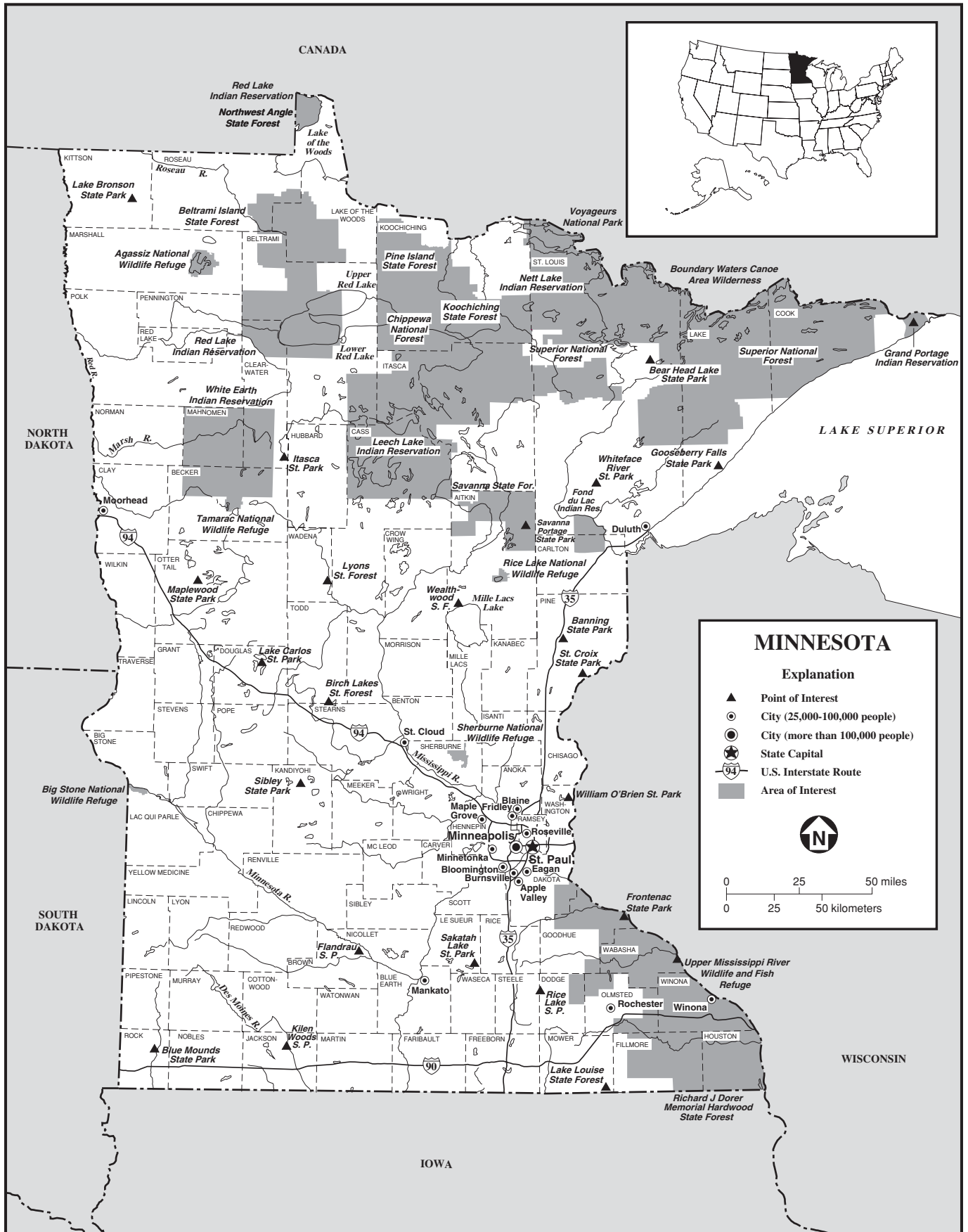
5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The state's northern forests have been greatly depleted by fires, lumbering, and farming, but efforts to replenish them began as early as 1876, with the formation of the state's first forestry association. In 1911, the legislature authorized a state nursery, established forest reserves and parks, and created the post of chief fire warden to oversee forestry resources and promote reforestation projects. Minnesota divides its environmental programs among three agencies: the Minnesota Pollution Control Agency, the Department of Natural Resources, and the Office of Environmental Assistance. The Conservation Department, created in 1931, evolved into the present Department of Natural Resources, which is responsible for the management of forests, fish and game, public lands, minerals, and state parks and waters. The department's Soil and Water Conservation Board has jurisdiction over the state's 92 soil and water conservation districts. A separate Pollution Control Agency enforces air and water quality standards and oversees solid waste disposal and pollution-related land-use planning. The Environmental Quality Board coordinates conservation efforts among various state agencies.

Minnesotans dump 4,400 tons of waste a year (0.99 tons per capita) into 53 municipal landfills. In 1994, the state implemented the Minnesota Landfill Cleanup Program to ensure the proper care of 106 closed or closing municipal landfills. Beginning in 1996, the state began construction on 25 new municipal landfills and instituted a planning effort to manage all existing and closed sites. In 2003, Minnesota had 81 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 24 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$1.9 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$19.8 million for the state clean water revolving fund and \$16.4 million for the drinking water revolving fund. To control the state's solid waste stream, Minnesotans have established 488 curbside recycling programs. The Reserve Mining Co. complied with a court order in 1980 by ending the dumping of taconite wastes, a possible carcinogen, into Lake Superior.

Other pollution problems came to light during the 1970s with the discovery of asbestos in drinking water from Lake Superior, of contaminants from inadequately buried toxic wastes at St. Louis Park, and of the killing by agricultural pesticides of an estimated 100,000 fish in two southeastern Minnesota brooks. During the early 1980s, the state's Pollution Control Agency approved plans by FMC, a munitions maker, to clean up a hazardous waste site at Fridley (near Minneapolis), which the EPA claimed was the country's most dangerous hazardous waste area. The Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Co. in 1983 began to remove chemical wastes from three dumps in Oakdale (a suburb of St. Paul), where the company had disposed of hazardous wastes since the late 1940s. Each cleanup project was to cost the respective companies at least \$6 million. In 2003, 31.4 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

In 1997, the state had some 9.5 million acres (3.8 million hectares) of wetlands. The Wetlands Conservation Act of 1991 set the ambitious goal of no wetland loss in the future.



6 POPULATION

Minnesota ranked 21st in population in the United States with an estimated total of 5,132,799 in 2005, an increase of 4.3% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Minnesota's population grew from 4,375,099 to 4,919,479, an increase of 12.4%. The population was projected to reach 5.6 million by 2015 and 6.8 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 64.1 persons per sq mi.

Minnesota was still mostly wilderness until a land boom in 1848 attracted the first substantial wave of settlers, mainly lumbermen from New England, farmers from the Middle Atlantic states, and tradespeople from eastern cities. The 1850 census recorded a population of 6,077 in what was then Minnesota Territory. With the signing of major Indian treaties and widespread use of the steamboat, large areas were opened to settlement, and the population exceeded 150,000 by the end of 1857. Attracted by fertile farmland and enticed by ambitious recruitment programs overseas, large numbers of European immigrants came to settle in the new state from the 1860s onward. In 1880, the state population totaled 780,733; by 1920 (when overseas immigration virtually ceased), the state had 2,387,125 residents. Population growth leveled off during the 1920s and has fallen below the national average since the 1940s. As of 2004, Minnesotans had a median age of 36.6 years. Nearly 24.3% of the population was under age 18, while 12.1% was age 65 or older.

The Minneapolis–St. Paul–Bloomington metropolitan area had an estimated population of 3,116,206 in 2004, up from an estimated 2,723,137 in 1995. The city of Minneapolis itself had an estimated 373,943 residents in 2004; St. Paul had an estimated 276,963. Other leading cities include Duluth and Rochester.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Minnesota was settled during the second half of the 19th century, primarily by European immigrants, chiefly Germans, Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, English, and Poles, along with the Irish and some French Canadians. The Swedish newcomers were mainly farmers; Norwegians concentrated on lumbering, while the Swiss worked for the most part in the dairy industry. In 1890, Finns and Slavs were recruited to work in the iron mines; the state's meat-packing plants brought in Balkan nationals, Mexicans, and Poles after the turn of the century. By 1930, 50% of the population was foreign-born. Among first- and second-generation Minnesotans of European origin, Germans and Scandinavians are still the largest groups. The state has more ethnic Norwegians than any other, and is second in number of ethnic Swedes, behind California. The other ethnic groups are concentrated in Minneapolis–St. Paul or in the iron country of the Mesabi Range, where ethnic enclaves still persist. As of 2000, foreign-born residents of Minnesota numbered 260,463, or 5.3% of the state total, up from 113,039 (2.5%) in 1990.

As of 2000 there were 54,967 American Indians in Minnesota, with 35,282 living on 13 of the state's 14 Indian reservations (one was unpopulated). Besides those living on reservations and in villages, a cluster of Indian urban dwellers (chiefly Ojibwa) lived in St. Paul. The reservation with the largest 2000 population was Leech Lake, with 10,205 people. Other reservations included Fond du Lac (3,728) and Mille Lacs (4,704). Indian lands totaled 764,000 acres (309,000 hectares) in 1982, of which 93% were trib-

al lands. In 2004, 1.2% of the state's population was composed of American Indians.

There were only 39 black Americans in Minnesota in 1850; by 1990, blacks numbered 95,000, or 2.1% of the total population, and as of 2000, the black population had jumped to 171,731 (3.5%). In 2004, 4.1% of the population was black. In 2000 there were 141,968 Asian and Pacific residents, including 41,800 Hmong (second-largest total in the United States), 18,824 Vietnamese, 16,887 Asian Indians, 16,060 Chinese, 12,584 Koreans, and 9,940 Laotians. In 2000, Pacific Islanders numbered 1,979. In 2000, there also were 143,382 Hispanics and Latinos, 2.9% of the state population. In 2004, 3.4% of the population was Asian, 0.1% of Pacific Island origin, and 3.5% Hispanic and Latino. That year, 1.4% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Many place-names echo the languages of the Yankton and Santee Sioux Indian tribes and of the incoming Algonkian-language Ojibwa, or Chippewa, from whom most of the Sioux fled to Dakota Territory. Such place-names as Minnesota itself, Minnetonka, and Mankato are Siouan in origin; Kabetogama and Winnibigoshish, both lakes, are Ojibwan.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	4,591,491	100.0
Speak only English	4,201,503	91.5
Speak a language other than English	389,988	8.5
Speak a language other than English	389,988	8.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	132,066	2.9
Miao, Hmong	41,673	0.9
German	35,072	0.8
African languages	24,747	0.5
Vietnamese	16,503	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	15,744	0.3
Scandinavian languages	12,722	0.3
Chinese	12,578	0.3
Russian	9,629	0.2
Laotian	7,987	

English in the state is essentially Northern, with minor infiltration of Midland terms because of early movement up the Mississippi River into southern Minnesota and also up the Great Lakes into and beyond Duluth. Among older residents, traces of Scandinavian intonation persist, and on the Iron Range several pronunciation features reflect the mother tongues of mine workers from eastern Europe.

Although some minor variants now compete in frequency, on the whole Minnesota speech features such dominant Northern terms as *andirons*, *pail*, *mouth organ* (harmonica), *comforter* (tied and filled bedcover), *wishbone*, *clingstone peach*, *sweet corn*, *angleworm* (earthworm), *darning needle* or *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), and *sick to the stomach*. Minnesotans call the grass strip between street and sidewalk the *boulevard* and a rubber band a *rubber binder*, and many *cook coffee* when they brew it. Three-fourths of a sample population spoke *root* with the vowel of *put*; one third, through school influence, pronounced /ah/ in *aunt* instead of the

usual Northern short /a/, as in *pants*. Many younger speakers pronounce *caller* and *collar* alike.

9 RELIGIONS

Minnesota's first Christian church was organized by Presbyterians in Ft. Snelling in 1835; the first Roman Catholic church, the Chapel of St. Paul, was dedicated in 1841 at a town then called Pig's Eye but now known by the same name as the chapel. Immigrants arriving in subsequent decades brought their religions with them, with Lutherans and Catholics predominating.

The Roman Catholic Church reported a statewide membership of 1,185,980 in 2004; with about 730,989 members belonging to the archdiocese of St. Paul and Minneapolis. As of 2000, predominant Protestant groups included the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 853,448 adherents, and the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod, 203,863 adherents. In 2004, the United Methodist Church had 83,755 members. In 2005, the United Church of Christ reported a statewide membership of 33,901. Other Lutheran, Presbyterian, and Baptist denominations were also somewhat prominent. The Episcopal Church had 30,547 adherents in 2000. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (Mormons) reported 27,524 members in 71 congregations in 2006. A Mormon temple was opened in St. Paul in 2000. In 2000, there were about 42,000 adherents to Judaism and 12,300 adherents of Islam. That year, over 1.8 million people (about 38.3% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

Minnesota is the headquarters for three national Lutheran religious groups: the American Lutheran Church, the Church of the Lutheran Brethren, and the Association of Free Lutheran Congregations. The Temple of Eckankar (est. 1990) and the Eckankar Spiritual Center (est. 2004) are located in Chanhassen, which is considered to be the spiritual home of the faith. Eckankar, called “a religion of the light and sound of God” by its followers, was introduced by Paul Twitchell, an American journalist, in 1965.

10 TRANSPORTATION

The development of an extensive railroad network after the Civil War was a key factor in the growth of lumbering, iron mining, wheat growing, and other industries. By 2003, Minnesota had a total of 5,923 rail mi (9,536 km). In that same year, metallic ores were the top commodity transported by rail that originated within the state. As of 2006, Amtrak provided east–west service from Chicago to Seattle/Portland to six stations in Minnesota, including Minneapolis–St. Paul, via its Empire Builder train.

Planning and supervision of mass transportation in the Twin Cities metropolitan area are under the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan Transit Commission, a public corporation. The national Greyhound bus line was founded in Hibbing in 1914.

Minnesota had 131,937 mi (212,418 km) of public roads and streets in 2004. Minneapolis–St. Paul is linked by I-35 to Duluth, and I-94 connects the Twin Cities with Moorhead and Fargo, North Dakota. In 2004, there were 2.490 million automobiles, 2.046 million trucks of all types, and 7,000 buses registered with the state. In that same year, the state had 3,083,007 licensed drivers.

The first settlements grew up around major river arteries, especially in the southeast; early traders and settlers arrived first by canoe or keelboat, later by steamer. The port of Duluth-Superi-

or, at the western terminus of the Great Lakes–St. Lawrence Seaway (officially opened in 1959) was the state's busiest port, handling 45.392 million tons of domestic and international cargo in 2004, making it the 19th-busiest port in the United States. The port of Two Harbors was the state's second busiest port that same year and the nation's 48th busiest, handling 13.472 million tons. The ports of Minneapolis and St. Paul handle a combined cargo greater than seven million tons each year, with agricultural products and scrap iron moving downstream and petroleum products, chemicals, and cement moving upstream. Minnesota in 2004 had 258 mi (415 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 47.687 million tons.

In 2005, Minnesota had a total of 520 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 384 airports, 58 heliports, one STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 77 seaplane bases. Minneapolis–St. Paul International is the state's largest and busiest airport. In 2004, the airport had 17,482,627 enplanements, making it the ninth-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

People have lived on the land that is now Minnesota for at least 10,000 years. The earliest inhabitants—belonging to what archaeologists classify as the Paleo-Indian (or Big Game) culture—hunted large animals, primarily bison, from which they obtained food, clothing, and materials for shelter. A second identifiable cultural tradition, from around 5000 BC, was the Eastern Archaic (or Old Copper) culture. These people hunted small as well as large game animals and fashioned copper implements through a cold hammering process. The more recent Woodland Tradition (1000 BC–AD 1700) was marked by the introduction of pottery and of mound burials. From the 1870s to the early 1900s, more than 11,000 burial mounds were discovered in Minnesota—the most visible remains of prehistoric life in the area. Finally, overlapping the Woodland culture in time was the Mississippian Tradition, beginning around AD 1000, in which large villages with permanent dwellings were erected near fertile river bottoms; their residents, in addition to hunting and fishing, raised corn, beans, and squash. There are many sites from this culture throughout southern Minnesota.

At the time of European penetration in the 17th and early 18th centuries, the two principal Indian nations were the Dakota, or Minnesota Sioux, and, at least after 1700, the Ojibwa, or Chippewa, who were moving from the east into northern Minnesota and the Dakota homelands. Friendly relations between the two nations were shattered in 1736, when the Dakota slew a party of French missionaries and traders (allies of the Ojibwa) and their Cree Indian guides (distant relatives of the Ojibwa) at the Lake of the Woods, an act the Ojibwa viewed as a declaration of war. There followed more than 100 years of conflict between Dakota and Ojibwa, during which the Dakota were pressed toward the south and west, with the Ojibwa establishing themselves in the north.

Few scholars accept the authenticity of the Kensington Rune Stone, found in 1898, the basis of the claim that Minnesota was visited in 1362 by the Vikings. The first white men whose travels through the region have been documented were Pierre Esprit Radisson and his brother-in-law, Médart Chouart, Sieur de Groseilliers, who probably reached the interior of northern Minne-

sota in the 1650s. In 1679, Daniel Greysolon, Sieur Duluth, held council with the Dakota near Mille Lacs and formally claimed the region for King Louis XIV of France. The following year, Duluth negotiated the release of three captives of the Dakota Indians, among them a Belgian explorer and missionary, Father Louis Hennepin, who named the falls of the Mississippi (the site of present-day Minneapolis) after his patron saint, Anthony of Padua, and returned to Europe to write an exaggerated account of his travels in the region.

Duluth was in the vanguard of the French, English, and American explorers, fur traders, and missionaries who came to Minnesota during the two centuries before statehood. Among the best known was Nicolas Perrot, who built Ft. Antoine on the east side of Lake Pepin in 1686. In 1731, Pierre Gaultier de Varennes, Sieur de la Verendrye, journeyed to the Lake of the Woods, along whose shores he erected Ft. St. Charles; subsequently, he or his men ventured farther west than any other known French explorer, reaching the Dakotas and the Saskatchewan Valley. His eldest son was among those slain by Dakota Indians at the Lake of the Woods in 1736.

Competition for control of the upper Mississippi Valley ended with the British victory in the French and Indian War, which placed the portion of Minnesota east of the Mississippi under British control; the land west of the Mississippi was ceded by France to Spain in 1762. Although the Spanish paid little attention to their northern territory, the British immediately sent in fur traders and explorers. One of the best known was Jonathan Carver, who spent the winter of 1766–67 with the Dakota on the Minnesota River. His account of his travels—a mixture of personal observations and borrowings from others—quickly became a popular success.

There was little activity in the region during the Revolutionary War, and for a few decades afterward, the British continued to pursue their interests there. The North West Company built a major fur-trading post at Grand Portage, which quickly became the center of a prosperous inland trade, and other posts dotted the countryside. The company hired David Thompson away from the Hudson's Bay Company to map the area from Lake Superior west to the Red River; his detailed and accurate work, executed in the late 1790s, is still admired today. After the War of 1812, the US Congress passed an act curbing British participation in the fur trade, and the North West Company was eventually replaced by the American Fur Company, which John Jacob Astor had incorporated in 1808.

Under the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, Minnesota east of the Mississippi became part of the Northwest Territory; most of western Minnesota was acquired by the United States as part of the Louisiana Purchase of 1803. The Red River Valley became a secure part of the United States after an agreement with England on the northern boundary was reached in 1818.

In 1805, the US War Department sent Lt. Zebulon Pike and a detachment of troops to explore the Mississippi to its source. Pike failed to locate the source, but he concluded a treaty with a band of Dakota for two parcels of land along the river. Later, additional troops were sent in to establish US control, and in 1819, a military post was established in part of Pike's land, on a bluff overlooking the junction of the Mississippi and Minnesota rivers. First called Ft. St. Anthony, it was renamed in 1825 for Col. Josiah Snelling, who supervised the construction of the permanent fort. For three

decades, Ft. Snelling served as the principal center of civilization in Minnesota and the key frontier outpost in the northwest.

In 1834, Henry H. Sibley was appointed a manager of the American Fur Company on the upper Mississippi. He settled comfortably at Mendota, a trading post across the river from Ft. Snelling, and enjoyed immediate success. The company's fortunes took a downward turn in 1837, however—partly because of a financial panic but, even more important, because the first of a series of treaties with the Dakota and Ojibwa transferred large areas of Indian land to the US government and thus curtailed the profitable relationship between fur traders and Indians. The treaties opened the land for lumbering, farming, and settlement. Lumbering spawned many of the early permanent settlements, such as Marine and Stillwater, on the St. Croix River, and St. Anthony (later Minneapolis) at the falls of the Mississippi. Another important town, St. Paul (originally Pig's Eye), developed as a trading center at the head of navigation on the Mississippi.

In 1849, Minnesota Territory was established. It included all of present-day Minnesota, along with portions of North and South Dakota east of the Missouri River. Alexander Ramsey, a Pennsylvania Whig, was appointed as the first territorial governor, and in 1851, the legislature named St. Paul the capital. Stillwater was chosen for the state prison, while St. Anthony was selected as the site for the university. As of 1850, the new territory had slightly more than 6,000 inhabitants, but as lumbering grew and subsequent Indian treaties opened up more land, the population boomed, reaching a total of more than 150,000 by 1857, with the majority concentrated in the southeast corner, close to the rivers.

On 11 May 1858, Minnesota officially became the 32nd state, with its western boundaries pruned from the Missouri to the Red River. Henry Sibley, a Democrat, narrowly defeated Alexander Ramsey, running as a Republican, to become the state's first governor. But under Ramsey's leadership, the fast-growing Republican Party soon gained control of state politics and held it firmly through the early 20th century. In the first presidential election in which Minnesota participated, Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate, easily carried the state, and when the Civil War broke out, Minnesota was the first state to answer Lincoln's call for troops. In all, Minnesota supplied more than 20,000 men to defend the Union.

More challenging to the defense of Minnesota was the Dakota War of 1862. Grieved by the loss of their lands, dissatisfied with reservation life, and ultimately brought to a condition of near starvation, the Dakota appealed to US Indian agencies without success. The murder of five whites by four young Dakota Indians ignited a bloody uprising in which more than 300 whites and an unknown number of Indians were killed. In the aftermath, 38 Dakota captives were hanged for "voluntary participation in murders and massacres," and the Dakota remaining in Minnesota were removed to reservations in Nebraska. (Some later returned to Minnesota.) Meanwhile, the Ojibwa were relegated to reservations on remnants of their former lands.

Also during 1862, Minnesota's first railroad joined St. Anthony (Minneapolis) and St. Paul with 10 mi (16 km) of track. By 1867, the Twin Cities were connected with Chicago by rail; in the early 1870s, tracks crossed the prairie all the way to the Red River Valley. The railroads brought settlers from the eastern states (many of them Scandinavian and German in origin) to every corner of

Minnesota; the settlers, in turn, grew produce for the trains to carry back to the cities of the east. The railroads soon ushered in an era of large-scale commercial farming. Wheat provided the biggest cash crop, as exports rose from 2 million bushels in 1860 to 95 million in 1890. Meanwhile, the falls of St. Anthony became the major US flour-milling center; by 1880, 27 Minneapolis mills were producing more than 2 million barrels of flour annually.

Despite these signs of prosperity, discontent grew among Minnesota farmers, who were plagued by high railroad rates, damaging droughts, and a deflationary economy. The first national farmers' movement, the National Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry, was founded in 1867 by a Minnesotan, Oliver H. Kelley, and spread more rapidly in Minnesota than in any other state. The Farmers' Alliance movement, joining forces with the Knights of Labor, exerted a major influence on state politics in the 1880s. In 1898, the Populist Party—in which a Minnesotan, Ignatius Donnelly, played a leading role nationwide—helped elect John Lind to the governorship on a fusion ticket.

Most immigrants during the 1860s and 1870s settled on the rich farmland of the north and west, but after 1880 the cities and industries grew more rapidly. When iron ore was discovered in the 1880s in the sparsely settled northeast, even that part of the state attracted settlers, many of them immigrants from eastern and southern Europe. Before 1900, Duluth had become a major lake port, and by the eve of World War I, Minnesota had become a national iron-mining center.

The economic picture changed after the war. As the forests were depleted, the big lumber companies turned to the Pacific Northwest. An agricultural depression hit the region, and flour mills moved to the Kansas City area and to Buffalo, New York. Minnesotans adapted to the new realities in various ways. Farmers planted corn, soybeans, and sugar beets along with wheat, and new food-processing industries developed. To these were added business machines, electronics, computers, and other high-technology industries. In 1948, for the first time, the dollar value of all manufactured products exceeded total cash farm receipts. In 1950 the state's urban population exceeded its rural population for the first time. Minnesota was becoming an urban commonwealth.

In addition to heightened demand for its agricultural products, Minnesota prospered as a result of new defense-related, high-technology, and other industries that grew up following World War II. Over \$1 billion was invested in plants to process low-grade iron ore, called taconite, after the state's supply of high-grade ore declined. By the 1970s, environmentalists were targeting the ore producers for polluting Lake Superior with mineral wastes, and in 1978 the Minnesota Supreme Court ordered Reserve Mining Company to comply with pollution-control standards.

A successful merger of Minnesota's Farmer-Labor and Democratic parties, engineered in 1943–44 by both local and national politicians, revived the state's progressivist tradition after World War II. Hubert Humphrey (later US vice president) and his colleagues Orville Freeman, Eugene McCarthy, and Eugenie Anderson emerged as leaders of this new coalition. Their political heir, Walter Mondale, was vice president in 1977–81 but, as the Democratic presidential candidate in 1984, lost the election in a Republican landslide, carrying only his native state and the District of Columbia.

In the 1990s, Minnesota continued its economic diversification as service industries, including finance, insurance, and real estate, became increasingly important. As a result, it closed the decade with a low unemployment rate of 2.8% (when the national average was just over 4%). Though Minnesota, led by the Twin Cities, enjoyed an unprecedented decade of economic prosperity, it was generally acknowledged that agriculture across the Great Plains was in crisis by the end of the 1990s.

For many farmers, their problems had been exacerbated by weather conditions. In 1988, Minnesota's agricultural producers suffered from the worst drought since the 1930s. As a result of the severe flooding of the Mississippi River in 1993, almost half of Minnesota's counties were designated as disaster areas. Again in 1997, some of the most severe flooding in the century occurred in the Red River and Minnesota River valleys.

The state legislature closed its 1999 session having passed the largest permanent tax cut and one-time rebate in the state's history, amounting to \$2.9 billion in tax relief. Though the accomplishment was hailed as a result of a bipartisan effort, discord soon befell Minnesota government. By October, activists were attempting to recall Governor Jesse Ventura, elected the previous year the Reform Party candidate, only to align himself with the Independence Party of Minnesota shortly after taking office. The following legislative session (in 2000) saw more veto overrides than in any other session of the last half century.

Republican Tim Pawlenty, elected governor in 2002, sponsored an Internet privacy bill early in his term and stressed the need for higher education standards and attracting more high-tech jobs to the state. In 2003, Minnesota faced the largest budget deficit in its history, \$4.2 billion. The legislature that year passed a \$28.3 billion budget marked by spending cuts and no new taxes. Democrats, farmers, and labor leaders feared Pawlenty's commitment to no new taxes would amount to large spending cuts in education, health care, and other areas. However, by 2005 Pawlenty had balanced the state's budget without cutting funding for K–12 education. Under Pawlenty's leadership, an overhaul of the state's education standards, welfare reform, lawsuit reform, and a large transportation package were passed.

As of 2005, the state had a \$10 billion per year tourism industry. As such, it was focusing attention on its water resources, which provide jobs, drive quality of life, and support fish and wildlife. Development, pollution, and growing demands for safe drinking water are all pressures placed on the future health of Minnesota waters.

¹² STATE GOVERNMENT

The constitutional convention that assembled at St. Paul on 13 July 1857 was marked by such bitter dissension that the Democrats and Republicans had to meet in separate chambers; the final draft was written by a committee of five Democrats and five Republicans and then adopted by a majority of each party, without amendment. Since Democrats and Republicans were also unwilling to sign the same piece of paper, two separate documents were prepared, one on blue-tinted paper, the other on white. The constitution was ratified by the electorate on 13 October and approved by the US Congress on 11 May 1858. An amendment restructuring the constitution for easy reference and simplifying its language was approved in 1974; for purposes of constitutional law,

however, the original document (incorporating numerous other amendments) remains authoritative. Through January 2005 there were 118 amendments.

As reapportioned by court order after the 1970 census, the Minnesota legislature consists of a 67-member Senate and a 134-member House of Representatives. Legislative sessions begin in January and are limited to 120 legislative days or to the first Monday after the third Saturday in May. Sessions are to be held in only odd-numbered years, but the legislature may divide and meet in even-numbered years as well. Only the governor may call for special sessions. Senators serve four years and representatives two, at annual salaries of \$31,140 as of 2004, unchanged from 1999. Representatives must be at least 18 years old and senators 21; they must be qualified voters, and must have resided in the state for one year and in the legislative district for six months preceding election.

The governor and lieutenant governor are jointly elected for four-year terms; both must be US citizens at least 25 years old, qualified voters, and must have been residents of Minnesota for a year before election. Other constitutional officers are the secretary of state, auditor, and attorney general, all serving for four years. Numerous other officials are appointed by the governor, among them the commissioners of government departments and many heads and members of independent agencies. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$120,311.

Once a bill is passed by a majority of both houses, the governor may sign it, veto it in whole or in part, or pocket-veto it by fail-

ing to act within 14 days of adjournment. (When the legislature is in session, however, a bill becomes law if the governor fails to act on it within three days.) A two-thirds vote of the members of both houses overrides a veto. Constitutional amendments require the approval of a majority of both houses of the legislature and are subject to ratification by the electorate. Those voting in state elections must be at least 18 years old, US citizens, and state residents for at least 20 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The two major political parties are the Democratic-Farmer-Labor Party (DFL) and the Republican Party (until 1995 called the Independent-Republican Party). The Republican Party dominated Minnesota politics from the 1860s through the 1920s, except for a period around the turn of the century. The DFL, formed in 1944 by merger between the Democratic Party and the populist Farmer-Labor Party, rose to prominence in the 1950s under US Senator Hubert Humphrey; it functions as the state chapter of the US Democratic Party.

The DFL is the heir to a long populist tradition bred during the panic of 1857 and the early days of statehood, a tradition perpetuated by a succession of strong, though transient, third-party movements. The Grange, a farmers' movement committed to the cause of railroad regulation, took root in Minnesota in 1868; it withered in the panic of 1873, but its successors, the Anti-Monopoly Par-

Minnesota Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MINNESOTA WINNER	DEMOCRAT ¹	REPUBLICAN ²	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	SOCIALIST LABOR ³
1948	11	*Truman (D)	692,966	483,617	27,866	4,646	2,525
1952	11	*Eisenhower (R)	608,458	763,211	2,666	—	2,383
						SOC. WORKERS	
1956	11	*Eisenhower (R)	617,525	719,302	—	1,098	2,080
1960	11	*Kennedy (D)	779,933	757,915	—	3,077	962
1964	10	*Johnson (D)	991,117	559,624	—	1,177	2,544
							AMERICAN IND.
1968	10	Humphrey (D)	857,738	658,643	—	—	68,931
					PEOPLE'S		AMERICAN
1972	10	*Nixon (R)	802,346	898,269	2,805	4,261	31,407
					LIBERTARIAN		
1976	10	*Carter (D)	1,070,440	819,395	3,529	4,149	13,592
						CITIZENS	
1980	10	Carter (D)	954,173	873,268	31,593	8,406	6,136
1984	10	Mondale (D)	1,036,364	1,032,603	2,996	1,219	—
						MINNESOTA PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST WORKERS
1988	10	Dukakis (D)	1,109,471	962,337	5,109	5,403	2,155
						IND. (Perot)	CONSTITUTION
1992	10	*Clinton (D)	1,020,997	747,841	3,373	562,506	3,363
							GREEN (Nader)
1996	10	*Clinton (D)	1,120,438	766,476	8,271	257,704	24,908
						REFORM	
2000	10	Gore (D)	1,168,266	1,109,659	5,282	22,166	126,696
						THE BETTER LIFE (Nader)	GREEN (Cobb)
2004	10**	Kerry (D)	1,445,014	1,346,695	4,639	18,683	4,408

*Won US presidential election.

**Minnesota has 10 electoral votes. One electoral vote was cast for John Edwards.

1 Called Democratic-Farmer-Labor Party in Minnesota.

2 IND.-Republican party called Republican Party as of 1995.

3 Appeared as Industrial Government Party on the ballot.

ty and the Greenback Party, attracted large followings for some time afterward. They were followed by a new pro-silver group, the Farmers' Alliance, which spread to Minnesota from Nebraska in 1881 and soon became associated with the Minnesota Knights of Labor. The Populist Party also won a foothold in Minnesota, in alliance with the Democratic Party in the late 1890s.

The Farmer-Labor Party, the most successful of Minnesota's third-party movements, grew out of a socialist and isolationist movement known at first as the Non-Partisan League. Founded in North Dakota with the initial aim of gaining control of the Republican Party in that state, the league moved its headquarters to St. Paul and competed in the 1918 elections under the name Farmer-Labor Party, hastily adopted to attract what party leaders hoped would be its two main constituencies. The party scored a major success in 1922 when its candidate, Henrik Shipstead, a Glenwood dentist, defeated a nationally known incumbent, Republican Senator Frank B. Kellogg; Farmer-Labor candidate Floyd B. Olson won the governorship in 1930. The decline of the party in the late 1930s was hastened by the rise of Republican Harold Stassen, an ardent internationalist, who won the governorship in 1938 and twice won reelection.

The first DFL candidate to become governor was Orville Freeman in 1954. The DFL held the governorship from 1963 to 1967 and from 1971 to 1978, when US Representative Al Quie (IR) defeated his DFL opponent, Rudy Perpich; however, Perpich regained the governorship for the DFL in 1982. Perpich served four terms. He lost to Independent-Republican Arne Carlson in 1990, and Carlson was reelected in 1994. The 1998 gubernatorial election in Minnesota made national headlines; it was won by Reform candidate and former World Wrestling Federation personality Jesse Ventura. After gaining office, Ventura switched allegiances to the Independence Party of Minnesota. Tim Pawlenty, a Republican, won the governorship in 2002.

Minnesota is famous as a breeding ground for presidential candidates. Governor Harold Stassen contended seriously for the Republican nomination in 1948 and again in 1952. Vice President Hubert Humphrey was the Democratic presidential nominee in 1968, losing by a narrow margin to Richard Nixon. During the same year, US Senator Eugene McCarthy unsuccessfully sought the Democratic presidential nomination on an antiwar platform; his surprising showings in the early primaries against the incumbent, Lyndon B. Johnson, helped persuade Johnson to withdraw his candidacy. Eight years later, McCarthy ran for the presidency as an independent, drawing 35,490 votes in Minnesota (1.8% of the total votes cast) and 756,631 votes (0.9%) nationwide. Walter Mondale, successor to Hubert Humphrey's seat when Humphrey became Johnson's vice president in 1964, was chosen in 1976 by Jimmy Carter as his vice-presidential running mate; he again ran with Carter in 1980, when the two lost their bid for reelection. In the 1984 election, Minnesota was the only state to favor the Mondale-Ferraro ticket. Minnesotans gave the Republican Party a majority in the state's House of Representatives for the first time since 1970, but the Democrats retained control of the state Senate.

In 2000, Democrat Al Gore won 48% of the presidential vote; Republican George W. Bush gained 46%; and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader received 5%. In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerr garnered 51% of the vote to Bush's 48%. In 2004 there were 2,977,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in

the state. The state had 10 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

In 2000, Democrat Mark Dayton was elected to the Senate. In 1996 Democrat Paul Wellstone successfully defended his Senate seat against a challenge by Republican Rudy Boschwitz, from whom he had won the seat in 1990. Wellstone died in a plane crash in October 2002, along with his wife and daughter, three staff members, and two pilots. Republican Norm Coleman won Wellstone's Senate seat in 2002, defeating Democrat and former vice president Walter Mondale, who stepped in to run after Wellstone's death. Following the 2004 elections, Minnesota's delegation to the US House was split between four Democrats and four Republicans. In mid-2005, there were 36 Democrats, 29 Republicans, and 1 Independent serving in the Minnesota state Senate. Party representation in the state House consisted of 66 Democrats, and 68 Republicans.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Minnesota was divided into 87 counties, 854 municipal governments, 415 school districts, and 403 special districts. In 2002 there were also 1,793 townships.

Each of Minnesota's counties is governed by a board of commissioners, ordinarily elected for four-year terms. Other elected officials include the auditor, treasurer, recorder, sheriff, attorney, and coroner; an assessor and engineer are customarily appointed. Besides administering welfare, highway maintenance, and other state programs, the county is responsible for planning and development and, except in large cities, for property assessment. During the 1970s, counties also assumed increased responsibility for solid waste disposal and shoreline management.

Each regional development commission, or RDC, consists of local officials (selected by counties, cities, townships, and boards of education in the region) and of representatives of public interest groups (selected by the elected officials). RDCs prepare and adopt regional development plans and review applications for loans and grants.

Cities either have home-rule charters or are statutory cities, which are restricted to the systems of government prescribed by state law. In either case, the mayor-council system is the most common. Besides providing such traditional functions as street maintenance and police and fire protection, some cities operate utilities, sell liquor, or run hospitals, among other services. Each township is governed by a board of supervisors and by other elected officials.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 194,995 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Minnesota operates under the authority of executive order; the public safety commissioner is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Minnesota's ombudsman for corrections investigates complaints about corrections facilities or the conduct of prison officials. The Campaign Finance and Public Disclosure Board supervises the registration of lobbyists, monitors the financing of political campaigns, and sees that elected and appointed state officials observe

regulations governing conflict of interest and disclosure of personal finances. Minnesota law also provides that legislative meetings of any kind must be open to the public.

The state-aided public school system is under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education, which carries out the policies of an 11-member Board of Teaching appointed by the governor. Responsible for higher education are the University of Minnesota Board of Regents, elected by the legislature; the boards of trustees of the Minnesota State Colleges and Universities (MNSCU), appointed by the governor; and other agencies. The Department of Transportation maintains roads and bridges, enforces public transportation rates, inspects airports, and has responsibility for railroad safety.

Minnesota's Department of Health investigates health problems, disseminates health information, regulates hospitals and nursing homes, and inspects restaurants and lodgings. Health regulations affecting farm produce are administered by the Department of Agriculture. State facilities for the developmentally disabled are operated by the Department of Human Services, which administers state welfare programs and provides social services to the aged, the handicapped, and others in need.

The Department of Public Safety registers motor vehicles, licenses drivers, enforces traffic laws, and regulates the sale of liquor. The Department of Military Affairs has jurisdiction over the Minnesota National Guard, and the Department of Corrections operates prisons, reformatories, and parole programs. The Housing Finance Agency aids the construction and rehabilitation of low- and middle-income housing. Laws governing occupational safety, wages and hours, and child labor are enforced by the Department of Labor and Industry, while the Department of Employment and Economic Development supervises public employment programs and administers unemployment insurance. Other departments focus on agriculture, commerce, employee relations, finance, natural resources, public service, and revenue.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Minnesota's highest court is the Supreme Court, consisting of a chief justice and six associate justices; all are elected without party designation for six-year terms, with vacancies being filled by gubernatorial appointment. The district court, divided into 10 judicial districts with 254 judges in 1999, is the court of original jurisdiction. Each judicial district has at least three district judges, elected to six-year terms. The governor designates a chief judge for a three-year term.

County courts, operating in all counties of the state except two—Hennepin (Minneapolis) and Ramsey (St. Paul), which have municipal courts—assume functions formerly exercised by probate, family, and local courts. They exercise civil jurisdiction in cases where the amount in contention is \$5,000 or less, and criminal jurisdiction in preliminary hearings and misdemeanors. They also hear cases involving family disputes, and have concurrent jurisdiction with the district court in divorces, adoptions, and certain other proceedings. The probate division of the county court system presides over guardianship and incompetency proceedings and all cases relating to the disposing of estates. All county judges are elected for six-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 8,758 prisoners were held in Minnesota's state and federal prisons, an increase (from 7,865) of

11.4% over 2003. As of year-end 2004, a total of 544 inmates were female, up 25.1% (from 435) from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Minnesota had an incarceration rate of 171 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in 2004 Minnesota had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 269.6 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 13,751 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 155,019 reported incidents or 3,039 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Minnesota has no death penalty. The state's Crime Victims Reparations Board offers compensation to innocent victims of crime or to their dependent survivors.

In 2003, Minnesota spent \$119,675,678 on homeland security, an average of \$24 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 9,076 Defense Department personnel, 1,607 active-duty military personnel and 479 civilian personnel in Minnesota. In 2004 Minnesota firms received about \$1.33 billion in defense contracts, and Defense Department payroll amounted to \$708 million.

As of 2003, there were 426,591 veterans of US military service living in Minnesota. Of these, 59,307 served in World War II; 52,341 in the Korean conflict; 140,907 during the Vietnam era; and 51,141 in the Gulf War. Expenditures on veterans exceeded \$1.0 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Minnesota Highway Patrol employed 545 full-time sworn officers

18 MIGRATION

A succession of migratory waves began in the 17th and 18th centuries with the arrival of the Dakota and Ojibwa, among other Indian groups, followed during the 19th century by New England Yankees, Germans, Scandinavians, and finally southern and eastern Europeans. Especially since 1920, new arrivals from other states and countries have been relatively few, and the state experienced a net loss from migration of 80,000 between 1970 and 1980. The trend was almost halted in the 1980s when immigration nearly equaled emigration. Between 1990 and 1998, Minnesota had net gains of 71,000 in domestic migration and 47,000 in international migration. In 1998, 6,981 foreign immigrants entered the state. Minnesota's overall population increased 8% between 1990 and 1998.

Within the state, there has been a long-term movement to metropolitan areas, especially to the suburbs of major cities; from 1970 to 1983, the state's metropolitan population grew by nearly 1% annually. The urban population increased from 66.8% to 69.9% during the 1980s and, leveling off somewhat, ranged between 68.8% and 69.7% in the 1990s. From 1980 to 1990, the population of the Minneapolis–St. Paul metropolitan area grew 15.5%; it grew another 8.9% between 1990 and 1996. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 70,800 and net internal migration was -16,768, for a net gain of 54,032 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Relations with the Council of State Governments are conducted through the Minnesota Commission on Interstate Cooperation, consisting of five members from each house of the state legislature and five administrative officers or other state employees; in addition, the governor, the president of the Senate, and the speaker of the House are nonvoting members. Minnesota also participates in the Great Lakes Charter, which it formed with seven other states in 1985 to preserve the lakes' water supply, and in other regional compacts. Minnesota is a party to the Boundary Compact Between Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota; the Great Lakes Commission; the Midwest Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact Commission; and the Midwestern Higher Education Compact. Minnesota received \$5.493 billion in federal grants in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$5.154 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$5.783 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Furs, wheat, pine lumber, and high-grade iron ore were once the basis of Minnesota's economy. As these resources diminished, however, the state turned to wood pulp, dairy products, corn and soybeans, taconite, and manufacturing, often in such food-related industries as meat-packing, canning, and the processing of dairy products. The leading sources of income in Minnesota have shifted again in the late 1990s. Manufacturing as a percent of total state output fell from 18.5% in 1997 to 13.7% in 2004, although there was net growth in manufacturing output from 1997 to 2001 of 5.8% compared to an output growth of 32.5% from general services; 27.9% from the trade sector; 26.1% from financial services; and 25.8% from government services. Minnesota's economy grew robustly at the end of the 1990s—7% in 1997, 5.2% in 1999, and 8.5% in 2000, but the annual growth rate plummeted to 1% in the recession of 2001. In 2002, employment declined more rapidly than in the country as a whole because of the large share of Minnesota workers in sectors most affected by the national slowdown: manufacturing, information technology, and airline industries. Office vacancy rates in metropolitan areas increased from 12.2% in 2001 to 19.6% in 2002, above the national average of 16.5%. On the other hand, having escaped the drought conditions that afflicted many other states, corn and soybean harvests were large in 2002, and Minnesota growers were in a position to benefit from drought-induced higher prices for both crops. The dairy sector, however, faced historically low prices, increasing the number of dairy producers leaving the industry.

Minnesota's gross state product in 2005 was \$233 billion, up from \$223.822 billion in 2004, when manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$30.670 billion (13.7% of GSP), followed by the real estate sector at \$24.875 billion (11.1% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance at \$17.637 billion (7.8% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 464,946 small businesses in Minnesota. Of the 134,438 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 131,674 or 97.9% were small companies. An estimated 15,167 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 3.5% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 15,209, down 15.2% from 2003. There were 1,374 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 0.4% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13)

filing rate was 391 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Minnesota as 40th in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Minnesota had a gross state product (GSP) of \$233 billion which accounted for 1.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 17 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Minnesota had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$36,184. This ranked eighth in the United States and was 109% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.6%. Minnesota had a total personal income (TPI) of \$184,413,901,000, which ranked 17th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.4% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.7%. Earnings of persons employed in Minnesota increased from \$138,475,249,000 in 2003 to \$147,971,949,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.9%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$55,914, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 7.0% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Minnesota numbered 2,946,100, with approximately 119,600 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,756,800. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Minnesota was 9% in November 1982. The historical low was 2.5% in April 1999. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 12.5% in manufacturing; 19.3% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.6% in financial activities; 11.3% in professional and business services; 14.2% in education and health services; 9.1% in leisure and hospitality services; and 15.2% in government.

The history of unionization in the state includes several long and bitter labor disputes, notably the Iron Range strike of 1916, the Teamsters' strike of 1934, and the Hormel strike of 1985–86. The earliest known unions—two printers' locals, established in the late 1850s—died out during the Civil War, and several later unions faded in the panic of 1873. The Knights of Labor were the dominant force of the 1880s. The next decade saw the rise of the Minnesota State Federation of Labor, whose increasing political influence bore fruit in the landmark Workmen's Compensation Act of 1913 and the subsequent ascension of the Farmer-Labor Party. The legislature enacted a fair employment practices law in 1955 and passed a measure in 1973 prescribing collective-bargaining procedures for public employees and granting them a limited right to strike.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 392,000 of Minnesota's 2,494,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 15.7% of those so employed,

down from 17.5% in 2004, but still above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 410,000 workers (16.4%) in Minnesota were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Minnesota is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Minnesota had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.15 per hour for employers having annual receipts of \$625,000 or more, and a rate of \$5.25 per hour for employers under that total. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.5% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Cash receipts from farm marketings totaled over \$9 billion in 2005, placing Minnesota sixth among the 50 states; crops made up about 47% of the total value. For 2004, Minnesota ranked first in the production of sugar beets, sweet corn for processing, and green peas for processing; second in spring wheat, third in alfalfa hay; fourth in corn, oats, soybeans, and flaxseed; and sixth in barley and durum wheat.

The early farmers settled in the wooded hills and valleys in the southeastern quarter of the state, where they had to cut down trees and dig up stumps to make room for crops. With the coming of the railroads, farmers began planting the prairies with wheat, which by the late 1870s took up 70% of all farm acreage. In succeeding decades, wheat prices fell and railroad rates soared, fanning agrarian discontent. Farmers began to diversify, with dairy farming, oats, and corn becoming increasingly important. Improved corn yields since the 1940s have spurred the production of hogs and beef cattle and the growth of meat-packing as a major industry.

As of 2004, the state had 79,800 farms, covering 27,600,000 acres (11,200,000 hectares), or 51% of the state's total land area; the average farm had 346 acres (140 hectares). The number of people living on farms steadily declined from 624,000 in 1960 to 482,000 in 1970, and by 2002 there were only 66,996 persons residing on the farms they operated. The value of farmland rose between 2000 and 2004, from \$1,320 per acre to \$1,800. Minnesota's farmers faced acute financial troubles during the early 1980s as a result of heavy debts, high interest rates, and generally low crop prices.

The main farming areas are in southern Minnesota, where corn, soybeans, and oats are important, and in a Red River Valley along the western border, where wheat, barley, sugar beets, and potatoes are among the chief crops.

Agribusiness is Minnesota's largest basic industry, with about one-fourth of the state's labor force employed in agriculture or agriculture-related industries, most notably food processing.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Excluding the northeast, livestock-raising is dispersed throughout the state, with cattle concentrated particularly in west-central Minnesota and in the extreme southeast, and hogs along the southern border.

In 2005, the state had an estimated 2.4 million cattle and calves, valued at nearly \$2.3 billion. The state had 6.5 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$780 million in 2004. Minnesota produced more turkey in 2003 than any other state: 1.2 billion lb (0.55 billion kg), worth \$425.3 million. Also during 2003, the state produced 13.8

million lb (6.3 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which brought in a total of nearly \$13.3 million.

The state's total of 8.3 billion lb (4 billion kg) of milk outproduced all but five states in 2003. Production of broilers in 2003 was 228.5 million lb (103.4 million kg), worth around \$77.7 million, and egg output in the same year was 2.9 billion, worth \$146.4 million.

25 FISHING

Commercial fishermen in 2004 landed 323,000 lb (146,800 kg) of fish valued at \$187,000. The catch included herring and smelts from Lake Superior, whitefish and yellow pike from large inland lakes, and carp and catfish from the Mississippi and Minnesota rivers. In 2001, the commercial fleet had about 25 boats and vessels.

Sport fishing attracts some 1.5 million anglers annually to the state's 2.6 million acres (1.1 million hectares) of fishing lakes and 7,000 mi (11,000 km) of fishing streams, which are stocked with trout, bass, pike, muskellunge, and other fish by the Division of Fish and Wildlife of the Department of Natural Resources. Federal funds allocated for sport fish restoration projects totaled \$10.8 million in 2005/06. In 2004, there were 1,467,677 sports fishing licenses issued in the state, second highest after Texas.

26 FORESTRY

Forests, which originally occupied two-thirds of Minnesota's land area, have been depleted by lumbering, farming, and forest fires. As of 2004, forestland covered 16,230,000 acres (6,568,000 hectares), or over 30% of the state's total land area. Most of the forestland is in the north, especially in Arrowhead Country in the northeast. Of the 14,723,000 acres (5,958,000 hectares) of commercial timberland, less than half is privately owned and more than one-third is under state, county, or municipal jurisdiction. In 2004, lumber production totaled 265 million board feet, 45% hardwoods and 55% softwoods. Over half of the timber that is harvested is used in paper products, and about one-third for wood products. Mills that process raw logs account for half of all forest and forest-product employment in Minnesota.

The state's two national forests are Superior (2,094,946 acres/847,825 hectares) and Chippewa (666,541 acres/269,749 hectares). The Department of Natural Resources, Division of Forestry, promotes effective management of the forest environment and seeks to restrict forest fire occurrence to 1,100 fires annually, burning no more than 30,000 acres (12,000 hectares) in all.

More than 3 million acres (1.2 million hectares) are planted each year with trees by the wood fiber industry, other private interests, and federal, state, and county forest services—more than enough to replace those harvested or destroyed by fire, insects, or disease.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Minnesota in 2003 was \$1.23 billion, a decrease from 2002 of about 5%. The USGS data ranked Minnesota as 11th among the

50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for around 3% of total US output.

By value (in descending order), Minnesota's top nonfuel mineral commodities in 2003 were iron ore, construction sand and gravel, crushed stone, industrial sand and gravel, dimension stone, and lime. Minnesota in 2003 was the nation's top producer of iron ore, was third in peat, and sixth in construction sand and gravel.

According to preliminary data for 2003, production of usable iron ore totaled 34.8 million metric tons and was valued at \$969 million, while construction sand and gravel output that year stood at 47 million metric tons and was valued at \$188 million. Crushed stone output in 2003 totaled 9.8 million metric tons and was valued at \$57.3 million. Minnesota in 2003 was also a producer of common clays and dimension stone.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Minnesota had 179 electrical power service providers, of which 125 were publicly owned and 47 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, five were investor owned, one was federally operated, and one was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,410,903 retail customers. Of that total, 1,398,351 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 675,996 customers, while publicly owned providers had 336,550 customers. There were five federal customers and only one independent generator or "facility" customer.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 11.486 million kW, with total production that same year at 55.050 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 90.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 35.655 billion kWh (64.8%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 13.413 billion kWh (24.4%) and other renewable power sources in third at 2.410 billion kWh (4.4%). Natural gas power plants accounted for 3.3% of all power generated, followed by petroleum fueled plants at 1.6%, hydroelectric at 1.5%, and other types of generating facilities at 0.1%.

As of 2006, Minnesota had two nuclear power plants: the Monticello plant near Monticello and the Prairie Island plant in Red Wing.

Minnesota's 7 million acres (2.8 million hectares) of peat lands, the state's only known fossil fuel resource, constitute nearly half of the US total (excluding Alaska). If burned directly, the accessible fuel-quality peat deposit could substantially supplement Minnesota's energy needs. As of 2004, the state had no proven reserves or production of crude oil and natural gas. As of 2005, Minnesota's two refineries had a capacity of 335,000 barrels per day.

29 INDUSTRY

Minnesota's vast wealth of natural resources, especially the state's extensive timberlands and fertile prairie, was the basis for Minnesota's early industrial development. In the late 19th century, Minneapolis was the nation's flour milling center. By the early 20th

century, canning and meat packing were among the state's largest industries.

While food and food products remain an important part of the state's economy, the state's economy has diversified significantly from these early beginnings. As of the early 2000s, the state looks primarily to high technology industries such as computer manufacturing, printing and publishing, scientific instrument manufacturing, and fabricated metal production, for revenues.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Minnesota's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$88.472 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$16.841 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$11.898 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$7.357 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$7.105 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$7.080 billion.

In 2004, a total of 325,601 people in Minnesota were employed in the state's manufacturing sector. Of that total, 214,788 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 44,845, with 20,519 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 42,337 employees (32,182 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 39,238 employees (27,531 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 31,238 employees (18,790 actual production workers); and printing and related support activities with 29,224 employees (19,967 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Minnesota's manufacturing sector paid \$14.210 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.631 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.768 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.513 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$1.472 billion; and printing and related support activities at \$1.161 billion.

30 COMMERCE

Access to the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence Seaway, and the Atlantic Ocean, as well as to the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico, helps make Minnesota a major marketing and distribution center for the upper Midwest.

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Minnesota's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$108.3 billion from 8,884 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 5,022 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,749 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,113 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$46.7 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$46.6 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$14.9 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Minnesota was listed as having 21,129 retail establishments with sales of \$60.01 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (2,605); food and beverage stores (2,551); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,461); miscella-

neous store retailers (2,447); and clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,298). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$14.8 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$8.6 billion; food and beverage stores at \$8.5 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$6.1 billion. A total of 306,571 people were employed by the retail sector in Minnesota that year.

Exports of manufactured goods to foreign countries amounted to \$14.7 billion in 2005. Manufactured exports included computers and computer software, electronic equipment, scientific instruments, and transportation equipment. Dairy products, feed grains, soybeans, and wheat were the largest agricultural commodity exports by total value.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Minnesota Attorney General's Office enforces Minnesota's laws against false advertising, consumer fraud, and deceptive trade practices. The Consumer Protection Division answers consumer questions and mediates consumer complaints, attempting to resolve the complaints through a voluntary mediation program. The Attorney General's office also produces brochures and booklets on a wide variety of consumer topics, including landlords and tenants, new-car buying, home building, credit, and debt collection.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil but not criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the Attorney General cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Consumer Protection Division is located in St. Paul. Also, the Hennepin County Attorney's Office in Minneapolis offers consumer protection services, as does the Minneapolis Division of Licenses and Consumer Services.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Minnesota had 470 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 102 state-chartered and 69 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Minneapolis-St. Paul-Bloomington market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 176 institutions and \$56.362 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 16.5% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$12.948 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 83.5% or \$65.360 billion in assets held.

As of 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.37%, up from 4.33% in 2003; by 2005 the rate was 4.46%. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans was 1.44% in 2005, up slightly from 1.38% in 2004 but down from 1.65% in 2003.

3³ INSURANCE

Minnesotans held over 2.8 million life insurance policies valued at about \$268 billion as of 2004; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$469 billion. The average coverage amount is \$94,900 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$969.6 million.

As of 2003, there were 49 property and casualty and 13 life and health insurance companies incorporated or organized in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$8.7 billion. That year, there were 8,391 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1.2 billion. About \$2.79 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 64% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 7% held individual policies, and 19% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 9% of residents were uninsured. Minnesota has the lowest percentage of uninsured residents in the nation; the state also ranks as having the highest percentage of employment-based insureds. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 25% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.4 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$30,000 per individual and \$60,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection, underinsured, and uninsured motorist coverage are also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$836.12.

3⁴ SECURITIES

The Minneapolis Grain Exchange, founded in 1881 as the Minneapolis Chamber of Commerce, is the state's major commodity exchange. The MGE is used primarily for the pricing of grains. Enforcement of statutes governing securities, franchises, and corporate takeovers (as well as charitable organizations, public cemeteries, collection agencies, and bingo) is the responsibility of the Securities Division of the Department of Commerce.

In 2005, there were 1,400 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 7,410 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 225 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 115 NASDAQ companies, 45 NYSE listings, and 7 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 19 Fortune 500 companies; Target (based in Minneapolis) ranked first in the state and 29th in the nation with revenues of over \$52.6 billion, followed by UnitedHealth Group (Minnetonka), Best Buy (Richfield), St. Paul Travelers Co. (St. Paul), and 3M (St. Paul). All five companies are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Minnesota spends a relatively large amount on state government and local assistance, especially on a per capita basis. The state budget is prepared by the Department of Finance and submitted biennially by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at nearly \$16.7 billion for resources and \$15.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Minnesota were \$7.2 billion.

Minnesota—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	29,708,220	5,828.57
General revenue	24,217,043	4,751.23
Intergovernmental revenue	6,379,798	1,251.68
Taxes	14,734,921	2,890.90
General sales	4,066,790	797.88
Selective sales	2,317,528	454.68
License taxes	941,783	184.77
Individual income tax	5,709,584	1,120.19
Corporate income tax	637,183	125.01
Other taxes	1,062,053	208.37
Current charges	1,903,656	373.49
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,198,668	235.17
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	5,491,177	1,077.34
Total expenditure	28,831,675	5,656.60
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,638,153	1,890.95
Direct expenditure	19,193,522	3,765.65
Current operation	13,399,569	2,628.91
Capital outlay	1,312,133	257.43
Insurance benefits and repayments	3,346,880	656.64
Assistance and subsidies	756,958	148.51
Interest on debt	377,982	74.16
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,928,883	770.82
Total expenditure	28,831,675	5,656.60
General expenditure	25,383,736	4,980.13
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,638,153	1,890.95
Direct expenditure	15,745,583	3,089.19
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	9,872,467	1,936.92
Public welfare	8,047,983	1,578.96
Hospitals	191,650	37.60
Health	516,458	101.33
Highways	1,823,163	357.69
Police protection	212,528	41.70
Correction	411,061	80.65
Natural resources	465,387	91.31
Parks and recreation	160,839	31.56
Government administration	655,093	128.53
Interest on general debt	377,982	74.16
Other and unallocable	2,649,125	519.74
Utility expenditure	101,059	19.83
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	3,346,880	656.64
Debt at end of fiscal year	6,665,669	1,307.76
Cash and security holdings	50,533,430	9,914.35

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$4.2 million for Minnesota.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Minnesota collected \$15,881 million in tax revenues or \$3,094 per capita, which placed it sixth among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 3.9% of the total, sales taxes 26.5%, selective sales taxes 15.3%, individual income taxes 39.9%, corporate income taxes 5.9%, and other taxes 8.5%.

As of 1 January 2006, Minnesota had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 5.35 to 7.85%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 9.8%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$4,920,174,000 or \$965 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 27th nationally. Local governments collected \$4,312,311,000 of the total and the state government \$607,863,000.

Minnesota taxes retail sales at a rate of 6.50%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.50%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 123 cents per pack, which ranks 14th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Minnesota taxes gasoline at 20 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Minnesota citizens received \$0.69 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Minnesota's Department of Employment and Economic Development (DEED) offers a variety of programs to encourage expansion of existing industries and to attract new industry to the state. The department extends loans to small businesses for capital investments that create or retain jobs. It awards grants to new or expanding companies in rural areas and provides limited guarantees to private lenders for loans given to start-up companies. The Minnesota Trade Office assists with the financing of small business exports. The state offers grants to depressed communities to help them retain or attract business or to rebuild their infrastructure. Minnesota's corporate income tax is structured to favor companies having relatively large payrolls and property (as opposed to sales) within the state. In 2006, an initiative called Positively Minnesota was guiding economic development efforts. The primary goal was to capture a great share of business expansions. As a group, Positively Minnesota included economic developers, utilities and private firms as well as the DEED. Beginning in 2004, the Job Opportunity Building Zones (JOBZ) project was launched: it is a rural economic development stimulus program. The program provides substantial tax relief to companies that start up or expand in targeted areas of Minnesota. The program identifies 10 zones encompassing more than 300 communities in every region

of the state (except in the seven Twin Cities metropolitan counties). The program was to expire in 2015.

38 HEALTH

Shortly after the founding of Minnesota Territory, promoters attracted new settlers partly by proclaiming the tonic benefits of Minnesota's soothing landscape and cool, bracing climate; the area was trumpeted as a haven for retirees and for those afflicted with malaria or tuberculosis.

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.9 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 13.5 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 86.5% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 85% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.1 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 171.4; cancer, 183.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 53.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 39.3; and diabetes, 26.2. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.1 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 4.3 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 57.6% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.6% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Minnesota had 131 community hospitals with about 16,400 beds. There were about 615,000 patient admissions that year and 9.1 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 11,300 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,109. Also in 2003, there were about 425 certified nursing facilities in the state with 39,336 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 92.1%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 79.7% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year; this was the second-highest dental care percentage in the nation (following Connecticut). Minnesota had 283 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 962 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 3,069 dentists in the state.

About 19% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 9% of the state population was uninsured in 2004; representing the lowest uninsured rate in the country. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$6.9 million.

The Mayo Clinic, developed by Drs. Charles H. and William J. Mayo in the 1890s and early 1900s, was the first private clinic in the United States and became a world-renowned center for surgery. In 2005, it was ranked second on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, it ranked second for best care in heart disease and heart surgery and fifth for best care in cancer. The separate Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research, founded and endowed by the Mayo brothers in 1915, was subsequently affiliated with the University of Minnesota, which became the first US institution to offer graduate education in surgery and other branches of clinical medicine.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 147,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$318. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 259,937 persons (124,398 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.16 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$274.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Minnesota's TANF program is called Minnesota Family Investment Program (MFIP). In 2004, the state program had 88,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$193 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 775,050 Minnesota residents. This number included 517,510 retired workers, 76,260 widows and widowers, 84,830 disabled workers, 44,770 spouses, and 51,680 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.2% of the total state population and 93.8% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$955; widows and widowers, \$925; disabled workers, \$879; and spouses, \$480. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$505 per month; children of deceased workers, \$673; and children of disabled workers, \$260. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 70,745 Minnesota residents, averaging \$398 a month. An additional \$7.7 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 40,320 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, Minnesota had an estimated 2,212,701 housing units, of which 2,054,900 were occupied. That year, Minnesota had the highest rate of homeownership in the nation with 75.3% of all housing units being owner-occupied. About 68% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Most units rely on utility gas and electricity for heating. It was estimated that 53,332 units lacked telephone service, 9,065 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 9,270 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.41 members.

In 2004, 41,800 new units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$181,135. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,260. Renters paid a median of \$673 per month. In September 2005, the state received a grant of \$362,500 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$20.9 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

Minnesota's first public school system was authorized in 1849, but significant growth in enrollment did not occur until after the Civil War. In 2004, 92.3% of Minnesotans age 25 or older were high school graduates, far exceeding the national average of 84%. Some

32.5% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, compared to the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Minnesota's public schools stood at 847,000. Of these, 568,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 279,000 attended high school. Approximately 80.2% of the students were white, 7.8% were black, 4.6% were Hispanic, 5.4% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 2.1% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 836,000 in fall 2003 but was expected to be 826,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 2.5% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$8.6 billion. In fall 2003, there were 93,935 students enrolled in 568 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Minnesota scored 290 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 323,791 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 11.7% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Minnesota had 113 degree-granting institutions. The state's public postsecondary education system is overseen by Minnesota State Colleges and Universities (MNSCU) and includes three areas: the state university system—with campuses at Bemidji, Mankato, Marshall, Minneapolis–St. Paul, Moorhead, St. Cloud, and Winona; the community college system, and a statewide network of area vocational-technical institutes. The University of Minnesota (founded as an academy in 1851) has campuses in the Twin Cities, Duluth, Morris, and Crookston. The state's oldest private college, Hamline University in St. Paul, was founded in 1854 and is affiliated with the United Methodist Church. There are more than 20 private colleges, many of them with ties to Lutheran or Roman Catholic religious authorities. Carleton College, at Northfield, is a notable independent institution.

Minnesota has an extensive program of student grants, work-study arrangements, and loan programs, in addition to reciprocal tuition arrangements with Wisconsin, North Dakota, and South Dakota.

42 ARTS

State and regional arts groups as well as individual artists are supported by state and federal grants administered through the Minnesota State Arts Board, an 11-member panel appointed by the governor. In 2005, the Minnesota State Arts Board and other Minnesota arts organizations received 57 grants totaling \$3,319,100 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The State Arts Board was also given funding from the state and from private sources. The Minnesota Humanities Commission (MHC) was founded in 1971. As of 2006 the MHC offered public programs such as the "Humanities Foundations," which provided family literacy programs and Teacher Institutes and "Learning in Retirement," which promoted adult learning through senior organizations. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,503,460 to 19 state programs.

The Ordway Music Theater in St. Paul, which has two concert halls, opened in January 1985. The Ordway is the home of the Minnesota Orchestra, the Minnesota Opera Company, and the St. Paul Chamber Orchestra. The privately owned nonprofit the-

ater was built for about \$45 million and was founded with funding from the Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Corp. and other private sources. In 1999, the Ordway received funding from the National Endowment for the Arts to use interactive video-conferencing technology to develop an "electronic field trip" accessible to student audiences across the state.

The St. Olaf College Choir, at Northfield, has a national reputation. The Tyrone Guthrie Theater, founded in Minneapolis in 1963, is one of the nation's most prestigious repertory companies; it moved to a location overlooking the Mississippi River in 2006. The Minnesota Ballet is based in Duluth.

Literary arts are active in the state. The Loft, founded in 1974 in Minneapolis, is considered to be one of the nation's largest and most comprehensive literary centers and offers programs for readers, mentoring programs for writers, grants and awards for writers, and publications, among other services.

The Walker Art Center in Minneapolis is an innovative museum with an outstanding contemporary collection. The Minneapolis Institute of Arts exhibits more traditional works with a permanent collection of over 100,000 pieces spanning 5,000 years of world history. The Weisman Art Museum of the University of Minnesota is in Minneapolis, and the Minnesota Museum of Art is in St. Paul.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Minnesota had an estimated 140 public library systems, with a total of 359 libraries, of which 232 were branches. The total number of books and serial publications that year was 14,414,000 volumes, with audio and video items totaling 651,000 and 488,000, respectively. Library circulation reached 43,843,000. The system also operated 17 bookmobiles. The largest single public library system is the 15-library Minneapolis Public Library and Information Center (founded in 1885); its new Central Library opened in 2006. The leading academic library, with 5,747,805 volumes, is that maintained by the University of Minnesota at Minneapolis. Special libraries include the James Jerome Hill Reference Library (devoted to commerce and transportation) and the library of the Minnesota Historical Society, both located in St. Paul. Nearly all public, academic, school, and special libraries participate in one of the seven library system networks that facilitate resource sharing. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was estimated at \$149 million, including \$642,000 in federal grants and \$10 million in state grants.

There are more than 164 museums and historic sites. In addition to several noted museums of the visual arts, Minnesota is home to the Mayo Medical Museum at the Mayo Clinic in Rochester. The Minnesota Historical Society Museum offers rotating exhibits on varied aspects of the state's history. In May 1996, the Mille Lacs Indian Museum and Trading Post opened its doors. Historic sites include the Split Rock Lighthouse on the north shore of Lake Superior, Historic Fort Snelling in the Twin Cities, the boyhood home of Charles Lindbergh in Little Falls, and the Sauk Centre home of Sinclair Lewis.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

As of 2004, 97.1% of Minnesota's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,832,079 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 67.9%

of Minnesota households had a computer and 61.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 723,484 high-speed lines in Minnesota, 655,837 residential and 67,647 for business.

Commercial broadcasting began with the opening of the first radio station in 1922; as of 2005 there were 135 major radio stations—33 AM and 102 FM—and 20 major television stations. The Minneapolis–St. Paul metropolitan area had 1,481,050 television households, 54% of which received cable as of 1999.

As of 2000, a total of 116,792 Internet domain names had been registered in Minnesota.

45 PRESS

The *Minnesota Pioneer*, whose first issue was printed on a small hand press and distributed by the publisher himself on 28 April 1849 in St. Paul, vies with the *Minnesota Register* (its first issue was dated earlier but may have appeared later) for the honor of being Minnesota's first newspaper. Over the next 10 years, in any case, nearly 100 newspapers appeared at locations throughout the territory, including direct ancestors of many present-day publications. In April 1982, Minneapolis's daily newspapers were merged into the *Minneapolis Star Tribune*. As of 2005, the state had 15 morning dailies, 10 evening dailies, and 15 Sunday papers.

The following table lists the leading dailies, with their average circulations in 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Duluth	<i>News Tribune</i> (m,S)	46,460	69,471
Minneapolis	<i>Star Tribune</i> (m,S)	381,094	678,650
St. Paul	<i>Pioneer Press</i> (m,S)	191,264	254,078

As of 2005, 333 weekly newspapers were being published in Minnesota. Among the most widely read magazines published in Minnesota were *Family Handyman*, appearing 11 times a year; *Catholic Digest*, a religious monthly; and *Snow Goer*, published six times a year for snowmobile enthusiasts.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 8,805 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 5,694 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious.

The Minnesota Historical Society, founded in 1849, is the oldest educational organization in the state and the official custodian of its history. The society is partly supported by state funds, as are such other semistate organizations as the Academy of Science (which promotes interest in science among high school students), the Minnesota State Horticultural Society, and the Humane Society. The Sons of Norway and American Swedish Institute, both with headquarters in Minneapolis, seek to preserve the state's Scandinavian heritage. The Czechoslovak Genealogical Society International is based in St. Paul.

The American Board of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation is based in Rochester. The National Scholastic Press Association is based in Minneapolis. The Organic Consumers Association, established in 1998, is based in the town of Finland.

Hobbyist and sport associations with headquarters in Minnesota include the American Coaster Enthusiasts, the North American Fishing Club, and North American Hunting Club.

The National Marrow Donor Program is based in Minneapolis, as is the National Council of the United States, International Organization of Good Templars.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the state hosted some 28.6 million travelers, with 50% of all tourist activity involving Minnesota residents touring their own state. About 11.7 million visitors were from out of state, primarily from one of the following states: Wisconsin, Iowa, North Dakota, Illinois, California, South Dakota, Michigan, Texas, Missouri, and Florida. Shopping was the most popular tourist activity for out-of-state visitors. Total travel expenditures for 2004 reached \$9.2 billion, which included support for over 233,000 jobs. More than 40% of tourists visited the twin cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul.

With its lakes and parks, ski trails and campsites, and historical and cultural attractions, Minnesota provides ample recreational opportunities for residents and visitors alike. Minnesota's attractions include the 220,000-acre (80,000-hectare) Voyageurs National Park near the Canadian border; Grand Portage National Monument, in Arrowhead Country, a former fur-trading center with a restored trading post; and Pipestone National Monument, in southwestern Minnesota, containing the red pipestone quarry used by Indians to make peace pipes. Lumbertown USA, a restored 1870s lumber community, is in Brainerd, and the US Hockey Hall of Fame is in Eveleth. The city of Ely has the International Wolf Center. Harmony features Niagara Cave with an underground waterfall. Minneapolis is famous for the Mall of America, a huge indoor commercial and entertainment center featuring stores, rides, a beach, skating rink, movies, and restaurants. The Minnesota Zoo is located about 20 mi (30 km) south of Minneapolis–St. Paul. Between Redwood Falls and Jackson, tourists can view the Jeffers Petroglyphs dating from 3000 BC.

The state maintains and operates 66 parks, 9,240 mi (14,870 km) of trails, 10 scenic and natural areas, 5 recreation areas, and 18 canoe and boating routes. Minnesota also has 288 primary wildlife refuges. Many visitors hunt deer, muskrat, squirrel, beaver, duck, pheasant, and grouse. Others enjoy boating each year on Minnesota's scenic waterways. Winter sports have gained in popularity, and many parks are now used heavily all year round. Snowmobiling, though it has declined somewhat since the mid-1970s, still attracts enthusiasts annually, and cross-country skiing has rapidly accelerated in popularity.

48 SPORTS

Five of the major professional sports currently have teams in Minnesota: the Twins of Major League Baseball, the Vikings of the National Football League, the Lynx of the Women's National Basketball Association, the Wild of the National Hockey League, and the Timberwolves of the National Basketball Association. The Twins won the World Series in 1924, 1987, and 1991. The Vikings have gone to the Super Bowl four times, losing each one. The Minnesota North Stars of the National Hockey League moved to Dallas in 1993, but a new NHL team, the Minnesota Wild, began play in 2000.

In collegiate sports, the University of Minnesota Golden Gophers compete in the Big Ten Conference. The football team won the Rose Bowl in 1962, while the basketball team won the Big Ten

title and advanced to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Final Four in 1997. The university is probably best known for its ice hockey team, which won the NCAA title in 1974, 1976, 1979, 2002, and 2003, and supplied the coach, Herb Brooks, and many of the players for the gold medal-winning US team in the 1980 Winter Olympics.

Other annual sporting events include the John Beargrease Sled Dog Race between Duluth and Grand Marais in January or early February, and auto racing at the Brainerd International Raceway in July and August. Alpine and cross-country skiing are popular.

Tracy Caulkins, Roger Maris, and Kevin McHale, past stars in swimming, baseball, and basketball, respectively, were all born in Minnesota.

49 FAMOUS MINNESOTANS

No Minnesotan has been elected to the US presidency, but several have sought the office, including two who served as vice president. Hubert Horatio Humphrey (b.South Dakota, 1911–78) was vice president under Lyndon Johnson and a serious contender for the presidency in 1960, 1968, and 1972. A onetime mayor of Minneapolis, the “Happy Warrior” entered the US Senate in 1949, winning recognition as a vigorous proponent of liberal causes; after he left the vice presidency, Humphrey won reelection to the Senate in 1970. Humphrey’s protégé, Walter Frederick “Fritz” Mondale (b.1928), a former state attorney general, was appointed to fill Humphrey’s Senate seat in 1964, was elected to it twice, and after an unsuccessful try for the presidency, became Jimmy Carter’s running mate in 1976; four years later, Mondale and Carter ran unsuccessfully for reelection, losing to Ronald Reagan and George Bush. Mondale won the Democratic presidential nomination in 1984 and chose US Representative Geraldine A. Ferraro of New York as his running mate, making her the first woman to be nominated by a major party for national office; they were overwhelmingly defeated by Reagan and Bush, winning only 41% of the popular vote and carrying only Minnesota and the District of Columbia. Warren Earl Burger (1907–95) of St. Paul was named chief justice of the US Supreme Court in 1969. Three other Minnesotans have served on the court: Pierce Butler (1866–1939), William O. Douglas (1898–1980), and Harry A. Blackmun (b.Illinois, 1908–97).

Senator Frank B. Kellogg (b.New York, 1856–1937), who as secretary of state helped to negotiate the Kellogg-Briand Pact renouncing war as an instrument of national policy (for which he won the 1929 Nobel Peace Prize), also served on the Permanent Court of International Justice. Other political leaders who won national attention include governors John A. Johnson (1861–1909), Floyd B. Olson (1891–1936), and Harold E. Stassen (1907–2001), a frequent presidential candidate beginning in 1948. Eugene J. McCarthy (1916–2005), who served in the US Senate, was the central figure in a national protest movement against the Vietnam war and, in that role, unsuccessfully sought the 1968 Democratic presidential nomination won by Humphrey. McCarthy also ran for the presidency as an independent in 1976.

Several Minnesotans besides Kellogg have served in cabinet posts. Minnesota’s first territorial governor, Alexander Ramsey (1815–1903), later served as a secretary of war, and Senator William Windom (1827–91) was also secretary of the treasury. Others serving in cabinet posts have included William DeWitt Mitchell

(1874–1955), attorney general; Maurice H. Stans (1908–98), secretary of commerce; James D. Hodgson (b.1915), secretary of labor; and Orville Freeman (1918–2003) and Bob Bergland (b.1928), both secretaries of agriculture. The first woman ambassador in US history was Eugenie M. Anderson (Iowa, 1909–97), like Humphrey an architect of the Democratic-Farmer-Labor Party.

Notable members of Congress include Knute Nelson (b.Norway, 1843–1923), who served in the Senate from 1895 to his death; Henrik Shipstead (1881–1960), who evolved into a leading Republican isolationist during 24 years in the Senate; Representative Andrew J. Volstead (1860–1947), who sponsored the 1919 prohibition act that bears his name; and Representative Walter Judd (1898–1994), a prominent leader of the so-called China Lobby.

The Mayo Clinic was founded in Minnesota by Dr. William W. Mayo (b.England, 1819–1911) and developed through the efforts of his sons, Drs. William H. (1861–1939) and Charles H. (1865–1939) Mayo. Oil magnate J. Paul Getty (1892–1976) was a Minnesota native, as was Richard W. Sears (1863–1914), founder of Sears, Roebuck.

Prominent literary figures, besides Sinclair Lewis, include Ignatius Donnelly (b.Pennsylvania, 1831–1901), a writer, editor, and Populist Party crusader; F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896–1940), well known for classic novels including *The Great Gatsby*; and Ole Edvart Rølvaag (b.Norway, 1876–1931), who conveyed the reality of the immigrant experience in his *Giants in the Earth*. The poet and critic Allen Tate (b.Kentucky, 1899–1979) taught for many years at the University of Minnesota.

Journalist Westbrook Pegler (1894–1969) and cartoonist Charles Schulz (1922–2000) were both born in Minnesota as was radio personality and author Garrison Keillor (b.1942), who gained nationwide fame playfully satirizing his home state through the fictitious town of Lake Wobegon. Architects LeRoy S. Buffington (1847–1937) and Cass Gilbert (b.Ohio, 1859–1934) and economist Thorstein Veblen (b.Wisconsin, 1857–1929) influenced their fields well beyond the state’s borders, as did Minnesota artists Wanda Gag (1893–1946) and Adolph Dehn (1895–1968).

Minnesota-born entertainers include Judy Garland (Frances Gumm, 1922–69) and Bob Dylan (Robert Zimmerman, b.1941). Football star William “Pudge” Heffelfinger (1867–1954) was a Minnesota native, and Bronislaw “Bronco” Nagurski (b.Canada, 1908–1990) played for the University of Minnesota.

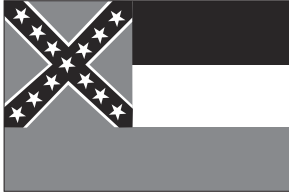
Daniel Greysolon, Sieur Duluth (b.France, 1636–1710), Father Louis Hennepin (b.Flanders, 1640?–1701), and Jonathan Carver (b.Massachusetts, 1710–80) were among the early explorers and chroniclers of what is now the State of Minnesota. Fur trader Henry H. Sibley (b.Michigan, 1811–91) was a key political leader in the territorial period and became the state’s first governor; he also put down the Sioux uprising of 1862. Railroad magnate James J. Hill (b.Canada, 1838–1916) built one of the greatest corporate empires of his time, and Oliver H. Kelley (b.Massachusetts, 1826–1913), a Minnesota farmer, organized the first National Grange. John Ireland (b.Ireland, 1838–1918) was the first Roman Catholic archbishop of St. Paul, while Henry B. Whipple (b.New York, 1822–1901), longtime Episcopal bishop of Minnesota, achieved particular recognition for his work among Indians in the region.

The first US citizen ever to be awarded the Nobel Prize for literature was Sinclair Lewis (1885–1951), whose novel *Main Street* (1920) was modeled on life in his hometown of Sauk Centre. Phil-

ip S. Hench (b.Pennsylvania, 1896–1965) and Edward C. Kendall (b.Connecticut, 1886–1972), both of the Mayo Clinic, shared the 1950 Nobel Prize for medicine, and St. Paul native Melvin Calvin (1911–97) won the 1961 Nobel Prize for chemistry.

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MISSISSIPPI

State of Mississippi

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Ojibwa Indian words *misi sipi*, meaning great river. **NICK-NAME:** The Magnolia State. **CAPITAL:** Jackson. **ENTERED UNION:** 10 December 1817 (20th). **SONG:** “Go, Mississippi!” **MOTTO:** *Virtute et armis* (By valor and arms). **COAT OF ARMS:** An American eagle clutches an olive branch and a quiver of arrows in its talons. **FLAG:** Crossed blue bars, on a red field, bordered with white and emblazoned with 13 white stars—the motif of the Confederate battle flag—cover the upper left corner. The field consists of three stripes of equal width, blue, white, and red. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The seal consists of the coat of arms surrounded by the words “The Great Seal of the State of Mississippi.” **BIRD:** Mockingbird; wood duck (waterfowl). **FISH:** Largemouth or black bass. **FLOWER:** Magnolia. **TREE:** Magnolia. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthdays of Robert E. Lee and Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Confederate Memorial Day, last Monday in April; Memorial Day and Jefferson Davis’s Birthday, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day and Armistice Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern south-central United States, Mississippi ranks 32nd in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Mississippi is 47,689 sq mi (123,514 sq km), of which land takes up 47,233 sq mi (122,333 sq km) and inland water 456 sq mi (1,181 sq km). Mississippi’s maximum e–w extension is 188 mi (303 km); its greatest n–s distance is 352 mi (566 km).

Mississippi is bordered on the n by Tennessee; on the e by Alabama; on the s by the Gulf of Mexico and Louisiana; and on the w by Louisiana (with the line partially formed by the Pearl and Mississippi rivers) and Arkansas (with the line formed by the Mississippi River). Several small islands lie off the coast.

The total boundary length of Mississippi is 1,015 mi (1,634 km). The state’s geographic center is in Leake County, 9 mi (14 km) wnw of Carthage.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Mississippi lies entirely within two lowland plains. Extending eastward from the Mississippi River, the Mississippi Alluvial Plain, popularly known as the Delta, is very narrow south of Vicksburg but stretches as much as a third of the way across the state farther north. The Gulf Coastal Plain, covering the rest of the state, includes several subregions, of which the Red Clay Hills of north-central Mississippi and the Piney Woods of the south and southeast are the most extensive. Mississippi’s generally hilly landscape ascends from sea level at the Gulf of Mexico to reach its maximum elevation, 806 ft (246 m), at Woodall Mountain, in the extreme northeastern corner of the state. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 300 ft (92 m).

The state’s largest lakes—Grenada, Sardis, Enid, and Arkabutla—are all manmade. Numerous smaller lakes—called oxbow lakes because of their curved shape—extend along the western

edge of the state; once part of the Mississippi River, they were formed when the river changed its course. Mississippi’s longest inland river, the Pearl, flows about 490 mi (790 km) from the eastern center of the state to the Gulf of Mexico, its lower reaches forming part of the border with Louisiana. The Big Black River, some 330 mi (530 km) long, begins in the northeast and cuts diagonally across the state, joining the Mississippi about 20 mi (32 km) below Vicksburg. Formed by the confluence of the Tallahatchie and Yalobusha rivers at Greenwood, the Yazoo flows 189 mi (304 km) southwest to the Mississippi just above Vicksburg.

³ CLIMATE

Mississippi has short winters and long, humid summers. Summer temperatures vary little from one part of the state to another. Biloxi, on the Gulf coast, averages 82°F (28°C) in July, while Oxford, in the north-central part of the state, averages 80°F (27°C). During the winter, however, because of the temperate influence of the Gulf of Mexico, the southern coast is much warmer than the north; in January, Biloxi averages 51°F (10°C) to Oxford’s 44°F (6°C). The lowest temperature ever recorded in Mississippi was -19°F (-28°C) on 30 January 1966 in Corinth; the highest, 115°F (46°C), was set on 29 July 1930 at Holly Springs.

Precipitation in Mississippi increases from north to south. The north-central region averages 53 in (135 cm) of precipitation a year; the coastal region, 62 in (157 cm). Annual precipitation at Jackson is about 56 in (142 cm). Some snow falls in northern and central sections. Mississippi lies in the path of hurricanes moving northward from the Gulf of Mexico during the late summer and fall. On 17–18 August 1969, Hurricane Camille ripped into Biloxi and Gulfport and caused more than 100 deaths throughout the state. In August 2005, Hurricane Katrina swept through the same region causing floodwater surges of over 30 ft (9 m). Biloxi and Gulfport suffered severe damage to homes and businesses. As of late 2005, the estimated death toll for the cities and the rest of

the county was over 100 people. One month later, Hurricane Rita passed through the area, causing severe flooding inland as well as near the coastal regions of the state. Two tornado alleys cross Mississippi from the southwest to northeast, from Vicksburg to Oxford and McComb to Tupelo.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Post and white oaks, hickory, maple, and magnolia grow in the forests of the uplands; various willows and gums (including the tupelo) in the Delta; and longleaf pine in the Piney Woods. Characteristic wild flowers include the green Virginia creeper, black-eyed Susan, and Cherokee rose. In April 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife listed Price's potato-bean as a threatened species. The Louisiana quillwort, pondberry, and American chaffseed were listed as endangered plant species the same year.

Common among the state's mammals are the opossum, eastern mole, armadillo, coyote, mink, white-tailed deer, striped skunk, and diverse bats and mice. Birds include varieties of wren, thrush, warbler, vireo, and hawk, along with numerous waterfowl and seabirds, Franklin's gull, the common loon, and the wood stork among them. Black bass, perch, and mullet are common freshwater fish. Rare species in Mississippi include the hoary bat, American oystercatcher, mole salamander, pigmy killifish, Yazoo darker, and five species of crayfish. Listed as threatened or endangered in 2006 were 30 species of animals (vertebrates and invertebrates), including the American and Louisiana black bears, eastern indigo snake, Indiana bat, Mississippi sandhill crane, bald eagle, Mississippi gopher frog, brown pelican, red-cockaded woodpecker, five species of sea turtle, and the bayou darter.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Except for the drinking water program, housed in the State Health Department, and regulation of noncommercial oil field waste disposal activities, assigned to the State Oil and Gas Board, the Mississippi Department of Environmental Quality (MDEQ) is responsible for environmental regulatory programs in the state. MDEQ regulates surface and groundwater withdrawals through its Office of Land and Water Resources and surface mining reclamation through its Office of Geology. All other environmental regulatory programs, including those federal regulatory programs delegated to Mississippi by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), are administered through MDEQ's Office of Pollution Control. The state has primacy for almost all federally delegable programs; the one notable exception is the federal hazardous waste corrective action program (under the federal Hazardous and Solid Waste Amendments of 1984). MDEQ implements one of the premier Pollution Prevention programs in the nation.

In 1996, wetlands accounted for 13% of the state's lands. The Natural Heritage Program helps manage these wetlands.

In 2003, 63.1 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, Mississippi had 83 hazardous waste sites listed in the EPA database, three of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including American Creosote Works, Inc, Davis Timber Company, and Picayune Wood Treating Site. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$1.5 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$9.7 million for

the clean water revolving loan fund, as well as over \$9 million dollars in funds for other water quality and protection projects.

6 POPULATION

Mississippi ranked 31st in population in the United States with an estimated total of 2,921,088 in 2005, an increase of 2.7% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Mississippi's population grew from 2,573,216 to 2,844,658, an increase of 10.5%. The population was projected to reach 3.01 million by 2015 and 3.06 million by 2025.

After remaining virtually level for 30 years, Mississippi's population during the 1970s grew 13.7%, but increased only 2.1% from 1980 to 1990. In 2004, the median age of Mississippians was 34.9. In the same year, 25.8% of the on under the age of 18 while 12.2% was age 65 or older. The population density in 2004 was 23.9 persons per sq km (61.9 persons per sq mi).

Mississippi remains one of the most rural states in the United States, although the urban population has increased fivefold since 1920, when only 13% of state residents lived in cities. Mississippi's largest city, Jackson, had an estimated 2004 population of 179,298, down from 193,097 in 1994. Biloxi and Gulfport are other major cities with large populations. The Jackson metropolitan area had an estimated population of 517,275 in 2004.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

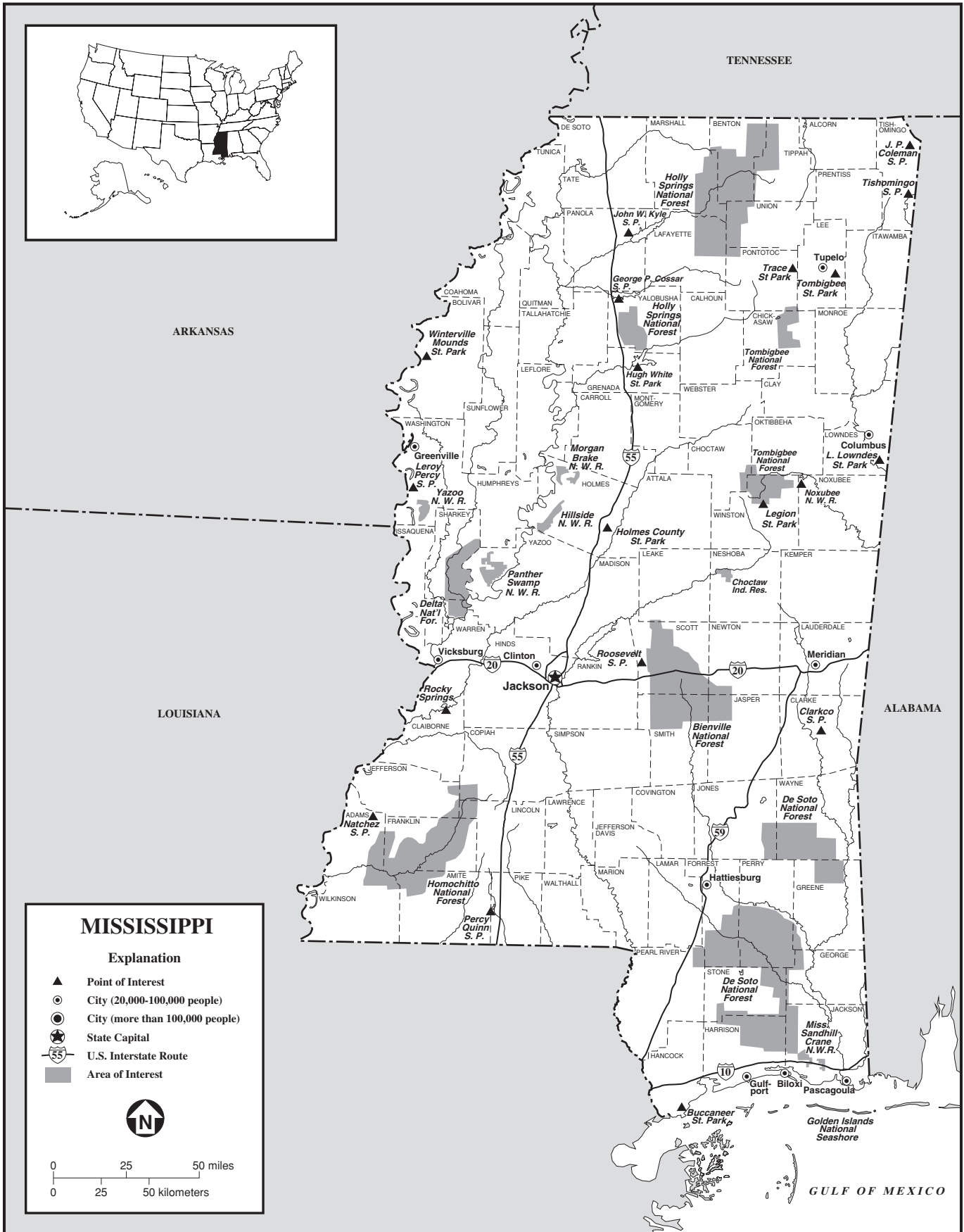
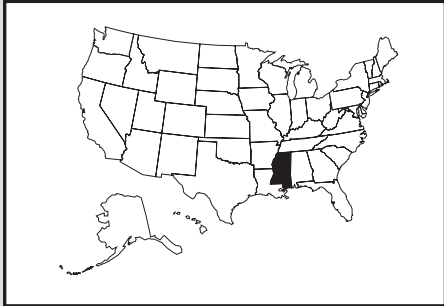
Since 1860, blacks have constituted a larger proportion of the population of Mississippi than of any other state. By the end of the 1830s, blacks outnumbered whites 52% to 48%, and from the 1860s through the early 20th century, they made up about three-fifths of the population. Because of out-migration, the proportion of black Mississippians declined to about 36% in 2000 (still the highest in the country). By 2004, 36.8% of the population was black. In 2000, the state had 1,746,099 whites, 1,033,809 blacks, 18,626 Asians, 11,652 American Indians, and 667 Pacific Islanders. In 2000, there were 39,569 (1.4%) Hispanics and Latinos. In 2004, 0.7% of the population was Asian and 1.7% Hispanic or Latino. That year, 0.6% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

Until the 1940s, the Chinese, who numbered 3,099 in 2000, were an intermediate stratum between blacks and whites in the social hierarchy of the Delta Counties. There also were 5,387 Vietnamese and 2,608 Filipinos in 2000. Although the number of foreign-born almost tripled in the 1970s, Mississippi still had the nation's smallest percentage of foreign-born residents (1.4%, or 39,908) in 2000.

Mississippi has only a small American Indian population—0.4% of the state's population in 2000 (11,652). Many of them live on the Choctaw reservation in the east-central region. In 2004, 0.5% of the population was American Indian.

8 LANGUAGES

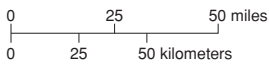
English in the state is largely Southern, with some South Midland speech in northern and eastern Mississippi because of population drift from Tennessee. Typical are the absence of final /r/ and the lengthening and weakening of the diphthongs /ai/ and /oi/ as in *ride* and *oil*. South Midland terms in northern Mississippi include *tow sack* (burlap bag), *dog irons* (andirons), *plum peach* (clingstone peach), *snake doctor* (dragonfly), and *stone wall* (rock fence). In the eastern section are found *jew's harp* (harmonica)



MISSISSIPPI

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (20,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



and *croker sack* (burlap bag). Southern speech in the southern half features *gallery* for porch, *mosquito hawk* for dragonfly, and *press peach* for clingstone peach. Louisiana French has contributed *armoire* (wardrobe).

In 2000, 96.4% of Mississippi residents five years old and older spoke only English in the home, down from 97.2% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	2,641,453	100.0
Speak only English	2,545,931	96.4
Speak a language other than English	95,522	3.6
Speak a language other than English	95,522	3.6
Spanish or Spanish Creole	50,515	1.9
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	10,826	0.4
Other Native North American languages	5,654	0.2
German	5,501	0.2
Vietnamese	4,916	0.2
Chinese	2,506	0.1
Tagalog	2,005	0.1
Korean	1,485	0.1
Italian	1,336	0.1
Arabic	1,081	0.0

9 RELIGIONS

Protestants have dominated Mississippi since the late 18th century. The Baptists are the leading denomination and many adherents are fundamentalists. Partly because of the strong church influence, Mississippi was among the first states to enact prohibition and among the last to repeal it.

In 2000, the Southern Baptist Convention was the largest denomination in the state with 916,440 known adherents; there were 14,947 new members in 2002. The United Methodist Church is considered to be the second-largest denomination in the state, with 189,149 members in 2004. Also in 2004, the Roman Catholic Church reported a statewide membership of about 124,150. In 2000, there were an estimated 3,919 Muslims and about 1,400 Jews. Over 1.2 million people (about 45.4% of the population) did not claim any religious affiliation in 2000.

10 TRANSPORTATION

At the end of 2003, there were 2,658 rail mi (4,279 km) of mainline railroad track in Mississippi, including 2,016 mi (3,245 km) operated by five Class I railroads, which in 2003, were the Burlington Northern Santa Fe, CSX, Illinois Central Gulf, Kansas City Southern, and Norfolk Southern lines. As of 2006, Amtrak provided rail passenger service via its City of New Orleans train, serving the cities of Greenwood, Yazoo, Jackson, Hazlehurst, Brookhaven, and McComb on its route between Chicago and New Orleans, and the Crescent, serving Meridian, Laurel, Hattiesburg, and Picayune in Mississippi, on its route between Atlanta and New Orleans.

Mississippi had 74,129 mi (119,347 km) of public roads as of 2004. Interstate highways 55, running north-south, and 20, running east-west, intersect at Jackson. I-220 provides a loop from I-55 north of Jackson to I-20 west of Jackson. I-10 runs across the Mississippi Gulf Coast, and I-110 provides a connector from I-10 to US Highway 90 in Biloxi. I-59 runs diagonally through

the southeastern corner of Mississippi from Meridian to New Orleans.

Development of four-lane highways was financed by a "pay-as-you-go" public works program passed by the Mississippi legislature in 1987 to provide a four-lane highway within 30 minutes or 30 mi (48 km) of every citizen in the state. Originally, the \$1.6 billion, three-phase agenda called for the creation of four lanes for 1,077 mi (1,733 km) of highway as of 2001. During the 1994 regular legislative session, an additional 619 mi (996 km), known as Phase IV, were added to the program at an expected cost of \$1.3 billion. In 2004, there were 1,896,008 licensed drivers in Mississippi and 1.159 million registered motor vehicles, including some 1.113 million automobiles and 815,000 trucks of all types.

Mississippi's ports and waterways serve a surrounding 16-state market where nearly 40% of the nation's total population is located. Mississippi has two deepwater seaports, Gulfport and Pascagoula, both located on the Gulf of Mexico. In 2004, Gulfport handled 2.374 million tons of cargo, and Pascagoula handled 34.099 million tons, making it the 22nd-busiest port in the United States. Much of Pascagoula's heavy volume consists of oil and gas imports. Other ports located on the Gulf include Port Bienville in Hancock County and Biloxi in Harrison County. Biloxi handled 2.670 million tons of cargo in 2004.

The Mississippi River flows along the western border of the state, linking the Gulf of Mexico to inland river states as far away as Minneapolis, Minnesota. The Mississippi is the largest commercial river in the country and the third-largest river system in the world, and it carries the majority of the nation's inland waterway tonnage. Approximately 409 mi (658 km) of the Mississippi River flow through the state, with ports in Natchez, Vicksburg, Yazoo County, Greenville, and Rosedale. In 2004, the Port of Vicksburg handled 3.922 million tons of cargo, while the Port of Greenville handled 3.045 million tons.

To the east of Mississippi lies the Tennessee-Tombigbee (Tenn-Tom) Waterway, completed in 1984, which links the Tennessee and Ohio rivers with the Gulf of Mexico. Stretching 95 mi (153 km) through Mississippi from the northeast corner of the state down to a point just south of Columbus, the Tenn-Tom Waterway's overall length is 232 mi (373 km). Five local ports are located on the waterway: Yellow Creek, Itawamba, Amory, Aberdeen, and Columbus-Lowndes County. In 2004, Mississippi had 873 mi (1,405 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 47.446 million tons.

In 2005, Mississippi had a total of 243 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 191 airports, 51 heliports, and 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing). Jackson-Evers International Airport is the state's main air terminal. In 2004, the airport had 639,947 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

The earliest record of human habitation in the region that is now the state of Mississippi goes back perhaps 2,000 years. The names of Mississippi's pre-Columbian inhabitants are not known. Upon the appearance of the first Spanish explorers in the early 16th century, Mississippi Indians numbered some 30,000 and were divided into 15 tribes. Soon after the French settled in 1699, however, only three large tribes remained: the Choctaw, the Chickasaw, and the Natchez. The French destroyed the Natchez in 1729-30 in re-

taliation for the massacre of a French settlement on the Natchez bluffs.

Spanish explorers, of whom Hernando de Soto in 1540–41 was the most notable, explored the area that is now Mississippi in the first half of the 16th century. De Soto found little of the mineral wealth he was looking for, and the Spanish quickly lost interest in the region. The French explorer Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, penetrated the lower Mississippi Valley from New France (Canada) in 1682. La Salle discovered the mouth of the Mississippi and named the entire area Louisiana in honor of the French king, Louis XIV.

An expedition under French-Canadian Pierre Lemoyne, Sieur d'Iberville, established a settlement at Biloxi Bay in 1699. Soon the French opened settlements at Mobile (1702), Natchez (1716), and finally New Orleans (1718), which quickly eclipsed the others in size and importance. After losing the French and Indian War, France ceded Louisiana to its Spanish ally in 1762. The following year, Spain ceded the portion of the colony that lay east of the Mississippi to England, which governed the new lands as West Florida. During the American Revolution, the Spanish, who still held New Orleans and Louisiana, marched into Natchez, Mobile, and Pensacola (the capital) and took West Florida by conquest.

Although the United States claimed the Natchez area after 1783, Spain continued to rule it. However, the Spanish were unable to change the Anglo-American character of the settlement. Spain agreed to relinquish its claim to the Natchez District by signing the Treaty of San Lorenzo on 27 October 1795, but did not evacuate its garrison there for another three years.

The US Congress organized the Mississippi Territory in 1798. Between 1798 and 1817, the territory grew enormously in population, attracting immigrants mainly from the older states of the South but also from the Middle Atlantic states and even from New England. During this period, the territory included all the land area that is today within the borders of Mississippi and Alabama. However, sectionalism and the territory's large size convinced Congress to organize the eastern half as the Alabama Territory in 1817. Congress then offered admission to the western half, which became the nation's 20th state—Mississippi on 10 December.

Until the Civil War, Mississippi exemplified the American frontier; it was bustling, violent, and aggressive. By and large, Mississippians viewed themselves as westerners, not southerners. Nor was Mississippi, except for a few plantations around Natchez, a land of large planters. Rather, Mississippi's antebellum society and government were dominated by a coalition of prosperous farmers and small landowners. At the time of statehood, the northern two-thirds of Mississippi, though nominally under US rule since 1783, remained in the hands of the Choctaw and Chickasaw and was closed to settlement. Under intense pressure from the state government and from Andrew Jackson's presidential administration, these tribes signed three treaties between 1820 and 1832, ceding their Mississippi lands and agreeing to move to what is now Oklahoma.

The opening of fertile Indian lands for sale and settlement produced a boom of speculation and growth unparalleled in Mississippi history. Cotton agriculture and slavery—introduced by the French and carried on by the British and Spanish, but hitherto limited mostly to the Natchez area—swept over the state. As the profitability and number of slaves increased, so did attempts by white

Mississippians to justify slavery morally, socially, and economically. The expansion of slavery also produced a defensive attitude, which focused the minds of white Mississippians on two dangers: that the slaves outnumbered the whites and would threaten white society unless kept down by slavery; and that any attack on slavery, whether from the abolitionists or from Free-Soilers like Abraham Lincoln, was a threat to white society. The danger, they believed, was so great that no price was too high to pay to maintain slavery, even secession and civil war.

After Lincoln's election to the US presidency, Mississippi became, on 9 January 1861, the second southern state to secede. When the war began, Mississippi occupied a central place in Union strategy. The state sat squarely astride the major Confederate east–west routes of communication in the lower South, and the Mississippi River twisted along the state's western border. Control of the river was essential to Union division of the Confederacy. The military campaign fell into three phases: the fight for northeastern Mississippi in 1862, the struggle for Vicksburg in 1862–63, and the battle for east Mississippi in 1864–65. The Union advance on Corinth began with the Battle of Shiloh (Tenn.) in April 1862. The first Union objective was the railroad that ran across the northeastern corner of Mississippi from Corinth to Iuka and linked Memphis, Tenn., to Atlanta, Ga. Losses in the ensuing battle of Shiloh, which eventually led to the occupation of Corinth by Union troops, exceeded 10,000 men on each side.

The campaign that dominated the war in Mississippi—and, indeed, along with Gettysburg provided the turning point of the Civil War—was Vicksburg. Perched atop high bluffs overlooking a bend in the Mississippi and surrounded by hills on all sides, Vicksburg provided a seemingly impregnable fortress. Union forces maneuvered before Vicksburg for more than a year before Grant besieged the city and forced its surrender on 4 July 1863. Along with Vicksburg went the western half of Mississippi. The rest of the military campaign in the state was devoted to the fight for the east, which Union forces still had not secured when the conflict ended in 1865. Of the 78,000 Mississippians who fought in the Civil War, nearly 30,000 died.

Ten years of political, social, and economic turmoil followed. Reconstruction was a tumultuous period during which the Republican Party encouraged blacks to vote and hold political office, while the native white Democrats resisted full freedom for their former slaves. The resulting confrontation lasted until 1875, when, using violence and intimidation, the Democrats recaptured control of the state from the Republicans and began a return to the racial status quo antebellum. However, reconstruction left its legacy in minds of Mississippians: to the whites it seemed proof that blacks were incapable of exercising political power; to the blacks it proved that political and social rights could not long be maintained without economic rights.

The era from the end of Reconstruction to World War II was a period of economic, political, and social stagnation for Mississippi. In many respects, white Mississippians pushed blacks back into slavery in all but name. Segregation laws and customs placed strict social controls on blacks, and a new state constitution in 1890 removed the last vestiges of their political rights. Mississippi's agricultural economy, dominated by cotton and tenant farming, provided the economic equivalent of slavery for black sharecroppers. As a continuing agricultural depression ground down the small

white farmers, many of them also were driven into the sharecropper ranks; in 1890, 63% of all Mississippi farmers were tenants. Whether former planter-aristocrats like John Sharp Williams or small-farmer advocates like James K. Vardaman (1908–12) and Theodore Bilbo (1916–20 and 1928–32) held office as governor, political life was dominated by the overriding desire to keep the blacks subservient. From Reconstruction to the 1960s, white political solidarity was of paramount importance. Otherwise, the whites reasoned, another Reconstruction would follow. According to the Tuskegee Institute, 538 blacks were lynched in Mississippi between 1883 and 1959, more than in any other state.

The Great Depression of the 1930s pushed Mississippians, predominantly poor and rural, to the point of desperation, and the state's agricultural economy to the brink of disaster. In 1932, cotton sank to five cents a pound, and one-fourth of the state's farmland was forfeited for nonpayment of taxes. World War II unleashed the forces that would later revolutionize Mississippi's economic, social, and political order, bringing the state its first prosperity in a century. By introducing outsiders to Mississippi and Mississippians to the world, the armed forces and the war began to erode the state's insularity. It also stimulated industrial growth and agricultural mechanization and encouraged an exodus of blacks to better-paying jobs in other states. By the early 1980s, according to any standard, Mississippi had become an industrial state. In the agricultural sector, cotton had been dethroned and crop diversification accomplished. Politics in Mississippi also changed considerably after World War II. Within little more than a generation, from 1945 to 1975, legal segregation was destroyed, and black people exercised their political rights for the first time since Reconstruction. The "Mississippi Summer" (also called Freedom Summer) civil rights campaign—and the violent response to it, including the abduction and murder of three civil rights activists in June 1964—helped persuade white Mississippians to accept racial equality. Charles Evers, the brother of slain civil rights leader Medgar Evers, was elected mayor of Fayette in 1969, becoming Mississippi's first black mayor since Reconstruction.

Following the 1990 redistricting that boosted the number of blacks in the Mississippi House of Representatives, the Mississippi legislature was nearly 23% black in a state in which blacks constituted 33% of the population. In 1998 African Americans accounted for 36% of the state's population.

In 1988 reformist governor Ray Mabus, elected in 1987, enacted the nation's largest teacher pay increase by that date. Nevertheless, teacher salaries in 1992 were still, on average, the second-lowest in the nation and public education remained a priority for the state in the early 2000s. Democratic Governor Ronnie Musgrove, elected in 2000, was able to win additional teacher pay increases from the legislature in 2001. Education was Musgrove's main focus in his 2003 State of the State Address, as he proposed a program that would place children in school two months before kindergarten and one that would attempt to keep top faculty members at Mississippi's state colleges and universities.

Mississippi's economy was hard hit by the 1986 decline in oil and gas prices. Unemployment in the state rose to 13%. By 1992 it had fallen to about 8%. The 1990s saw increasing industrial diversification and rising personal incomes, although many agricultural workers in the Mississippi Delta area remained jobless due to the increasing mechanization of farm work. By 1999 the jobless

rate had dropped to 5.1%, though still above the national average of 4.2%. Nevertheless, the state remained among the nation's poorest, with nearly 18% of its population living below the poverty level as of 1998, a poverty rate that persisted into the early 2000s. Only three states had higher poverty rates. In 2003, Mississippi was facing a budget shortfall of at least \$500 million.

Former chairman of the Republican National Committee, Haley Barbour, was elected governor in November 2003. Upon becoming governor, Barbour focused on job creation, job training, workplace development efforts, and tort reform. He launched "Momentum Mississippi," a long-range economic development strategy group composed of the state's business and community leaders. In 2005, he introduced comprehensive education reform legislation to reward teacher and school performance, reduce state bureaucracy, and strengthen discipline in the state's public schools. With regard to the abortion debate, Barbour introduced and passed six pro-life laws in 2004.

Southern Mississippi was devastated by Hurricane Katrina in August 2005. A 30-ft (10-m) storm surge came ashore, destroying 90% of buildings along the Biloxi-Gulfport coastline. Casino barges in the area were washed ashore. About 800,000 people suffered power outages in Mississippi in the aftermath of the storm.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Mississippi has had four state constitutions. The first (1817) accompanied Mississippi's admission to the Union. A second constitution (1832) was superseded by that of 1869, redrafted under Republican rule to allow Mississippi's readmission to the Union after the Civil War. The state's present constitution, as amended, dates from 1890. By January 2005 it had 123 amendments.

Mississippi's bicameral legislature includes a 52-member Senate and a 122-member House of Representatives. Annual sessions begin in January and extend 90 calendar days, except in the first year of a gubernatorial administration, when they run 125 calendar days. All state legislators are elected to four-year terms. State representatives must be at least 21 years old and senators 25. Representatives must be qualified voters and must have been Mississippi residents for four years and residents of their district for at least two years before election. Senators must have been qualified voters and state residents for at least four years and residents of their district for at least two years before election. The legislative salary was \$10,000 in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

The governor and lieutenant governor (separately elected), secretary of state, attorney general, state treasurer, state auditor, commissioner of insurance, and the commissioner of agriculture and commerce all serve four-year terms. (Voters also elect three transportation commissioners and three public service commissioners, who also serve four-year terms.) The governor and lieutenant governor must be qualified voters, at least 30 years old, US citizens for 20 years, and Mississippi residents for 5 years before election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$122,160. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive terms.

A bill passed by both houses is sent to the governor, who has five days to veto or sign it before it becomes law. If the legislature adjourns, the governor has 15 days after the bill was presented to him to act on it before the measure becomes law. The governor's veto can be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of both houses. Constitutional amendments must first receive

the approval of two-thirds of the members of each house of the legislature. The electorate may also initiate amendments, provided petitions are signed by 12% of total votes for all candidates for governor at the last election. A majority of voters must approve the amendment on a statewide ballot.

Every US citizen over the age of 18 may vote in Mississippi upon producing evidence of 30 days of residence in the state and county (and city, in some cases). Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court as mentally incompetent to vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Mississippi's major political parties are the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, each an affiliate of the national party organization. Mississippi Democrats have often been at odds with each other and with the national Democratic Party. In the 1830s, party affiliation in the state began to divide along regional and economic lines: woodsmen and small farmers in eastern Mississippi became staunch Jacksonian Democrats, while the conservative planters in the western river counties tended to be Whigs. An early demonstration of the power of the Democrats was the movement of the state capital from Natchez in 1821 to a new city named after Andrew Jackson. During the pre-Civil War years, the secessionists were largely Democrats; the Unionists, western Whigs.

During Reconstruction, Mississippi had its first Republican governor. After the Democrats returned to power in 1875, they systematically deprived blacks of the right to vote, specifically by inserting into the constitution of 1890 a literacy clause that could be selectively interpreted to include illiterate whites but exclude blacks. A poll tax and convoluted residency requirements also restricted the electorate. Voter registration among blacks fell from 130,607 in 1880 to 16,234 by 1896.

In 1948, Mississippi Democrats seceded from the national party over the platform, which opposed racial discrimination. That November, Mississippi voters backed the States' Rights Democratic (Dixiecrat) presidential ticket. At the national Democratic convention in 1964, the black separatist Freedom Democratic Party asked to be allotted 40% of Mississippi's seats but was turned down. A further division in the party occurred during the 1960s between the (black) Loyalist Democrats and the (white) Regular Democrats, who were finally reunited in 1976. During the 1950s and early 1960s, the segregationist White Citizens' Councils were so widespread and influential in the state as to rival the major parties in political importance.

Since the passing of the federal Voting Rights Act of 1965, black Mississippians have registered and voted in substantial numbers. According to estimates by the Voter Education Project, only 5% of voting-age blacks were registered in 1960; by 1992, 23% were registered.

Mississippi was one of the most closely contested states in the South during the 1976 presidential election, and that again proved to be the case in 1980, when Ronald Reagan edged Jimmy Carter by a plurality of fewer than 12,000 votes. In 1984, however, Reagan won the state by a landslide, polling 62% of the vote. In the 2000 election, Republican George W. Bush won 57% of the vote; Democrat Al Gore received 42%; and Independent Ralph Nader garnered 1%. In 2004 Bush won 59.6% to Democrat John Kerry's 39.6%. In 2002 there were 1,754,560 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had seven electoral votes in the 2000 presidential election.

Elected in 1991, Mississippi's governor Kirk Fordice was the first Republican governor since Reconstruction. But a Democrat soon regained the office: David Ronald Musgrove was elected governor in 1999. In 2003, former chairman of the Republican

Mississippi Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MISSISSIPPI WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	SOCIALIST WORKERS	LIBERTARIAN
1948	9	Thurmond (SRD)	19,384	4,995	167,538	—	—
1952	8	Stevenson (D)	172,553	112,966	—	—	—
					IND.		
1956	8	Stevenson (D)	144,453	60,683	42,961	—	—
					UNPLEGGED		
1960	8	Byrd**	108,362	73,561	116,248	—	—
1964	7	Goldwater (R)	52,616	356,512	—	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.		
1968	7	Wallace (AI)	150,644	88,516	415,349	—	—
					AMERICAN		
1972	7	*Nixon (R)	126,782	505,125	11,598	2,458	—
1976	7	*Carter (D)	381,309	366,846	6,678	2,805	2,788
					WORKERS' WORLD		
1980	7	*Reagan (R)	429,281	441,089	2,402	2,240	4,702
1984	7	*Reagan (R)	352,192	582,377	—	—	2,336
1988	7	*Bush (R)	363,921	557,890	—	—	3,329
					IND. (Perot)	NEW ALLIANCE	
1992	7	Bush (R)	400,258	487,793	85,626	2,625	2,154
1996	7	Dole (R)	394,022	439,838	52,222	—	2,809
					(Nader)	REFORM	
2000	7	*Bush, G. W. (R)	404,614	572,844	8,122	2,265	2,009
					REFORM (Nader)	CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)	
2004	6	*Bush, G. W. (R)	458,094	684,981	3,177	1,759	1,793

*Won US presidential election.

** unpledged electors won plurality of votes and cast Mississippi's electoral votes for Senator Harry F. Byrd of Virginia.

National Committee, Haley Barbour, was elected governor. Following the 2004 elections, the state's two US senators were Republicans Trent Lott and Thad Cochran. Lott became majority leader of the Senate in 1996 following the departure of Bob Dole (R-Kansas); he stepped down from that post in December 2002 following controversy over remarks he made praising former South Carolina senator Strom Thurmond's 1948 segregationist campaign for the presidency. Until the 1994 midterm elections all of Mississippi's US representatives were Democrats; in that election, Republican Roger Wicker won a House seat that had been in Democratic hands since Reconstruction. Following the 2004 elections, the House delegation was comprised of two Democrats and two Republicans. Following the 2004 elections, the state Senate comprised 28 Democrats and 24 Republicans; the state House had 75 Democrats and 47 Republicans.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Each of Mississippi's 82 counties is divided into 5 districts, each of which elects a member to the county board of supervisors. As of 2005, Mississippi had 296 municipal governments (incorporated as cities, towns, or villages), typically administered by a mayor and council. Some smaller municipalities were run by a commission or by a city manager, appointed by council members. There were 152 public school districts and 458 special districts in 2005.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 132,139 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Mississippi operates under the authority of executive order; the homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Mississippi Ethics Commission, established by the state legislature in 1979, is composed of eight members who administer a code of ethics requiring all state officials and elected local officials to file statements of sources of income.

The Mississippi Department of Education is primarily a planning and service organization whose role is to assist local schools from kindergarten through junior college and adult education. A separate Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning administers Mississippi's public college and university system. The Department of Health administers a statewide system of public health services, but other bodies, including the Department of Mental Health, also have important functions in this field. The Department of Human Services provides welfare services in the areas of assistance payments, child support, food stamp distribution, and such social services as foster home care.

Public protection is afforded by the Office of the Attorney General, Military Communities Council, Bureau of Narcotics, Department of Public Safety (including the Highway Safety Patrol), and Department of Corrections.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Mississippi Supreme Court consists of a chief justice, two presiding justices, and eight associate justices, all elected to eight-year terms. The constitution stipulates that the Supreme Court must hold two sessions a year in the state capital; one session is to com-

mence on the second Monday of September; the other on the first Monday of March. A new Court of Appeals was created in 1995. It consists of one chief judge, two presiding judges, and seven judges. Principal trial courts are the circuit courts, which try both civil and criminal cases; their 49 judges are elected to four-year terms. Municipal court judges are appointed. Small-claims courts are presided over by justices of the peace, who need not be lawyers.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 20,983 prisoners were held in Mississippi's state and federal prisons, an increase of 1.9% (from 20,589) from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,796 inmates were female, up 2.3% (from 1,755) from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Mississippi had an incarceration rate of 669 per 100,000 population in 2004, the third-highest in the United States.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Mississippi in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 295.1 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 8,568 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 100,980 reported incidents or 3,478.5 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Mississippi has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. Following capital punishment's reinstatement in 1977, the state has executed seven persons (as of 5 May 2006); one execution was carried out in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, Mississippi had 65 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Mississippi spent \$217,949,581 on homeland security, an average of \$75 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 17,917 active-duty military personnel and 4,514 civilian personnel stationed in Mississippi. There were two major US Air Force bases, Keesler (Biloxi) and Columbus. Among the four US naval installations were an oceanographic command at Bay St. Louis, an air station at Meridian, and a construction battalion center at Gulfport. In 2004, Mississippi received about \$1.86 billion in federal defense contracts, and \$708 million in Defense Department payroll outlays.

There were 240,109 veterans of US military service living in Mississippi as of 2003. Of those who served in wartime, 29,837 were veterans of World War II; 25,845 of the Korean conflict; 66,717 of the Vietnam era; and 44,950 during the Persian Gulf War. Expenditures on veterans amounted to some \$844 million during 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Mississippi Highway State Patrol employed 531 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

In the late 18th century, most Mississippians were immigrants from the South and predominantly of Scotch-Irish descent. The opening of lands ceded by the Indians beginning in the 1820s brought tens of thousands of settlers into northern and central Mississippi, and a resulting population increase between 1830 and 1840 of 175% (including an increase of 197% in the slave population).

After the Civil War, there was little migration into the state, but much out-migration, mainly of blacks. The exodus from Mississippi was especially heavy during the 1940s and 1950s, when at least 720,000 people, nearly three-quarters of them black, left the state. During the 1960s, between 267,000 and 279,000 blacks

departed, while net white out-migration came to an end. Black out-migration slowed considerably during the 1970s, and more whites settled in the state than left. Also during the 1970s there was considerable intrastate migration to Hinds County (Jackson) and the Gulf Coast. Between 1980 and 1990, Mississippi had a net loss from migration of 144,128 (38% whites). Only 12 of the state's 82 counties recorded a net gain from migration during the 1980s, mostly in Rankin, DeSoto, Madison, and Hancock counties. Between 1990 and 1998, Mississippi had net gains of 43,000 in domestic migration and 6,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 701 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, Mississippi's overall population increased 6.9%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 10,653 and net internal migration was -10,578, for a net gain of 75 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Mississippi Commission on Interstate Cooperation oversees and encourages the state's participation in interstate bodies, especially the Council of State Governments and the National Conference of State Legislatures. Mississippi also participates in the Appalachian Regional Commission, Arkansas-Mississippi Great River Bridge Construction Compact, Highway 82 Four Lane Construction Compact, Mississippi-Alabama Railroad Authority Compact, Gulf States Marine Fisheries Commission, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern States Energy Board, Southern Regional Education Board, and Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway Development Authority. Mississippi received \$4.532 billion in federal aid in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$4.746 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$4.876 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Between the Civil War and World War II, Mississippi's economy remained poor, stagnant, and highly dependent on the market for cotton—a bitter legacy from which the state took decades to recover. As in the pre-Civil War years, Mississippi exports mainly raw materials and imports mainly manufactures. In the 1930s, state leaders began to realize the necessity of diversifying the economy. By the mid-1960s, many more Mississippians recognized that political and economic inequality and racial conflict did not provide an environment attractive to the industries the state needed.

Once the turmoil of the 1950s and early 1960s had subsided, the impressive industrial growth of the immediate postwar years resumed. By the mid-1960s, manufacturing—attracted to the state, in part, because of low wage rates and a weak labor movement—surpassed farming as a source of jobs. During the following decade, the balance of industrial growth changed somewhat. The relatively low-paying garment, textile, and wood-products industries, based on cotton and timber, grew less rapidly in both value added and employment than a number of heavy industries, including transportation equipment and electric and electronic goods. The debut of casino gambling in the state in 1992 stimulated Mississippi's economy in the early and mid-1990s, and by 2002 accounted for 2.7% of total state employment (close to 31,000). In early 1995, however, the manufacturing sector began losing jobs, contributing to a deceleration in annual growth rates in the late 1990s. These losses created stress in other sectors, particularly in the retail trade and transportation and public utilities sectors. Ar-

reas of moderate growth in 2002 were business services and government. The number of personal bankruptcies in the state set a record in 2002, but the growth rate in filings moderated to 1.2%, down from 19.5% in 2001. The opening of a \$1.4 billion Nissan plant near Jackson boosted the state's economy. Southern Mississippi, where the Ship System division of Northrop Grumman, Keesler Air Force Base, and the Stennis Space Center are located, should also benefit from increased national defense spending.

Mississippi's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$76.166 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$12.161 billion or 15.9% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$7.221 billion (9.4% of GSP) and healthcare and social assistance at \$5.497 billion (7.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 197,586 small businesses in Mississippi. Of the 54,117 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 52,403 or 96.8% were small companies. An estimated 6,141 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 2% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 7,380, up 1.6% from 2003. There were 170 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 39.7% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 765 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Mississippi as the ninth-highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Mississippi had a gross state product (GSP) of \$80 billion, which accounted for 0.6% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 36 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Mississippi had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$24,518. This ranked 51st in the United States and was 74% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.2%. Mississippi had a total personal income (TPI) of \$71,122,091,000, which ranked 33rd in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.0%. Earnings of persons employed in Mississippi increased from \$47,031,531,000 in 2003 to \$49,796,304,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.9%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reported that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$33,659, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 17.7% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Mississippi numbered 1,314,300, with approximately 101,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 7.7%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,133,400. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Mississippi was 13.7% in May 1983. The historical low was 4.9% in January 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that 4.8% of the labor force was employed in construction; 15.5% in

manufacturing; 19.8% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 7.9% in professional and business services; 10.8% in education and health services; 10.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 21.4% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 77,000 of Mississippi's 1,089,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 7.1% of those so employed, up from 4.9% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 105,000 workers (9.7%) in Mississippi were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Mississippi is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Mississippi did not have a state-mandated minimum wage law. However, employees in that state were covered under federal minimum wage statutes. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.3% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

In 2005, Mississippi ranked 26th among the states in income from agriculture, with marketings of over \$3.85 billion; crops accounted for \$1.24 billion and livestock and livestock products for \$2.61 billion.

The history of agriculture in the state is dominated by cotton, which from the 1830s through World War II was Mississippi's principal cash crop. During the postwar period, however, as mechanized farming replaced the sharecropper system, agriculture became more diversified. During 2000–04, Mississippi ranked third in cotton and fourth in rice production, among the 50 states. About 2,370,000 bales of cotton worth \$591 million were harvested in 2004 (second after Texas). Soybean output in 2004 totaled 62,320,000 bushels, worth \$367.7 million, and rice production was 16,146,000 hundredweight in 2004, with a value of \$117.9 million.

Federal estimates for 2004 showed some 42,200 farms with a total area of 11 million acres (4.5 million hectares). The richest soil is in the Delta, where most of the cotton is raised. Livestock has largely taken over the Black Belt, a fertile area in the northwest.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Cattle are raised throughout the state, though principally in the Black Belt and Delta. The main chicken-raising area is in the eastern hills.

In 2005, there were around 1.07 million cattle and calves, valued at \$834.6 million. In 2004, there were around 315,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$34.6 million. Mississippi is a leading producer of broilers, ranking fifth in 2003; some 4.3 billion lb (2 billion kg) of broilers, worth \$1.51 billion, were produced in that year.

25 FISHING

In 2004, Mississippi ranked ninth among the 50 states in size of commercial fish landings, with a total of 183.7 million lb (83.5 million kg) valued at \$43.8 million. Of this total, 162.8 million lb (74 million kg) was landed at Pascagoula-Moss Point, the nation's eighth-largest port for commercial landings. Shrimp and blue crab made up the bulk of the commercial landings. The saltwater catch also includes mullet and red snapper; the freshwater catch is dominated by buffalo fish, carp, and catfish. In 2003, the state had 35

processing and 31 wholesale plants employing about 2,706 people. In 2002, the commercial fishing fleet had 1,365 boats and vessels.

Mississippi is one of the leading states in catfish farming, mostly from ponds in the Yazoo River basin. There are 410 catfish farms in operation, covering about 101,000 acres (48,900 hectares) of water surface, with a combined 2006 inventory of 641 million fingerlings and 346 million stocker-sized catfish. Sales of catfish in 2004 totaled \$275 million. In 2004, the state issued 369,252 sport fishing licenses. The Mississippi Department of Wildlife, Fisheries, and Parks operates 21 fishing lakes. The National Fish Hatchery System stocks more than 1.5 million fish annually to support fish resources in the coastal rivers of the Gulf of Mexico.

26 FORESTRY

Mississippi had approximately 18,605,000 acres (7,529,000 hectares) of forested land in 2004, over 60% of the total land area of the state. Six national forests extend over 1.1 million acres (445,000 hectares). The state's most heavily forested region is the Piney Woods in the southeast. Of the state's total commercial timberland, 90% is privately owned. Some of this land was also used for agricultural purposes (grazing). Lumber production in 2004 totaled 2.74 billion board feet (sixth in the United States).

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Mississippi in 2003 was \$174 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 2%.

According to the preliminary data, Mississippi's top nonfuel mineral by value in 2003 was construction sand and gravel, which accounted for around 40% of all nonfuel mineral output by value. It was followed by fuller's earth, crushed stone, portland cement, and industrial sand and gravel. More than 65% by value of all nonfuel mineral production by Mississippi in 2003 was accounted for by construction sand and gravel, crushed stone, and portland cement.

Construction sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 12.8 million metric tons and was valued at \$69.1 million, while fuller's earth output that year totaled 411,000 metric tons and was valued at \$29.9 million, according to the preliminary data from the USGS. The data also showed that crushed stone output in 2003 totaled 2.5 million metric tons and was worth \$26.8 million.

The data listed Mississippi as ranking second among the states in production of fuller's earth, third in bentonite, and fourth in ball clay, by volume.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Mississippi had 51 electrical power service providers, of which 23 were publicly owned and 25 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, two were investor owned, and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 1,420,571 retail customers. Of that total, 605,653 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 683,124 customers, while publicly owned providers had 131,787 customers. There were seven federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 17.282 million kW, with total production that same year at 40.148 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 78.1% came from electric utilities, with the re-

mainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 17.082 billion kWh (42.5%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear power plants in second place at 10.902 billion kWh (27.2%) and natural gas fired plants in third place at 9.477 billion kWh (23.6%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.5% of all power generated, with petroleum fired plants at 4.1% and plants using other types of gases at 0.1%.

The Grand Gulf Nuclear Station boiling-water reactor, built by Mississippi Power Company in Claiborne County, continues to provide power to consumers within Mississippi. As of 2006, it was the state's sole nuclear power plant.

Mississippi is a major petroleum producer. As of 2004, the state had proven crude oil reserves of 178 million barrels, or 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 47,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 14th (13th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 13th (12th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Mississippi had 1,412 producing oil wells. As of 2005, the state's four refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 364,800 barrels per day.

In 2004, Mississippi had 437 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 145.692 billion cu ft (4.13 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 995 billion cu ft (28.2 billion cu m). Most production comes from the south-central part of the state.

Mississippi in 2004 had one producing coal mine, a surface operation. Coal production that year totaled 3,586,000 short tons, down from 3,695,000 short tons in 2003. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Mississippi's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$43.862 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$7.694 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$5.798 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$4.832 billion; furniture and related product manufacturing at \$3.678 billion; and petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$3.412 billion.

In 2004, a total of 169,947 people in Mississippi were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 134,189 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 28,815, with 25,274 actual production workers. It was followed by furniture and related product manufacturing at 26,292 employees (20,094 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 25,689 employees (19,568 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing at 11,894 employees (9,934 actual production workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing with 11,532 employees (9,118 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Mississippi's manufacturing sector paid \$5.545 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.003 billion. It was followed by furniture and related product manufacturing at \$709.476 million; food manufacturing at \$655.124 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$390.577 million; and wood product manufacturing at \$368.544 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Mississippi's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$19.2 billion from 2,948 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,758 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,040 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 150 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$5.9 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$11.6 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$1.5 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Mississippi was listed as having 12,561 retail establishments with sales of \$25.01 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (2,009); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,664); food and beverage stores (1,513); clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,476); and miscellaneous store retailers (1,220). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$6.4 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$5.1 billion; gasoline stations at \$3.2 billion; and food and beverage stores at \$2.8 billion. A total of 135,838 people were employed by the retail sector in Mississippi that year.

Exports from Mississippi totaled \$4 billion in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Consumer Protection Division of the Office of the Attorney General, and the Bureau of Regulatory Services under the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, are each responsible for a range of consumer protection activities within the state of Mississippi. The Consumer Protection Division, established in 1974, may investigate complaints of unfair or deceptive trade practices and, in specific cases, may issue injunctions to halt them. Under 1994 amendments, a violation of the Consumer Protection Act is now a criminal misdemeanor. The Bureau of Regulatory Services consumer protection activities are centered on its Petroleum Products Inspection Division and its Weights and Measures Division, which respectively check petroleum product quality and pump calibration at the retail level, and scales and measurement equipment used in commerce and trade.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings, but cannot represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies. The office administers consumer protection and education programs, handle consumer complaints and has broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

Offices of the Consumer Protection Division and the Bureau of Regulatory Services are each located in the state capitol of Jackson.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Mississippi had 100 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 30 state-chartered and 81 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Memphis market area (which included portions of Tennessee, Mississippi, and Arkansas accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 52 institutions and \$26.946 billion in deposits, followed by Jackson with 24 institu-

tions and \$7.492 billion in deposits for that same year. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 5.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$2.720 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 94.2% or \$43.960 billion in assets held.

In 2004, median past-due/nonaccrual loan levels stood at 2.38% of total loans, down from 2.79% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) in that same year stood at 4.18%, unchanged from the previous year.

The Banking Division of the Mississippi Department of Banking and Consumer Finance is responsible for regulating state-chartered financial institutions.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004 there were over 2.1 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$99.8 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$149 billion. The average coverage amount was \$45,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$526 million.

At the end of 2003, 26 life and health and 18 property and casualty insurance companies were domiciled in Mississippi. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$3.6 billion. That year, there were 42,320 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$5.2 million. About \$1.6 billion of coverage was in force through beach and windstorm insurance.

In 2004, 47% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 30% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 18% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged 15% for single coverage and 29% for family coverage. The state offers a 12-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.6 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$709.45.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Mississippi. In 2005, there were 420 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 610 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 27 publicly traded companies within the state, with over eight NASDAQ companies, eight NYSE listings, and three AMEX listings.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Two state budgets are prepared annually—one by the State Department of Finance and Administration, for the executive branch; and one by the Joint Legislative Budget Committee, for the legis-

Mississippi—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	15,351,077	5,291.65
General revenue	12,196,208	4,204.14
Intergovernmental revenue	5,424,813	1,869.98
Taxes	5,124,730	1,766.54
General sales	2,482,908	855.88
Selective sales	908,294	313.10
License taxes	318,488	109.79
Individual income tax	1,061,704	365.98
Corporate income tax	243,846	84.06
Other taxes	109,490	37.74
Current charges	1,211,257	417.53
Miscellaneous general revenue	435,408	150.09
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	193,518	66.71
Insurance trust revenue	2,961,351	1,020.80
Total expenditure	14,330,205	4,939.75
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,880,446	1,337.62
Direct expenditure	10,449,759	3,602.12
Current operation	7,786,087	2,683.93
Capital outlay	966,268	333.08
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,339,387	461.70
Assistance and subsidies	157,645	54.34
Interest on debt	200,372	69.07
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,868,768	644.18
Total expenditure	14,330,205	4,939.75
General expenditure	12,833,368	4,423.77
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,880,446	1,337.62
Direct expenditure	8,952,922	3,086.15
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	4,310,712	1,485.94
Public welfare	4,048,627	1,395.60
Hospitals	695,350	239.69
Health	297,655	102.60
Highways	1,012,320	348.96
Police protection	75,257	25.94
Correction	306,477	105.65
Natural resources	235,490	81.18
Parks and recreation	45,853	15.81
Government administration	283,352	97.67
Interest on general debt	200,372	69.07
Other and unallocable	1,321,903	455.67
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	157,450	54.27
Insurance trust expenditure	1,339,387	461.70
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,274,977	1,473.62
Cash and security holdings	23,288,104	8,027.61

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

lative branch—and submitted to the legislature for reconciliation and approval. The fiscal year runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$4.3 billion for resources and \$4.0 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Mississippi were \$5.3 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Mississippi was slated to receive: \$5 million to replace the air traffic control tower at Gulfport-Biloxi International Airport.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Mississippi collected \$5,432 million in tax revenues or \$1,860 per capita, which placed it 39th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.8% of the total, sales taxes, 47.6%; selective sales taxes, 17.2%; individual income taxes, 21.6%; corporate income taxes, 5.2%; and other taxes, 7.5%.

As of 1 January 2006, Mississippi had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 3.0% to 5.0%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 3.0% to 5.0% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$1,859,756,000, or \$641 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 40th nationally. Local governments collected \$1,819,515,000 of the total and the state government \$40,241,000.

Mississippi taxes retail sales at a rate of 7%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 0.25%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.25%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 18 cents per pack, which ranks 49th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Mississippi taxes gasoline at 18.4 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Mississippi citizens received \$1.77 in federal spending, which ranks the state fourth nationally.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

In 1936, the state began implementing a program called Balance Agriculture with Industry (BAWI), designed to attract manufacturing to Mississippi. The BAWI laws offered industry substantial tax concessions and permitted local governments to issue bonds to build plants that would be leased to companies for a 20-year period, after which the company would own them. Mississippi continues to offer low tax rates and numerous tax incentives to industry.

The Mississippi Development Authority is charged with encouraging economic growth in the specific fields of industrial development, marketing of state products, and development of tourism. A high-technology asset is the John C. Stennis Space Center (SSC) in Hancock County, which is NASA's largest rocket engine test facility.

In September 2005, President George W. Bush announced he would create a Gulf Opportunity Zone for Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama in the aftermath of the devastation wrought by Hurricane Katrina. Congress passed the Gulf Opportunity Zone Act in December 2005, which provides a number of tax incentives to encourage the rebuilding of areas ravaged by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 9.6 per 1,000 live births, representing the second-highest rate in the country that year (following the District of Columbia). The birth rate in 2003 was 14.7 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 5.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84.9% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 84% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 315.5; cancer, 211.3; cerebrovascular diseases, 67.1; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 48; and diabetes, 23.4. Mississippi ranked third in the nation for the highest death rates by heart disease, following West Virginia and Oklahoma. The state also had the third-highest homicide rate at 10.6 per 100,000 (following the District of Columbia and Louisiana). The accidental death rate of 57.2 per 100,000 is also one of the highest in the country. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 6.4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 16.5 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 60.8% of the population was considered overweight or obese; this represented the third-highest rate in the country, following West Virginia and Alabama. As of 2004, about 24.4% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Mississippi had 92 community hospitals with about 13,000 beds. There were about 416,000 patient admissions that year and 4 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 7,400 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$882. Also in 2003, there were about 204 certified nursing facilities in the state with 18,149 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 88.5%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 59.4% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year; this was the lowest percentage for dental care in the nation. Mississippi had 182 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 889 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,159 dentists in the state.

About 30% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 18% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$4.2 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 60,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$172. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 391,485 persons (158,539 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$98.55 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$462.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state TANF program had 42,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$67 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 545,710 Mississippians. This number included 289,380 retired workers, 56,860 widows and widowers, 103,870 disabled workers, 25,310 spouses, and 70,290 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18.7% of the total state population and 92.5% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$875; widows and widowers, \$765; disabled workers, \$835; and spouses, \$422. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$423 per month; children of deceased workers, \$552; and children of disabled workers, \$244. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 125,180 Mississippi residents, averaging \$369 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, Mississippi had an estimated 1,221,240 housing units, of which 1,074,503 were occupied; 69.6% were owner-occupied. About 69.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 13.7% were mobile homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common energy sources to all units. It was estimated that 92,908 units lacked telephone service, 8,325 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 9,387 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.61 members.

In 2004, 14,500 privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$79,023, the second-lowest in the country (above Arkansas). The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$843. Renters paid a median of \$529 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$949,098 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$30.3 million in community development block grants. Also in 2006, HUD offered an additional \$5 billion to the state in emergency funds to rebuild housing that was destroyed by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma in late 2005.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 83% of Mississippians age 25 and older had completed high school, almost reaching the national average of 84%. Some 20.1% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, below the national average of 26%.

Mississippi's reaction to the US Supreme Court decision in 1954 mandating public school desegregation was to repeal the constitutional requirement for public schools and to foster the development of segregated private schools. In 1964, the state's schools did begin to integrate, and compulsory school attendance was restored 13 years later. As of 1980, 26% of minority (nonwhite) students were in schools in which minorities represented less than 50% of the student body, and 19% were in 99–100% minority schools—a considerable degree of de facto segregation, but less so than in some northern states. In 1982, the compulsory school age was raised to 14, and as of 2001, it was 17; also in 1982, a system of free public kindergartens was established for the first time.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Mississippi's public schools stood at 493,000. Of these, 360,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 132,000 attended high school. Approximately 47.3% of the students were white, 50.7% were black, 1.1% were Hispanic, 0.7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 489,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 469,000

by fall 2014, a decline of 4.8% during the period 2002–14. There were 49,729 students enrolled in 240 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$3.4 billion or \$6,237 per student, the fifth-lowest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Mississippi scored 262 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 147,077 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 39.1% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Mississippi had 40 degree-granting institutions including 9 public 4-year institutions, 17 public 2-year institutions, and 11 nonprofit private 4-year schools. Important institutions of higher learning in Mississippi include the University of Mississippi, established in 1844, Mississippi State University, and the University of Southern Mississippi. Predominantly black institutions include Tougaloo College, Alcorn State University, Jackson State University, and Mississippi Valley State University.

42 ARTS

The Mississippi Arts Commission was founded in 1968 and supports and promotes the arts in community life as well as education. In 2005, the Mississippi Arts Commission and other Mississippi arts organizations received seven grants totaling \$701,500 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The commission also receives significant sums from the state and private sources. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$891,547 to eight state programs.

Jackson has two ballet companies, a symphony orchestra, and two opera companies. Opera South, an integrated but predominantly black company, presents free operas during its summer tours and mounts two major productions yearly. The Mississippi Opera was incorporated in 1947 and is noted as the 11th-oldest continuously producing professional opera company in the nation. There are local symphony orchestras in Meridian, Starkville, Tupelo, and Greenville.

The established professional theaters in the state are the Sheffield Ensemble in Biloxi and the New Stage in Jackson. The Greater Gulf Coast Arts Center has been very active in bringing arts programs into the coastal area.

A distinctive contribution to US culture is the music of black sharecroppers from the Delta, known as the blues. The Delta Blues Museum in Clarksdale has an extensive collection documenting blues history. The annual Mississippi Delta Blues and Heritage Festival is held in Greenville. In September 2005 the 28th annual festival was held showcasing performances by artists such as Shirley Brown and Bobby Rush. Past performers include B.B. King, Muddy Waters, and Stevie Ray Vaughn.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

As of September 2001, Mississippi had 49 public library systems, with a total of 237 libraries, of which 189 were branches. In that same year, there were 5,615,000 volumes of books and serial publications in Mississippi libraries, and a total circulation of 8,898,000. The system also had 138,000 audio and 168,000 video items, 7,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and two bookmobiles. The finest collection of Mississippiana is

at the Mississippi State Department of Archives and History in Jackson. In the Vicksburg-Warren County Public Library are collections on the Civil War and state history and oral history collections. Tougaloo College has special collections of African materials, civil rights papers, and oral history. The Gulf Coast Research Library of Ocean Springs has a marine biology collection. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$37,393,000, including \$746,000 in federal grants and \$7,084,000 in state grants.

There are 65 museums, including the distinguished Mississippi State Historical Museum at Jackson. Pascagoula, Laurel, and Jackson all have notable art museums. The Mississippi Museum of Natural Science in Jackson has been designated the state's official natural science museum by the legislature. Also in Jackson is the Mississippi Agriculture and Forestry Museum. In Meridian is a museum devoted to country singer Jimmie Rodgers, and in Jackson one to pitcher Dizzy Dean.

Beauvoir, Jefferson Davis's home at Biloxi, is a state shrine and includes a museum. The Mississippi governor's mansion—completed in 1845, restored in 1975, and purportedly the second-oldest executive residence in the United States—is a National Historical Landmark.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, only 89.6% of Mississippi's occupied housing units had telephones, the second-lowest rate in the United States. In addition, by June of that same year there were 1,411,277 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 48.3% of Mississippi households had a computer and 38.9% had Internet access, the lowest in the United States in both categories. By June 2005, there were 191,768 high-speed lines in Mississippi, 165,095 residential and 26,673 for business.

In 2005, the state had 64 major operating radio stations (7 AM, 57 FM) and 14 major television stations. A total of 17,234 Internet domain names had been registered in Mississippi as of 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005, Mississippi had 23 daily newspapers: 8 morning dailies and 15 evening dailies. There were 18 Sunday papers in the state. The state's leading newspaper, located in Jackson and owned by the Gannett Company, is *The Clarion-Ledger*, a morning daily with a weekday circulation of 94,938 (107,865 Sunday).

Other leading dailies with approximate 2005 circulation rates are:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Biloxi-Gulfport	<i>Sun Herald</i> (m,S)	46,598	55,582
Tupelo	<i>NE Mississippi Daily Journal</i>	35,490	35,841

A monthly, *Mississippi Magazine*, is published in Jackson.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,789 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,057 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), the Congress of Racial Equality, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC, later the Student National Coordinating Committee) were among the organizations that played

key roles in the civil rights struggles in Mississippi during the 1950s and 1960s.

Other organizations with headquarters in Mississippi are the American Association of Public Health Physicians (Greenwood), the Sons of Confederate Veterans (Hattiesburg), the Sacred Heart League (Wallis), the National Band Association (Hattiesburg), and the Amateur Field Trial Clubs of America (Hernando). The International Dodge Ball Federation has a base in Gulfport.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, there were 30 million overnight travelers in Mississippi, with 83% of all visitors traveling from out of state. In 2002 tourists spent an estimated \$6.4 billion, which supported over 126,500 travel-related jobs. Jobs in the gaming industry represented about one-third of the total.

Among Mississippi's major tourist attractions are its floating riverboat casinos and its mansions and plantations, many of them in the Natchez area. Tunica, 30 miles south of Memphis, Tennessee, has Las Vegas-style casinos with hotels and entertainment, generating a significant source of revenue for the state. McRaven Plantation in Vicksburg was built in 1797. The Delta and Pine Land Co. plantation near Scott is one of the largest cotton plantations in the United States. At Greenwood is the Florewood River Plantation, a museum recreating 19th-century plantation life. The Mississippi State Fair is held annually in Jackson during the second week in October. Natchez Trace Parkway is a scenic route, running 444 mi (740 km) from Natchez, Mississippi, to Nashville, Tennessee. Among the tourist attractions along this route is the Emerald Mound, the second-largest Indian ceremonial earthwork. The city of Oxford was the home of William Faulkner and visitors can tour his former home, Rowan Oak. Although Memphis, Tennessee, is the site of Elvis Presley's home (Graceland), Tupelo is the site of his birthplace. As of 2006, many attractions had not yet recovered from the damage caused by Hurricane Katrina in 2005.

National parks include the Natchez Trace Parkway, Gulf Islands National Seashore, and Vicksburg National Military Park. There are also 6 national forests and 24 state parks.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Mississippi. There are minor league hockey teams in Biloxi and Jackson. The University of Mississippi has long been prominent in college football. "Ole Miss" teams won the Sugar Bowl in 1958, 1960, 1961, 1963, and 1970, and the Cotton Bowl in 1956. The Rebels play in the Southeastern Conference, as do the Mississippi State Bulldogs. Southern Mississippi is a member of Conference USA.

Other annual sporting events of interest include the Dixie National Livestock Show and Rodeo, held in Jackson in February, and the Southern Farm Bureau Classic, held in Madison in October and November.

Football greats Walter Payton and Jerry Rice, along with boxing legend Archie Moore, were born and raised in Mississippi.

49 FAMOUS MISSISSIPPIANS

Mississippi's most famous political figure, Jefferson Davis (b.Kentucky, 1808–89), came to the state as a very young child, was educated at West Point, and served in the US Army from 1828 to 1835. He resigned a seat in Congress in 1846 to enter the Mexican War from which he returned home a hero after leading his

famous regiment, the 1st Mississippi Rifles, at the Battle of Buena Vista, Mexico. From 1853 to 1857, he served as secretary of war in the cabinet of President Franklin Pierce. Davis was representing Mississippi in the US Senate in 1861 when the state withdrew from the Union. In February 1861, he was chosen president of the Confederacy, an office he held until the defeat of the South in 1865. Imprisoned for two years after the Civil War (though never tried), Davis lived the last years of his life at Beauvoir, an estate on the Mississippi Gulf Coast given to him by an admirer. There he wrote *The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government*, completed eight years before his death in New Orleans.

Lucius Quintus Cincinnatus Lamar (b.Georgia, 1825–93) settled in Oxford in 1855 and only two years later was elected to the US House of Representatives. A supporter of secession, he served as Confederate minister to Russia in 1862. After the war, Lamar was the first Mississippi Democrat returned to the House; in 1877, he entered the US Senate. President Grover Cleveland made Lamar his secretary of the interior in 1885, later appointing him to the US Supreme Court. Lamar served as associate justice from 1888 until his death.

Some of the foremost authors of 20th-century America had their origins in Mississippi. Supreme among them is William Faulkner (1897–1962), whose literary career began in 1924 with the publication of *The Marble Faun*, a book of poems. His novels included such classics as *The Sound and the Fury* (1929), *Light in August* (1932), and *Absalom, Absalom!* (1936). Faulkner received two Pulitzer Prizes (one posthumously), and in 1949 was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature.

Richard Wright (1908–60), born near Natchez, spent his childhood years in Jackson. He moved to Memphis as a young man, and from there migrated to Chicago; he lived his last years in Paris. A powerful writer and a leading spokesman for the black Americans of his generation, Wright is best remembered for his novel *Native Son* (1940) and for *Black Boy* (1945), an autobiographical account of his Mississippi childhood.

Other native Mississippians of literary renown (and Pulitzer Prize winners) are Eudora Welty (1909–2001), Tennessee Williams (Thomas Lanier Williams, 1911–83), and playwright Beth Henley (b.1952). Welty's work, like Faulkner's, is set in Mississippi; her best-known novels include *Delta Wedding* (1946), *The Ponder Heart* (1954), and *Losing Battles* (1970). Although Tennessee Williams spent most of his life outside Mississippi, some of his most famous plays are set in the state. Other Mississippi authors are Hodding Carter (b.Louisiana, 1907–72), Shelby Foote (1916–2005), Walker Percy (b.Alabama, 1916–1990), and Willie Morris (1934–99).

Among the state's numerous musicians are William Grant Still (1895–1978), a composer and conductor, and Leontyne Price (Mary Leontine Price, b.1927), a distinguished opera singer. Famous blues singers are Charlie Patton (1887–1934), William Lee Conley "Big Bill" Broonzy (1898–1958), Howlin' Wolf (Chester Arthur Burnett, 1910–1976), Muddy Waters (McKinley Morganfield, 1915–83), John Lee Hooker (1917–2001), and Riley "B. B." King (b.1925). Mississippi's contributions to country music include Jimmie Rodgers (1897–1933), Conway Twitty (1933–1994), and Charley Pride (b.1939). Elvis Presley (1935–77), born in Tupelo, was one of the most popular entertainers in US history.

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MISSOURI

State of Missouri

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Probably derived from the Iliniwek Indian word *missouri*, meaning “owners of big canoes.” **NICKNAME:** The Show Me State. **CAPITAL:** Jefferson City. **ENTERED UNION:** 10 August 1821 (24th). **SONG:** “Missouri Waltz.” **MOTTO:** *Salus populi suprema lex esto* (The welfare of the people shall be the supreme law). **COAT OF ARMS:** Two grizzly bears stand on a scroll inscribed with the state motto and support a shield portraying an American eagle and a constellation of stars, a grizzly bear on all fours, and a crescent moon, all encircled by the words “United We Stand, Divided We Fall.” Above are a six-barred helmet and 24 stars; below is the roman numeral MDCCCXX (1820), when Missouri’s first constitution was adopted. **FLAG:** Three horizontal stripes of red, white, and blue, with the coat of arms encircled by 24 white stars on a blue band in the center. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms is surrounded by the words “The Great Seal of the State of Missouri.” **BIRD:** Bluebird. **FLOWER:** White Hawthorn blossom. **TREE:** Flowering dogwood. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln’s Birthday, 12 February; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Harry S. Truman’s Birthday, 8 May; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. Though not a legal holiday, Missouri Day, the 3rd Wednesday in October, is commemorated in schools each year. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the western north-central United States, Missouri ranks 19th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Missouri is 69,697 sq mi (180,516 sq km), of which land takes up 68,945 sq mi (178,568 sq km) and inland water 752 sq mi (1,948 sq km). Missouri extends 284 mi (457 km) E-W; its greatest N-S extension is 308 mi (496 km).

Missouri is bounded on the N by Iowa (with the line in the extreme NE defined by the Des Moines River); on the E by Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee (with the line passing through the Mississippi River); on the S by Arkansas (with a “boot heel” in the SE bounded by the Mississippi and St. Francis rivers); and on the W by Oklahoma, Kansas, and Nebraska (the line in the NW being formed by the Missouri River).

The total boundary length of Missouri is 1,438 mi (2,314 km). The state’s geographic center is in Miller County, 20 mi (32 km) SW of Jefferson City.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Missouri is divided into four major land regions. The Dissected Till Plains, lying north of the Missouri River and forming part of the Central Plains region of the United States, comprise rolling hills, open fertile flatlands, and well-watered prairie. The Osage Plains cover the western part of the state, their flat prairie monotony broken by low rounded hills. The Mississippi Alluvial Plain, in the southeastern corner, is made up of fertile black lowlands whose floodplain belts represent both the present and former

courses of the Mississippi River. The Ozark Plateau, which comprises most of southern Missouri and extends into northern Arkansas and northeastern Oklahoma, constitutes the state’s largest single region. The Ozarks contain Taum Sauk Mountain, at 1,772 ft (540 m) the highest elevation in the state. Along the St. Francis River, near Cardwell, is the state’s lowest point, 230 ft (70 m). The mean elevation is approximately 800 ft (244 m).

Including a frontage of at least 500 mi (800 km) along the Mississippi River, Missouri has more than 1,000 mi (1,600 km) of navigable waterways. The Mississippi and Missouri rivers, the two largest in the United States, respectively form the state’s eastern border and part of its western border; Kansas City is located at the point where the Missouri bends eastward to cross the state, while St. Louis developed below the junction of the two great waterways. The White, Grand, Chariton, St. Francis, Current, and Osage are among the state’s other major rivers. The largest lake is the artificial Lake of the Ozarks, covering a total of 93 sq mi (241 sq km).

Missouri’s exceptional number of caves and caverns were formed during the last 50 million years through the erosion of limestone and dolomite by melting snows bearing vegetable acids. Coal, lead, and zinc deposits date from the Pennsylvanian era, beginning some 250 million years ago. The Mississippi Valley area is geologically active: massive earthquakes during 1811 and 1812 devastated the New Madrid area of the southeast.

³ CLIMATE

Missouri has a continental climate, but with considerable local and regional variation. The average annual temperature is 50°F

(10°C) in the northwest, but about 60°F (16°C) in the southeast. Kansas City has an average temperature of 56°F (13°C), ranging from 30°F (-1°C) in January to 80°F (26°C) in July; St. Louis has an annual average of 56°F (13°C) with 30°F (-1°C) in January and 79°F (26°C) in July.

The coldest temperature ever recorded in Missouri was -40°F (-40°C), set at Warsaw on 13 February 1905; the hottest, 118°F (48°C), at Warsaw and Union on 14 July 1954. A 1980 heat wave caused 311 heat-related deaths in Missouri, the highest toll in the country; most were elderly residents of St. Louis and Kansas City. Fifty-one more heat-related deaths occurred in St. Louis during a 1983 heat wave.

The average annual precipitation for Kansas City is about 36 in (100 cm), with some rain or snow falling about 110 days a year. The heaviest precipitation is in the southeast, averaging 48 in (122 cm); the northwest usually receives 35 in (89 cm) yearly. Snowfall averages 20 in (51 cm) in the north, 10 in (25 cm) in the southeast. During the winter, northwest winds prevail; the air movement is largely from the south and southeast during the rest of the year. Springtime is the peak tornado season.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Representative trees of Missouri include the shortleaf pine, scarlet oak, smoke tree, pecan (*Carya illinoensis*), and peachleaf willow, along with species of tupelo, cottonwood, cypress, cedar, and dogwood (the state tree). American holly, which once flourished in the southeastern woodlands, is now considered rare; various types of wild grasses proliferate in the northern plains region. Missouri's state flower is the hawthorn blossom; other wild flowers include Queen Anne's lace, meadow rose, and white snakeroot. Showy and small white lady's slipper, green adder's-mouth, purslane, corn salad, dotted monard, and prairie white-fringed orchid are rare in Missouri. Among the eight threatened or endangered plants listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service in 2006 were the decurrent false aster, running buffalo clover, pondberry, Missouri bladderpod, and western prairie fringed orchid.

Indigenous mammals are the common cottontail, muskrat, white-tailed deer, and gray and red foxes. The state bird is the bluebird; other common birds are the cardinal, solitary vireo, and the prothonotary warbler. Wetlands covering about 1.4% of the state are important wintering grounds for hundreds of thousands of migratory birds and waterfowl, including the endangered bald eagle. A characteristic amphibian is the plains leopard frog; native snakes include garter, ribbon, and copperhead. Bass, carp, perch, jack salmon (walleye), and crayfish abound in Missouri's waters. The chigger, a minute insect, is a notorious pest.

In 2006, 17 species of animals (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in Missouri, including three species of bat (Ozark big-eared, gray, and Indiana), pallid sturgeon, gray wolf, and three varieties of mussel.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Missouri's first conservation law, enacted in 1874, provided for a closed hunting season on deer and certain game birds. In 1936, the state established a Conservation Commission to protect the state's wildlife and forest resources. Missouri's Department of Conservation manages the state forests and fish hatcheries and maintains wildlife refuges and the Department of Natural Resources is re-

sponsible for state parks, energy conservation, and environmental quality programs, including air pollution control, water purification, land reclamation, soil and water conservation, and solid and hazardous waste management. The State Environmental Improvement and Energy Resources Authority, within the Department of Natural Resources, is empowered to offer financial aid to any individual, business, institution, or governmental unit seeking to meet pollution control responsibilities.

An important environmental problem is soil erosion; the state loses 71 million tons of topsoil each year. Residents approved a 0.1% sales tax in 1984 and 1988 to create a fund to address this problem. As of 1982, 42 sites in Missouri were found to have unsafe concentrations of dioxin, a highly toxic by-product of hexachlorophene, manufactured in a Verona chemical plant; in that year, an evacuation was begun (completed in 1985) of the 2,000 residents of Times Beach, a community 30 mi (48 km) west of St. Louis that was declared a federal disaster area. St. Louis ranked high among US cities for the quantities of lead and suspended particles found in the atmosphere, but conditions improved between the mid-1970s and early 1980s. In 2003, 102.5 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

In 2003, Missouri had 503 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 26 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 1996, it had 643,000 acres (260,000 hectares) of wetlands, or about 1.4% of the state's lands. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$11.9 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$12 million for the drinking water state revolving fund, plus an addition \$12 million grant for other safe drinking water projects.

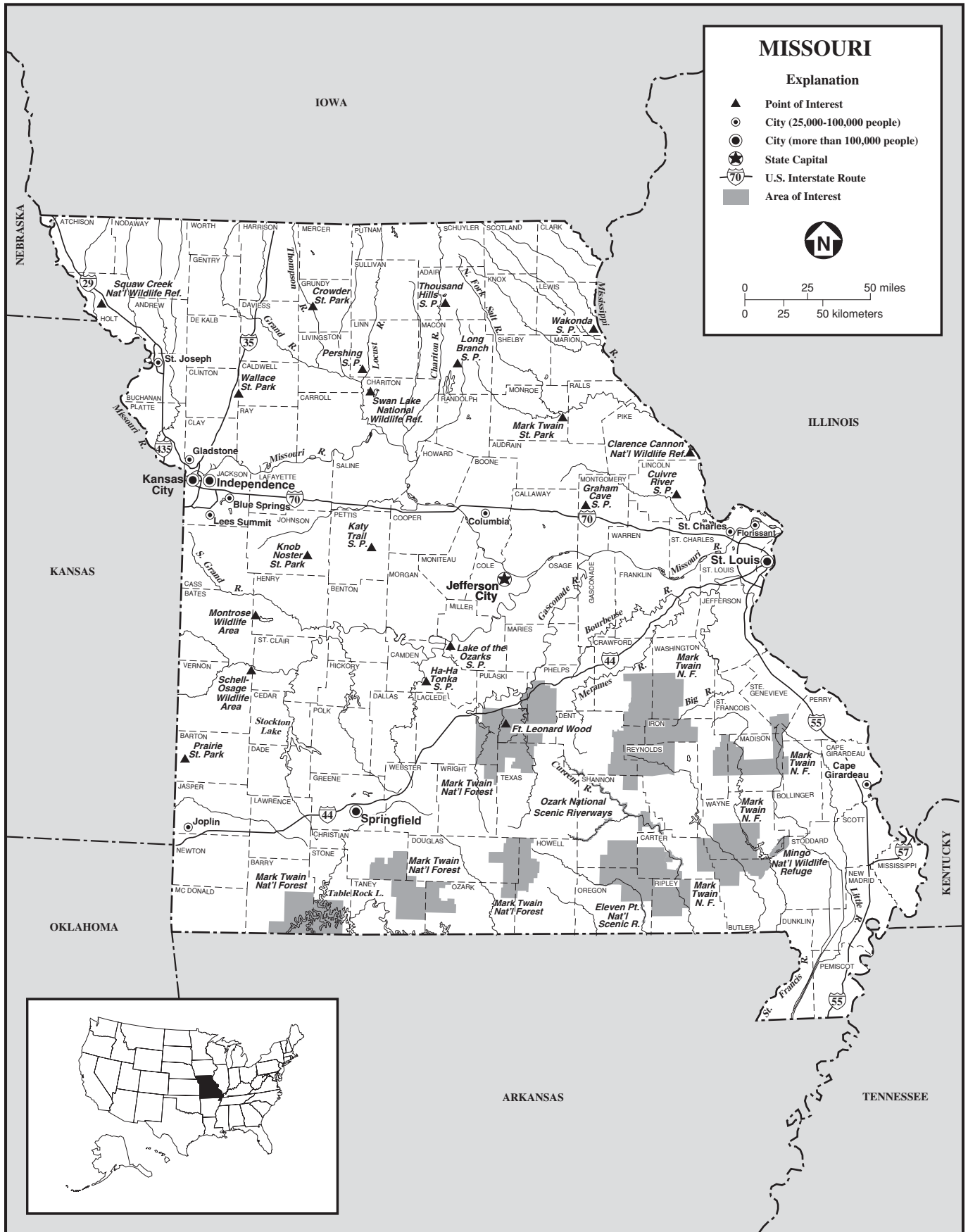
6 POPULATION

Missouri ranked 18th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 5,800,310 in 2005, an increase of 3.6% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Missouri's population grew from 5,117,073 to 5,595,211, an increase of 9%. The population is projected to reach 6 million by 2015 and 6.3 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 83.5 persons per sq mi.

In 1830, the first year in which Missouri was enumerated as a state, the population was 140,455. Missouri's population just about doubled each decade until 1860, when the growth rate subsided; the population surpassed the 2 million mark at the 1880 census, 3 million in 1900 (when it ranked fifth in the United States), and 4 million during the early 1950s.

In 2004, the median age for Missourians was 37.3. In the same year, 24.1% of the on under age 18 while 13.3% was age 65 or older.

More than half of all Missourians live in urban areas. The largest cities and their estimated 2004 populations are Kansas City, 444,387, and St. Louis, 343,279—both well below the 1980 figures. The St. Louis metropolitan area, embracing parts of Missouri and Illinois, comprised an estimated 2,764,054 people in 2004 while metropolitan Kansas City, in Missouri and Kansas, had a population of 1,925,319.



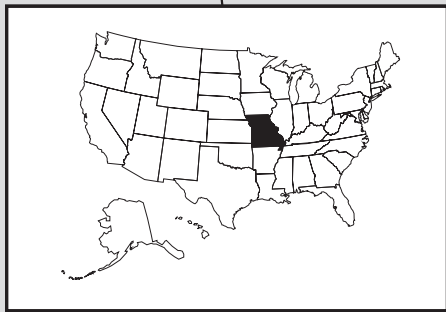
MISSOURI

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 70 U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



0 25 50 miles
 0 25 50 kilometers



⁷ETHNIC GROUPS

After the flatboat and French traders and settlers had made possible the earliest development of Missouri and its Mississippi shore, the river steamer, the Civil War, the Homestead Act (1862), and the railroad changed the character of the state ethnically as well as economically. Germans came in large numbers, developing small diversified industries, and they were followed by Czechs and Italians. The foreign-born numbered 151,196 in 2000, up from 83,633 in 1990.

Black Americans have represented a rising proportion of Missouri's population in recent decades: 9% in 1960, 10.3% in 1970, 10.5% in 1980, 10.7% in 1990, 11.2% in 2000, and 11.5% in 2004. Kansas City's black community supported a flourishing jazz and urban blues culture between the two world wars, while St. Louis was the home of Scott Joplin and W. C. Handy in the early years of the 20th century. Of the 629,391 black residents of Missouri in 2000, 178,266 lived in St. Louis, which was 51.2% black. In 2000 Missouri also had 118,592 Hispanics and Latinos, nearly double the 1990 figure of 62,000, and including 77,887 of Mexican ancestry. In 2004, 2.6% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. The total Asian population as of 2000 was 61,595; in that year there were 13,667 Chinese, 7,735 Filipinos, 6,767 Koreans, 3,337 Japanese, and 12,169 Vietnamese (triple the 1990 figure of 4,030). Pacific Islanders numbered 3,178. In 2004, 1.3% of the population was Asian, and 0.1% of Pacific Island origin.

Only a few American Indians remained in Missouri after 1836. The 2000 census showed an Indian population of 25,076. The state has no Indian reservations. In 2004, 0.5% of the population was American Indian.

Of those claiming descent from at least one specific ancestry group in 2000, 1,313,951 named German, 528,935 English, and 711,995 Irish.

⁸LANGUAGES

White pioneers found Missouri Indians in the northern part of what is now Missouri Osage in the central portion, and Quapaw in the south. Long after these tribes' removal to Indian Territory, only a few place-names echo their heritage: Missouri itself, Kahoka, Wappapello.

Four westward-flowing language streams met and partly merged in Missouri. Northern and North Midland speakers settled north of the Missouri River and in the western border counties, bringing their Northern *pail* and *sick to the stomach* and their North Midland *fishworm* (earthworm), *gunnysack* (burlap bag), and *sick at the stomach*. But *sick in the stomach* occurs along the Missouri River from St. Louis to Kansas City and along the Mississippi south of St. Louis. South of the Missouri River, and notably in the Ozark Highlands, South Midland dominates, though with a few Southern forms, especially in the cotton-growing floodplain of the extreme southeast. *Wait on* (wait for), *light bread* (white bread), and *pullybone* (wishbone) are critical dialect markers for this area, as are *redworm* (earthworm), *towsack* (burlap bag), *snap beans* (string beans), *how* and *now* sounding like /haow/ and /naow/, and Missouri ending with the vowel of *me* rather than the final vowel of /uh/ heard north of the Missouri. In the extreme southeast are Southern *loafbread*, *grass sack* (burlap bag), and *cold*

drink as a term for a soft drink. In the eastern half of the state, a soft drink is generally *soda* or *sody*; in the western half, *pop*.

In 2000, 94.9% of state residents five years old or older spoke only English at home, down from 96% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	5,226,022	100.0
Speak only English	4,961,741	94.9
Speak a language other than English	264,281	5.1
Speak a language other than English	264,281	5.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	110,752	2.1
German	30,680	0.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	30,680	0.4
Chinese	11,631	0.2
Vietnamese	9,420	0.2
Serbo-Croatian	8,350	0.2
Italian	6,710	0.1
Russian	5,469	0.1
Arabic	5,137	0.1
African languages	5,117	0.1
Other West Germanic languages	4,822	0.1
Korean	4,753	0.1
Tagalog	4,645	0.1

⁹RELIGIONS

Beginning in the late 17th century, French missionaries brought Roman Catholicism to what is now Missouri; the first permanent Roman Catholic church was built about 1755 at St. Genevieve. Immigration from Germany, Ireland, Italy, and Eastern Europe swelled the Catholic population during the 19th century and Roman Catholicism remains the largest single Christian denomination, though the Evangelical Protestants collectively outnumber Catholics. Baptist preachers crossed the Mississippi River into Missouri in the late 1790s, and the state's first Methodist church was organized about 1806. Immigrants from Germany included not only Roman Catholics, but also many Lutherans, the most conservative of whom organized the Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod in 1847.

In 2004, Missouri had 844,102 Roman Catholics; with 550,000 belonging to the archdiocese of St. Louis. The next largest religious group is the Southern Baptist Convention, with 797,732 adherents in 2000 and 13,646 newly baptized members reported in 2002. The United Methodist Church had 176,022 members in 2004. In 2000, the Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod had 140,315 members and the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) had 105,583. The same year, the estimated number of Jews was 62,315 and Muslims numbered about 19,359. About 2.7 million people (48.3% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

The administrative offices of the Baptist Bible Fellowship International, along with its affiliated Baptist Bible College and Baptist Bible School of Theology, are located in Springfield. The world headquarters for the Fellowship of Christian Athletes and the international headquarters of the Church of the Nazarene are located in Kansas City.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Centrally located, Missouri is the leading US transportation center. Both St. Louis and Kansas City are hubs of rail, truck, and airline transportation.

In 1836, delegates from 11 counties met in St. Louis to recommend construction of two railroad lines and to petition Congress for a grant of 800,000 acres (324,000 hectares) of public land on which to build them. More than a dozen companies were incorporated by the legislature, but they all collapsed with the financial panic of 1837. Interest in railroad construction revived during the following decade, and in 1849 a national railroad convention was held in St. Louis at which nearly 1,000 delegates from 13 states recommended the construction of a transcontinental railroad. By 1851, three railroad lines had been chartered, and construction by the Pacific Railroad at St. Louis was under way. The Pacific line reached Kansas City in 1865, and a bridge built over the Missouri River four years later enabled Kansas City to link up with the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, providing a freight route to Chicago that did not pass through St. Louis. In 2003, there were 4,791 rail mi (7,713 km) of track within the state, including 4,087 rail mi (6,580 km) of Class I track. In 2006, Amtrak provided passenger train service running directly from Chicago to St. Louis and to Kansas City, en route to San Antonio and Los Angeles, to 11 stations in Missouri.

The first road developed in colonial Missouri was probably a trail between the lead mines and Ste. Genevieve in the early 1700s. A two-level cantilever bridge—the first in the world to have a steel superstructure—spanning the Mississippi at St. Louis was dedicated on 4 July 1874. By 1940, no place in Missouri was more than 10 mi (16 km) from a highway. In 2004, there were 125,923 mi (202,736 km) of public roads in Missouri. The main interstate highways were: I-70, linking St. Louis with Kansas City; I-44, connecting St. Louis with Springfield and Joplin; I-55, linking St. Louis with Chicago, Illinois, to the north and paralleling the course of the Mississippi between St. Louis and Memphis, Tennessee; I-35, connecting Kansas City with Des Moines, Iowa; and I-29, paralleling the Missouri River north of Kansas City. Motor vehicle registration for the state in 2004 totaled some 4.855 million vehicles of all types, including 2.690 million passenger cars, 2.084 million trucks of all types, and 4,000 buses. In that same year, there were 4,047,652 licensed drivers in the state.

The Mississippi and Missouri rivers have long been important transportation routes. Pirogues, keelboats, and flatboats plied these waterways for more than a century before the first steamboat, the *New Orleans*, traveled down the Mississippi in 1811. The Mississippi still serves considerable barge traffic, making metropolitan St. Louis an active inland port area, with 33.386 million tons of cargo handled in 2004. For that same year, Missouri had 1,033 mi (1,663 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 34.050 million tons.

Pioneering aviators in Missouri organized the first international balloon races in 1907 and the first US-sponsored international aviation meet in 1910. Five St. Louis pilots made up the earliest US Army air corps, and a barnstorming pilot named Charles A. Lindbergh, having spent a few years in the St. Louis area, had the backing of businessmen from that city when he flew his *Spirit of St. Louis* across the Atlantic in 1927. In 2005, Missouri had a total of 539 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This in-

cluded 404 airports, 129 heliports, 2 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and four seaplane bases. Kansas City International Airport and Lambert-St. Louis International Airport are the state's most important airports. In 2004, Kansas City International had 5,040,595 enplanements, while Lambert-St. Louis International had 6,377,628 enplanements that same year, making them the 39th- and 34th-busiest airports in the United States, respectively.

11 HISTORY

The region we now call Missouri has been inhabited for at least 4,000 years. The prehistoric Woodland peoples left low burial mounds, rudimentary pottery, arrowheads, and grooved axes; remains of the later Mississippian Culture include more sophisticated pottery and finely chipped arrowheads. When the first Europeans arrived in the late 17th century, most of the few thousand Indians living in Missouri were relatively recent immigrants, pushed westward across the Mississippi River because of pressures from eastern tribes and European settlers along the Atlantic coast. Indians then occupying Missouri belonged to two main linguistic groups: Algonkian-speakers, mainly the Sauk, Fox, and Illiniwek (Illinois) in the northeast; and a Siouan group, including the Osage, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, and other tribes, to the south and west. Of greatest interest to the Europeans were the Osage, among whom were warriors and runners of extraordinary ability. The flood of white settlers into Missouri after 1803 forced the Indians to move into Kansas and into what became known as Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma). During the 1820s, the US government negotiated treaties with the Osage, Sauk, Fox, and Iowa tribes whereby they surrendered, for the most part peaceably, all their lands in Missouri. By 1836, few Indians remained.

The first white men to pass through land eventually included within Missouri's boundaries apparently were Jacques Marquette and Louis Joliet, who in 1673 passed the mouth of the Missouri River on their journey down the Mississippi; so did Robert Cavellier, Sieur de la Salle, who claimed the entire Mississippi Valley for France in 1682. Probably the first Frenchman to explore the Missouri River was Louis Armand de Lom d'Arce, Baron de Lahontan, who in 1688 claimed to have reached the junction of the Missouri and Osage rivers. The French did little to develop the Missouri region during the first half of the 18th century, although a few fur traders and priests established posts and missions among the Indians. A false report that silver had been discovered set off a brief mining boom in which no silver but some lead—available in abundance—was extracted. Missouri passed into Spanish hands with the rest of the Louisiana Territory in 1762, but development was still guided by French settlers; in 1764, the French fur trader Pierre Laclède established a trading post on the present site of St. Louis.

Although Spain fortified St. Louis and a few other outposts during the American Revolution and beat back a British-Indian attack on St. Louis in 1780, the Spanish did not attempt to settle Missouri. However, they did allow Americans to migrate freely into the territory. Spanish authorities granted free land to the new settlers, relaxed their restrictions against Protestants, and welcomed slaveholding families from southern states—especially important after 1787, when slavery was banned in the Northwest Territory. Pioneers such as Daniel Boone arrived from Kentucky, and the Chouteau fur-trading family gained a lucrative monopoly among

the Osage. Spanish rule ended abruptly in 1800 when Napoleon forced Spain to return Louisiana to France. Included in the Louisiana Purchase, Missouri then became part of the United States in 1803. After the Lewis and Clark expedition (1804–06) had successfully explored the Missouri River, Missouri in general—and St. Louis in particular—became the gateway to the West.

Missouri was part of the Louisiana Territory (with headquarters at St. Louis) until 1 October 1812, when the Missouri Territory (including present-day Arkansas, organized separately in 1819) was established. A flood of settlers between 1810 and 1820 more than tripled Missouri's population from 19,783 to 66,586, leading Missourians to petition the US Congress for statehood as early as 1818. But Congress, divided over the slavery issue, withheld permission for three years, finally approving statehood for Maine and Missouri under the terms of the Missouri Compromise (1820), which sanctioned slavery in the new state but banned it in the rest of the former Louisiana Territory north of Arkansas. Congress further required that Missouri make no effort to enforce a state constitutional ban on the immigration of free Negroes and mulattos; once the legislature complied, Missouri became the 24th state on 10 August 1821. Alexander McNair became the state's first governor and Thomas Hart Benton was one of the state's first two US senators; Benton remained an important political leader for more than three decades.

Aided by the advent of steamboat travel on the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, settlers continued to arrive in the new state, whose population surpassed 1 million by 1860. The site for a new capital, Jefferson City, was selected in 1821, and five years later the legislature met there for the first time. French fur traders settled the present site of Kansas City in 1821 and established a trading post at St. Joseph in 1827. Mormons came to Independence during the early 1830s but were expelled from the state and crossed the Mississippi back into Illinois. For much of the antebellum period, the state's economy flourished, with an emphasis on cotton, cattle, minerals (especially lead and zinc), and commerce—notably the outfitting of wagon trains for the Santa Fe and Oregon trails. On the eve of the Civil War, more than half the population consisted of Missouri natives; 15% of the white population was foreign-born, chiefly German and Irish. Black slaves represented only 9% of the total population—the lowest proportion of any slave state except Delaware—while only about 25,000 Missourians were slave holders. Nevertheless, there was a great deal of proslavery sentiment in the state, and thousands of Missourians crossed into neighboring Kansas in the mid-1850s to help elect a proslavery government in that territory. State residents were also active in the guerrilla warfare between proslavery forces and Free Staters that erupted along the border with “bleeding Kansas.” The slavery controversy was exacerbated by the US Supreme Court's 1857 decision in the case of *Dred Scott*, a slave formerly owned by a Missourian who had temporarily brought him to what is now Minnesota, where slavery was prohibited; Scott's suit to obtain his freedom was denied by the Court on the grounds that it was unconstitutional to restrict the property rights of slave holders, in a decision that voided the Missouri Compromise reached 37 years earlier.

During the Civil War, Missouri remained loyal to the Union, though not without difficulty. When the conflict began, Governor Claiborne Fox Jackson called out the state militia “to repel the invasion” of federal forces, but pro-Union leaders such as Francis

P. Blair deposed Jackson on 30 July 1861. Missouri supplied some 110,000 soldiers to the Union and 40,000 to the Confederacy. As devastating as the 1,162 battles or skirmishes fought on Missouri soil—more than in any other state except Virginia and Tennessee—was the general lawlessness that prevailed throughout the state; pro-Confederate guerrilla bands led by William Quantrill and Cole Younger, as well as Unionist freebooters, murdered and looted without hindrance. In October 1864, a Confederate army under Maj. Gen. Sterling Price was defeated at the Battle of Westport, on the outskirts of Kansas City, ending the main military action. Some 27,000 Missourians were killed during the war. At a constitutional convention held in January 1865, Missouri became the first slave state to free all blacks.

During Reconstruction, the Radical Republicans sought to disfranchise all citizens who failed to swear that they had never aided or sympathized with the Confederacy. But the harshness of this and other measures caused a backlash, and Liberal Republicans such as Benjamin Gratz Brown and Carl Schurz, allied with the Democrats, succeeded in ousting the Radicals by 1872. The subsequent decline of the Liberal Republicans inaugurated a period during which Democrats occupied the governorship uninterruptedly for more than three decades.

The 1870s saw a period of renewed lawlessness, typified by the exploits of Jesse and Frank James, which earned Missouri the epithet of the “robber state.” Of more lasting importance were the closing of the frontier in Missouri, the decline of the fur trade and steamboat traffic, and the rise of the railroads, shifting the market economy from St. Louis to Kansas City, whose population tripled during the 1880s, while St. Louis was eclipsed by Chicago as a center of finance, commerce, transportation, and population. Missouri farmers generally supported the movement for free silver coinage, along with other Populist policies such as railroad regulation. Reform Governor Joseph W. Folk (1905–09) and his immediate successors in the statehouse, Herbert S. Hadley (1909–13) and Elliott W. Major (1913–17), introduced progressive policies to Missouri. However, the ideal of honest government was soon subverted by Kansas City's corrupt political machine, under Thomas J. Pendergast, the most powerful Democrat in the state between the two world wars. Machine politics did not prevent capable politicians from rising to prominence—among them Harry S. Truman, Missouri's first and only (as of 2006) native son to serve in the nation's highest office.

The state's economy increasingly shifted from agriculture to industry, and Missouri's rural population declined from about three-fourths of the total in 1880 to less than one-third by 1970. Although the overall importance of mining declined, Missouri remained the world's top lead producer, and the state ranked as second only to Michigan in US automobile manufacturing. Postwar prosperity was threatened beginning in the 1960s by the deterioration of several cities, notably St. Louis, which lost 47% of its population between 1950 and 1980; both St. Louis and Kansas City subsequently undertook urban renewal programs to cope with the serious problems of air pollution, traffic congestion, crime, and substandard housing. During the early 1980s, millions of dollars in federal, state, and private funds were used to rehabilitate abandoned and dilapidated apartment buildings and houses.

Missouri was affected by the farm crisis of the 1980s, and many farms in the state failed. With the weakening of trade restric-

tions, the state's industries also suffered during this period. However, Missouri's economy improved in the 1990s, initially at a rate that outpaced much of the country. By 1999 the state's jobless rate had fallen below the national average to 3.4%. Due largely to the weak US economy in the early 2000s, Missouri's unemployment rate rose to 5.8% by July 2003, albeit below the national average of 6.2%. However, from September 2004 to September 2005, the state's unemployment rate declined from 5.9% to 4.8%, when it stood below the national average of 5.1%.

Times Beach and other parts of the state were found to be contaminated by high levels of dioxin in the early 1980s. The federal government purchased the homes and businesses that had to be abandoned by community residents and in 1991 began a several-year cleanup program; in 1999 a state park opened there.

In the spring and summer of 1993, Missouri was hit by devastating floods. The Illinois, Mississippi, and Missouri rivers reached record crests, rising in some areas to twice the height considered to be flood level. Over half the state was declared a disaster area, and 19,000 people were evacuated from their homes. Damage to the state was estimated at \$3 billion.

In 2000, the state's popular governor, Mel Carnahan, died in a plane crash while running for the US Senate. He was replaced by Democrat Bob Holden, who became the first governor to appoint a state head of homeland security following the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States. In 2003, Missouri legislators adopted a measure requiring women seeking abortions to consult a doctor and comply with a 24-hour waiting period. Holden vetoed the measure, but both houses of the Missouri legislature voted to override his veto, making the measure law. Twenty-two states as of 2006 had enacted 24-hour waiting periods for abortions. (Indiana's waiting period is 18 hours.)

Republican Matt Blunt was elected governor in November 2004. He campaigned on a platform pledging to make education the state's top priority, to reform the state's social welfare programs, to

address the state's health care crisis, to improve the entrepreneurial climate, and to hold the line on taxes.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Missouri's first constitutional convention met in St. Louis on 12 May 1820, and on 19 July a constitution was adopted. The constitution was rewritten in 1865 and again in 1875, the latter document remaining in effect until 1945, when another new constitution was enacted and the state government reorganized. A subsequent reorganization, effective 1 July 1974, replaced some 90 independent agencies with 13 cabinet departments and the Office of Administration. The 1945 constitution is still in effect today, with a total of 105 amendments through January 2005.

The legislative branch, or General Assembly, consists of a 34-member Senate and a 163-seat House of Representatives. Annual sessions begin in early January and must conclude by 30 May. Special sessions may be called by petition of three-quarters of the members of each house; such sessions are limited to 30 calendar days. Senators are elected to staggered four-year terms, representatives for two; the minimum age for a senator is 30, for a representative 24. Legislators must have been residents of their districts for one year prior to election; senators must have been qualified voters for a minimum of three years, representatives a minimum of two years. The legislative salary was \$31,351 in 2004.

The state's elected executives are the governor and lieutenant governor (who run separately), secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, and attorney general; all serve four-year terms. The governor is limited to two terms in office, consecutive or not. The governor must be at least 30 years old and must have been a US citizen for 15 years and a Missouri resident for 10 years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$120,087.

A bill becomes law when signed or not vetoed by the governor within 15 days of legislative passage. A two-thirds vote by the elected members of both houses is required to override a gu-

Missouri Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MISSOURI WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST
1948	15	*Truman (D)	917,315	655,039	3,998	2,222
1952	13	*Eisenhower (R)	929,830	959,429	—	—
1956	13	Stevenson (D)	918,273	914,289	—	—
1960	13	*Kennedy (D)	972,201	962,218	—	—
1964	12	*Johnson (D)	1,164,344	653,535	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.	
1968	12	*Nixon (R)	791,444	811,932	206,126	—
1972	12	*Nixon (R)	698,531	1,154,058	—	—
1976	12	*Carter (D)	998,387	927,443	—	—
					LIBERTARIAN	SOC. WORKERS
1980	12	*Reagan (R)	931,182	1,074,181	14,422	1,515
1984	11	*Reagan (R)	848,583	1,274,188	—	—
						NEW ALLIANCE
1988	11	*Bush (R)	1,001,619	1,084,953	434	6,656
						IND. (Perot)
1992	11	*Clinton (D)	1,053,873	811,159	7,497	518,741
1996	11	*Clinton (D)	1,025,935	890,016	10,522	217,188
						GREEN
2000	11	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,111,138	1,189,924	7,436	38,515
						CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)
2004	11	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,259,171	1,455,713	9,831	5,355

*Won US presidential election.

bernatorial veto. The governor has 45 days to act on a bill if the House adjourns. If he fails to do so, the bill becomes law. Except for appropriations or emergency measures, laws may not take effect until 90 days after the end of the legislative session at which they were enacted. Constitutional amendments require a majority vote of both houses or may be proposed by 8% of the legal voters for all candidates at the last election. Ratification by the voters is required.

To vote in Missouri, one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a state resident. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The major political groups in Missouri are the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, each affiliated with the national party organization. Before 1825, the state had no organized political parties, and candidates ran as independents; however, each of Missouri's first four governors called himself a Jeffersonian Republican, allying himself with the national group from which the modern Democratic Party traces its origins. Except for the Civil War and Reconstruction periods, the Democratic Party held the governorship from the late 1820s to the early 1900s. Ten Democrats and seven Republicans served in the statehouse from 1908 through 1985. The outstanding figures of 20th century Missouri politics were both Democrats: Thomas Pendergast, the Kansas City machine boss whose commitment to construction projects bore no small relation to his involvement with a concrete manufacturing firm, and Harry S. Truman, who began his political career as a Jackson County judge in the Kansas City area and in 1945 became 33rd president of the United States.

After voting consistently for Republican presidential candidates in the 1980s, Missouri was carried by Democrat Bill Clinton in 1996. In the 2000 presidential election, Missourians once again voted Republican, with George W. Bush receiving 51% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 47%. Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 2% of the vote. In 2004, Bush garnered 53.4% to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 46.1%. In 2004 there were 4,194,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had 11 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

Democrat Mel Carnahan was reelected to the governorship in 1996. In October 2000, Carnahan was running for the US Senate against Republican John Ashcroft when he died in a plane crash with his son and a political aide. Carnahan was elected posthumously to the Senate in November, and his wife Jean accepted an appointment to his seat. She served until 2002, when she was defeated by former US Representative and Republican Jim Talent in an extremely close race. As of 2005, Missouri's US senators were both Republicans—Talent, and Christopher Bond, reelected in 2004. In 2004, Republican Matt Blunt was elected governor. Following the 2004 elections, four of the state's US representatives were Democrats and five were Republicans. In the state Senate in mid-2005, there were 11 Democrats and 23 Republicans; in the state House, there were 66 Democrats and 97 Republicans.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Missouri had 115 counties, 946 municipalities, 524 public school districts, and 1,514 special districts. In 2002 there were also 312 townships. Elected county officials generally include

commissioners, a public administrator, a prosecuting attorney, a sheriff, a collector of revenue, an assessor, a treasurer, and a coroner. The city of St. Louis, which is administratively independent of any county, has an elected mayor, a comptroller, and a board of aldermen; the circuit attorney, city treasurer, sheriff, and collector of revenue, also elected, perform functions analogous to county officers. Most other cities are governed by an elected mayor and council. The state was the first in the union to grant home rule to cities.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 226,571 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Missouri operates under executive order; a homeland security director is appointed to oversee the state's homeland security activities.

Under the 1974 reorganization plan, educational services are provided through the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and the Department of Higher Education. Within the former's jurisdiction are the state schools for the deaf, the blind, and the severely handicapped; adult education programs; teacher certification; and the general supervision of instruction in the state. The department is headed by a board of education whose eight members are appointed by the governor to eight-year terms; the board, in turn, appoints the commissioner of education, the department's chief executive officer. The Department of Higher Education—governed by a nine-member appointive board that selects the commissioner of higher education—sets financial guidelines for state colleges and universities, authorizes the establishment of new senior colleges and residency centers, and establishes academic, admissions, residency, and transfer policies. Transportation services are under the direction of the Department of Transportation, which is responsible for aviation, railroads, mass transit, water transport, and the state highway system. The Department of Revenue licenses all road vehicles and motor vehicle operators and is responsible for the administration of all state taxes and local-option sales taxes.

Health and welfare services are provided primarily through the Department of Social Services, which oversees all state programs concerning public health (including operating a chest hospital and a cancer hospital), public assistance, youth corrections, probation and parole, veterans' affairs, and the aging. The Department of Mental Health operates state mental hospitals, community mental health centers, and other facilities throughout the state, providing care for the emotionally disturbed, the developmentally disabled, alcoholics, and drug abusers. Among the many responsibilities of the Attorney General are consumer protection, enforcement of antidiscrimination laws, and agricultural and environmental issues. In 1984, a constitutional amendment created a new Department of Economic Development, which inherited many of the responsibilities of the Attorney General.

Administered within the Department of Public Safety are the Missouri State Highway Patrol, Emergency Management Agency, and civil defense, veterans' affairs, highway and water safety, and alcoholic beverage control programs. The Department of Labor and Industrial Relations (DOLIR) administers unemployment

insurance benefits, workers' compensation, and other programs. The Department of Corrections is responsible for corrections, probation, and parole of adult offenders. The Department of Agriculture enforces state laws regarding agribusiness products, and the Department of Conservation provides environmental aid. The lieutenant governor is designated as state ombudsman and volunteer coordinator.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Missouri Supreme Court, is the state's highest court. It consists of seven judges and three commissioners. Judges are selected by the governor from three nominees proposed by a nonpartisan judicial commission; after an interval of at least 12 months, the appointment must be ratified by the voters on a separate nonpartisan ballot. The justices, who serve 12-year terms, select one of their number to act as chief justice. The mandatory retirement age is 70 for all judges in state courts.

The Court of Appeals, consisting of 32 judges in three districts, assumed its present structure by constitutional amendment in 1970. All appellate judges are selected for 12-year terms in the same manner as the supreme court justices.

The circuit courts are the only trial courts and have original jurisdiction over all cases and matters, civil and municipal. Circuit court judges, numbering 135 in 1999, serve 6-year terms. Although many circuit court judges are still popularly elected, judges in St. Louis, Kansas City, and some other areas are selected on a nonpartisan basis. Many circuit courts have established municipal divisions, presided over by judges paid locally.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 31,081 prisoners were held in Missouri's state and federal prisons, a decrease of 2.6% (from 30,303) from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,507 inmates were female, up 12% (from 2,239) from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Missouri had an incarceration rate of 538 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Missouri in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 490.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 28,226 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 224,629 reported incidents or 3,903.5 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Missouri has a death penalty, of which lethal injection or lethal gas are the prescribed methods. However, the state law is unclear about who shall decide which method to use: the Director of the Missouri Department of Corrections; or the inmate. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 66 executions, 5 in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, Missouri had 53 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Missouri spent \$133,539,014 on homeland security, an average of \$23 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

Missouri has played a key role in national defense since World War II, partly because of the influence of Missouri native Stuart Symington, first as secretary of the Air Force (1947–50) and later as an influential member of the Senate Armed Services Committee. In 2004, there were 27,520 active-duty military personnel and 2,749 civilian personnel stationed in the state. Installations include Ft. Leonard Wood, near Rolla, and Whiteman AFB, Knob

Noster. The Defense Mapping Agency Aerospace Center is in St. Louis. Defense contract awards for 2004 totaled more than \$6.5 billion, ninth-highest in the United States for that year. In addition, there was another \$2.1 billion in defense payroll outlays, including retired military pay.

There were about 554,531 veterans living in the state as of 2003. Of these, 77,373 served in World War II; 65,882 in the Korean conflict; 169,346 during the Vietnam era; and 78,798 during the Persian Gulf War. Expenditures on veterans amounted to about \$1.6 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Missouri State Highway Patrol employed 1,070 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Missouri's first European immigrants, French fur traders and missionaries, began settling in the state in the early 18th century. Under Spain, Missouri received few Spanish settlers but many immigrants from the eastern United States. During the 19th century, newcomers continued to arrive from the South and the East—slave-owning Southerners (with their black slaves) as well as New Englanders opposed to slavery. They were joined by a wave of European immigrants, notably Germans and, later, Italians. By 1850, one out of three St. Louis residents was German-born; of all foreign-born Missourians in the late 1800s, more than half came from Germany.

The state has lost population through migration—322,000 people were lost to net migration between 1940 and 1970, followed by a net gain of 22,000 during the 1970s and a net loss of nearly 100,000 during the 1980s. Between 1990 and 1998, Missouri had net gains of 94,000 in domestic migration and 34,000 in international migration. In 1998, some 3,588 foreign immigrants arrived in the state. The dominant intrastate migration pattern has been the concentration of blacks in the major cities, especially St. Louis and Kansas City, and the exodus of whites from those cities, initially to the suburbs and later to small towns and rural areas. As of 1996, 82.4% of the population lived in metropolitan areas while 17.6% lived in non-metropolitan areas, up from 17.2% in 1990. Missouri's overall population increased 6.3% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 42,690 and net internal migration was 26,979, for a net gain of 69,669 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Commission on Interstate Cooperation, established by the state legislature in 1941, represents Missouri before the Council of State Governments and its allied organizations. Regional agreements in which the state participates include boundary compacts with Arkansas, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas, and various accords governing bridges across the Mississippi and Missouri rivers. The state is a signatory to the Bi-State Development Agency Compact with Illinois. Representatives from both Missouri and Kansas take part in the Kansas City Area Transportation Authority, which operates public transportation in the metropolitan region, the Metropolitan Culture District Compact, and the Kansas-Missouri Waterworks Compact. Missouri also belongs to the Southern States Energy Board, Southern Growth Policies Board, Midwest Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact Commission, and many other multistate bodies. Federal grants to state and lo-

cal governments in fiscal year 2005 amounted to \$7.045 billion, an estimated \$7.023 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$7.581 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Missouri's central location and access to the Mississippi River contributed to its growth as a commercial center. By the mid-1700s, the state's first permanent settlement at Ste. Genevieve was shipping lead, furs, salt, pork, lard, bacon, bear, grease, feathers, flour and grain, and other products to distant markets. The introduction of steamboat traffic on the Mississippi, western migration along the Santa Fe and Oregon trails, and the rise of the railroads spurred the growth of commerce during the 19th century. Flour mills and gristmills, breweries and whiskey distilleries, and meat-packing establishments were among the state's early industrial enterprises. Lead mining has been profitable since the early 19th century. Grain growing was well established by the mid-18th century, and tobacco was a leading crop 100 years later.

Missouri's economy remains diversified, with manufacturing, farming, trade, tourism, services, government, and mining as prime sources of income. Automobile and aerospace manufacturing are among the state's leading industries, while soybeans and meat and dairy products are the most important agricultural commodities. The state's historic past, varied topography, and modern urban attractions—notably the Gateway Arch in St. Louis—have made tourism a growth industry. Mining, employing less than 1% of the state's nonagricultural workers, is no longer as important as it once was. Missouri posted moderate growth rates in the late 1990s. Although manufacturing output has fallen, output from financial services, including insurance and real estate, have increased. In the first quarter of 2001, Missouri began losing jobs, four months ahead of the United States as a whole, with manufacturing accounting for 62% of the loss that year. Unemployment peaked at 5.4% in June 2002, but manufacturing unemployment has continued above 6%. Office vacancy rates in St. Louis and Kansas City in 2002 stood at 17.7% and 18.6%, respectively, above the national average of 16.5%. Missouri's farm sector was also afflicted by drought in 2002, which contributed to a 22% decrease in corn production and a 17% decrease in soybean production compared to 2001. Cattle production was also disrupted by the drought-induced shortages of hay and pasture. Stress on the farming sector persisted into the winter of 2002–03 as drought conditions continued.

Missouri's gross state product (GSP) was \$203.294 billion in 2004, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$31.481 billion, or 15.4% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$19.529 billion (9.6% of GSP), and health care and social assistance at \$15.149 billion (7.4% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 461,259 small businesses in Missouri. Of the 134,448 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 131,405 or 97.7% were small companies. An estimated 16,155 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 1.3% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 17,924, down 11.2% from 2003. There were 354 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 6.3% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 660 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Missouri 15th in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005, Missouri had a gross state product (GSP) of \$216 billion, which accounted for 1.7% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state 20th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Missouri had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$30,475. This ranked Missouri 31st in the United States and was 92% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.9%. Missouri had a total personal income (TPI) of \$175,524,474,000, which ranked 20th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.7%. Earnings of persons employed in Missouri increased from \$128,893,590,000 in 2003 to \$135,403,221,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.1% compared with 6.3% for the nation as a whole.

The US Census Bureau reported that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$43,988 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.9% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Missouri numbered 3,057,200, with approximately 141,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,757,500. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Missouri was 10.5% in April 1983. The historical low was 2.6% in January 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.2% of the labor force was employed in construction; 11% in manufacturing; 19.8% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6% in financial activities; 11.7% in professional and business services; 13.5% in education and health services; 10% in leisure and hospitality services; and 15.6% in government.

As early as the 1830s, journeyman laborers and mechanics in St. Louis, seeking higher wages and shorter hours, banded together to form trade unions and achieved some of their demands. Attempts to establish a workingman's party were unsuccessful, however, and immigration during subsequent decades ensured a plentiful supply of cheap labor. Union activity increased in the 1870s, partly because of the influence of German socialists. The Knights of Labor took a leading role in the labor movement from 1879 to 1887, the year that saw the birth of the St. Louis Trades and Labor Assembly; one year later, the American Federation of Labor came to St. Louis for its third annual convention, with Samuel Gompers presiding. The Missouri State Federation of Labor was formed in 1891, at a convention in Kansas City. By 1916, the state had 915 unions. Union activity in Missouri declined in the 1990s and early 2000s.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 290,000 of Missouri's 2,532,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 11.5% of those so employed, down from 12.4%

in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 319,000 workers (12.6%) in Missouri were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Missouri was among the 28 states that did not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Missouri had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.9% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Missouri had 106,000 farms (second in the United States) covering 30.1 million acres (12.2 million hectares) in 2004. About 12.4 million acres (5 million hectares) were actually harvested that year. Missouri's agricultural income reached \$5.57 billion in 2005, 15th among the 50 states.

In 2004, Missouri was fourth among the states in grain sorghum production, fifth in soybean, and sixth in rice production. Soybean production is concentrated mainly in the northern counties and in the extreme southeast, with Mississippi County a leading producer. Stoddard County is a major source for corn and wheat production, as is New Madrid for grain sorghum.

The cash value of all crops totaled \$2.5 billion in 2005, including \$1.1 billion from soybeans, \$510 million from hay, \$887 million from corn, \$155 million from wheat, \$27 million from grain sorghum, and \$161.4 million from cotton. The value of rice production in 2004 was \$92.8 million. Farmers harvested 223.2 million bushels of soybeans, 466 million bushels of corn, 48.4 million bushels of wheat, 15.7 million bushels of grain sorghum, 820,000 bales of cotton, and 9.4 million tons of hay in 2004. That year, 13.2 million hundredweight (494.9 million kg) of rice was harvested. Tobacco, oats, rye, apples, peaches, grapes, watermelons, and various seed crops are also grown in commercial quantities.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In Missouri, hog raising is concentrated north of the Missouri River, cattle raising in the western counties, and dairy farming in the southwest.

In 2005, Missouri farms and ranches had an estimated 4.5 million cattle and calves, valued at \$3.8 billion. In 2004, there were around 2.9 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$246.5 million. During 2003, Missouri farmers produced 816.2 million lb (371 million kg) of turkey (ranked third in the nation), valued at around \$285.7 million. Also in 2003, poultry farmers produced 1.9 million eggs, valued at \$100 million. The state's 129,000 milk cows yielded nearly 1.9 million lb (0.86 million kg) of milk in 2003.

25 FISHING

Commercial fishing takes place mainly on the Mississippi, Missouri, and St. Francis rivers. In 2005, there were 24 catfish farms covering 1,320 acres (534 hectares), with sales of \$1.4 million in 2004. Sport fishing is enjoyed throughout the state, but especially in the Ozarks, whose waters harbor walleye, rainbow trout, bluegill, and largemouth bass. In 2004, Missouri issued 844,318 sport fishing licenses. The Neosho National Fish Hatchery stocks rainbow trout to Lake Taneycomo, as well as sites in Kansas and

Iowa. There are eleven state hatcheries, four of which include trout parks.

26 FORESTRY

At one time, Missouri's forests covered 30 million acres (12 million hectares), more than two-thirds of the state. As of 2004, Missouri had 15,010,000 acres (6,075,000 hectares) of forestland (about one-third of the land area in the state), of which more than 95% was commercial forest, 82% of it privately owned. Most of Missouri's forestland is in the southeastern third of the state. Of the commercial forests, approximately three-fourths are of the oak/hickory type; shortleaf pine and oak/pine forests comprise about 5%, while the remainder consists of cedar and bottomland hardwoods.

According to the Forestry Division of the Department of Conservation, Missouri leads the United States in the production of charcoal, red cedar novelties, gunstocks, and walnut bowls and nutmeats; railroad ties, hardwood veneer and lumber, wine and bourbon casks, and other forest-related items are also produced. Lumber production in 2004 totaled 575 million board feet, 97% of it hardwoods.

Conservation areas managed by the Forestry Division are used for timber production, wildlife and watershed protection, hunting, fishing, and other recreational purposes. A state-run nursery sells seedling trees and shrubs to Missouri landowners. Missouri's one national forest, Mark Twain in the southeast, encompassed 1,489,000 acres (603,000 hectares) of National Forest System lands as of 2005.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Missouri in 2003 was \$1.29 billion, an increase from 2002 of about 2%. The USGS data ranked Missouri as eighth among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for almost 3.5% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, by value and in descending order, crushed stone, portland cement, lead, and lime were the state's top nonfuel minerals. Collectively, these commodities accounted for almost 90% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. However, while lead ranked third among the state's top nonfuel minerals, by value of production, Missouri was the top lead-producing state in the United States, accounting for over 50% of the nation's output. The state was also ranked (by value) in 2003 as first in the production of lime and in fire clay, third in zinc and fuller's earth, fifth in crushed stone and portland cement, and sixth in silver.

According to the preliminary data, crushed stone production in 2003 totaled 73.3 million metric tons and was valued at \$381 million, while portland cement output that year totaled 5 million metric tons and was valued at \$350 million. Construction sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 10.2 million metric tons and was valued at \$43.4 million, while fire clay output stood at 340,000 metric tons, and had a value of \$7.36 million, according to the USGS data.

In 2003, Missouri was also an important producer of construction and industrial sand and gravel, common clays, masonry cement, and by value, gemstones.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Missouri had 137 electrical power service providers, of which 88 were publicly owned and 44 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, and one was an owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,918,563 retail customers. Of that total, 1,858,353 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 665,489 customers, while publicly owned providers had 394,720 customers. There was only one independent generator or "facility" customer.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 19,976 million kW, with total production that same year at 87.225 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 98.7% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 74.211 billion kWh (85.1%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 9.699 billion kWh (11.1%) and natural gas fueled plants in third at 2.624 billion kWh (3%). Other renewable power sources, hydroelectric and petroleum fueled plants accounting for the remainder.

As of 2006, Missouri had one operating nuclear power facility, the Callaway plant located in Callaway County.

Fossil fuel resources are limited. Reserves of bituminous coal totaled 6 billion short tons in 1998, but only a small portion (3 million short tons) was considered recoverable. In 2004, the state had three producing coal mines, all of them surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 578,000 short tons, up from 533,000 short tons in 2003. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

Small quantities of crude petroleum are also produced commercially. As of 2004, Missouri had proven crude oil reserves of less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 241 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 30th (29th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Missouri had 271 producing oil wells. There are no refineries in Missouri.

As of 2004, Missouri had no proven reserves or production of natural gas.

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Missouri's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$102.803 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$33.158 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$14.572 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$13.137 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$6.219 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$5.226 billion.

In 2004, a total of 302,906 people in Missouri were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 228,857 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees with 55,659 (46,554 actual production workers). It was followed by food manufacturing, with 37,306 (29,642 actual production

workers); machinery manufacturing, with 32,513 (21,676 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing, with 31,053 (22,690 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing, with 20,539 (15,510 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Missouri's manufacturing sector paid \$12.706 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$3.453 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$1.307 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.190 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.183 billion; and chemical manufacturing at \$798.137 billion.

30 COMMERCE

Missouri has been one of the nation's leading trade centers ever since merchants in Independence (now part of the Kansas City metropolitan area) began provisioning wagon trains for the Santa Fe Trail.

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Missouri's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$95.6 billion from 8,491 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 5,019 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,697 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 775 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$37.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$47.1 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$10.6 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Missouri was listed as having 23,837 retail establishments with sales of \$61.8 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (3,160); gasoline stations (3,136); miscellaneous store retailers (2,825); and clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,665). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$16.6 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$10.3 billion; food and beverage stores at \$7.1 billion; gasoline stations at \$6.8 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$5.3 billion. A total of 311,593 people were employed by the retail sector in Missouri that year.

Foreign exports of Missouri products exceeded \$10.4 billion in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Missouri Department of Insurance handles consumer complaints related to insurance matters. The office has a consumer services division that accepts complaints regarding violations of state insurance laws and regulations, unfair claim practices, advertising, and mandated benefits, policy language, and offers. The Attorney General's office has a Consumer Protection Division which investigates and prosecutes allegations of fraud in connection with the sale or offer for sale (advertising) of goods and services. The Office of the Public Counsel represents utility consumers in proceedings before and appeals from the Missouri Public Service Commission (PSC), which regulates the rates and services of utilities.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings;

represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the office cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

3² BANKING

The first banks in Missouri, the Bank of St. Louis (established in 1816) and the Bank of Missouri (1817), had both failed by the time Missouri became a state, and the paper notes they had distributed proved worthless. Not until 1837 did the Missouri state government again permit a bank within its borders, and then only after filling its charter with elaborate restrictions. The Bank of Missouri, chartered for 20 years, kept its reputation for sound banking by issuing notes bearing the portrait of US Senator Thomas Hart Benton, nicknamed "Old Bullion" because of his extreme fiscal conservatism.

As of June 2005, Missouri had 372 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 157 state-chartered and 14 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the St. Louis market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's bank deposits in 2004 at \$48.005 billion, while it ranked second in the number of financial institutions at 138. The Kansas City market area had the most financial institutions at 152, but ranked second in deposits at \$32.593 billion. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 8.2% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$8.372 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 91.8% or \$94.030 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the median past-due/nonaccrual loan level as a percentage of total loans stood at 1.37%, down from 1.66% in 2003, although in the fourth quarter 2005, the level rose to 1.59%. For the year 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.01%, up from 3.93% in 2003. In fourth quarter 2005, the median NIM rate was 4.07%.

Regulation of state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Department of Development's Division of Finance.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were over 3.5 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$242.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$420 billion. The average coverage amount is \$67,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$1.2 billion.

In 2003, 36 life and insurance companies were domiciled in Missouri, as were 49 property and casualty insurance companies. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance in Missouri totaled \$8.7 billion in 2001. That year, there were 22,397 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$2.6 billion. About \$484 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 56% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 26% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 12% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 17% for single coverage and 25% for family coverage. The state offers a nine-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.8 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also mandatory. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$701.67.

3⁴ SECURITIES

The Missouri Uniform Securities Act, also known as the "Blue Sky Law" and administered by the Securities Division of the Office of Secretary of State, requires the registration of stocks, bonds, debentures, notes, investment contracts, and oil, gas, and mining interests intended for sale in the state. In cases of fraud, misrepresentation, or other failure to comply with the act, the Missouri investor has the right to sue to recover the investment, plus interest, costs, and attorney fees. Government securities, mutual funds, stocks listed on the principal national exchanges, and securities sold under specific transactional agreements are exempt from registration.

In 2005, there were 1,580 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 5,130 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 117 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 40 NASDAQ companies, 50 NYSE listings, and 5 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had ten Fortune 500 companies; Emerson Electric (based in St. Louis) ranked first in the state and 126th in the nation with revenues of over \$17.3 billion, followed by Express Scripts in Maryland Hts. and Anheuser-Busch, Ameren, and Monsanto in St. Louis. Express Scripts is listed with NASDAQ; the other four companies are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The Missouri state budget is prepared by the Office of Administration's Division of Budget and Planning and submitted annually by the governor to the General Assembly for amendment and approval. The fiscal year runs from 1 July to 30 June. Missouri's constitutional revenue and spending limit provides that over time, the growth in state revenues and spending cannot exceed the growth in Missouri personal income.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$7.5 billion for resources and \$7.1 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Missouri were \$8.7 billion

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Missouri was slated to receive \$96.6 million for exterior repairs, hazardous material abatement, and modernization efforts at the Richard Bolling Federal

Building in Kansas City; \$25.8 million to replace an operating suite at a veterans' hospital in Columbia; and \$7 million for a veterans' medical care center renovation and national cemetery expansion in St. Louis.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, Missouri collected \$9,544 million in tax revenues or \$1,645 per capita, which placed it 46th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.2% of the total, sales taxes 31.8%,

selective sales taxes 16.4%, individual income taxes 42.1%, corporate income taxes 2.3%, and other taxes 7.2%.

As of 1 January 2006, Missouri had 10 individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.5% to 6.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.25%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$4,304,387,000 or \$747 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 37th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$4,281,624,000 of the total and the state government \$22,763,000.

Missouri taxes retail sales at a rate of 4.225%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 4.5%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8.725%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable, but at lower rate. The tax on cigarettes is 17 cents per pack, which ranks 50th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Missouri taxes gasoline at 17.55 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Missouri citizens received \$1.29 in federal spending.

3⁷ECONOMIC POLICY

Primary responsibility for economic development is vested in the Department of Economic Development (DED). Its Enterprise Zone Program provides a variety of tax credits, exemptions, and other incentives to businesses that locate in designated areas. The division also offers grants, information, technical aid, and other public resources to foster local and regional development. Special programs are provided for the Ozarks region and to rehabilitate urban neighborhoods. Agencies affiliated with the DED include: the Division of Business and Community Services; the Division of Credit Unions; the Division of Finance; the Division of Tourism; the Missouri Arts Council; the Missouri Housing Development Commission; the Missouri Development Finance Board; and the Division of Workforce Development.

3⁸HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.6 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 6.6 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 88.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.7 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 294.5; cancer, 217.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 68.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 50.5; and diabetes, 28.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.2 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 6.8 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 58.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 24.1% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Missouri had 119 community hospitals with about 19,300 beds. There were about 831,000 patient admissions that year and 15.7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 11,900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,403. Also in 2003, there were about 534 certified nursing facilities in the state with 54,415 beds and an over-

Missouri—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	26,320,416	4,569.52
General revenue	20,287,403	3,522.12
Intergovernmental revenue	7,412,108	1,286.82
Taxes	9,119,664	1,583.28
General sales	2,950,055	512.16
Selective sales	1,518,453	263.62
License taxes	605,590	105.14
Individual income tax	3,720,749	645.96
Corporate income tax	224,366	38.95
Other taxes	100,451	17.44
Current charges	1,966,875	341.47
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,788,756	310.55
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	6,033,013	1,047.40
Total expenditure	22,038,965	3,826.21
Intergovernmental expenditure	5,260,101	913.21
Direct expenditure	16,778,864	2,913.00
Current operation	11,428,958	1,984.19
Capital outlay	1,505,282	261.33
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,551,924	443.04
Assistance and subsidies	653,594	113.47
Interest on debt	639,106	110.96
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,101,488	538.45
Total expenditure	22,038,965	3,826.21
General expenditure	19,487,011	3,383.16
Intergovernmental expenditure	5,260,101	913.21
Direct expenditure	14,226,910	2,469.95
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	6,868,317	1,192.42
Public welfare	5,657,912	982.28
Hospitals	1,041,370	180.79
Health	665,345	115.51
Highways	1,853,322	321.76
Police protection	134,869	23.41
Correction	609,300	105.78
Natural resources	325,328	56.48
Parks and recreation	52,556	9.12
Government administration	616,591	107.05
Interest on general debt	639,106	110.96
Other and unallocable	1,022,995	177.60
Utility expenditure	30	.01
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,551,924	443.04
Debt at end of fiscal year	16,218,362	2,815.69
Cash and security holdings	59,430,937	10,317.87

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

all occupancy rate of about 68.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 64% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Missouri had 241 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2003 and 940 nurses per 100,000 in 2004.

In 2005, the Barnes-Jewish Hospital of Washington University ranked sixth on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, it ranked ninth for best care in heart disease and heart surgery.

About 26% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 12% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$7.7 million.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 166,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$205. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 766,425 persons (298,380 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$80 per person, the second-lowest average payment in the nation (above Wisconsin). That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$735.7 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Missouri's TANF program is called Beyond Welfare. In 2004, the state program had 100,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$130 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,046,110 Missouri residents. This number included 642,970 retired workers, 102,730 widows and widowers, 153,570 disabled workers, 54,680 spouses, and 92,160 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18.2% of the total state population and 93.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$944; widows and widowers, \$891; disabled workers, \$872; and spouses, \$469. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$477 per month; children of deceased workers, \$619; and children of disabled workers, \$254. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 116,131 Missouri residents, averaging \$386 a month. An additional \$2.2 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 8,865 residents.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, Missouri had an estimated 2,564,340 housing units, of which 2,309,205 were occupied; 70.8% were owner-occupied. About 69.3% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 89,522 units lacked telephone services, 11,971 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 12,264 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.42 members.

In 2004, 32,800 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$117,033. The median

monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$954. Renters paid a median of \$567 per month. In September 2005, the state received a grant of \$360,898 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$24.2 million in community development block grants.

The Missouri Housing Development Commission of the Department of Economic Development is empowered to make and insure loans to encourage the construction of residential housing for persons of low or moderate income; funds for mortgage financing are provided through the sale of tax-exempt notes and bonds issued by the commission. Construction of multi-unit public housing stagnated during the 1970s. In 1972, municipal authorities ordered the demolition of two apartment buildings in St. Louis's Pruitt-Igoe public housing complex, built 18 years earlier and regarded by many commentators as a classic case of the failure of such high-rise projects to offer a livable environment; the site remained vacant in the early 1980s. Only 5.5% of St. Louis's housing units in 1990 had been built during the 1980s; during the 1970s, many units were abandoned.

4¹ EDUCATION

Although the constitution of 1820 provided for the establishment of public schools, it was not until 1839 that the state's public school system became a reality through legislation creating the office of state superintendent of common schools and establishing a permanent school fund. Missouri schools were officially segregated from 1875 to 1954, when the US Supreme Court issued its landmark ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*; the state's school segregation law was not taken off the books until 1976. In that year, nearly 37% of all black students were in schools that were 99–100% black, a condition fostered by the high concentration of black Missourians in the state's two largest cities. In 1983, a desegregation plan was adopted for St. Louis-area public schools that called for 3,000 black students to be transferred from city to county schools.

In 2004, 87.9% of all Missourians 25 years of age or older were high school graduates, and 28.1% had obtained bachelor's degrees or higher. The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Missouri's public schools stood at 924,000. Of these, 653,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 272,000 attended high school. Approximately 77.7% of the students were white, 18% were black, 2.6% were Hispanic, 1.4% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.4% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 917,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 910,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 1.6% during the period 2002–14. In fall 2003, there were 119,812 students enrolled in private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$7.8 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Missouri scored 276 out of 500 in mathematics, compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 348,146 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 16.5% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, Missouri had 123 degree-granting institutions including, 14 public 4-year schools, 20 public 2-year schools, and 54 nonprofit private 4-year schools. The Uni-

versity of Missouri, established in 1839, was the first state-supported university west of the Mississippi River. It has four campuses: Columbia (site of the world's oldest and one of the best-known journalism schools), Kansas City, Rolla, and St. Louis. The Rolla campus, originally founded in 1870 as a mining and engineering school, is still one of the nation's leading universities specializing in technology.

Lincoln University, a public university for blacks until segregation ended in 1954, is located in Jefferson City. There are five regional state universities, at Warrensburg, Maryville, Cape Girardeau, Springfield, and Kirksville, and three state colleges, at St. Louis, St. Joseph, and Joplin. Two leading independent universities, Washington and St. Louis, are located in St. Louis, as is the Concordia Seminary, an affiliate of the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod and the center of much theological and political controversy during the 1970s. The Department of Higher Education offers grants and guaranteed loans to Missouri students.

42 ARTS

The Missouri Arts Council is a state agency consisting of 15 citizens directly appointed by the director of the Department of Economic Development. In 2005, Missouri arts organizations received 34 grants totaling \$2,251,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts. In 1994, the Missouri General Assembly established the Missouri Cultural Trust, a state endowment for the arts, with the goal of building it into a \$200 million operational endowment in 10 years. The Trust was one of only a few such trusts in the nation, and the only one that received dedicated annual tax revenues. In 2006, the Missouri Arts Council canceled its Capital Incentive Program associated with the Cultural Trust due to insufficient funding. In effect, it was projected that the trust fund would hold only \$35,000 by June 2007.

The Missouri Humanities Council (MHC) was founded to provide opportunities for families and communities to broaden their appreciation for subjects such as history and literature. The MHC sponsors "Chautauqua" an annual weeklong summer history festival on various themes and in 2006 the council launched its "Young Chautauqua" program. The festival is generally in a different community each year. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,947,100 for 15 state programs.

Theatrical performances are offered throughout the state, mostly during the summer. In Kansas City, productions of Broadway musicals and light opera are staged at the Starlight Theater, which seats 7,860 in an open-air setting. The Missouri Repertory Theater or Kansas City Repertory Theater, on the University of Missouri campus in Kansas City, also has a summer season. As of 2006, construction of a new downtown theater was still in process. The new theater was expected to house about 320 people, creating a smaller and more intimate performance space option. In 2006, the Kansas City Repertory Theater announced that their new downtown theater would be named Copaken Stage; the first performance was scheduled to take place in winter 2007. In St. Louis, the 12,000-seat Municipal Opera puts on outdoor musicals, while the Goldenrod, built in 1909 and said to be the largest showboat ever constructed (seating capacity 289), is used today for vaudeville, melodrama, and ragtime shows. Other notable playhouses are the 8,000-seat Riverfront Amphitheater in Hannibal, and the 344-seat Lyceum Theater in Arrow Rock (population 89).

Leading orchestras are the St. Louis Symphony and Kansas City Symphony; Independence, Liberty, Columbia, Kirksville, St. Joseph, and Springfield also have orchestras. The Opera Theatre of St. Louis and the Lyric Opera of Kansas City are distinguished musical organizations. In 2000, the Opera Theatre of St. Louis was one of only two US opera companies to receive a grant from the Ford Foundation. The Ford Foundation grant totaled \$1.5 million, to be matched 4 to 1 over the next five years. Springfield has a regional opera company.

Between World Wars I and II, Kansas City was the home of a thriving jazz community that included Charlie Parker and Lester Young; leading bandleaders of that time were Benny Moten, Walter Page, and, later, Count Basie. Country music predominates in rural Missouri in places like the Ozark Opry at Osage Beach. The city of Branson is center to numerous live music and performance shows. As of 2006 there were 40 performing venues in Branson, with over 100 shows.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Missouri had 150 public library systems, with a total of 363 libraries, of which 216 were branches. In that same year, the state's public libraries had 18,716,000 volumes of books and serial publications on their shelves, with a combined total circulation of 38,767,000. The system also had 674,000 audio and 413,000 video items, 17,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 30 bookmobiles. The Missouri State Library, in Jefferson City, is the center of the state's interlibrary loan network. It also serves as the only public library for the population who live in areas without public libraries; it has 79,761 books. The largest public library systems, those of Kansas City and St. Louis County, had 1,204,992 and 2,777,056 volumes, respectively; the public library system of the city of St. Louis had 2,505,182 in 15 branches. The University of Missouri-Columbia has the leading academic library, with 2,850,747 volumes in 1998. The State Historical Society of Missouri Library in Columbia contains 453,000 volumes. The federally-administered Harry S. Truman Library and Museum is at Independence. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public libraries came to \$153,728,000 and included \$1,888,000 in federal grants and \$3,954,000 in state grants.

Missouri has well over 162 museums and historic sites. The William Rockhill Nelson Gallery/Atkins Museum of Fine Arts in Kansas City and the St. Louis Art Museum each house distinguished general collections, while the Springfield Art Museum specializes in American sculpture, paintings, and relics of the westward movement. The Mark Twain Home and Museum in Hannibal has a collection of manuscripts and other memorabilia. Also notable are the Museum of Art and Archaeology, Columbia; the Kansas City Museum of History and Science; the Pony Express Stables Museum, St. Joseph; and the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial, Missouri Botanical Garden, St. Louis Center Museum of Science and Natural History and McDonnell Planetarium, National Museum of Transport, and a zoo, all in St. Louis. Kansas City, Springfield, and Eldon also have zoos.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 1858, John Hockaday began weekly mail service by stagecoach between Independence and Salt Lake City, and John Butterfield,

with a \$600,000 annual appropriation from Congress, established semi-monthly mail transportation by coach and rail from St. Louis to San Francisco. On 3 April 1860, the Pony Express was launched, picking up mail arriving by train at St. Joseph and racing it westward on horseback; the system ceased in October 1861, when the Pacific Telegraph Co. began operations. The first experiment in airmail service took place at St. Louis in 1911; Charles Lindbergh was an airmail pilot on the St. Louis-Chicago route in 1926.

As of 2004, Missouri had approximately 93.7% of all state residences had telephone service. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,859,953 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 60.7% of Missouri households had a computer and 53.0% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 710,812 high-speed lines in Missouri, 653,590 residential and 57,222 for business.

Radio broadcasting in Missouri dates from 1921, when a station at St. Louis University began experimental programming. On Christmas Eve 1922, the first midnight Mass ever to be put on the air was broadcast from the Old Cathedral in St. Louis. The voice of a US president was heard over the air for the first time on 21 June 1923, when Warren G. Harding gave a speech in St. Louis. FM broadcasting began in Missouri during 1948. As of 2005 there were 36 major commercial AM stations and 97 major FM stations in service. Missouri's first television station, KSD-TV in St. Louis, began in 1947, with WDAF-TV in Kansas City following in 1949. As of 2005, Missouri had 25 major television stations. The St. Louis area had 1,114,370 television households, and only 56% of those received cable (one of the lowest penetration rates of all cities) in 1999. Kansas City had a 65% penetration rate in 802,580 television households in that same year.

A total of 84,512 Internet domain names had been registered in Missouri as of 2000.

45 PRESS

The *Missouri Gazette*, published in St. Louis in 1808 by the politically independent and controversial Joseph Charless, was the state's first newspaper; issued to 174 subscribers, the paper was partly in French. In 1815, a group of Charless's enemies raised funds to establish a rival paper, the *Western Journal*, and brought in Joshua Norvell from Nashville to edit it. By 1820 there were five newspapers in Missouri.

Since that time, many Missouri newspapermen have achieved national recognition. The best known is Samuel Clemens (later Mark Twain), who started out as a "printer's devil" in Hannibal at the age of 13. Hungarian-born Joseph Pulitzer began his journalistic career in 1868 as a reporter for a German-language daily in St. Louis. Pulitzer created the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* from the merger of two defunct newspapers in 1878, endowed the Columbia University School of Journalism in New York City, and established by bequest the Pulitzer Prizes, which annually honor journalistic and artistic achievement.

The following table shows Missouri's leading dailies with their approximate 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Kansas City	<i>Kansas City Star</i> (m,S)	275,747	388,425
St. Louis	<i>St. Louis Post-Dispatch</i> (m,S)	286,310	449,845

Periodicals include the St. Louis-based *Sporting News*, the bi-monthly "bible" of baseball fans; *VFW Magazine*, put out month-

ly in Kansas City by the Veterans of Foreign Wars; and the *Missouri Historical View*, a quarterly with offices in Columbia. As of 2005 there were 13 morning newspapers, 29 evening dailies, and 23 Sunday papers.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 7,460 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 4,647 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Among the national and international organizations with headquarters in Kansas City are the Veterans of Foreign Wars of the USA, the American Gulf War Veterans Association, Camp Fire USA., People-to-People International, the American Academy of Family Physicians, the American Business Women's Association, the American Nurses Association, the Fellowship of Christian Athletes, the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics, the American Humor Studies Association, and Professional Secretaries International.

Headquartered in St. Louis are the American Association of Orthodontists, the American Optometric Association, the Catholic Health Association of the United States, the Danforth Foundation, the International Consumer Credit Association, National Garden Clubs, and the National Hairdressers and Cosmetologists Association. Children International and DeMolay International are based in Kansas City. Two major religious organizations based in the state are the Baptist Bible Fellowship International and the Gospel Missionary Union. The General Society, Sons of the Revolution is based in Independence.

State culture is represented in part by the Kansas City Barbeque Society and the Scott Joplin International Ragtime Foundation, both of which have national memberships. The Negro Leagues Baseball Museum is located in Kansas City. The Missouri Arts Council is based in St. Louis.

Other organizations include the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (Columbia), the National Christmas Tree Association (St. Louis), and the American Cat Fanciers Association (Branson).

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the state hosted some 37.7 million domestic travelers, an all-time high, with 69% of all visitors coming from out-of-state. About 42% of all visitors came to visit family or friends. Of those traveling strictly for leisure activities, shopping was the major attraction. Total travel revenues were \$8.3 billion and the industry supported over 284,916 jobs. The most popular vacation areas are the St. Louis region (40% of all visits) and the Kansas City area (23%).

The principal attraction in St. Louis is the Gateway Arch, at 630 feet (192 meters) the tallest man-made national monument in the United States. Designed by Eero Saarinen in 1948 but not constructed until three years after his death in 1964, the arch and the Museum of Westward Expansion form part of the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial on the western shore of the Mississippi River.

In the Kansas City area are the modern Crown Center hotels and shopping plaza, Country Club Plaza, the Truman Sports Complex, Ft. Osage near Sibley, Jesse James's birthplace near Excelsior Springs, and Harry Truman's hometown of Independence, where

his presidential library and museum are housed. Memorabilia of Mark Twain are housed in and around Hannibal in the northeast, and the birthplace and childhood home of George Washington Carver, a national monument, is in Diamond.

The Lake of the Ozarks, with 1,375 mi (2,213 km) of shoreline, is one of the most popular vacation spots in mid-America. Other attractions are the Silver Dollar City handicrafts center near Branson; the Pony Express Stables and Museum at St. Joseph; Wilson's Creek National Battlefield at Republic, site of a Confederate victory in the Civil War; and the "Big Springs Country" of the Ozarks, in the southeast. The state fair is held in Sedalia each August. The city of Gallatin contains the history of the famous outlaw Jesse James and his gang. Walt Disney modeled his rendition of Main Street, Disneyland, after his hometown of Marcelline.

Missouri has 27 state parks. Operated by the Department of Natural Resources, they offer camping, picnicking, swimming, boating, fishing, and hiking facilities. Lake of the Ozarks State Park is the largest, covering 16,872 acres (6,828 hectares). Branson hosts a musical resort and theater which attracts many visitors. There are also 27 historic sites; state parks and historic sites cover 105,000 acres (43,050 hectares). Hunting and fishing are popular recreational activities in state parks.

48 SPORTS

There are six major professional sports teams in Missouri: the Kansas City Royals and St. Louis Cardinals of Major League Baseball; the Kansas City Chiefs and St. Louis Rams of the National Football League; the St. Louis Blues of the National Hockey League; and the Kansas City Wizards of Major League Soccer.

The Cardinals won the World Series in 1926, 1931, 1934, 1942, 1944, 1946, 1964, 1967, and 1982. The Royals have won the World Series once, in 1985, against their cross-state rivals, the St. Louis Cardinals. The Chiefs appeared in Super Bowl I in 1967, losing to the Green Bay Packers. They won the Super Bowl in their next appearance, in 1970. The Rams moved to St. Louis from Los Angeles after the 1994 season and now play in the 66,000-seat Edward Jones Dome, which opened in 1995. They won the Super Bowl in 2000 with a dramatic 23–16 victory over the Tennessee Titans.

Horse racing has a long history in Missouri. In 1812, St. Charles County sportsmen held two-day horse races; by the 1820s, racetracks were laid out in nearly every city and in crossroads villages.

In collegiate sports, the University of Missouri competes in the Big Twelve Conference.

49 FAMOUS MISSOURIANS

Harry S Truman (1884–1972) has been the only native-born Missourian to serve as US president or vice president. Elected US senator in 1932, Truman became Franklin D. Roosevelt's vice-presidential running mate in 1944 and succeeded to the presidency upon Roosevelt's death on 12 April 1945. The "man from Independence"—whose tenure in office spanned the end of World War II, the inauguration of the Marshall Plan to aid European economic recovery, and the beginning of the Korean conflict—was elected to the presidency in his own right in 1948, defeating Republican Thomas E. Dewey in one of the most surprising upsets in US political history. Charles Evans Whittaker (b.Kansas, 1901–73) was a federal district and appeals court judge in Missouri before his ap-

pointment as Supreme Court associate justice in 1957. Among the state's outstanding US military leaders are Generals John J. Pershing (1860–1948) and Omar Bradley (1893–1981).

Other notable federal officeholders from Missouri include Edward Bates (b.Virginia, 1793–1869), Abraham Lincoln's attorney general and the first cabinet official to be chosen from a state west of the Mississippi River; Montgomery Blair (b.Kentucky, 1813–83), postmaster general in Lincoln's cabinet; and Norman Jay Colman (b.New York, 1827–1911), the first secretary of agriculture. Missouri's best-known senator was Thomas Hart Benton (b.North Carolina, 1782–1858), who championed the interests of Missouri and the West for 30 years. Other well-known federal legislators include Francis P. Blair Jr. (b.Kentucky, 1821–75), antislavery congressman, pro-Union leader during the Civil War, and Democratic vice-presidential nominee in 1868; Benjamin Gratz Brown (b.Kentucky, 1826–85), senator from 1863 to 1867 and later governor of the state and Republican vice-presidential nominee (1872); Carl Schurz (b.Germany, 1829–1906), senator from 1869 to 1875 and subsequently US secretary of the interior, as well as a journalist and Union military leader; William H. Hatch (b.Kentucky, 1833–96), sponsor of much agricultural legislation as a US representative from 1879 to 1895; Richard P. Bland (b.Kentucky, 1835–99), leader of the free-silver bloc in the US House of Representatives; James Beauchamp "Champ" Clark (b.Kentucky, 1850–1921), speaker of the House from 1911 to 1919; W. Stuart Symington (b.Massachusetts, 1901–88), senator from 1953 to 1977 and earlier the nation's first secretary of the Air Force; and Thomas F. Eagleton (b.1929), senator since 1969 and, briefly, the Democratic vice-presidential nominee in 1972, until publicity about his having received electroshock treatment for depression forced him off the ticket. (Eagleton announced in 1984 that he would not seek reelection to the Senate in 1986.)

Outstanding figures in Missouri history included two pioneering fur traders: William Henry Ashley (b.Virginia, 1778–1838), who later became a US representative, and Manuel Lisa (b.Louisiana, 1772–1820), who helped establish trade relations with the Indians. Meriwether Lewis (b.Virginia, 1774–1809) and William Clark (b.Virginia, 1770–1838) explored Missouri and the West during 1804–6; Lewis later served as governor of Louisiana Territory, with headquarters at St. Louis, and Clark was governor of Missouri Territory from 1813 to 1821. Dred Scott (b.Virginia, 1795–1858), a slave owned by a Missourian, figured in a Supreme Court decision that set the stage for the Civil War. Missourians with unsavory reputations include such desperadoes as Jesse James (1847–82), his brother Frank (1843–1915), and Cole Younger (1844–1916), also a member of the James gang. Another well-known native was Kansas City's political boss, Thomas Joseph Pendergast (1872–1945), a power among Missouri Democrats until convicted of income tax evasion in 1939 and sent to Leavenworth prison.

Among notable Missouri educators were William Torrey Harris (b.Connecticut, 1835–1909), superintendent of St. Louis public schools, US commissioner of education, and an authority on Hegelian philosophy; James Milton Turney (1840–1915), who helped establish Lincoln University for blacks at Jefferson City; and Susan Elizabeth Blow (1843–1916), cofounder with Harris of the first US public kindergarten at St. Louis in 1873. Distinguished scientists include agricultural chemist George Washington Carver

(1864–1943), astronomers Harlow Shapley (1885–1972) and Edwin P. Hubble (1889–1953), Nobel Prize-winning nuclear physicist Arthur Holly Compton (b. Ohio, 1892–1962), and mathematician-cyberneticist Norbert Wiener (1894–1964). Engineer and inventor James Buchanan Eads (b. Indiana, 1820–87) supervised construction during 1867–74 of the St. Louis bridge that bears his name. Charles A. Lindbergh (b. Michigan 1902–74) was a pilot and aviation instructor in the St. Louis area during the 1920s before winning worldwide acclaim for his solo New York–Paris flight.

Prominent Missouri businessmen include brewer Adolphus Busch (b. Germany, 1839–1913); William Rockhill Nelson (b. Indiana, 1847–1915), who founded the *Kansas City Star* (1880); Joseph Pulitzer (b. Hungary, 1847–1911), who merged two failed newspapers to establish the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* (1878) and later endowed the journalism and literary prizes that bear his name; and James Cash Penney (1875–1971), founder of the J. C. Penney Co. Noteworthy journalists from Missouri include newspaper and magazine editor William M. Reedy (1862–1920), newspaper reporter Herbert Bayard Swope (1882–1958), and television newscaster Walter Cronkite (b. 1916). Other distinguished Missourians include theologian Reinhold Niebuhr (1892–1971), civil rights leader Roy Wilkins (1901–81), and medical missionary Thomas Dooley (1927–61).

Missouri's most popular author is Mark Twain (Samuel Langhorne Clemens, 1835–1910), whose *Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1876) and *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1884) evoke his boyhood in Hannibal. Novelist Harold Bell Wright (b. New York, 1872–1944) wrote about the people of the Ozarks; Robert Heinlein (1907–88) is a noted writer of science fiction, and William S. Burroughs (1914–97) an experimental novelist. Poet-critic T(homas) S(tearns) Eliot (1888–1965), awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1948, was born in St. Louis but became a British subject in 1927. Other Missouri-born poets include Sara Teasdale (1884–1933), Marianne Moore (1887–1972), and Langston Hughes (1902–67). Popular novelist and playwright Rupert Hughes (1872–1956) was a Missouri native, as was Zoe Akins (1886–1958), a Pulitzer Prize-winning playwright.

Distinguished painters who lived in Missouri include George Caleb Bingham (b. Virginia, 1811–79), who also served in several state offices; James Carroll Beckwith (1852–1917); and Thomas Hart Benton (1889–1975), the grandnephew and namesake of the state's famous political leader. Among the state's important musicians are ragtime pianist-composers Scott Joplin (b. Texas, 1868–1917) and John William “Blind” Boone (1864–1927); W(illiam) C(hristopher) Handy (b. Alabama, 1873–1958), composer of “St. Louis Blues,” “Beale Street Blues,” and other classics; composer-critic Virgil Thomson (1896–1989), known for his operatic collaborations with Gertrude Stein; jazzman Coleman Hawkins (1907–69); and popular songwriter Burt Bacharach (b. 1929). Photographer Walker Evans (1903–75) was a St. Louis native.

Missouri-born entertainers include actors Wallace Beery, (1889–1949), Vincent Price (1911–93), and Edward Asner (b. 1929); actresses Jean Harlow (Harlean Carpenter, 1911–37), Jane Wyman (b. 1914), Betty Grable (1916–73), and Shelley Winters (1922–2006); dancers Sally Rand (1904–79) and Josephine Baker (1906–75); actress-dancer Ginger Rogers (1911–95); film director John Huston (1906–84); and opera stars Helen Traubel (1903–72), Gladys Swarthout (1904–69), and Grace Bumbry (b. 1937). In popular music, the state's most widely known singer-songwriter is Charles “Chuck” Berry (b. California, 1926), whose works had a powerful influence on the development of rock and roll.

St. Louis Cardinals stars who became Hall of Famers include Jerome Herman “Dizzy” Dean (b. Arkansas, 1911–74), Stanley Frank “Stan the Man” Musial (b. Pennsylvania, 1920), Robert “Bob” Gibson (b. Nebraska, 1935), and Louis “Lou” Brock (b. Arkansas, 1939). Among the native Missourians who achieved stardom in the sports world are baseball manager Charles Dillon “Casey” Stengel (1890–1975), catcher Lawrence Peter “Yogi” Berra (b. 1925), sportscaster Joe Garagiola (b. 1926), and golfer Tom Watson (b. 1949).

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MONTANA

State of Montana



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Latin word meaning “mountainous.” **NICKNAME:** The Treasure State. **CAPITAL:** Helena. **ENTERED UNION:** 8 November 1889 (41st). **SONG:** “Montana;” “Montana Melody.” **MOTTO:** *Oro y Plata* (Gold and silver). **FLAG:** A blue field, fringed in gold on the top and bottom borders, surrounds the center portion of the official seal, with “Montana” in gold letters above the coat of arms. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the lower center are a plow and a miner’s pick and shovel; mountains appear above them on the left, the Great Falls of the Missouri River on the right, and the state motto on a banner below. The words “The Great Seal of the State of Montana” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Western meadowlark. **FISH:** Black-spotted (cutthroat) trout. **FLOWER:** Bitterroot. **TREE:** Ponderosa pine. **GEM:** Yogo sapphire and Montana agate. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; State Election Day, 1st Tuesday after the 1st Monday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the northwestern United States, Montana is the largest of the 8 Rocky Mountain states and ranks fourth in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Montana is 147,046 sq mi (380,849 sq km), of which land takes up 145,388 sq mi (376,555 sq km) and inland water 1,658 sq mi (4,294 sq km). The state’s maximum e–w extension is 570 mi (917 km); its extreme n–s distance is 315 mi (507 km).

Montana is bordered on the n by the Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, and Saskatchewan; on the e by North Dakota and South Dakota; on the s by Wyoming and Idaho; and on the w by Idaho. The total boundary length of Montana is 1,947 mi (3,133 km). The state’s geographic center is in Fergus County, 12 mi (19 km) w of Lewistown. Nearly 30% of the state’s land belongs to the federal government.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Montana, as mountainous in parts as its name implies, has an approximate mean elevation of 3,400 ft (1,037 m). The Rocky Mountains cover the western two-fifths of the state, with the Bitterroot Range along the Idaho border; the high, gently rolling Great Plains occupy most of central and eastern Montana. The highest point in the state is Granite Peak, at an elevation of 12,799 ft (3,904 m), located in south-central Montana, near the Wyoming border. The lowest point, at 1,800 ft (549 m), is in the northwest, where the Kootenai River leaves the state at the Idaho border. The Continental Divide passes in a jagged pattern through the western part of the state, from the Lewis to the Bitterroot ranges.

Ft. Peck Reservoir is Montana’s largest body of inland water, covering 375 sq mi (971 sq km); Flathead Lake is the largest natural lake. The state’s most important rivers are the Missouri, rising in southwest Montana and Red Rock Creek and flowing north

and then east across the state, and the Yellowstone, which crosses southeastern Montana to join the Missouri in North Dakota near the Montana border. Located in Glacier National Park is the Triple Divide, from which Montana waters begin their journey to the Arctic and Pacific oceans and the Gulf of Mexico. The total length of the Missouri River is 2,540 mi (4,088 km); it is the longest river in the country.

³ CLIMATE

The Continental Divide separates the state into two distinct climatic regions: the west generally has a milder climate than the east, where winters can be especially harsh. Montana’s maximum daytime temperature averages 27°F (-2°C) in January and 85°F (29°C) in July. Great Falls has an average temperature of 45°F (7°C), ranging from 21°F (-6°C) in January to 69°F (21°C) in July. The all-time low temperature in the state, -70°F (-57°C), registered at Rogers Pass on 20 January 1954, is the lowest ever recorded in the conterminous US; the all-time high, 117°F (47°C), was set at Medicine Lake on 5 July 1937. During the winter, Chinook winds from the eastern Rocky Mountains can bring rapid temperature increases of 40–50°F within a few minutes. Great Falls receives an average annual precipitation of 15.3 in (38 cm), but much of north-central Montana is arid. About 59.1 in (150 cm) of snow descends on Great Falls each year.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Montana has three major life zones: subalpine, montane, and plains. The subalpine region, in the northern Rocky Mountains, is rich in wild flowers during a short midsummer growing season. The montane flora consists largely of coniferous forests, principally alpine fir, and a variety of shrubs. The plains are characterized by an abundance of grasses, cacti, and sagebrush species. Three

plant species were threatened as of April 2006: Ute ladies'-tresses, Spalding's catchfly, and water howellia.

Game animals of the state include elk, moose, white-tailed and mule deer, pronghorn antelope, bighorn sheep, and mountain goat. Notable among the amphibians is the axolotl; rattlesnakes and other reptiles occur in most of the state. Eleven species of animals (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006 by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including the grizzly bear, black-footed ferret, Eskimo curlew, two species of sturgeon, gray wolf, and whooping crane.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Montana's major environmental concerns are management of mineral and water resources and reclamation of strip-mined land. The 1973 Montana Resource Indemnity Trust Act, by 1975 amendment, imposes a coal severance tax of 30% on the contract sales price, with the proceeds placed in a permanent tax trust fund. This tax, in conjunction with the Montana Environmental Policy Act (1971) and the Major Facilities Siting Act (1973) reflects the determination of Montanans to protect the beauty of the Big Sky Country while maintaining economic momentum. The Water Quality Bureau of the Montana Department of Health and Environmental Sciences is responsible for managing the small number of state wetlands. In 2005, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$50,000 for wetland protection projects.

In 2003, 45.2 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, Montana had 71 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 14 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$26.4 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, the state received a federal EPA grant of \$10 million for projects to establish and maintain safe drinking water supplies.

6 POPULATION

Montana ranked 44th in population in the United States, with an estimated total of 935,670 in 2005, an increase of 3.7% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Montana's population grew from 799,065 to 902,195, an increase of 12.9%. The population is projected to reach 999,489 by 2015 and 1.03 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 6.4 persons per sq mi, the third-lowest in the country (after Alaska and Wyoming). In 2004, the median age of all Montana residents was 39.6. In the same year, 22.5% of the populace was under the age of 18 while 13.7% was age 65 or older.

In 2004, the largest metropolitan area was Billings, with an estimated population of 144,472. The Missoula metropolitan area had an estimated population of 99,018 and the Great Falls area had a population of about 79,849.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

According to the 2000 census, there were approximately 56,068 American Indians in Montana, of whom the Blackfeet and Crow are the most numerous. The Blackfeet and Crow reservations had populations of, respectively, 10,100 and 6,894 in 2000. In 2004, 6.4% of the population was American Indian.

The foreign born, numbering 16,396, made up 1.8% of Montana's 2000 Census population, a decrease of 24% since 1980. Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Mexico were the lead-

ing places of origin. As of 2000, the black and Asian populations were just 2,692 and 4,691, respectively. In 2000, 18,081 residents were Hispanic or Latino, representing 2% of the total population. In 2004, 0.4% of the population was black, 0.5% Asian, 0.1% Pacific Islander, and 2.4% Hispanic or Latino. That year, 1.5% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

English in Montana fuses Northern and Midland features, the Northern proportion declining from east to west. Topography has given new meaning to *basin*, *hollow*, *meadow*, and *park* as kinds of clear spaces in the mountains.

In 2000, the number of Montanans who spoke only English at was 803,031, representing about 95% of the resident population five years of age or older. There was no change in the overall percentage of English speakers from 1990 to 2000.

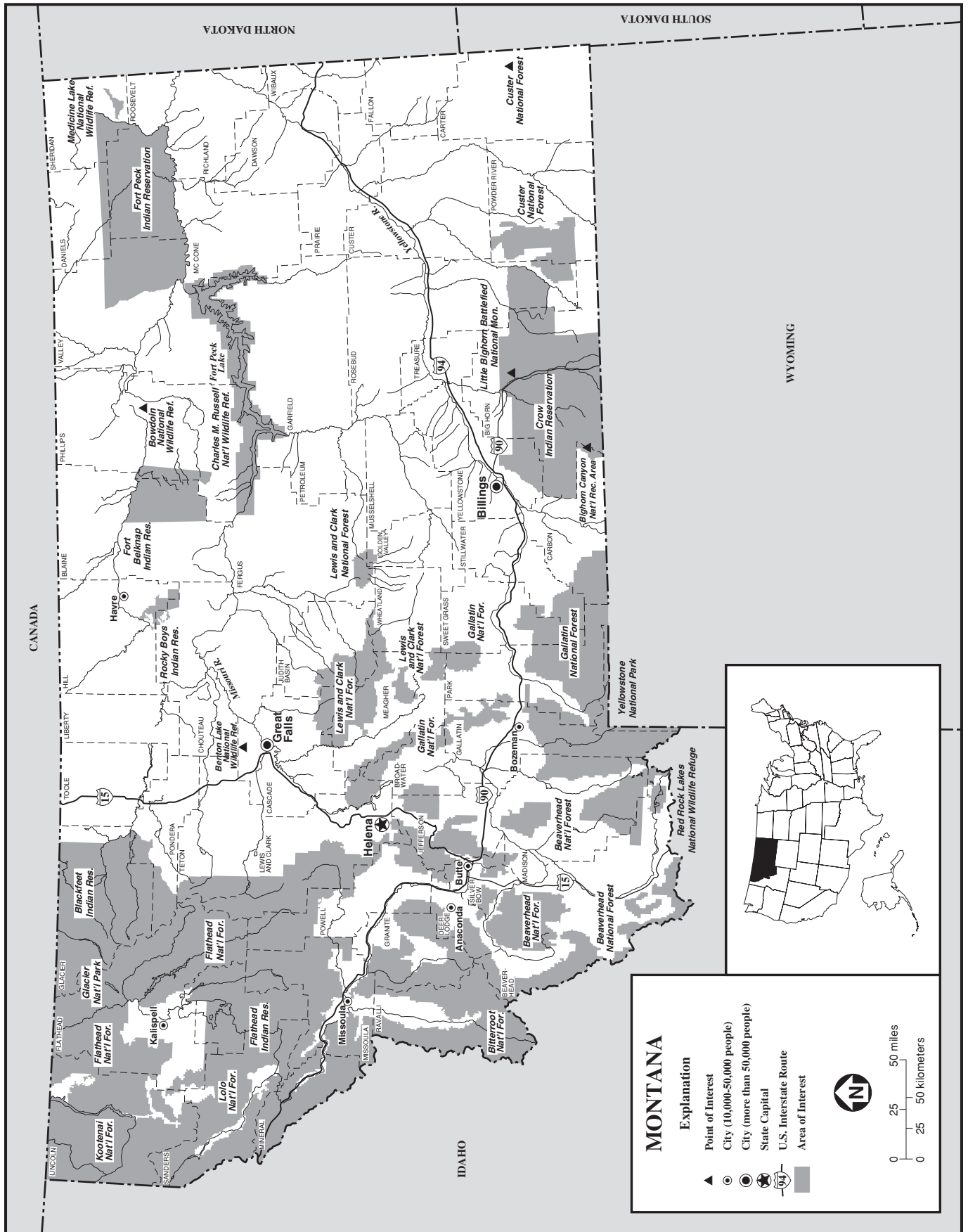
The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	847,362	100.0
Speak only English	803,031	94.8
Speak a language other than English	44,331	5.2
Speak a language other than English	44,331	5.2
Spanish or Spanish Creole	12,953	1.5
German	9,416	1.1
Other Native North American languages	9,234	1.1
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	3,298	0.4
Scandinavian languages	1,335	0.2
Italian	759	0.1
Japanese	711	0.1
Russian	610	0.1
Other Slavic languages	570	0.1
Chinese	528	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

In 2000, there was a nearly equal number of Protestants versus Catholics within the state. The Roman Catholic Church is the largest single Christian denomination with about 103,351 adherents in 2004. Leading Protestant denominations (with 2000 data) were the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 50,287; the United Methodist Church, 17,993; Assemblies of God, 16,385; the Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod, 15,441; and the Southern Baptist Convention, 15,318. In 2006, the Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter-day Saints (Mormons) reported a statewide membership of 13,384 in 116 congregations; there is a Mormon temple in Billings (est. 1999). There were about 850 Jews and 614 Muslims in the state in 2000.

Though relatively small in terms of membership, several religious groups within the state experienced significant growth throughout 1990–2000. Friends–USA (Quakers) reported a membership growth from 77 in 1990 to 160 in 2000. The Free Lutheran Congregations grew from 75 members to 427 members and the Salvation Army reported a total of 1,414 members in 2000, up from 551 in 1990. About 493,703 people (55% of the population) did not report affiliation with any religious organization in 2000.



10 TRANSPORTATION

Montana's first railroad, the Utah and Northern, entered the state in 1880. Today, Montana is served by two Class I railroads (the Burlington Northern Santa Fe, and the Union Pacific), plus two regional railroads, and two local railroads, operating on 3,291 rail mi (5,298 km) of track. As of 2006, Amtrak operated one long-distance route (Chicago–Seattle/Portland) through the state, which served 12 stations.

Because of its large size, small population, and difficult terrain, Montana was slow to develop a highway system. In 2004, the state had 69,452 mi (111,817 km) of public roads, streets, and highways. There were around 1.031 million registered motor vehicles in that same year, including some 427,000 automobiles, approximately 555,000 trucks of all types, and some 1,000 buses. There were 712,880 licensed drivers in 2004.

In 2005, Montana had a total of 276 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 241 airports, 31 heliports, 2 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and two seaplane bases. The state's leading airport is at Billings. In 2004, Billings–Logan International airport had 395,086 passenger enplanements.

11 HISTORY

Much of Montana's prehistory has only recently been unearthed. The abundance of fossils of large and small dinosaurs, marine reptiles, miniature horses, and giant cave bears indicates that, from 100 million to 60 million years ago, the region had a tropical climate. Beginning some 2 million years ago, however, dramatic temperature changes profoundly altered what we now call Montana. At four different times, great sheets of glacial ice moved south through Canada to cover much of the north. The last glacial retreat, about 10,000 years ago, did much to carve the state's present topographic feature. Montana's first humans probably came from across the Bering Strait; their fragmentary remains indicate a presence dating between 10,000 and 4000 BC.

The Indians encountered by Montana's first white explorers—probably French traders and trappers from Canada—arrived from the east during the 17th and 18th centuries, pushed westward into Montana by the pressure of European colonization. In January 1743, two traders, Louis-Joseph and Francois Vérendrye, crossed the Dakota plains and saw before them what they called the “shining mountains,” the eastern flank of the northern Rockies. However, it was not until 1803 that the written history of Montana begins. In that year, the Louisiana Purchase gave the United States most of Montana, and the Lewis and Clark expedition, dispatched by President Thomas Jefferson in 1804 to explore the upper reaches of the Missouri River, added the rest. On 25 April 1805, accompanied by a French trapper named Toussaint Charbonneau and his Shoshoni wife, Sacagawea, Meriwether Lewis and William Clark reached the mouth of the Yellowstone River near the present-day boundary with North Dakota. Shortly thereafter, the first American trappers, traders, and settlers entered Montana.

The fur trade dominated Montana's economy until 1858, when gold was discovered near the present community of Drummond. By mid-1862, a rush of miners from the gold fields of California, Nevada, Colorado, and Idaho had descended on the state. The temporary gold boom brought not only the state's first substantial white population but also an increased demand for government.

In 1863, the eastern and western sectors of Montana were joined as part of Idaho Territory, which, in turn, was divided along the Bitterroot Mountains to form the present boundary between the two states. On 26 May 1864, President Abraham Lincoln signed the Organic Act, which created Montana Territory.

The territorial period was one of rapid and profound change. By the time Montana became a state on 8 November 1889, the remnants of Montana's Indian culture had been largely confined to federal reservations. A key event in this transformation was the Battle of the Little Big Horn River on 25 June 1876, when Lieutenant Colonel George Custer and his 7th US Cavalry regiment of fewer than 700 men were overwhelmed as they attacked an encampment of 15,000 Sioux and Northern Cheyenne led by Crazy Horse and Chief Gall. The following year, after a four-month running battle that traversed most of the state of Montana, Chief Joseph of the Nez Percé tribe surrendered to federal forces, signaling the end of organized Indian resistance.

As the Indian threat subsided, stockmen wasted little time in putting the seemingly limitless open range to use. By 1866, Nelson Story had driven the first longhorns up from Texas, and by the mid-1870s, sheep had also made a significant appearance on the open range. In 1886, at the peak of the open-range boom, approximately 664,000 head of cattle and nearly a million sheep grazed Montana's rangeland. Disaster struck during the “hard winter” of 1886/87, however, when perhaps as many as 362,000 head of cattle starved trying to find the scant forage covered by snow and ice. That winter marked the end of a cattle frontier based on the “free grass” of the open range and taught the stockmen the value of a secure winter feed supply.

Construction of Montana's railroad system between 1880 and 1909 breathed new life into mining as well as the livestock industry. Moreover, the railroads created a new network of market centers at Great Falls, Billings, Bozeman, Missoula, and Havre. By 1890, the Butte copper pits were producing more than 40% of the nation's copper requirements. The struggle to gain financial control of the enormous mineral wealth of Butte Hill led to the “War of the Copper Kings,” in which the Amalgamated Copper Co., in conjunction with Standard Oil gave up its copper holdings. The new company, Anaconda Copper Mining, virtually controlled the press, politics, and governmental processes of Montana until changes in the structure of the international copper market and the diversification of Montana's economy in the 1940s and 1950s reduced the company's power. Anaconda Copper was absorbed by the Atlantic Richfield Co. in 1976, and the name was changed to Anaconda Minerals in 1982.

The railroads also brought an invasion of agricultural homesteaders. Montana's population surged from 243,329 in 1900 to 548,889 by 1920, while the number of farms and ranches increased from 13,000 to 57,000. Drought and a sharp drop in wheat prices after World War I brought an end to the homestead boom. By 1926, half of Montana's commercial banks had failed. Conditions worsened with the drought and depression of the early 1930s, until the New Deal—enormously popular in Montana—helped revive farming and silver mining and financed irrigation and other public works projects.

The decades after World War II saw moderate growth in Montana's population, economy, and social services. Although manufacturing developed slowly, the state's fossil fuels industry grew

rapidly during the national energy crisis of the 1970s. However, production of coal, crude oil, and natural gas leveled off after the crisis and even declined in the early 1980s.

In 1983 the Anaconda Copper Mining Company shut down its mining operations in Butte. Farm income also suffered in the 1980s as a result of falling prices, drought, and insect damage. Growth in manufacturing and construction and recovery in the agricultural sector, improved Montana's economy in the 1990s. However, even in the midst of a sustained economic boom, the state had the eighth highest unemployment rate in the nation, 5.2% as of 1999. Other indicators also showed the state was not benefiting from the sustained national economic expansion of recent years. Montana faced a \$230 million budget deficit in 2003, but lawmakers were able to balance the budget with a series of program reductions, new taxes, and budget transfers. Montana's unemployment rate in September 2005 was 4.5%, below the national average of 5.1%. However, in 2004 the poverty rate was 14.3% (measured as a three-year average estimate from 2002–04) above the national average of 12.7%.

Tourism, air quality, and wildlife in parts of Montana were affected by the 1988 forest fires that burned for almost three months in Yellowstone National Park. Some Montana residents had to be evacuated from their homes. The state was among those afflicted by raging wildfires the summer of 2000, the worst fire season in more than a decade. In the summer of 2002, wildfires burned over 7.1 million acres of public and private land in the United States, most of it in the west. By August 2003, 36 wildfires had destroyed over 400,000 acres in Montana, equivalent to half the state of Rhode Island. Both Yellowstone and Glacier National Parks had to close sections of the parks due to fires.

In 1992 Montana's delegation to the US House of Representatives was reduced from two members to one, based on the results of the 1990 Census. The state remains one of the least populated in the nation, with an estimated 902,195 residents in 2000—or about six people per square mile. In 2004, there were an estimated 926,865 residents in Montana.

In November 2004, Brian Schweitzer was elected the state's first Democratic governor since 1988.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Montana's original constitution, dating from 1889, was substantially revised by a 1972 constitutional convention, effective 1 July 1973. Under the present document, which had been amended 30 times by January 2005, the state legislature consists of 50 senators, elected to staggered four-year terms, and 99 representatives, who serve for two years. Legislators must be at least 18 years old and have lived in the state for a year and in their district for six months prior to election. In 2004 legislators received \$78.60 per diem during regular sessions. Sessions are held only in odd-numbered years, beginning the first Monday of January and lasting no more than 90 legislative days. An amendment passed by voters in 2002 requires the governor to give advance notice of special sessions, which have no time limit and may be called by petition of a majority in each house.

The only elected officers of the executive branch are the governor and lieutenant governor (who run jointly), secretary of state, attorney general, superintendent of public instruction, and auditor; each serves a four-year term. Without exception, the governor

is limited to serving eight out of every 16 years. A candidate for governor must be at least 25 years old and a citizen and resident of both the United States and Montana. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$93,089.

To become law, a bill must pass both houses by a simple majority and be signed by the governor, remain unsigned for 10 days (25 days if the legislature adjourns), or be passed over the governor's veto by a two-thirds vote of the members present in both houses. The state constitution may be amended by constitutional convention, by legislative referendum (a two-thirds vote of both houses), or by voter initiative (10% of qualified electors, as determined by number of votes cast for governor at the last election). To be adopted, each proposed amendment must be ratified at the next general election.

To vote in Montana, one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a state and county resident for 30 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared of unsound mind.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Since statehood, Democrats generally dominated in contests for the US House and Senate, and Republicans in elections for state and local offices and in national presidential campaigns (except during the New Deal years). Although the erosion of Montana's rural population since the 1920s diluted the Republicans' agrarian base, the party has gained increasing financial and organizational backing from corporate interests, particularly from the mining and energy-related industries.

The strength of the Democratic Party, on the other hand, lies in the strong union movement centered in Butte and its surrounding counties, augmented by smaller family farms throughout the state. Urbanization also benefited the Democrats. Montanans voted overwhelmingly for Republican President Ronald Reagan in November 1984 and for Republican George Bush in 1988, but Democrat Bill Clinton carried the state in 1992. However, in 1996 Clinton lost the state to Republican Bob Dole. In 2000, Republican George W. Bush won an overwhelming victory over Democrat Al Gore, 58% to 34%. Green Party candidate Ralph Nader

Montana Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	MONTANA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	*Truman (D)	119,071	96,770
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	106,213	157,394
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	116,238	154,933
1960	4	Nixon (R)	134,891	141,841
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	164,246	113,032
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	114,117	138,835
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	120,197	183,976
1976	4	Ford (R)	149,259	173,703
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	118,032	206,814
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	146,742	232,450
1988	4	*Bush (R)	168,936	190,412
1992**	3	*Clinton (D)	154,507	144,207
1996**	3	Dole (R)	167,922	179,652
2000	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	137,126	240,178
2004	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	173,710	266,063

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 107,225 votes in 1992 and 55,229 votes in 1996.

won 6% of the vote. In 2004, Bush again won a decisive victory over Democratic challenger John Kerry, 59% to 39%. In 2004 there were 638,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

Montana Governor Marc Racicot, Republican, was elected in 1992 and reelected in 1996. Republican Judy Martz was elected Montana's first female governor in 2000. In 2004, Democrat Brian Schweitzer won the governorship, becoming the first Democrat since 1988 to win the office. Republican Conrad Burns was elected to the Senate in 1988 and reelected in 1994 and 2000, and Democrat Max Baucus won reelection in 2002. The state's sole seat in the US House was retained by a Republican in the 2004 election. In mid-2005, there were 23 Republicans and 27 Democrats in the state Senate. The state House was split, with 50 seats held by Republicans and 50 by Democrats.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Montana had 56 counties, 129 municipalities, 592 special districts, and 453 public school districts. Typical elected county officials are three county commissioners (or a city manager), attorney, sheriff, clerk and recorder, school superintendent, treasurer, assessor, and coroner. Unified city-county governments include Anaconda-Deer Lodge and Butte-Silver Bow.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 35,946 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Montana operates under state statute; the emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Citizens' Advocate Office, established in 1973, serves as a clearinghouse for problems, complaints, and questions concerning state government. The commissioner of higher education administers the state university system, while the superintendent of public instruction is responsible for the public schools. The Department of Transportation is the main transportation agency. Health and welfare programs are the province of the Department of Public Health and Human Services. Other departments deal with agriculture, commerce, justice, labor and industry, livestock, and natural resources and conservation.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Montana's highest court, the Montana Supreme Court, consists of a chief justice and six associate justices. District courts are the courts of general jurisdiction. Justice of the peace courts are essentially county courts whose jurisdiction is limited to minor civil cases, misdemeanors, and traffic violations. Montana has seven supreme court justices elected on nonpartisan ballots for eight-year terms and 37 district court judges elected for six years.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 3,877 prisoners were held in Montana's state and federal prisons, an increase from 3,620 of 7.1% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 473 inmates were female, up from 419 or 12.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Montana had an incarceration rate of 416 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Montana in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 293.8 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 2,723 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 27,215 reported incidents or 2,936.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Montana has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has executed only two persons. The most recent execution was carried out in February 1998. As of 1 January 2006, Montana had four inmates on death row.

In 2003, Montana spent \$37,553,219 on homeland security, an average of \$37 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 3,789 active-duty military personnel and 1,274 civilian personnel stationed in Montana. The principal military facility in Montana is Malmstrom Air Force Base (Great Falls), a Strategic Air Command facility. Total defense contracts in 2004 amounted to \$206.8 million, and total Defense Department payroll outlays were \$403 million.

An estimated 102,605 veterans of US military service were living in Montana in 2003. Of these, 13,746 served in World War II; 11,049 in the Korean conflict; 33,814 during the Vietnam era; and 14,703 in the Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in Montana exceeded to \$291 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the Montana Highway Patrol employed 206 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Montana's first great migratory wave brought Indians from the east during the 17th and 18th centuries. The gold rush of the 1860s and a land boom between 1900 and 1920 resulted in surges of white settlement. The economically troubled 1920s and 1930s produced a severe wave of out-migration that continued through the 1960s. The trend reversed between 1970 and 1980, however, when Montana's net gain from migration was 16,000; from 1980 to 1989, the state had a net loss of 43,000 residents from migration. Between 1990 and 1998, Montana had net gains of 48,000 in domestic migration and 3,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 299 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 10.2%. In the period 2000-05, net international migration was 2,141 and net internal migration was 18,933, for a net gain of 21,074 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Among the interstate agreements in which Montana participates are the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Western Interstate Corrections Compact, Western Interstate Energy Compact, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, Northwest Power and Conservation Council (with Idaho, Oregon, and Washington), and Yellowstone River Compact (with North Dakota and Wyoming). Federal grants to the state and local governments in fiscal year 2005 totaled \$1.263 billion,

an estimated \$1.269 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.289 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Resource industries—agriculture, mining, lumbering—traditionally dominated Montana's economy, although they have declined during the past decade. A lawsuit with the federal government over the federal lands which supplied much of the state's timber placed the timber industry's future in question, as did the selling by Champion International of its two mills and of its timber lands. While Stimson Lumber purchased the mills from Champion, it rehired only two-thirds of the employees. The mining industry in western Montana was hurt by low international price levels. The closure of Troy Mine, which produced silver, lead and zinc, resulted in the idling of 300 workers. Employment in the services industries overtook manufacturing and mining during the 1990s. Diversification into business, engineering, health, and tourism services has stimulated the economy. Annual growth rates averaged 4.67% from 1998 to 2000, and the state economy was little affected by the national recession and slowdown in 2001, posting a growth rate of 4.3%. In November 2002, Montana's nonagricultural employment was up 1.1% above the year before, above the national rate. Employment increased in construction, financial and general services, and fell slightly in the manufacturing and transportation and utilities sectors. The announced closing of Stimson Lumber in Libby is expected to cost 300 mill jobs, and another 410 related jobs. Montana's farm sector, contributing directly less than 3% to gross state product, has been severely stressed by a four-year drought. Wheat crop yields in 2002 were the lowest since 1988. Government subsidy payments to Montana farmers, the fourth highest in the country, amounted to 157% of their net income (that is, net income would have been negative without the subsidies).

Montana's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$27.482 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$3.229 billion or 11.7% of GSP, followed by healthcare and social assistance, at \$2.491 billion (9% of GSP), and construction, at \$1.627 billion (5.9% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 106,789 small businesses in Montana. Of the 34,570 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 33,801 or 97.8% were small companies. An estimated 4,588 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 0.9% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 4,896, up 4.6% from 2003. There were 109 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 11.2% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 471 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Montana as the 32nd highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Montana had a gross state product (GSP) of \$30 billion which accounted for 0.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 48 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Montana had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$27,657. This ranked 42nd in the United States and was 84% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. Montana had a total personal income (TPI) of

\$25,635,394,000, which ranked 46th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.7% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.2%. Earnings of persons employed in Montana increased from \$17,162,093,000 in 2003 to \$18,423,659,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$35,201, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 14.3% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Montana numbered 502,800 with approximately 18,300 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 428,600. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Montana was 8.7% in May 1983. The historical low was 3.4% in March 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.9% of the labor force was employed in construction; 4.5% in manufacturing; 4.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5% in financial activities; 8.4% in professional and business services; 13% in leisure and hospitality services; and 20.2% in government. Data were unavailable for education and healthcare services.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 42,000 of Montana's 391,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 10.7% of those so employed, down from 11.7% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 48,000 workers (12.2%) in Montana were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Montana is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Montana had a two-tiered state-mandated minimum wage rate. Businesses with gross annual sales of \$110,000 or less were subject to a \$4.00 per hour rate. All others were subject to a \$5.15 per hour rate. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Montana's farms numbered 28,000 in 2004, with average acreage of 2,146 (869 hectares). Farm income totaled nearly \$2.38 billion in 2005. In 2004, Montana was the nation's third-leading wheat producer, with an output of 173.2 million bu, valued at \$612 million. Other major crops were barley (third in the United States) with 48.9 million bu, valued at \$139.6 million; sugar beets (sixth) with 1.1 million bu, valued at \$56.2 million; and hay with 4.7 million tons, valued at \$362.1 million.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Montana's farms and ranches had around 2.4 million cattle and calves, valued at \$2.5 million. There were an estimated 165,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$18.2 million in 2004. During 2003, Montana farmers produced around 24.6 million lb

(11.2 million kg) of sheep and lambs that grossed \$22.6 million in income.

2⁵ FISHING

Montana's designated fishing streams offer some 10,000 mi (16,000 km) of good to excellent freshwater fishing. In 2004, the state issued 379,252 sport fishing licenses.

Montana is home to the Creston and Ennis National Fish Hatcheries as well as the Bozeman Fish Technology Center and the Bozeman Fish Health Center. Creston specializes in rainbow trout, westslope cutthroat trout, kokanee salmon, and bull trout. Ennis works as part of the National Broodstock Program, producing about 20 million rainbow trout eggs annually for research facilities, universities and federal, state and tribal hatcheries in 23 states.

2⁶ FORESTRY

As of 2004, 23,500,000 acres (9,510,000 hectares) in Montana were classified as forestland. There were 11 national forests, comprising 16,932,447 acres (6,852,561 hectares) in 2005. The lumbering industry produced 1.09 billion board feet in 2004.

2⁷ MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Montana in 2003 was \$492 million, an increase from 2002 of about 4%. The USGS data ranked Montana 26th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, metallic minerals accounted for almost 63% of Montana's nonfuel mineral production, by value. Higher average prices and a two-fold increase in production, made gold the state's top nonfuel mineral by value, overtaking palladium. Following gold were platinum, construction sand and gravel, cement (portland and masonry), and bentonite. Montana in that same year was the only state to have primary platinum and palladium mine production and ranked fourth in the output of gold, according to the preliminary data. In 2003 Montana was first in the production of talc, second in bentonite, fourth in zinc and lead, and seventh in silver. The state was also ranked eighth in the production of gemstones (by value).

Preliminary data for 2003, showed palladium output at 14,600 kg, with a value of \$98.3 million, while platinum output that year totaled 4,100 kg, with a value of \$86.5 million. Construction sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 18 million metric tons, with a value of \$81.9 million, while bentonite clay output totaled 181,000 metric tons, with a value of \$14.9 million. Crushed stone output in that same year stood at 2.5 million metric tons, with a value of \$10.8 million.

Montana was also a producer of dimension stone in 2003.

2⁸ ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Montana had 44 electrical power service providers, of which one was publicly owned and 30 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, five were investor owned, three were federally operated, four were generation-only suppliers and one was a delivery-only provider. As of that same year there were 518,380 retail customers. Of that total, 325,008 received their power from inves-

tor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 172,439 customers, while publicly owned providers had 923 customers. There were 18,652 federal customers and there were 1,358 generation-only customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 5.210 million kW, with total production that same year at 26.268 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 22.9% came from electric utilities, with the remainder (77.1%) coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 17.048 billion kWh (64.9%), came from coal-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 8.701 billion kWh (33.1%) and petroleum fueled plants in third at 402.164 million kWh (1.5%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 0.3% of all power generated, with natural gas fueled plants and those using other types of gases at 0.1% each.

As of 2004, Montana had proven crude oil reserves of 364 million barrels, or 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 68,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked tenth (ninth excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 11th (10th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Montana had 3,627 producing oil wells, accounting for 1% of US production. As of 2005, the state's four refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 181,200 barrels per day.

In 2004, Montana had 4,971 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 96.762 billion cu ft (2.74 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 995 billion cu ft (28.2 billion cu m).

In 2004, Montana had six producing coal mines, five surface operations and one underground. Coal production that year totaled 39,989,000 short tons, up from 36,994,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, the surface mines accounted for 39,831,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 1.14 billion short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

2⁹ INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Montana's manufacturing sector covered some six product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$6.468 billion. Of that total, wood product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$960.445 million. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$666.718 million; nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at \$216.365 million; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$196.782 billion.

In 2004, a total of 17,311 people in Montana were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 12,709 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the wood product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees, with 4,109 (3,568 actual production workers). It was followed by food manufacturing, with 2,464 employees (1,547 actual production

workers); miscellaneous manufacturing, with 1,447 (976 actual production workers); and nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing, with 1,405 (1,093 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Montana's manufacturing sector paid \$664.859 million in wages. Of that amount, the wood product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$147.640 million. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$81.157 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$48.872 million; machinery manufacturing at \$48.438 million; and miscellaneous manufacturing at \$44.878 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Montana's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$7.2 billion from 1,485 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 839 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 571 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 75 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$2.4 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$3.9 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$833.7 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Montana was listed as having 5,145 retail establishments with sales of \$10.1 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (743); miscellaneous store retailers (679); building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (612); gasoline stations (597); and food and beverage stores (496). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$2.7 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$1.6 billion; food and beverage stores at \$1.3 billion; and gasoline stations at \$1.2 billion. A total of 52,891 people were employed by the retail sector in Montana that year.

Montana's foreign exports in 2005 totaled \$710 million, second to last in the nation above only Wyoming.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Montana's consumer protection laws are administered by the state's Department of Justice's Office of Consumer Protection. The office enforces Montana's consumer protection laws and regulations relating to telemarketing, the sales and repair of automobiles and trucks, credit management services, deceptive and misleading advertising, door-to-door sales, gasoline pricing, online commerce, and unfair business acts under the state's Telemarketing Registration and Fraud Act, the New Vehicle Warranty Act, the Consumer Protection Act, the Personal Solicitation Sales Act, and the Unfair Trade Practices Act.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's attorney general (who heads the state's Department of Justice) is extremely limited in terms of what it is authorized to do, and can only exercise its authority regarding consumer protection in cooperation with the state's Department of Administration. The attorney general cannot initiate civil or criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; or exercise subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the attorney general can only act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and initiate

damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts. It cannot initiate criminal proceedings or represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the state's Department of Justice's Office of Consumer Protection are located in the state capital, Helena.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Montana had 82 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 12 state-chartered and 56 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Billings market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's bank deposits at \$1.966 billion and was second in the number of financial institutions at 12 in 2004, while the Missoula market area that same year, ranked first in the number of institutions, with 13 and was second in bank deposits at \$1.278 billion. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 14.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$2.511 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 85.7% or \$15.090 billion in assets held.

As of fourth quarter 2005, median percentage of past-due/non-accrual loans to total loans stood at 1.99%, down from 2.21% in 2004 and 2.26% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates given to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 4.95% in fourth quarter 2005, up from 4.63% in 2004 and 4.57% in 2003.

Regulation of Montana's state-chartered banks, savings and loans, credit unions, trust companies, consumer finance and escrow companies, deferred deposit loan companies, title loan lenders, mortgage brokers and loan originators, is the responsibility of the state's Division of Banking and Financial Institutions.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 373,000 individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of about \$35.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$50 billion. The average coverage amount is \$96,300 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$127.7 million.

As of 2003, there were four property and casualty and three life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$1.4 billion in 2004. That year, there were 3,364 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$413 million.

In 2004, 45% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 8% held individual policies, and 26% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 19% of residents were uninsured. Montana ties with four other states as having the fourth-highest percentage of uninsured residents in the nation. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 14% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 696,263 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000

for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$674.22.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Montana. In 2005, there were 390 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 390 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were at least 11 publicly traded companies within the state, with at least 2 companies listed on the NASDAQ (Semitool, Inc. and United Financial Corp.) and at least 1 listed on the NYSE (Touch America Holdings).

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The Montana state budget is prepared biennially by the Office of Budget and Program Planning and submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year runs from 1 July to 30 June. Effective fiscal year 1995, certain public school revenues were to be deposited in a general fund, increasing general fund revenues and public school appropriations.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$1.8 billion for resources and \$1.6 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Montana were nearly \$2 billion

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Montana was slated to receive: \$15.5 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$6.6 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Montana fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding was an 11% increase over fiscal year 2006.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Montana collected \$1,788 million in tax revenues or \$1,910 per capita, which placed it 35th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 10.4% of the total, selective sales taxes 25.5%, individual income taxes 39.9%, corporate income taxes 5.5%, and other taxes 18.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, Montana had seven individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.0% to 6.9%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.75%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$958,779,000 or \$1034 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 20th nationally. Local governments collected \$774,842,000 of the total and the state government \$183,937,000.

Montana taxes gasoline at 27 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Montana citizens received \$1.58 in federal spending.

3⁷ ECONOMIC POLICY

The Economic Development Advisory Council of the state's Department of Commerce offers a variety of programs aimed at improving and enhancing Montana's economic and business climate.

Montana—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	5,451,685	5,881.00
General revenue	4,245,305	4,579.62
Intergovernmental revenue	1,705,088	1,839.36
Taxes	1,625,692	1,753.71
General sales	—	—
Selective sales	437,051	471.47
License taxes	233,372	251.75
Individual income tax	605,582	653.27
Corporate income tax	67,723	73.06
Other taxes	281,964	304.17
Current charges	493,458	532.32
Miscellaneous general revenue	421,067	454.23
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	49,524	53.42
Insurance trust revenue	1,156,856	1,247.96
Total expenditure	4,691,318	5,060.75
Intergovernmental expenditure	955,378	1,030.61
Direct expenditure	3,735,940	4,030.14
Current operation	2,476,317	2,671.32
Capital outlay	522,585	563.74
Insurance benefits and repayments	528,430	570.04
Assistance and subsidies	85,160	91.87
Interest on debt	123,448	133.17
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	708,831	764.65
Total expenditure	4,691,318	5,060.75
General expenditure	4,119,927	4,444.37
Intergovernmental expenditure	955,378	1,030.61
Direct expenditure	3,164,549	3,413.75
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,377,921	1,486.43
Public welfare	762,029	822.04
Hospitals	39,467	42.57
Health	227,881	245.83
Highways	537,810	580.16
Police protection	45,940	49.56
Correction	121,156	130.70
Natural resources	279,892	301.93
Parks and recreation	14,523	15.67
Government administration	226,112	243.92
Interest on general debt	123,448	133.17
Other and unallocable	363,748	392.39
Utility expenditure	271	.29
Liquor store expenditure	42,690	46.05
Insurance trust expenditure	528,430	570.04
Debt at end of fiscal year	3,048,862	3,288.96
Cash and security holdings	11,724,183	12,647.45

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Working closely with other state agencies and federal and private programs, the department's aim is to assist start-up and existing businesses with the technical and financial assistance necessary for their success. Relationships with local development groups, chambers of commerce, and similar organizations help Montana communities develop their full potential. Montana microbusiness companies with fewer than 10 full-time equivalent employees and annual gross revenues under \$500,000 can receive loans of up to \$35,000. Other qualifying businesses can borrow under several other state and federal development loan programs. The Economic Development Advisory Council's trade program assists businesses

in pursuing domestic and worldwide trade. The Small Business Development Center (SBDC) program and the State Data Center program both operate statewide networks of service centers.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.7 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 13.5 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 78% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.2 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 213.8; cancer, 210.1; cerebrovascular diseases, 70.3; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 63.3; and diabetes, 23.1. The accidental death rate of 57.6 per 100,000 was one of the highest in the nation. The mortality rate from HIV infection was not available. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 0.8 per 100,000 population, the lowest rate in the country. In 2002, about 54.1% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.3% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Montana had 53 community hospitals with about 4,300 beds. There were about 107,000 patient admissions that year and 2.7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$733. Also in 2003, there were about 101 certified nursing facilities in the state with 7,489 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 76.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 65.9% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Montana had 224 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 800 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 513 dentists in the state.

About 26% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs and Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 19% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$941,000.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Montana played an important role in the development of social welfare. It was one of the first states to experiment with workers' compensation, enacting a compulsory compensation law in 1915. Eight years later, Montana and Nevada became the first states to provide for old age pensions.

In 2004, about 22,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$197. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 80,870 persons (34,573 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$91.95 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$89.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Montana's TANF program is called Families Achieving In-

dependence in Montana (FAIM). In 2004, the state program had 14,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$35 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 165,910 Montana residents. This number included 106,970 retired workers, 16,770 widows and widowers, 19,070 disabled workers, 10,780 spouses, and 12,320 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.9% of the total state population and 93.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$916; widows and widowers, \$883; disabled workers, \$863; and spouses, \$459. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$430 per month; children of deceased workers, \$605; and children of disabled workers, \$249. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 14,558 Montana residents, averaging \$377 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, Montana had an estimated 423,262 housing units, of which 368,530 were occupied; 68.5% were owner-occupied. About 69.8% of all units were single-family, detached homes; about 12.8% were mobile homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 18,156 units lacked telephone service, 1,780 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 2,143 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.45 members.

In 2004, 5,000 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$119,319. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$974. Renters paid a median of \$520 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$1.15 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$6.8 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 91.9% of Montana residents age 25 and older were high school graduates, far above the national average of 84%. Some 25.5% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, slightly below the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Montana's public schools stood at 150,000. Of these, 101,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 49,000 attended high school. Approximately 85.1% of the students were white, 0.7% were black, 2.1% were Hispanic, 1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 11% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 147,000 fall 2003 and expected to reach 141,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 5.9% during the period 2002 to 2014. In fall 2003 there were 8,924 students enrolled in 104 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1.2 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Montana scored 286 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 45,111 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 11.7% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Montana had 23 degree-granting institutions. The University of Montana has campuses at Mis-

soula, Montana Tech, and Western Montana College. Montana State University encompasses the Bozeman, Billings, and Northern campuses.

42 ARTS

The Montana Arts Council was established in 1967 to promote and expand the significance of arts and culture in the lives of Montanans. In 2005, the Montana Arts Council and other Montana arts organizations received 12 grants totaling \$812,900 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). The Council has also received funding from state and private sources.

The Montana Committee for the Humanities (MCH) was founded in 1972. In 2000, the MCH sponsored its first annual Montana Festival of the Book in downtown Missoula, bringing together writers, readers, and entertainers from across the state. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$662,437 to 11 state programs.

The C. M. Russell Museum in Great Falls honors the work of Charles Russell, whose mural *Lewis and Clark Meeting the Flathead Indians* adorns the capitol in Helena. Other fine art museums include the Museum of the Rockies in Bozeman, Yellowstone Art Center at Billings, and the Missoula Art Museum. The Missoula Art Museum emphasizes artwork relevant to the American West culture, especially contemporary pieces by Montana artists. Orchestras are based in Billings and Bozeman and the Equinox Theater Company is also a popular attraction in Bozeman.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Montana had 79 public library systems, with a total of 107 libraries, of which there were 28 branches. The combined book and serial publication stock of all Montana public libraries that same year was 2,625,000 volumes, and their combined total circulation was 4,812,000. The system also had 62,000 audio and video items, each, and 3,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and four bookmobiles. Distinguished collections include: those of the University of Montana (Missoula), with over 850,000 volumes; Montana State University (Bozeman), 597,609; and the Montana State Library and Montana Historical Society Library, both in Helena. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$15,425,000, including \$49,000 in federal grants and \$344,000 in state grants.

Among the state's 74 museums are the Montana Historical Society Museum, Helena; World Museum of Mining, Butte; Western Heritage Center, Billings; and Museum of the Plains Indian, Browning. National historic sites include Big Hole and Little Big Horn battlefields and the Grant-Kohrs Ranch at Deer Lodge, west of Helena.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 93.5% of the state's households had telephone service. In addition, by December 2003 there were 373,947 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 59.5% of Montana households had a computer and 50.4% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 90,563 high-speed lines in Montana, 79,658 residential and 10,905 for business. There were 43 major commercial radio stations (14 AM, 29 FM) in 2005, and 16 major television stations.

A total of 15,300 Internet domain names were registered in Montana in 2000.

45 PRESS

As of 2005, Montana had eight morning dailies, three evening dailies, and seven Sunday newspapers. The leading papers were the *Billings Gazette* (47,105 mornings, 52,434 Sundays), *Great Falls Tribune* (33,434 mornings, 36,763 Sundays), and the *Missoulian* (30,466 mornings, 34,855 Sundays).

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,495 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,075 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National professional and business organizations and associations based in Montana include the American Indian Business Leaders and the American Simmental Association.

Regional arts, history, and culture are represented in part through the Boone and Crockett Club, the Butte Jazz Society, the Custer Battlefield Historical and Museum Association, and the Lewis and Clark Trail Heritage Foundation. Conservation and outdoors recreation organizations include the Greater Yellowstone Coalition, Montana Outfitters and Guides Association, the National Forest Foundation, the Greater Yellowstone Coalition, Our Montana (Billings), and the Great Bear Foundation (Missoula). The national Adventure Cycling Association is based in Missoula.

The Indian Law Resource Center, founded in 1978 and based in Helena, serves as a legal, environmental, and human rights organization promoting the welfare of Indian tribes and other indigenous peoples in North America.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Many tourists seek out the former gold rush camps, ghost towns, and dude ranches. Scenic wonders include all of Glacier National Park, covering 1,013,595 acres (410,202 hectares), which is the US portion of Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park; part of Yellowstone National Park, which also extends into Idaho and Wyoming; and Bighorn Canyon National Recreation Area. Bozeman, the gateway to Yellowstone Park also is a research area for dinosaurs. The Museum of the Rockies sponsors a dig in Choteau near Glacier National Park.

Montana is home to several Indian tribes; the Crow, the Sioux, and the Plains Indians reside here. Montana is the site of Custer's Last Stand, the Battle of Little Bighorn. There is a national monument to Custer there. Bighorn Canyon National Recreation Area is one of the largest outdoor recreation area in the United States. Glacier County has the Ninepipes Museum and the Flathead Indian Reservation. The Rocky Mountain Elk Wildlife Foundation is the newest of the conservation education facilities. In June 2005, Montana opened the Northeastern Plains Birding Trail. This trail links 12 birding sites and is populated by large numbers of migratory birds.

In 2002, some 10 million nonresident travelers spent \$1.8 billion on visits to the state. The tourist industry sponsors over 33,500 jobs. Tourism promotion and development were funded primarily through a 4% lodging tax, which generated \$11 million per year. Tourism payroll generated \$358 million in tax revenue. Montana

was observing the bicentennial of the Lewis and Clark expedition during 2003–06, with festivities scheduled throughout the state.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Montana, although there are minor league baseball teams in Billings, Great Falls, Helena, and Missoula. The University of Montana Grizzlies and Montana State University Bobcats both compete in the Big Sky Conference. Skiing is a very popular sport. The state has world-class ski resorts in Big Sky. Other annual sporting events include the Seeley-Lincoln 100/200 Dog Sled Race between Seely Lake and Lincoln in January and many rodeos statewide.

49 FAMOUS MONTANANS

Prominent national officeholders from Montana include US Senator Thomas Walsh (b.Wisconsin, 1859–1933), who directed the investigation that uncovered the Teapot Dome scandal; Jeannette Rankin (1880–1973), the first woman member of Congress and the only US representative to vote against American participation in both world wars; Burton K. Wheeler (b.Massachusetts, 1882–1975), US senator from 1923 to 1947 and one of the most powerful politicians in Montana history; and Michael Joseph “Mike” Mansfield (b.New York, 1903–2001), who held the office of majority leader of the US Senate longer than anyone else.

Chief Joseph (b.Oregon, 1840?–1904), a Nez Percé Indian, repeatedly outwitted the US Army during the late 1870s; Crazy Horse (1849?–77) led a Sioux-Cheyenne army in battle at Little Big Horn. The town of Bozeman is named for explorer and prospector John M. Bozeman (b.Georgia, 1835–67).

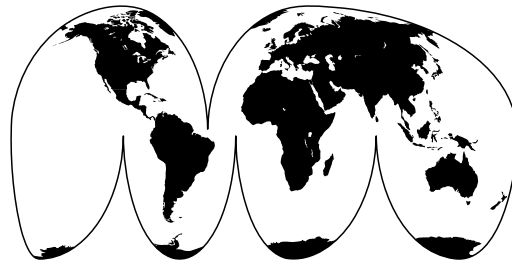
Creative artists from Montana include Alfred Bertram Guthrie Jr. (b.Indiana, 1901–91), author of *The Big Sky* and the Pulitzer Prize-winning *The Way West*; Dorothy Johnson (b.Iowa, 1905–84), whose stories have been made into such notable Western movies as *The Hanging Tree*, *The Man Who Shot Liberty Valance*, and *A Man Called Horse*; and Charles Russell (b.Missouri, 1864–1926), Montana’s foremost painter and sculptor. Hollywood stars Gary Cooper (Frank James Cooper, 1901–61) and Myrna Loy (1905–

93) were born in Helena. Newscaster Chet Huntley (1911–74) was born in Cardwell.

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**WORLD MARK
ENCYCLOPEDIA
OF THE STATES,
SEVENTH EDITION**



Volume 2
Nebraska to Wyoming
and District of Columbia, Puerto Rico,
U.S. Dependencies, and U.S. Overview

THOMSON
—★—
GALE



NEBRASKA

State of Nebraska

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Oto Indian word *nebrathka*, meaning “flat water” (for the Platte River). **NICKNAME:** The Cornhusker State. **CAPITAL:** Lincoln. **ENTERED UNION:** 1 March 1867 (37th). **SONG:** “Beautiful Nebraska.” **MOTTO:** Equality Before the Law. **FLAG:** The great seal appears in the center, in gold and silver, on a field of blue. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Agriculture is represented by a farmer’s cabin, sheaves of wheat, and growing corn; the mechanic arts, by a blacksmith. Above is the state motto; in the background, a steamboat plies the Missouri River and a train heads toward the Rockies. The scene is surrounded by the words “Great Seal of the State of Nebraska, March 1st 1867.” **BIRD:** Western meadowlark. **FLOWER:** Goldenrod. **TREE:** Western cottonwood. **GEM:** Blue agate. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Arbor Day, last Friday in April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving, 4th Thursday in November and following Friday; Christmas Day, 25 December. Other days for special observances include Pioneers’ Memorial Day, 2nd Sunday in June; Nebraska Czech Day, 1st Sunday in August; and American Indian Day, 4th Monday in September. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT; 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the western north-central United States, Nebraska ranks 15th in size among the 50 states. The total area of the state is 77,355 sq mi (200,349 sq km), of which land takes up 76,644 sq mi (198,508 sq km) and inland water 711 sq mi (1,841 sq km). Nebraska extends about 415 mi (668 km) E–W and 205 mi (330 km) N–S.

Nebraska is bordered on the N by South Dakota (with the line formed in part by the Missouri River), on the E by Iowa and Missouri (the line being defined by the Missouri River), on the S by Kansas and Colorado, and on the W by Colorado and Wyoming. The boundary length of Nebraska totals 1,332 mi (2,143 km). The state’s geographic center is in Custer County, 10 mi (16 km) NW of Broken Bow.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Most of Nebraska is prairie; more than two-thirds of the state lies within the Great Plains proper. The elevation slopes upward gradually from east to west, from a low of 840 ft (256 m) in the southeast along the Missouri River to 5,424 ft (1,654 m) in Johnson Twp. of Kimball County. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 2,600 ft (793 m). Rolling alluvial lowlands in the eastern portion of the state give way to the flat, treeless plain of central Nebraska, which in turn rises to a tableland in the west. The Sand Hills of the north-central plain is an unusual region of sand dunes anchored by grasses that cover about 18,000 sq mi (47,000 sq km).

The Sand Hills region is dotted with small natural lakes; in the rest of the state, the main lakes are artificial. The Missouri River—which, with its tributaries, drains the entire state—forms the eastern part of the northern boundary of Nebraska. Three rivers cross the state from west to east: the wide, shallow Platte River flows through the heart of the state for 310 mi (499 km), the Niobrara River traverses the state’s northern region, and the Republican River flows through southern Nebraska.

brara River traverses the state’s northern region, and the Republican River flows through southern Nebraska.

³ CLIMATE

Nebraska has a continental climate, with highly variable temperatures from season to season and year to year. The central region has an annual normal temperature of 50°F (10°C), with a normal monthly maximum of 76°F (24°C) in July and a normal monthly minimum of 22°F (-6°C) in January. The record low for the state is -47°F (-44°C), registered in Morrill County on 12 February 1899; the record high of 118°F (48°C) was recorded at Minden on 24 July 1936.

Average yearly precipitation in Omaha is about 30 in (76 cm); in the semiarid panhandle in the west, 17 in (43 cm); and in the southeast, 30 in (76 cm). Snowfall in the state varies from about 21 in (53 cm) in the southeast to about 45 in (114 cm) in the north-west corner. Blizzards, droughts, and windstorms have plagued Nebraskans throughout their history.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Nebraska’s deciduous forests are generally oak and hickory; conifer forests are dominated by western yellow (ponderosa) pine. The tallgrass prairie may include various slough grasses and needlegrasses, along with big bluestem and prairie dropseed. Mixed prairie regions abound with western wheatgrass and buffalo grass. The prairie region of the Sand Hills supports a variety of blue-stems, grammas, and other grasses. Common Nebraska wildflowers are wild rose, phlox, petunia, columbine, goldenrod, and sunflower. Rare species of Nebraska’s flora include the Hayden penstemon, yellow lady’s slipper, pawpaw, and snow trillium. Three species were threatened as of 2006: Ute ladies’ tresses, western prairie fringed orchid, and Colorado butterfly plant. The blowout penstemon was listed as endangered that year.

Common mammals native to the state are the pronghorn sheep, white-tailed and mule deer, badger, kit fox, coyote, striped ground squirrel, prairie vole, and several skunk species. There are more than 400 kinds of birds, the mourning dove, barn swallow, and western meadowlark (the state bird) among them. Three main wetland areas (Rainwater Basin wetlands, Big Bend reach of the Platte River, and the Sandhills wetlands) serve as important migrating and breeding grounds for waterfowl and nongame birds. Carp, catfish, trout, and perch are fished for sport. Rare animal species include the least shrew, least weasel, and bobcat. The US Fish and Wildlife Service listed nine animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered in 2006, including the American burying beetle, bald eagle, whooping crane, black-footed ferret, Topeka shiner, pallid sturgeon, and Eskimo curlew.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Department of Environmental Quality was established in 1971 to protect and improve the quality of the state's water, air, and land resources. The Agricultural Pollution Control Division of the Department regulates disposal of feedlot wastes and other sources of water pollution by agriculture. The Water and Waste Management Division is responsible for administering the Federal Clean Water Act, the Federal Resources Conservation and Recovery Act, portions of the Federal Safe Drinking Water Act, and the Nebraska Environmental Protection Act as it relates to water, solid waste, and hazardous materials. In 2003, Nebraska had 255 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 12 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$15 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8.2 million for its drinking water state revolving fund and \$5.4 million for the clean water revolving fund.

A program to protect groundwater from such pollutants as nitrates, synthetic organic compounds, hydrocarbons, pesticides, and other sources was outlined in 1985. In 1996, the state spent \$3.2 million on its Soil and Water Conservation Program. In 1994, the state imposed a tax on commercial fertilizers to create the Natural Resources Enhancement Fund, which distributes funds to local natural resource districts for water quality improvement programs. The Engineering Division regulates wastewater treatment standards and assists municipalities in securing federal construction grants for wastewater facilities. The Air Quality Division is responsible for monitoring and securing compliance with national ambient air quality standards. In 2003, 51.5 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

The state has three main wetland areas: Rainwater Basin wetlands, Big Bend reach of the Platte River, and the Sandhills wetlands. While these areas are protected, the state has lost about 1 million acres (405,000 hectares) of wetlands since pre-European settlement times.

6 POPULATION

Nebraska ranked 38th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,758,787 in 2005, an increase of 2.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Nebraska's population grew from 1,578,385 to 1,711,263, an increase of 8.4%. The population was projected to reach 1.78 million by 2015 and 1.81 million by 2025.

The population density in 2004 was 22.7 persons per sq mi. In 2004, the median age of all Nebraskans was 36. In the same year, 24.9% of the populace were under age 18 while 13.3% was age 65 or older. The largest cities in 2004 were Omaha, which ranked 43rd among the nation's cities with an estimated population of 409,416, and Lincoln, with 236,146 residents.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Among Nebraskans reporting at least one specific ancestry in the 2000 census, 661,133 identified their ancestry as German, 163,651 as English, 229,805 as Irish, 93,286 as Czech, and 84,294 as Swedish. The 2000 population also included 68,541 black Americans, 21,931 Asians, and 836 Pacific Islanders. There were 94,425 Hispanics and Latinos in 2000, representing 5.5% of the total population. In 2004, 4.3% of the population was black, 1.5% Asian, 0.1% Pacific Islander, 6.9% Hispanic or Latino, and 1.1% of the population claimed origin of two or more races. Foreign-born residents numbered 74,638, or 4.4% of the total population, in 2000.

There were 14,896 American Indians in Nebraska as of 2000, down from around 16,000 in 1990. The three Indian reservations maintained for the Omaha, Winnebago, and Santee Sioux tribes had the following populations as of 2000: Omaha, 5,194, and Winnebago, 2,588, and Santee Sioux, 603. In 2004, 0.9% of the population was American Indian.

8 LANGUAGES

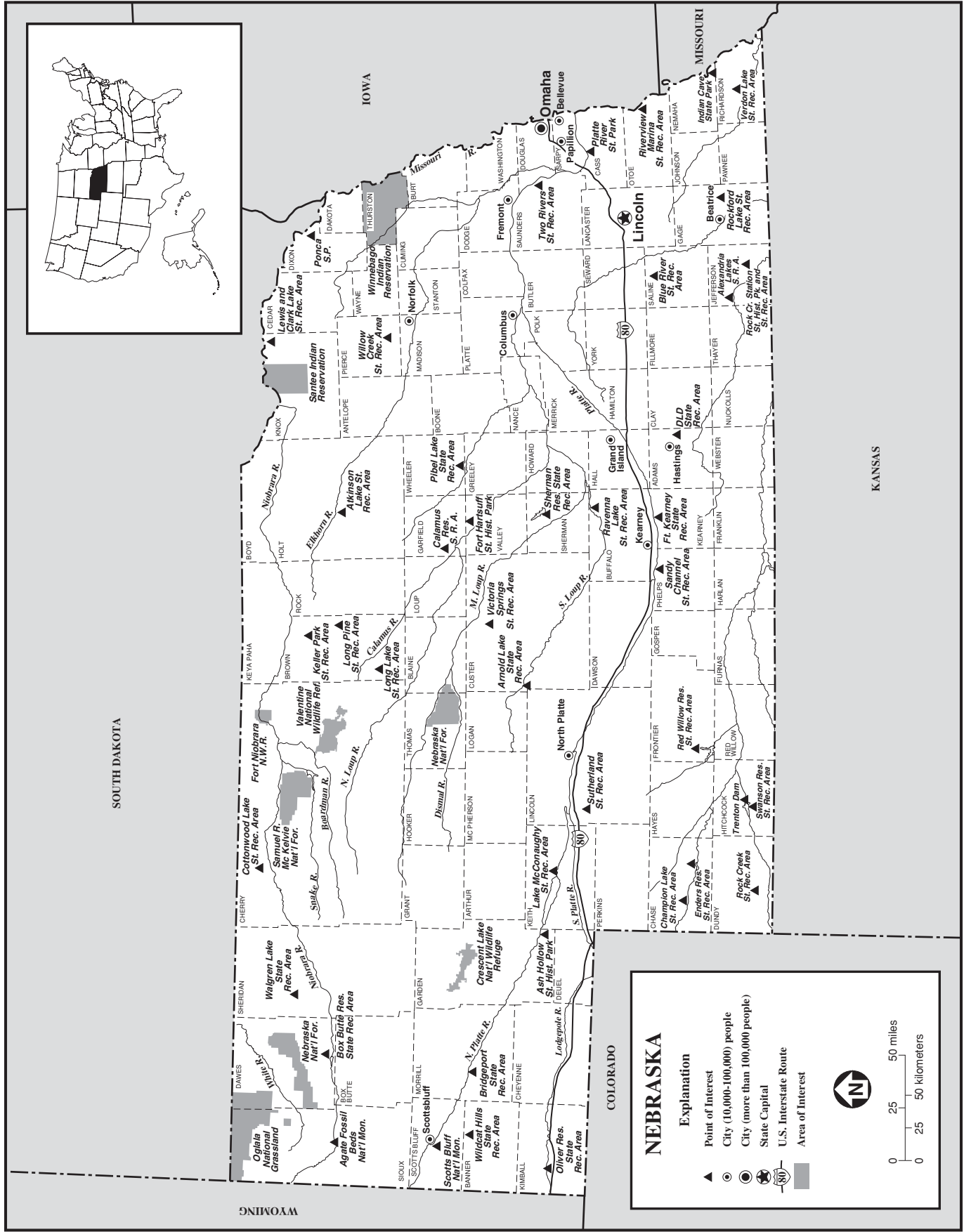
Many Plains Indians of the Macro-Siouan family once roamed widely over what is now Nebraska. Place names derived from the Siouan language include Omaha, Ogallala, Niobrara, and Keya Paha. In 1990, about 1,300 Nebraskans claimed Indian tongues as their first languages.

In 2000, 1,469,046 Nebraskans—92.1% of the resident population five years old or older—spoke only English at home, down from 95.2% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,594,700	100.0
English	1,469,046	92.1
Speak a language other than English	125,654	7.9
Speak a language other than English	125,654	7.9
Spanish or Spanish Creole	77,655	4.9
German	8,865	0.6
Vietnamese	5,958	0.4
Other Slavic languages	4,236	0.3
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	3,631	0.2
Chinese	2,409	0.2
Arabic	1,628	0.1
Russian	1,559	0.1
African languages	1,472	0.1
Polish	1,420	0.1
Italian	1,419	0.1
Tagalog	1,311	0.1
Japanese	1,274	0.1

Nebraska English, except for a slight South Midland influence in the southwest and some Northern influence from Wisconsin and New York settlers in the Platte River Valley, is almost pure



SOUTH DAKOTA

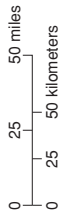
KANSAS

COLORADO

NEBRASKA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (10,000-100,000) people
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- ⦿ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



North Midland. A few words, mostly food terms like *kolaches* (fruit-filled pastries), are derived from the language of the large Czech population. Usual pronunciation features are *on* and *hog* with the /o/, *cow* and *now* as /kaow/ and /naow/, because with the /ah/ vowel, *cot* and *caught* as sound-alikes, and a strong final /r/. *Fire* sounds almost like *far*, and *our* like *are*; *greasy* is pronounced /greezy/.

⁹RELIGIONS

Nebraska's religious history derives from its patterns of immigration. German and Scandinavian settlers tended to be Lutheran; Irish, Polish, and Czech immigrants were mainly Roman Catholic. Methodism and other Protestant religions were spread by settlers from other Midwestern states.

Though Protestants collectively outnumber Catholics, the Roman Catholic Church is the largest single Christian denomination within the state with about 376,843 adherents in 2004; of which 229,952 belong to the archdiocese of Omaha. As of a 2000 general survey, Lutherans constituted the largest Protestant group with 117,419 adherents of the Missouri Synod, 128,570 of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, and 5,829 of the Wisconsin Evangelical Lutheran Synod. In 2004, there were 84,337 members of the United Methodist Church. In 2000, there were 39,420 Presbyterians-USA. In 2006, there were 20,910 members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons); a Mormon temple was opened in Winter Quarters in 2001. As of 2005, there were 18,119 members of the United Church of Christ. The Jewish population was estimated at 7,100 in 2000 and Muslims numbered about 3,115. That year, there were 704,403 people (about 41% of the population) who were not counted as members of any religious organization.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Nebraska's development was profoundly influenced by two major railroads, the Union Pacific and the Chicago Burlington and Quincy (later merged along with the Great Northern and Northern Pacific railroads into the Burlington Northern in 1970), both of which were major landowners in the state in the late 1800s. As of 2003, the Union Pacific and the former railroads that make up the Burlington Northern (now the Burlington Northern Santa Fe) still operated in Nebraska, and constitute the state's two Class I railroads. Altogether, in that year, there were 11 railroads in the state with 3,548 rail mi (5,712 km) of track. As of 2006, Amtrak provided east-west service to five stations in Nebraska via its Chicago to Emreyville/San Francisco California Zephyr train

Nebraska's road system which totaled 93,245 mi (150,124 km) in 2004, is dominated by Interstate 80, the major east-west route and the largest public investment project in the state's history. Some 1.678 million motor vehicles were registered in 2004, of which around 829,000 were automobiles and about 820,000 were trucks of all types. There were 1,315,819 licensed drivers in the state that same year.

In 2005, Nebraska had a total of 303 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 266 airports, 36 heliports, and one seaplane base. Eppley Airfield, Omaha's airport, is by far the busiest in the state. In 2004, Epply had 1,892,379 passengers enplaned.

Nebraska in 2004 had 318 mi (512 km) of navigable waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled only 50,000 tons.

¹¹HISTORY

Nebraska's first inhabitants, from about 10,000 BC, were nomadic Paleo-Indians. Successive groups were more sedentary, cultivating corn and beans. Archaeological excavations indicate that prolonged drought and dust storms before the 16th century caused these inhabitants to vacate the area. In the 16th and 17th centuries, other Indian tribes came from the East, some pushed by enemy tribes, others seeking new hunting grounds. By 1800, semisedentary Pawnee, Ponca, Omaha, and Oto, along with several nomadic groups, were in the region.

The Indians developed amiable relations with the first white explorers, French and Spanish fur trappers and traders who traveled through Nebraska in the 18th century using the Missouri River as a route to the West. The area was claimed by both Spain and France and was French territory at the time of the Louisiana Purchase, when it came under US jurisdiction. It was explored during the first half of the 19th century by Lewis and Clark, Zebulon Pike, Stephen H. Long, and John C. Frémont.

The Indian Intercourse Act of 1834 forbade white settlement west of the Mississippi River, reserving the Great Plains as Indian Territory. Nothing prevented whites from traversing Nebraska, however, and from 1840 to 1866, some 350,000 persons crossed the area on the Oregon, California, and Mormon trails, following the Platte River Valley, which was a natural highway to the West. Military forts were established in the 1840s to protect travelers from Indian attack.

The Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 established Nebraska Territory, which stretched from Kansas to Canada and from the Missouri River to the Rockies. The territory assumed its present shape in 1861. Still sparsely populated, Nebraska escaped the violence over the slavery issue that afflicted Kansas. The creation of Nebraska Territory heightened conflict between Indians and white settlers, however, as Indians were forced to cede more and more of their land. From mid-1860 to the late 1870s, western Nebraska was a battleground for Indians and US soldiers. By 1890, the Indians were defeated and moved onto reservations in Nebraska, South Dakota, and Oklahoma.

Settlement of Nebraska Territory was rapid, accelerated by the Homestead Act of 1862, under which the US government provided 160 acres (65 hectares) to a settler for a nominal fee, and the construction of the Union Pacific, the first transcontinental railroad. The Burlington Railroad, which came to Nebraska in the late 1860s, used its vast land grants from Congress to promote immigration, selling the land to potential settlers from the East and from Europe. The end of the Civil War brought an influx of Union veterans, bolstering the Republican administration, which began pushing for statehood. On 1 March 1867, Nebraska became the 37th state to join the Union. Farming and ranching developed as the state's two main enterprises. Facing for the first time the harsh elements of the Great Plains, homesteaders in central and western Nebraska evolved what came to be known as the sod-house culture, using grassy soil to construct sturdy insulated homes. They harnessed the wind with windmills to pump water, constructed fences of barbed wire, and developed dry-land farming techniques.

Ranching existed in Nebraska as early as 1859, and by the 1870s it was well established in the western part of the state. Some foreign investors controlled hundreds of thousands of acres of the free range. The cruel winter of 1886–87 killed thousands of cattle and bankrupted many of these large ranches.

By 1890, depressed farm prices, high railroad shipping charges, and rising interest rates were hurting the state's farmers, and a drought in the 1890s exacerbated their plight. These problems contributed to the rise of populism, a pro-agrarian movement. Many Nebraska legislators embraced populism, helping to bring about the first initiative and referendum laws in the United States, providing for the regulation of stockyards and telephone and telegraph companies, and instituting compulsory education.

World War I created a rift among Nebraskans as excessive patriotic zeal was directed against residents of German descent. German-language newspapers were censored, ministers were ordered to preach only in English (often to congregations that understood only German), and three university professors of German origin were fired. A Nebraska law (1919) that prohibited the teaching of any foreign language until high school was later declared unconstitutional by the US Supreme Court.

Tilling of marginal land to take advantage of farm prices that had been inflated during World War I caused economic distress during the 1920s. Nebraska's farm economy was already in peril when the dust storms of the 1930s began, and conditions worsened as drought, heat, and grasshopper invasions plagued the state. Thousands of people, particularly from the southwest counties in which dust-bowl conditions were most severe, fled Nebraska for the west coast. Some farmers joined protest movements—dumping milk, for example, rather than selling at depressed prices—while others marched on the state capital to demand a moratorium on farm debts, which they received. In the end, federal aid saved the farmers.

The onset of World War II brought prosperity to other sectors. Military airfields and war industries were placed in the state because of its safe inland location, bringing industrial growth that extended into the postwar years. Much of the new industry that developed during the postwar era was agriculture-related, including the manufacture of mechanized implements and irrigation equipment.

Farm output and income increased dramatically into the 1970s through wider use of hybrid seed, pesticides, fungicides, chemical fertilizers, close-row planting, and irrigation, but contaminated runoff adversely affected water quality and greater water use drastically lowered water-table levels. Many farmers took on large debt burdens to finance expanded output, their credit buoyed by strong farm-product prices and exports. When prices began to fall in the early 1980s, many found themselves overextended. By spring 1985, an estimated 10% of all farmers were reportedly close to bankruptcy. In the early 1990s farm prices rose; the average farm income in Nebraska rose more than 10% between 1989 and the mid-1990s. Increasingly, the state had fewer, larger, and more-mechanized farms. The growth of small industries and tourism also bolstered Nebraska's economy in the 1990s. By 1999 the state enjoyed one of the lowest unemployment rates in the nation—2.9%. But farmers were struggling again. A wildfire in the Sandhills of Nebraska's panhandle in 1999 scorched 74,840 acres and claimed 25,000 trees; it was the largest fire in the state's his-

tory. In the summer of 2000, areas of the state had had no substantial rain in a year. The previous autumn and winter were the driest on record. Drought conditions prevailed. Even with mitigation efforts, much of the state's corn crop was lost.

Challenges still facing the state have included a loss of population in rural areas, urban decay, and tension among various ethnic groups. In 1998 there were more Hispanics, accounting for 4.4% of the population, in the state than there were African Americans; Nebraska also has a small Native American population. Water conservation to avoid depletion of the state's aquifers for irrigation purposes remains a major priority. Nebraska was facing its worst recession since the 1980s in 2003. By 2004, the state was in its fifth straight year of severe drought conditions.

Lt. Governor Dave Heineman became Nebraska's governor in January 2005 when former Governor Mike Johanns resigned to serve as US Secretary of Agriculture. Heineman upon coming to office focused on four priorities: education, economic vitality, efficiency in government, and protecting families.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The first state constitution was adopted in 1866; a second, adopted in 1875, is still in effect. A 1919–20 constitutional convention proposed—and voters passed—41 amendments; by January 2005, the document had been revised an additional 222 times.

Nebraska's legislature is unique among the states; since 1934, it has been a unicameral body of 49 members elected on a nonpartisan basis. Members, who go by the title of senator, are chosen in even-numbered years for four-year terms. Legislative sessions begin in early January each year and are limited to 90 legislative days in odd-numbered years and to 60 legislative days in even-numbered years. Special sessions, not formally limited in duration, may be called by petition of two-thirds of the legislators. Legislators must be qualified voters, at least 21 years old, and should have lived in their district for a year prior to election. The legislative salary was \$12,000 in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

Elected executives are the governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, and attorney general, all of whom serve four-year terms. The governor and lieutenant governor are jointly elected; each must be a US citizen for at least five years, at least 30 years old, and have been a resident and citizen of Nebraska for at least five years. After serving two consecutive terms, the governor is ineligible for the office for four years. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$85,000.

A bill becomes law when passed by a majority of the legislature and signed by the governor. If the governor does not approve, the bill is returned with objections, and a three-fifths vote of the members of the legislature is required to override the veto. A bill automatically becomes law if the governor does not take action within five days of receiving it.

A three-fifths majority of the legislature is required to propose an amendment to the state constitution. The people may propose an amendment by presenting a petition signed by 10% of total votes for governor at last election. The amendments are then submitted for approval at the next regular election or at a special election in which a majority of the votes tallied must be at least 30% of the total number of registered voters.

Nebraska Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	NEBRASKA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	6	Dewey (R)	224,165	264,774
1952	6	*Eisenhower (R)	188,057	421,603
1956	6	*Eisenhower (R)	199,029	378,108
1960	6	Nixon (R)	232,542	380,553
1964	5	*Johnson (D)	307,307	276,847
1968	5	*Nixon (R)	170,784	321,163
1972	5	*Nixon (R)	169,991	406,298
1976	5	Ford (R)	233,692	359,705
1980	5	*Reagan (R)	166,424	419,214
1984	5	*Reagan (R)	187,866	460,054
1988	5	*Bush (R)	259,235	397,956
1992**	5	Bush (R)	217,344	344,346
1996**	5	Dole (R)	236,761	363,467
2000	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	231,780	433,862
2004	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	254,328	512,814

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 174,687 votes in 1992 and 71,278 votes in 1996.

Voters in Nebraska must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and state residents. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those officially found mentally incompetent.

¹³ POLITICAL PARTIES

In the 2000 presidential elections, Republican candidate George W. Bush secured 63% of the vote; Democrat Al Gore, 33%; and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader, 3%. In 2004, Bush again dominated, with 66% of the vote to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 33%. In 2004 there were 1,160,000 registered voters. In 1998, 37% of registered voters were Democratic, 49% Republican, and 14% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had five electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

In the 2000 elections, Democrat Ben Nelson was elected to the Senate; Republican Chuck Hagel won election to the Senate in 1996 and was reelected in 2002. In 1998 Republican Mike Johanns was elected to succeed Nelson as governor; Johanns was reelected in 2002, but resigned before completing his term to become the US secretary of agriculture. Johanns was succeeded by Lieutenant Governor Dave Heineman in January 2005. Republicans won all three of the state's seats in the US House of Representatives in 1994, 1996, 1998, 2000, 2002, and 2004. Nebraska's unicameral state legislature is nonpartisan.

¹⁴ LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, Nebraska had 93 counties, 531 municipalities, and 576 public school districts. Some 1,146 special districts covered such services as fire protection, housing, irrigation, and sewage treatment. In 2002, there were 446 townships. Boards of supervisors or commissioners, elected by voters, administer at the county level. Municipalities are generally governed by a mayor (or city manager) and council. Villages elect trustees to governing boards.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 79,114 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

¹⁵ STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Nebraska operates under executive order; the lieutenant governor is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

As of 1 June 1971, the Office of Public Counsel (Ombudsman) was empowered to investigate complaints from citizens in relation to the state government. The Accountability and Disclosure Commission, established in 1977, regulates the organization and financing of political campaigns and investigates reports of conflicts of interest involving state officials.

The eight-member state Board of Education, elected on a non-partisan basis, oversees elementary and secondary public schools and vocational education. The Board of Regents, which also consists of eight elected members, governs the University of Nebraska system. Special examining boards license architects, engineers, psychologists, and land surveyors. The Coordinating Commission for Postsecondary Education works to develop a statewide plan for an educationally and economically sound, progressive, and coordinated system of postsecondary education.

The Department of Roads maintains and builds highways, and the Department of Aeronautics regulates aviation, licenses airports, and registers aviators. The Department of Motor Vehicles provides vehicle and driver services. Natural resources are protected by the Forest Service, Energy Office, Game and Parks Commission, and the Natural Resources Department.

Public assistance, child welfare, medical care for the indigent, and a special program of services for children with disabilities are the responsibility of the Health and Human Service System, which also operates community health services, provides nutritional services, and is responsible for disease control.

The state's huge agricultural industry is aided and monitored by the Department of Agriculture, which is empowered to protect livestock, inspect food-processing areas, conduct research into crop development, and encourage product marketing. The Nebraska Corn Board works to enhance the profitability of the corn producer.

¹⁶ JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Nebraska Supreme Court is the state's highest court, which consists of a chief justice and six other justices, all of whom are initially appointed by the governor. They must be elected after serving three years, and every six years thereafter, running unopposed on their own record. Below the Supreme Court are the district courts of which 53 judges serve 21 districts in the state. These are trial courts of general jurisdiction. County courts handle criminal misdemeanors and civil cases involving less than \$5,000. In addition, there are a court of industrial relations, a worker's compensation court, two conciliation courts (family courts), two municipal courts (in Omaha and Lincoln), and juvenile courts in three counties.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 4,130 prisoners were held in Nebraska's state and federal prisons, an increase from 4,040 of 2.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 369 inmates were female, up from 323 or 14.2% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Nebraska had an incarceration rate of 230 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Nebraska in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault) of 308.7 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 5,393 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary, larceny/theft, and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 61,512 reported incidents or 3,520.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Nebraska has a death penalty, of which electrocution is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state had executed only three people, the most recent of which was in December 1997. As of 1 January 2006, Nebraska had 10 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Nebraska spent \$42,004,625 on homeland security, an average of \$24 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The US military presence in the state is concentrated near Omaha, where Offutt Air Force Base serves as the headquarters of the US Strategic Air Command. In 2004, Nebraska firms were awarded \$401.2 million in defense contracts, and defense payroll outlays were \$925 million. In the same year, there were 7,332 active-duty military personnel and 3,769 civilian personnel stationed in Nebraska.

A total of 159,487 veterans of US military service resided in Nebraska as of 2003. Of these, 22,241 served in World War II, 20,282 in the Korean conflict, 48,499 in the Vietnam era, and 25,391 during the Persian Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in Nebraska amounted to \$538 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the Nebraska State Patrol employed 498 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The pioneers who settled Nebraska in the 1860s consisted mainly of Civil War veterans from the North and foreign-born immigrants. Some of the settlers migrated from the East and easterly parts of the Midwest, but many came directly from Europe to farm the land. The Union Pacific and Burlington Northern railroads, which sold land to the settlers, actively recruited immigrants in Europe. Germans were the largest group to settle in Nebraska (in 1900, 65,506 residents were German-born), then Czechs from Bohemia, and Scandinavians from Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. The Irish came to work on the railroads in the 1860s and stayed to help build the cities. Another wave of Irish immigrants in the 1880s went to work in the packinghouses of Omaha. The city's stockyards also attracted Polish workers. The 1900 census showed that over one-half of all Nebraskans were either foreign-born or the children of foreign-born parents. For much of the 20th century, Nebraska was in a period of out-migration. From 1930 to 1960, the state suffered a net loss of nearly 500,000 people through migration, with more than one third of the total leaving during the dust-bowl decade, 1930–40. This trend continued, with Nebraska experiencing a net out-migration of 27,400 for the period 1985–90. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 2,000 in domestic migration and 14,000 in international migration. In 1998, 1,267 foreign immigrants arrived in Nebraska. The state's overall population increased 5.3% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 22,199 and net internal migration was -26,206, for a net loss of 4,007 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Nebraska's Commission on Intergovernmental Cooperation represents the state in the Council of State Governments. As an oil-producing state, Nebraska is a member of the Interstate Compact to Conserve Oil and Gas. In addition, the state belongs to several regional commissions. Of particular importance are the Republican River Compact with Colorado and Kansas, the Big Blue River Compact with Kansas, the South Platte River Compact with Colorado, the Ponca Creek Nebraska-South Dakota-Wyoming Water Compact, and the Upper Niobrara River Compact with Wyoming. The Nebraska Boundary Commission was authorized in 1982 to enter into negotiations to more precisely demarcate Nebraska's boundaries with Iowa, South Dakota, and Missouri. Nebraska is also a member of the Central Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact, under which Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, Louisiana, and Arkansas have located a suitable disposal site for such waste. Boundary pacts are in effect with Iowa, Missouri, and South Dakota. In fiscal year 2005, the state received \$1.893 billion in federal grants, an estimated \$1.927 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.994 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Agriculture has historically been the backbone of Nebraska's economy, with cattle, corn, hogs, and soybeans leading the state's list of farm products. However, Nebraska is attempting to diversify its economy and has been successful in attracting new business, in large part because of its location near western coal and oil deposits.

The largest portion of the state's labor force is employed in agriculture, either directly or indirectly—as farm workers, as factory workers in the food-processing and farm-equipment industries, or as providers of related services. The service sector, which includes not only the servicing of equipment but also the high growth areas of health and business services and telemarketing, expanded at an annual rate of 4.4% during the 1980s. The trend intensified in the late 1990s, as general services grew at an average annual rate of 7.7% from 1998 to 2001, and financial services grew at an average rate of 5.7%. Nebraska was not deeply involved in the information technology (IT) boom of the 1990s, and therefore was not deeply affected by its bust in 2001. Coming into the 21st century, the state economy grew a moderate average rate of about 4.1% (1998 to 2000), which fell to 2.4% in 2001. In 2001, declines in manufacturing employment were off-set by increases in the services and government sectors. The job losses became more severe in 2002, by the fourth quarter, the unemployment rate had eased to 3.3%, down from 3.9% in April 2002.

With technological advances in farming and transportation, and consolidation in the agricultural sector, Nebraska's rural counties have been losing population since the 1970s. In 2002, sixty six of Nebraska's 93 counties had lower populations than in the 1970s, and population loss accelerated during the 1990s. Drought conditions in 2002 disrupted cattle production because of shortages of hay and pasture. Drought persisted into the winter of 2002–03, and the state is likely to face long-term water shortages.

Nebraska's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$68.183 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$8.305 billion or 12.1% of GSP, fol-

lowed by the real estate sector at \$5.872 billion (8.6% of GSP), and health care and social assistance at \$4.919 billion (7.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 151,088 small businesses in Nebraska. Of the 46,161 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 44,703 or 96.8% were small companies. An estimated 4,849 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 12.5% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 5,051, unchanged from 2003. There were 207 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 13% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 485 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Nebraska as the 28th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Nebraska had a gross state product (GSP) of \$70 billion which accounted for 0.6% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 37 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Nebraska had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$32,341. This ranked 21st in the United States and was 98% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. Nebraska had a total personal income (TPI) of \$56,523,179,000, which ranked 36th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.2%. Earnings of persons employed in Nebraska increased from \$41,452,474,000 in 2003 to \$43,923,337,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.0%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$44,623 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.9% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Nebraska numbered 988,200, with approximately 33,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.4%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 947,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Nebraska was 6.8% in February 1983. The historical low was 2.2% in February 1998. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.9% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10.9% in manufacturing; 21.2% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.9% in financial activities; 10.4% in professional and business services; 13.7% in education and health services; 8.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.1% in government.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 69,000 of Nebraska's 830,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 8.3% of those so employed, which was unchanged from 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 79,000 workers (9.5%) in Nebraska were covered by a union or employee association contract, which in-

cludes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Nebraska is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Nebraska had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Territorial Nebraska was settled by homesteaders. Farmers easily adapted to the land and the relatively rainy eastern region, and corn soon became their major crop. In the drier central and western prairie regions, settlers were forced to learn new farming methods to conserve moisture in the ground. Droughts in the 1890s provided impetus for water conservation. Initially, oats and spring wheat were grown along with corn, but by the end of the 19th century, winter wheat became the main wheat crop. The drought and dust storms of the 1930s, which devastated the state's agricultural economy, once again drove home the need for water and soil conservation. In 2002, a total of 7.5 million acres (3 million hectares) were irrigated, a 21% increase from 1992. In 2004, there were 48,300 farms covering 45.9 million acres (18.6 million hectares).

With total cash receipts from farm marketings at over \$11.2 billion in 2005, Nebraska ranked fourth among the 50 states. About \$7.3 billion of all farm marketings came from livestock production, and \$3.9 billion from cash crops (9.9% of US total). In 2004, corn accounted for 22% of farm receipts.

Crop production in 2004 (in bushels) included: corn, 1.3 billion; sorghum grain, 33.6 million; wheat, 61 million; oats, 3.7 million; and barley, 162,000. Hay production was 6.1 million tons and potato production, 9.3 million hundredweight (422 million kg). During 2000–04, Nebraska ranked third among the states in production of corn for grain and sorghum for grain, and fifth in sorghum for beans.

Farms in Nebraska are major businesses requiring large land holdings to justify investments. The average value of an acre of cropland in 2004 was \$1,750. Nebraska farms still tend to be owned by individuals or families rather than by large corporations. The strength of state support for the family farm was reflected in the passage of a 1982 constitutional amendment, initiated by petition, prohibiting the purchase of Nebraska farm and ranch lands by other than a Nebraska family farm corporation.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Nebraska ranked third behind Texas and Kansas in the total number of cattle on farms (6.35 million), including 61,000 milk cows. Nebraska farmers had around 2.85 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$313.5 million in 2004. During 2003, the state produced an estimated 10.3 million lb (4.7 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which grossed \$10.8 million in income for Nebraska farmers. Dairy products included 1.13 billion lb (0.51 billion kg) of milk produced.

2⁵ FISHING

Commercial fishing is negligible in Nebraska. The US Fish and Wildlife Service maintains 87 public fishing areas. In 2004, the state had 176,619 fishing license holders. There are five state hatcheries producing a variety of stock fish that includes large-

mouth bass, bluegill, black crappie, channel catfish, yellow perch, walleye, trout, and tiger musky.

26 FORESTRY

Arbor Day, now observed throughout the United States, originated in Nebraska in 1872 as a way of encouraging tree planting in the sparsely forested state. Forestland occupies 1,275,000 acres (516,000 hectares), or 2.6% of all Nebraska. Ash, boxelder, hackberry, cottonwood, honey locust, red and bur oaks, walnut, elm, and willow trees are common to eastern and central Nebraska, while ponderosa pine, cottonwood, eastern red cedar, and Rocky Mountain juniper prevail in the west. Lumber production amounted to only 15 million board ft in 2004. The state's two national forests—Nebraska and Samuel R. McKelvie—are primarily grassland and are managed for livestock grazing. In 2005, the National Forest Service maintained 257,628 acres (104,262 hectares) of forestland.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Nebraska in 2003 was \$94.2 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 4%.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, by value and in descending order, cement (portland and masonry), crushed stone, and construction sand and gravel were the state's top nonfuel minerals.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed crushed stone production totaling 6.9 million metric tons, with a value of \$51.1 million, while construction sand and gravel output stood at 12.2 million metric tons, with a value of \$42.1 million.

Most clay mining occurs in the southeast region, but sand and gravel mining takes place throughout the state. Industrial sand was used in the production of glass and had some applications outside of construction activities. Nebraska in 2003 was also a producer of common clays and lime.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Nebraska is the only state with an electric power system owned by the public through regional, cooperative, and municipal systems. As of 2003, Nebraska had 162 electrical power service providers, of which 151 were publicly owned, 23 were cooperatives and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 930,822 retail customers. Of that total, 909,089 received their power from publicly owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 21,721 customers and 12 were 48 federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 6.685 million kW, with total production that same year at 30.455 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 99.7% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 20.954 billion kWh (68.8%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 7.996 billion kWh (26.3%) and hydroelectric plants in third at 980.110 million kWh (3.2%). Other renewable power sources, natural gas fueled plants, and petroleum fired plants accounted for the remainder.

As of 2006, Nebraska had two operating nuclear power plants: the Cooper plant in Brownville and the Fort Calhoun Station near Omaha.

As of 2004, Nebraska had proven crude oil reserves of 15 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 8,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 22nd (21st excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 23rd (22nd excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004, Nebraska had 1,639 producing oil wells and accounted for under 1% of all US production. The state has no refineries.

In 2004, Nebraska had 111 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1.454 billion cu ft (0.041 billion cu m). There was no data available on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

Nebraska has no commercial coal industry.

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Nebraska's manufacturing sector covered some 15 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$34.433 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$19.037 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$2.061 billion, transportation equipment manufacturing at \$2.034 billion, chemical manufacturing at \$1.904 billion, and miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.623 billion.

In 2004, a total of 99,706 people in Nebraska were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 76,578 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 36,190, with 29,537 actual production workers. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at 8,590 employees (5,617 actual production workers), fabricated metal product manufacturing at 8,306 employees (6,112 actual production workers), transportation equipment manufacturing at 7,841 employees (6,508 actual production workers), plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 5,159 employees (4,078 actual production workers), and miscellaneous manufacturing with 5,025 employees (4,070 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Nebraska's manufacturing sector paid \$3.532 billion in wages. Of that amount, the food manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.131 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$350.037 million, fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$307.681 million, transport equipment manufacturing at \$291.760 million, and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$184.551 million.

Nebraska has a small but growing manufacturing sector, the largest portion of which is in the Omaha metropolitan area. Other manufacturing centers are located in Lincoln and the Sioux City, Iowa, metropolitan area that is located in Nebraska.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Nebraska's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$26.1 billion

from 2,907 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,542 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,193 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 172 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$6.2 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$16.5 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$3.3 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Nebraska was listed as having 8,157 retail establishments with sales of \$20.2 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,126), gasoline stations (1,116), building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (1,022), and food and beverage stores (892). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$5.07 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$2.8 billion, food and beverage stores at \$2.4 billion, and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$2.1 billion. A total of 105,634 people were employed by the retail sector in Nebraska that year.

Nebraska's exports of goods produced within the state totaled \$3 billion in 2005. Major export items included: food, electronic equipment, agricultural crops, transport equipment, and chemicals. The majority of exports went to Japan, Canada, and Mexico.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Nebraska's consumer protection activities are generally the responsibility of the Office of the Attorney General's Consumers Protection Division. The Division also operates a mediation service to help the state's consumers to resolve complaints against business. Consumer protection involving railroads, telephone companies motor transport and other common carriers within the state is the responsibility of the Nebraska Public Service Commission.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's attorney general's office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings, represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies, administer consumer protection and education programs, handle formal consumer complaints, and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the attorney general's office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law. However, the state's attorney general's office cannot provide private legal advice.

The offices of the Consumer Protection Division are located in Lincoln, the state capital.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Nebraska had 262 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 25 state-chartered and 53 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Omaha-Council Bluffs market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 74 institutions and \$14.442 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 5.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$2.577 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 94.7% or \$46.120 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (NIM)—the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans—was 4.18%, down from 4.19% in 2003. In fourth quarter 2005, the median NIM was 4.15%. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans in 2004 was 1.68%, down from 1.85% in 2003 and was 1.47% in fourth quarter 2005.

Regulation of Nebraska's state-chartered banks and other financial institutions is the responsibility of the Nebraska Department of Banking and Finance.

33 INSURANCE

The insurance industry is important in Nebraska's economy. The major company in the state is Mutual of Omaha. In 2004, there were about 1.2 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of over \$91.9 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$145 billion. The average coverage amount is \$76,500 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at over \$399 million.

In 2003, there were 29 life and health and 38 property and casualty insurance companies domiciled in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$3 billion in 2004. That year, there were 13,617 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1.49 billion.

In 2004, 57% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 8% held individual policies, and 22% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 29% for family coverage. The employee contribution for single coverage averaged at 25%, the highest rate in the nation. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$624.26.

34 SECURITIES

The Bureau of Securities within the Department of Banking and Finance regulates the sale of securities. There are no stock exchanges in the state. In 2005, there were 410 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,440 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 29 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 11 NASDAQ companies, 9 NYSE listings, and 1 AMEX listing. In 2006, the state had five Fortune 500 companies; Berkshire Hathaway ranked first in the state and 13th in the nation with revenues of over \$81.6 billion, followed by ConAgra Foods, Union Pacific, Peter Kiewit Sons', Inc, and Mutual of Omaha Insurance. Peter Kiewit Sons', Inc. is an employee-owned company that does not trade in public stock. The other four companies listed are on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Nebraska's constitution prohibits the state from incurring debt in excess of \$100,000. However, there is a provision in the constitution that permits the issuance of revenue bonds for highway and water conservation and management structure construction. There are \$10 million of bonds payable by a separate legal entity that has been blended into the financial activity of the state. These bonds do not represent a general obligation of the state and are secured by revenues from the equipment that the debt was incurred to purchase.

Nebraska—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	8,316,470	4,757.71
General revenue	7,337,829	4,197.84
Intergovernmental revenue	2,383,391	1,363.50
Taxes	3,639,811	2,082.27
General sales	1,524,591	872.19
Selective sales	463,487	265.15
License taxes	201,921	115.52
Individual income tax	1,242,603	710.87
Corporate income tax	167,429	95.78
Other taxes	39,780	22.76
Current charges	652,712	373.41
Miscellaneous general revenue	661,915	378.67
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	978,641	559.86
Total expenditure	6,979,917	3,993.09
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,695,613	970.03
Direct expenditure	5,284,304	3,023.06
Current operation	4,072,878	2,330.02
Capital outlay	652,374	373.21
Insurance benefits and repayments	334,290	191.24
Assistance and subsidies	128,728	73.64
Interest on debt	96,034	54.94
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,827,865	1,045.69
Total expenditure	6,979,917	3,993.09
General expenditure	6,645,627	3,801.85
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,695,613	970.03
Direct expenditure	4,950,014	2,831.82
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	2,324,444	1,329.77
Public welfare	1,899,089	1,086.44
Hospitals	202,775	116.00
Health	308,713	176.61
Highways	595,128	340.46
Police protection	69,651	39.85
Correction	188,457	107.81
Natural resources	146,969	84.08
Parks and recreation	30,384	17.38
Government administration	178,182	101.93
Interest on general debt	96,034	54.94
Other and unallocable	605,801	346.57
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	334,290	191.24
Debt at end of fiscal year	1,949,654	1,115.36
Cash and security holdings	10,272,986	5,876.99

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

The constitution also authorizes the Board of Regents of the University of Nebraska, the Board of Trustees of the Nebraska State Colleges, and the State Board of Education to issue revenue bonds to construct, purchase, or remodel educational buildings and facilities. The payment of these bonds is generally made from revenue collected from use of the buildings and facilities. The legislature has authorized the creation of two financing authorities that are not subject to state constitutional restrictions on the incurrence of debt. These financing authorities were organized to assist in providing funds for the construction of capital improvement projects at the colleges and the University. Although the state has no legal responsibility for the debt of these financing authorities, they are considered part of the reporting entity.

The Nebraska state budget is prepared by the Budget Division of the Department of Administrative Services and is submitted annually by the governor to the legislature. The fiscal year runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$3.3 billion for resources and \$2.9 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Nebraska were \$2.5 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Nebraska was slated to receive \$5 million to co-locate the Terminal Radar Approach Control (TRACON) in Lincoln with the TRACON in Omaha.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Nebraska collected \$3,797 million in tax revenues or \$2,158 per capita, which placed it 24th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total, sales taxes 39.9%, selective sales taxes 12.0%, individual income taxes 36.7%, corporate income taxes 5.2%, and other taxes 6.0%.

As of 1 January 2006, Nebraska had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.56 to 6.84%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 5.58 to 7.81% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$2,007,118,000 or \$1,148 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 16th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$2,004,782,000 of the total and the state government \$2,336,000.

Nebraska taxes retail sales at a rate of 5.5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1.5%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 64 cents per pack, which ranks 30th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Nebraska taxes gasoline at 27 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Nebraska citizens received \$1.07 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Department of Economic Development (DED) was created in 1967 to plan, promote, and develop the economy of the state. Nebraska offers loans for businesses which create or maintain employment for persons of low and moderate income. It provides tax credits to companies which increase investment and add jobs. The Bio Nebraska Life Sciences Association was formed in 2005 to coordinate and expand life sciences in the state. Grow Nebras-

ka is a nonprofit marketing program whose mission is to expand the state's arts and craft industry. The Nebraska "Edge" programs are rural entrepreneurial training programs that are hosted by local communities, organizations and associations. The Nebraska Investment Finance Authority provides tax-exempt bond financing and technical assistance for agriculture, business, housing, and community development. In 2006, the US Chamber of Commerce ranked all 50 states on legal fairness towards business. The chamber found Nebraska to be one of five states with the best legal environment for business. The other four were Iowa, Virginia, Connecticut, and Delaware.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.7 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.9 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 11.6 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 83.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 245.3; cancer, 189.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 63.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 54; and diabetes, 22.7. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.2 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 3.9 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 57% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.2% of state residents were smokers.

University Hospital and University of Nebraska Medical Center are in Omaha. In 2003, Nebraska had 85 community hospitals with about 7,500 beds. There were about 212,000 patient admissions that year and 3.7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 4,400 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,043. Also in 2003, there were about 228 certified nursing facilities in the state with 16,378 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 83%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 75.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Nebraska had 243 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 936 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 1,114 dentists in the state.

About 15% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.1 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 43,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$220. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 117,415 persons (46,948 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$84.83 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$119.5 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states

based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Nebraska's TANF program is called Employment First. In 2004, the state program had 27,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$59 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 290,580 Nebraska residents. This number included 190,650 retired workers, 29,720 widows and widowers, 31,910 disabled workers, 18,070 spouses, and 20,230 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.6% of the total state population and 94.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$937; widows and widowers, \$927; disabled workers, \$847; and spouses, \$475. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$510 per month; children of deceased workers, \$648; and children of disabled workers, \$240. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 22,100 Nebraska residents, averaging \$368 a month. An additional \$519,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 5,574 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 757,743 housing units in Nebraska, 687,456 of which were occupied; 68.4% were owner-occupied. About 73.8% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common heating energy sources. It was estimated that 35,566 units lacked telephone service, 1,426 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 3,513 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.47 members.

In 2004, 10,900 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$106,656. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,051. Renters paid a median of \$547 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$12.3 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 91.3% of Nebraskans age 25 and older were high school graduates, exceeding the national average of 84%. Some 24.8% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, lower than the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Nebraska's public schools stood at 285,000. Of these, 195,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 90,000 attended high school. Approximately 79.5% of the students were white, 7.1% were black, 10.1% were Hispanic, 1.7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.6% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 282,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 285,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 0.2% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 39,454 students enrolled in 242 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$2.6 billion. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Nebraska scored 284 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 116,737 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 9.8% of total post-

secondary enrollment. In 2005, Nebraska had 39 degree-granting institutions, including 7 public four-year schools, 8 public two-year schools, and 16 nonprofit, private four-year institutions. The University of Nebraska is the state's largest postsecondary institution, with campuses in Kearney, Lincoln, and Omaha.

4² ARTS

The 15-member Nebraska Arts Council (NAC), appointed by the governor, is empowered to receive federal and state funds and to plan and administer statewide and special programs in all the arts. Funds are available for arts education, organizational support, multicultural arts projects, special arts-related programs, touring, and fellowships. Affiliation with the Mid-America Arts Alliance allows the council to help sponsor national and regional events. In 2005, the NAC and other Nebraska arts organizations received nine grants totaling \$747,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts.

The Nebraska Humanities Council, founded in 1972, sponsors two annual festivals: The Great Plains Chautauqua and the Nebraska Book Festival. The Nebraska Book Festival celebrates local writers and books, but also emphasizes the importance of reading and writing worldwide; the 2005 theme "Local Wonders" featured US Poet Laureate and 2005 Pulitzer Prize winner, Ted Kooser, and his title, *Local Wonders: Seasons in the Bohemian Alps*. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$782,580 to seven programs in the state.

The Omaha Theater Company for Young People sponsors a number of theatrical performances as well as the Omaha Theater Ballet Company. The Omaha Symphony was founded in 1921, and Opera Omaha was founded in 1958. In their 2006/07 season, the Omaha Symphony hosted special guest performances by pop and Christian music artist, Amy Grant, and Tony-Award winning actress, Bernadette Peters.

The Lied Center for Performing Arts in Lincoln was created in 1990 and sponsors a wide variety of dance, theater, and musical programs. The facility brings major regional, national, and international events to the state and works with the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, providing opportunities in teaching and training in the performing arts departments. Offering a wide variety of events, in 2006, performances included Cuban-American recording artist, Maria Del Rey and the musical *Sweeney Todd* performed by local musical company, TADA.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in December 2001, Nebraska had 272 public library systems, with 289 libraries, of which 17 were branches. In that same year, there was a total of 6,004,000 volumes of books and serial publications in the public library system, while total circulation was 11,366,000. The system also had 209,000 audio and 175,000 video items, 15,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and nine bookmobiles. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system came to \$37,036,000 and included \$289,000 in federal grants and \$511,000 in state grants. The Omaha public library system had 916,560 books and 2,471 periodical subscriptions in nine branches.

The Joslyn Art Museum in Omaha is the state's leading museum. Other important museums include the Nebraska State Museum

of History, the University of Nebraska State Museum (natural history), and the Sheldon Memorial Art Gallery, all in Lincoln; the Western Heritage Museum in Omaha; the Stuhr Museum of the Prairie Pioneer in Grand Island; and the Hastings Museum in Hastings. In all, the state had 107 museums in 2000. The Agate Fossil Beds National Monument in northwestern Nebraska features mammal fossils from the Miocene era and a library of paleontological and geologic material.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

Telephone service is regulated by the Public Service Commission. About 95.7% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones in 2004. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 984,355 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 66.1% of Nebraska households had a computer and 55.4% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 253,974 high-speed lines in Nebraska, 228,965 residential and 25,009 for business. In 2005, 52 major FM stations and 19 major AM stations were operating. There were 8 major network TV stations. A total of 23,752 Internet domain names were registered in the state in 2000.

4⁵ PRESS

In 2005, Nebraska had 6 morning dailies, 12 evening dailies, and 6 Sunday newspapers. The leading newspaper is the *Omaha World-Herald*, with a daily circulation in 2005 of 192,607 and a Sunday circulation of 242,964. The *Lincoln Journal-Star* had a daily circulation of 74,893 and a Sunday circulation of 84,149.

4⁶ ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,835 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,874 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the national organizations based in Nebraska are the Great Plains Council at the University of Nebraska (Lincoln), the American Shorthorn Society (Omaha), the Morse Telegraph Club (Lincoln), Girls and Boys Town (Boys Town), Wellness Councils of America (Omaha), USA Roller Sports (Lincoln), and the National Arbor Day Foundation (Nebraska City). The state's arts, culture, and history are represented in part by the Nebraska Humanities Council and the Nebraska State Historical Society. Special interest and hobbyist associations include the Antique Barbed Wire Society based in Kearney and the Centennial Model T Club of Omaha.

4⁷ TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is Nebraska's third-largest source of outside revenue (after agriculture and manufacturing). In 2004, the state hosted some 19.6 million travelers. Out-of-state visitors were primarily from Kansas, Iowa, Colorado, Missouri, South Dakota, Illinois, and Minnesota. Total travel expenditures were at \$2.9 billion. The industry supports nearly 43,000 jobs.

The 8 state parks, 9 state historical parks, 12 federal areas, and 55 recreational areas are main tourist attractions; fishing, swimming, picnicking, and sightseeing are the principal activities. The most attended Nebraska attractions in 2002 were: Omaha's Henry Doorly Zoo (1,420,556 visitors), Cabela's in Sidney (1,025,000), Eugene T. Mahoney State Park (1,100,000), Lake McConaughy State Recreation Area (859,624), Fort Robinson State Park (357,932), Joslyn Art Museum (186,646), Strategic Air and Space

Museum (173,889), the Great Platte River Road Archway Monument (163,000), University of Nebraska State Museum (133,343), and Scotts Bluff National Monument (111,293). There is a Lewis and Clark Discovery Center in Crofton. An unusual exhibit, called Carhenge is a re-creation of Stonehenge made with wrecked cars.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Nebraska. Minor league baseball's Omaha Royals play in the Triple-A Pacific Coast League. The most popular spectator sport is college football. Equestrian activities, including racing and rodeos, are popular. Major annual sporting events are the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) College Baseball World Series at Rosenblatt Stadium and the River City Roundup and Rodeo, both held in Omaha. Pari-mutuel racing is licensed by the state.

The University of Nebraska Cornhuskers compete in the Big Twelve Conference. The football team often places high in national rankings and was named National Champion in 1970 (with Texas), 1971, 1994, 1995, and 1997. The Cornhuskers won the Orange Bowl in 1964, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1983, 1995, 1997, and 1998; the Cotton Bowl in 1974 (January); the Sugar Bowl in 1974 (December), 1985, and 1987; the Alamo Bowl in 2001; and the Fiesta Bowl in 1996 and 2000. The basketball team won the National Invitational Tournament in 1996.

49 FAMOUS NEBRASKANS

Nebraska was the birthplace of only one US president, Gerald R. Ford (Leslie King Jr., b.1913). When Spiro Agnew resigned the vice presidency in October 1973, President Richard M. Nixon appointed Ford, then a US representative from Michigan, to the post. Upon Nixon's resignation on 9 August 1974, Ford became the first nonelected president in US history.

Four native and adoptive Nebraskans have served in the presidential cabinet. J. Sterling Morton (b.New York, 1832–1902), who originated Arbor Day, was secretary of agriculture under Grover Cleveland. William Jennings Bryan (b.Illinois, 1860–1925), a US representative from Nebraska, served as secretary of state and was three times the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for president. Frederick A. Seaton (b.Washington, 1909–74) was Dwight Eisenhower's secretary of the interior, and Melvin Laird (b.1922) was Richard Nixon's secretary of defense.

George W. Norris (b.Ohio, 1861–1944), the "fighting liberal," served 10 years in the US House of Representatives and 30 years in the Senate. Norris's greatest contributions were in rural electrification (his efforts led to the creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority), farm relief, and labor reform; he also promoted the unicameral form of government in Nebraska. Theodore C. Sorensen (b.1928) was an adviser to President John F. Kennedy.

Indian leaders important in Nebraska history include Oglala Sioux chiefs Red Cloud (1822–1909) and Crazy Horse (1849?–77). Moses Kinkaid (b.West Virginia, 1854–1920) served in the US House and was the author of the Kinkaid Act, which encouraged homesteading in Nebraska. Educator and legal scholar Roscoe Pound (1870–1964) was also a Nebraskan. In agricultural science, Samuel Aughey (b.Pennsylvania, 1831–1912) and Hardy W. Campbell (b.Vermont, 1850–1937) developed dry-land farming techniques. Botanist Charles E. Bessey (b.Ohio, 1845–1915) encouraged forestation. Father Edward Joseph Flanagan (b.Ireland,

1886–1948) was the founder of Boys Town, a home for underprivileged youth. Two native Nebraskans became Nobel laureates in 1980: Lawrence R. Klein (b.1920) in economics and Val L. Fitch (b.1923) in physics.

Writers associated with Nebraska include Willa Cather (b.Virginia, 1873–1947), who used the Nebraska frontier setting of her childhood in many of her writings and won a Pulitzer Prize in 1922; author and poet John G. Neihardt (b.Illinois, 1881–1973), who incorporated Indian mythology and history in his work; Mari Sandoz (1901–66), who wrote of her native Great Plains; writer-photographer Wright Morris (1910–98); and author Tillie Olsen (b.1912). Rollin Kirby (1875–1952) won three Pulitzer Prizes for political cartooning. Composer-conductor Howard Hanson (1896–1982), born in Wahoo, won a Pulitzer Prize in 1944.

Nebraskans important in entertainment include actor-dancer Fred Astaire (Fred Austerlitz, 1899–1984); actors Harold Lloyd (1894–1971), Henry Fonda (1905–82), Robert Taylor (Spangler Arlington Brugh, 1911–69), Marlon Brando (1924–2004), and Sandy Dennis (1937–93); television stars Johnny Carson (b.Iowa, 1925–2005) and Dick Cavett (b.1936); and motion-picture producer Darryl F. Zanuck (1902–79).

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NEVADA

State of Nevada



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for the Sierra Nevada mountain range, *nevada* meaning “snow-covered” in Spanish. **NICKNAME:** The Silver State; the Sagebrush State; the Battle-born State. **CAPITAL:** Carson City. **ENTERED UNION:** 31 October 1864 (36th). **SONG:** “Home Means Nevada.” **MOTTO:** All for Our Country. **FLAG:** On a blue field, two sprays of sagebrush and a golden scroll in the upper lefthand corner frame a silver star with the word “Nevada,” below the star and above the sprays; the scroll, reading “Battle Born,” recalls that Nevada was admitted to the Union during the Civil War. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A quartz mill, ore cart, and mine tunnel symbolize Nevada’s mining industry. A plow, sickle, and sheaf of wheat represent its agricultural resources. In the background are a railroad, a telegraph line, and a sun rising over the snow-covered mountains. Encircling this scene are 36 stars and the state motto. The words “The Great Seal of the State of Nevada” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Mountain bluebird. **FISH:** Lahontan cutthroat trout. **FLOWER:** Sagebrush. **TREE:** Single-leaf piñon; Bristlecone pine. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Nevada Day, last Friday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Family Day, Friday after Thanksgiving; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 4 AM PST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada in the western United States, Nevada ranks seventh in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Nevada is 110,561 sq mi (286,352 sq km), with land comprising 109,894 sq mi (284,624 sq km) and inland water covering 667 sq mi (1,728 sq km). Nevada extends 320 mi (515 km) E–W; the maximum N–S extension is 483 mi (777 km).

Nevada is bordered on the N by Oregon and Idaho; on the E by Utah and Arizona (with the line in the SE formed by the Colorado River); and on the S and W by California (with part of the line passing through Lake Tahoe). The total boundary length of Nevada is 1,480 mi (2,382 km). The state’s geographic center is in Lander County, 26 mi (42 km) SE of Austin.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Almost all of Nevada belongs physiographically to the Great Basin, a plateau characterized by isolated mountain ranges separated by arid basins. These ranges generally trend north–south; most are short, up to 75 mi (121 km) long and 15 mi (24 km) wide, and rise to altitudes of 7,000–10,000 ft (2,100–3,000 m). Chief among them are the Schell Creek, Ruby, Toiyabe, and Carson (within the Sierra Nevada). Nevada’s highest point is Boundary Peak, 13,140 ft (4,007 m), in the southwest. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 5,500 ft (1,678 m).

Nevada has a number of large lakes and several large saline marshes known as sinks. The largest lake is Pyramid, with an area of 188 sq mi (487 sq km), in the west. Nevada shares Lake Tahoe with California, and Lake Mead, created by Hoover Dam on the Colorado River, with Arizona. The streams of the Great Basin frequently disappear during dry spells; many of them flow into local

lakes or sinks without reaching the sea. The state’s longest river, the Humboldt, flows for 290 mi (467 km) through the northern half of the state into the Humboldt Sink. The Walker, Truckee, and Carson rivers drain the western part of Nevada. The canyon carved by the mighty Colorado, the river that forms the extreme southeastern boundary of the state, is the site of Nevada’s lowest elevation, 479 ft (146 m).

³ CLIMATE

Nevada’s climate is sunny and dry, with wide variation in daily temperatures. The normal daily temperature at Reno is 50°F (10°C), ranging from 32°F (0°C) in January to 70°F (21°C) in July. The all-time high, 125°F (52°C), was set at Laughlin on 29 June 1994; the record low, -50°F (-46°C), at San Jacinto on 8 January 1937.

Nevada is the driest state in the United States, with overall average annual precipitation of about 7.3 in (18 cm) at Reno. Snowfall is abundant in the mountains, however, reaching 60 in (152 cm) a year on the highest peaks.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Various species of pine—among them the single-leaf piñon, the state tree—dominate Nevada’s woodlands. Creosote bush is common in southern Nevada, as are many kinds of sagebrush throughout the state. Wildflowers include shooting star and white and yellow violets. Eight plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006. Endangered species that year were Amargosa niterwort and steamboat buckwheat.

Native mammals include the black bear, white-tailed and mule deer, pronghorn antelope, Rocky Mountain elk, cottontail rabbit, and river otter. Grouse, partridge, pheasant, and quail are the leading game birds, and a diversity of trout, char, salmon, and whitefish

thrive in Nevada waters. Rare and protected reptiles are the Gila monster and desert tortoise.

Ash Meadows National Wildlife Refuge, an oasis ecosystem in the Mojave Desert, is home to at least 25 species of rare and endangered plants and animals. These include the Devil's Hole pupfish, which is found only in one single limestone cave, and the Ash Meadows naucorid, an insect found only by one spring. Six plant species are unique to the site.

The US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 25 Nevada animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including the desert tortoise, six species of dace, three species of pupfish, woundfin, and three species of chub.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Preservation of the state's clean air, scarce water resources, and no longer abundant wildlife are the major environmental challenges facing Nevada. The Department of Fish and Game sets quotas on the hunting of deer, antelope, bighorn sheep, and other game animals. The Department of Conservation and Natural Resources has broad responsibility for environmental protection, state lands, forests, and water and mineral resources. The Division of Environmental Protection within the department has primary responsibility for the control of air pollution, water pollution, waste management, and groundwater protection. In 2003, 409.1 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state; Nevada ranked second in the country (after Alaska) for the highest level of toxic chemicals released. In 2003, Nevada had 33 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database; only one, Carson River Mercury Site, was on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$400,000 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$16.5 million for the safe drinking water state revolving fund and \$6.4 million for the water pollution control revolving fund.

Although wetlands cover only about 1% of the mainly barren state, they are some of the most valuable lands in the state. Ash Meadows National Wildlife Refuge, an oasis ecosystem in the Mojave Desert, was established in 1984 and designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1986.

6 POPULATION

Nevada ranked 35th in the United States with an estimated total population of 2,414,807 in 2005, an increase of 20.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Nevada's population grew from 1,201,833 to 1,998,257, an increase of 66.3%, the decade's largest increase by far among the 50 states (followed by 40% for Arizona). It was also the fourth consecutive decade in which Nevada was the country's fastest-growing state and had a population growth rate over 50%. The population was projected to reach 3 million by 2015 and 3.8 million by 2025. In 2004, the median age of Nevada residents was 35.1. In the same year, nearly 25.9% of the populace was under the age of 18 while 11.2% was age 65 or older.

With a population density of 21.3 persons per sq mi in 2004 (up from 15.9 in 1998), Nevada remains one of the most sparsely populated states. Approximately 90% of Nevada residents live in cities, the largest of which, Las Vegas, had an estimated 534,847 residents in 2004. Henderson had an estimated population of 224,829, and

Reno had 197,963. The Greater Las Vegas metropolitan area had an estimated 1,650,671 residents in 2004; the Reno metropolitan area had an estimated 384,491.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Some 135,477 black Americans made up about 6.8% of Nevada's population, up sharply from 79,000 in 1990, although the percentage at that time remained about the same. By 2004, however, the percentage of the state's population that was black was 7.5%. The American Indian population was 26,420 in 2000, down from 31,000 in 1990. In 1990, tribal landholdings totaled 1,138,462 acres (460,721 hectares). Major tribes are the Washo, Northern Paiute, Southern Paiute, and Shoshoni. In 2004, 1.4% of the population was American Indian.

Both the number and percentage of foreign-born residents rose sharply in the 1990s, from 104,828 persons (8.7%) in 1990 to 316,593 state residents (15.8%) in 2000—the sixth-highest percentage of foreign born in the 50 states. In 2000, Hispanics and Latinos numbered 393,970 (19.7% of the state total), and 285,764 reported Mexican ancestry, up sharply from 72,281 in 1990. In 2004, 22.8% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin, 5.5% of the population was Asian, and 0.5% Pacific Islander. That year, 2.5% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

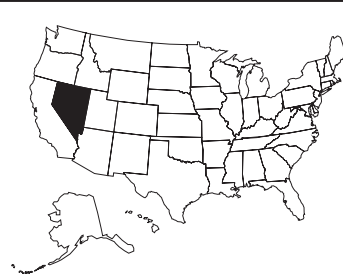
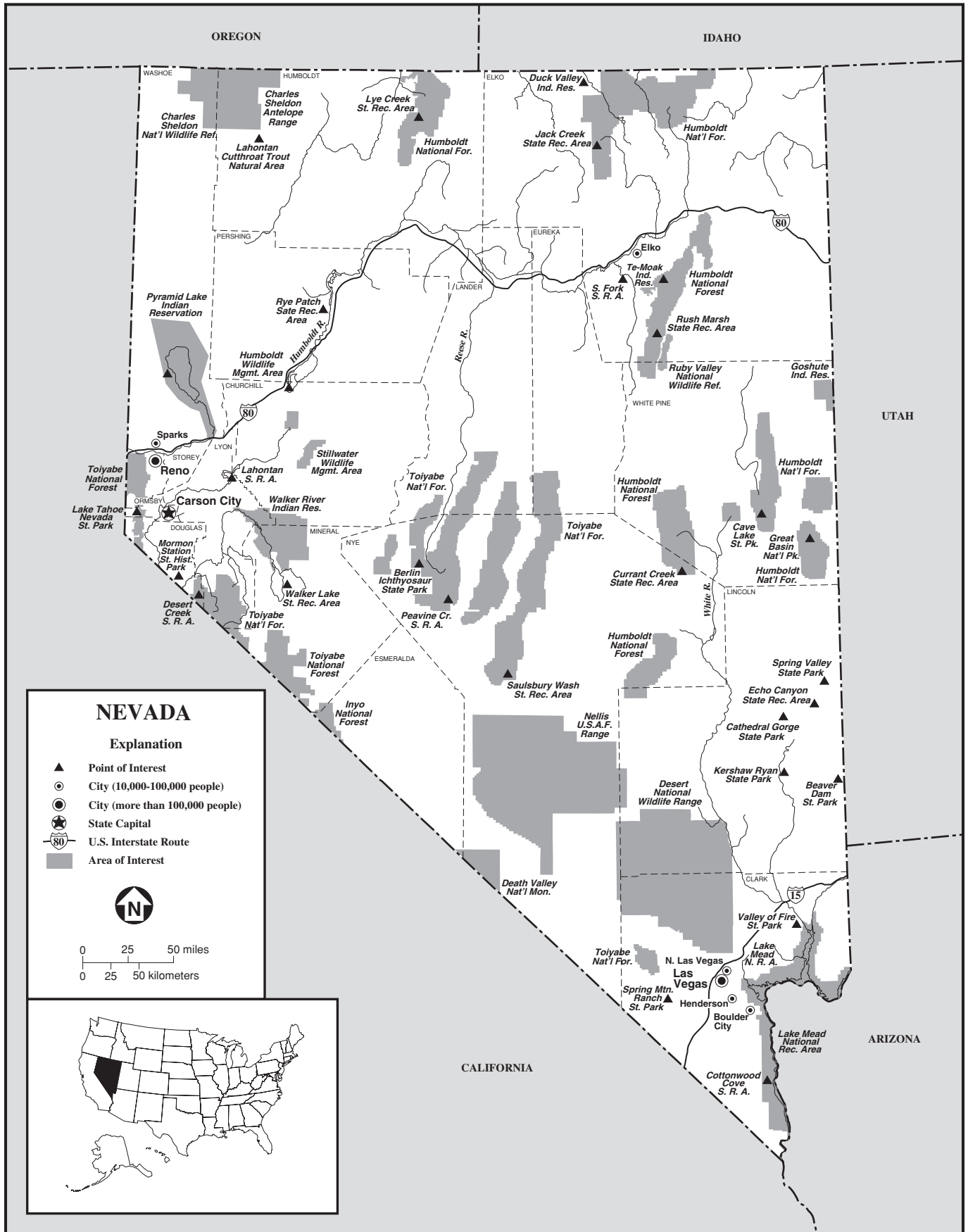
Midland and Northern English dialects are so intermixed in Nevada that no clear regional division appears; an example of this is the scattered use of both Midland *dived* (instead of *dove*) as the past tense of *dive* and the Northern /krik/ for *creek*. In 2000, 1,425,748 Nevadans—76.9% of the resident population five years old or older—spoke only English at home, down from 86.8% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Pacific Island languages" includes Chamorro, Hawaiian, Ilocano, Indonesian, and Samoan.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,853,720	100.0
Speak only English	1,425,748	76.9
Speak a language other than English	427,972	23.1
Speak a language other than English	427,972	23.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	299,947	16.2
Tagalog	29,476	1.6
Chinese	11,787	0.6
German	10,318	0.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	7,912	0.4
Korean	6,634	0.4
Italian	6,169	0.3
Japanese	5,678	0.3
Other Pacific Island languages	4,552	0.2
Vietnamese	3,808	0.2
Thai	3,615	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

In 2004, Nevada had 607,926 Roman Catholics, a significant increase from 331,844 members in 2000. The second-largest single denomination is the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons), which reported a statewide membership of 165,498 members in 298 congregations in 2006. There are two Mormon temples in the state, at Las Vegas (opened in 1989) and Reno (2000). Other major Protestant groups (with 2000 membership



data) include Southern Baptists, 40,233 (with 1,373 newly baptized members reported in 2002); Assemblies of God, 22,699 (an increase of 220% from 1990); Evangelical Lutherans, 10,663; and United Methodists, 10,452. The Salvation Army, though still relatively small, experienced membership growth of 145% from 1990 to report a total of 1,239 adherents in 2000. Also in 2000, there were an estimated 77,100 Jews living in Nevada, representing an increase of 277% from 1990. Muslims numbered about 2,291 and there were about 1,124 adherents to the Baha'i faith. About 1.3 million people (about 65.7% of the population) did not claim any religious affiliation.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

As of 2003, Nevada had 2,009 mi (3,234 km) of railroad trackage, all of which is Class I right-of-way. As of 2006, Amtrak provided passenger service to four stations across northern Nevada en route from Chicago to Oakland via its California Zephyr train.

In 2003, there were 33,977 mi (54,702 km) of public roads and streets in Nevada. In 2004, there were some 1.301 million registered vehicles in the state, of which about 633,000 were automobiles, around 622,000 were trucks of all types, and some 2,000 were buses. Licensed drivers in that same year numbered 1,548,097. The major highways, I-80 and I-15, link Salt Lake City with Reno and Las Vegas, respectively.

In 2005, Nevada had a total of 132 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 99 airports, 32 heliports, and 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing). The leading commercial air terminals are McCarran International Airport in Las Vegas and Reno-Tahoe International Airport. In 2004, McCarran International Airport had 19,943,025 enplanements, making it the sixth-busiest airport in the United States. Reno-Tahoe International in that same year had 2,478,179 enplanements.

¹¹HISTORY

The first inhabitants of what is now Nevada arrived about 12,000 years ago. They were fishermen, as well as hunters and food gatherers, for the glacial lakes of the ancient Great Basin were then only beginning to recede. Numerous sites of early human habitation have been found, the most famous being Pueblo Grande de Nevada (also known as Lost City). In modern times, four principal Indian groups have inhabited Nevada: Southern Paiute, Northern Paiute, Shoshoni, and Washo.

Probably the first white explorer to enter the state was the Spanish priest Francisco Garces, who apparently penetrated extreme southern Nevada in 1776. The year 1826 saw Peter Skene Ogden of the British Hudson's Bay Company enter the northeast in a prelude to his later exploration of the Humboldt River; the rival American trapper Jedediah Smith traversed the state in 1826–27. During 1843–44, John C. Frémont led the first of his several expeditions into Nevada.

Nevada's first permanent white settlement, Mormon Station (later Genoa), was founded in 1850 in what is now western Nevada, a region that became part of Utah Territory the same year. (The southeastern tip of Nevada was assigned to the Territory of New Mexico.) Soon other Mormon settlements were started there and in Las Vegas Valley. The Las Vegas mission failed, but the farming communities to the northwest succeeded, even though friction between Mormons and placer miners in that area caused

political unrest. Most of the Mormons in western Nevada departed in 1857, when Salt Lake City was threatened by an invasion of federal troops.

A separate Nevada Territory was established in 1861; only three years later, on 31 October 1864, Nevada achieved statehood, although the present boundaries were not established until 18 January 1867. Two factors accelerated the creation of Nevada: the secession of the southern states, whose congressmen had been blocking the creation of new free states, and the discovery, in 1859, of the Comstock Lode, an immense concentration of silver and gold which attracted thousands of fortune seekers and established the region as a thriving mining center.

Nevada's development during the rest of the century was determined by the economic fortunes of the Comstock, whose affairs were dominated, first, by the Bank of California (in alliance with the Central Pacific Railroad) and then by the "Bonanza Firm" of John W. Mackay and his partners. The lode's rich ores were exhausted in the late 1870s and Nevada slipped into a 20-year depression. A number of efforts were made to revive the economy, one being an attempt to encourage mining by increasing the value of silver. To this end, Nevadans wholeheartedly supported the movement for free silver coinage during the 1890s and the Silver Party reigned supreme in state politics for most of the decade.

Nevada's economy revived following new discoveries of silver at Tonopah and gold at Goldfield early in the 20th century. A second great mining boom ensued, bolstered and extended by major copper discoveries in eastern Nevada. Progressive political ferment in this pre-World War I period added recall, referendum, and initiative amendments to the state constitution and brought about the adoption of women's suffrage (1914).

The 1920s was a time of subdued economic activity; mining fell off, and not even the celebrated divorce trade, centered in Reno, was able to compensate for its decline. Politically, the decade was conservative and Republican, with millionaire George Wingfield dominating state politics through a so-called bipartisan machine. Nevada went Democratic during the 1930s, when the hard times of the Depression were alleviated by federal public-works projects, most notably the construction of the Hoover (Boulder) Dam, and by state laws aiding the divorce business and legalizing gambling.

Gaming grew rapidly after World War II, becoming by the mid-1950s not only the mainstay of Nevada tourism but also the state's leading industry. Revelations during the 1950s and 1960s that organized crime had infiltrated the casino industry and that casino income was being used to finance narcotics and other rackets in major East Coast cities led to a state and federal crackdown and the imposition of new state controls.

From 1960 to 1980, Nevada was the fastest-growing of the 50 states, increasing its population by 70% in the 1960s and 64% in the 1970s. In the mid-1980s the state's population growth continued to outpace that of the nation, reaching 14% in the first half of the 1980s in contrast to the national average of 4%. Much of this growth was associated with expansion of the gambling industry—centered in the casinos of Las Vegas and Reno—and of the military. In the 1980s, Nevada began to try to reduce its dependence on gambling by diversifying its economy. In an attempt to attract new businesses, particularly in the high-tech industry, the state promoted such features as its absence of state, corporate, or

personal income taxes, inexpensive real estate, low wages, and its ready access by air or land to California.

In the first half of the 1990s, Nevada was once again the nation's fastest growing state, increasing its population by nearly 25%; by 2001 the state's population exceeded 2.1 million. Efforts to diversify the state's economy yielded results as its industrial base expanded. In the early 1990s, Nevada was the only state reporting an increase in manufacturing jobs. Meanwhile Las Vegas continued to prosper, expanding its offerings to attract new visitors. During the decade, several extravagant new hotel and casino complexes opened, many of them featuring amusement parks and other family-oriented entertainment. The booming Las Vegas economy helped push Nevada unemployment to an all-time low of 3.1% in December 1999, one-half a percentage point below the prior record of 3.6% set in 1962. Due in large measure to the 2001 US recession and its aftermath, however, Nevada faced a \$704 million budget deficit in 2003, and the unemployment rate stood at 5.4% in July 2003, albeit below the national average of 6.2%. In September 2005, Nevada's unemployment rate had dropped to 4.2%, below the national average of 5.1%. In 2005, the state had a budget surplus, and decided to return a portion of it to taxpayers in the form of a one-time \$300 million tax rebate. The 2005 state budget approved by Nevada's legislature was \$5.9 billion. Nevada had the fastest growing state budget in the nation that year.

Nevadans' opposition to the Yucca Mountain nuclear waste disposal site, first proposed by Congress in 1987, has been a continuing issue. In 2002, US Energy Secretary Spencer Abraham recommended the Yucca Mountain site to President George W. Bush as a nuclear waste repository, which Bush approved. Nevada Governor Kenny Guinn vetoed the project, but the US Congress overrode his veto. President Bush signed Congress's joint resolution into law, and Yucca Mountain became the nation's nuclear waste repository site. Nevada filed major lawsuits against the US Department of Energy, the Nuclear Regulatory Commission, President Bush, and Secretary Abraham, which were consolidated into four major cases and heard before the District of Columbia Court of Appeals on 14 January 2004. The judges dismissed most of Nevada's claims, but they did rule in favor of the state's complaint against radiation standards for the nuclear waste repository.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Nevada's 1864 constitution, as amended (132 times by January 2005), continues to govern the state. In 2002 voters gave final approval to an amendment defining marriage as a union between a man and a woman. The state legislature consists of a Senate with 21 members, each elected to a four-year term, and a House of Representatives with 42 members, each serving two years. Legislative sessions are held in odd-numbered years only, beginning on the first Monday in February and lasting no more than 120 calendar days. Only the governor may call special sessions, which have no limit, but legislators are only paid for up to 20 calendar days during a special session. Legislators must be qualified voters, at least 21 years old, should have lived in the state for at least a year, and should have lived in the district for at least 30 days prior to the close of filing for declaration of candidacy. The legislative salary was \$130 per diem during regular sessions in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

Executive officials elected statewide include the governor and lieutenant governor (who run separately), secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, and comptroller, all of whom serve for four years. The governor is limited to a maximum of two consecutive terms. Candidates for governor must be at least 25 years old, a qualified voter, and must have been a citizen and resident of the state for at least two years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$117,000, unchanged from 1999.

Bills approved by the legislature are sent to the governor, who has five days when the legislature is in session (or 10 days if adjourned) to sign or veto it. If the governor does not act within the required time period, the bill automatically becomes law. A two-thirds vote of the elected members of each house is required to override a gubernatorial veto.

Constitutional amendments may be submitted to the voters for ratification if the proposed amendments have received majority votes in each house in two successive sessions or under an initiative procedure calling for petitions signed by 10% of those who voted in the last general election. Legislative amendments need a majority vote; initiative amendments require majorities in two consecutive elections. Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, continuous state and county residents for at least 30 days and precinct residents for at least 10 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Since World War II neither the Democrats nor the Republicans have dominated state politics, which are basically conservative. As of 2004, there were 1,094,000 registered voters. In the 2000 presidential election, Republican George W. Bush received 49% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 46%. In 2004, Bush garnered 50.5% to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 47.9%. Republican Kenny Guinn, first elected governor in 1998, was reelected in 2002. Democrat Harry Reid was elected US Senator in 1986; he was reelected in 1992, 1998, and 2004. Republican Senator John Ensign was elected in 2000. Following the 2004 elections, Nevada sent one Democrat and two Republicans to the US House of Representa-

Nevada Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	NEVADA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	3	*Truman (D)	31,290	29,357
1952	3	*Eisenhower (R)	31,688	50,502
1956	3	*Eisenhower (R)	40,640	56,049
1960	3	*Kennedy (D)	54,880	52,387
1964	3	*Johnson (D)	79,339	56,094
1968	3	*Nixon (R)	60,598	73,188
1972	3	*Nixon (R)	66,016	115,750
1976	3	Ford (R)	92,479	101,273
1980	3	*Reagan (R)	66,666	155,017
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	91,655	188,770
1988	4	*Bush (R)	132,738	206,040
1992**	4	*Clinton (D)	189,148	175,828
1996**	4	*Clinton (D)	203,974	199,244
2000	4	*Bush, G. W. (R)	279,978	301,575
2004	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	397,190	418,690

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 132,580 votes in 1992 and 43,986 votes in 1996.

tives. As of mid-2005, there were 12 Republicans and 9 Democrats in the state Senate, and 16 Republicans and 26 Democrats in the state House. The state had five electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Nevada was subdivided into 17 counties and 19 municipal governments, most of them county seats. The state had 17 public school districts and 158 special districts that year. The county is the primary form of local government. Elected county officials include commissioners, public administrator, district attorney, and sheriff. Most municipalities use the mayor-council system of government.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 74,642 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Nevada operates under the authority of the governor; the adjutant general is appointed to oversee the state's homeland security activities.

The Commission on Ethics oversees financial disclosure by state officials. The Department of Education and the Nevada System of Higher Education are the main state educational agencies. The Department of Health and Human Services has divisions covering public health, rehabilitation, mental health and developmental disabilities, welfare, youth services, and programs for the elderly. Regulatory functions are exercised by the Business and Industry Department (insurance, banking, consumer affairs, real estate), the Public Utilities Commission, the Gaming Control Board, and other state agencies. Other organizations include the Division of Minerals, the Commission on Tourism, the Division of Wildlife, and the Department of Information Technology.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Nevada's Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and six other justices. There are 51 district court judges organized into nine judicial districts. All judges are elected by nonpartisan ballot to six-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 11,365 prisoners were held in Nevada's state and federal prisons, an increase from 10,543 of 7.8% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 878 inmates were female, down from 880 or 0.2% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Nevada had an incarceration rate of 474 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Nevada in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 615.9 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 14,379 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 98,215 reported incidents or 4,206.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Nevada has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. For the period 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has executed 12 people, including one execution carried out in 2006, prior to 5 May. As of 1 January 2006, Nevada had 83 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Nevada spent \$63,105,669 on homeland security, an average of \$30 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 9,251 active-duty military personnel and 2,089 civilian personnel stationed in Nevada. The largest installations are the Hawthorne Army Depot near Reno and the Nellis Air Force Base near Las Vegas. The state has been the site of both ballistic missile and atomic weapons testing. In 2004, Nevada firms received about \$439 million in federal defense contracts and defense payroll outlays were more than \$1.1 billion.

As of 2003, 243,716 military veterans were living in the state, including 27,496 of World War II; 26,015 of the Korean conflict; 75,775 from the Vietnam era; and 36,607 in the Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in Nevada amounted to more than \$642 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the Nevada Highway Patrol employed 367 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

In 1870, about half of Nevada's population consisted of foreign immigrants, among them Chinese, Italians, Swiss, British, Irish, Germans, and French Canadians. Though their origins were diverse, their numbers were few—no more than 21,000 in all. Not until the 1940s did migrants come in large volume. Between 1940 and 1980, Nevada gained a total of 507,000 residents through migration, equal to 63% of the 1980 population; there was an additional net gain from migration of 233,000 during the 1980s, accounting for 75% of the net population increase. Between 1990 and 1998, Nevada had net gains of 397,000 in domestic migration and 45,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 6,106 foreign immigrants, of whom 2,881 were from Mexico. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population grew 45.4%, making it the fastest growing state in the nation. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 66,098 and net internal migration was 270,945, for a net gain of 337,043 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Nevada takes part in the Colorado River Compact, the Tahoe Regional Planning Authority, and the California-Nevada Interstate Compact, under which the two states administer water rights involving Lake Tahoe and the Carson, Truckee, and Walker rivers. Other river compacts influence use of the Upper Niobrara river and the boundary between Arizona and Nevada on the Colorado River. The state also is a signatory to the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, and the Western Interstate Energy Compact. Federal grants in fiscal year 2005 totaled \$1.652 billion, an estimated \$1.714 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.759 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Nevada is disadvantaged by a lack of water and a shortage of arable land, but blessed with a wealth of mineral resources—gold, silver, copper, and other metals. Mining remains important, though overshadowed since World War II by tourism and gambling, which generate more than 50% of the state's income. Legalized gaming alone produces nearly half of Nevada's tax revenues.

Throughout the 1990s, employment growth averaged 5.2% annually. The state economy roared into the 21st century, posting annual growth rates of 7.7% in 1998, 9% in 1999, and 8.6% in 2000. The national recession and slowdown in 2001 caused the pace of job growth to fall to 2.4% and the overall growth rate to fall to 4.9%, but these remain well above national averages. Job growth in Nevada has been centered on growth in services, the retail trade, government and the construction sector.

Nevada's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$100.317 billion, of which the lodging and food service industries accounted for the largest share at \$14.196 billion or 14.1% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$12.722 billion (12.6% of GSP) and the construction industry at \$10.313 billion (10.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 177,282 small businesses in Nevada. Of the 51,424 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 49,209 or 95.7% were small companies. An estimated 10,483 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 7.5% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 9,012, up 0.8% from 2003. There were 257 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 19.9% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 931 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Nevada as the third-highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Nevada had a gross state product (GSP) of \$111 billion which accounted for 0.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 31 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Nevada had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$33,787. This ranked 18th in the United States and was 102% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.6%. Nevada had a total personal income (TPI) of \$78,822,134,000, which ranked 32nd in the United States and reflected an increase of 10.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 8.3%. Earnings of persons employed in Nevada increased from \$55,064,306,000 in 2003 to \$61,541,717,000 in 2004, an increase of 11.8%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$46,984 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.2% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Nevada numbered 1,264,900, with approximately 52,300 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,279,200. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Nevada was 10.7% in December 1982. The historical low was 3.6% in January 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 11.5% of the labor force was employed in construction;

3.8% in manufacturing; 17.6% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.2% in financial activities; 12.2% in professional and business services; 6.8% in education and health services; 26.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 11.5% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 145,000 of Nevada's 1,051,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 13.8% of those so employed, up from 12.5% in 2004 and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 158,000 workers (15.1%) in Nevada were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Nevada is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Nevada had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 44% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Agricultural income in 2005 totaled \$478 million (45th in the United States), of which \$172 million was from crops and \$306 million from livestock and animal products. Chief crops in 2004 included 960,000 bushels of wheat, 1.48 million tons of hay, and 2,881,000 hundredweight of potatoes. Nevada's barley crop in 2004 was 210,000 bushels, down from 2,700,000 in 1983. Virtually all of the state's cropland requires irrigation.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Nevada ranches and farms had 500,000 cattle and calves, valued at \$450 million. In 2003, the state produced 2.5 million lb (1.1 million kg) of sheep and lambs which brought in around \$4 million in gross income. In 2004, the shorn wool production was an estimated 510,000 lb (231,800 kg) of wool. Nevada's total milk yield in 2003 was 485 million lb (220 million kg) from 26,000 milk cows.

2⁵ FISHING

There is no commercial fishing industry in Nevada. The state has four fish culture facilities that produce about 430,000 lb of trout annually. The Lahontan National Fish Hatchery also distributes cutthroat trout within the state. In 2004, Nevada issued 124,408 sport fishing licenses.

2⁶ FORESTRY

Nevada in 2004 had 9,767,000 acres (3,953,000 hectares) of forestland. In 2005, four national forests had 5,841,209 acres (2,363,937 hectares) in the National Forest System. Less than 2% of all forested land in Nevada was classified as commercial timberland.

2⁷ MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Nevada in 2003 was over \$2.9 billion, an increase from 2002 of about 1%. The USGS data ranked Nevada as second among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 7.5% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, gold, construction sand and gravel, crushed stone and silver were the state's top non-fuel minerals. These commodities accounted for 83%, 6%, 1.5%,

and 1.5%, respectively, of all nonfuel mineral production in the state. In that same year, Nevada provided 81% of the gold mined in the United States and 24% of the silver, making the state first in gold and second in silver production. Nevada in 2003 was also the only state to produce magnesite and lithium carbonate minerals. In addition, Nevada ranked first in the production of barite, brucite, and diatomite, third in gypsum, fifth in perlite, sixth in gemstones, and seventh in lime.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed gold production at 216,000 kg, with a value of \$2.440 billion, with silver output at 292,000 kg and a value of \$43.700 million. Construction sand and gravel output totaled 38 million metric tons for a value of \$173 million, while crushed stone output stood at 8.7 million metric tons with a value of \$46.1 million, according to the USGS data for 2003.

In 2003, Nevada was also a producer of fuller's earth and industrial sand and gravel.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Nevada had 19 electrical power service providers, of which eight were publicly owned and eight were cooperatives. Of the remainder, two were investor owned and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 1,019,075 retail customers. Of that total, 964,923 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 29,792 customers, while publicly owned providers had 24,358 customers. There were only two federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 7.508 million kW, with total production that same year at 33.194 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 74.2% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 17.085 billion kWh (51.5%), came from coal-fired plants, with natural gas fueled plants in second place at 13.252 billion kWh (39.9%) and hydroelectric plants in third at 1.756 billion kWh (5.3%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 3.2% of all power generated, with plants using other types of gases and petroleum fired plants at 0.1% each.

Because Nevada produces more electricity than it consumes, the remainder is exported, principally to California. Hoover Dam, anchored in the bedrock of Black Canyon east of Las Vegas, is the state's largest hydroelectric installation, with an installed capacity of 1,039,000 kW in 2003. The first six of the dam's eight turbines came onstream during 1936–38, while the other two were added in 1944 and 1961.

As of 2004, Nevada had proven crude oil reserves of less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 1,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 27th (26th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Nevada had 57 producing oil wells and accounted for under 1% of all US production. In 2005, the state's single refinery had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 1,707 barrels per day.

In 2004, Nevada had four producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In 2003 (the latest year for which data was available), marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon

gases removed) totaled 6 million cu ft (170,400 cu m). There was no data available on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

29 INDUSTRY

Industry in Nevada is limited but diversified, producing communications equipment, pet food, chemicals, and sprinkler systems, among other products.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Nevada's manufacturing sector covered some 13 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$9.551 billion. Of that total, miscellaneous manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$1.680 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$1.172 billion, nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at \$1.045 billion, and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$846.723 million.

In 2004, a total of 43,967 people in Nevada were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 28,876 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the miscellaneous manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 8,147, with 3,546 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 5,368 employees (3,894 actual production workers); nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at 3,820 employees (3,215 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 3,428 employees (2,272 actual production workers); and computer and electronic product manufacturing with 3,426 employees (1,477 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Nevada's manufacturing sector paid \$1.849 billion in wages. Of that amount, the miscellaneous manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$466.410 million. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$201.834 million; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$171.943 million; and nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at \$166.519 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Nevada's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$16.5 billion from 2,612 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,658 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 850 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 104 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$8.4 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$5.8 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$2.2 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Nevada was listed as having 7,214 retail establishments with sales of \$26.9 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,195); miscellaneous store retailers (1,062); food and beverage stores (769), motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (681), and gasoline stations (671). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales, at \$6.6 billion, followed by general merchandise stores, at \$3.8 billion; food and beverage stores, at \$3.6 billion; and nonstore retailers, at \$3.4 billion. A total of 112,339 people were employed by the retail sector in Nevada that year.

Exporters located in Nevada exported \$3.9 billion in merchandise during 2005.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

The state of Nevada has two entities dedicated to consumer protection: the Bureau of Consumer Protection (BCP) at the Office of the Attorney General, and the Nevada Consumer Affairs Division.

The BCP was created in 1997 by the Nevada Legislature to protect consumers from deceptive or fraudulent sales practices and represent consumers' interests in government. The BCP has the authority to file lawsuits on behalf of the public and the state of Nevada. It operates consumer education and awareness programs, reviews consumer complaints and can act as an advocate for consumers over utilities related issues before the Public Utilities Commission of Nevada, as well as federal utility regulatory agencies and courts. The BCP can also pursue civil and criminal enforcement of the state's antitrust law. It is also authorized to file civil actions under federal antitrust laws.

The Nevada Consumer Affairs Division regulates deceptive trade practices through its investigatory powers and through its authority to require the registration and bonding of buying clubs, charitable solicitors, credit repair organizations, dance and martial arts studios, health clubs, magazine sales, recovery rooms, sports betting information services, telemarketers, travel agents and tour operators/brokers, and weight loss clinics.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; and exercise broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General's Office has only limited power to handle formal consumer complaints due to the state having a separate consumer affairs department (the Consumer Affairs Division). In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

Offices of the Bureau of Consumer Protection are located in Las Vegas. The state's Consumer Affairs Division has offices in Las Vegas and Reno.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Nevada had 38 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 12 state-chartered and 17 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Las Vegas-Paradise market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 42 institutions and \$33.605 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 7.2% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$4.562 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 92.8% or \$58.650 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.85%, up from 4.77% in 2003. As of fourth quarter 2005, the rate stood at 5.40%. Regulation of Nevada's state-char-

tered banks and financial institutions is the responsibility of the Division of Financial Institutions.

3³ INSURANCE

Nevadans held 639,000 individual life insurance policies in 2004 with a total value of over \$83 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$121 billion. The average coverage amount is \$130,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$422.5 million.

As of 2003, there were nine property and casualty and three life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$3.8 billion in 2004. That year, there were 15,525 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$3 billion.

In 2004, 57% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 18% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 19% of residents were uninsured. Nevada ties with four other states as having the fourth-highest percentage of uninsured residents in the nation. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 13% for single coverage and 24% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.4 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$15,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$913.05.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Nevada. In 2005, there were 1,350 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,210 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 116 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 22 NASDAQ companies, 11 NYSE listings, and 3 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; Harrah's Entertainment ranked first in the state and 309th in the nation with revenues of over \$4.4 billion, followed by MGM Mirage at 334th in the nation and \$6.4 billion in revenues.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The budget is prepared biennially by the Budget Division of the Department of Administration and submitted by the governor to the legislature, which has unlimited power to change it.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$3.0 billion for resources and \$2.9 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Nevada were \$2.3 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Nevada was slated to receive \$51.7 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006. Nevada was also to receive \$12.9 million in federal funds for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Nevada fund a wide range of

Nevada—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	10,136,127	4,344.68
General revenue	7,318,255	3,136.84
Intergovernmental revenue	1,625,188	696.61
Taxes	4,738,877	2,031.24
General sales	2,264,749	970.75
Selective sales	1,559,853	668.60
License taxes	623,400	267.21
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	—	—
Other taxes	290,875	124.68
Current charges	605,144	259.38
Miscellaneous general revenue	349,046	149.61
Utility revenue	143,048	61.32
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,674,824	1,146.52
Total expenditure	8,686,071	3,723.13
Intergovernmental expenditure	2,948,274	1,263.73
Direct expenditure	5,737,797	2,459.41
Current operation	3,756,367	1,610.10
Capital outlay	744,452	319.10
Insurance benefits and repayments	985,326	422.34
Assistance and subsidies	107,240	45.97
Interest on debt	144,412	61.90
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,230,195	527.30
Total expenditure	8,686,071	3,723.13
General expenditure	7,555,705	3,238.62
Intergovernmental expenditure	2,948,274	1,263.73
Direct expenditure	4,607,431	1,974.90
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	3,011,529	1,290.84
Public welfare	1,292,137	553.85
Hospitals	145,759	62.48
Health	210,948	90.42
Highways	893,516	382.99
Police protection	62,023	26.59
Correction	234,116	100.35
Natural resources	118,250	50.69
Parks and recreation	19,240	8.25
Government administration	201,243	86.26
Interest on general debt	140,358	60.16
Other and unallocable	1,226,586	525.75
Utility expenditure	145,040	62.17
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	985,326	422.34
Debt at end of fiscal year	3,607,292	1,546.20
Cash and security holdings	21,351,168	9,151.81

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006. Another \$55 million in federal funds was allocated to replace the air traffic control tower at McCarran International Airport in Las Vegas.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Nevada collected \$5,010 million in tax revenues or \$2,075 per capita, which placed it 28th among the 50 states in per capita

tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 3.0% of the total, sales taxes 45.0%, selective sales taxes 33.6%, and other taxes 18.4%.

As of 1 January 2006, Nevada had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Wyoming, Washington, Alaska, Florida, Texas, and South Dakota.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$2,147,294,000 or \$920 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 30th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$2,014,826,000 of the total and the state government \$132,468,000.

Nevada taxes retail sales at a rate of 6.5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.5%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 80 cents per pack, which ranks 25th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Nevada taxes gasoline at 24.805 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Nevada citizens received \$0.73 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Federal projects have played an especially large role in Nevada's development. During the depression of the 1930s, Hoover (Boulder) Dam was constructed to provide needed jobs, water, and hydroelectric power for the state. Other public works—Davis Dam (Lake Mohave) and the Southern Nevada Water Project—serve similar purposes. The fact that some 87% of Nevada land is owned by the US government further increases the federal impact on the economy. Gaming supplies a large proportion of state revenues.

The Nevada Commission on Economic Development (NCED) offers a number of incentives to encourage the growth of primary businesses in Nevada and to promote economic diversification. There is no corporate or personal income tax and other state taxes are low. The Department of Business and Industry issues tax-exempt industrial development bonds which provide low-interest financing of new construction or improvement of manufacturing facilities and other projects. The State Development Corporation, a private financial corporation certified by the US Small Business Administration, offers long-term loans for expanding or new businesses. Rural small businesses can obtain loans from the Rural Nevada Development Corporation and the Nevada Revolving Loan Fund Program. Almost 30% of foreign-based companies in Nevada are Japanese.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.3 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 15 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 32.2 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 75.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 68% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three; this was the lowest immunization rate in the country.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 203.4; cancer, 181.1; cerebrovascular diseases, 44.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases,

54; and diabetes, 15.8. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 3.5 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 13.1 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.8% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 23.2% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Nevada had 24 community hospitals with about 4,300 beds. There were about 213,000 patient admissions that year and 2.3 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 3,000 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,608. Also in 2003, there were about 44 certified nursing facilities in the state with 5,197 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 82.9%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 64.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Nevada had 196 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 579 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,123 dentists in the state.

About 11% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 12% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 19% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.6 million.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 66,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$245. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 121,707 persons (54,877 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.26 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$128.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state TANF program had 21,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$54 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 340,680 Nevada residents. This number included 230,990 retired workers, 26,440 widows and widowers, 43,030 disabled workers, 15,120 spouses, and 25,100 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 14.5% of the total state population and 91% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$962; widows and widowers, \$939; disabled workers, \$960; and spouses, \$473. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$471 per month; children of deceased workers, \$671; and children of disabled workers, \$271. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 32,129 Nevada residents, averaging \$396 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 976,446 housing units, of which 871,915 were occupied; 61.2% were owner-occupied. About 54.6% of all units were single-family, detached dwellings; 18.6% were in buildings containing three to nine units. Over 1,700 units were listed in a category of boats, RVs, vans, etc. Utility gas and electricity were the most common heating energy sources. It was es-

timated that 41,658 units lacked telephone service, 3,041 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 3,683 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.64 members.

In 2004, 44,600 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$202,937. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,274. Renters paid a median of \$787 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$2.7 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

4¹ EDUCATION

In 2004, 86.3% of Nevada residents age 25 and older were high school graduates; 24.5% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Nevada's public schools stood at 369,000. Of these, 271,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 99,000 attended high school. Approximately 50.8% of the students were white, 10.7% were black, 30.2% were Hispanic, 6.7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.7% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 385,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 474,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 28.4% during the period 2002–14. In fall 2003 there were 18,219 students enrolled in 111 private schools. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$3.2 billion or \$6,399 per student, the sixth-lowest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Nevada scored 270 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 95,671 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 30.1% of total post-secondary enrollment. Nearly all students enroll in the University of Nevada system, which has campuses in Las Vegas and Reno. In 2005 Nevada had 15 degree-granting institutions, including Sierra Nevada College.

4² ARTS

The Nevada Arts Council (NAC), a division of the Department of Cultural Affairs, consists of a 10-member staff and a 9-member board appointed by the governor. In 2005, the NAC and other Nevada arts organizations received six grants totaling \$673,300 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). The state also provided significant funding to the Arts Council. The Nevada Humanities Council sponsors annual programs that include a Chautauqua in Reno, Boulder City and Lake Tahoe, and the Vegas Valley Book Festival. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$532,792 to four state programs.

Major exhibits are mounted by the Las Vegas Art Museum, formally the Las Vegas Art League, and the Sierra Arts Foundation in Reno. Upon becoming the Las Vegas Art Museum in 1974, it became the first fine-arts museum in southern Nevada. The Nevada Opera, Reno Chamber Orchestra, and the Nevada Festival Ballet are all based in Reno. The Las Vegas Philharmonic was founded in 1998 and as of 2005 had become the third-largest arts organizations in the state. The Western Folklife Center in Elko, founded in 1980, promotes public awareness of the American West culture

and traditions. Every year, the Western Folklife Center presents a National Cowboy Poetry Gathering in the last week of January.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Nevada had 23 public library systems, with a total of 87 libraries, of which 67 were branches. The system, that same year, had a combined book and serial publication stock of 4,382,000 volumes, and a total circulation of 10,206,000. The system also had 209,000 audio and 148,000 video items, 27,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and four bookmobiles. The University of Nevada had 956,282 books in its Reno campus library system and 861,362 at Las Vegas. The Nevada State Library in Carson City had 76,445. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system amounted to \$62,888,000 and included \$782,000 in federal grants and \$520,000 in state grants.

There are some 29 museums and historic sites. Notable are the Nevada State Museum in Carson City and Las Vegas; the museum of the Nevada Historical Society and the Fleischmann Planetarium, University of Nevada, in Reno; and the Museum of Natural History, University of Nevada, at Las Vegas.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 92.2% of Nevada's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 1,319,684 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 61.3% of Nevada households had a computer and 55.2% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 402,030 high-speed lines in Nevada, 360,627 residential and 41,403 for business. In 2005, broadcast facilities comprised 27 major radio stations (7 AM, 20 FM) and 12 network television stations. In 2000, at least two large cable television systems served the Las Vegas and Reno areas. A total of 72,183 Internet domain names were registered in the state in that same year.

45 PRESS

In 2005, the state had four morning newspapers, four evening papers, and four Sunday papers. The leading newspaper was the *Las Vegas Review-Journal*, with a daily circulation of 159,507 and a Sunday circulation of 218,624. The *Reno Gazette-Journal*, with a daily circulation of 66,409 and Sunday circulation of 82,745, is the most influential newspaper in the northern half of the state. The regional interest *Nevada* magazine is published six times a year.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 900 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 626 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Notable national organizations with headquarters in Nevada include the Western History Association, the American Chess Association, the American Gem Society, the Gaming Standards Association, and the North American Boxing Federation.

Local arts and history are represented in part by the Central Nevada Historical Society, the Lake Tahoe Arts Council, the Sierra Contra Dance Society, the National Association for Outlaw and Lawman History, and the Nevada Opera Association.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism remained Nevada's most important industry, employing over 228,000 people. In 2005, approximately 51.1 million travelers visited the state. About 25 million people visited state and national parks. A majority of all tourists flock to "Vegas" for gambling and for the top-flight entertainers who perform there. In 2005, there were 180,000 hotel rooms of which 133,186 were in Las Vegas. The gaming industry had total revenues of \$11.6 billion in 2005. Las Vegas is one the most used cities for conventions. The Nevada Commission on Tourism has branch offices in Japan, the United Kingdom, and Seoul, Korea.

Nevada attractions include Pyramid Lake, Lake Tahoe, Lake Mead, and Lehman Caves National Monument. In Las Vegas, there is the Atomic Testing Museum, the Fremont Street Experience (outdoor sound and light show), the Guggenheim Hermitage Museum at the Venetian Hotel, and Red Rock scenic adventure tours. The city of Laughlin has Colorado River tours. For motorsports enthusiasts, there are 14 raceways in Nevada. Hoover Dam, built on the Nevada-Arizona border, is a marvel of engineering; visitors can view films and take tours to view the construction. There are 21 state parks and recreation areas, and the Great Basin National Park. Lake Mead National Recreation Area attracts 43% of all park visitors (totaling over 24 million people in 1999). Grand Canyon National Park is the second most popular parks destination, with 18% of all parks visitors.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Nevada. Las Vegas has a minor league baseball team, the 51s, in the Triple-A Pacific Coast League. The Las Vegas Wranglers are a minor league hockey team that play in the West Division of the ECHL. Las Vegas and Reno have hosted many professional boxing title bouts. Golfing and rodeo are also popular.

The basketball team at the University of Nevada-Las Vegas emerged as a national powerhouse in the late 1980s and early 1990s. The Runnin' Rebels won the national championship in 1990.

Other annual sporting events include the Greens.com Open at Reno-Tahoe in Reno in August, the Invensys Classic at Las Vegas in October, the Nationals Finals Rodeo staged in Las Vegas each December, and the UAW-DaimlerChrysler 400 at the Las Vegas Motor Speedway.

49 FAMOUS NEVADANS

Nevadans who have held important federal offices include Raymond T. Baker (1877-1935) and Eva B. Adams (1908-91), both directors of the US Mint, and Charles B. Henderson (b.California, 1873-1954), head of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Prominent US senators have been James W. Nye (b.New York, 1815-76), also the only governor of Nevada Territory; William M. Stewart (b.New York, 1827-1909), author of the final form of the 15th Amendment to the US Constitution, father of federal mining legislation, and a leader of the free-silver-coinage movement in the 1890s; and Francis G. Newlands (b.Mississippi, 1848-1917), author of the federal Reclamation Act of 1902.

Probably the most significant state historical figure is George Wingfield (b.Arkansas, 1876-1959), a mining millionaire who

exerted great influence over Nevada's economic and political life in the early 20th century. Among the nationally recognized personalities associated with Nevada is Howard R. Hughes (b.Texas, 1905–76), an aviation entrepreneur who became a casino and hotel owner and wealthy recluse in his later years.

Leading creative and performing artists have included operatic singer Emma Nevada (Emma Wixon, 1862–1940); painter Robert Caples (1908–79); and, among writers, Dan DeQuille (William Wright, b.Ohio, 1829–98); Lucius Beebe (b.Massachusetts, 1902–66); and Walter Van Tilburg Clark (b.Maine, 1909–71).

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NEW HAMPSHIRE

State of Hampshire



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for the English county of Hampshire. **NICKNAME:** The Granite State. **CAPITAL:** Concord. **ENTERED UNION:** 21 June 1788 (9th). **SONG:** “Old New Hampshire.” **MOTTO:** Live Free or Die. **FLAG:** The state seal, surrounded by laurel leaves with nine stars interspersed, is centered on a blue field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the center is a broadside view of the frigate *Raleigh*; in the left foreground is a granite boulder; in the background is a rising sun. A laurel wreath and the words “Seal of the State of New Hampshire 1776” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Purple finch. **FLOWER:** Purple lilac. **TREE:** White birch. **GEM:** Smoky quartz. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Civil Rights Day and Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, Tuesday following 1st Monday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November plus the day after; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

1 LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in New England in the northeastern United States, New Hampshire ranks 44th in size among the 50 states. The total area of New Hampshire is 9,279 sq mi (24,033 sq km), comprising 8,993 sq mi (23,292 sq km) of land and 286 sq mi (741 sq km) of inland water. The state has a maximum extension of 93 mi (150 km) E–W and 180 mi (290 km) N–S. New Hampshire is shaped roughly like a right triangle, with the line from the far N to the extreme SW forming the hypotenuse.

New Hampshire is bordered on the N by the Canadian province of Quebec; on the E by Maine (with part of the line formed by the Piscataqua and Salmon Falls rivers) and the Atlantic Ocean; on the S by Massachusetts; and on the W by Vermont (following the west bank of the Connecticut River) and Quebec (with the line formed by Halls Stream).

The three southernmost Isles of Shoals lying in the Atlantic belong to New Hampshire. The state’s total boundary line is 555 mi (893 km). Its geographic center lies in Belknap County, 3 mi (5 km) E of Ashland.

2 TOPOGRAPHY

The major regions of New Hampshire are the coastal lowland in the southeast; the New England Uplands, covering most of the south and west; and the White Mountains (part of the Appalachian chain) in the north, including Mt. Washington, at 6,288 ft (1,918 m), the highest peak in the northeastern United States. With a mean elevation of about 1,000 ft (305 m), New Hampshire is generally hilly, rocky, and in many areas densely wooded.

There are some 1,300 lakes and ponds, of which the largest is Lake Winnepesaukee, covering 70 sq mi (181 sq km). The principal rivers are the Connecticut (forming the border with Vermont), Merrimack, Salmon Falls, Piscataqua, Saco, and Androscoggin. Near the coast are the nine rocky Isles of Shoals, three of which belong to New Hampshire. About 10% of the state land area is

covered by wetlands. Sea level at the Atlantic Ocean is the lowest elevation of the state.

3 CLIMATE

New Hampshire has a changeable climate, with wide variations in daily and seasonal temperatures. Summers are short and cool, winters long and cold. Concord has an average yearly temperature of 46°F (7°C), ranging from 20°F (-6°C) in January to 70°F (21°C) in July. The record low temperature, -47°F (-44°C), was set at Mt. Washington on 29 January 1934; the all-time high, 106°F (41°C) at Nashua, 4 July 1911. Annual precipitation at Concord averages 36.7 in (93 cm); the average snowfall in Concord is 63.2 in (160 cm) a year, with more than 100 in (254 cm) yearly in the mountains. The strongest wind ever recorded, other than during a tornado—231 mi/h (372 km/h)—occurred on Mt. Washington on 12 April 1934.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Well forested, New Hampshire supports an abundance of elm, maple, beech, oak, pine, hemlock, and fir trees. Among wild flowers, several orchids are considered rare. Three New Hampshire plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006; the small whorled pogonia was threatened and Jesup’s milk-vetch and Northeastern bulrush were endangered.

Among native New Hampshire mammals are the white-tailed deer, muskrat, beaver, porcupine, and snowshoe hare. Nine animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened or endangered in 2006, including the Karner blue butterfly, bald eagle, dwarf wedgemussel, finback whale, and leatherback sea turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

State agencies concerned with environmental protection include the Fish and Game Department, the Department of Resources and

Economic Development (DRED), and the Department of Environmental Services (DES). DRED oversees the state's forests, lands and parks and, in the late 1980s, DRED was the lead state agency in the acquisition and long-term protection of open space. DES was created in 1987, consolidating several preexisting commissions and boards into four divisions which protect the environmental quality of air, groundwater, the state's surface waters, and solid waste. In the 1990s, DES focused on such issues as ground-level ozone, landfill closures, groundwater remediation and protection of lakes, rivers, and other wetlands in New Hampshire. In 2003, 5.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, New Hampshire had 91 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 20 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Pease Air Force Base and the Mottolo Pig Farm in Raymond. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$10 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$13 million for the clean water state revolving fund and \$8.2 million for the drinking water state revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

New Hampshire ranked 41st in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,309,940 in 2005, an increase of 6% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, New Hampshire's population grew from 1,109,252 to 1,235,786, an increase of 11.4%. The population is projected to reach 1.45 million by 2015 and 1.58 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 144.9 persons per sq mi. In 2004, the median age was 39.1. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 23.5% of the population while 12.1% was age 65 or older.

In 2004, Manchester, the largest city, had an estimated population of 109,310. The Manchester-Nashua metropolitan area had an estimated population of 398,574. In 2003, the capital city of Concord had a population of 41,823

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

In 2000, a total of 223,026 New Hampshireites claimed English ancestry. Those claiming French ancestry numbered 180,947, and Irish 240,804. There are also about 127,153 French Canadians. In 2000, there were 9,035 black Americans, 15,931 Asians, 371 Pacific Islanders, and 2,964 Native Americans living in New Hampshire. In the same year, there were 20,489 residents of Hispanic origin, or 1.7% of the total population. The foreign-born population numbered 54,154, or 4.4% of the total population, in 2000.

In 2004, 2.1% of the population was Hispanic or Latino, 1.7% Asian, 0.9% black, and 0.2% American Indian or Alaskan Native; 0.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Some place-names, such as Ossipee, Mascoma, and Chocorua, preserve the memory of the Pennacook and Abnaki Algonkian tribes living in the area before white settlement.

New Hampshire speech is essentially Northern, with the special features marking eastern New England, especially the loss of the final /r/, as in *park* and *father*, and /yu/ in *tube* and *new*. *Raspberries* sounds like /rawzberries/, a wishbone is a *luckybone*, gut-

ters are *eavespouts*, and cows are summoned by "Loo!" Canadian French is heard in the northern region.

In 2000, 91.7% of all state residents aged five and above—a total of 935,825—spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,160,340	100.0
Speak only English	1,064,252	91.7
Speak a language other than English	96,088	8.3
Speak a language other than English	96,088	8.3
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	39,551	3.4
Spanish or Spanish Creole	18,647	1.6
German	4,788	0.4
Greek	3,411	0.3
Chinese	3,268	0.3
Italian	2,649	0.2
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	2,394	0.2
Polish	2,094	0.2
Other Indo-European languages	1,468	0.1
Arabic	1,462	0.1
Vietnamese	1,449	0.1
Other Asian languages	1,240	0.1
Korean	1,228	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	1,182	0.1
Russian	1,009	0.1

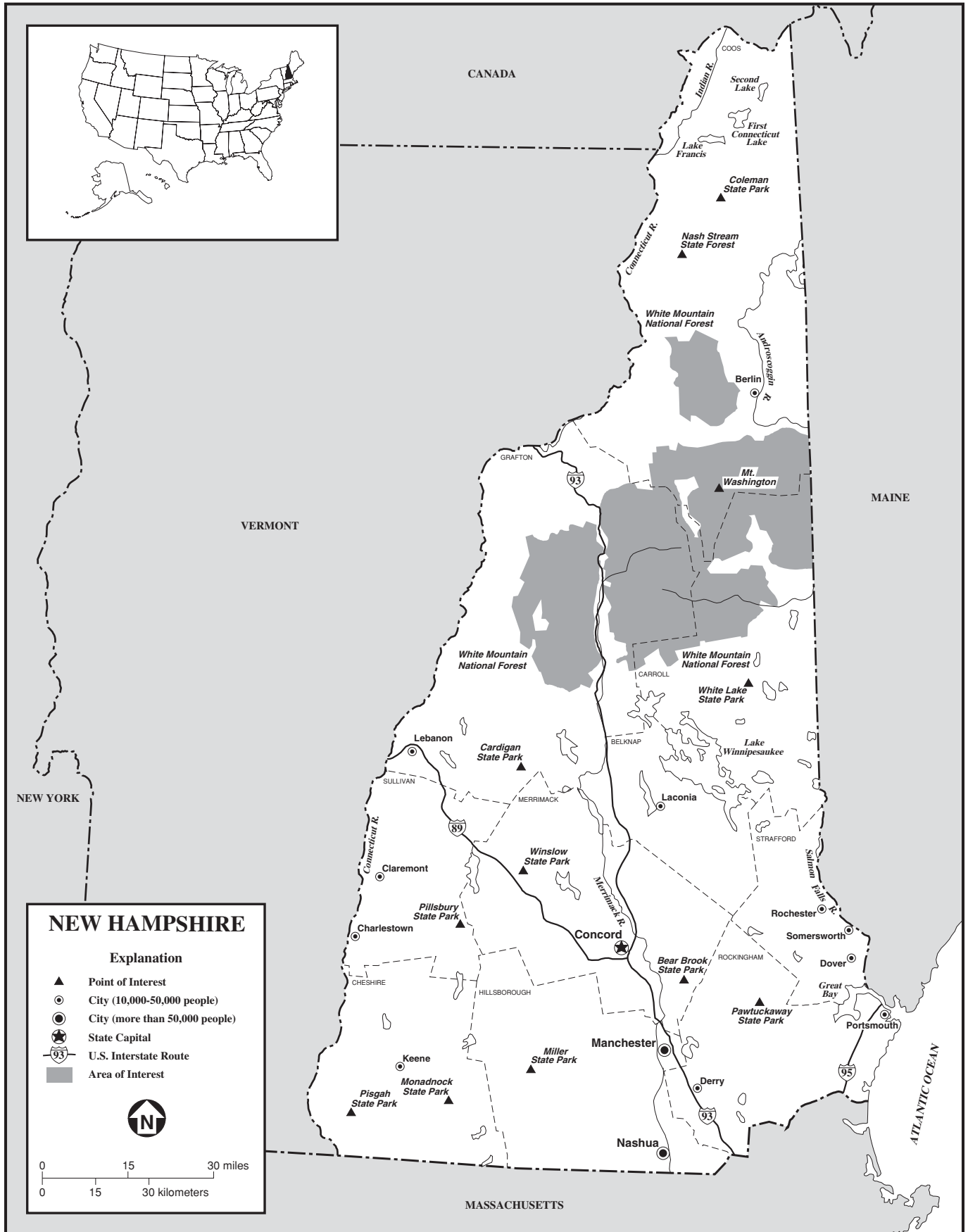
9 RELIGIONS

The first settlers of New Hampshire were Separatists, precursors of the modern Congregationalists (United Church of Christ) and their first church was probably built around 1633. The first Episcopal church was built in 1638 and the first Quaker meetinghouse in 1701; Presbyterians, Baptists, and Methodists built churches later in the 18th century. The state remained almost entirely Protestant until the second half of the 19th century, when Roman Catholics (French Canadian, Irish, and Italian) began arriving in significant numbers, along with some Greek and Russian Orthodox Christians.

In 2004, Roman Catholics numbered at about 327,353 adherents. In 2005, there were 25,794 members of the United Church of Christ. Other leading Protestant denominations (with 2000 membership data) are the United Methodist Church, 18,927; the American Baptist Churches—USA, 16,359; and the Episcopal Church, 16,148. There were about 10,020 Jews and 3,782 Muslims throughout the state in 2000. A few small groups have reported considerable growth since 1990. These include the Salvation Army, which went from 763 members in 1990 to 2,651 members in 2000. The International Church of the Foursquare Gospel grew from 51 adherents in 1990 to 1,203 in 2000 and the Christian Churches and Churches of Christ reported a membership of 1,503 in 2000, up from 396 in 1990.

10 TRANSPORTATION

New Hampshire's first railroad, between Nashua and Lowell, Massachusetts, was chartered in 1835 and opened in 1838. Two years later, Exeter and Boston were linked by rail. The state had more than 1,200 mi (1,900 km) of track in 1920, but by 2003, the total route mileage in New Hampshire shrunk to 473 mi (761 km).



There were no Class I railroads operating in the state as of that year. As of 2006, Amtrak provided service to three stations in New Hampshire via its Boston to Portland Downeaster train.

In 2003, the state had a total of 15,628 mi (25,161 km) of roads. The main north–south highway is I-93. As of 2004, there were some 668,000 automobiles, around 491,000 trucks of all types, about 66,000 motorcycles, and some 1,000 buses registered in the state, along with 985,775 licensed drivers. In 2005, New Hampshire had a total of 127 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 51 airports, 67 heliports, and nine seaplane bases. The state's main airport is Manchester Municipal Airport. In 2004, the airport had 1,973,142 enplanements.

Portsmouth is the state's primary port. In 2004, the Portsmouth handled 4.794 million tons of cargo. For that same year, New Hampshire had only eight mi (12 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, total waterborne shipments totaled 4.971 million tons.

11 HISTORY

The land called New Hampshire has supported a human population for at least 10,000 years. Prior to European settlement, Indian tribes of the Algonkian language group lived in the region. During the 17th century, most of New Hampshire's Indians, called Pennacook, were organized in a loose confederation centered along the Merrimack Valley.

The coast of New England was explored by Dutch, English, and French navigators throughout the 16th century. Samuel de Champlain prepared the first accurate map of the New England coast in 1604, and Captain John Smith explored the Isles of Shoals in 1614. By this time, numerous English fishermen were summering on New England's coastal banks, using the Isles of Shoals for temporary shelter and to dry their catch.

The first English settlement was established along the Piscataqua River in 1623. From 1643 to 1680, New Hampshire was a province of Massachusetts, and the boundary between them was not settled until 1740. During the 18th century, as settlers moved up the Merrimack and Connecticut river valleys, they came into conflict with the Indians. By 1760, however, the Pennacook had been expelled from the region.

Throughout the provincial period, people in New Hampshire made their living through fishing, farming, cutting and sawing timber, shipbuilding, and coastal and overseas trade. By the first quarter of the 18th century, Portsmouth, the provincial capital, had become a thriving commercial port. New Hampshire's terrain worked against Portsmouth's commercial interests, however, by dictating that roads (and later railroads) run in a north–south direction—making Boston, and not Portsmouth, New England's primary trading center. During the Revolutionary War, extensive preparations were made to protect the harbor from a British attack that never came. Although nearly 18,500 New Hampshire men enlisted in the war, no battle was fought within its boundaries. New Hampshire was the first of the original 13 colonies to establish an independent government—on 5 January 1776, six months before the Declaration of Independence.

During the 19th century, as overseas trade became less important to the New Hampshire economy, textile mills were built, principally along the Merrimack River. By midcentury, the Merrimack Valley had become the social, political, and economic center of

the state. So great was the demand for workers in these mills that immigrant labor was imported during the 1850s; a decade later, French Canadian workers began pouring south from Quebec.

Although industry thrived, agriculture did not; New Hampshire hill farms could not compete against Midwestern farms. The population in farm towns dropped, leaving a maze of stone walls, cellar holes, and new forests on the hillsides. The people who remained began to cluster in small village centers.

World War I, however, marked a turning point for New Hampshire industry. As wartime demand fell off, the state's old textile mills were unable to compete with newer cotton mills in the South, and New Hampshire's mill towns became as depressed as its farm towns; only in the north, the center for logging and paper manufacturing, did state residents continue to enjoy moderate prosperity. Industrial towns in the southern counties responded to the decline in textile manufacture by making other items, particularly shoes, but the collapse of the state's railroad network spelled further trouble for the slumping economy. The growth of tourism aided the rural areas primarily, as old farms became spacious vacation homes for "summer people," who in some cases paid the bulk of local property taxes.

During the 1960s, New Hampshire's economic decline began to reverse, except in agriculture. In the 1970s and early 1980s, growth in the state's northern counties remained modest, but the combination of Boston's urban sprawl, interstate highway construction, and low state taxes encouraged people and industry—notably high-technology businesses—to move into southern New Hampshire. The state's population doubled between 1960 and 1988, from 606,921 to 1.1 million. Most of the arrivals were younger, more affluent, and better educated than the natives. The newcomers shared the fiscally conservative views of those born in New Hampshire but tended to be more liberal on social questions such as gun control and abortion. The rise in population strained government services, prompted an increase in local taxes, and provoked concern over the state's vanishing open spaces. The state's population has held fairly steady since 1988, with an estimated 1.3 million people in 2004.

Like other New England states, New Hampshire was hard hit by the recession of the early 1990s, with the unemployment rate rising to 10% by 1992. But by the mid-1990s a recovery was underway, and about 30,000 of the more than 60,000 jobs lost during the recession had been regained. By 1999 the state enjoyed the second-lowest unemployment rate in the nation—just 2.7%. Population growth in the state threatened to do away with the annual town meeting. A study released in 2000 showed that more towns had replaced the celebrated tradition with the official ballot form of governance.

In 2000, New Hampshire Chief Justice David Brock faced an unprecedented trial on charges he influenced a lower-court judge about a powerful state senator's case, allowed a Supreme Court colleague to have a say in the handling of his own divorce, permitted disqualified justices to participate in cases, and lied to a house committee investigating the court. Brock was the first New Hampshire official impeached in 210 years and his trial was to be the first in the state's history. The last impeachment of a New Hampshire official was in 1790; Supreme Court Justice Woodbury Langdon resigned before he was tried. Brock was acquitted by the New Hampshire Senate in October 2000.

Like other New England states in the early 2000s, New Hampshire faced record-breaking budget deficits. Republican Governor Craig Benson vetoed a 2003 two-year budget passed by the state legislature, saying it would increase the deficit and raise taxes. Democrat John Lynch, who was inaugurated as New Hampshire's governor in January 2005 after defeating Benson in the November 2004 election, put his attention to improving education, reducing health care costs, protecting the environment, and creating good jobs. In his first few months in office he worked with the legislature to pass legislation stabilizing health care costs for small businesses; eliminating a projected \$300 million budget deficit; and making progress on education funding.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

New Hampshire's constitution, adopted in 1784 and extensively revised in 1792, is the second-oldest state-governing document still in effect. Every 10 years, the people vote on the question of calling a convention to revise it; proposed revisions must then be approved by two-thirds of the voters at a referendum. Amendments may also be placed on the ballot by a three-fifths vote of both houses of the state legislature. If placed on the ballot, an amendment must be approved by two-thirds of the voters on the amendment in order to be ratified. The constitution was amended 143 times by January 2005.

The state legislature, called the General Court, consists of a 24-member Senate and a 400-seat House of Representatives, larger than that of any other state. Legislative sessions begin each January and are limited to 45 legislative days. Special sessions, indirectly limited to 15 legislative days, may be called by a two-thirds vote of the members of each house. Senators must be at least 30 years old, representatives 18. The state residency requirement for senators is a minimum of seven years and for representatives a minimum of two. Legislators, who must reside in their districts, serve two-year terms, for which they were paid \$200 (\$100 per year) as of 2004, unchanged from 1999.

The only executive elected statewide is the governor, who serves a two-year term and is assisted by a five-member executive council, elected for two years by district. As of 2006, New Hampshire and Vermont were the only two states whose governors served two-year terms. The council must approve all administrative and judicial appointments. The secretary of state and state treasurer are elected by the legislature. The governor must be at least 30 years old and must have been a state resident for seven years before election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$96,060.

A bill becomes law if signed by the governor, if passed by the legislature and left unsigned by the governor for five days whether or not the legislature is in or out of session, or if passed over a gubernatorial veto by two-thirds of the legislators present in each house. A voter must be at least 18 years old, a US citizen, and must have a permanent established domicile in the state of New Hampshire. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

New Hampshire has almost always gone with the Republican presidential nominee in recent decades, but the Democratic and Republican parties were much more evenly balanced in local and state elections. New Hampshire's quadrennial presidential preference primary, the second state primary of the campaign season

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	NEW HAMPSHIRE WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	Dewey (R)	107,995	121,299
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	106,663	166,287
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	90,364	176,519
1960	4	Nixon (R)	137,772	157,989
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	182,065	104,029
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	130,589	154,903
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	116,435	213,724
1976	4	Ford (R)	147,635	185,935
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	108,864	221,705
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	120,347	267,050
1988	4	*Bush (R)	163,696	281,537
1992**	4	*Clinton (D)	209,040	202,484
1996**	4	*Clinton (D)	246,214	196,532
2000	4	*Bush, G. W. (R)	266,348	273,559
2004	4	Kerry (D)	340,511	331,237

*Won US presidential election.
 **IND. candidate Ross Perot received 121,337 votes in 1992 and 48,390 votes in 1996.

after Iowa, accords to New Hampshire a degree of national political influence and a claim on media attention far out of proportion to their numbers. In the 1992 presidential election, New Hampshire voters defied their tradition and chose Democrat Bill Clinton over Republican incumbent George Bush by a scant 6,556 votes. Clinton won the state again in 1996. In the 2000 presidential election, Republican George W. Bush received 48% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 47%; Green Party candidate Ralph Nader garnered 4% of the vote. In 2004, Bush won 40.3% to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 49.0%. In 2004, there were 690,000 registered voters. In 1998, 27% of registered voters were Democratic, 36% Republican, and 36% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had four electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

As of 2005, both of New Hampshire's senators, John Sununu (elected in 2002) and Judd Gregg (reelected in 2004), were Republicans. Following the 2004 election, both House seats were held by Republicans. In 2002, Republican Craig Benson was elected governor; he was defeated by Democrat John Lynch in 2004. The New Hampshire state Senate in mid-2005 had 16 Republicans and 8 Democrats, and the state House had 253 Republicans and 147 Democrats.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, New Hampshire has 10 counties, each governed by three commissioners. Other elected county officials include the sheriff, attorney, treasurer, registrar of deeds, and registrar of probate.

New Hampshire also had 13 municipal governments in 2005, as well as 178 public school districts, and 148 special districts. In 2002, there were 221 townships. Most municipalities have elected mayors and councils. Some municipal charters provide for the council-manager or commission system of government. The basic unit of town government is the traditional town meeting, held once a year, when selectmen and other local officials are chosen.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 49,709 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

1⁵ STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in New Hampshire operates under the authority of the governor; the emergency management director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Department of Education, governed by the seven-member State Board of Education (which appoints an education commissioner), has primary responsibility for public instruction. The Department of Transportation and the Division of Ports and Harbors share transport responsibilities, while the Department of Health and Human Services oversees public health and mental health and welfare. Executive branch departments include the departments of agriculture, markets, and food; cultural resources; fish and game; justice; revenue administration; and parks and recreation. Authorities, boards, and commissions include the Liquor Commission and the Sweepstakes Commission.

1⁶ JUDICIAL SYSTEM

All judges in New Hampshire are appointed by the governor, subject to confirmation by the executive council. Appointments are to age 70, with retirement compulsory at that time. The state's highest court, the Supreme Court, consists of a chief justice and four associate justices. The main trial court is the Superior Court for which there were 28 judges in 1999.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 2,448 prisoners were held in New Hampshire's state and federal prisons, an increase from 2,434 of 0.6% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 119 inmates were female, up from 117 or 1.7% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), New Hampshire had an incarceration rate of 187 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, New Hampshire in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 167 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 2,170 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 26,511 reported incidents or 2,040.1 reported incidents per 100,000 people. New Hampshire has a death penalty, which consists of lethal injection or hanging, the latter of which is used only if lethal injection cannot be used. Since 1930, New Hampshire has executed only one person and as of 1 January 2006 no prisoners were under sentence of death in the state. For the period 1976 through 5 May 2006, there have been no executions carried out by the state.

In 2003, New Hampshire spent \$45,536,983 on homeland security, an average of \$36 per state resident.

1⁷ ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 218 active-duty military personnel and 1,059 civilian personnel stationed in New Hampshire. The principal military installation is the Portsmouth Naval Shipyard. Firms in the state received nearly \$715 million in defense contract awards in 2004, and defense payroll outlays were \$384 million.

As of 2003, veterans living in New Hampshire numbered 131,074, of whom 16,623 were veterans of World War II; 14,381, the Korean conflict; 41,627, the Vietnam era; and 16,940 served during the Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Af-

fairs expenditures in New Hampshire amounted to more than \$325 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the New Hampshire State Police employed 267 full-time sworn officers.

1⁸ MIGRATION

From the time of the first European settlement until the middle of the 19th century, the population of New Hampshire was primarily of British origin. Subsequently, immigrants from Quebec and from Ireland, Italy, and other countries began arriving in significant numbers. New Hampshire's population growth since 1960 has been fueled by migrants from other states. The net gain from migration was 74,000 from 1985 to 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, New Hampshire had net gains of 19,000 in domestic migration and 6,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 1,010 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 6.8%. In the period 2000-05, net international migration was 11,107 and net internal migration was 40,861, for a net gain of 51,968 people.

1⁹ INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

New Hampshire participates in the American and Canadian French Cultural Exchange Commission, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Connecticut River Valley Flood Control Compact, Maine-New Hampshire Interstate School Compact, Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, and various New England regional compacts (including compacts on radiological health protection, higher education, corrections, police, trucking fees and permits, water pollution control, sewage and garbage disposal, fire protection, and the lotto). Federal grants to New Hampshire totaled \$1.243 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$1.253 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.271 billion in fiscal year 2007.

2⁰ ECONOMY

New Hampshire is one of the most industrialized states in the United States, ranking well above the national median in proportion of labor force employed in manufacturing and in value added by manufacture. Between 1977 and 1982, manufacturing employment rose 13%, to 107,500, as many high-technology firms moved into the southern portion of the state. Since World War II, tourism has been one of the state's fastest-growing sources of income. Coming into the 21st century, the state's economy was booming, posting annual growth rates of 8.2% in 1998, 7% in 1999, and 9.3% in 2000. It was clearly headed for a correction, and in the national recession and slowdown of 2001 it was one of the few states that experienced a contraction for the year, albeit a small 0.4% contraction. Due to the large growth of information technology (IT) related jobs in southern New Hampshire in the 1990s, this was the region of New England that saw the greatest fall in personal income between mid-2000 and mid-2002.

New Hampshire's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$51.871 billion of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$7.232 billion or 13.9% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$6.47 billion (12.4% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance at \$4.195 billion (8% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 133,052 small businesses in New Hampshire. Of the 40,151 businesses that had

employees, an estimated total of 38,820 or 96.7% were small companies. An estimated 4,865 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 4.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 5,401, up 17.5% from 2003. There were 158 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 11.2% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 333 filings per 100,000 people, ranking New Hampshire as the 47th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005, New Hampshire had a gross state product (GSP) of \$56 billion which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 39 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 New Hampshire had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$36,616. This ranked seventh in the United States and was 111% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. New Hampshire had a total personal income (TPI) of \$47,569,847,000, which ranked 38th in the United States and reflected an increase of 7.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.8%. Earnings of persons employed in New Hampshire increased from \$32,481,694,000 in 2003 to \$34,921,009,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$57,352 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 5.7% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in New Hampshire numbered 735,300 with approximately 24,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.4%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 642,500. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in New Hampshire was 7.7% in June 1982. The historical low was 1.9% in April 1987. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.8% of the labor force was employed in construction; 12% in manufacturing; 22.1% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.3% in financial activities; 9.5% in professional and business services; 15.7% in education and health services; 9.9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 13.9% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 65,000 of New Hampshire's 627,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 10.4% of those so employed, up from 9.9% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 72,000 workers (11.5%) in New Hampshire were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. New Hampshire is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, New Hampshire had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.7% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Only Rhode Island and Alaska generate less income from farming than New Hampshire. Farm income in 2005 was \$168 million, 56% of which was in crops.

In 2004, there were about 3,400 farms occupying about 450,000 acres (182,000 hectares). Leading crops and their output in 2004 were hay, 105,000 tons, and commercial apples, 31 million lb (14 million kg).

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Dairy and poultry products are the mainstays of New Hampshire's agriculture. In 2003, the state had 16,000 milk cows, with a total milk yield of 305 million lb (139 million kg). Poultry items included 1,183,000 lb (538,000 kg) of chickens, sold for \$28,000; 132,000 lb (60,000 kg) of turkey, valued at \$224,000, and 43 million eggs, valued at \$3.2 million.

25 FISHING

New Hampshire's commercial catch in 2004 consisted of 21.9 million lb (10 million kg), worth \$8.8 million. Most of the catch includes cod and lobster. In 2003, the state had 3 processing and 20 wholesale plants with about 497 employees. The commercial fleet in 2001 had about 580 boats and vessels. The state sponsors six hatcheries. The Nashua National Fish Hatchery is also located in the state. In 2004, the state issued 143,835 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

New Hampshire had 4,824,000 acres (1,952,000 hectares) of forestland in 2004, of which 4,503,000 acres (1,822,000 hectares) were considered suitable for commercial use. Of that total, 83% was privately owned. Forests cover about 84% of New Hampshire. Lumber production in 2004 was 232 million board feet, 72% softwood.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by New Hampshire in 2003 was \$63.9 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 3%.

By value, according to the preliminary data for 2003, construction sand and gravel was the state's leading nonfuel mineral commodity, accounting for around 69% of all nonfuel mineral production. In second place was crushed stone.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed production of construction sand and gravel totaling 9.1 million metric tons, with a value of \$44.1 million, while crushed stone output that year totaled 3.89 million metric tons, and a value of \$19.8 million. New Hampshire in 2003 was also a producer of dimension granite, and gem stones which were collected by hobbyists. Sand and gravel are mined in every county, and dimension granite is quarried in Hillsborough, Merrimack, and Coos counties.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, new Hampshire had 20 electrical power service providers, of which five were publicly owned and one was a cooperative. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, four were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers, four were generation-only suppliers and two were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 661,773 retail customers. Of that total, 576,788 received their power from investor-owned service providers. The state's lone cooperative accounted for 73,727 customers, while publicly owned providers had 11,147 customers. There were five independent generator or "facility" customers, while generation-only suppliers had 106 customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 4.244 million kW, with total production that same year at 21.597 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 28.9% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 71.1% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 9.276 billion kWh (43%), came from nuclear power, with natural gas fired plants in second place at 4.165 billion kWh (19.3%) and coal-fired plants in third at 3.923 billion kWh (18.2%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 4% of all power generated, with hydroelectric at 6.2% and petroleum fired plants at 9.5%.

In 1990, the controversial nuclear power plant at Seabrook, built by Public Service Co. of New Hampshire, began operating. Originally planned as a two-reactor, 2,300-Mw facility, Seabrook was scaled back to one 1,150 MW reactor whose cost was about five times the original \$1 billion two-reactor estimate. As of 2003, the plant had a generating capability of 1,159 MW and was the largest reactor in New England.

New Hampshire has no refineries, nor any proven reserves or production of crude oil and natural gas.

29 INDUSTRY

During the provincial era, shipbuilding was New Hampshire's major industry. By 1870, cotton and woolen mills, concentrated in the southeast, employed about one-third of the labor force and accounted for roughly half the value of all manufactures.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, New Hampshire's manufacturing sector covered some 16 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$15.439 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$3.982 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$1.867 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.627 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.017 billion; and electrical equipment, appliance and component manufacturing at \$983.270 million.

In 2004, a total of 72,498 people in New Hampshire were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 452,589 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 14,068, with 6,127 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing

at 10,776 employees (8,023 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 8,534 employees (4,497 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing at 5,307 employees (2,997 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 4,555 employees (3,543 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that New Hampshire's manufacturing sector paid \$3.332 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$863.134 million. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$436.288 million; machinery manufacturing at \$430.462 million; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$255.064 million; and electrical equipment, appliance and component manufacturing at \$175.557 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, New Hampshire's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$13.7 billion from 2,004 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,326 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 508 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 170 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$6.6 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$5.4 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$1.5 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, New Hampshire was listed as having 6,702 retail establishments with sales of \$20.8 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (839); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (822); clothing and clothing accessories stores (806); and food and beverage stores (752). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$5.3 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$3.3 billion; general merchandise stores at \$2.8 billion; nonstore retailers at \$1.85 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers \$1.80 billion. A total of 93,804 people were employed by the retail sector in New Hampshire that year.

Foreign exports of goods originating in New Hampshire totaled \$2.5 billion in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues are handled by the Consumer Protection and Antitrust Bureau, which is under the jurisdiction of the state of New Hampshire's Department of Justice. Specific legal action however, is handled by the state's Attorney General's Office, which is also under the state's Department of Justice.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the Attorney General's Office cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Consumer Protection and Antitrust Bureau are located in Concord.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, New Hampshire had 30 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 21 state-chartered and six federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Manchester-Nashua market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 15 institutions and \$6.435 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 9.6% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$3.349 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 90.4% or \$31.670 billion in assets held.

Twenty percent of New Hampshire's banks have long-term asset concentrations greater than 30% of earnings assets. This is due in large measure to the large percentage of thrifts and residential lenders in the state. Over one-half of all insured banks in New Hampshire are savings institutions.

Regulation of state-chartered banks and other financial institutions is the responsibility of the Banking Department.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 631,000 individual life insurance policies in force in New Hampshire, with a total value of about \$59.5 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$90 billion. The average coverage amount is \$94,400 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$209.2 million.

As of 2003, there were 33 property and casualty and 3 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$2.1 billion in 2004. That year, there were 5,211 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$758 million.

In 2004, 67% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 18% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. New Hampshire has the highest percentage of employment-based insurance in the country. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 21% for single coverage and 25% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 862,145 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Insurance coverage is not mandatory but motorists are expected to take financial responsibility and uninsured motorist coverage is available. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$776.47.

3⁴ SECURITIES

New Hampshire has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 490 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,950 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 36 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 14 NASDAQ companies, 8 NYSE listings, and 4 AMEX

listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 500 company; Fisher Scientific Intl, based in Hampton and listed on the NYSE, ranked 389th in the nation with revenues of over \$5.5 billion. Timberland in Stratham (NYSE) and PC Connection in Merrimack (NASDAQ) made the Fortune 1,000 list.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The New Hampshire state budget is drawn up biennially by the Department of Administrative Services and then submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

New Hampshire—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	6,174,660	4,753.39
General revenue	5,024,122	3,867.68
Intergovernmental revenue	1,676,883	1,290.90
Taxes	2,005,389	1,543.79
General sales	—	—
Selective sales	674,354	519.13
License taxes	199,170	153.33
Individual income tax	54,769	42.16
Corporate income tax	407,603	313.78
Other taxes	669,493	515.39
Current charges	723,942	557.31
Miscellaneous general revenue	617,908	475.68
Utility revenue	110	.08
Liquor store revenue	371,766	286.19
Insurance trust revenue	778,662	599.43
Total expenditure	5,654,063	4,352.63
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,278,988	984.59
Direct expenditure	4,375,075	3,368.03
Current operation	3,288,655	2,531.68
Capital outlay	293,670	226.07
Insurance benefits and repayments	384,809	296.23
Assistance and subsidies	106,111	81.69
Interest on debt	301,830	232.36
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	780,172	600.59
Total expenditure	5,654,063	4,352.63
General expenditure	4,942,244	3,804.65
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,278,988	984.59
Direct expenditure	3,663,256	2,820.06
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,667,818	1,283.92
Public welfare	1,441,935	1,110.03
Hospitals	50,196	38.64
Health	137,669	105.98
Highways	374,149	288.03
Police protection	37,454	28.83
Correction	94,423	72.69
Natural resources	61,365	47.24
Parks and recreation	13,657	10.51
Government administration	200,118	154.06
Interest on general debt	301,830	232.36
Other and unallocable	561,630	432.36
Utility expenditure	9,294	7.15
Liquor store expenditure	317,716	244.59
Insurance trust expenditure	384,809	296.23
Debt at end of fiscal year	5,894,106	4,537.42
Cash and security holdings	10,175,057	7,832.99

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$1.37 billion for resources and \$1.34 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to New Hampshire were \$1.8 billion.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$900,000 for New Hampshire.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, New Hampshire collected \$2,022 million in tax revenues or \$1,544 per capita, which placed it 48th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 19.4% of the total, selective sales taxes 34.9%, individual income taxes 3.3%, corporate income taxes 23.6%, and other taxes 18.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, state income tax was limited to dividends and interest income only. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 8.5%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$2.5 billion or \$1,940 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state third-highest nationally. Local governments collected \$2,026,125,000 of the total and the state government \$493,589,000.

New Hampshire taxes gasoline at 19.625 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, New Hampshire citizens received \$0.67 in federal spending, which ranks the state third-lowest among all states.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Business incentives in New Hampshire include a generally favorable tax climate (which includes the absence of sales, personal income, and capital gains taxes), specific tax incentives and exemptions, and relatively low wage rates. The state has offered loan programs through the New Hampshire Business Finance Authority since 1992, aimed at encouraging economic development and job creation and at assisting small businesses. The state also participates in a joint venture with Maine and Vermont which provides loans to export companies. Foreign Trade Zone No. 81 provides economic incentives to companies doing business in the international markets. New Hampshire's Division of Economic Development (DED), within the Department of Resources and Economic Development, has the main responsibility for state support of programs to increase jobs and revenues in the state. Major operational units within the DED have been focused on assistance for business relocations and expansions; New Economy Ventures; community development; Internet development; exports of state products, imports of state products and tourism. Under the program NH Works, employers were offered free assistance on all facets of hiring the right employees.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 11.2 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 11.2 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 92.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester; this was the highest rate for pre-

natal care in the nation. In 2004, approximately 86% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 217.7; cancer, 198.3; cerebrovascular diseases, 49.2; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 45.3; and diabetes, 24.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was not available. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 3.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 53.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 21.6% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, New Hampshire had 28 community hospitals with about 2,800 beds. There were about 118,000 patient admissions that year and 3.1 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 1,700 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,389. Also in 2003, there were about 81 certified nursing facilities in the state with 7,811 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 91.5%. New In 2004, it was estimated that about 77.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Hampshire had 267 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 932 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 795 dentists in the state.

About 10% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 14% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.3 billion.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 21,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$251. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 52,310 persons (25,198 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$80.56 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$50.5 million, the lowest total in the nation.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. New Hampshire's TANF program for work-exempt families is called the Family Assistance Program (FAP), while aid to work-mandated families under TANF is called the New Hampshire Employment Program (NHEP). In 2004, the state program had 14,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$37 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 219,080 New Hampshire residents. This number included 143,580 retired workers, 18,050 widows and widowers, 30,090 disabled workers, 8,850 spouses, and 18,510 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.6% of the total state population and 96.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$978; widows and widowers, \$948; disabled workers, \$897; and spouses, \$505. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$513 per month; children of deceased workers, \$681; and children of disabled workers, \$282. Federal

Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 13,029 New Hampshire residents, averaging \$377 a month. An additional \$873,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 16,784 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were 575,671 housing units in New Hampshire, 491,589 of which were occupied; 72.6% were owner-occupied. About 62.8% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Fuel oil and kerosene were the most common heating energy sources. It was estimated that 8,724 units lacked telephone service, 2,770 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 2,725 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.57 members.

In 2004, 8,700 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$216,639. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,472. Renters paid a median of \$810. In 2006, the state received over \$9.2 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 90.8% of New Hampshire residents age 25 and older were high school graduates, significantly higher than the national average of 84%. Some 35.4% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, surpassing the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in New Hampshire's public schools stood at 208,000. Of these, 144,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 64,000 attended high school. Approximately 94.2% of the students were white, 1.4% were black, 2.4% were Hispanic, 1.7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 205,000 in fall 2003 but expected to be 193,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 7.1% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$2.1 billion. In fall 2003 there were 23,692 students enrolled in 165 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in New Hampshire scored 285 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 68,523 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 7.2% of total post-secondary enrollment. In 2005, New Hampshire had 25 degree-granting institutions. The best-known institution of higher education is Dartmouth College, which originated in Connecticut in 1754 as Moor's Indian Charity School and was established at Hanover in 1769. When the state of New Hampshire attempted to amend Dartmouth's charter to make the institution public in the early 19th century, the US Supreme Court handed down a precedent-setting ruling prohibiting state violation of contract rights. The University of New Hampshire, the leading public institution, was founded at Hanover in 1866 and relocated at Durham in 1891. The university also has a campus in Manchester. Other colleges include Franklin Pierce College, Keene State College, and Southern New Hampshire University.

42 ARTS

The New Hampshire State Council on the Arts was established in 1965 with the mission of making the arts more prevalent in the community and education. In 2005, the New Hampshire State Council on the Arts and other New Hampshire arts organizations received 7 grants totaling \$682,100 from the National Endowment for the Arts. State and private sources also contributed substantial funding to the state's arts programs.

As of 2006, the New Hampshire Humanities Council sponsored a number of ongoing programs including What Is New Hampshire Reading?, a statewide reading and discussion program; a Literature and Medicine series that hosts discussions on what matters in health care and why, and an annual summer Chautauqua. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$743,861 to eight state programs.

Hopkins Center at Dartmouth College features musical events throughout the year. Ballet groups include Ballet New England in Portsmouth, City Center Ballet in Lebanon, and Petit Papillon in Concord. Opera groups include the Granite State Opera in Temple, and Opera North in Hanover. Classical music groups include the Nashua Chamber Orchestra, the Nashua Symphony Orchestra, the Granite State Symphony in Concord, the New England Wind Ensemble in Franklin, and the New Hampshire Philharmonic Orchestra and New Hampshire Symphony Orchestra (both in Manchester). The Lakes Region Symphony Orchestra based in Meredith, celebrated its 30th anniversary during the 2005/06 season.

The New Hampshire Music Festival in Center Harbor serves as a year-round educational institute and performing arts center and sponsors an annual summer festival featuring the New Hampshire Music Festival Orchestra. The festival began in 1952 and as of 2006 it hosted more than 160 events per year, over 50 presented during the summer festival. Monadnock Music in Peterborough is an organization sponsoring a variety of musical programs, including "Lend an Ear!"—a program geared towards educating young people, primarily elementary school children, about chamber music. This program in particular served over 1600 students from 18 different schools during the 2004/05 school year.

Patricia Fargnoli, of Walpole, New Hampshire was named the state's poet laureate for the January 2006–March 2009 term. She has published works that include *Necessary Light* and *Duties of the Spirit* (2005) and has won several awards such as the May Swenson Poetry Prize and the Jane Kenyon Poetry Book Award. The artist laureate as of 2006 was James Aponovich, an internationally acclaimed still life painter and teacher at the New Hampshire Institute of Art.

Principal galleries include the Currier Gallery of Art in Manchester, the University Art Gallery at the University of New Hampshire in Durham, Hood Museum—the Dartmouth College Art Museum at Hanover, and the Lamont Gallery at Phillips Exeter Academy in Exeter.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

As of December 2001, New Hampshire had 229 public library systems, with a total of 238 libraries, of which there were nine branches. The system, that same year, had a total book and serial publication stock of 5,572,000 volumes and a total combined circulation of 8,647,000. The system also had 172,000 audio and 158,000 video

items, 18,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and two bookmobiles. Leading academic and historical collections include Dartmouth College's Baker Memorial Library in Hanover (2,309,626 volumes); the New Hampshire State Library (519,319) and New Hampshire Historical Society Library (50,000), both in Concord; and the University of New Hampshire's Ezekiel W. Diamond Library (1,151,203) in Durham. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$35,575,000 and included \$50,000 in federal grants and \$35,000 in state grants.

Among the more than 76 museums and historic sites are the Museum of New Hampshire History in Concord and the Franklin Pierce Homestead in Hillsboro.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 96.4% of New Hampshire's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 686,746 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 71.5% of New Hampshire households had a computer and 65.2% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 238,502 high-speed lines in New Hampshire, 223,102 residential and 15,400 for business. In 2005, the state had 32 major radio stations (7 AM, 25 FM), and 5 television stations. State residents also receive broadcasts from neighboring Massachusetts, Vermont, and Maine. A total of 38,887 Internet domain names were registered in the state in 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005, New Hampshire had eight morning newspapers, four evening newspapers, and eight Sunday papers. The best-known newspaper in the state is Manchester's *The Union Leader* (59,384 daily and 81,144 Sunday), published by conservative William Loeb until his death in 1981. In the capital, the *Concord Monitor* circulates 20,107 papers daily and 22,747 on Sundays. The *Dover Foster's Daily Democrat* has a circulation of 22,720 for its weekday evening edition and 27,728 for the Sunday edition. The *Nashua Telegraph* has a circulation of 25,566 daily and 32,672 Sundays.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,015 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,469 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National organizations with headquarters in New Hampshire include the Student Conservation Association (Charlestown), Interhostel (Durham), the International Association of Reiki Professionals (Nashua), and the Academy of Applied Science (Concord). The regional Atlantic Offshore Lobstermen's Association is based in Bedford. The New Hampshire Historical Society is based in Concord. There are a number of municipal and county historical societies.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is a major part of the economy of New Hampshire. It has been estimated that the industry brings in revenues of \$8.6 billion per year and sponsors over 65,000 jobs.

Skiing, camping, hiking, and boating are the main outdoor attractions. Other attractions include Strawberry Banke, a restored village in Portsmouth; Daniel Webster's birthplace near Franklin; and the Mt. Washington Cog Railway. Merrimack Valley is the

most visited area, generating 36% of all tourism revenue. There are over 72 state parks and recreation areas. Many tourists come to New Hampshire for skiing. One of the most famous natural attractions, "The Old Man on the Mountain," collapsed in May 2003. Motorsports enthusiasts can visit the New Hampshire Speedway. In 2006, Squam Lake celebrated the 25th anniversary of the filming of the feature film, *On Golden Pond*.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in New Hampshire, although there are minor league baseball teams in Nashua and Manchester. Major national and international skiing events are frequently held in the state, as are such other winter competitions as snowmobile races and the Annual World Championship Sled Dog Derby in Laconia. Thoroughbred, harness, and greyhound racing are the warm-weather spectator sports. The annual Whale-back Yacht Race is held in early August.

Dartmouth College competes in the Ivy League, and the University of New Hampshire belongs to the America East Conference, both Division I-AA Conferences.

The New Hampshire International Speedway, which opened in Loudon in 1994, plays host to a NASCAR Busch Series and Nextel Cup races in July and September.

49 FAMOUS NEW HAMPSHIRITES

Born in Hillsboro, Franklin Pierce (1804–69), the nation's 14th president, serving from 1853 to 1857, was the only US chief executive to come from New Hampshire. Henry Wilson (Jeremiah Jones Colbath, 1812–75), US vice president from 1873 to 1875, was a native of Farmington.

US Supreme Court chief justices Salmon P. Chase (1808–73), Harlan Fiske Stone (1872–1946), and David Souter (b.1939) were New Hampshire natives, and Levi Woodbury (1789–1851) was a distinguished associate justice. John Langdon (1741–1819) was the first president pro tempore of the US Senate; two other US senators from New Hampshire, George Higgins Moses (b.Maine, 1869–1944) and Henry Styles Bridges (b.Maine, 1898–1961), also held this position. US cabinet members from New Hampshire included Henry Dearborn (1751–1829), secretary of war; Daniel Webster (1782–1852), secretary of state; and William E. Chandler (1835–1917), secretary of the Navy. Other political leaders of note were Benning Wentworth (1696–1770), royal governor Meshech Weare (1713–86), the state's leader during the American Revolution; Josiah Bartlett (b.Massachusetts, 1729–95), a physician, governor, and signer of the Declaration of Independence; Isaac Hill (b.Massachusetts, 1789–1851), a publisher, governor, and US senator; and John Parker Hale (1806–73), senator, antislavery agitator, minister to Spain, and presidential candidate of the Free Soil Party. John Sununu, a former Governor of New Hampshire (b.1939, Cuba) was chief of staff during the Bush administration.

Military leaders associated with New Hampshire during the colonial and Revolutionary periods include John Stark (1728–1822), Robert Rogers (b.Massachusetts, 1731–95), and John Sullivan (1710–95). Among other figures of note are educator Eleazar Wheelock (b.Connecticut, 1711–79), the founder of Dartmouth College; physicians Lyman Spaulding (1775–1821), Reuben D. Mussey (1780–1866), and Amos Twitchell (1781–1850), as well as Samuel Thomson (1769–1843), a leading advocate of herbal

medicine; religious leaders Hosea Ballou (1771–1852), his grand-nephew of the same name (1796–1861), and Mary Baker Eddy (1821–1910), founder of Christian Science; George Whipple (1878–1976), winner of the 1934 Nobel Prize for physiology or medicine; and labor organizer and US Communist Party leader Elizabeth Gurley Flynn (1890–1964).

Sarah Josepha Hale (1788–1879), Horace Greeley (1811–72), Charles Dana (1819–97), Thomas Bailey Aldrich (1836–1907), Bradford Torrey (b.Massachusetts, 1843–1912), Alice Brown (1857–1948), and J(erome) D(avid) Salinger (b.New York, 1919) are among the writers and editors who have lived in New Hampshire, along with poets Edna Dean Proctor (1829–1923), Celia Loughton Thaxter (1826–94), Edward Arlington Robinson (b.Maine, 1869–1935), and Robert Frost (b.California, 1874–1963), one of whose poetry volumes is entitled *New Hampshire* (1923). Painter Benjamin Champney (1817–1907) and sculptor Daniel Chester French (1850–1931) were born in New Hampshire, while Augustus Saint-Gaudens (b.Ireland, 1848–1907) created much of his sculpture in the state.

Vaudevillian Will Cressey (1863–1930) was a New Hampshire man. More recent celebrities include newspaper publisher William Loeb (b.New York, 1905–81) and astronaut Alan B. Shepard Jr. (1923–98).

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NEW JERSEY

State of New Jersey

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for the British Channel Island of Jersey. **NICKNAME:** The Garden State. **CAPITAL:** Trenton. **ENTERED UNION:** 18 December 1787 (3rd). **SONG:** “I’m from New Jersey” (unofficial). **MOTTO:** Liberty and Prosperity. **COAT OF ARMS:** In the center is a shield with three plows, symbolic of agriculture. A helmet above indicates sovereignty, and a horse’s head atop the helmet signifies speed and prosperity. The state motto and the date “1776” are displayed on a banner below. **FLAG:** The coat of arms on a buff field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms surrounded by the words “The Great Seal of the State of New Jersey.” **BIRD:** Eastern goldfinch. **FLOWER:** Violet. **TREE:** Red oak; dogwood (memorial tree). **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr. 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln’s Birthday, 12 February (sometimes observed on a Friday or Monday closest to this date); Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after 1st Monday in November; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the northeastern United States, New Jersey is the smallest of the Middle Atlantic states and ranks 46th among the 50 states.

The total area of New Jersey is 7,787 sq mi (20,168 sq km), of which 7,468 sq mi (19,342 sq km) constitute land and 319 sq mi (826 sq km) are inland water. New Jersey extends 166 mi (267 km) N–S; the extreme width E–W is 57 mi (92 km).

New Jersey is bordered on the N and NE by New York State (with the boundary formed partly by the Hudson River, New York Bay, and Arthur Kill, and passing through Raritan Bay); on the E by the Atlantic Ocean; on the S and SW by Delaware (with the line passing through Delaware Bay); and on the W by Pennsylvania (separated by the Delaware River). Numerous barrier islands lie off the Atlantic coast.

New Jersey’s total boundary length is 480 mi (773 km), including a general coastline of 130 mi (209 km); the tidal shoreline is 1,792 mi (2,884 km). The state’s geographic center is in Mercer County, near Trenton.

² TOPOGRAPHY

Although small, New Jersey has considerable topographic variety. In the extreme northwest corner of the state are the Appalachian Valley and the Kittatinny Ridge and Valley. This area contains High Point, the state’s peak elevation, at 1,803 ft (550 m) above sea level. To the east and south is the highlands region, an area of many natural lakes and steep ridges, including the Ramapo Mountains, part of the Appalachian chain. East of the highlands is a flat area broken by the high ridges of the Watchungs and Sourlands and—most spectacularly—by the Palisades, a column of traprock rising some 500 ft (150 m) above the Hudson River. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 250 ft (76 m). T

he Atlantic Coastal Plain, a flat area with swamps and sandy beaches, claims the remaining two-thirds of the state. Its most notable feature is the Pine Barrens, 760 sq mi (1,968 sq km) of pitch pines and white oaks. Sandy Hook, a peninsula more than 5 mi (8 km) long, extending northward into the Atlantic from Monmouth County, is part of the Gateway National Recreation Area. Sea level at the Atlantic Ocean is the lowest elevation in the state.

Major rivers include the Delaware, forming the border with Pennsylvania, and the Passaic, Hackensack, and Raritan. The largest natural lake is Lake Hopatcong, about 8 mi (13 km) long. Some 550 to 600 million years ago, New Jersey’s topography was the opposite of what it is now, with mountains to the east and a shallow sea to the west. Volcanic eruptions about 225 million years ago caused these eastern mountains to sink and new peaks to rise in the northwest; the lava flow formed the Watchung Mountains and the Palisades. The shoreline settled into its present shape at least 10,000 years ago.

³ CLIMATE

Bounded by the Atlantic Ocean and the Delaware River, most of New Jersey has a moderate climate with cold winters and warm, humid summers. Winter temperatures are slightly colder and summer temperatures slightly milder in the northwestern hills than in the rest of the state.

In Atlantic City, the yearly average temperature is 54°F (12°C), ranging from 32°F (0°C) in January to 75°F (23°C) in July. Precipitation is plentiful, averaging 46 in (117 cm) annually; snowfall totals about 16 in (41 cm). At Atlantic City, annual precipitation is about 40.3 cm (102 cm). The annual average humidity is 81% at 7 AM, reaching a normal high of 87% in September.

Statewide, the record high temperature is 110°F (43°C), set in Runyon on 10 July 1936; the record low is -34°F (-37°C), set in River Vale on 5 January 1904. A 29.7-in. (75.4-cm) accumulation on Long Beach Island in 1947 was the greatest 24-hour snowfall

in the state's recorded history. Occasional hurricanes and violent spring storms have damaged beachfront property over the years, and floods along northern New Jersey rivers especially in the Passaic River basin, are not uncommon. A serious drought occurs, on average, about once every 15 years.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Although highly urbanized, New Jersey still provides a diversity of natural regions, including a shady coastal zone, the hilly and wooded Allegheny zone, and the Pine Barrens in the south. Birch, beech, hickory, and elm all grow in the state, along with black locust, red maple, and 20 varieties of oak; common shrubs include the spicebush, staggerbush, and mountain laurel. Vast stretches beneath pine trees are covered with pyxie, a small creeping evergreen shrub. Common wild flowers include meadow rue, butterflyweed, black-eyed Susan, and the ubiquitous eastern (common) dandelion. Among rare plants are Candy's lobelia, floating heart, and pennywort. Six plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006, including the American chaffseed and small whorled pogonia.

Among mammals indigenous to New Jersey are the white-tailed deer, black bear, gray and red foxes, raccoon, woodchuck, opossum, striped skunk, eastern gray squirrel, eastern chipmunk, and common cottontail. The herring gull, sandpiper, and little green and night herons are common shore birds, while the red-eyed vireo, hermit thrush, English sparrow, robin, cardinal, and Baltimore oriole are frequently sighted inland. The Edwin B. Forsythe National Wildlife Refuge, a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance, serves as an important breeding and wintering site for over 70,000 birds each year. The site also supports 38 mammal species, 8 amphibian species, and 11 types of reptiles.

Anglers in the state prize the northern pike, chain pickerel, and various species of bass, trout, and perch. Declining or rare animals include the whippoorwill, hooded warbler, eastern hognose snake, northern red salamander, and northern kingfish. Sixteen animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including four species of turtle, the Indiana bat, bald eagle, shortnose sturgeon, roseate tern, and three species of whale.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Laws and policies regulating the management and protection of New Jersey's environment and natural resources are administered by the Department of Environmental Protection (DEP). The state devoted 1.4% of its total budget appropriations, or \$225.1 million, to environmental protection in 1996–97.

The proximity of the populace to industrial plants and to the state's expansive highway system makes air pollution control a special concern in the state. New Jersey had one of the most comprehensive air pollution control programs in the United States, maintaining a network of 105 air pollution monitoring stations, as well as 60 stations that monitor just for particulates and 10 that monitor for radiation. New Jersey was the first state to begin a statewide search for sites contaminated by dioxin, a toxic by-product in the manufacture of herbicides.

The DEP reported that a 1984 review of water quality in the state showed that water quality degradation had been halted and that the quality of streams had been stabilized or improved. The

greatest improvements had been made in certain bays and estuaries along the Atlantic coast, where the elimination of discharges from older municipal sewage treatment plants resulted in the reopening of shellfish-harvesting grounds for the first time in 20 years. However, some rivers in highly urbanized areas were still severely polluted.

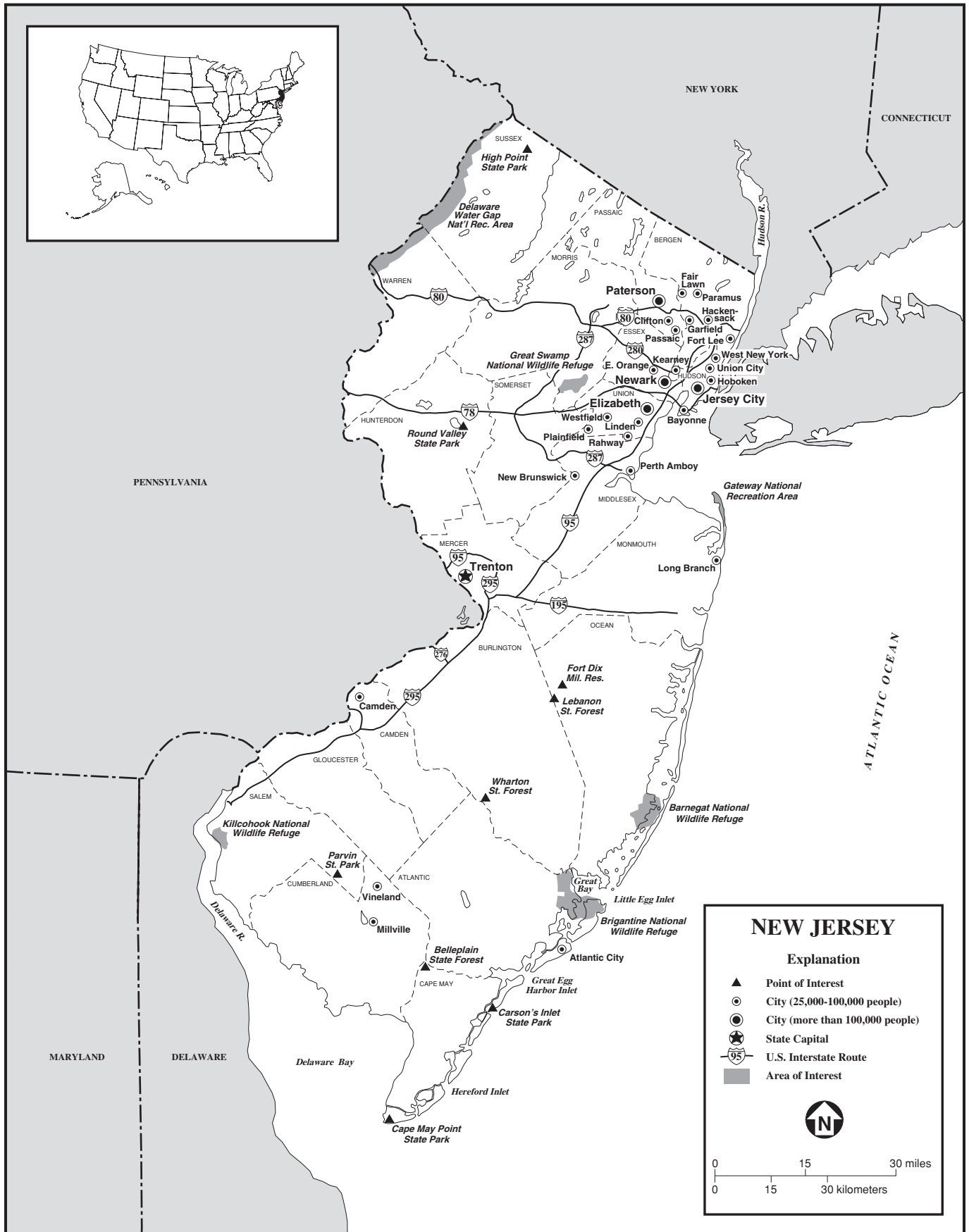
Approximately 1,500 treatment facilities discharge waste water into New Jersey's surface and groundwaters. Nearly 80% of these facilities comply with the requirements of federal and state clean water laws. Solid waste disposal in New Jersey became critical as major landfills reached capacity. In 1977, the state had more than 300 operating landfills; in 1991 there were about 50 landfills. The state's solid waste stream is 1,100 tons per capita. Some counties and municipalities were implementing recycling programs in 1985, and the state legislature was considering a bill to make recycling mandatory. By the mid-1990s the state of New Jersey had about 30 curbside recycling programs.

New Jersey's toxic waste cleanup program is among the most serious in the United States. In 2003, 23.1 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, New Jersey had 551 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 113 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Federal Aviation Administration Technical Center, the Middlesex Sampling Plant (of the US Department of Energy), and the US Radium Corp., as well as several farm sites. In 2004, New Jersey ranked first in the nation for the highest number of sites on the National Priorities List. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$85 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$44 million for the clean water state revolving fund and \$19 million for the drinking water revolving fund.

The New Jersey Spill Compensation Fund was established by the state legislature in 1977 and amended in 1980. A tax based on the transfer of hazardous substances and petroleum products is paid into the fund and used for the cleanup of spills.

New Jersey first acquired land for preservation purposes in 1907. Since 1961, the state has bought more than 240,000 acres (97,000 hectares) under a "Green Acres" program for conservation and recreation. In 1984, an \$83-million Green Trust Fund was established to expand land acquisition. The Green Acres Program has assisted county and municipal governments in acquiring over 70,000 acres (28,000 hectares). Additionally, Green Acres is assisting nonprofit conservation groups in acquiring over 20,000 acres (8,000 hectares) in a 50% matching grant program established in 1989. The US Congress designated 1.1 million acres (445,000 hectares) in the southern part of the state as the Pinelands National Reserve in 1978. Since then, the state has purchased more than 60,000 acres (24,000 hectares) in the region, bringing the state open-space holding in the Pinelands to more than 270,000 acres (109,000 hectares). As of 1 July 1993, there were approximately 790,000 acres (319,000 hectares) of preserved public open space and recreation land in New Jersey.

There are about 916,000 acres (370,692 hectares) of wetlands in the state. The Edwin B. Forsythe National Wildlife Refuge on the Atlantic coast was established in 1984 through the merger of the Brigantine and Barnegat National Wildlife Refuges. The site was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in



1986, primarily for its role as a habitat for breeding and wintering waterbirds. Part of the Delaware Bay Estuary wetlands lie within New Jersey, but jurisdiction of this Ramsar site (designated 1992) lies with the state of Delaware.

6 POPULATION

New Jersey ranked 10th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 8,717,925 in 2005, an increase of 3.6% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, New Jersey's population grew from 7,730,188 to 8,414,350, an increase of 8.9%. In 2004, New Jersey had the highest population density among the 50 states: 1,175.60 persons per sq mi. The population is projected to reach 9.2 million by 2015 and 9.6 million by 2025.

In 2004, the median age was 37.8. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 24.8% of the population while 12.9% was age 65 or older.

Sparingly populated at the time of the Revolutionary War, New Jersey did not pass the one million mark until the 1880 census. Most of the state's subsequent growth came through migration, especially from New York during the period after 1950 when the New Jersey population stood at 4,835,329. The most significant population growth came in older cities in northern New Jersey and in commuter towns near New York and Philadelphia. The average annual population growth declined from 2.3% in the 1950s to 1.7% in the 1960s, and the state actually experienced a net loss from migration of 275,000 during the 1970s. Total growth rose to 5% during the 1980s.

New Jersey's major population centers, with estimated 2004 population figures, are Newark, 280,451; Jersey City, 239,079; Paterson, 150,869; and Elizabeth, 124,724.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

New Jersey is one of the most ethnically heterogeneous states. As of 2000, 1,476,327 New Jerseyites (17.5% of the state's population) were of foreign birth. The leading countries of origin were Italy, 7.3%; Cuba, 6.5%; India, 5.4%; and Germany, 4.4%. As of 2001, New Jersey had the third-highest percentage of foreign-born residents among the 50 states, surpassed only by California and New York.

Blacks first came to New Jersey as slaves in the 1600s; the state abolished slavery in 1804, one of the last of the northern states to do so. Today black people constitute the state's largest (13.6%) ethnic minority, 1,141,821 as of 2000. Newark elected its first black mayor, Kenneth Gibson, in 1970, three years after the city was torn by racial disorders that killed 26 people and injured some 1,500 others. In 2004, 14.5% of the state's population was black.

The estimated Hispanic and Latino population in 2000 was 1,117,191 (up from 868,000 in 1996), or 13.3% of the total. The Puerto Rican population, which increased from 55,361 in 1960 to 366,788 in 2000, lived mostly in Newark, Jersey City, Elizabeth, Paterson, and Passaic. There were 77,337 Cubans in 2000, many of them in Union City and Elizabeth; their numbers were augmented by the migration of Cuban refugees in 1980. Smaller Spanish-speaking groups included Colombians and Dominicans. In 2004, 14.9% of the state's population was Hispanic or Latino.

The estimated number of Asians living in New Jersey in 2000 was 480,276, the fifth-largest total among the 50 states. Pacific Islanders numbered 273,000. The largest group of Asians reported

was from India (169,180 in 2000, up from 54,039 in 1990); there were 85,245 Filipinos, 100,355 Chinese (more than double the 1990 figure of 47,068), 65,349 Koreans, and 14,672 Japanese. In 2004, 7% of the state's population was Asian.

The state's total Native American population, including Eskimos and Aleuts, numbered 19,492 in 2000. Among the state's American Indians is a group claiming to be descended from Dutch settlers, black slaves, British and German soldiers, and Leni-Lenape and Tuscarora Indians; incorporated as the Ramapough Mountain Indians in 1978, they live in the Ramapo hills near Ringwood and Mahwah. In 2004, 0.3% of the state's population was American Indian.

In 2004, 1.2% of the state's population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

European settlers found New Jersey inhabited largely by the Leni-Lenape Indians, whose legacy can still be found in such place-names as Passaic, Totowa, Hopatcong, Kittatinny, and Piscataway.

In 2000, 5,854,578 New Jerseyites—74.5% of the resident population five years old or older—spoke only English at home, down from 80.5% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	7,856,268	100.0
Speak only English	5,854,578	74.5
Speak a language other than English	2,001,690	25.5
Speak a language other than English	2,001,690	25.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	967,741	12.3
Italian	116,365	1.5
Chinese	84,345	1.1
Polish	74,663	1.0
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	72,870	0.9
Tagalog	66,851	0.9
Korean	55,340	0.7
Gujarathi	47,324	0.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	47,225	0.6
Arabic	47,052	0.6
German	41,025	0.5
Russian	38,566	0.5
Other Asian languages	36,573	0.5
Other Indic languages	35,718	0.5
Hindi	31,395	0.4
French Creole	28,783	0.4
Greek	26,566	0.3
African languages	21,514	0.3

English in New Jersey is rather evenly divided north and south between Northern and Midland dialects. Special characteristics of some New York metropolitan area speech occur in the northeast portion, such as the absence of /r/ after a vowel, a consonant like /d/ or /t/ instead of the /th/ sounds in *this* or *thin*, and pronunciations as *coop* rhyming with *stoop*, *food* with *good*, and *goal* and *fool*; *faucet* has the vowel of *father*. Dominant in the southern half are *run* (small stream), *baby coach* (baby carriage) in the Philadelphia trading area, *winning owl* (screech owl), and *eel worm*

(earthworm). Heard also are *out* as /aot/, *muskmelon* as /muskmilon/, and *keg* rhyming with *bag*, *scarce* with *fierce*, *spook* with *book*, and *haunted* with *panted*.

9 RELIGIONS

With a history of religious tolerance, New Jersey has welcomed many denominations to its shores. Dutch immigrants founded a Reformed Church in 1662, the first in the state. After the English took control, Puritans came from New England and Long Island, Congregationalists from Connecticut, and Baptists from Rhode Island. Quaker settlements in Shrewsbury and western New Jersey during the early 1670s predated the better-known Quaker colony in Pennsylvania. Episcopalians, Presbyterians, German Lutherans, and Methodists arrived during the 18th century. The state's first synagogue was established in 1848, in Newark.

About the only religion not tolerated by New Jerseyites was Catholicism; the first Catholic parish was not organized until 1814 and laws excluding Catholics from holding office were on the books until 1844. The Catholic numbers swelled as a result of Irish immigration after 1845, and even more with the arrival of Italians after 1880. Today, Roman Catholics constitute the state's single largest religious group. Passaic is the headquarters of the Byzantine-Ruthenian Rite in the Byzantine Catholic Church.

In 2004, the number of Roman Catholics within the state was at about 3,479,158. The next largest group is Jewish, with about 468,000 members in 2000. The largest Protestant denomination (with 2000 data) is the United Methodist Church, with 140,133 adherents, followed by the Presbyterian Church USA, with 119,735; the Episcopal Church, 91,964; and the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 79,264. There were about 120,724 Muslims in the state. Nearly 3.5 million people (about 42.3% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

American Atheists, a national organization founded by Madalyn Murray O'Hair in 1958, is based in Parsippany.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Ever since the first traders sought the fastest way to get from New York to Philadelphia, transportation has been of central importance to New Jersey and has greatly shaped its growth. In the mid-1820s, Hoboken engineer John Stevens built the first steam locomotive operated in the United States. Over the protests of the dominant stagecoach operators, his son Robert obtained a charter in 1830 for the Camden and Amboy Railroad. The line opened in 1834, and six years later it held a monopoly on the lucrative New York–Philadelphia run. Other lines, such as the Elizabeth and Somerville, the Morris and Essex, the Paterson and Hudson, and the Jersey Central, were limited to shorter runs, largely because the Camden and Amboy's influence with the legislature gave it a huge competitive advantage. Camden and Amboy stock was leased to the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1871, and the ensuing controversy over whether New Jersey transit should be entrusted to an "alien" company led to the passage of a law opening up the state to rail competition. Industry grew around the rail lines, and the railroads became a vital link in the shipment of products from New York and northern New Jersey.

As of 2003, the major freight operations were run by CSX and Norfolk Southern. In that same year, there were 2,798 route mi (4,504 km) of track in the state, of which 1,581 mi (2,545 km) was

Class I track. In addition, there were one regional, one Canadian, six local, and six switching and terminal railroads operating in the state. As of 2006, daily Amtrak service linked Newark, Trenton, and four other New Jersey cities along the main eastern rail corridor. But the bulk of interstate passenger traffic consists of commuters to New York and Philadelphia on trains operated by the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey (PA) and the Port Authority Transit Corp. (PATCO), a subsidiary of the Delaware River Port Authority.

The New Jersey Transit Corporation, called NJ TRANSIT, is a public corporation created under the Public Transportation Act of 1979. The corporation is charged with coordinating and improving bus and rail services throughout the state. It is the nation's third largest public transit agency, providing 223 million passenger trips annually. It operates 711 daily trains on 11 rail lines, and 2,027 buses on 236 routes throughout the state. It also owns and operates the Newark City Subway, a 4.3-mile light rail system providing service through downtown Newark.

Although associated more with the West, the first stagecoach service began in New Jersey, as part of a New York–Philadelphia trek that took some five days in 1723. For a time, colonial law required towns along the way to provide taverns for the passengers, and it was not uncommon for coach operators who were also tavern owners to find some way to prolong the journey an extra night. They traveled on roads that were barely more passable than the Leni-Lenape trails from which they originated. Improvement was slow, but by 1828, the legislature had granted 54 turnpike charters.

Road building has continued ever since. In 2004, there were 38,122 mi (61,376 km) of public roads in the state. The major highways are the New Jersey Turnpike, opened in 1952 and extending 133 mi (214 km) between Bergen and Salem counties, and the Garden State Parkway, completed in 1955 and stretching 173 mi (278 km) from the New York State line to Cape May. There were some 6.218 million registered vehicles in the state in 2004, including about 3.974 million automobiles, approximately 2.076 million trucks of all types, and around 19,000 buses. There were 5,799,532 licensed New Jersey drivers in that same year.

Many bridges and tunnels link New Jersey with New York State, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. Twenty-seven bridges cross the Delaware River, connecting New Jersey with Pennsylvania and Delaware.

At the gateway to New York Harbor, ports at Elizabeth and Newark have overtaken New York City ports in cargo volume, and contribute greatly to the local economy. Operated by the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, Port Newark has almost 4 mi (6.4 km) of berthing space along Newark Bay, while nearby Port Elizabeth, with better than 3 mi (4.8 km) of berths, is a major handler of containerized cargo. In 2004, ports under the jurisdiction of the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey handled 152.377 million tons of cargo. Private piers in Jersey City and Bayonne handle both containerized and bulk cargoes. The tonnage handled by northern New Jersey port facilities, taken as a whole, make it the largest port on the east coast, and second largest overall in the United States. The Ports of Philadelphia and Camden, Inc., headquartered in Philadelphia, operate facilities along the Delaware River, including the Beckett Street and Broadway Terminals in Camden, that were formerly operated by the South Jer-

sey Port Corporation. The port facility at Paulsboro is the most active in the state, with 30.485 million tons of cargo handled in 2004. The port of Camden-Gloucester handled 7.189 million tons that same year. New Jersey in 2004 had 360 mi (579 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 111.661 million tons.

In 2005, New Jersey had a total of 389 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 119 airports, 256 heliports, and 13 seaplane bases. Newark Liberty International Airport is the state's busiest airport, with 15,827,675 passengers enplaned in 2004, making it the 12th-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

The first known inhabitants of what is now New Jersey were the Leni-Lenape (meaning "Original People"), who arrived in the land between the Hudson and Delaware rivers about 6,000 years ago. Members of the Algonkian language group, the Leni-Lenape were an agricultural people supplementing their diet with freshwater fish and shellfish. The peace-loving Leni-Lenape believed in monogamy, educated their children in the simple skills needed for wilderness survival, and clung rigidly to a tradition that a pot of food must always be warm on the fire to welcome all strangers.

The first European explorer to reach New Jersey was Giovanni da Verrazano, who sailed into what is now Newark Bay in 1524. Henry Hudson, an English captain sailing under a Dutch flag, piloted the *Half Moon* along the New Jersey shore and into Sandy Hook Bay in the late summer of 1609, a voyage that established a Dutch claim to the New World. Hollanders came to trade in what is now Hudson County as early as 1618, and in 1660, they founded New Jersey's first town, called Bergen (now part of Jersey City). Meanwhile, across the state, Swedish settlers began moving east of the Delaware River in 1639. Their colony of New Sweden had only one brief spurt of glory, from 1643 to 1653, under Governor Johan Printz.

The Leni-Lenape lost out to the newcomers, whether Dutch, Swedish, or English, despite a series of treaties that the Europeans thought fair. State and local records describe these agreements: huge tracts of land exchanged for trinkets, guns, and alcohol. The guns and alcohol, combined with smallpox (another European import), doomed the "Original People." In 1758, when a treaty established an Indian reservation at Brotherton (now the town of Indian Mills), only a few hundred Indians remained.

England assumed control in March 1664, when King Charles II granted a region from the Connecticut River to the Delaware River to his brother James, the Duke of York. The duke, in turn, deeded the land between the Hudson and Delaware rivers, which he named New Jersey, to his court friends John Berkeley, 1st Baron Berkeley of Stratton, and Sir George Carteret, on 23 June 1664. Lord Berkeley and Sir George became proprietors, owning the land and having the right to govern its people. Subsequently, the land passed into the hands of two boards of proprietors in two provinces called East Jersey and West Jersey, with their capitals in Perth Amboy and Burlington, respectively. East Jersey was settled mainly by Puritans from Long Island and New England, West Jersey by Quakers from England. The split cost the colony dearly in 1702, when Queen Anne united East and West Jersey but placed them under New York rule. The colony did not get its own "home

rule" until 1738, when Lewis Morris was named the first royal governor.

By this time, New Jersey's divided character was already established. Eastern New Jersey looked toward New York, western New Jersey toward Philadelphia. The level plain connecting those two major colonial towns made it certain that New Jersey would serve as a pathway. Along the makeshift roads that soon crossed the region—more roads than in any other colony—travelers brought conflicting news and ideas. During the American Revolution, the colony was about equally divided between Revolutionists and Loyalists. William Franklin (illegitimate son of Benjamin Franklin), royal governor from 1763 until 1776, strove valiantly to keep New Jersey sympathetic to England, but failed and was arrested. Throughout the Revolutionary period, he remained a leading Loyalist; after the war, he left for England.

Franklin's influence caused New Jersey to dally at first over independence, but in June 1776, the colony sent five new delegates to the Continental Congress—Abraham Clark, John Hart, Frances Hopkinson, Richard Stockton, and the Reverend John Witherspoon—all of whom voted for the Declaration of Independence. Two days before the Declaration was proclaimed, New Jersey adopted its first state constitution. William Livingston, a fiery anti-British propagandist, was the first elected governor of the state.

New Jersey played a pivotal role in the Revolutionary War, for the side that controlled both New York and Philadelphia would almost certainly win. George Washington and his battered troops made their winter headquarters in the state three times during the first four years of the war, twice in Morristown and once in Somerville. Five major battles were fought in New Jersey, the most important being the Battle of Trenton on 26 December 1776 and the Battle of Monmouth on 28 June 1778. At war's end, Princeton became the temporary capital of the United States from 26 June 1783 to 4 November 1783.

The state languished after the Revolution, with many of its pathway towns ravaged by the passing of competing armies, its trade dependent on New York City, and its ironworks (first established in 1676) shut down because of decreased demand. The state's leaders vigorously supported a federation of the 13 states, in which all states, regardless of size, would be represented equally in one national legislative body. This so-called New Jersey Plan led to the establishment of the US Senate.

Railroads and canals brought life to the state in the 1830s and set it on a course of urbanization and industrialization. The 90-mi (145-km) Morris Canal linked northern New Jersey with the coal fields of Pennsylvania. Considered one of the engineering marvels of the 19th century, the canal rose to 914 feet (279 meters) from sea level at Newark Bay to Lake Hopatcong, then fell 760 feet (232 meters) to a point on the Delaware River opposite Easton, Pa. Old iron mines beside the canal found markets, the dyeing and weaving mills of Paterson prospered, and Newark, most affected by the emerging industries, became the state's first incorporated city in 1836. Another canal, the Delaware and Raritan, crossed the relatively flat land from Bordentown, Trenton, and New Brunswick boomed. Princeton, whose leaders fought to keep the canal away from the town, settled into a long existence as a college community built around the College of New Jersey, founded in Elizabeth in 1746 and transferred to Princeton in 1756.

The canals were doomed by railroad competition almost from the start. The Morris Canal was insolvent long before World War I, and the Delaware Canal, although operative until 1934, went into a long, slow decline after the Civil War. The first railroad, from Bordentown to South Amboy, closely paralleled the Delaware and Raritan Canal and in 1871 became an important part of the Pennsylvania Railroad. The coal brought in on railroad cars freed industry from waterpower; factories sprang up wherever the rails went. The Hudson County waterfront, eastern terminus for most of the nation's railway systems, became the most important railroad area in the United States. Rail lines also carried vacationers to the Jersey shore, building an important source of income for the state.

The Civil War split New Jersey bitterly. Leaders in the Democratic Party opposed the war as a "Black Republican" affair. Prosperous industrialists in Newark and Trenton feared that their vigorous trade with the South would be impaired, Cape May innkeepers fretted about the loss of tourists from Virginia, and even Princeton students were divided. As late as the summer of 1863, after the Battle of Gettysburg, many state "peace Democrats" were urging the North to make peace with the Confederacy. Draft calls were vigorously opposed in 1863, yet the state sent its full quota of troops into service throughout the conflict. Most important, New Jersey factories poured forth streams of munitions and other equipment for the Union army. At war's end, political leaders stubbornly opposed the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments to the US Constitution, and blacks were not permitted to vote in the state until 1870.

During the last decades of the 19th century, New Jersey developed a reputation for factories capable of making the components necessary for thousands of other manufacturing enterprises. Few factories were large, although in 1873, Isaac M. Singer opened a huge sewing machine plant at Elizabeth that employed 3,000 persons. Oil refineries on the Hudson County waterfront had ever-expanding payrolls, pottery firms in Trenton thrived, and Newark gained strength from many diversified manufacturers and also saw its insurance companies become nationally powerful.

Twentieth-century wars stimulated New Jersey's industries. During World War I, giant shipyards at Newark, Kearny, and Camden made New Jersey the nation's leading shipbuilding state. The Middlesex County area refined 75% of the nation's copper, and nearly 75% of US shells were loaded in the state. World War II revived the shipbuilding and munitions industries, while chemical and pharmaceutical manufacturing, spawned by the World War I cutoff of German chemicals, showed further growth during the second world conflict. Paterson, preeminent in locomotive building during the 19th century, became the nation's foremost airplane engine manufacturing center. Training and mobilization centers at Ft. Dix and Camp Kilmer moved millions of soldiers into the front lines.

The US Census Bureau termed New Jersey officially "urban" in 1880, when the state population rose above 1 million for the first time. Urbanization intensified throughout the 20th century and especially after World War II, as people left the old cities in New Jersey and other northeastern states to buy homes in developments on former farmlands. Places like Cherry Hill, Woodbridge, Clifton, and Middletown Township boomed after 1945, increasing their population as much as sixfold in the decades that followed.

New Jersey also experienced many of the problems of urbanization. Its cities have declined; traffic congestion is intense in the morning, when commuters stream into urban areas to work, and again in the evening, when they return home to what once was called "the country." That country now knows the problems of urban growth: increased needs for schools, sewers, police and fire protection, and road maintenance, along with rising taxes.

The state has not surrendered to its problems, however. In 1947, voters overwhelmingly approved a new state constitution, a terse, comprehensive document that streamlined state government, reformed the state's chaotic court system, and mandated equal rights for all. Governor Alfred E. Driscoll promptly integrated the New Jersey National Guard, despite strong federal objections; integration of all US armed forces soon followed. After 1950 voters passed a wide variety of multi-million-dollar bond issues to establish or rebuild state colleges. Funds were allocated for the purchase and development of new park and forest lands. Large bond issues have financed the construction of highways, reservoirs, and rapid transit systems. In 2000, the state legislature approved the largest construction program in New Jersey history. Settling a long-running battle over how to rebuild the state's deteriorating and overcrowded schools, lawmakers agreed to spend \$12 billion system-wide, with benefits to be seen in inner cities as well as in suburbs.

In the 1970s and early 1980s, New Jersey experienced a recession. The unemployment rate climbed to almost 10%. Over 270,000 people left the state. The state's cities were hit particularly hard, suffering both from the loss of manufacturing jobs and from a flight of retailing to suburban malls. The economy of New Jersey in these decades also underwent a dramatic restructuring. While the state lost over 200,000 manufacturing jobs it gained 670,000 jobs in service industries. The economy rebounded during the 1980s, but began to contract again at the end of the decade, declining further during the recession of early 1990s. In 1996 the state's unemployment rate fell below 6% for the first time in six years. By 1999 it had dropped to 4.6%. Observers credited the recovery of the 1990s in part to a skilled workforce that attracted pharmaceutical, biotechnology, electronics, and other high-tech firms to the state. Tax and economic incentives also helped bring business to the state. The state ranked second in the nation in both per capita personal income (\$33,953) and low poverty rate (8.6%) in 1998. However, the state faced a severe budget crisis from 2002–05. Nevertheless, the state's per capita personal income in 2004 was \$41,332, third in the nation behind Connecticut and Massachusetts.

In September 1999 New Jersey experienced one of the worst natural disasters in its history; Hurricane Floyd damaged more than 8,000 homes and destroyed several hundred more. A federal aid package approved in 2000 promised victims some relief.

During the second half of the 1900s New Jersey had no predictable political pattern. It gave huge presidential majorities to Republican Dwight D. Eisenhower and Democrat Lyndon B. Johnson, narrowly supported Democrat John F. Kennedy, favored Republican Gerald Ford over Democrat Jimmy Carter by a small margin, gave two big majorities to Republican Ronald Reagan, favored Democrat Bill Clinton in the 1990s, and favored Democrat Al Gore over George W. Bush in 2000. New Jersey gave its 15 electoral votes to Democrat John Kerry in 2004, in a 53% to 46% margin over George W. Bush. For more than 20 years, the state's two

US senators, Clifford B. Case (R) and Harrison A. Williams (D), were recognized as like-minded liberals. Democrat Bill Bradley, former Princeton University and New York Knickerbockers basketball star, was elected to Case's seat in 1978. (In 1999 Bradley made a run for the presidency. Though gaining considerable support from the electorate, he dropped his bid for the Democratic nomination in the face of competition from Vice President Al Gore.) In 2006, New Jersey was represented by US Senators Frank R. Lautenberg and Robert Menendez, both Democrats.

Republican Governor Thomas Kean, who served from 1983–89, helped improve the public image of New Jersey, long perceived as dominated by smoke-belching factories and troubled cities. Kean was succeeded by Democrat Jim Florio who sought to redistribute wealth throughout the state by doubling the income tax of those in the top bracket, raising the sales tax, lowering property taxes for middle- and low-income homeowners and renters, and shifting state aid from public schools in affluent areas to schools in poor and moderate income communities. In 1992, Florio lost his bid for reelection to Republican Christine Todd Whitman, who promised to lower income taxes by 30%. As soon as she took office, Whitman implemented a 5% cut and pushed through another 10% cut as part of her budget package in 1993. Whitman won a second term in the 1996 election. Whitman was named President George W. Bush's head of the Environmental Protection Agency; she took office in January 2001 and resigned in May 2003.

Democrat Richard J. Codey, former state Senate president, became acting governor in November 2004 after Governor James E. McGreevey resigned before his term expired. McGreevey announced his resignation in August 2004 after revealing that he is gay and that he had an adulterous affair with a man.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

New Jersey's first state constitution took effect in 1776. A second constitution was written in 1844, and a third in 1947. This last document, as amended (36 times as of January 2005), continues to govern the state today.

The state legislature consists of a 40-member Senate and an 80-member General Assembly. Annual legislative sessions begin in early January and are not limited in length. Special sessions, also of unlimited duration, may be called by petition of a majority of the members in each house. Senators, elected to four-year terms, must be at least 30 years old, and have been New Jersey residents for four years and district residents for a year. Assembly members, elected to two-year terms, must be at least 21 years old, and have been New Jersey residents for two years and district residents for a year. All legislators must be qualified voters prior to election. Both houses of the legislature meet in unlimited annual sessions. The legislative salary was \$49,000 as of 2004.

New Jersey is one of only four states—the others are Maine, New Hampshire, and Tennessee—in which the governor is the only statewide elected administrative official. Given broad powers by the state constitution, the governor appoints the heads or commissioners of the major state departments with the advice and consent of the Senate; not subject to Senate approval are more than 500 patronage positions. The governor is also commander-in-chief of the state's armed forces, submits the budget to the legislature each January, presents an annual message on the condition of the state, and may grant pardons and, with the aid of the Pa-

role Board, grant executive clemency. Elected to a four-year term in the odd-numbered year following the presidential election, the governor may run for a second term but not for a third until four years have passed. A candidate for governor must be at least 30 years old and must have been a US citizen for 20 years and a New Jersey resident for seven years in order to qualify for the ballot. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$157,000.

A bill may be introduced in either house of the legislature. Once passed, it goes to the governor, who may sign it, return it to the legislature with recommendations for change, or veto it in its entirety. A two-thirds vote by the members in each house is needed to override a veto. If the governor neither signs nor vetoes a bill, it becomes law after 45 days as long as the legislature is in session.

Amendments to the state constitution may originate in either house. If, after public hearings, both houses pass the proposal by a three-fifths vote, the amendment is placed on the ballot at the next general election. If approved by a majority, but by less than a three-fifths vote in both houses, the amendment is referred to the next session of the legislature, at which time, if again approved by a majority, it is placed on the ballot. The amendment goes into effect 30 days after ratification by the electorate.

To vote in New Jersey, one must be at least 18 years old, a US citizen, and a New Jersey and county resident for at least 30 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to those convicted of crimes in New Jersey or another state.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

From the 1830s through the early 1850s, Democrats and Whigs dominated the political life of New Jersey. Exercising considerable, though subtle, influence in the decade before the Civil War was the Native American (Know-Nothing) Party, an anti-immigrant, anti-Catholic group that won several assembly and Senate seats. Wary of breaking ties with the South and ambivalent about the slavery issue, New Jerseyites, especially those in Essex and Bergen counties, did not lend much support to the abolitionist cause. Early Republicans thus found it advantageous to call themselves simply "Opposition;" the state's first Opposition governor was elected in 1856. Republicans controlled the state for most of the 1860s; but with heavy support from business leaders, the Democrats regained control in 1869 and held the governorship through 1896. They were succeeded by a series of Progressive Republican governors whose efforts were largely thwarted by a conservative legislature. Sweeping reforms— including a corrupt-practices act, a primary election law, and increased support for public education— were implemented during the two years that Woodrow Wilson, a Democrat, served as governor before being elected to the presidency. Between 1913 and 1985, Democrats held the statehouse almost two-thirds of the time.

New Jersey's unenviable reputation for corruption in government dates back at least to 1838, when ballot tampering resulted in the disputed election of five Whigs to the US House of Representatives. (After a House investigation, the Whigs were barred and their Democratic opponents given the seats.) Throughout the rest of the century, corruption was rampant in local elections: Philadelphians, for example, were regularly imported to vote in Atlantic City elections, and vote buying was a standard election-day procedure in Essex and Hudson counties. Wilson's 1911 reform bill eliminated some of these practices, but not the bossism

that had come to dominate big-city politics. Frank Hague of Jersey City controlled patronage and political leaders on the local, state, and national level from 1919 to 1947; during the 1960s and 1970s, Hague's successor John V. Kenny, Jersey City mayor Thomas Whelan, and Newark mayor Hugh Addonizio, along with numerous other state and local officials, were convicted of corrupt political dealings. From 1969 to mid-1975, federal prosecutors indicted 148 public officials, securing 72 convictions. Brendan Byrne, who had never before held elective office, won the governorship in 1973, mainly on the strength of a campaign that portrayed him as the "judge who couldn't be bought." On the national level, New Jersey Representative Peter Rodino gained a reputation for honesty and fairness when he chaired the House Judiciary Committee's impeachment hearings against Richard Nixon. However, the state's image suffered a further blow in 1980, when, as a result of the FBI's "ABSCAM" investigation, charges of influence peddling were brought against several state officials, including members of the Casino Control Commission, whose function was to prevent corruption and crime in Atlantic City's gambling establishments.

Later in the year, New Jersey Democrat Harrison Williams became the nation's first US senator to be indicted, on charges of bribery and conspiracy, as a result of the ABSCAM probe. He was convicted in 1981 and sentenced to prison. As a result of the same investigation, US Representative Frank Thompson Jr., was convicted in 1980 on bribery and conspiracy charges. A New Jerseyite, Raymond Donovan, was named secretary of labor by President Ronald Reagan in 1981, but he resigned in 1985 after being

indicted late in 1984 for allegedly seeking to defraud the New York City Transit Authority while serving as vice president of the Schiavone Construction Company in Secaucus.

In the 2000 presidential voting, Democrat Al Gore defeated Republican George W. Bush, picking up 56% of the vote to Bush's 41%. Independent Ralph Nader garnered 3%. In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerry won 52.7% of the vote to incumbent George W. Bush's 46.5%. In 2004, there were 5,009,000 registered voters. In 1998, 25% of registered voters were Democratic, 19% Republican, and 56% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had 15 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

In 1993, New Jersey elected its first woman as governor, Republican Christine Todd Whitman; she was reelected in 1997. In late 2000 she was named by President George W. Bush to head the Environmental Protection Agency, a post she resigned in June 2003. Democrat James McGreevey was elected New Jersey's governor in 2001; he resigned in August 2004 and was succeeded by state Senate president Richard Codey. In fall 2005 elections, Democratic US senator Jon Corzine was elected governor. Democrat Frank Lautenberg, first elected to the Senate in 1982, and reelected in 1988 and 1994, returned to the Senate in 2002 after having retired in 2000. Following 2004 national elections, the state's delegation to the US House consisted of seven Democrats and six Republicans. Following the 2005 statewide elections, the state Senate contained 22 Democrats and 18 Republicans, while the General Assembly consisted of 48 Democrats and 32 Republicans.

New Jersey Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948-2004									
YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTES	NEW JERSEY WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	PROHIBITION	SOCIALIST LABOR	SOCIALIST WORKERS
1948	16	Dewey (R)	895,455	981,124	42,683	10,521	10,593	3,354	5,825
1952	16	*Eisenhower (R)	1,015,902	1,373,613	5,589	8,593	—	5,815	3,850
1956	16	*Eisenhower (R)	850,337	1,606,942	CONSTITUTION 5,317	—	9,147	6,736	4,004
1960	16	*Kennedy (D)	1,385,415	1,363,324	CONSERVATIVE 8,708	—	—	4,262	11,402
1964	17	*Johnson (D)	1,867,671	963,843	—	—	—	7,075	8,181
1968	17	*Nixon (R)	1,264,206	1,325,467	AMERICAN IND. 262,187	PEACE AND FREEDOM 8,084	—	6,784	8,667
1972	17	*Nixon (R)	1,102,211	1,845,502	—	PEOPLE'S 5,355	AMERICAN 34,378	4,544	2,233
1976	17	Ford (R)	1,444,653	1,509,688	7,716	US LABOR 1,650	LIBERTARIAN 9,449	3,686	COMMUNIST 1,662
1980	17	*Reagan (R)	1,147,364	1,546,557	8,203	—	20,652	2,198	2,555
1984	16	*Reagan (R)	1,261,323	1,933,630	—	WORKERS WORLD 8,404	6,416	—	1,564
1988	16	* Bush (R)	1,320,352	1,743,192	NEW ALLIANCE 5,139	PEACE AND FREEDOM 9,953	8,421	CONSUMER 3,454	SOCIALIST 2,587
1992	15	* Clinton (D)	1,436,206	1,356,865	3,513	IND. (Perot) 521,829	6,822	IND. (Bradford) 4,749	TAXPAYERS 2,670
1996	15	*Clinton (D)	1,652,329	1,103,078	GREEN (NADER) 32,465	262,134	14,763	—	—
2000	15	Gore (D)	1,788,850	1,284,173	94,554	IND. (Buchanan) 6,989	6,312	—	—
2004	15	Kerry (D)	1,911,430	1,670,003	IND. (Nader) 19,418	GREEN (Cobb) 1,807	4,514	CONSTITUTION (Peroutka) 2,750	SOCIALIST (Brown) 664

*Won US presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, New Jersey had 21 counties, 324 municipal governments, 604 public school districts, and 276 special districts. In 2002, there were 242 townships. Counties are classed by population and whether or not they border the Atlantic Ocean. Cities, boroughs, and towns may employ the mayor-council system, council-manager system, commission system, or other forms of their own devising. Most townships and villages are governed by committee or by a council and a mayor with limited powers. Cities, like counties, are classed by population and location: first-class cities are those over 150,000 in population; second-class, 12,000–150,000; third-class, all others except ocean resorts; and fourth-class, ocean resorts.

The budgets of all local units are supervised by the New Jersey Department of Community Affairs, which also offers municipal aid programs.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 347,538 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in New Jersey operates under executive order and state statute; a counterterrorism office director is named to oversee the state's homeland security activities.

The constitution of 1947 limited the number of state government departments to 20. New Jersey in 1974 became the first state to establish a Public Advocate Department (as of 2006 the Office of the Public Defender), empowered to provide legal assistance for indigent criminal defendants, mental patients, and any citizen with a grievance against a government agency or regulated industry. A Code of Ethics, adopted by the legislature in 1976, seeks to prevent state employees from using their positions for personal gain. By executive order, more than 500 state executive officials must file financial disclosure statements.

The Education Department administers state and federal aid to all elementary and secondary schools, oversees pupil transportation, and has jurisdiction over the state library, museum, and historical commission. State-run colleges and universities and higher education policy are the province of the Commission on Higher Education. All state-maintained highways and bus and rail transportation are the responsibility of the Department of Transportation, which also operates New Jersey Transit, whose function is to acquire and operate public transportation services.

The Human Services Department administers welfare, Medicaid, mental health, and developmentally disabled programs, as well as veterans' institutions and programs and other state-supported social services. Alcohol, drug abuse, and many other health-related programs are monitored by the Health and Senior Services Department, which also oversees hospitals and compiles statewide health statistics.

The Office of the Attorney General, officially titled the Department of Law and Public Safety, is the statewide law enforcement agency. Its functions include criminal justice, consumer affairs, civil rights, alcoholic beverage control, and gaming enforcement; also within this department are the State Police, State Racing Commission, Violent Crimes Compensation Board, and a number of

regulatory boards. The Department of Military and Veterans Affairs controls the Army and Air National Guard. Correctional institutions, training schools, treatment centers, and parole offices are administered by the Corrections Department.

The Division of Energy monitors the supply and use of fuel and administers the state master plan for energy use and conservation; it forms part of the Board of Public Utilities, which has broad regulatory jurisdiction, ranging from garbage collection to public broadcasting. Other agencies are the departments of agriculture, banking and insurance, commerce, community affairs, environmental protection, labor and workforce development, state, and treasury.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

All judges in New Jersey, except municipal court judges, are appointed by the governor with the consent of the Senate. Initial terms for supreme and superior court judges are seven years; after reappointment, judges may serve indefinitely.

The supreme court, the state's highest, consists of six associate justices and a chief justice, who is also the administrative head of the state court system. As the court of highest authority, the supreme court hears appeals on constitutional questions and on certain cases from the superior court, which comprises three divisions: chancery, law, and appellate. The chancery division has original jurisdiction over general equity cases, most probate cases, and divorce actions. All other original cases are tried within the law division. The appellate division hears appeals from the chancery and law divisions, from lower courts, and from most state administrative agencies. A state tax court, empowered to review local property tax assessments, equalization tables, and state tax determinations, has been in operation since 1979; by statute, it may have from 6 to 12 judges. Municipal court judges, appointed by local governing bodies for three-year terms, hear minor criminal matters, motor vehicle cases, and violations of municipal ordinances.

The legislature approved a sweeping reform of the state's criminal law code in 1978. Strict sentencing standards were established, and one result was an overcrowding of the state's prison system. Governor Brendan Byrne signed a law in 1981 imposing a minimum three-year sentence on anyone committing a crime with a gun.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 26,757 prisoners were held in New Jersey's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 27,246 of 1.6% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,470 inmates were female, down from 1,517 or 3.1% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), New Jersey had an incarceration rate of 306 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, New Jersey in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 355.7 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 30,943 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 211,313 reported incidents or 2,429.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. As of 1982, New Jersey has had a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. However, as of that year through 5 May 2006, the state has yet to carry out an execution. As of 1 January 2006, New Jersey had 13 inmates on death row.

In 2003, New Jersey spent \$272,195,275 on homeland security, an average of \$32 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 6,392 active-duty military personnel and 13,628 civilian personnel stationed in New Jersey. The largest installation in the state is McGuire Air Force Base in Wrightstown. The US Coast Guard operates a training center in Cape May. New Jersey firms received over \$4.1 billion in defense contracts awards in 2004, defense payroll outlays were \$1.8 billion.

Of the 582,917 veterans living in New Jersey in 2003, World War II veterans numbered 110,844; Korean conflict, 80,677; Vietnam era, 167,895; and 58,244 served in the Persian Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in New Hampshire exceeded \$1.0 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the New Jersey State Police employed 2,684 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

New Jersey's first white settlers were inter-colonial migrants: Dutch from New Amsterdam, Swedes from west of the Delaware River, and Puritans from New England and Long Island. By 1776, New Jersey's population was about 138,000, of whom perhaps 7% were black slaves.

Population growth lagged during the early 19th century, as discouraged farmers left their worn-out plots for more fertile western soil; farmers in Salem County, for example, went off to found new Salems in Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, and Oregon. Not until the rapid industrial growth of the mid-1800s did New Jersey attract great waves of immigrants. Germans and Irish were the first to arrive, the latter comprising 37% of Jersey City's population by 1870. The late 1800s and early 1900s brought newcomers from Eastern Europe, including many Jews, and a much larger number of Italians to the cities. By 1900, 43% of all Hudson County residents were foreign-born. More recently, migration from Puerto Rico and Cuba has been substantial. In 1990, 143,974 New Jersey residents age 5 and older had lived in Puerto Rico in 1985. In 1996, 1,152,000 New Jersey residents, or 14%, were foreign born. In 1998, 35,091 foreign immigrants entered the state, the fifth-highest total for any state that year.

From World War I on, there has been a steady migration of blacks from southern states; Newark's black population grew by 130,000 between 1950 and 1970. Black as well as Hispanic newcomers settled in major cities just as whites were departing for the suburbs. New Jersey's suburbs were also attractive to residents of New York City, Philadelphia, and other adjacent areas, who began a massive move to the state just after World War II; nearly all of these suburbanites were white. From 1940 to 1970, New Jersey gained a net total of 1,360,000 residents. Between 1970 and 1990, however, the state lost about 250,000 residents through migration. Between 1990 and 1998, New Jersey had a net loss of 350,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 360,000 in international migration. While the black, Hispanic, and Asian populations were still rising, whites were departing from New Jersey in increasing numbers. As of 1998, New Jersey's black population numbered 1,188,000; Hispanic, 866,000; and Asian, 453,000. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 4.7%. In the pe-

riod 2000–05, net international migration was 290,194 and net internal migration was -194,901, for a net gain of 95,293 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

New Jersey participates in such regional bodies as the Interstate Sanitation Commission, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, and Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council. Of primary importance to the state are its relations with neighboring Pennsylvania and New York. With Pennsylvania, New Jersey takes part in the Delaware Valley Regional Planning Commission, Delaware River Joint Toll Bridge Commission, and Delaware River Port Authority; with New York, the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, the Palisades Interstate Park Commission, and the Waterfront Commission, established to eliminate corruption and stabilize employment at the Hudson River ports. The Delaware River Basin Commission manages the water resources of the 12,750-sq mi (33,000-sq km) basin under the jurisdiction of Delaware, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. The Delaware River and Bay Authority operates a bridge and ferry between New Jersey and Delaware. In fiscal year 2005, the state received \$8.694 billion in federal grants, an estimated \$9.086 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$9.509 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

New Jersey was predominantly agricultural until the mid-1800s, when the rise of the railroads stimulated manufacturing in northern New Jersey and opened the Jersey shore to resort development. The steady growth of population in the 1900s fostered the growth of service-related industries, construction, and trade, for which the state's proximity to New York and Philadelphia had long been advantageous.

During the 1970s, New Jersey's economy followed national trends, except that the mid-decade recession was especially severe. Conditions in most areas improved in the latter part of the decade, particularly in Atlantic City, with the construction of gambling casinos and other entertainment facilities. Manufacturing in the central cities declined, however, as industries moved to suburban locations.

Although petroleum refining, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, food processing, apparel, fabricated metals, electric and electronic equipment, and other machinery are all important, the state is more noteworthy for the diversity of its manufacturers than for any dominant company or product. The service sector of the economy, led by wholesale and retail trade, continued to grow rapidly during the 1990s. The heaviest concentrations of jobs are in and near metropolitan New York and Philadelphia, but employment opportunities in the central and north-central counties have been increasing. Fresh market vegetables are the leading source of farm income. Overall growth in the state economy was robust coming into the 21st century, with annual growth rates averaging over 6% 1998 to 2000. The national recession and slowdown of 2001 slowed annual growth to 2.2%, but in 2002 the state economy was showing resiliency. Employment losses for the state as a whole started later and were milder than for the nation as a whole.

New Jersey's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$416.053 billion of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$65.656 billion or 15.7% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and non durable goods) at \$45.357 billion (10.9% of

GSP), and professional and technical services at \$33.652 billion (8% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 766,323 small businesses in New Jersey. Of the 256,863 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 252,831 or 98.4% were small companies. An estimated 35,895 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 22.8% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 50,034, up 35.9% from 2003. There were 684 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 6.8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 485 filings per 100,000 people, ranking New Jersey as the 29th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005, New Jersey had a gross state product (GSP) of \$431 billion which accounted for 3.5% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 8 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 New Jersey had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$41,626. This ranked fourth in the United States and was 126% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.2%. New Jersey had a total personal income (TPI) of \$361,524,402,000, which ranked seventh in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.6% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.1%. Earnings of persons employed in New Jersey increased from \$252,207,195,000 in 2003 to \$265,438,128,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$56,772 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 8.2% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in New Jersey numbered 4,501,800, with approximately 231,300 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 4,074,900. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in New Jersey was 10.6% in February 1977. The historical low was 3.5% in June 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.2% of the labor force was employed in construction; 7.8% in manufacturing; 21.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.9% in financial activities; 14.6% in professional and business services; 13.9% in education and health services; 8.4% in leisure and hospitality services; and 15.8% in government.

Although migrant workers are still employed at south Jersey tomato farms and fruit orchards, the number of farm workers coming into the state is declining with the increased use of mechanical harvesters.

The state's first child labor law was passed in 1851, and in 1886, workers were given the right to organize. Labor's gains were slow and painful, however. In Paterson, no fewer than 137 strikes were called between 1881 and 1900, every one of them a failure. A 1913

strike of Paterson silkworkers drew nationwide headlines but, again, few results. Other notable strikes were a walkout at a Carteret fertilizer factory in 1915, during which six picketers were killed by guards; a yearlong work stoppage by Passaic textile workers in 1926; and another Paterson silkworkers' strike in 1933, this one finally leading to union recognition and significant wage increases. That year, the state enacted a law setting minimum wages and maximum hours for women. This measure was repealed in 1971, in line with the trend toward nonpreferential labor standards.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 791,000 of New Jersey's 3,868,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 20.5% of those so employed, up from 19.8% in 2004, well above the national average of 12%. New Jersey is one of only five states whose union membership rate exceeds 20%. Overall in 2005, a total of 838,000 workers (21.7%) in New Jersey were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. New Jersey is also one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, New Jersey had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.15 per hour, which will increase on October 1, 2006 to \$7.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.2% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

New Jersey is a leading producer of fresh fruits and vegetables. Its total farm income was \$862 million in 2005. In 2004, it ranked fourth in cranberries, spinach, and lettuce, and eighth in fresh market tomatoes.

Some 820,000 acres (about 332,000 hectares) were in 9,900 farms in 2004. The major farm counties are: Warren for grain and milk production, Gloucester and Cumberland for fruits and vegetables, Atlantic for blueberries, Burlington for nursery production and berries, Salem for processing vegetables, and Monmouth for nursery and equine.

In 2004, New Jersey produced 265,140 tons of fresh market vegetables. Leading crops (in hundredweight units) were: bell peppers, 962,000; cabbage, 928,000; sweet corn, 525,000; tomatoes, 690,000; and head lettuce, 164,000. New Jersey farmers also produced 56,440 tons of vegetables for processing. Fruit crops in 2004 (in pound units) included apples, 40,000,000, and peaches, 32,500,000. In 2004, cranberry production was 40 million lb. The expansion of housing and industry has increased the value of farm acreage and buildings in New Jersey to over \$9,750 per acre, fourth highest in the nation after Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, New Jersey had an estimated 44,000 cattle and calves, valued at \$48.8 million. During 2004, New Jersey farmers had an estimated 11,000 hogs and pigs valued at \$1.3 million. In 2003, poultry farmers produced 686,000 million lb (312 million kg) of turkey, 3 million lb (1.4 million kg) of chickens, and 556 million eggs. The state's total milk yield was 216 million lb (98.1 million kg) in 2003.

25 FISHING

In 2004, New Jersey had a commercial fish catch of 185.6 million lb (84.3 million kg) worth \$139.4 million, the eighth highest catch volume in the nation. Cape May–Wildwood had the 15th-highest value and 13th-largest volume of all US ports, bringing in 97.5 million lb (44.3 million kg) of fish, worth \$68.1 million. Clams, scallops, swordfish, tuna, squid, lobster, and flounder are the most valuable species. The state ranked second in the nation for volume of Atlantic mackerel landings, at 35.5 million lb (16.1 million kg). The state also led the nation in landings of surf clams (43.5 million lb/19.8 million kg) and quahogs (17.6 million lb/8 million kg). In 2003, there were 15 processing and 83 wholesale plants in the state with about 2,050 employees. The commercial fleet in 2001 had 397 vessels.

The US Fish and Wildlife Service of the Department of the Interior maintains a total of 190,000 acres (76,900 hectares) on 12 different sites with boating access. The state stocks over 1.8 million fish per year to lakes, ponds, rivers, and streams. The Hackensack State Fish Hatchery and the Pequest Trout Hatchery are major suppliers.

Recreational fishermen catch finfish and shellfish along the Atlantic coast and in the rivers and lakes of northern New Jersey. In 2004, the state issued 169,418 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

Over 42% of New Jersey's land area, or 1,876,000 acres (759,000 hectares), was forested in 2003. Of that total, 1,288,000 acres (521,000 hectares) were private commercial timberland. The forests of New Jersey are important for their function in conservation and recreation. Wood that is harvested contributes to specialty markets and quality veneer products. State forests cover 382,000 acres (155,000 hectares).

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by New Jersey in 2003 was \$272 million, an increase from 2002 of about 5%.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, crushed stone, and construction sand and gravel were the state's top nonfuel minerals, by value. These were followed by industrial sand and gravel, and greens and marl.

According to preliminary figures for 2003, a total of 22.5 million metric tons of crushed stone were produced, for a total value of \$142 million, while construction sand and gravel output totaled 15.2 million metric tons, with a value of \$92 million. Industrial sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 1.51 million metric tons, for a value of \$33.8 million. New Jersey in 2003 continued to be the only state that produced greensand marl, also known as the mineral glauconite, which is processed and sold mainly as a water-softening filtration medium to remove soluble iron and manganese from well water. A secondary use is as an organic conditioner for soils.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, New Jersey had 37 electrical power service providers, of which nine were publicly owned and one was a coopera-

tive. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, six were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers, 12 were generation-only suppliers and five were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 3,737,697 retail customers. Of that total, 3,624,915 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 11,267 customers, while publicly owned providers had 56,447 customers. There were seven independent generator or "facility" customers, 12 generation-only customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 18.647 million kW, with total production that same year at 57.399 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, only 3.3% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 96.7% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 29.709 billion kWh (51.8%), came from nuclear generating plants, with natural gas fired plants in second place at 14.775 billion kWh (25.7%) and coal fueled plants in third at 9.789 billion kWh (17.1%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.4% of all power generated, with petroleum fired plants at 2.7%. Pumped storage and hydroelectric generation, and plants using other types of gases made up the remainder.

As of 2006, New Jersey had three operating nuclear power stations: the Hope Creek in Lower Alloways Township; the Oyster Creek plant at Forked River; and the Salem Creek plant near Salem.

New Jersey has no known proven reserves or production of crude oil and natural gas. However, the state has six crude oil refineries, some of which are the largest in the United States. As of 2005, the state's refineries had a distillation capacity of 615,000 barrels per day. New Jersey produces little of its own energy, importing much of its electric power and virtually all of its fossil fuels.

29 INDUSTRY

New Jersey's earliest industries were glassmaking and iron working. In 1791, Alexander Hamilton proposed the development of a planned industrial town at the Passaic Falls. The Society for Establishing Useful Manufactures, an agency charged with developing the town, tried but failed to set up a cotton mill at the site, called Paterson, in 1797. By the early 1800s, however, Paterson had become the country's largest silk manufacturing center and by 1850, it was producing locomotives as well. On the eve of the Civil War, industry already had a strong foothold in the state. Newark had breweries, hat factories, and paper plants; Trenton, iron and paper; Jersey City, steel and soap; and Middlesex, clays and ceramics. The late 1800s saw the birth of the electrical industry, the growth of oil refineries on Bayonne's shores, and emerging chemical, drug, paint, and telephone manufacturing centers. All these products retain their places among the state's diverse manufactures.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, New Jersey's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$94.125 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$26.911 billion. It was followed by petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$12.222 billion; food manufacturing

at \$9.481 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$6.115 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$5.241 billion.

In 2004, a total of 308,566 people in New Jersey were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 201,419 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the chemical manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 50,881 with 25,643 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 30,235 employees (21,120 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 28,958 employees (18,783 actual production workers); computer and electronic product manufacturing at 28,710 employees (14,868 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 25,186 employees (18,778 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that New Jersey's manufacturing sector paid \$14.447 billion in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$3.084 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$1.603 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.241 billion; printing and related support activities at \$1.111 billion; and miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.078 billion.

30 COMMERCE

With one of the nation's busiest ports, one of the busiest airports (Newark), the largest length of highways and railroads per state area, and many regional distribution centers, New Jersey is an important commercial state.

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, New Jersey's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$256.9 billion from 16,803 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 9,293 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 6,281 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,229 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$125.9 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$107.06 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$23.9 billion. The state's wholesale trade is largely concentrated near manufacturing centers and along the New Jersey Turnpike. Bergen, Union, and Essex counties accounted for most of the state's wholesale trade.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, New Jersey was listed as having 34,741 retail establishments with sales of \$102.1 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (6,824); clothing and clothing accessories stores (5,782); miscellaneous store retailers (3,423); and health and personal care stores (2,866). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$26.3 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$19.1 billion; general merchandise stores at \$10.3 billion; nonstore retailers at \$8.01 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$7.4 billion. A total of 434,574 people were employed by the retail sector in New Jersey that year.

Port Newark and the Elizabeth Marine Terminal, foreign-trade zones operated by the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, have been modernized and enlarged in recent years, and together account for most of the cargo unloaded in New York Harbor. In 2005, New Jersey exported \$21.08 billion to foreign coun-

tries. Leading exports were chemicals, electronics, and industrial machinery. Most exports went to Canada, Japan, the UK, and Mexico.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer fraud cases are handled by the Division of Consumer Affairs and the Office of the Attorney General, both of which are under the Department of Law and Public Safety. The Division of Consumer Affairs also supervises the activities of 41 boards and committees, which are responsible for regulating over 80 occupations and professions.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Division of Consumer Affairs are located in Newark. County government consumer affairs offices are located in Atlantic City, Blackwood, Bridgeton, Cape May Court House, East Orange, Flemington, Freehold, Hackensack, Jersey City, Mount Holly, New Brunswick, Somerville, Toms River, Trenton, Wayne, Westfield and Woodbury. City government consumer affairs offices are located in Middlesex, Nutley, Perth Amboy, Plainfield, Secaucus, Union and Woodbridge.

32 BANKING

The colonies' first bank of issue opened in Gloucester in 1682. New Jersey's first chartered bank, the Newark Banking and Insurance Co., was the first of many banks to open in that city. By the mid-1800s, Newark was indisputably the financial center of the state. For the most part, commercial banking in New Jersey is overshadowed by the great financial centers of New York City and Philadelphia.

As of June 2005, New Jersey had 136 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 20 state-chartered and 226 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the New York-Northern New Jersey-Long Island market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 233 institutions and \$770.488 billion in deposits, followed by the Trenton-Ewing market area with 25 institutions and \$9.302 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 5.1% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$9.559 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 94.9% or \$178.820 billion in assets held.

Regulation of all state-chartered banks, savings banks, savings and loan associations and limited purpose trust companies is the responsibility of the Department of Banking and Insurance. National or federally chartered banks are regulated by the Office of Comptroller of the Currency. The principal regulator of federally chartered savings and loan associations is the Office of Thrift Supervision.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 3.54%, down slightly from 3.55% in 2003. A large number of New Jersey's banks are residential lenders, and the widespread use of long-term mortgages in results in higher concentrations of long-term assets in New Jersey, around twice that reported by other banks elsewhere in the nation.

In 2004, the median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans was 0.88%, up from 0.85% in 2003.

3³INSURANCE

In 2004, there were over 4.4 million individual life insurance policies in force in New Jersey, with a total value of over \$540.6 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$902.4 billion. The average coverage amount is \$120,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$2.1 billion.

As of 2003, there were 81 property and casualty and 7 life and health insurers domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$16.9 billion. That year, there were 189,830 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$33.1 billion. About \$6 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 62% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 20% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 15% of residents were uninsured. New Jersey ranks as having the third-highest percentage of employment-based insureds among the fifty states. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 20% for family coverage. The state offers a 12-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 5.1 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$15,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$5,000. Personal injury protection is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$1,188.42, which ranked as the highest average in the nation.

All insurance agents, brokers, and companies in the state are licensed and regulated by the Department of Banking and Insurance.

3⁴SECURITIES

There are no stock or commodity exchanges in New Jersey. Regulation of securities trading in the state is under the control of the Bureau of Securities of the Division of Consumer Affairs, within the Department of Law and Public Safety.

In 2005, there were 5,310 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 12,690 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 517 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 167 NASDAQ companies,

112 NYSE listings, and 45 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 22 Fortune 500 companies; Johnson and Johnson (based in New Brunswick) ranked first in the state and 32nd in the nation with revenues of over \$50.5 billion, followed by Medco Health Solutions (Franklin Lakes), Prudential Financial (Newark), Honeywell Intl., (Morristown), and Merck (Whitehouse Station). All five of these companies are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵PUBLIC FINANCE

The annual budget, prepared by the Treasury Department's Division of Budget and Accounting, is submitted by the governor to the legislature for approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$28.4 billion for resources and \$27.5 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to New Jersey were \$11.3 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, New Jersey was slated to receive: \$110.5 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$52 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help New Jersey fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, New Jersey collected \$22,934 million in tax revenues or \$2,631 per capita, which placed it 10th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 28.6% of the total, selective sales taxes 15.8%, individual income taxes 35.9%, corporate income taxes 9.7%, and other taxes 10.1%.

As of 1 January 2006, New Jersey had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.4 to 8.97%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 9.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$18,229,254,000 or \$2,099 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state as having the highest property taxes in the nation. Local governments collected \$18,225,594,000 of the total and the state government \$3,660,000.

New Jersey taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 240 cents per pack, which ranks second among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. New Jersey taxes gasoline at 14.50 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

Per dollar of federal tax paid in 2004, New Jersey citizens received only \$0.55 in federal spending, the lowest amount in the nation and down from 1922 when it received \$0.66 per dollar sent to Washington.

3⁷ECONOMIC POLICY

New Jersey's controlled budget and relatively low business tax burden have helped encourage new businesses to enter the state. The New Jersey Commerce, Economic Growth and Tourism Commission is the state's lead agency in coordinating efforts between gov-

New Jersey—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	50,588,543	5,824.82
General revenue	37,904,075	4,364.31
Intergovernmental revenue	9,580,081	1,103.06
Taxes	20,981,428	2,415.82
General sales	6,261,700	720.98
Selective sales	3,478,584	400.53
License taxes	1,177,242	135.55
Individual income tax	7,400,733	852.13
Corporate income tax	1,896,998	218.42
Other taxes	766,171	88.22
Current charges	4,316,948	497.06
Miscellaneous general revenue	3,025,618	348.37
Utility revenue	591,310	68.08
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	12,093,158	1,392.42
Total expenditure	46,455,897	5,348.98
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,813,688	1,129.96
Direct expenditure	36,642,209	4,219.02
Current operation	23,411,920	2,695.67
Capital outlay	3,465,474	399.02
Insurance benefits and repayments	8,131,855	936.31
Assistance and subsidies	471,762	54.32
Interest on debt	1,161,198	133.70
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,129,159	360.29
Total expenditure	46,455,897	5,348.98
General expenditure	36,064,484	4,152.50
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,813,688	1,129.96
Direct expenditure	26,250,796	3,022.54
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	12,122,842	1,395.84
Public welfare	8,593,086	989.42
Hospitals	1,616,323	186.11
Health	770,150	88.68
Highways	2,388,481	275.01
Police protection	431,279	49.66
Correction	1,375,329	158.36
Natural resources	330,844	38.09
Parks and recreation	399,223	45.97
Government administration	1,404,840	161.75
Interest on general debt	1,156,794	133.19
Other and unallocable	5,475,293	630.43
Utility expenditure	2,259,558	260.17
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	8,131,855	936.31
Debt at end of fiscal year	35,770,241	4,118.62
Cash and security holdings	87,493,366	10,074.08

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

ernment and the private sector to provide access to a broad range of technical, financial and other assistance that helps businesses grow and contribute to economic development. The commission administers a number of development programs designed to retain and attract business and jobs. The state's Economic Development Authority (EDA) is an independent authority established to provide financing programs, including loans, loan guarantees, and tax-free and taxable bond packages.

The Urban Enterprise Zone Program seeks to revitalize urban areas by granting tax incentives and relaxing some government

regulations. The Office of Business Services was established as a clearinghouse to help, support, and promote the development of small, women- and minority-owned enterprises. The Office of International Trade and Protocol seeks to boost the state's exports and bring more foreign companies into the state. Other offices within the department promote tourism and motion picture production. Besides financing, EDA offers a full range of real estate development services, training for entrepreneurs, and technical support. Specific categories targeted for assistance are small and mid-size businesses, high-tech businesses, nonprofits, and brown-fields. There are also separate divisions for advocating Smart Growth principles and for trade adjustment assistance.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 4.9 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 36.3 per 1,000 women in 2000, representing the third-highest rate in the country (after the District of Columbia and New York). In 2003, about 80.2% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 83% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 262; cancer, 207.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 46.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 33.6; and diabetes, 29.5. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 8.9 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 21.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 52.9% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 18.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, New Jersey had 78 community hospitals with about 22,800 beds. There were about 1.1 million patient admissions that year and 14.7 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 16,900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,411. Also in 2003, there were about 356 certified nursing facilities in the state with 50,551 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 87.7%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 75.8% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. New Jersey had 333 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 928 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 7,045 dentists in the state.

About 11% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 14% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 15% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$12.7 million.

The state's only medical school, the University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey, is a public institution that combines three medical schools, one dental school, a school of allied professions, and a graduate school of biomedical sciences.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Through the Department of Human Services, New Jersey administers the major federal welfare programs, as well as several programs specifically designed to meet the needs of New Jersey minority groups. Among the latter in the 1990s was the Cuban-Haitian Entrant Program. Additional assistance went to refugees from such areas as Southeast Asia and Eastern Europe.

In 2004, about 332,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$331. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 392,416 persons (186,661 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$92.89 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$437.4 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. New Jersey's TANF program is called Work First New Jersey (WFNJ). In 2004, the state program had 108,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$274 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,370,440 New Jersey residents. This number included 939,010 retired workers, 123,960 widows and widowers, 148,650 disabled workers, 57,990 spouses, and 100,810 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.7% of the total state population and 91.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$1,054; widows and widowers, \$993; disabled workers, \$976; and spouses, \$509. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$516 per month; children of deceased workers, \$705; and children of disabled workers, \$310. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 150,151 New Jersey residents, averaging \$415 a month.

40 HOUSING

Before 1967, New Jersey took a laissez-faire attitude toward housing. With each locality free to fashion its own zoning ordinances, large tracts of rural land succumbed to "suburban sprawl"—single-family housing developments spread out in two huge arcs from New York City and Philadelphia. Meanwhile, the tenement housing of New Jersey's central cities was left to deteriorate. Because poor housing was at least one of the causes of the Newark riot in 1967, the state established the Department of Community Affairs to coordinate existing housing aid programs and establish new ones. The state legislature also created the Mortgage Finance Agency and Housing Finance Agency to stimulate home buying and residential construction. In an effort to halt suburban sprawl, local and county planning boards were encouraged during the 1970s to adopt master plans for controlled growth. Court decisions in the late 1970s and early 1980s challenged the constitutionality of zoning laws that precluded the development of low-income housing in suburban areas.

In 2004, the state had an estimated 3,414,739 housing units, of which 3,134,481 were occupied; 68.1% were owner-occupied. About 54.6% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Nearly 60% of the entire housing stock was built before 1969. Utility gas is the most common heating energy source, followed by fuel oil and kerosene. It was estimated that 98,620 units lacked telephone service, 10,054 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 16,364 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.71 members.

In 2004, 36,900 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$291,294, the fifth highest in the country. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,847, the highest rate in the country. Renters paid a median of \$877, the second-highest rate in the country, after California. In 2006, the state received over \$8.3 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

Public education in New Jersey dates from 1828, when the legislature first allocated funds to support education; by 1871, a public school system was established statewide. In 2004, 87.6% of persons 25 years and older were high school graduates. Some 34.6% of persons obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in New Jersey's public schools stood at 1,367,000. Of these, 979,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 389,000 attended high school. Approximately 57.9% of the students were white, 17.7% were black, 17.2% were Hispanic, 7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,386,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 1,415,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 3.5% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003–04 were estimated at \$20.8 billion or \$12,981 per student, the highest among the 50 states. There were 204,732 students enrolled in 964 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in New Jersey scored 284 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 361,733 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 34.3% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005, New Jersey had 58 degree-granting institutions including, 14 public four-year schools, 19 public two-year schools, and 21 nonprofit, private four-year schools. Rutgers, the state university, began operations as Queen's College in 1766 and was placed under state control in 1956, encompassing the separate colleges of Rutgers, Douglass, Livingston, and Cook, among others. As of 2005, the university had campuses at New Brunswick/Piscataway, Camden, and Newark. The major private university in the state and one of the nation's leading institutions is Princeton University, founded in 1746. Other major private universities are Seton Hall (1856); Stevens Institute of Technology (1870); and Fairleigh Dickinson (1942), with three main campuses.

The New Jersey Commission on Higher Education offers tuition aid grants and scholarships to state residents who attend colleges and universities in the state. Guaranteed loans for any qualified resident are available through the New Jersey Higher Education Assistance Authority.

42 ARTS

During the late 1800s and early 1900s, New Jersey towns, especially Atlantic City and Newark, were tryout centers for shows bound for Broadway. The New Jersey Theater Group, a service organization for nonprofit professional theaters, was established in 1978; several theaters—including the Tony Award-winning McCarter

Theater at Princeton and Paper Mill Playhouse in Millburn—are members of the Theater Group.

Around the turn of the century, Ft. Lee was the motion picture capital of the world. Most of the best-known “silents”—including the first, *The Great Train Robbery*, and episodes of *The Perils of Pauline*—were shot there, and in its heyday the state film industry supported 21 companies and 7 studios. New Jersey’s early preeminence in cinema, an era that ended with the rise of Hollywood, stemmed partly from the fact that the first motion picture system was developed by Thomas Edison at Menlo Park in the late 1880s. The state created the New Jersey Motion Picture and Television Commission in 1977; in the next six years, production companies spent \$57 million in the state. Notable productions during this period included two Woody Allen pictures, *Broadway Danny Rose* and *The Purple Rose of Cairo*.

The New Jersey State Council of the Arts consists of 17 members appointed by the governor. In 2005, the New Jersey State Council of the Arts and other New Jersey arts organizations received 29 grants totaling \$1,186,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts. State and private sources also contributed funding to New Jersey’s arts programs. The New Jersey Council for the Humanities (NJCH) was founded in 1973 and consists of a 25-member board of trustees. As of 2006 ongoing programs associated with the NJCH included the annual Humanities Festival Week, a week of programs adhering to a particular humanities theme chosen each year; Ideas at Work, promoting forums for thoughts on humanity topics in the work place; and the Horizons Speakers Bureau, providing lectures in humanities across the state. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$2.6 million to 36 state programs.

The state’s long history of support for classical music dates at least to 1796, when William Dunlap of Perth Amboy wrote the libretto for *The Archers*, the first American opera to be commercially produced. The state’s leading orchestra is the New Jersey Symphony, which makes its home in the new New Jersey Performing Arts Center in Newark; there are other symphony orchestras in Plainfield and Trenton. As of 2006 the New Jersey Symphony of Newark was noted for providing educational and community programs that included the Newark Early Strings Program, which provides free string instruction to second, third and fourth grade students in the Newark Public School District, and REACH (Resources for Education and Community Harmony,) which presents a variety of musical programs that allow for personal interaction with the artists. The New Jersey State Opera performs in Newark’s Symphony Hall, while the Opera Festival of New Jersey makes its home in Lawrenceville. Noteworthy dance companies include the American Repertory Ballet, New Jersey Ballet, and the Nai-Ni Chen Dance Company, described as a “cross-cultural contemporary dance company.”

The jazz clubs of northern New Jersey and the seaside rock clubs in Asbury Park have helped launch the careers of many local performers. The city of Asbury Park was scheduled to host its 18th annual Jazz Festival in June 2006. Famous rock music star Bruce Springsteen grew up in southern New Jersey and titled his first album with Columbia Records, *Greetings From Asbury Park, NJ* (1973). Atlantic City’s hotels and casinos host numerous star performances every year.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For calendar year 2001, New Jersey had 309 public library systems, with a total of 458 libraries, 149 of which were branches. The state’s public library systems that same year housed 31,035,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and had a total circulation of 49,171,000. The system also had 1,076,000 audio and 789,000 video items, 43,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 15 bookmobiles. The Newark Public Library was the largest municipal system with 1,452,336 volumes and 10 branches. Distinguished by special collections on African-American studies, art and archaeology, economics, and international affairs, among many others, Princeton University’s library is the largest in the state, with 4,973,619 volumes and 34,182 periodical subscriptions in 1998; Rutgers University ranked second with 3,238,416. The New Jersey State Library in Trenton contained 470,000 volumes, mostly on the state’s history and government. One of the largest business libraries, emphasizing scientific and technical data, is the AT&T Bell Laboratories’ library system, based in Murray Hill. In 2001, operating income for the state’s public library system was \$315,890,000 and included \$1,509,000 in federal grants and \$9,730,000 in state grants.

New Jersey has more than 177 museums, historic sites, botanical gardens and arboretums. Among the most noteworthy museums are the New Jersey Historical Society in Newark and New Jersey State Museum in Trenton; the Newark Museum, containing both art and science exhibits; Princeton University’s Art Museum and Museum of Natural History; and the Jersey City Museum. Also of interest are the early waterfront homes and vessels of Historic Gardner’s Basin in Atlantic City, as well as Grover Cleveland’s birthplace in Caldwell; the Campbell Museum in Camden (featuring the soup company’s collection of bowls and utensils); Cape May County Historical Museum; Clinton Historical Museum Village; US Army Communications-Electronics Museum at Ft. Monmouth; Batsto Village, near Hammonton; Morristown National Historic Park (where George Washington headquartered during the Revolutionary War); Sandy Hook Museum; and one of the most popular attractions, the Edison National Historic Site, formerly the home and workshop of Thomas Edison, in West Orange. In 1984, the grounds at the Skylands section of Ringwood State Park were designated as the official state botanical garden.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Many communications breakthroughs—including Telstar, the first communications satellite—have been achieved by researchers at Bell Labs in Holmdel, Whippany, and Murray Hill. Three Bell Labs researchers shared the Nobel Prize in physics (1956) for developing the transistor, a device that has revolutionized communications and many other fields. In 1876, at Menlo Park, Thomas Edison invented the carbon telephone transmitter, a device that made the telephone commercially feasible.

The first mail carriers to come to New Jersey were, typically enough, on their way between New York and Philadelphia. Express mail between the two cities began in 1737, and by 1764, carriers could speed through the state in 24 hours. In colonial times, tavern keepers generally served as the local mailmen. The nation’s largest bulk-mail facility is in Jersey City. In 2004, 95.1% of the state’s occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by

June of that same year there were 6,326,459 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 65.5% of New Jersey households had a computer and 60.5% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,654,477 high-speed lines in New Jersey, 1,479,635 residential and 174,842 for business.

Because the state lacks a major television broadcasting outlet, New Jerseyites receive more news about events in New York City and Philadelphia than in their own towns and cities. In 2005, there were 60 major radio stations (8 AM, 52 FM) and 7 television stations, none of which commanded anything like the audiences and influence of the stations across the Hudson and Delaware rivers. In 1978, in cooperation with public television's WNET (licensed in Newark but operated in New York), New Jersey's public stations began producing New Jersey's first nightly newscast.

A total of 251,401 Internet domain names were registered in New Jersey in the year 2000.

45 PRESS

New Jersey has not been known for having a very powerful press. In 1702, Queen Anne banned printers from the colony. The state's first periodical, founded in 1758, died two years later. New Jersey's first daily paper, the *Newark Daily Advertiser*, did not arrive until 1832.

Many present-day newspapers, most notably the *Newark Star-Ledger*, have amassed considerable circulation. However, no newspaper has been able to muster statewide influence or match the quality and prestige of the nearby *New York Times* or *Philadelphia Inquirer*, both of which are read widely in the state, along with other New York City and Philadelphia papers. In 2005, there were 18 morning dailies, 1 evening, and 15 Sunday papers. Most of the largest papers are owned by either Gannett Co., Inc (of Virginia) or Advance Publications (of New York).

The following table shows leading New Jersey dailies with their approximate 2005 circulation:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Atlantic City	<i>Press</i> (m,S)	74,655	93,129
Camden-Cherry Hill	<i>Courier-Post*</i> (m,S)	75,408	89,922
Hackensack (Bergen County)	<i>Record</i> (m,S)	176,177	212,333
Neptune-Asbury Park	<i>Asbury Park Press*</i> (m,S)	160,399	212,471
Newark	<i>Star-Ledger+</i> (m,S)	400,042	608,257
Trenton	<i>Times+</i> (m,S)	67,600	73,006

*owned by Gannett Co., Inc. +owned by Advance Publications.

Numerous scholarly and historical works have been published by the university presses of Princeton and Rutgers. The offices of Pearson Education and its division, Prentice-Hall, are located in Upper Saddle River. Several New York City publishing houses maintain their production and warehousing facilities in the state. Periodicals published in New Jersey include *Home*, *Medical Economics*, *New Jersey Monthly*, and *Personal Computing*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 10,065 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 6,826 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Princeton is the headquarters of several education-related groups, including the Educational Testing Service, Graduate Record Examinations Board, the International Mathematical Union,

Independent Educational Services, and Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation.

Seeing Eye of Morristown was one of the first organizations to provide seeing-eye dogs for the blind. Other medical and health-related organizations are National Industries for the Blind (Wayne), the American Council for Headache Education (Mount Royal), the Multiple Sclerosis Association of America (Cherry Hill), and the American Association of Veterinary State Boards (Teaneck). Birthright USA, an anti-abortion counseling service, has its headquarters in Woodbury; the National Council on Crime and Delinquency is in Ft. Lee. The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers in Piscataway is a professional organization with national membership. There are statewide professional organizations representing most professions.

Hobby and sports groups include the US Golf Association, the International Golf Federation, and the World Amateur Golf Council in Far Hills; US Equestrian Team in Gladstone; Babe Ruth Baseball/Softball in Trenton; the International Boxing Federation in East Orange; the American Double Dutch League in Cherry Hill; and National Intercollegiate Women's Fencing Association in Upper Montclair. The Miss America Organization, established in 1921, sponsors the annual Miss America competition in Atlantic City. The American Vegan Society is based in Malaga.

Several religious organizations have base offices in New Jersey, including the American Coptic Association, the Blue Army of Our Lady of Fatima, USA, the National Interfaith Hospitality Network, and the Xaverian Missionaries of the United States. The American Atheists organization is also based in the state.

There are numerous arts and cultural organizations. Some of national interest include the Music Critics Association of North America, the Musical Heritage Society, the National Music Council, the Royal Academy of Dance, and the World Congress of Teachers of Dancing. The American Accordionist's Associations and an American Accordion Musicological Society are both based in New Jersey. There are a number of local historical societies. The Heritage Institute of Ellis Island is located in Jersey City.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is a leading industry in New Jersey, accounting for a sizeable part of the state's revenues. One out of nine New Jersey workers has a job in tourism, which was the fastest growing economic sector in 2005, with \$36.6 billion in revenue. In 2005, there were 72.2 million visitors to the state, 57% of which were day-trip travelers. About 34% of all trips are made by residents within the state. Nearly 25% of all visitors are from New York and 19% are from Pennsylvania. The Jersey shore has been a popular attraction since 1801, when Cape May began advertising itself as a summer resort. Dining, entertainment, and gambling are also popular.

Of all the shore resorts, the largest has long been Atlantic City, which by the 1890s was the nation's most popular resort city and by 1905 was the first major city with an economy almost totally dependent on tourism. That proved to be its downfall, as improvements in road and air transportation made more modern resorts in other states easily accessible to easterners. By the early 1970s, the city's only claims to fame were the Miss America pageant and the game of Monopoly, whose standard version uses its street names. In an effort to restore Atlantic City to its former luster and revive its economy, New Jersey voters approved a constitutional

amendment in 1976 to allow casinos in the resort. Some 33 million people visit Atlantic City annually. New Jersey has 127 miles of beaches from Sandy Hook to Cape May and Ocean City. Casino taxes were earmarked to reduce property taxes of senior citizens. New Jersey's close proximity to New York also makes it attractive to visitors. New Jersey hosts the Liberty Science Center with ferry rides to the Statue of Liberty. Camden has a Six Flags amusement park and Columbia features the Lakota Wolf Preserve.

State attractions include 10 ski areas in northwestern New Jersey (on Hamburg Mountain alone, more than 50 slopes are available), canoeing and camping at the Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area, 3 national wildlife refuges, 31 public golf courses, and 30 amusement parks, including Great Adventure in central Jersey. Dutch Neck Village, created in 1976, includes a living museum and the Old Hickory Arboretum. Jersey Greens, the largest outlet mall in New Jersey, opened in 1999, anticipating revenues of \$5.6 million annually.

48 SPORTS

New Jersey did not have a major league professional team until 1976, when the New York Giants of the National Football League moved across the Hudson River into the newly completed Giants Stadium in the Meadowlands Sports Complex at East Rutherford. The NFL's New York Jets began playing their home games at the Meadowlands in 1984. The Continental Airlines Arena, located at the same site, is the home of the New Jersey Nets of the National Basketball Association and the New Jersey Devils of the National Hockey League. As New York teams that no longer play in their home state, the Giants and the Jets are scorned by some New York sports purists. When the Giants won the Super Bowl in 1987, New York's then mayor, Ed Koch, refused them the ticker-tape parade traditionally given to local sports champions on the grounds that since they play in New Jersey they are not a New York team.

The state did celebrate a championship it could call its own, however, when the Devils won the Stanley Cup in 1995. The Devils repeated their success with two more Stanley Cup victories in 2000 and 2003.

The New Jersey Nets have made a surge in the recent past, becoming one of the most successful teams in the NBA. They captured berths in consecutive NBA Finals in 2002 and 2003, falling short on both occasions, however.

The Meadowlands is also the home of a dual thoroughbred-harness-racing track. Other racetracks are Garden State Park (Cherry Hill), Monmouth Park (Oceanport), and Atlantic City Race Course for thoroughbreds, and Freehold Raceway for harness racing. Auto racing is featured at speedways in Bridgeport, East Windsor, and New Egypt. Trenton has a minor league baseball team, the Thunder, in the Eastern League. New Jersey has several world-class golf courses, including Baltusrol, the site of seven US Opens and the 2005 PGA Championship. Numerous championship boxing matches have been held in Atlantic City.

New Jersey is historically significant for the births of two major national sports. Princeton and Rutgers played what is claimed to be the first intercollegiate football game on 6 November 1869 at New Brunswick. (Princeton was named national champion several times around the turn of the century, for the last time in 1911). The first game of what is known today as baseball was played in New Jersey at the Elyson Field in Hoboken between the Knicker-

bockers and the New York Nine on 19 June 1846. Several important college games are held at Giants Stadium each fall. In college basketball, Seton Hall placed high in the rankings repeatedly in the late 1980s and early 1990s, winning the National Invitational Tournament in 1953. In 1989 they made it to the finals, losing to Michigan by one point in overtime. Rutgers had a formidable men's basketball team in the 1970s, making it to the Final Four in 1976.

Other annual sporting events include the New Jersey Offshore Grand Prix Ocean Races held at Point Pleasant Beach in July and the National Marbles Tournament in Wildwood.

49 FAMOUS NEW JERSEYITES

While only one native New Jerseyite, (Stephen) Grover Cleveland (1837–1908), has been elected president of the United States, the state can also properly claim (Thomas) Woodrow Wilson (b.Virginia, 1856–1924), who spent most of his adult life there. Cleveland left his birthplace in Caldwell as a little boy, winning his fame and two terms in the White House (1885–89, 1893–97) as a resident of New York State. After serving as president, he retired to Princeton, where he died and is buried. Wilson, a member of Princeton's class of 1879, returned to the university in 1908 as a professor and became its president in 1902. Elected governor of New Jersey in 1910, Wilson pushed through a series of sweeping reforms before entering the White House in 1913. Wilson's two presidential terms were marked by his controversial decision to declare war on Germany and his unsuccessful crusade for US membership in the League of Nations after World War I.

Two vice presidents hail from New Jersey: Aaron Burr (1756–1836) and Garret A. Hobart (1844–99). Burr, born in Newark and educated at what is now Princeton University, is best remembered for killing Alexander Hamilton in a duel at Weehawken in 1804. Hobart was born in Long Branch, graduated from Rutgers College, and served as a lawyer in Paterson until elected vice president in 1896; he died in office.

Four New Jerseyites have become associate justices of the US Supreme Court: William Paterson (b.Ireland, 1745–1806), Joseph P. Bradley (1813–92), Mahlon Pitney (1858–1924), and William J. Brennan Jr. (1906–1997). Among the relatively few New Jerseyites to serve in the US cabinet was William E. Simon (1927), secretary of the treasury under Gerald Ford.

Few New Jerseyites won important political status in colonial years because the colony was so long under New York's political and social domination. Lewis Morris (b.New York, 1671–1746) was named the first royal governor of New Jersey when severance from New York came in 1738. Governors who made important contributions to the state included William Livingston (b.New York, 1723–90), first governor after New Jersey became a state in 1776; Marcus L. Ward (1812–84), a strong Union supporter; and Alfred E. Driscoll (1902–75), who persevered in getting New Jersey a new state constitution in 1947 despite intense opposition from the Democratic Party leadership. Other important historical figures are Molly Pitcher (Mary Ludwig Hays McCauley, 1754?–1832), a heroine of the American Revolution, and Zebulon Pike (1779–1813), the noted explorer.

Two New Jersey persons have won the Nobel Peace Prize: Woodrow Wilson in 1919, and Nicholas Murray Butler (1862–1947) in 1931. A three-man team at Bell Laboratories in Mur-

ray Hill won the 1956 physics award for their invention of the transistor: Walter Brattain (b.China, 1902–87), John Bardeen (b.Wisconsin, 1908–91), and William Shockley (b.England, 1910). Dr. Selman Waksman (b.Russia, 1888–1973), a Rutgers University professor, won the 1952 prize in medicine and physiology for the discovery of streptomycin. Dickinson Woodruff (1895–1973) won the medicine and physiology prize in 1956, and Joshua Lederberg (b.1925) was a co-winner in 1958. Theoretical physicist Albert Einstein (b.Germany, 1879–1955), winner of a Nobel Prize in 1921, spent his last decades in Princeton. One of the world's most prolific inventors, Thomas Alva Edison (b.Ohio, 1847–1931) patented over 1,000 devices from workshops at Menlo Park and West Orange. David Dinkins (b.1927), first African-American mayor of New York was born in Trenton, New Jersey. Norman Schwarzkopf (b.1934), commander of US forces in Desert Storm (Gulf War), was born August 22, 1934 in Trenton, New Jersey. Michael Chang (b.1972), 1989 French Open tennis champion, was born in Hoboken.

The state's traditions in the arts began in colonial times. Patience Lovell Wright (1725–86) of Bordentown was America's first recognized sculptor. Jonathan Odell (1737–1818) was an anti-Revolutionary satirist, while Francis Hopkinson (b.Pennsylvania, 1737–91), lawyer, artist, and musician, lampooned the British. Authors of note after the Revolution included William Dunlap (1766–1839), who compiled the first history of the stage in America; James Fenimore Cooper (1789–1851), one of the nation's first novelists; Mary Mapes Dodge (b.New York, 1838–1905), noted author of children's books; Stephen Crane (1871–1900), famed for *The Red Badge of Courage* (1895); and Albert Payson Terhune (1872–1942), beloved for his collie stories.

Quite a number of prominent 20th-century writers were born in or associated with New Jersey. They include poets William Carlos Williams (1883–1963) and Allen Ginsberg (1926–1997); satirist Dorothy Parker (1893–1967); journalist-critic Alexander Woollcott (1887–1943); Edmund Wilson (1895–1972), influential critic, editor, and literary historian; Norman Cousins (1912–90); Norman Mailer (b.1923); Thomas Fleming (b.1927); John McPhee (b.1931); Philip Roth (b.1933); Imamu Amiri Baraka (LeRoi Jones, b.1934); and Peter Benchley (b.New York, 1940–2006).

Notable 19th-century artists were Asher B. Durand (1796–1886) and George Inness (b.New York, 1825–94). The best-known 20th-century artist associated with New Jersey was Ben Shahn (1898–1969); cartoonist Charles Addams (1912–88) was born in Westfield. Noted photographers born in New Jersey include Alfred Stieglitz (1864–1946) and Dorothea Lange (1895–1965). Important New Jersey composers were Lowell Mason (b.Massachusetts, 1792–1872), called the “father of American church music,” and Milton Babbitt (b.Pennsylvania, 1916), long active at Princeton. The state's many concert singers include Anna Case (1889–1984), Paul Robeson (1898–1976), and Richard Crooks (1900–72). Popular singers include Francis Albert “Frank” Sinatra (1915–98),

Sarah Vaughan (1924–1990), Dionne Warwick (b.1941), Paul Simon (b.1942), and Bruce Springsteen (b.1949). Jazz musician William “Count” Basie (1904–84) was born in Red Bank.

Other celebrities native to New Jersey are actors Jack Nicholson (b.1937), Michael Douglas (b.1944), Meryl Streep (b.1948), and John Travolta (b.1954). Comedians Lou Costello (1906–59), Ernie Kovacs (1919–62), Jerry Lewis (b.1926), and Clerow “Flip” Wilson (1933–98) were also born in the state. New Jersey-born athletes include figure skater Richard “Dick” Button (b.1929), winner of two Olympic gold medals.

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NEW MEXICO

State of New Mexico

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Spanish explorers in 1540 called the area “the new Mexico.” **NICKNAME:** Land of Enchantment. **CAPITAL:** Santa Fe. **ENTERED UNION:** 6 January 1912 (47th). **SONG:** “O Fair New Mexico;” “Así es Nuevo México.” **MOTTO:** *Crescit eundo* (It grows as it goes). **FLAG:** The sun symbol of the Zia Indians appears in red on a yellow field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** An American bald eagle with extended wings grasps three arrows in its talons and shields a smaller eagle grasping a snake in its beak and a cactus in its talons (the emblem of Mexico, and thus symbolic of the change in sovereignty over the state). Below the scene is the state motto. The words “Great Seal of the State of New Mexico 1912” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Roadrunner (chaparral bird). **FISH:** Cutthroat trout. **FLOWER:** Yucca (Our Lords Candles). **TREE:** Piñon pine. **GEM:** Turquoise. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; President’s Day, day after Thanksgiving; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

New Mexico is located in the southwestern United States. Smaller only than Montana of the eight Rocky Mountain states, it ranks fifth in size among the 50 states. The area of New Mexico is 121,593 sq mi (314,926 sq km), of which land comprises 121,335 sq mi (314,258 sq km) and inland water 258 sq mi (668 sq km). Almost square in shape except for its jagged southern border, New Mexico extends about 352 mi (566 km) E–W and 391 mi (629 km) N–S.

New Mexico is bordered on the N by Colorado; on the E by Oklahoma and Texas; on the S by Texas and the Mexican state of Chihuahua (with a small portion of the south-central border formed by the Rio Grande); and on the W by Arizona. The total boundary length of New Mexico is 1,434 mi (2,308 km).

The geographic center of the state is in Torrance County, 12 mi (19 km) ssw of Willard.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The Continental Divide extends from north to south through central New Mexico. The north-central part of the state lies within the Southern Rocky Mountains, and the northwest forms part of the Colorado Plateau. The eastern two-fifths of the state fall on the western fringes of the Great Plains.

Major mountain ranges include the Southern Rockies, the Chuska Mountains in the northwest, and the Caballo, San Andres, San Mateo, Sacramento, and Guadalupe ranges in the south and southwest. The highest point in the state is Wheeler Peak, at 13,161 ft (4,014 m); the lowest point, 2,842 ft (867 m), is at Red Bluff Reservoir. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 5,700 ft (1,739 m).

The Rio Grande traverses New Mexico from north to south and forms a small part of the state’s southern border with Texas. Other major rivers include the Pecos, San Juan, Canadian, and Gila. The

largest bodies of inland water are the Elephant Butte Reservoir and Conchas Reservoir, both created by dams.

The Carlsbad Caverns, the largest known subterranean labyrinth in the world, penetrate the foothills of the Guadalupe in the southeast. The caverns embrace more than 37 mi (60 km) of connecting chambers and corridors and are famed for their stalactite and stalagmite formations.

³ CLIMATE

New Mexico’s climate ranges from arid to semiarid, with a wide range of temperatures. Average January temperatures vary from about 35°F (2°C) in the north to about 55°F (13°C) in the southern and central regions. July temperatures range from about 78°F (26°C) at high elevations to around 92°F (33°C) at lower elevations. The record high temperature for the state is 122°F (50°C), set most recently on 27 July 1994 at Lakewood; the record low, -50°F (-46°C), was set on 1 February 1951 at Gavilan.

Average annual precipitation is about 8.5 in (21 cm) in Albuquerque in the desert; at high elevations, annual precipitation averaged over 20 in (50 cm). Nearly one-half the annual rainfall comes during July and August, and thunderstorms are common in the summer. Snow is much more frequent in the north than in the south; Albuquerque gets about 11 in (28 cm) of snow per year, and the northern mountains receive up to 100 in (254 cm).

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

New Mexico is divided into the following six life zones: lower Sonoran, upper Sonoran, transition, Canadian, Hudsonian, and arctic-alpine.

Characteristic vegetation in each zone includes, respectively, desert shrubs and grasses; piñon/juniper woodland, sagebrush,

and chaparral; ponderosa pine and oak woodlands; mixed conifer and aspen forests; spruce/fir forests and meadows; tundra wild flowers and riparian shrubs. The yucca has three varieties in New Mexico and is the state flower. Thirteen plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006, including Sacramento prickly poppy, Moncos milk-vetch, and two species of cacti.

Indigenous animals include pronghorn antelope, javelina, and black-throated sparrow in the lower Sonoran zone; mule and white-tailed deer, ringtail, and brown towhee in the upper Sonoran zone; elk and wild turkey in the transition zone; black bear and hairy woodpecker in the Canadian zone; pine marten and blue grouse in the Hudsonian zone; and bighorn sheep, pika, ermine, and white-tailed ptarmigan in the arctic-alpine zone. Among notable desert insects are the tarantula, centipede, and vinegarroon. The coatimundi, Baird's sparrow, and brook stickleback are among rare animals. Twenty-eight New Mexican animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were classified as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service in April 2006, including two species of bat, whooping crane, bald eagle, southwestern willow flycatcher, Mexican spotted owl, three species of shiner, and razorback sucker.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Agencies concerned with the environment include the New Mexico Environment Department (NMED), the Environmental Improvement Board, the Water Quality Control Commission, and the Energy, Minerals and Natural Resources Department. As the state's leading environmental agency, the NMED's mission is to preserve, protect, and perpetuate New Mexico's environment for present and future generations. The Department is comprised of four divisions, 14 bureaus, four districts, and 17 field offices. Each entity is responsible for different areas and functions of environmental protection (or administrative support) concerning air, water, and land resources. Under the authority of state/federal laws and regulations, the NMED fulfills its mission through the judicious application of statewide regulatory, technical assistance, planning, enforcement, educational, and related functions in the service of its citizens.

Wetlands cover about 482,000 acres (195,058 hectares) of the state and include such diverse areas as forested wetlands, marshes, alpine snow glades, and salt meadows. Conversion of land for agricultural and urban development are the primary threats to these lands, which lie primarily in the eastern and northern areas of the state.

In 2003, 17.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, New Mexico had 120 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 12 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$3.2 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8.3 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$6.8 million for improvements in municipal wastewater treatment programs.

6 POPULATION

New Mexico ranked 36th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,928,384 in 2005, an increase of 6% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, New Mexico's population grew from 1,515,069 to 1,819,046, an increase of 20.1%. The population is projected to reach 2 million by 2015 and 2.1 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 15.7 persons per sq mi. In 2004 the median age was 35.8. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 25.9% of the population while 12.1% was age 65 or older.

In 2004, an estimated 484,246 people lived in Albuquerque. An estimated 781,447 lived in the Albuquerque metropolitan area. The Santa Fe metropolitan area had 138,705 inhabitants.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

New Mexico has two large minorities: Indians and Hispanics. In 2000, the estimated American Indian population was 173,483 (9.5% of the total population—the second-highest percentage of any state). In 2004, 10.1% of the population was American Indian. Part of Arizona's great Navaho reservation extends across the border into New Mexico. New Mexico's Navaho population was recorded as 67,397 in 2000. There are 2 Apache reservations, 19 Pueblo villages (including one for the Zia in Sandoval County), and lands allotted to other tribes. Altogether, Indian lands cover 8,152,895 acres (3,299,477 hectares), 10.5% of New Mexico's area (second only to Arizona in proportion of Indian lands). In 2000 the Zuni lands had a population of 7,758, and the Acoma reservation had 2,802 residents.

The Hispanic population is an old one, descending from Spanish-speaking peoples who lived there before the territory was annexed by the United States. In 2000, Hispanics and Latinos (including a small number of immigrants from modern Mexico) numbered 765,386 or 42.1% of the total state population. That percentage had increased to 43.3% of the state population in 2004.

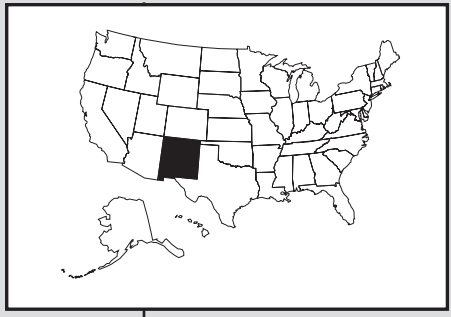
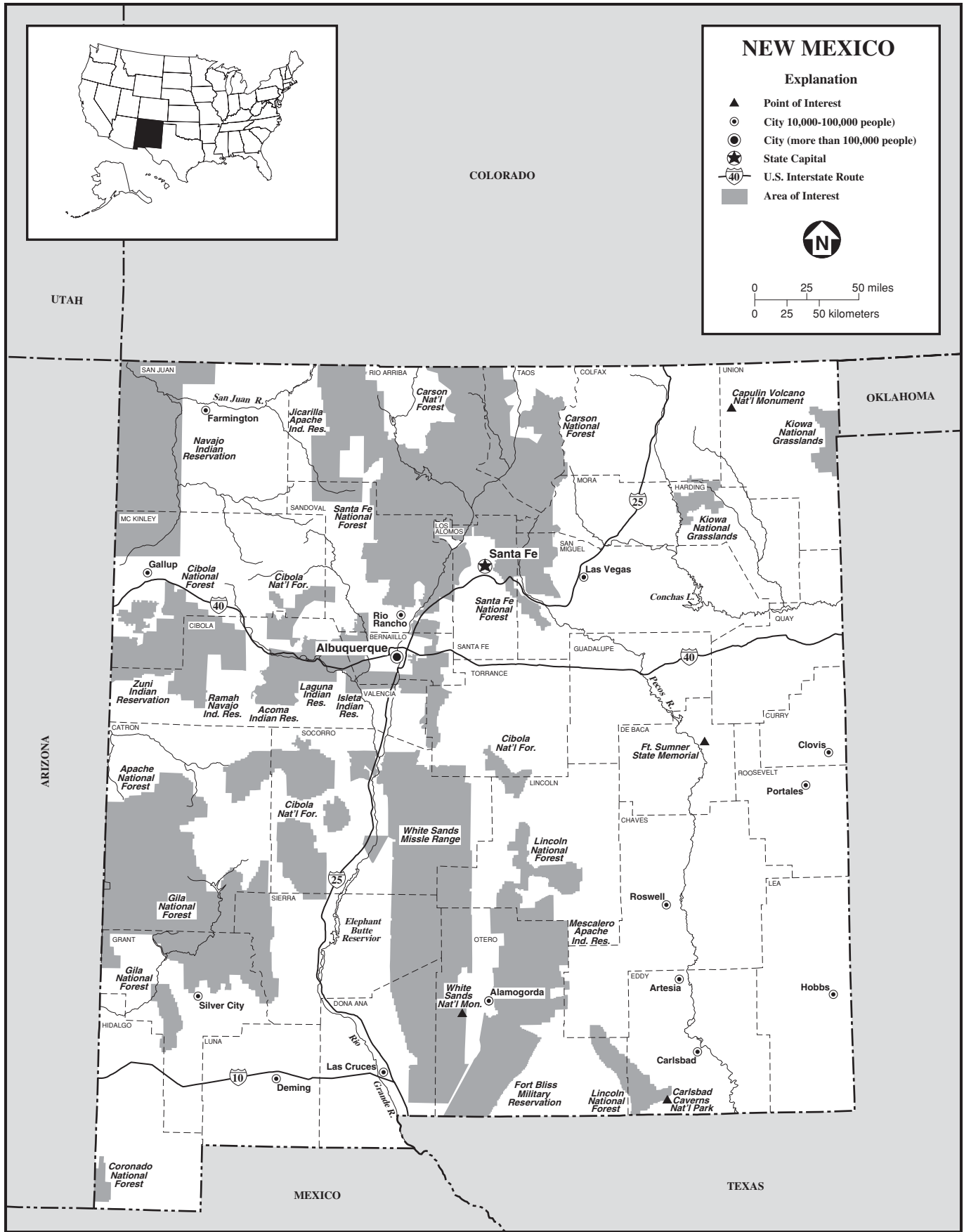
As of 2000, an estimated 19,255 Asians, 1,503 Pacific Islanders, and 34,343 black Americans lived in the state. In 2004, 2.4% of the state's population was black, 1.3% Asian, and 0.1% Pacific Islander. That year, 1.5% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

New Mexico has large Indian and Spanish-speaking populations. But just a few place-names, like Tucumcari and Mescalero, echo in English the presence of the Apache, Zuni, Navaho, and other tribes living there. Numerous Spanish borrowings include *vigas* (rafters) in the northern half, and *canales* (gutters) and *acequia* (irrigation ditch) in the Rio Grande Valley. New Mexico English is a mixture of dominant Midland, with some Northern features (such as *sick to the stomach*) in the northeast, and Southern and South Midland features such as *spoonbread* and *carry* (escort) in the eastern agricultural fringe.

In 2000, 1,072,947 New Mexicans—63.5% of the resident population five years of age and older—spoke only English at home, down slightly from 64.5% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over.



NEW MEXICO

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City 10,000-100,000 people
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- Ⓜ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 25 50 miles
0 25 50 kilometers

The category “Other Native North American languages” includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,689,911	100.0
Speak only English	1,072,947	63.5
Speak a language other than English	616,964	36.5
Speak a language other than English	616,964	36.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	485,681	28.7
Navajo	68,788	4.1
Other Native North American languages	26,880	1.6
German	7,871	0.5
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	4,332	0.3
Chinese	2,983	0.2
Vietnamese	2,523	0.1
Italian	1,931	0.1
Tagalog	1,603	0.1
Japanese	1,263	0.1
Korean	1,197	0.1
Arabic	980	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

The first religions in New Mexico were practiced by Pueblo and Navaho Indians. Franciscan missionaries arrived at the time of Coronado's conquest in 1540, and the first Roman Catholic church in the state was built in 1598. Roman Catholicism has long been the dominant religion, though from the mid-1800s there has also been a steady increase in the number of Protestants. The first Baptist missionaries arrived in 1849, the Methodists in 1850, and the Mormons in 1877.

The state's Roman Catholic churches had about 435,244 members in 2004. The next largest denomination is the Southern Baptist Convention, with 132,675 in 2000; 2,856 newly baptized members reported in 2002. In 2004, there were 39,865 United Methodists statewide. In 2000, there were 22,070 members of Assemblies of God, 18,985 members of Churches of Christ, and 13,224 Presbyterians (USA). The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints reported about 61,862 members in 123 congregations in 2006; the state's first Mormon temple was dedicated in Albuquerque in 2000. The Jewish population was estimated at 10,500 in 2000 and the Muslim congregations had 2,604 adherents. The same year, about 761,218 people (about 41.8% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Important early roads included El Camino Real, extending from Mexico City, Mexico, up to Santa Fe and the Santa Fe Trail, leading westward from Independence, Missouri. By 2004, New Mexico had 64,004 mi (103,046 km) of public roads and streets.

In 2004, some 1.539 million motor vehicles were registered in the state, of which around 681,000 were automobiles, approximately 820,000 were trucks of all types, some 36,000 were motorcycles, and about 2,000 were buses. In that same year, there were 1,271,365 licensed drivers in the state.

Rail service did not begin in New Mexico until 1879. New Mexico had 2,388 mi (3,844 km) of track in 2003, with Class I roads making up close to 94% of that total. The main rail lines serving the state are the Union Pacific and the Burlington Northern Santa Fe. As of 2006, Amtrak provided passenger service to five stations in New Mexico via its Chicago to Los Angeles Southwest

Chief train and via its New Orleans to Los Angeles train the Sunset Limited.

In 2005, New Mexico had a total of 176 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 150 airports, 25 heliports, and one seaplane base. Albuquerque International is the state's main airport. In 2004, the airport had 3,079,172 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

The earliest evidence of human occupation in what is now New Mexico, dating from about 20,000 years ago, has been found in Sandia Cave near Albuquerque. This so-called Sandia man was later joined by other nomadic hunters—the Clovis and Folsom people from the northern and eastern portions of the state, and the Cochise culture, which flourished in southwestern New Mexico from about 10,000 to 500 BC. The Mogollon people tilled small farms in the southwest from 300 BC to about 100 years before Columbus came to the New World. Also among the state's early inhabitants were the Basket Makers, a seminomadic people who eventually evolved into the Anasazi, or Cliff Dwellers. The Anasazi, who made their home in the Four Corners region (where present-day New Mexico meets Colorado, Arizona, and Utah), were the predecessors of the modern Pueblo Indians.

The Pueblo people lived along the upper Rio Grande, except for a desert group east of Albuquerque, who lived in the same kind of apartment-like villages as the river Pueblos. During the 13th century, the Navajo settled in the Four Corners area to become farmers, shepherders, and occasional enemies of the Pueblos. The Apache, a more nomadic and warlike group who came at about the same time, later posed a threat to all the non-Indians who arrived in New Mexico during the Spanish, Mexican, and American periods.

Francisco Vásquez de Coronado led the earliest major expedition to New Mexico, beginning in 1540, 80 years before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock. In 1598, Don Juan de Onate led an expedition up the Rio Grande, where, one year later, he established the settlement of San Gabriel, near present-day Espanola; in 1610, the Spanish moved their center of activity to Santa Fe. For more than two centuries, the Spaniards, who concentrated their settlements, farms, and ranches in the upper Rio Grande Valley, dominated New Mexico, except for a period from 1680 to about 1693, when the Pueblo Indians temporarily regained control of the region.

In 1821, Mexico gained its independence from Spain, and New Mexico came under the Mexican flag for 25 years. The unpopularity of government officials sent from Mexico City and the inability of the new republic to control the Apache led to the revolt of 1837, which was put down by a force from Albuquerque led by General Manuel Armijo. In 1841, as governor of the Mexican territory, Armijo defeated an invading force from the Republic of Texas, but he later made a highly controversial decision not to defend Apache Pass east of Santa Fe during the Mexican-American War, instead retreating and allowing US forces under the command of General Stephen Watts Kearny to enter the capital city unopposed on 18 August 1846.

Kearny, without authorization from Congress, immediately attempted to make New Mexico a US territory. He appointed the respected Indian trader Charles Bent, a founder of Bent's Fort on the Santa Fe Trail, as civil governor, and then led his army on to

California. After Kearny's departure, a Mexican and Indian revolt in Taos resulted in Bent's death; the suppression of the Taos uprising by another US Army contingent secured American control over New Mexico, although the area did not officially become a part of the United States until the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo ended the Mexican-American War in 1848.

New Mexico became a US territory as part of the Compromise of 1850, which also brought California into the Union as a free state. Territorial status did not bring about rapid or dramatic changes in the lives of those who were already in New Mexico. However, an increasing number of people traveling on the Santa Fe Trail—which had been used since the early 1820s to carry goods between Independence, Mo., and Santa Fe—were Americans seeking a new home in the Southwest. One issue that divided many of these new settlers from the original Spanish-speaking inhabitants was land. Native New Mexicans resisted, sometimes violently, the efforts of new Anglo residents and outside capital to take over lands that had been allocated during the earlier Spanish and Mexican periods. Anglo lawyers such as Thomas Benton Catron acquired unprecedented amounts of land from native grantees as payment of legal fees in the prolonged litigation that often accompanied these disputes. Eventually, a court of private land claims, established by the federal government, legally processed 33 million acres (13 million hectares) of disputed land from 1891 to 1904.

Land disputes were not the only cause of violence during the territorial period. In 1862, Confederate General Henry Hopkins Sibley led an army of Texans up the Rio Grande and occupied Santa Fe; he was defeated at Glorieta Pass in northern New Mexico by a hastily assembled army that included volunteers from Colorado and New Mexico and Union regulars, in a battle that has been labeled the Gettysburg of the West. The so-called Lincoln County War of 1878–81, a range war pitting cattlemen against merchants and involving, among other partisans, William H. Bonney (Billy the Kid), helped give the territory the image of a lawless region unfit for statehood.

Despite the tumult, New Mexico began to make substantial economic progress. In 1879, the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad entered the territory. General Lew Wallace, who was appointed by President Rutherford B. Hayes to settle the Lincoln County War, was the last territorial governor to enter New Mexico by stagecoach and the first to leave it by train.

By the end of the 19th century, the Indian threat that had plagued the Anglos, like the Spanish-speaking New Mexicans before them, had finally been resolved. New Mexicans won the respect of Theodore Roosevelt by enlisting in his Rough Riders during the Spanish-American War, and when he became president, he returned the favor by working for statehood. New Mexico finally became a state on 6 January 1912, under President William H. Taft.

In March 1916, irregulars of the Mexican revolutionary Pancho Villa crossed the international boundary into New Mexico, killing, robbing, and burning homes in Columbus. US troops under the command of General John J. Pershing were sent into Mexico on a long and unsuccessful expedition to capture Villa, while National Guardsmen remained on the alert in the Columbus area for almost a year.

The decade of the 1920s was characterized by the discovery and development of new resources. Potash salts were found near Carlsbad, and important petroleum reserves in the south-

east and northwest were discovered and exploited. Oil development made possible another important industry, tourism, which began to flourish as gasoline became increasingly available. This period of prosperity ended, however, with the onset of the Great Depression.

World War II revived the economy, but at a price. In 1942, hundreds of New Mexicans stationed in the Philippines were among the US troops forced to make the cruel "Bataan march" to Japanese prison camps. Scientists working at Los Alamos ushered in the Atomic Age with the explosion of the first atomic bomb at White Sands Proving Ground in June 1945.

The remarkable growth that characterized the Sunbelt during the postwar era has been noticeable in New Mexico. Newcomers from many parts of the country moved to the state, a demographic shift with profound social, cultural, and political consequences. Spanish-speaking New Mexicans, once an overwhelming majority, became a minority. As of the 2000 census, Hispanics accounted for 42% of the state's population, and Native Americans accounted for 9.5% of the population.

Defense-related industries have been a mainstay of New Mexico's economy in the postwar period. Income from this sector declined in the early 1990s due to reductions in military spending following the end of the Cold War. However, this decline was offset by New Mexico's diversification into nonmilitary production, including such high-tech projects as Intel's Rio Rancho plant, which, in the mid-1990s, was the world's largest computer-chip factory. Tourism also played a major role in New Mexico's economy through the 1990s, and the state remains a leading center of space and nuclear research.

Today New Mexico's leaders struggle with two persistent problems—poverty and crime. In 1998, with 20.4% of its residents living below the poverty level (the highest percentage in the nation), the state's children were found to be suffering. More than one in four children in New Mexico was poor, posing the immediate problems of hunger and malnutrition, lack of education, and a strain on the public health system as well as the long-term challenge to the juvenile justice system. Government figures in 1998 showed the state ranked as the most violent in the nation, with 961 crimes per 100,000 residents. New Mexico was one of four states (Louisiana, Mississippi, and Arkansas were the other three) with a poverty rate for 2002–04 (based on a three-year average) of over 17%. (New Mexico's rate was 17.5%.)

The state's public education system also posed a major issue in 2000, with the debate centering on proposed voucher legislation that would help parents pay for private schools. Opponents, including New Mexico's Democratic Party, argued in favor of legislation that would boost public schools instead—increasing teacher pay, reducing class sizes, and improving early childhood education.

Democratic Governor Bill Richardson, elected in 2002 by the largest margin of any candidate since 1964, came to the job with a long list of political credentials: former US Representative, UN ambassador, and Energy Secretary. He has been nominated several times for the Nobel Peace Prize. By 2005 he had made progress on such target issues as tax cuts, school reform, job creation, water projects, and efforts to combat drunk driving.

1² STATE GOVERNMENT

The constitution of New Mexico was drafted in 1910, approved by the voters in 1911, and came into effect when statehood was achieved in 1912. A new constitution drawn up by a convention of elected delegates was rejected by the voters in 1969. By January 2005, the 1912 document had been amended 151 times.

The legislature consists of a 42-member Senate and a 70-member House of Representatives. Senators must be at least 25 years old, qualified voters, and residents of their districts; they serve four-year terms. House members must be 21 years old, qualified voters, and residents of their districts; they serve two-year terms. The legislature meets every year, for 60 calendar days in odd-numbered years and 30 calendar days in even-numbered years. The legislature may call special sessions, limited to 30 calendar days, by petition of three-fifths of the members of each house. Legislators do not receive a salary from the state.

The executive branch consists of the governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, attorney general, and commissioner of public lands. They are elected for four-year terms; none may serve more than two successive terms. Candidates for governor must be 30 years old, US citizens, qualified voters, and residents of New Mexico for at least five years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$110,000. Three elected members of the Corporation Commission, which has various regulatory and revenue-raising responsibilities, serve six-year terms.

A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned by the governor for three days while the legislature is in session, or if passed over the governor's veto by two-thirds of the members present in each house. If the governor does not act on a bill after the legislature adjourns, the bill dies after 20 days.

In general, constitutional amendments must be approved by majority vote in each house and by a majority of the electorate. Amendments dealing with voting rights, school lands, and linguistic requirements for education can be proposed only by three-fourths of each house, and subsequently must be approved by three-fourths of the total electorate and two-thirds of the electorate in each county.

In order to vote in state elections, a person must be 18 years old, a US citizen, and a state resident. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

1³ POLITICAL PARTIES

Although Democrats hold a very substantial edge in voter registration—53% of registered voters to the Republicans' 33% as of 1998—New Mexico has been a "swing state" in US presidential elections since it entered the Union. Between 1948 and 1992, New Mexicans voted for Democratic presidential candidates four times and Republican presidential candidates eight times, choosing in every election except 1976 and 1992 the candidate who was also the presidential choice of voters nationwide. In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore beat Republican candidate George W. Bush by a mere 366 votes, out of approximately 615,000 cast statewide. In 2004, Bush won the state, with 50% of votes cast to 49% for Democratic challenger John Kerry. In 2004 there were 1,105,000 registered voters. The state had five electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

New Mexico's US senators in 2003 were Democrat Jeff Bingaman, elected in 2000 to his fourth term, and Republican Peter V. Domenici, who was elected to his sixth term in 2002. Following the 2004 elections, New Mexico's US House delegation consisted of two Republicans and one Democrat. As of mid-2005 there were 23 Democrats and 19 Republicans in the state Senate and 42 Democrats and 28 Republicans in the state House. Governor Bill

New Mexico Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	NEW MEXICO WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE
1948	4	*Truman (D)	105,240	80,303	1,037
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	105,435	132,170	225
CONSTITUTION					
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	106,098	146,788	364
1960	4	*Kennedy (D)	156,027	153,733	570
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	194,015	132,838	1,217
AMERICAN IND.					
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	130,081	169,692	25,737
AMERICAN					
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	141,084	235,606	8,767
SOC. WORKERS					
1976	4	Ford (R)	201,148	211,419	2,462
LIBERTARIAN					
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	167,826	250,779	4,365
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	201,769	307,101	4,459
1988	4	*Bush (R)	244,497	270,341	3,268
1992**	5	*Clinton (D)	261,617	212,824	1,615
1996**	5	*Clinton (D)	273,495	232,751	2,996
2000	5	Gore (D)	286,783	286,417	2,058
2004***	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	376,930	370,942	2,382

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 91,895 votes in 1992 and 32,257 votes in 1996.

***IND. candidate Ralph Nader received 4,053 votes in 2004.

Richardson, Democrat, was first elected in 2002. He had previously served as a US Representative, UN ambassador, and Energy Secretary under President Bill Clinton.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

There were 33 counties in New Mexico as of 2005. Each is governed by commissioners elected for two-year terms. Other county officers include the clerk, assessor, treasurer, surveyor, sheriff, and probate judge. Municipalities are incorporated as cities, towns, or villages. As of 2005, there were 101 municipalities, 89 public school districts, and 628 special districts.

The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 reaffirmed the right of Indians to govern themselves, adopt constitutions, and form corporations to do business under federal law. Indians also retain the right to vote in state and federal elections. Pueblo Indians elect governors from each pueblo to form a coalition called the All-Indian Pueblo Council. The Apache elect a tribal council headed by a president and vice-president. The Navajo—one-third of whom live in New Mexico—elect a chairman, vice-chairman, and council members from their reservation in New Mexico and Arizona.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 77,894 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in New Mexico operates under executive order; a special assistant to the governor is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Department of Transportation (until 2003 the State Highway Commission) supervises the state transportation system; with it is included the Division of Aviation.

Welfare services are provided through the Human Services Department. A related service agency is the Department of Indian Affairs. Health services are provided by the Department of Health. The various public protection agencies include the divisions of consumer protection, criminal appeals, civil, litigation, prosecutions and investigations, violence against women, and Medicaid fraud—all within the purview of the Attorney General's Office; the Department of Public Safety; the Department of Corrections; and the New Mexico State Police. Education is regulated by the Department of Education.

The state's natural resources are protected by the Department of Game and Fish, the Environment Department, the Energy Minerals and Natural Resources Department, and the Tourism Department.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

New Mexico's judicial branch consists of a supreme court, an appeals court, district courts, probate courts, magistrate courts, and other lesser courts as created by law.

The New Mexico Supreme Court is composed of a chief justice and four associate justices. The Appeals Court, created to take over some of the Supreme Court's caseload, is composed of 10 judges. All are elected for eight-year terms.

The state's 33 counties are divided into 13 judicial districts, served by 72 district judges, each elected for a six-year term. District courts have unlimited general jurisdiction and are commonly referred to as trial courts. They also serve as courts of review for

decisions of lower courts and administrative agencies. Each county has a probate court, served by a probate judge who is elected from within the county for a two-year term.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 6,379 prisoners were held in New Mexico's state and federal prisons, an increase from 6,223 of 2.5% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 581 inmates were female, up from 576 or 0.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), New Mexico had an incarceration rate of 318 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, New Mexico in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 687.3 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 13,081 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 79,895 reported incidents or 4,197.7 reported incidents per 100,000 people. New Mexico has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out only one execution, on November 6, 2001. As of 1 January 2006, New Mexico had only two inmates on death row.

In 2003, New Mexico spent \$71,574,810 on homeland security, an average of \$36 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 11,994 active-duty military personnel and 6,805 civilian personnel stationed in New Mexico, 6,523 of whom were in the Air Force. The major installations are Kirtland Air Force Base in the Albuquerque area, Holloman Air Force Base at Alamogordo, and White Sands Missile Range north of Las Cruces. Defense contract awards totaled more than \$1.07 billion in 2004, and payroll outlays were \$1.4 billion.

There were 180,172 veterans living in New Mexico in 2003. Of these, 22,349 served in World War II; 18,976 in the Korean conflict; 56,308 during the Vietnam era; and 28,154 served in the Persian Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in New Mexico amounted to \$686 million.

As of 31 October 2004, the New Mexico State Police employed 565 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Prior to statehood, the major influx of migrants came from Texas and Mexico; many of these immigrants spoke Spanish as their primary language.

Wartime prosperity during the 1940s brought a wave of Anglos into the state. New Mexico experienced a net gain through migration of 78,000 people during 1940–60, a net loss of 130,000 during the economic slump of the 1960s, and another net gain of 154,000 between 1970 and 1983. In the 1980s, New Mexico had a net gain from migration of 63,000 residents, accounting for 28% of the state's population increase during those years. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 55,000 in domestic migration and 36,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,199 foreign immigrants entered New Mexico. The state's overall population increased 14.6% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 27,974 and net internal migration was 9,527, for a net gain of 37,501 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

New Mexico participates in the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact; Interstate Compact for Juveniles; Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education; Western Interstate Corrections Compact; Western Interstate Nuclear Compact; compacts governing use of the Rio Grande and the Canadian, Costilla, Colorado, La Plata, and Pecos rivers; and other interstate agreements including the Cumbres and Toltec Scenic Railroad Compact. It is an associate member of the Interstate Mining Compact. In fiscal year 2005, New Mexico received \$3.018 billion in federal grants, an estimated \$3.070 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$3.142 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

New Mexico was primarily an agricultural state until the 1940s, when military activities assumed major economic importance. Currently, major industries include manufacturing, petroleum, and food. Tourism also continues to flourish. Major employers range from Wal-Mart, Intel, Kirtland Air Force Base, to Los Alamos National Laboratory, and Honeywell Inc. New Mexico's economy had an unusually large public sector, accounting for over 18% of total state product in 2001, compared to the state average of 12%. The state was relatively unaffected by both the boom of the late 1990s and the bust of 2001. In 1998 and 1999, the state posted anemic growth rates of 1.4% and 1.5%, and although this picked up to a strong 6.8% in 2000, growth continued at 5.4% in the recession year of 2001. The basis for the improvement—growth in general services, the government, transportation and utilities sector, and financial services offsetting steady losses in mining, manufacturing and construction—continued into 2002. As was true with the previous national recession in the early 1990s, New Mexico has not experienced net job losses.

New Mexico's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$61.012 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$7.105 billion or 11.6% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$5.446 billion (8.9% of GSP), and health care and social assistance services at \$4.107 billion (6.7% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 143,909 small businesses in New Mexico. Of the 42,241 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 40,611 or 96.1% were small companies. An estimated 5,683 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 3.2% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 5,592, down 3.1% from 2003. There were 727 business bankruptcies in 2004, down by 6.1% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 485 filings per 100,000 people, ranking New Mexico as the 27th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 New Mexico had a gross state product (GSP) of \$69 billion which accounted for 0.6% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 38 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 New Mexico had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$26,184. This ranked 48th in the United States and was 79% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of

PCPI was 4.0%. New Mexico had a total personal income (TPI) of \$49,827,505,000, which ranked 37th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.5% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.3%. Earnings of persons employed in New Mexico increased from \$34,637,098,000 in 2003 to \$37,209,628,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$37,587 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 17.5% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in New Mexico numbered 958,000, with approximately 41,100 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 824,800. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in New Mexico was 9.9% in April 1983. The historical low was 4% in March 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.9% of the labor force was employed in construction; 4.5% in manufacturing; 17.1% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.2% in financial activities; 11.4% in professional and business services; 13% in education and health services; 10.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 24.7% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 63,000 of New Mexico's 777,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 8.1% of those so employed, up from 6.7% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 83,000 workers (10.7%) in New Mexico were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. New Mexico is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, New Mexico had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.8% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

The first farmers of New Mexico were the Pueblo Indians, who raised corn, beans, and squash. Wheat and barley were introduced from Europe, and indigo and chiles came from Mexico.

In 2005, New Mexico's total farm marketings were \$2.67 billion. About 25% came from crops and 75% from livestock products. Leading crops included hay and wheat. In 2004, hay production was 1,365,000 tons, valued at \$163,900,000, and wheat production was 7,800,000 bushels, valued at \$24,570,000. The state also produced 10,440,000 bushels of corn for grain, and 594,000 hundred-weight of potatoes in 2004.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Meat animals, especially cattle, represent the bulk of New Mexico's agricultural income. In 2005, there were nearly 1.5 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.64 billion. In 2004, there were an estimat-

ed 2,500 hogs and pigs, valued at \$275,000 on New Mexico farms. During 2003, New Mexico farms and ranches produced around 7.6 million lb (3.4 million kg) of sheep and lambs which brought in a gross income of some \$7.7 million. The main stock-raising regions are in the east, northeast, and northwest.

25 FISHING

There is no commercial fishing in New Mexico. In 2004, the state issued 205,291 sport fishing licenses. The native cutthroat trout is prized by sport fishermen, however, and numerous species have been introduced into state lakes and reservoirs. The federal government sponsors two fish hatcheries and technology centers in New Mexico: in Dexter and Mora. The Dexter center is the only facility in the nation dedicated to studying and distributing endangered fish for restocking in waters where they naturally occur. The center works with 14 imperiled fish species including the razorback sucker, Colorado squawfish, Guzman beautiful shiner, bonytail chub, and the Yaqui catfish.

26 FORESTRY

Lumber production was 111 million board feet in 2002. Although lumbering ranks low as a source of state income, the forests of New Mexico are of crucial importance because of the role they play in water conservation and recreation.

In 2004, 16,680,000 acres (670,000 hectares), or more than 20% of New Mexico's land area, was forestland. Of the state total, 9,522,000 acres (3,854,000 hectares) were federally owned or managed, and 825,000 acres (334,000 hectares) were owned by the state. Privately owned lands accounted for 6,331,000 acres (2,562,000 hectares). Seven national forests covered 9 million acres (3.7 million hectares) in 2005, the largest of which was Gila National Forest, at 2.7 million acres (1.1 million hectares).

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by New Mexico in 2003 was \$533 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 5%. The USGS data ranked New Mexico as 25th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for almost 1.5% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, potash and copper, followed by construction sand and gravel, cement (portland and masonry), and crushed stone were the state's top nonfuel minerals by value. Collectively, these five commodities accounted for around 90% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. By volume, New Mexico in 2003, was the nation's leading producer of perlite, potash, and zeolites. The state also ranked third in copper, mica, and pumice output and fifth in molybdenum.

In 2003, preliminary data showed that New Mexico produced 85,000 metric tons of copper ore, valued at \$153 million, and 14 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel valued at \$68.6 million. Crushed stone output that same year totaled 3.9 million metric tons, with a value of \$25.2 million.

According to the state, the vast majority of the potash finds its way as a soil amendment in agriculture; the remainder is used in industry for such things as manufacturing television tubes, chinaware, soaps, and synthetic rubber.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, New Mexico had 34 electrical power service providers, of which eight were publicly owned and 21 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 894,309 retail customers. Of that total, 624,777 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 189,781 customers, while publicly owned providers had 79,747 customers. There were four federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 6.289 million kW, with total production that same year at 32.735 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 97.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 28.812 billion kWh (88%), came from coal-fired plants, with natural gas fueled plants in second place at 3.518 billion kWh (10.7%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 0.6% of all power generated, with hydroelectric generation and petroleum fired plants accounting for 0.5% and 0.2%, respectively.

New Mexico is a major producer of oil and natural gas, and has significant reserves of low-sulfur bituminous coal.

Most of New Mexico's natural gas and oil fields are located in the southeastern counties of Eddy, Lea, and Chaves, and in the northwestern counties of McKinley and San Juan. As of 2004, New Mexico had proven crude oil reserves of 669 million barrels, or 3% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 176,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked fifth (fourth excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and sixth (fifth excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 New Mexico had 27,389 producing oil wells and accounted for 3% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's Three refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 112,600 barrels per day.

In 2004, New Mexico had 38,574 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1,632.539 billion cu ft (46.36 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 18,512 billion cu ft (525.7 billion cu m).

New Mexico in 2004, had four producing coal mines, three of which were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 27,250,000 short tons, up from 26,389,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, surface mines accounted for 19,565,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 1.3 billion short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

More than 50% of the manufacturing jobs in the state are located in and around Albuquerque, in Bernalillo County. Other counties with substantial manufacturing activity include Santa Fe, San Juan, Otero, McKinley, and Dona Ana.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, New Mexico's manufacturing sector covered some 12 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$17.392 billion.

Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$9.714 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$1.669 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$796.981 million; nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing at \$437.260 million; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$416.578 million.

In 2004, a total of 32,927 people in New Mexico were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 22,821 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 9,352 with 5,410 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 3,875 employees (3,011 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing at 3,248 employees (2,229 actual production workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing with 2,519 employees (1,825 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that New Mexico's manufacturing sector paid \$1.343 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$512.917 million. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$128.635 million; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$90.758 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$83.089 million; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$79.082 million.

3⁰ COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, New Mexico's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$8.9 billion from 2,046 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,295 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 650 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 101 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$3.7 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$4.3 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$903.6 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, New Mexico was listed as having 7,227 retail establishments with sales of \$18.3 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (1,085); gasoline stations tied with clothing and clothing accessories stores (958 each); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (851); and food and beverage stores (639). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$4.7 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$3.3 billion; gasoline stations at \$2.09 billion; and food and beverage stores at \$2.02 billion. A total of 89,413 people were employed by the retail sector in New Mexico that year.

New Mexico's foreign exports totaled \$2.5 billion in 2005.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection in New Mexico is the responsibility of the Office of the Attorney General's Consumer Protection Division, which is authorized by the state's primary consumer law, the Unfair Practices Act, to provide a range of services designed to protect consumers and to resolve disputes between business and consumers. These services can involve the mediation of a dispute, educating the public on consumer issues, investigating suspicious

business activities, the proposing of legislation, and through the Attorney General's Office, the initiation of litigation.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and representing other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law. However, neither the Attorney General's office nor the Consumer Protection Division are authorized to act in a private capacity for an individual citizen.

The offices of the Consumer Protection Division are located in Santa Fe.

3² BANKING

New Mexico's first bank, the First National Bank of Santa Fe, was organized in 1870. After the turn of the century, banking establishments expanded rapidly in the state, mainly because of growth in the livestock industry.

As of June 2005, New Mexico had 57 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 25 state-chartered and 28 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Albuquerque market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 24 institutions and \$8.645 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 21.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$4.516 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 78.2% or \$16.230 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans was 1.23%, down from 1.58% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 4.65% in 2004, up from 4.50% in 2003.

Regulation of state-chartered banks and other financial institutions is the responsibility of the Financial Institutions Division.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, 679,000 individual life insurance policies were in force in the state, and their total value was about \$52.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$91.5 billion. The average coverage amount is \$77,700 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$297.2 million.

As of 2003, there were seven property and casualty and one life and health insurance company domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$2.3 billion. That year, there were 12,655 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$.4 billion. About \$654 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 42% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 30% were

covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 22% of residents were uninsured. New Mexico has the lowest percentage of employment-based insureds among the 50 states and the second-highest percentage of uninsured residents (following Texas). In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 18% for single coverage and 27% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.2 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$730.46.

The insurance industry is regulated by the State Insurance Board.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in New Mexico. In 2005, there were 290 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 490 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 23 publicly traded companies within the state, with over five NASDAQ companies and two NYSE listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 1,000 companies; PNM Resources (Albuquerque) ranked 785th in the nation with revenues of over \$2 billion, followed by Thornburg Mortgage (Santa Fe) at 951st in the nations with \$1.5 billion in revenues. Both companies are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The governor of New Mexico submits a budget annually to the legislature for approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs 1 July–30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$5.9 billion for resources and \$5.3 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to New Mexico were \$4.6 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, New Mexico was slated to receive: \$52 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help New Mexico provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; \$11.7 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help New Mexico fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is an 11% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$2.6 million for the site acquisition and design of a new replacement border station in Columbus.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, New Mexico collected \$4,471 million in tax revenues or \$2,319 per capita, which placed it 20th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.9% of the total, sales taxes 34.8%, selective sales taxes 13.7%, individual income taxes 24.3%, corporate income taxes 5.4%, and other taxes 20.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, New Mexico had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 1.7% to 5.3%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 4.8% to 7.6% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$840,068,000 or \$441 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state third-lowest nationally. Local governments collected \$786,994,000 of the total and the state government \$52,779,000.

New Mexico taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2.25%,

New Mexico—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	11,809,742	6,205.85
General revenue	9,798,429	5,148.94
Intergovernmental revenue	3,546,494	1,863.63
Taxes	4,001,780	2,102.88
General sales	1,443,300	758.43
Selective sales	595,140	312.74
License taxes	169,805	89.23
Individual income tax	1,007,248	529.29
Corporate income tax	138,196	72.62
Other taxes	648,091	340.56
Current charges	758,043	398.34
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,492,112	784.08
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,011,313	1,056.92
Total expenditure	11,024,686	5,793.32
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,031,473	1,593.00
Direct expenditure	7,993,213	4,200.32
Current operation	6,029,536	3,168.44
Capital outlay	447,139	234.97
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,011,307	531.43
Assistance and subsidies	341,021	179.20
Interest on debt	164,210	86.29
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,787,554	939.33
Total expenditure	11,024,686	5,793.32
General expenditure	10,013,379	5,261.89
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,031,473	1,593.00
Direct expenditure	6,981,906	3,668.89
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	3,813,208	2,003.79
Public welfare	2,492,564	1,309.81
Hospitals	487,280	256.06
Health	240,706	126.49
Highways	633,467	332.88
Police protection	111,883	58.79
Correction	254,639	133.81
Natural resources	173,372	91.10
Parks and recreation	59,457	31.24
Government administration	391,194	205.57
Interest on general debt	164,210	86.29
Other and unallocable	1,191,399	626.06
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	1,011,307	531.43
Debt at end of fiscal year	5,411,287	2,843.56
Cash and security holdings	33,923,425	17,826.29

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.25%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 91 cents per pack, which ranks 22nd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. New Mexico taxes gasoline at 18.9 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, New Mexico citizens received \$2.00 in federal spending, one of the highest rates in the nation.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Economic Development Department (EDD) promotes industrial and community development through such measures as tax-free bonds for manufacturing facilities; tax credits for investment and for job training, venture capital funds; and community development block grants. The state also seeks export markets for New Mexico's products and encourages use of the state by the film industry. Total incentives to employ 100 workers in a rural area, exporting most of the product, and investing at least \$15 million amounted to almost \$4 billion in 2000. The Economic Development Partnership, the biggest part of the Economic Development Department, focuses on business and community development. Separate divisions include International Trade, the Film Office, the Office of Science and Technology, and the New Mexico Office for Space Commercialization (NMOSC). In 2006, New Mexico targeted the following areas for economic development: aerospace, biotechnology, film, food processing, manufacturing, maquila suppliers, renewable energy, and technology.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.9 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 14.7 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 68.9% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester, this was the lowest rate for prenatal care in the nation. In 2004, approximately 84% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 181.1; cancer, 165.3; cerebrovascular diseases, 38.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 46.2; and diabetes, 31.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.9 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 9.6 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.3% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, New Mexico had 37 community hospitals with about 3,700 beds. There were about 166,000 patient admissions that year and 4.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,100 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,563. Also in 2003, there were about 81 certified nursing facilities in the state with 7,443 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 84.4%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 67.9% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. New Mexico had 238 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 579 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 832 dentists in the state.

About 26% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 13% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 22% of the state population was uninsured in 2004; this percentage ranked the state as second in the nation for uninsured residents, following Texas. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.4 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 32,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$220. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 240,637 persons (93,094 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$87.07 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$251.4 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. New Mexico's TANF program is called NM Works. In 2004, the state program had 46,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$79 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 303,610 New Mexico residents. This number included 180,860 retired workers, 29,700 widows and widowers, 42,150 disabled workers, 21,530 spouses, and 29,370 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.9% of the total state population and 89.6% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$892; widows and widowers, \$825; disabled workers, \$861; and spouses, \$421. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$408 per month; children of deceased workers, \$520; and children of disabled workers, \$249. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 51,656 New Mexico residents, averaging \$377 a month. An additional \$18,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 177 residents.

The state maintains the Carrie Tingley Crippled Children's Hospital in Truth or Consequences, the Miners' Hospital of New Mexico in Raton, and the New Mexico School for the Visually Handicapped in Alamogordo.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, New Mexico had an estimated 825,540 housing units, 711,827 of which were occupied; 69.3% were owner-occupied. About 37.6% of all housing units in New Mexico were built from 1970 to 1989. About 62.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes; about 16% were mobile homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common heating energy sources. It was estimated that 40,178 units lacked telephone service, 9,673 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 10,186 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.62 members.

In 2004, 12,600 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$110,788. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$935. Renters paid a median of \$546 per month. In September 2005, the state received

grants of over \$1.5 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$14.2 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 82.9% of New Mexicans age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 25.1% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in New Mexico's public schools stood at 320,000. Of these, 224,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 96,000 attended high school. Approximately 32.8% of the students were white, 2.4% were black, 52.5% were Hispanic, 1.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 11.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 318,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 338,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 5.7% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$2.8 billion. There were 22,416 students enrolled in 176 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in New Mexico scored 263 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 120,997 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 53.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 New Mexico had 42 degree-granting institutions including, 7 public four-year institutions, 20 public two-year institutions, and 6 nonprofit, private four-year institutions. The leading public schools are the University of New Mexico, with its main campus at Albuquerque, and New Mexico State University in Las Cruces.

42 ARTS

New Mexico Arts, the state arts commission, consists of 15 governor-appointed members and provides financial support for statewide art programs. In 2005, New Mexico Arts and other New Mexico arts organizations received 29 grants totaling \$1,194,567 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). State and private sources also contribute funding to the state's arts programs. New Mexico Arts has contributed funding to promote multicultural arts programs that reflect the Spanish and American Indian cultural influences of the area. The New Mexico Humanities Council was founded in 1972. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,640,966 for 13 state programs.

New Mexico is a state rich in Indian, Spanish, Mexican, and contemporary art. Major exhibits can be seen at the University of New Mexico Art Museum in Albuquerque, which as of 2006, holding close to 30,000 pieces was considered the largest fine art collection in the state. The city of Taos is an artists' colony of renown and is home to the Hardwood Museum of Art, established in 1923. The Hardwood Museum of Art's permanent collection focuses both on the multicultural heritage of the state as well as the city's influence on the development of American art.

The Santa Fe Opera, established in 1957, has become one of the nation's most distinguished regional opera companies. In 2006, the Santa Fe Opera celebrated its 50th anniversary with a Golden Anniversary Gala Weekend. The New Mexico Symphony Orches-

tra (also called the Albuquerque Symphony Orchestra, established in 1932) and the Orchestra Chorus present a variety of musical programs from classical to pops.

The Santa Fe Chamber Music Festival began in 1972. After the 2005 season the Open Arts Foundation decided to end its annual Santa Fe Jazz and International Music Festival.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In June 2001, New Mexico had 80 public library systems, with a total of 101 libraries, of which 21 were branches. The systems in that same year, had a combined total of 4,132,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a circulation of 7,716,000. The system also had 91,000 audio and 64,000 video items, 4,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and three bookmobiles. The largest municipal library is the Albuquerque Public Library, with over 1,235,211 volumes. The largest university library is that of the University of New Mexico, with 1,882,136 volumes. There is a scientific library at Los Alamos and a law library at Santa Fe. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$28,885,000 and included \$219,000 in federal grants and \$506,000 in state grants.

New Mexico has 109 museums. Especially noteworthy are the Maxwell Museum of Anthropology at Albuquerque; the Museum of New Mexico, Museum of International Folk Art, and Institute of American Indian Arts Museum, all in Santa Fe; and several art galleries and museums in Taos. Historic sites include the Palace of the Governors (1610), the oldest US capitol and probably the nation's oldest public building, in Santa Fe; Aztec Ruins National Monument, near Aztec; and Gila Cliff Dwellings National Monument, 44 mi (71 km) north of Silver City. A state natural history museum, in Albuquerque, opened in 1985.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

The first regular monthly mail service between New Mexico and the other US states began in 1849. In 2004, 91.4% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 939,091 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 53.9% of New Mexico households had a computer and 44.5% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 175,303 high-speed lines in New Mexico, 155,493 residential and 19,810 for business. In 2005 there were 5 major AM radio stations and 37 major FM stations. There were 9 major network television stations in 2005. The Albuquerque-Santa Fe area had 568,650 television households, 57% of which had cable in 1999. A total of 29,730 Internet domain names were registered in the state in 2000.

45 PRESS

The first newspaper published in New Mexico was *El Crepúsculo de la Libertad* (Dawn of Liberty), a Spanish-language paper established at Santa Fe in 1834. The *Santa Fe Republican*, established in 1847, was the first English-language newspaper.

In 2005, there were 9 morning, 9 evening, and 13 Sunday newspapers in the state. The leading dailies include the *Albuquerque Journal*, with a morning circulation of 107,306 (151,146 on Sundays); and the *Santa Fe New Mexican*, with a morning circulation of 24,667 (26,812 on Sundays).

La Herencia, (est. 1994) and *Tradición Revista* are magazines devoted to regional Hispanic history, art, and culture.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,570 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,121 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National organizations with headquarters in New Mexico include the National Association of Consumer Credit Administrators (Santa Fe), the American Indian Law Students Association, the American Holistic Medical Association, and Futures for Children, all located in Albuquerque.

The state is home to several organizations focusing on the rights and welfare of Native Americans. These include the National Indian Youth Council, the All Indian Pueblo Council, Gathering of Nations, the Inter-Tribal Indian Ceremonial Association, and the National Tribal Environmental Council.

Art and cultural organizations include the El Paso Symphony Orchestra Association, the Indian Arts and Crafts Association, the Institute of American Indian Arts, the New Mexico Art League, the New Mexico Ballet Company, the Wordcraft Circle of Native Writers and Storytellers, and Spanish Colonial Arts Society. Special interest and hobbyist organizations based in New Mexico include the 3HO Foundation (yoga) and the American Amateur Baseball Congress.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

The development of New Mexico's natural recreational resources has made tourism a leading economic activity. In May 2006, the governor declared a national tourism week to celebrate the achievement of \$5 billion in tourism revenue. An estimated 80,000 people employed in tourism. In 2002, the state hosted some 11.5 million travelers. About 28.6% of all trips were instate travel by residents, with 53% of visitors traveling from five states: Texas, Colorado, California, Arizona, and Oklahoma. The most popular vacation area was the Albuquerque-Sante Fe region (with 22.9% of all visitors), followed by Taos. Shopping, outdoor activities, and historical sites were the most popular attractions.

Hunting, fishing, camping, boating, and skiing are among the many outdoor attractions. Sandia Mountain is a popular ski destination. The state has a national park—Carlsbad Caverns—and 13 national monuments, among them Aztec Ruins, Bandelier, Capulin Mountain, Chaco Canyon, El Morro (Inscription Rock), Fort Union, Gila Cliff Dwellings, Gran Quivira, Pecos, and White Sands. In 1984, the US House of Representatives designated 27,840 acres (11,266 hectares) of new wilderness preserves in New Mexico's San Juan basin, including a 2,720-acre (1,100-hectare) "fossil forest." New Mexico has an annual hot air balloon festival, a summer opera season, and the famous Indian Corn Mart outdoor art festival. Santa Fe is known for its many art galleries. Taos has skiing and also Indian sacred sites.

48 SPORTS

New Mexico has no major professional sports teams, though Albuquerque does have a minor league baseball team, the Isotopes, in the Class-AAA Pacific Coast League. Thoroughbred and quarter-horse racing with pari-mutuel betting is an important spectator sport. Sunland Park, south of Las Cruces, has a winterlong

schedule. From May to August there is racing and betting at Ruidoso Downs, Sun Ray Park, and the Downs at Albuquerque.

The Lobos of the University of New Mexico compete in the Mountain West Conference, while the Aggies of New Mexico State University belong to the Big West Conference. New Mexico State finished third in the 1970 National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) basketball tournament.

Other annual sporting events include the Great Overland Windsail Race in Lordsburg in June, the Silver City RPCA Wild, Wild West Rodeo Week in Gila in June, and the International Balloon Fiesta in Albuquerque in October.

49 FAMOUS NEW MEXICANS

Among the earliest Europeans to explore New Mexico were Francisco Vasquez de Coronado (b.Spain, 1510–54) and Juan de Oñate (b.Mexico, 1549?–1624?), the founder of New Mexico. Diego de Vargas (b.Spain, 1643–1704) reconquered New Mexico for the Spanish after the Pueblo Revolt of 1680, which was led by Popé (d.1685?), a San Juan Pueblo medicine man. Later Indian leaders include Mangas Coloradas (1795?–1863) and Victorio (1809?–80), both of the Mimbrenño Apache. Two prominent native New Mexicans during the brief period of Mexican rule were Manuel Armijo (1792?–1853), governor at the time of the American conquest, and the Taos priest José Antonio Martínez (1793–1867).

Army scout and trapper Christopher Houston "Kit" Carson (b.Kentucky, 1809–68) made his home in Taos, as did Charles Bent (b.Virginia, 1799–1847), one of the builders of Bent's Fort, a famous landmark on the Santa Fe Trail. A pioneer of a different kind was Jean Baptiste Lamy (b.France, 1814–88), the first Roman Catholic bishop in the Southwest; his life inspired Willa Cather's novel *Death Comes for the Archbishop*. Among the more notorious of the frontier figures in New Mexico was Billy the Kid (William H. Bonney, b.New York, 1859–81); his killer was New Mexico lawman Patrick Floyd "Pat" Garrett (b.Alabama, 1850–1908).

Notable US senators from New Mexico were Thomas Benton Catron (b.Missouri, 1840–1921), a Republican who dominated New Mexico politics during the territorial period; Albert Bacon Fall (b.Kentucky, 1861–1944), who later, as secretary of the interior, gained notoriety for his role in the Teapot Dome scandal; Dennis Chavez (1888–1962), the most prominent and influential native New Mexican to serve in Washington; Carl A. Hatch (b.Kansas, 1889–1963), best known for the Hatch Act of 1939, which limited partisan political activities by federal employees; and Clinton P. Anderson (b.South Dakota, 1895–1975) who was also secretary of agriculture.

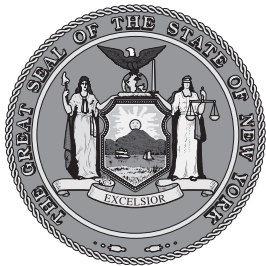
New Mexico has attracted many artists and writers. Painters Bert G. Phillips (b.New York, 1868–1956) and Ernest Leonard Blumenschein (b.Ohio 1874–1960) started the famous Taos art colony in 1898. Mabel Dodge Luhan (b.New York, 1879–1962) did much to lure the creative community to Taos through her writings; the most famous person to take up residence there was English novelist D. H. Lawrence (1885–1930). Peter Hurd (1940–84) was a muralist, portraitist, and book illustrator. New Mexico's best-known artist is Georgia O'Keeffe (b.Wisconsin, 1887–1986). Maria Povera Martínez (1887?–1980) was known for her black-on-black pottery.

Other prominent persons who have made New Mexico their home include rocketry pioneer Robert H. Goddard

(b.Massachusetts, 1882–1945), Pulitzer Prize-winning editorial cartoonist Bill Mauldin (1921–2003), novelist and popular historian Paul Horgan (b.New York, 1903–95), novelist N. Scott Momaday (b.Oklahoma, 1934), and golfer Nancy Lopez-Melton (b.California, 1957). Al Unser Sr., four-time winner of the Indianapolis 500, was born in Albuquerque, New Mexico, 29 May 1939.

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NEW YORK

State of New York

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for the Duke of York (later King James II) in 1664. **NICKNAME:** The Empire State. **CAPITAL:** Albany. **ENTERED UNION:** 26 July 1788 (11th). **SONG:** "I Love New York". **MOTTO:** *Excelsior* (Ever upward). **COAT OF ARMS:** Liberty and Justice stand on either side of a shield showing a mountain sunrise. Above the shield is an eagle on a globe. In the foreground are a three-masted ship and a Hudson River sloop, both representing commerce. Liberty's left foot has kicked aside a royal crown. Beneath the shield is the state motto. **FLAG:** Dark blue with the coat of arms in the center. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms surrounded by the words "The Great Seal of the State of New York." **BIRD:** Bluebird. **FISH:** Brook or speckled trout. **FLOWER:** Rose. **TREE:** Sugar maple. **GEM:** Garnet. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln's Birthday, 12 February, sometimes observed on the Friday closest to this date; Washington's Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; General Election Day, 1st Tuesday after the 1st Monday in November; Veterans' Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the northeastern United States, New York State is the largest of the three Middle Atlantic states and ranks 30th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of New York is 49,108 sq mi (127,190 sq km), of which land takes up 47,377 sq mi (122,707 sq km) and the remaining 1,731 sq mi (4,483 sq km) consist of inland water. New York's width is about 320 mi (515 km) E–W, not including Long Island, which extends an additional 118 mi (190 km) SW–NE; the state's maximum N–S extension is about 310 mi (499 km). New York State is shaped roughly like a right triangle: the line from the extreme NE to the extreme SW forms the hypotenuse, with New York City as the right angle.

Mainland New York is bordered on the NW and N by the Canadian provinces of Ontario (with the boundary line passing through Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River) and Quebec; on the E by Vermont (with part of the line passing through Lake Champlain and the Poultney River), Massachusetts, and Connecticut; on the S by the Atlantic Ocean, New Jersey (part of the line passes through the Hudson River), and Pennsylvania (partly through the Delaware River); and on the W by Pennsylvania (with the line extending into Lake Erie) and Ontario (through Lake Erie and the Niagara River).

Two large islands lie off the state's SE corner. Long Island is bounded by Connecticut (through Long Island Sound) to the N, Rhode Island (through the Atlantic Ocean) to the NE, the Atlantic to the S, and the East River and the Narrows to the W. Staten Island (a borough of New York City) is separated from New Jersey by Newark Bay in the N, Raritan Bay in the S, and Arthur Kill channel in the W, and from Long Island by the Narrows to the E. Including these two islands, the total boundary length of New York State is 1,430 mi (2,301 km). Long Island, with an area of 1,396 sq

mi (3,616 sq km), is the largest island belonging to one of the 48 coterminous states.

The state's geographic center is in Madison County, 12 mi (19 km) S of Oneida.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Two upland regions—the Adirondack Mountains and the Appalachian Highlands—dominate the topography of New York State.

The Adirondacks cover most of the northeast and occupy about one-fourth of the state's total area. The Appalachian Highlands, including the Catskill Mountains and Kittatinny Mountain Ridge (or Shawangunk Mountains), extend across the southern half of the state, from the Hudson River Valley to the basin of Lake Erie. Between these two upland regions, and also along the state's northern and eastern borders, lies a network of lowlands, including the Great Lakes Plain; the Hudson, Mohawk, Lake Champlain, and St. Lawrence valleys; and the coastal areas of New York City and Long Island.

The state's highest peaks are found in the Adirondacks: Mt. Marcy, 5,344 feet (1,629 meters), and Algonquin Peak, 5,114 feet (1,559 meters). The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,000 ft (305 m). Nestled among the Adirondacks are many scenic lakes, including Lake Placid, Saranac Lake, and Lake George. The region is also the source of the Hudson and Ausable rivers. The Adirondack Forest Preserve covers much of this terrain, and both public and private lakes are mainly for recreational use.

The highest peak in the Catskills is Slide Mountain, at 4,204 feet (1,281 meters). Lesser upland regions of New York include the Hudson Highlands, projecting into the Hudson Valley; the Taconic Range, along the state's eastern border; and Tug Hill Plateau, set amid the lowlands just west of the Adirondacks.

Three lakes—Erie, Ontario, and Champlain—form part of the state's borders. The state has jurisdiction over 594 sq mi (1,538 sq km) of Lake Erie and 3,033 sq mi (7,855 sq km) of Lake On-

tario. New York contains some 8,000 lakes; the largest lake wholly within the state is Oneida, about 22 mi (35 km) long, with a maximum width of 6 mi (10 km) and an area of 80 sq mi (207 sq km). Many smaller lakes are found in the Adirondacks and in the Finger Lakes region in west-central New York, renowned for its vineyards and great natural beauty. The 11 Finger Lakes themselves (including Owasco, Cayuga, Seneca, Keuka, Canadaigua, and Skaneateles) are long and narrow, fanning southward from a line that runs roughly from Syracuse westward to Geneseo. Sea level at the Atlantic Ocean is the lowest elevation of the state.

New York's longest river is the Hudson, extending from the Adirondacks to New York Bay for a distance of 306 mi (492 km). The Mohawk River flows into the Hudson north of Albany. The major rivers of central and western New York State—the Black, Genesee, and Oswego—all flow into Lake Ontario. Rivers defining the state's borders are the St. Lawrence in the north, the Poughkeepsie in the east, the Delaware in the southeast, and the Niagara in the west. Along the Niagara River, Niagara Falls forms New York's most spectacular natural feature. The falls, with an estimated mean flow rate of more than 1,585,000 gallons (60,000 hectoliters) per second, are both a leading tourist attraction and a major source of hydroelectric power.

About 2 billion years ago, New York State was entirely covered by a body of water that periodically rose and fell. The Adirondacks and Hudson River Palisades were produced by undersea volcanic action during this Grenville period. At about the same time, the schist and other crystalline rock that lie beneath Manhattan were formed. The Catskills were worn down by erosion from what was once a high, level plain. Glaciers from the last Ice Age carved out the inland lakes and valleys and determined the surface features of Staten Island and Long Island.

3 CLIMATE

Although New York lies entirely within the humid continental zone, there is much variation from region to region. The three main climatic regions are the southeastern lowlands, which have the warmest temperatures and the longest season between frosts; the uplands of the Catskills and Adirondacks, where winters are cold and summers cool; and the snow belt along the Great Lakes Plain, one of the snowiest areas of the United States. The growing (frost-free) season ranges from 100 to 120 days in the Adirondacks, Catskills, and higher elevations of the hills of southwestern New York to 180–200 days on Long Island.

Among the major population centers, New York City has an annual average temperature of 55°F (12°C), with a normal maximum of 63°F (17°C) and a normal minimum of 47°F (8°C). Albany has an annual average of 48°F (8°C), with a normal maximum of 58°F (14°C) and a normal minimum of 37°F (2°C). The average in Buffalo is 48°F (8°C), the normal maximum 57°F (13°C), and the normal minimum 40°F (4°C). The record low temperature for the state is -52°F (-47°C), recorded at Stillwater Reservoir in the Adirondacks on 9 February 1934 and at Old Forge on 18 February 1979; the record high is 108°F (42°C), registered at Troy on 22 July 1926.

Annual precipitation ranges from over 50 in (127 cm) in the higher elevations to about 30 in (76 cm) in the areas near Lake Ontario and Lake Champlain, and in the lower half of the Genesee River Valley. New York City has an average annual precipitation of 46.7 in (118 cm), with an average annual snowfall of 28 in

(71 cm); Albany receives an average annual precipitation of 35.7 in (90 cm); and Buffalo, 38.3 in (97 cm). In the snow belt, Buffalo receives 91 in (231 cm) of snow. Rochester averages 89 in (218 cm), and Syracuse 114 in (289 cm). New York City has fewer days of precipitation than other major populated areas (120 days annually, compared with 168 for Buffalo). Buffalo is the windiest city in the state, with a mean hourly wind speed of about 12 mph (19 km/hr). Tornadoes are rare, but hurricanes and tropical storms sometimes cause heavy damage to Long Island.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

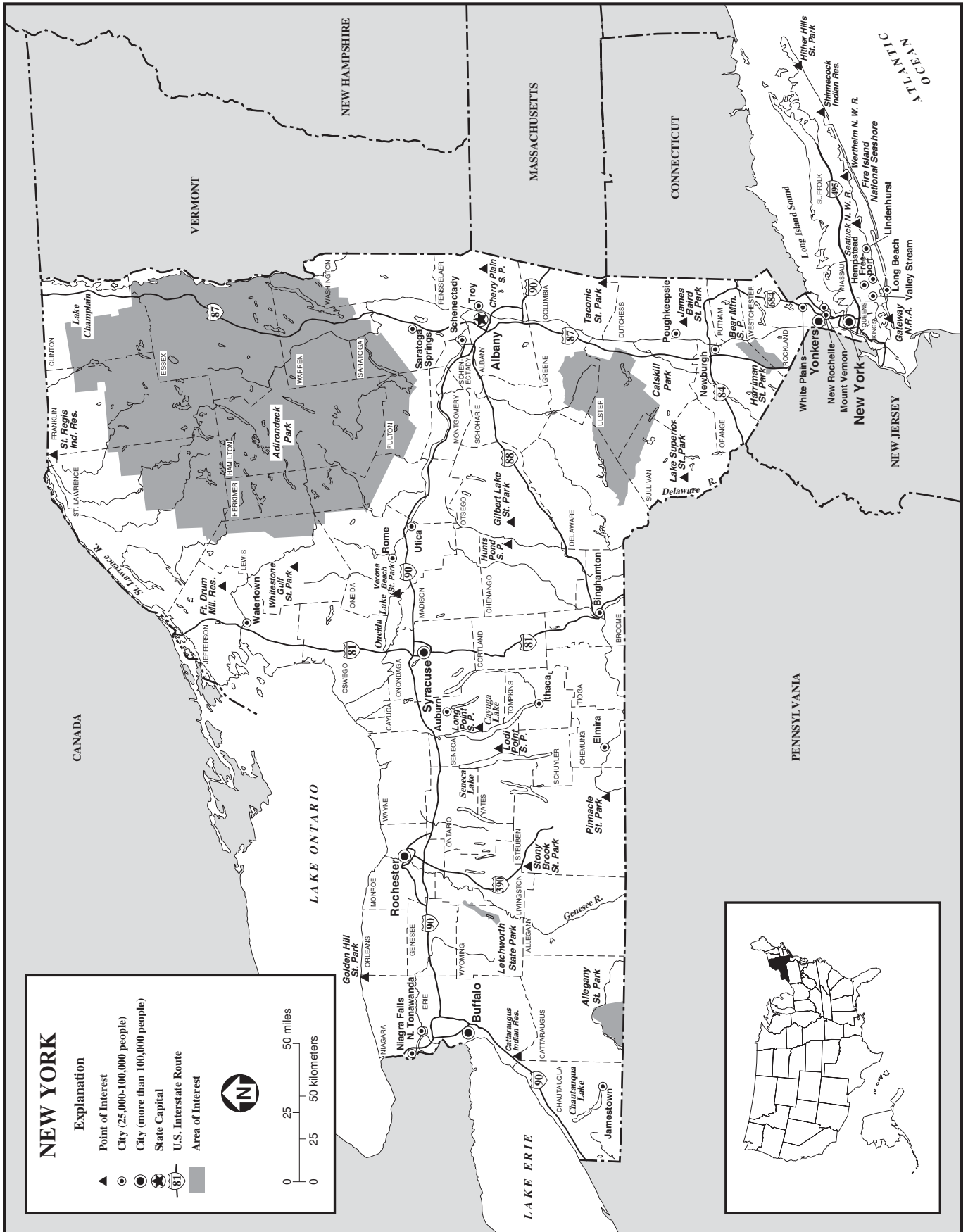
New York has some 150 species of trees. Post and willow oak, laurel magnolia, sweet gum, and hop trees dominate the Atlantic shore areas, while oak, hickory, and chestnut thrive in the Hudson and Mohawk valleys and the Great Lakes Plain. Birch, beech, basswood, white oak, and commercially valuable maple are found on the Appalachian Plateau and in the foothills of the Adirondack Mountains. The bulk of the Adirondacks and Catskills is covered with red and black spruce, balsam fir, and mountain ash, as well as white pine and maple. Spruce, balsam fir, paper birch, and mountain ash rise to the timberline while only the hardiest plant species grow above it. Larch, mulberry, locust, and several kinds of willow are among the many varieties that have been introduced throughout the state. Apple trees and other fruit-bearing species are important in western New York and the Hudson Valley.

Common meadow flowers include several types of rose (the state flower), along with dandelion, Queen Anne's lace, goldenrod, and black-eyed Susan. Wild sarsaparilla, Solomon's seal, Indian pipe, bunchberry, and goldthread flourish amid the forests. Cattails grow in profusion along the Hudson, and rushes cover the Finger Lakes shallows. Among protected plants are all species of fern, bayberry, lotus, all native orchids, five species of rhododendron (including azalea), and trillium. Five plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006, including the sandplain gerardia, American hart's tongue fern, and Leedy's roseroot.

Some 600 species of mammals, birds, amphibians, and reptiles are found in New York, of which more than 450 species are common. Mammals in abundance include many mouse species, the snowshoe hare, common and New England cottontails, woodchuck, squirrel, muskrat, and raccoon. The deer population has been estimated at as many as 500,000, making them a pest causing millions of dollars annually in crop damage. The wolverine, elk, and moose were all wiped out during the 19th century, and the otter, mink, marten, and fisher populations were drastically reduced; but the beaver, nearly eliminated by fur trappers, had come back strongly by 1940.

More than 260 bird species have been observed. The most common year-round residents are the crow, hawk, and several types of woodpecker. Summer visitors are many, and include the bluebird (the state bird). The wild turkey, which disappeared during the 19th century, was successfully reestablished in the 1970s. The house (or English) sparrow has been in New York since its introduction in the 1800s.

The common toad, newt, and several species of frog and salamander inhabit New York waters. Garter snakes, water snakes, grass snakes, and milk snakes are common; rattlesnakes formerly thrived in the Adirondacks. There are 210 known species of fish; 130 species are found in the Hudson, 120 in the Lake Ontario wa-


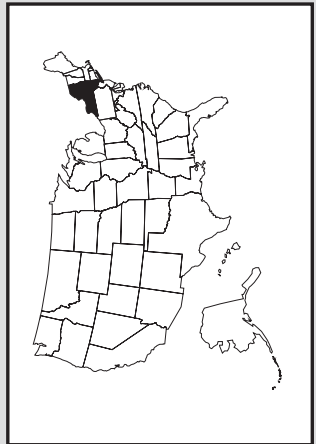


NEW YORK

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ⊙ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 25 50 miles
0 25 50 kilometers

tershed. Freshwater fish include species of perch, bass, pike, and trout (the state fish). Oysters, clams, and several saltwater fish species are found in Long Island Sound. Of insect varieties, the praying mantis is looked upon as a friend (since it eats insects that prey on crops and trees) while the gypsy moth has been singled out as an enemy in periodic state-run pest-control programs.

In April 2006, twenty animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were classified by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened or endangered, including the Indiana bat, Karner blue butterfly, piping plover, bald eagle, shortnose sturgeon, three species of whale, and five species of turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

New York was one of the first states to mount a major conservation effort. In the 1970s, well over \$1 billion was spent to reclaim the state from the ravages of pollution. State conservation efforts date back at least to 1885, when a forest preserve was legally established in the Adirondacks and Catskills. Adirondack Park was created in 1892, Catskill Park in 1904. Then, as now, the issue was how much if any state forestland would be put to commercial use. Timber cutting in the forest preserve was legalized in 1893, but the constitution of 1895 forbade the practice. By the late 1930s, the state had spent more than \$16 million on land purchases and controlled 2,159,795 acres (874,041 hectares) in the Adirondacks and some 230,000 acres (more than 93,000 hectares) in the Catskills. The constitutional revision of 1894 expressly outlawed the sale, removal, or destruction of timber on forestlands. That requirement was modified by constitutional amendment in 1957 and 1973, however, and the state is now permitted to sell forest products from the preserves in limited amounts.

All state environmental programs are run by the Department of Environmental Conservation (DEC), established in 1970. The department oversees pollution control programs, monitors environmental quality, manages the forest preserves, and administers fish and wildlife laws (including the issuance of hunting and fishing licenses). The state's national parks totaled 35,914 acres (14,534 hectares). State parks and recreational areas totaled 258,000 acres (104,000 hectares). Wetlands covered 2.5 million acres of the state as of 2000. About one-half of the 160 species identified as endangered or threatened by the Department of Environmental Conservation are wetlands-dependent.

The chief air-quality problem areas are Buffalo, where levels of particles (especially from the use of coke in steelmaking) are high, and New York City, where little progress has been made in cutting carbon monoxide emissions from motor vehicles. Despite air-quality efforts, acid rain has been blamed for killing fish and trees in the Adirondacks, Catskills, and other areas. In 1984, the legislature passed the first measure in the nation designed to reduce acid rain, calling for a cut of 12% in sulfur dioxide emissions by 1988 and further reductions after that. In 2000, the state legislature passed the Air Pollution Mitigation Law, which penalized New York utilities for selling sulfur dioxide allowances other states; the law was overturned in April 2002, when a federal district court ruled that the law both restricted interstate commerce and was preempted by the federal Clean Air Act. In 2003, 44 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

Before the 1960s, the condition of New York's waters was a national scandal. Raw sewage, arsenic, cyanide, and heavy metals

were regularly dumped into the state's lakes and rivers, and fish were rapidly dying off. Two Pure Waters Bond Acts during the 1960s, the Environmental Quality Bond Act of 1972, and a state fishery program have helped reverse the damage. The state has also taken action against corporate polluters, including a \$7-million settlement with General Electric over that company's discharge of toxic polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) into the Hudson. In addition, the state and federal government spent perhaps \$45 million between 1978 and 1982 on the cleanup of the Love Canal area of Niagara Falls, which was contaminated by the improper disposal of toxic wastes, and on the relocation of some 400 families that had lived there. Remaining problems include continued dumping of sewage and industrial wastes into New York Bay and Long Island Sound, sewage overflows into the Lower Hudson, industrial dumping in the Hudson Valley, nuclear wastes in West Valley in Cattaraugus County, and contamination of fish in Lake Erie. Toxic pollutants, such as organic chemicals and heavy metals, appear in surface and groundwater to an extent not yet fully assessed.

In 2003, New York had 485 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 86 of which were on the National Priorities List in 2006, including Brookhaven National Laboratory and General Motors Central Foundry Division in Massena. In 2006, New York ranked fourth in the nation for the highest number of sites on the National Priorities List, following New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and California. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$32 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$64.2 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and over \$4.8 million for projects to implement air pollution controls. Other EPA grants received that year included \$2.4 million for projects involved with the Long Island Sound Restoration Act and \$330,152 for the Lake Champlain Basin Program.

A 1982 law requires a deposit on beer and soft-drink containers sold in the state, to encourage return and recycling of bottles and cans.

6 POPULATION

New York is no longer the most populous state, having lost that position to California in the 1970 census. However, New York City remains the most populous US city, as it has been since at least 1790. New York state ranked third in population in the United States with an estimated total of 19,254,630 in 2005, an increase of 1.5% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, New York's population grew from 17,990,455 to 18,976,457, an increase of 5.5%. The population is projected to reach 19.5 million by 2015. New York's population density in 2004 was 407.2 persons per sq mi, the seventh-highest in the nation. In 2004, the median age for New Yorkers was 37.3, with nearly 23.8% of the populace under age 18 and 13% over 65.

First in the state as well as the nation in population was New York City, with 8,104,079 residents in 2004 (up from 7,323,000 in 1990). The growth of New York City has been remarkable. In 1790, when the first national census was taken, the city had 49,401 residents. By 1850, its population had boomed to 696,115; by 1900, to 3,437,202, double that of Chicago, the city's closest rival. Manhattan alone housed more people in 1900 than any city outside New York. In 1990, if Brooklyn, Queens, Manhattan, and the Bronx

had each been a separate city, they would still have ranked third, fourth, sixth, and seventh in the nation, respectively.

Other leading cities, with their estimated 2004 populations were Buffalo, 282,864; Rochester, 212,481; Yonkers, 197,126; and Syracuse, 143,101. All these cities have lost population since the 1970s. With 18,709,802 people in 2004 (down from 20,196,649 in 1999), the tri-state New York City metropolitan area remained the nation's largest; other major metropolitan areas included those of Buffalo-Niagara Falls, with an estimated 1,154,378 people, and Rochester, with 1,041,499. Albany, the state capital, had an estimated metropolitan population of 845,269 in 2004.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

During the 19th and 20th centuries, New York was the principal gateway for European immigrants. In the great northern migration that began after World War I, large numbers of blacks also settled there; more recently there has been an influx of Hispanics and Latinos and, to a lesser extent, of Asians. As of 2000, New York had the largest black and second-largest Asian population among the 50 states, and the second-highest percentage of foreign-born residents.

According to the US Bureau of the Census, New York had 82,461 Indians in 2000. In 1996, there were an estimated 16,014 Indians living on or adjacent to the reservations of the following seven tribes: the Cayuga, Oneida, Onondaga, Seneca, and Tuscarora nations, the St. Regis Mohawk Tribe, and the Tonawanda Band of

Senecas. In 2004, 0.5% of the state's population was American Indian or Alaskan Native.

Blacks have been in New York since 1624. All black slaves were freed by a state law in 1827. Rochester was a major center of the antislavery movement; Frederick Douglass, a former slave, settled and published his newspaper *North Star* there, while helping to run the Underground Railroad. After World War I, blacks moving into New York City displaced the Jews, Italians, Germans, and Irish then living in Harlem, which went on to become the cultural capital of black America. The black population of New York State was 3,014,385 as of 2000—15.9% of the state's population. That percentage had increased to 17.5% by 2004. In 2000, the black population of New York City alone was 2,129,762, larger than the black populations of all but four of the 50 states, and representing 26.6% of all city residents.

The population of Hispanics and Latinos as of 2000 was 2,867,583, or 15% of the state population. Of this total, New York City accounted for roughly 75%. Puerto Ricans in New York state numbered 1,050,293. Cubans, Dominicans, Colombians, Central Americans, and Mexicans are also present in growing numbers, including a large but undetermined number of illegal immigrants. In 2004, 16% of the state's population was Hispanic or Latino.

New York's Asian population is surpassed only by that of California. In 2000 it was estimated at 1,044,976, up from 694,000 in 1990. Pacific Islanders numbered 8,818. In 2000, state residents included 424,774 Chinese, 251,724 Asian Indians (up from 80,430

New York—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Albany	Albany	584	297,414	Oneida	Utica	1,819	234,105
Allegany	Belmont	1,032	50,602	Onondaga	Syracuse	785	458,053
Bronx	Bronx	42	1,357,589	Ontario	Canandaigua	644	104,461
Broome	Binghamton	712	196,947	Orange	Goshen	826	372,893
Cattaraugus	Little Valley	1,306	82,502	Orleans	Albion	391	43,387
Cayuga	Auburn	695	81,454	Oswego	Oswego	954	123,373
Chautauqua	Mayville	1,064	136,409	Otsego	Cooperstown	1,004	62,746
Chemung	Elmira	411	89,512	Putnam	Carmel	231	100,507
Chenango	Norwich	897	51,755	Queens	Queens	109	2,241,600
Clinton	Plattsburgh	1,043	82,047	Rensselaer	Troy	655	155,251
Columbia	Hudson	628	63,622	Richmond	Staten Island	59	464,573
Cortland	Cortland	500	48,622	Rockland	New City	175	292,916
Delaware	Delhi	1,440	47,534	St. Lawrence	Canton	2,728	111,380
Dutchess	Poughkeepsie	804	294,849	Saratoga	Ballston Spa	810	214,859
Erie	Buffalo	1,046	930,703	Schenectady	Schenectady	206	149,078
Essex	Elizabethtown	1,806	38,676	Schoharie	Schoharie	624	32,277
Franklin	Malone	1,648	51,033	Schuyler	Watkins Glen	329	19,342
Fulton	Johnstown	497	55,625	Seneca	Waterloo	327	34,855
Genesee	Batavia	495	59,257	Steuben	Bath	1,396	98,632
Greene	Catskill	648	49,682	Suffolk	Riverhead	911	1,474,927
Hamilton	Lake Pleasant	1,721	5,228	Sullivan	Monticello	976	76,539
Herkimer	Herkimer	1,416	63,780	Tioga	Owego	519	51,475
Jefferson	Watertown	1,273	116,384	Tompkins	Ithaca	477	100,018
Kings	Brooklyn	70	2,486,235	Ulster	Kingston	1,131	182,693
Lewis	Lowville	1,283	26,571	Warren	Town of Queensbury*	882	65,548
Livingston	Genesee	633	64,205	Washington	Hudson Falls**	836	63,024
Madison	Wampsville	656	70,337	Wayne	Lyons	605	93,609
Monroe	Rochester	663	733,366	Westchester	White Plains	438	940,807
Montgomery	Fonda	404	48,968	Wyoming	Warsaw	595	42,693
Nassau	Mineola	287	1,333,137	Yates	Penn Yan	339	24,756
New York	New York	22	1,593,200	TOTALS		48,033	19,254,630
Niagara	Lockport	526	217,008				

a decade earlier), 119,846 Koreans, 81,681 Filipinos, 37,279 Japanese, and 23,818 Vietnamese (up from 12,116 in 1990). New York City has the second-largest Chinatown in the United States. In 2004, 6.5% of the state's population was Asian.

In 2000 there were 3,868,133 foreign-born New Yorkers (20.4% of the total state population), a million more than there had been in 1990 (2,851,861, or 15.8%) and more than any other state except California. Among persons who reported at least one specific ancestry group, 2,122,620 named German; 2,737,146 Italian; 2,454,469 Irish; 1,140,036 English; 986,141 Polish; and 460,261 Russian. These figures do not distinguish the large numbers of European Jewish immigrants who would identify themselves as Jews rather than by their country of origin.

The ethnic diversity of the state is reflected in such Manhattan neighborhoods as Harlem, Chinatown, Little Italy, and "Spanish," or East, Harlem, with its large Puerto Rican concentration. Many of the more successful ethnics have moved to the suburbs; on the other hand, new immigrants still tend to form ethnic communities, often in the outer boroughs, such as Asians and South Americans in certain parts of Queens and Russian Jews in south Brooklyn. Outside New York City there are also important ethnic enclaves in the Buffalo metropolitan area, with its large populations of Polish and Italian origin.

⁸LANGUAGES

Just as New York for three centuries has channeled immigrant speakers of other languages into the English-speaking population, so it has helped to channel some of their words into English, with much more rapid dissemination because of the concentration of publishing and communications industries in New York City.

Little word-borrowing followed contacts by European settlers with the unfriendly Iroquois, who between the 14th and 17th centuries had dispersed the several Algonkian tribes of Montauk, Delaware, and Mahican Indians. In New York State, the effect on English has been almost entirely the adoption of such place-names as Manhattan, Adirondack, Chautauqua, and Skaneateles.

Although the speech of metropolitan New York has its own characteristics, in the state as a whole the Northern dialect predominates. New York State residents generally say /hahg/ and /fahg/ for *hog* and *fog*, /krik/ for *creek*, *greasy* with an /s/ sound, and *half* and *path* with the vowel of *cat*. They keep the /r/ after a vowel, as in *far* and *cord*; sharply differentiate *horse* and *hoarse* by pronouncing the former with the vowel of *haw* and the latter with the vowel of *hoe*; and call a clump of hard maples a *sugarbush*.

There are many regional variations. In the Hudson Valley, *horse* and *hoarse* tend to be pronounced alike, and a sugarbush is called a *sap bush*. In the eastern sector, New England *piazza* for porch and *buttonball* for sycamore are found, as is the Hudson Valley term *nightwalker* for a large earthworm. In the Niagara peninsula, Midland *eavespout* (gutter) and *bawl* (how a calf sounds) have successfully moved north from Pennsylvania to invade Northern speech. In the North Country, some Canadian influence survives in *stook* (shock), *boodan* (liver sausage), and *shivaree* (wedding celebration). In the New York City area, many speakers pronounce *bird* almost as if it were /boyd/, do not sound the /h/ in *whip* or the /r/ after a vowel—although the trend now is toward the /r/ pronunciation—may pronounce initial /th/ almost like /t/ or /d/, *stand on line* (instead of in a line) while waiting to buy a huge sandwich

they call a *hero* and may even pronounce *Long Island* with an inserted /g/ as /long giland/. From the high proportion of New York Yiddish speakers (nearly 40% of all those in the United States in 1990) have come such terms as *schlock*, *schmaltz*, and *chutzpah*.

Serious communication problems have arisen in New York City, especially in the schools, because of the major influx since World War II of Spanish speakers from the Caribbean region, speakers of so-called black English from the South, and, more recently, Asians, in addition to the ever-present large numbers of speakers of other languages. As a result, schools in some areas have emphasized teaching English as a second language.

According to the 2000 census, 72% of all New Yorkers five years of age or older spoke only English at home, down from 76.7% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	17,749,110	100.0
Speak only English	12,786,189	72.0
Speak a language other than English	4,962,921	28.0
Speak a language other than English	4,962,921	28.0
Spanish or Spanish Creole	2,416,126	13.6
Chinese	374,627	2.1
Italian	294,271	1.7
Russian	218,765	1.2
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	180,809	1.0
French Creole	114,747	0.6
Yiddish	113,514	0.6
Polish	111,730	0.6
Korean	102,105	0.6
Other Indic languages	97,212	0.5
German	92,709	0.5
Greek	86,659	0.5
Arabic	69,959	0.4
Hebrew	67,675	0.4
Tagalog	65,506	0.4
Other Indo-European languages	61,128	0.3
African languages	54,271	0.3
Other Asian languages	53,400	0.3
Urdu	52,448	0.3
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	41,378	0.2
Hindi	41,151	0.2
Other Slavic languages	39,619	0.2
Japanese	34,569	0.2
Serbo-Croatian	31,553	0.2
Persian	25,975	0.1
Vietnamese	20,249	0.1
Hungarian	18,421	0.1
Gujarati	16,908	0.1
Other West Germanic languages	13,415	0.1
Scandinavian languages	11,974	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Before the 1800s, Protestant sects dominated the religious life of New York, although religion did not play as large a role in the public life of New Netherland as it did in New England, with its Puritan population. The first Jews were permitted by the Dutch to settle in New Amsterdam in 1654, but their numbers remained small for the next 200 years. Both the Dutch and later the English forbade the practice of Roman Catholicism. Full religious freedom was not permitted until the constitution of 1777, and there was no Roman Catholic church in upstate New York until 1797. During the early 19th century, Presbyterian, Methodist, Universalist, Baptist, and Quaker pioneers carried their faith westward across the state. Many Protestant churches took part enthusiastically in the abolitionist movement, and the blacks who fled northward out of slavery formed their own Protestant churches and church organizations.

For Roman Catholics and Jews, the history of the 19th century is the story of successive waves of immigration: Roman Catholics first from Ireland and Germany, later from Italy and Poland, Jews first from Germany, Austria, and England, later (in vast numbers) from Russia and other Eastern European nations. The Jews who settled in New York City tended to remain there, the Roman Catholic immigrants were more dispersed throughout the state, with a large German and Eastern European group settling in Buffalo. Irish Catholics were the first group to win great political influence, but since World War II, Jews and Italian Catholics have played a leading role, especially in New York City.

As of 2004, New York had 7,761,801 Roman Catholics, representing about 41% of the total population. About 2,521,087 Roman Catholics were members of the New York Archdiocese. In 2000, there were 1,653,870 adherents of Jewish congregations. Membership of leading Protestant denominations in 2000 included United Methodists, 403,362; Episcopalians, 201,797; Presbyterians (USA), 162,227; and Evangelical Lutherans, 169,329. About 39.6% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints has reported a fairly strong and steady growth in membership over the past decade. In 1990, membership was reported at 29,997; in 2000 membership grew to 44,987. In 2006, statewide membership was reported at 69,682 in 151 congregations. Three Mormon temples have been established in the state: Harrison (est. 1995), Palmyra (est. 2000), and Manhattan (est. 2004).

Because of diversified immigration, New York City has small percentages but significant numbers of Buddhists, Muslims, Hindus, and Orthodox Christians. There were about 223,968 members of Muslim congregations. Though exact membership numbers were not available, there were about 121 Buddhist congregations and 83 Hindu congregations statewide. There is also a wide variety of religious-nationalist sects and cults, including the World Community of Islam in the West, also called the Nation of Islam (Black Muslims), the Hare Krishna group, and the Unification Church of the Reverend Sun Myung Moon.

The National Council of Churches, founded in 1950 and based in New York City, is one of the leading Christian ecumenical organizations in the country, representing over 45 million people in over 100,000 local congregations. The World Council of Churches, the largest international Christian ecumenical organization, has its US offices in New York City. New York City also serves as the

home base for a number of national Jewish organizations, including the American Board of Rabbis—Vaad Harabonim of America, the American Jewish Congress, the Rabbinical Council of America, and the American Sephardi Federation. Opus Dei, a conservative Catholic organization with about 87,000 members worldwide, has its US headquarters in New York City; the organization gained controversial attention in 2006 based on its mention in *The Da Vinci Code*, a movie and best-selling novel by Dan Brown.

10 TRANSPORTATION

New York City is a major transit point for both domestic and international passenger and freight traffic. The Port of New York and New Jersey is among the nation's busiest harbors; New York City hosts two major airports, Kennedy International and La Guardia, both in Queens. New York City is connected with the rest of the state by an extensive network of good roads, although road and rail transport within the metropolitan region is sagging with age.

The first railroad in New York State was the Mohawk and Hudson, which made its initial trip from Albany to Schenectady on 9 August 1831. A series of short inter-city rail lines, built during the 1830s and 1840s, were united into the New York Central in 1853. Cornelius Vanderbilt gained control of the New York Central in 1867 and by 1873 had connected New York with Chicago. Under Vanderbilt and his son William, rail links were also forged between New York and Boston, Buffalo, Montreal, and western Pennsylvania.

The height of the railroads' power and commercial importance came during the last decades of the 19th century. After World War I, road vehicles gradually replaced the railroads as freight carriers. In 2003, New York had 4,879 mi (7,855 km) of track. In the same year, there were two Class I lines, in addition to two Canadian lines, four regional, 20 local, and seven switching and terminal railroads operating within the state.

The decline in freight business, and the railroads' inability to make up the loss of passenger traffic, led to a series of reorganizations and failures, of which the best known is the merger of the New York Central with the Pennsylvania Railroad, and the subsequent bankruptcy of the Penn Central. Today, much of New York's rail network is operated by either CSX or the Norfolk Southern. The National Railroad Passenger Corporation (Amtrak) owns and operates lines along the eastern corridor from Boston through New York City to Washington, DC. Regularly scheduled daily trains are operated through New York State, stopping at 25 stations. New York City's Penn Station is the busiest station in the entire Amtrak system. The Long Island Railroad, an important commuter carrier, is run by the Metropolitan Transportation Authority (MTA), which also operates the New York City subways. Construction of the New York City subway system began in 1900, with service starting on 27 October 1904. The route network is about 230 mi (370 km) long, of which 137 mi (220 km) are underground.

The only other mass-transit rail line in the state is Buffalo's 6.4 mi (10.3 km) light rail system, of which 5.2 mi (8.4 km) is underground. In 1984, regular trolley service resumed in Buffalo for the first time since 1950 on the other 1.2 mi (1.9 km) of track, running through the downtown shopping district. Among cities served by municipal, county, or metropolitan-area bus systems are Albany, Binghamton, Buffalo, Elmira, and Syracuse.

In 2004, there were some 11.048 million motor vehicles registered in New York State, including around 8.468 million automobiles, some 25,000 buses, and about 2.386 million trucks of all types. In addition, around 169,000 motorcycles were also registered as of that same year. The state in 2004, had 113,341 mi (182,479 km) of public roads and highways. The major toll road, and the nation's longest toll superhighway, is the Thomas E. Dewey Thruway, operated by the New York State Thruway Authority, which extends 559 mi (900 km) from just outside New York City to Buffalo and the Pennsylvania border in southwestern New York. Toll-free expressways include the Adirondack Northway (I-87), from Albany to the Canadian border, and the North-South Expressway (I-81), from the Canadian to the Pennsylvania border.

A number of famous bridges and tunnels connect the five boroughs of New York City with each other and with New Jersey. The Verrazano-Narrows Bridge, opened to traffic in 1964, spans New York Harbor between Brooklyn and Staten Island. Equally famous, and especially renowned for their beauty, are the Brooklyn Bridge (1883), the city's first suspension bridge, and the George Washington Bridge (1931). The Holland (1927) and Lincoln (1937-57) tunnels under the Hudson River link Manhattan with New Jersey. Important links among the five boroughs include the Triborough Bridge, Manhattan Bridge, Williamsburg Bridge, Queensboro Bridge, Bronx-Whitestone Bridge, Throgs Neck Bridge, Brooklyn-Battery Tunnel, and Queens-Midtown Tunnel. The Staten Island Ferry conveys passengers and autos between the borough and lower Manhattan.

Until the early 1800s, almost all the state's trade moved on the Atlantic Ocean, Hudson River, and New York Bay. This waterway transportation system was expanded starting in the 1820s. Off the Hudson, one of the country's major arteries, branched the main elements of the New York Barge Canal System: the Erie Canal, linking the Atlantic with Lake Erie, and New York City with Buffalo; the Oswego Canal, connecting the Erie Canal with Lake Ontario; the Cayuga and Seneca Canal, connecting the Erie Canal with Cayuga and Seneca lakes; and the Champlain Canal, extending the state's navigable waterways from the Hudson to Lake Champlain, and so to Vermont and Quebec Province. By 1872, New York's canal system was carrying over 6 million tons of cargo per year; however, an absolute decline in freight tonnage began after 1890 (the relative decline had begun 40 years earlier, with the rise of the railroads). By the mid-1980s, the canals carried less than 10% of the tonnage for 1880.

Buffalo, on Lake Erie, is the most important inland port. In 2004, it handled 1.592 million tons of cargo. Albany, the major port on the Hudson, handled 7.450 million tons of cargo, and Port Jefferson, on Long Island Sound, handled 2.398 million tons in 2004. In that same year, New York had 394 mi (634 km) of navigable inland waterways. Waterborne shipments in 2003 totaled 99.406 million tons.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the historic and economic importance of New York Harbor—haven for explorers, point of entry for millions of refugees and immigrants, and the nation's greatest seaport until recent years, when it was surpassed by Greater New Orleans and Houston in terms of cargo tonnage. Harbor facilities, including those of Bayonne, Jersey City, and Newark, New Jersey, add up to 755 mi (1,215 km) of frontage, with some 700 piers and wharves. The entire port is under the jurisdiction of the Port Au-

thority of New York and New Jersey. In 2004, it handled 152.377 million tons of cargo. In the mid-1990s, the port was served by 1,000 trucking companies, 80 steamship lines, and 12 intermodal rail terminals.

In 2005, the state of New York had a total of 582 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 397 airports, 167 heliports, and 18 seaplane bases. By far the busiest airports in the state are John F. Kennedy International (18,586,863 passengers enplaned in 2004) and La Guardia (12,312,561 passengers enplaned in 2004), both in New York City, and making them the 8th- and 20th-busiest airports in the United States, respectively. Buffalo Niagara International Airport was the state's largest airport outside of New York City, with 2,206,385 passengers enplaned in 2004.

11 HISTORY

The region now known as New York State has been inhabited for about 10,000 years. The first Indians probably came across the Bering Strait and most likely reached New York via the Niagara Peninsula. Remains have been found in southwestern New York of the Indians called Mound Builders (for their practice of burying their dead in large mounds), who cultivated food crops and tobacco. The Mound Builders were still living in the state well after AD 1000, although by that time most of New York was controlled by later migrants of the Algonkian linguistic group. These Algonkian tribes included the Mahican in the northeast, the Wappinger in the Hudson Valley and on Long Island, and the Leni-Lenape (or Delaware) of the Delaware Valley.

Indians of the Iroquoian language group invaded the state from the north and west during the early 14th century. In 1570, after European explorers had discovered New York but before the establishment of any permanent European settlements, the main Iroquois tribes—the Onondaga, Oneida, Seneca, Cayuga, and Mohawk—established the League of the Five Nations. For the next 200 years, members of the League generally kept peace among themselves but made war on other tribes, using not only traditional weapons but also the guns they were able to get from the French, Dutch, and English. In 1715, a sixth nation joined the League—the Tuscarora, who had fled the British in North Carolina. For much of the 18th century, the Iroquois played a skillful role in balancing competing French and British interests.

The first European known to have entered New York Harbor was the Florentine navigator Giovanni da Verrazano, on 17 April 1524. The Frenchman Samuel de Champlain began exploring the St. Lawrence River in 1603. While Champlain was aiding the Huron Indians in their fight against the League in 1609, the English mariner Henry Hudson, in the service of the Dutch East India Company, entered New York Bay and sailed up the river that would later bear his name, reaching about as far as Albany. To the Dutch the area did not look especially promising, and there was no permanent Dutch settlement until 1624, three years after the Dutch West India Company had been founded. The area near Albany was first to be settled. The Dutch were mainly interested in fur trading and agriculture in the colony—named New Netherland—was slow to develop. New Amsterdam was founded in 1626, when Director-General Peter Minuit bought Manhattan (from the Indian word *manahatin*, “hill island”) from the Indians for goods worth—as tradition has it—about \$24.

New Amsterdam grew slowly, and by 1650 had no more than 1,000 people. When the British took over New Netherland in 1664, only 8,000 residents lived in the colony. Already, however, the population was remarkably diverse: there were the Dutch and English, of course, but also French, Germans, Finns, Swedes, and Jews, as well as black slaves from Angola. The Swedes lived in what had been New Sweden, a territory along the Delaware River ceded to the Netherlands during the administration of Peter Stuyvesant. Equally famed for his wooden leg and his hot temper, Stuyvesant had become director general of the New Netherland colony in 1647. Three years later, after skirmishes with the English settlers of New England, the colony gave up all claims to the Connecticut Valley in the Treaty of Hartford.

Though small and weak, New Netherland was an annoyance to the English. The presence of Dutch traders in New York Bay made it difficult for England to enforce its monopolies under the Navigation Acts. Moreover, the Dutch colony was a political barrier between New England and two other English colonies, Maryland and Virginia. So, in 1664, King Charles II awarded "all the land from the west side of the Connecticut River to the East Side of De La Ware Bay" to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, the future King James II. The British fleet arrived in New York Bay on 18 August 1664. Stuyvesant wanted to fight, but his subjects refused, and the governor had no choice but to surrender. The English agreed to preserve the Dutch rights of property and inheritance, and to guarantee complete liberty of conscience. Thus New Netherland became New York. It remained an English colony for the next 112 years, except for a period in 1673 when Dutch rule was briefly restored.

The first decades under the English were stormy. After repeated demands from the colonists, a General Assembly was called in 1683. The assembly adopted a Charter of Liberties and Privileges, but the document, approved by James before his coronation, was revoked after he became king in 1685. The assembly itself was dissolved in 1686, and James II acted to place New York under the dominion of New England. The plan was aborted by the Glorious Revolution of 1688, when James was forced to abdicate. Power in New York fell to Jacob Leisler, a German merchant with local backing. Leisler ruled until 1691, when a new royal governor arrived and had Leisler hanged for treason.

The succeeding decades were marked by conflict between the English and French and by the rising power of the provincial assembly in relations with the British crown. As early as 1690, a band of 150 Frenchmen and 100 Indians attacked and burned Schenectady. New York contributed men and money to campaign against the French in Canada in 1709 and 1711 (during Queen Anne's War) and in 1746 (during King George's War). In 1756, the English determined to drive the French out of the region once and for all. After some early reverses, the English defeated the French in 1760. The Treaty of Paris (1763), ending the French and Indian War, ceded all territory east of the Mississippi to England, except for New Orleans and two islands in the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. The Iroquois, their power weakened during the course of the war, signed treaties giving large areas of their land to the New York colony.

The signing of the Treaty of Paris was followed by English attempts to tighten control over the colonies, in New York as elsewhere. New York merchants vehemently protested the Sugar Act

and Stamp Act, and the radical Sons of Liberty made their first appearance in the colony in October 1765. Later, in 1774, after Paul Revere brought news of the Boston Tea Party to New York City, British tea was also dumped into that city's harbor. Nevertheless, New York hesitated before committing itself to independence. The colony's delegates to the Continental Congress in Philadelphia were not permitted by the Third Provincial Congress in New York to vote either for or against the Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776. The Fourth Provincial Congress, meeting at White Plains, did ratify the Declaration five days later. On 6 February 1778, New York became the second state to ratify the Articles of Confederation.

Nearly one-third of all battles during the Revolutionary War took place on New York soil. The action there began when troops under Ethan Allen captured Fort Ticonderoga in May 1775, and Seth Warner and his New England forces took Crown Point. Reverses came in 1776, however, when George Washington's forces were driven from Long Island and Manhattan by the British; New York City was to remain in British hands for the rest of the war. Troops commanded by British General John Burgoyne recaptured Ticonderoga in July 1777, but were defeated in October at Saratoga, in a battle that is often considered the turning point of the war. In 1778, General Washington made his headquarters at West Point, which General Benedict Arnold tried unsuccessfully to betray to the British in 1780. Washington moved his forces to Newburgh in 1782, and marched into New York City on 25 November 1785, the day the British evacuated their forces. On 4 December, he said farewell to his officers at Fraunces Tavern in lower Manhattan, a landmark that still stands.

Even as war raged, New York State adopted its first constitution on 20 April 1777. The constitution provided for an elected governor and house of assembly, but the franchise was limited to property holders. The first state capital was Kingston, but the capital was moved to Albany in January 1797. After much debate, in which the Federalist Alexander Hamilton played a leading role, the state ratified the US Constitution (with amendments) on 26 July 1788. New York City served as the seat of the US government from 11 January 1785 to 12 August 1790, and the first US president, George Washington, was inaugurated in the city on 30 April 1789.

George Clinton was the state's first elected governor, serving from 1777 to 1795 and again from 1801 to 1804. The achievements under his governorship were considerable. Commerce and agriculture expanded, partly because of Clinton's protectionist policies and partly because of the state's extremely favorable geographical situation.

The end of the War of 1812 signaled the opening of an era of unprecedented economic expansion for the state. By this time, the Iroquois were no longer a threat (most had sided with the British during the Revolutionary War, and many later fled to Canada). Migrants from New England were flocking to the state, which the census of 1810 showed was the most populous in the country. Small wonder that New York was the site of the early 19th century's most ambitious engineering project: construction of the Erie Canal. Ground was broken for the canal in 1817, during the first term of Governor De Witt Clinton, the nephew of George Clinton; the first vessels passed through the completed canal in 1825.

Actually, New York had emerged as the nation's leading commercial center before the canal was even started. The textile industry had established itself by the mid-1820s, and the dairy industry was thriving. The effects of the canal were felt most strongly in foreign trade—by 1831, 50% of US imports and 27% of US exports passed through the state—and in the canal towns of Utica, Syracuse, Rochester, and Buffalo, where business boomed.

Commercial progress during this period was matched by social and cultural advancement. New York City became a center of literary activity during the 1820s, and by the 1840s was already the nation's theatrical capital. A new state constitution drafted in 1821 established universal white male suffrage, but retained the property qualifications for blacks. Slavery was abolished as of 4 July 1827 (few slaves actually remained in the state by this time), and New Yorkers soon took the lead in the growing antislavery movement. The first women's rights convention in the United States was held in Seneca Falls in 1848—though women would have to wait until 1917 before winning the right to vote in state elections. Also during the 1840s, the state saw the first of several great waves of European immigration. The Irish and Germans were the earliest major arrivals during the 19th century, but before World War I they would be joined—not always amicably—by Italians and European Jews.

New Yorkers voted for Abraham Lincoln in the presidential election of 1860 and were among the readiest recruits to the Union side. Enthusiasm for the conflict diminished during the next two years, however. When the military draft reached New York City on 11 July 1863, the result was three days of rioting in which blacks were lynched and the homes of prominent abolitionists were burned. But New York was not a wartime battleground, and overall the war and Reconstruction were very good for business.

The decades after the Civil War ushered in an era of extraordinary commercial growth and political corruption. This was the Gilded Age, during which entrepreneurs became multimillionaires and New York was transformed from an agricultural state to an industrial giant. In 1860, the leading manufactures in the state were flour and meal, men's clothing, refined sugar, leather goods, liquor, and lumber; 90 years later, apparel, printing and publishing, food, machinery, chemicals, fabricated metal products, electrical machinery, textiles, instruments, and transportation equipment had become the dominant industries.

The key to this transformation was the development of the railroads. The boom period for railroad construction started in the 1850s and reached its high point after 1867, when "Commodore" Cornelius Vanderbilt, who had been a steamboat captain in 1818, took over the New York Central. During the 1860s, native New Yorkers like Jay Gould and Russell Sage made their fortunes through investment and speculation. Especially during the century's last two decades, corporate names that became household words began to emerge: Westinghouse Electric in 1886, General Electric (as Edison Electric) in 1889, Eastman Kodak in 1892. In 1882, another native New Yorker, John D. Rockefeller, formed the Standard Oil Trust; although the trust would eventually be broken up, the Rockefeller family would help shape New York politics for many decades to come.

The period immediately following the Civil War also marked a new high in political influence for the Tammany Society (or "Tammany Hall"), founded in 1789 as an anti-Federalist organi-

zation. From 1857 until his exposure by the press in 1871, Democrat William March "Boss" Tweed ruled Tammany and effectively dominated New York City by dispersing patronage, buying votes, and bribing legislators and judges. Tammany went into temporary eclipse after the Tweed Ring was broken up, and Republicans swept the state in 1872. The first result was a series of constitutional changes, including one abolishing the requirement that blacks hold property in order to vote. A new constitution approved in 1894, and effective in 1895, remains the basic law of New York State today.

During the Union's first 100 years, New York's political life had projected into national prominence such men as Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, George and De Witt Clinton, Martin Van Buren, and Millard Fillmore. The state's vast population—New York held more electoral votes than any other state between 1812 and 1972—coupled with its growing industrial and financial power, enhanced the prestige of state leaders during the nation's second century. Grover Cleveland, though born in New Jersey, became mayor of Buffalo, then governor of New York, and finally the 22d US president in 1885. Theodore Roosevelt was governor of New York, then became vice president and finally president of the United States in 1901. In 1910, Charles Evans Hughes resigned the governorship to become an associate justice of the US Supreme Court; he also served as secretary of state, and in 1930 was appointed chief justice of the United States. By the 1920s, Tammany had rebounded from the Tweed Ring breakup and from another scandal during the 1890s to reach its peak of prestige: Alfred E. Smith, a longtime member of Tammany, as well as an able and popular official, was four times elected governor and in 1928 became the first Roman Catholic candidate to be nominated by a major party for the presidency of the United States. That year saw the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt as governor of New York.

The 1930s, a period of depression, ushered in a new wave of progressive government. From 1933 until 1945, FDR was in the White House. Roosevelt's successor in the statehouse was Herbert H. Lehman, whose Little New Deal established the basic pattern of present state social welfare policies that had begun on a much more modest scale during Smith's administration. The Fusion mayor of New York City at this time—propelled into office by yet another wave of exposure of Tammany corruption—was the colorful and popular Fiorello H. La Guardia.

The decades following World War II saw extraordinary expansion of New York social services, including construction of the state university system, but also an erosion of the state's industrial base. Fiscal crises were not new to the state—reformers in the 1920s railed against New York City's "spendthrift" policies—but the greatly increased scale of government in the 1970s made the fiscal crisis of 1975 unprecedented in its scope and implications. The city's short-term debt grew from virtually zero to about \$6 billion between 1970 and 1975, although its government reported consistently balanced budgets. Eventually a package totaling \$4.5 billion in aid was needed to avoid bankruptcy. The decreasing pace of population and industrial growth during the 1950s and 1960s, and the decline during the 1970s, also led to a dimming of New York's political fortunes. The single dominant political figure in New York after World War II, Nelson A. Rockefeller (governor, 1958–73), tried and failed three times to win the Republican presidential nomination before his appointment to the vice-presidency

in 1974. Unable to overcome the hostility of his party's conservative wing, he was not renominated for the vice-presidency in 1976. In 1984, however, US Representative Geraldine Ferraro of Queens was the Democratic Party's vice-presidential standard-bearer, and Governor Mario M. Cuomo emerged as an influential Democratic spokesman. After serving for 12 years, Cuomo was replaced in 1995 by State Senator George Pataki, the first Republican elected New York governor since 1970.

From the late 1970s through the late 1980s, New York enjoyed an economic boom, particularly in finance, insurance, real estate and construction. The state budget increased in constant dollars by 20%. While much of that increase compensated for cuts in federal aid to states and was directed at education, municipalities, schools and prisons, some went to meet new needs such as homelessness and AIDS victims. Prosperity did not reach all sectors of the economy or the population, however. In 1984, 25% of the residents of New York City lived below the poverty line. The collapse of the stock market in October of 1987, in which the market plunged 36% in two months, not only forced a retrenchment on Wall Street but also signaled the end of the boom and the beginning of a recession that was quite severe in New York, exacerbated by the curtailment of federal funding by the Reagan and Bush administrations. Unemployment peaked in 1992, and by 1994 a recovery was under way.

The boom economy of the late 1990s boosted Wall Street, with the bulls dominating the stock market despite some historic losses, particularly in the technology sector, which analysts later categorized as "market corrections." In 1998 New York had the fourth-highest per capita income in the nation (\$31,679) but it also had more people living below the poverty level than 45 other states, again indicating prosperity had not reached into all sectors.

The 1990s witnessed the settlement of the lawsuits surrounding Love Canal in Buffalo, where leaking chemical wastes in the 1970s and early 1980s had prompted the state and federal governments to pay to move families from the area. In the largest legal settlement in New York's history, in 1994 Occidental Petroleum Corp. agreed to pay \$98 million in damages for the dumping of hazardous wastes at Love Canal, ending 16 years of litigation.

The state, which dropped from the nation's second to third most populous in 1994, retained the ranking in 2005. According to Census Bureau estimates, the state had over 19 million people in 2005—surpassed only by California and Texas. New York's Hispanic population in 2003 was estimated to be roughly the same in number as its African American population (African Americans 15.9%; Hispanics 15.1%).

In mid-1999, in the midst of a budget impasse in the state legislature, the government determined it would sell state facilities. A resulting deal, reached in 2000, saw the state selling two nuclear plants for a total asking price of \$967 million. It was the largest privatization of state assets in New York history.

Transportation in and around New York City was the focus of the statehouse and legislature in 2000. Governor George Pataki and New Jersey Governor Christine Todd Whitman, a fellow Republican, had squared off over issues surrounding the Port Authority, which the states jointly control. The governors resolved their differences in June 2000. They cleared the way for the construction of a \$200-million cargo hub for the world's largest ocean carrier (Maersk Sealand) and reopened the possibility that the World

Trade Center, which the Port Authority still controlled, could be turned over to a private developer. Meanwhile, lawmakers heard arguments for and against a proposed \$17-billion project to be undertaken by the Metropolitan Transit Authority (MTA). Advocates argued the public works plan, which would result in the largest sale of municipal bonds in US history, was necessary to build a new generation of subways, buses, and trains to serve the greater New York area. Opponents believed the project would pose disaster for the MTA, burying the agency under a mountain of debt and rendering it unable to maintain the existing transportation systems.

New York City was one site of the nation's terrorist attacks on 11 September 2001, when hijackers from the al-Qaeda terrorist organization flew two passenger airliners into the North and South Towers of the World Trade Center, destroying them. Another aircraft hit the Pentagon building in Washington, DC, and a fourth crashed into a field in Stony Creek Township, Pennsylvania. Approximately 3,000 people had died, were missing, or presumed dead as a result of the attacks. The city and the nation went into a long period of mourning. New York City Mayor Rudolph Giuliani was praised for his effective handling of the crisis.

Berlin-based architect Daniel Libeskind's design for rebuilding "Ground Zero" (the site of the demolished World Trade Center) was accepted in 2003; New Yorkers had expressed dissatisfaction with the original designs, which were thought to be uninspiring. Libeskind's design features a complex of angular towers and a spire that would be among the world's tallest structures.

New York was one of the states affected by the 14 August 2003 massive power blackout in Canada, the Northeast and Midwestern states. The largest electrical outage in US history affected 9,300 square miles and a population of over 50 million.

Following the decline of the stock market on Wall Street and the US recession in the early 2000s, New York in 2003 was plagued with economic woes. The state faced a budget deficit of \$10 billion that year. Although the economy began to improve in 2004 and 2005, the state still faced a budget gap of \$4.2 billion in 2005–06. In 2004, New York had the fifth-highest per capita personal income in the nation, at \$38,228, behind Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, and New Jersey. The poverty rate for New York in 2003–04 was 14.6%, above the national rate of 12.6% (measured as a two-year average).

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

New York has had four constitutions, adopted in 1777, 1822, 1846, and 1895. The 1895 constitution was extensively revised in 1938, and the basic structure of state government has not changed since then, although the document had been amended 216 times by January 2005. In 1993 the Temporary State Commission on Constitutional Revision was created in anticipation of a referendum on a constitutional convention in 1997.

The legislature consists of a 62-member Senate and 150-member assembly. Senators and assembly members serve two-year terms and are elected in even-numbered years. Each house holds regular annual sessions, which begin in January and are not formally limited in length; special sessions may be called by the governor or initiated by petition of two-thirds of the membership of each body. All legislators must be at least 18 years old, US citizens, and must have been residents of the state for at least five years and

residents of their districts for at least one year prior to election. The legislative salary was \$79,500 in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

Either senators or assembly members may introduce or amend a bill; the governor may introduce a budget bill. To pass, a bill requires a majority vote in both houses; a two-thirds majority (of the elected members in each house) is required to override the governor's veto. If the governor neither signs nor vetoes a bill, it becomes law after 10 days, as long as the legislature is in session.

The state's only elected executives are the governor, lieutenant governor, comptroller, and attorney general. Each serves a four-year term. The governor and lieutenant governor are jointly elected; there is no limit to the number of terms they may serve. The governor must be at least 25 years old, a US citizen, and a resident of the state for at least one year prior to the date of election. The lieutenant governor is next in line for the governorship (should the governor be unable to complete his term in office) and presides over the Senate. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$179,000, unchanged from 1999.

The governor appoints the heads of most of the major executive departments, with some of the appointments requiring the advice and consent of the Senate. The exceptions are the comptroller and attorney general, who are elected by the voters; the commissioner of education, who is named by the Regents of the University of the State of New York; the commissioner of social services, elected by the Board of Social Services; and the chief of the Executive Department, which the governor heads ex officio.

A bill becomes law when passed by both houses of the legislature and signed by the governor. While the legislature is in session,

a bill may also become law if the governor fails to act on it within 10 days of its receipt. The governor may veto a bill or, if the legislature has adjourned, may kill a bill simply by taking no action on it for 30 days.

A proposed amendment to the state constitution must receive majority votes in both houses of the legislature during two successive sessions. Amendments so approved are put on the ballot in November and adopted or rejected by majority vote. The constitution also provides that the voters must be permitted every 20 years to decide whether a convention should be called to amend the present constitution. Voters in New York must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, residents of the county (or New York City) for 30 days prior to election day, and unable to claim the right to vote elsewhere. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

In addition to the Democratic and Republican parties, the major political groups, there has always been a profusion of minor parties in New York, some of which have significantly influenced the outcomes of national and state elections.

Party politics in the state crystallized into their present form around 1855. Up to that time, a welter of parties and factions—including such short-lived groups as the Anti-Masons, Bucktails, Clintonians, Hunkers, and Barnburners (split into Hardshell and Softshell Democrats), Know-Nothings (Native American Party),

New York Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	NEW YORK WINNER	DEMOCRAT	LIBERAL ¹	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE ²	SOCIALIST	SOCIALIST WORKERS	PEACE AND FREEDOM
1948	47	Dewey (R)	2,557,642	222,562	2,841,163	509,559	40,879	2,675	—
1952	45	*Eisenhower (R)	2,687,890	416,711	3,952,815	64,211	2,664	2,212	—
1956	45	*Eisenhower (R)	2,458,212	292,557	4,340,340	—	—	—	—
1960	45	*Kennedy (D)	3,423,909	406,176	3,446,419	—	—	14,319	—
							SOC. LABOR		
1964	43	*Johnson (D)	4,570,670	342,432	2,243,559		6,118	3,228	—
						AMERICAN IND.³			
1968	43	Humphrey (D)	3,066,848	311,622	3,007,932	358,864	8,432	11,851	24,517
						CONSERVATIVE⁴			COMMUNIST
1972	41	*Nixon (R)	2,767,956	183,128	3,824,642	368,136	4,530	7,797	5,641
							LIBERTARIAN		
1976	41	*Carter (D)	3,244,165	145,393	2,825,913	2,724,878	12,197	6,996	10,270
								RIGHT TO LIFE	CITIZENS
1980	41	*Reagan (R)	2,728,372	467,801	2,637,700	256,131	52,648	24,159	23,186
									COMMUNIST
1984	36	*Reagan (R)	3,001,285	118,324	3,376,519	288,244	11,949	—	4,226
								NEW ALLIANCE	
1988	36	Dukakis (D)	3,255,487	92,395	2,838,414	243,457	12,109	15,845	20,497
1992 ⁵	22	*Clinton (D)	3,346,894	97,556	2,041,690	177,000	13,451	15,472	11,318
								FREEDOM⁴	GREEN (Nader)
1996 ⁵	33	*Clinton (D)	3,649,630	106,547	1,738,707	183,392	12,220	11,393	75,956
2000	33	Gore (D)	3,942,215	77,087	2,258,877	144,797	7,649	—	244,030
				DEM./WORKING FAMILIES	WRITE-IN (Cobb)	REP. AND CONSERVATIVE	WRITE-IN (Peroutka)	SOCIALIST WORKERS	IND. (Nader)
2004	31	Kerry (D)	4,314,280	87	2,962,567	207	11,607	2,405	99,873

*Won US presidential election.

1 Supported Democratic candidate except in 1980, when John Anderson ran on the Liberal line.

2 Ran in the state as the American Labor Party.

3 Appeared on the state ballot as the Courage Party.

4 Supported Republican candidate.

5 **IND.** candidate Ross Perot received 1,090,721 votes in 1992 and 503,458 votes in 1996.

Woolly Heads and Silver-Grays (factions of the Whigs), and the Liberty Party—jockeyed for power in New York State.

Roughly speaking, the Democratic Party evolved out of the Democratic Republican factions of the old Republican Party and had become a unified party by the 1850s. The Democratic power base was—and has remained—the big cities, especially New York City. The most important big-city political machine from the 1860s through the 1950s, except for a few brief periods, was the Tammany Society (“Tammany Hall”). Tammany controlled the Democratic Party in New York City and, through that party, the city itself.

The Republican Party in New York State emerged in 1855 as the heir of the Whigs, the Liberty Party, and the Softshell Democratic faction. The Republican Party’s power base includes the state’s rural counties, the smaller cities and towns, and (though not so much in the 1970s and early 1980s as in earlier decades) the New York City suburbs. Although New York Republicans stand to the right of the Democrats on social issues, they have usually been well to the left of the national Republican Party. The liberal “internationalist” strain of Republicanism was personified during the 1960s by Governor Nelson Rockefeller, US Senator Jacob Javits, and New York City Mayor John V. Lindsay (who later became a Democrat).

The disaffection of more conservative Republicans and Democrats within the state led to the formation of the Conservative Party in 1963. At first intended as a device to exert pressure on the state Republican establishment, the Conservative Party soon became a power in its own right, electing a US senator, James Buckley, in 1970. Its power decreased in the late 1970s as the Republican Party embraced some of its positions. The Conservative Party has its left-wing counterpart in the Liberal Party, which was formed in 1944 by dissidents in the American Labor Party who claimed the ALP was Communist-influenced. Tied strongly to labor interests, the Liberals have normally supported the national Democratic ticket. Their power, however, has waned considerably in recent years.

Minor parties have sometimes meant the difference between victory and defeat for major party candidates in state and national elections. The Liberal Party line provided the victory margin in the state, and therefore the nation, for Democratic presidential candidate John F. Kennedy in 1960. Other significant, though not victorious, minor-party presidential candidates have included the American Labor Party with Henry Wallace in 1948 (8% of the vote), the Courage Party with George Wallace in 1968 (5%), and the Liberal Party with John Anderson in 1980 (7%). Among radical parties, the Socialists qualified for the presidential ballot continuously between 1900 and 1952, reaching a peak of 203,201 votes (7% of the total) in 1920.

Democrat Mario M. Cuomo was defeated in his run for a fourth term as governor in November 1994 by Republican George Pataki; Pataki was elected to a third term in 2002. In 2003 New York’s US senators were Democrat Charles Schumer, elected to his first term in 1998 to succeed three-term Republican Alphonse D’Amato was reelected in 2004, and Democrat Hillary Rodham Clinton, first elected in 2000. Following the 2004 elections, New York’s US representatives included 20 Democrats and 9 Republicans. Republicans held 35 seats in the state Senate while Democrats held 27. In the State Assembly there were 105 Democrats and 45 Republicans.

In the November 1980 presidential elections, Republican nominee Ronald Reagan (with Conservative Party backing) won the state’s then-41 electoral votes, apparently because John Anderson, running in New York State on the Liberal Party line, siphoned enough votes from the Democratic incumbent, Jimmy Carter, to give Reagan a plurality. Reagan carried the state again in 1984, despite the presence on the Democratic ticket of US Representative Geraldine Ferraro of Queens as the running mate of Walter Mondale; Ferraro was the first woman candidate for president or vice president on a major party ticket. New Yorkers chose Democratic nominees Michael Dukakis and Bill Clinton in 1988 and 1992, respectively, and Clinton again won the state in 1996. In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore won 60% of the vote to Republican George W. Bush’s 35%; Green Party candidate Ralph Nader garnered 4% of the vote. In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerry won 57.8% to incumbent George W. Bush’s 40.5%. In 2004 there were 11,837,000 registered voters. In 1998, 47% of registered voters were Democratic, 29% Republican, and 24% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had 31 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a loss of 2 votes over the 2000 election.

In November 1993, New York City mayor David Dinkins, a Democrat and New York’s first black mayor, who had served since 1990, was defeated by Republican Rudolph Giuliani. Giuliani was legally barred from seeking a third term, and billionaire media tycoon Michael Bloomberg won the mayoral contest in 2001; Bloomberg was reelected in 2005.

¹⁴ LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The state constitution, endorsing the principle of home rule, recognizes many different levels of local government. In 2005, New York had 62 counties, 616 municipal governments, 703 public school districts, and 1,135 special districts. In 2002, there were 929 townships.

Cities are contained within counties, with one outstanding exception: New York City is made up of five counties, one for each of its five boroughs. Traditionally, counties are run by an elected board of supervisors or county legislature; however, a growing number of counties have vested increased powers in a single elected county executive. With the exception of some counties within New York City, each county has a county attorney and district attorney, sheriff, fiscal officer (treasurer), county clerk, and commissioner of social services.

Towns are run by a town board; the town supervisor is the board’s presiding officer and acts as town treasurer. A group of people within a town or towns may also incorporate themselves into a village, with their own elected mayor and elected board of trustees. Some villages have administrators or managers. Members of the village remain members of the town, and must pay taxes to both jurisdictions. The constitution grants the state legislature the power to decide which taxes the local governments may levy and how much debt they may incur.

New York City is governed by a mayor and city council, but much practical power resides in the Board of Estimate. On this board sit the city’s three top elected officials—the mayor, comptroller, and city council president. The board also includes the five borough presidents, elected officials who represent (and, to a limited extent, govern) each of the five boroughs. New York City gov-

ernment is further complicated by the fact that certain essential services are provided not by the city itself but by independent "authorities." The special district of the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, for example, operates New York Harbor, sets interstate bridge and tunnel tolls, and supervises the city's bus and air terminals; it is responsible not to the mayor but to the governors of New York and New Jersey. Similarly, the Metropolitan Transportation Authority, which controls the city's subways and some of its commuter rail lines, is an independent agency responsible to the state rather than the city.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 938,753 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in New York operates under state statute; the homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Educational services are provided through the Education Department. Under this department's jurisdiction are the State Library, the State Museum, the State Archives, the New York State School for the Blind at Batavia, and the New York State School for the Deaf at Rome. The Education Department also issues licenses for 38 professions, including architecture, engineering and land surveying, massage, pharmacy, public accountancy, social work, and various medical specialties. The state university system is administered by a separate agency headed by a chancellor.

Transportation services are under the direction of the Department of Transportation, which has responsibility for highways, aviation, mass transit, railroads, water transport, transportation safety, and intrastate rate regulation. The Department of Motor Vehicles licenses all road vehicles, motor vehicle dealers, motor vehicle operators, and driving schools.

Human services are provided through several state departments. Among the programs and facilities operated by the Department of Health are three research and treatment facilities; the New York State Veterans' Home at Oxford, Roswell Park Memorial Institute at Buffalo, and Helen Hayes Hospital at West Haverstraw. The state provides care for the mentally ill, retarded, and alcoholics and other substance-dependent persons through the Office of Mental Health, the Office of Mental Retardation and Development Disabilities, and the Office of Alcoholism and Substance Abuse Services. The Office of Mental Health maintains psychiatric centers and developmental centers for developmental disabilities. The Office of Temporary and Disability Assistance within the Department of Family Assistance supervises and sets standards for locally administered public and private welfare and health programs, including Food Stamps and TANF (Temporary Assistance to Needy Families). The Office of Children and Family Services, also within the Department of Family Assistance, has special responsibilities for the blind and visually handicapped and over Indian affairs. Other human services are provided through the Division of Veterans' Affairs, the Division of Human Rights, and the Office for the Aging, all within the Executive Department.

Public protection services include state armed forces, corrections, and consumer protection. Included within the Division of Military and Naval Affairs, in the Executive Department, are the Army National Guard, Air National Guard, Naval Militia, and

New York Guard. The Division of State Police operates within the Executive Department, while prisons are administered by the separate Department of Correctional Services. The State Consumer Protection Board (Executive Department) coordinates the consumer protection activities of the various agencies and departments. The major legal role in consumer protection is played by the attorney general.

Housing services are provided through the Division of Housing and Community Renewal of the Executive Department, and through the quasi-independent New York State Housing Finance Agency/State of New York Mortgage Agency. The Department of State serves as a keeper of records and licensing agency, as well as serving the financial, corporate, and legal community. The Governor's office has a Women's Advisory.

Natural resources protection services are centralized in the Department of Environmental Conservation. The administration of the state park and recreation system is carried out by the Office of Parks, Recreation and Historic Preservation, in the Executive Department. The Department of Agriculture and Markets serves the interests of farmers and also administers the state's Pure Food Law. Energy is the province of the Department of Public Service. The quasi-independent Power Authority of the State of New York finances, builds, and operates electricity-generating and transmission facilities.

The Department of Labor provides most labor services for the state. Its responsibilities include occupational health and safety, human resource development and allocation, administration of unemployment insurance and other benefit programs, and maintenance of labor standards, including enforcement of minimum wage and other labor laws. The Employment Relations Board tries to settle labor disputes and prevent work stoppages.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

New York's highest court is the Court of Appeals in Albany, with appellate jurisdiction only. The Court of Appeals consists of a chief judge and six associate judges, appointed by the governor and approved by the Senate for 14-year terms. Below the Court of Appeals is the state's Supreme Court, with nearly 570 justices in 12 judicial districts. The Supreme Court of New York State does not sit as one body, instead most supreme court justices are assigned original jurisdiction in civil and criminal matters, while 56 justices are assigned to the appellate division of supreme court and 15 to appellate terms of supreme court. Supreme Court justices are elected by district and serve 14-year terms.

The New York Court of Claims sits in Albany, with judges appointed by the governor to nine-year terms, along with judges sitting as acting Supreme Court justices in felony trials. This special trial court hears civil cases involving claims by or against the state.

Outside New York City, each county has its own county court to handle criminal cases, although some are delegated to be handled by lower courts. County court judges are elected to 10-year terms. Many counties have a surrogate's court to handle such matters as wills and estates; surrogates are elected to 10-year terms except in New York City counties, where they are elected to 14-year terms. Each county has its own family court. In New York City, judges are appointed by the mayor for 10-year terms; elsewhere they are elected for 10 years. A county's district attorney has authority in

criminal matters. Most cities (including New York City) have their own court systems; in New York City, the mayor appoints judges of city criminal and family courts. Village police justices and town justices of the peace handle minor violations and other routine matters.

The Department of Correctional Services maintains correctional facilities throughout the state, as well as regional parole offices. As of 31 December 2004, a total of 63,751 prisoners were held in New York's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 65,198 of 2.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,789 inmates were female, down from 2,914 or 4.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), New York had an incarceration rate of 331 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, New York in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 441.6 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 84,914 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 422,734 reported incidents or 2,198.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. In 1995, the state instituted a new death penalty statute, of which lethal injection was the sole method of execution. However, on 24 June, 2004 New York's death penalty statute was declared unconstitutional. The last execution in the state took place in 1963. As of 1 January 2006, only one inmate remained on the state's death row.

In 2003, New York spent \$4,309,416,130 on homeland security, an average of \$236 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

The US Military Academy at West Point was founded in 1802. In 2004, there were 22,714 active-duty military personnel and 11,409 civilian personnel stationed in New York, more than half of whom were at Fort Drum. In 2004, New York firms received more than \$5.2 billion in defense contracts. In addition, defense spending outlays, including retirees military pay, were \$2.4 billion.

In 2003, there were 1,711,900 veterans of US military service in the state. The statistics for living veterans of wartime service were as follows: World War II, 212,726; Korea, 159,501; Vietnam era, 337,162; and 129,275 from the Persian Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in New York exceeded \$3.1 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the New York State Police employed 4,659 sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Since the early 1800s, New York has been the primary port of entry for Europeans coming to the United States. The Statue of Liberty—dedicated in 1886 and beckoning “your tired, your poor, / Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free” to the shores of America—was often the immigrants' first glimpse of America. The first stop for some 20 million immigrants in the late 19th and early 20th centuries was Ellis Island, where they were processed, often given Americanized names, and sent onward to an uncertain future.

The first great wave of European immigrants arrived in the 1840s, impelled by the potato famine in Ireland. By 1850, New York City had 133,730 Irish-born inhabitants, and by 1890, 409,224. Although smaller in number, German immigration dur-

ing this period was more widespread; during the 1850s, German-speaking people were the largest foreign-born group in Rochester and Buffalo, and by 1855 about 30,000 of Buffalo's 74,000 residents were German.

The next two great waves of European immigration—Eastern European Jews and Italians—overlapped. Vast numbers of Jews began arriving from Eastern Europe during the 1880s, by which time some 80,000 German-speaking Jews were already living in New York City. By 1910, the Jewish population of the city was about 1,250,000, growing to nearly 2,000,000 by the mid-1920s. The flood of Italians began during the 1800s, when the Italian population of New York City increased from 75,000 to more than 200,000; in 1950, nearly 500,000 Italian-born immigrants were living in the state. Migration from the 1840s onward followed a cyclical pattern: as one group dispersed from New York City throughout the state and the nation, it was replaced by a new wave of immigrants.

Yankees from New England made up the first great wave of domestic migration. Most of the migrants who came to New York between 1790 and 1840 were Yankees; it has been estimated that by 1850, 52,000 natives of Vermont (20% of that state's population) had become residents of New York. There was a slow, steady migration of African Americans from slave states to New York before the Civil War, but massive black migration to New York, and especially to New York City, began during World War I and continued well into the 1960s. The third great wave of domestic migration came after World War II, from Puerto Rico. Nearly 40,000 Puerto Ricans settled in New York City in 1946, and 58,500 in 1952–53. By 1960, the census showed well over 600,000 New Yorkers of Puerto Rican birth or parentage. As of 1990, Puerto Rican-born New Yorkers numbered 143,974. Nearly 41,800 state residents in 1990 had lived in Puerto Rico in 1985. Many other Caribbean natives—especially Dominicans, Jamaicans, and Haitians—followed. In 1996, there were a reported 3,232,000 state residents who were foreign-born (about 17% of the state's population). In 1998, 96,559 foreign immigrants entered New York, the second-highest total of any state (surpassed only by California) and over 15% of the total immigration for that year.

The fourth and most recent domestic migratory trend is unique in New York history—the net outward migration from New York to other states. During the 1960s, New York suffered a net loss of more than 100,000 residents through migration; between 1970 and 1980, the estimated net loss was probably in excess of 1,500,000, far greater than that in any other state: probably 80% of the migration was from New York City. From 1980 to 1990, net loss from migration exceeded 340,000. Between 1990 and 1998, New York had a net loss of 1,722,000 in domestic migration. These general estimates hide a racial movement of historic proportions: during the 1960s, while an estimated net total of 638,000 whites were moving out of the state, 396,000 blacks were moving in; during 1970–75, according to Census Bureau estimates, 701,000 whites left New York, while 60,000 blacks were arriving. According to a private study, a net total of 700,000 whites and 50,000 blacks left the state during 1975–80. It appears that many of the white emigrants went to suburban areas of New Jersey and Connecticut, but many also went to two Sunbelt states, Florida and California. Overwhelmingly, the black arrivals came from the South. During the 1980s, the black population of the New York City area in-

creased by 16.4%. By 1997, blacks comprised 19.4% of the New York City area's total population.

Intrastate migration has followed the familiar pattern of rural to urban, urban to suburban. In 1790, the state was 88% rural; the rural population grew in absolute terms (though not as a percentage of the total state population) until the 1880s when the long period of decline began. New York's farm population decreased by 21% during the 1940s, 33% during the 1950s, 38% during the 1960s, and 49% during the 1970s. By 1990, 84% of all New Yorkers lived in urban areas; by 1996, 91.8%. Meanwhile, the suburban population has grown steadily. In 1950, 3,538,620 New Yorkers (24% of the state total) lived in suburbs; by 1980, this figure had grown to 7,461,161 (42% of all state residents). It should be remembered, of course, that this more than doubling of the suburban population reflects natural increase and direct migration from other states and regions, as well as the intrastate migratory movement from central cities to suburbs. Between 1990 and 1998, New York's overall population only increased by 1%.

In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 667,007 and net internal migration was -1,001,100, for a net loss of 334,093 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

New York State is a member of the Council of State Governments and its allied organizations. The state participates in many interstate regional commissions (and in commissions with the Canadian provinces of Ontario and Quebec). Among the more active interstate commissions are the Appalachian Regional Commission, Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Delaware River Basin Commission, Great Lakes Commission, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission, Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council, New England Interstate Water Pollution Control Commission, Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Commission, and the Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation Commission. In 1985, New York joined seven other Great Lakes states and two Canadian provinces in the Great Lakes Charter, for the purpose of protecting the lakes' water reserves.

The three most important interstate bodies for the New York metropolitan area are the Palisades Interstate Park Commission, Interstate Sanitation Commission, and Port Authority of New York and New Jersey. The Palisades Interstate Park Commission was founded in 1900 (with New Jersey) in order to preserve the natural beauty of the Palisades region. The Interstate Sanitation Commission (with New Jersey and Connecticut; established in 1961) monitors and seeks to control pollution within the tri-state Interstate Sanitation District. The Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, created in 1921 and the most powerful of the three, is a public corporation with the power to issue its own bonds. Its vast holdings include 4 bridges, 2 tunnels, 5 airports and heliports, 2 motor vehicle terminals, 6 marine terminals, the trans-Hudson rapid transit system, an industrial park in the Bronx, and the 110-story twin-towered World Trade Center in lower Manhattan, until it was destroyed in 2001. Bridge compacts include those on the Buffalo and Fort Erie bridge, the Ogdensburg bridge and port, and the Canada and New York International bridge. Other compacts include the New York-Connecticut Railroad Service, and the Susquehanna River Basin Compact (with Maryland and Pennsylvania). Federal grants to New York state and local governments

totaled \$38.313 billion in fiscal year 2005, higher than any other state except California. In fiscal year 2006, New York received an estimated \$40.606 billion in federal grants, and an estimated \$41.817 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

From the Civil War through the 1950s, New York State led the nation in just about every category by which an economy can be measured. In the colonial and early national periods, New York was a leading wheat-growing state. When the wheat crop declined, dairying and lumbering became the state's mainstays. New York then emerged as the national leader in wholesaling, retailing, and manufacturing—and remained so well into the 1960s.

By 1973, however, the state was running neck and neck with California by most output measures, or had already been surpassed. The total labor force, the number of workers in manufacturing, and the number of factories all declined during the 1960s and 1970s. New York City's manufacturing base and its skilled laborers have been emigrating to the suburbs and to other states since World War II. Between 1969 and 1976, the city lost 600,000 jobs. With the departure of much of the middle class, the city's tax base shrank, a factor that contributed to the fiscal crisis of 1975, when a package of short-term aid from Congress, the state government, and the labor union pension funds saved the city from default.

The 1980s saw the state's fortunes on the rise. A shift in dependence from manufacturing to services, and particularly to finance, helped the state and New York City weather the 1981–82 recession. In 1983, the state's three largest industrial and commercial employers (excluding public utilities) were all banks based in New York City. From 1980 to 1990, the state's economy acquired approximately one million jobs, in contrast to 50,000 the previous decade. Financial services led the city's economic expansion, adding 100,000 jobs from 1980 to 1987. Long Island also experienced growth in the first half of the decade, benefiting from the defense build-up by the federal government in the early and mid-eighties.

New York's economy not only grew during the eighties but also underwent a restructuring. Manufacturing witnessed a decline in its share of total employment from 20% in 1980 to 14% in 1990. Apparel, industrial machinery and equipment, and primary metals accounted for 40% of the total loss of jobs. Industrial output, however, increased 10.1% between 1980 and 1987. Productivity gains produced both the rise in output and the decline in employment. Construction boomed from 1982–89, increasing its share of employment from 2.9% to 3.8%. The service sector, particularly business-related, health care, education and social services grew 52% in the decade, increasing services' share of employment from 24% in 1980 to 29% in 1990. Finance, insurance, and the real estate industry expanded 64%. The surge in financial services employment ended with the crash of the stock market in October of 1987, in which stock prices dropped 36% in two months. The crash prompted the layoff of 9,000 employees on Wall Street and a downsizing of the banking and securities industries. More than \$1 trillion in financial transactions took place per day on the NYSE in 2000.

About one in 11 New York City residents received some form of public assistance (including Medicaid and Supplemental Security Income benefits) in 1994. The high number of people on welfare

prompted the New York State government to turn the welfare program into a “workfare” program that put the able-bodied to work. By 1998, the welfare roles had been reduced by over 600,000 from 1995 numbers, a 35% decrease. Job growth rose steadily through the 1990s. Coming into the 21st century, the state economy was growing briskly, with annual growth rates of 8.3% in 1998, 3.5% in 1999, and 7.3% in 2000. Even in the national recession of 2001, and with the events of 9/11, the state economy posted 3.5% annual growth. Employment growth in the state lagged the nation as a whole during 2001 and 2002, but was close to the national average by the end of 2002. New York City’s rate of job losses, however, continued to exceed the state and the nation. However, office vacancy rates in New York City in the fourth quarter 2002, at 8% for midtown, and 12% for downtown (where the twin World Trade Center towers had been located), were well below the national average of 16.5%. The state’s manufacturing sector, which had been contracting for decades, fell from 10.8% of gross state product in 1997 to 9.4% of the total in 2001. In 2002, the highest percentages of manufacturing job losses were in the cities of Buffalo, Rochester and Syracuse.

New York’s gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$896.739 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$114.056 billion or 12.7% of GSP, followed by professional and technical services at \$75.337 billion (8.4% of GSP), and health care and social assistance services at 70.059 billion (7.8% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 1,779,932 small businesses in New York. Of the 481,858 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 477,260 or 99% were small companies. An estimated 62,854 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 3.8% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 64,013, up 4.6% from 2003. There were 4,070 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 104.8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state’s personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 385 filings per 100,000 people, ranking New York as the 42nd highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 New York had a gross state product (GSP) of \$963 billion which accounted for 7.8% of the nation’s gross domestic product and placed the state at number 3 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 New York had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$38,264. This ranked sixth in the United States and was 116% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.0%. New York had a total personal income (TPI) of \$737,755,932,000, which ranked second in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.7% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.5%. Earnings of persons employed in New York increased from \$558,688,257,000 in 2003 to \$596,716,261,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.8%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$44,228 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 14.4% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in New York numbered 9,516,800, with approximately 467,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.9%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 8,583,500. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in New York was 10.5% in July 1976. The historical low was 4% in April 1988. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 3.8% of the labor force was employed in construction; 6.5% in manufacturing; 17.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 8.4% in financial activities; 12.7% in professional and business services; 18.2% in education and health services; 7.8% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.3% in government.

The labor force participation rate of women increased from 42.0% in 1974 to 55.8% in 1998. Over the same period, participation rates for men declined from 75.9% to 71.4%. Among minority groups, the unemployment rate in 1998 was 11.4% for blacks and 8.9% for Hispanics.

At the turn of the century, working conditions in New York were among the worst in the country. The flood of immigrants into the labor market and the absence of labor laws to protect them led to the development in New York City of cramped, ill-lit, poorly ventilated, and unhealthy factories—the sweatshops for which the garment industry became notorious. Since that time working conditions in the garment factories have improved, primarily through the efforts of the International Ladies’ Garment Workers Union and, later, its sister organization, the Amalgamated Clothing and Textiles Workers Union.

Under the state’s Taylor Law, public employees do not have the right to strike. Penalties for striking may be exacted against both the unions and their leaders.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 2,090,000 of New York’s 8,008,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 26.1% of those so employed, up from 25.3% in 2004, and well above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 2,201,000 workers (27.5%) in New York were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. New York is one of five states whose union membership rate is greater than 20%. The New York is also one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, New York had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$6.75 per hour, which will increase to \$7.15 per hour on 1 January 2007. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

New York ranked 28th in farm income in 2005, with cash receipts from farming at over \$3.5 billion. About 62% came from livestock products, mostly dairy goods. In 2004, the state ranked second in apples, third in the production of corn for silage, third in cauliflower, fourth in tart cherries and snap beans, and ninth in oats.

Corn was the leading crop for the Indians and for the European settlers of the early colonial period. During the early 1800s, how-

ever, wheat was the major crop grown in eastern New York. With the opening of the Erie Canal, western New York (especially the Genesee Valley) became a major wheat-growing center as well. By the late 1850s, when the state's wheat crop began to decline, New York still led the nation in barley, flax, hops, and potato production and was a significant grower of corn and oats. The opening of the railroads took away the state's competitive advantage, but as grain production shifted to the Midwest, the state emerged as a leading supplier of meat and dairy products.

New York remains an important dairy state, but urbanization has reduced its overall agricultural potential. In 2004, 14% of the state's land area was devoted to crop growing; in 2004, there were only 36,000 farms, with 7.6 million acres (3.1 million hectares).

The west-central part of the state is the most intensively farmed. Chautauqua County, in the extreme southwest, leads the state in grape production, while Wayne County, along Lake Ontario, leads in apples and cherries. The dairy industry is concentrated in the St. Lawrence Valley; grain growing dominates the plains between Syracuse and Buffalo. Potatoes are grown mostly in Suffolk County, on eastern Long Island.

Leading filed crops in 2004 included hay, of which 2.9 million tons were produced, worth \$327 million; corn, 61 million bushels worth \$146.4 million; oats, 3.3 million bushels worth \$5.5 million; and wheat, 5.3 million bushels, worth \$13.8 million.

Farms in 2004 also produced 941,010 tons of commercial vegetables. Leading vegetable crops were cabbage, onions, sweet corn, and snap beans. State vineyards produced 145,000 tons of grapes for wine and juice in 2004, while the apple crop totaled 1.1 billion lb.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The St. Lawrence Valley is the state's leading cattle-raising region, followed by the Mohawk Valley and Wyoming County, in western New York. The poultry industry is more widely dispersed. In 2005, an estimated 1.41 million cattle and calves were worth around \$1.73 billion. There were an estimated 84,000 hogs and pigs, worth \$8.4 million in 2004. During 2003, around 14.6 million lb (6.6 million kg) of broilers were produced, worth \$5.1 million, and 13.3 million lb (6 million kg) of turkey, worth \$4.8 million.

New York is a leading dairy state. In 2003, New York was third in the United States in milk production with 11.9 million lb (5.4 million kg) of milk from 671,000 milk cows.

Also during 2003, New York farmers produced around 3 million lb (1.4 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which brought in around \$2.7 million in gross income. The state produced around 1.05 billion eggs, valued at \$56.3 million in 2003. Duck raising is an industry of local importance on Long Island.

25 FISHING

Fishing, though an attraction for tourists and sportsmen, plays only a marginal role in the economic life of the state. In 2004, the Atlantic commercial catch by New York fishers was 33.7 million lb (15.3 million kg), valued at \$46.4 million. The Great Lakes commercial catch the same year was 10,000 lb (4,500 kg) valued at \$11,000. Important species for commercial use are clams and oysters. In 2004, the state ranked second in the nation (after New Jersey) in volume of surf clams (6.8 million lb/3.1 million kg) and third for soft clams (234,000 lb/106,000 kg). Virtually all of New

York's commercial fishing takes place in the Atlantic waters off Long Island. Montauk, on the eastern end of Long Island, is the state's leading fishing port. In 2003, there were 6 processing and 271 wholesale plants in the state with about 2,154 employees.

Pollution and poor wildlife management have seriously endangered the state's commercial and sport fishing in the ocean, rivers, and lakes. Commercial fishing for striped bass in the Hudson River was banned in 1976 because of contamination by polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs). Commercial fishing in the river for five other species—black crappie, brown bullhead, carp, goldfish, and pumpkinseed—was banned in 1985. Also banned in 1985 was commercial fishing for striped bass in New York Harbor and along both shores of western Long Island.

In recent decades, however, the Department of Environmental Conservation has taken an active role in restocking New York's inland waters. The US Fish and Wildlife Service distributes large numbers of lake trout and Atlantic salmon fingerlings and rainbow and brook trout fry throughout the state. There are 12 state hatcheries producing over 1 million lb (over 453,000 kg) of fish per year, including brook trout, brown trout, rainbow trout, lake trout, steelhead, chinook salmon, coho salmon, landlocked salmon, walleye, muskellunge, and tiger muskellunge.

In 2004, the state issued 983,812 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

About 61% of New York's surface area is forestland. The most densely forested counties are Hamilton, Essex, and Warren in the Adirondacks, and Delaware, Greene, and Ulster in the Catskills. The total forested area was about 18,432,000 acres (7,459,000 hectares) in 2004, of which 15,389,000 acres (6,228,000 hectares) were classified as commercial forest, meaning they were available for the harvest of wood products such as sawlogs, veneer, and pulpwood or firewood. In 2004, lumber production totaled 480 million board feet.

Finger Lakes National Forest, the only national forest within the state, covered 16,211 acres (6,560 hectares) in 2005. The state Department of Environmental Conservation manages about 3,000,000 acres (1,200,000 hectares) in the Catskills and Adirondacks as Forest Preserves, and an additional 800,000 acres in State Forests and Wildlife Management Areas (where timber harvesting is allowed as part of their management plans).

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by New York in 2003 was \$978 million, a decrease from \$991 million in 2002. The USGS data ranked New York as 14th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 2.5% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, crushed stone, followed by cement (portland and masonry), salt, construction sand and gravel, and wollastonite were the state's top nonfuel minerals by value. Collectively, these five commodities accounted for around 98% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. About 75% of the state's nonfuel minerals, by value, were major construction material commodities: cement, common clays, construction sand and gravel, and crushed stone. New York in 2003 was the nation's

only producer of wollastonite. The state also ranked third in salt, fourth in talc, and tenth in portland and masonry cement. New York was the leading state (out of two) in the production of industrial grade garnets and eighth in the production of dimension stone.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed that New York's production of crushed stone totaled 51.5 million metric tons, with a value of \$358 million, while output of salt totaled 4.9 million metric tons, valued at \$190 million. Construction sand and gravel production in that same year came to 32 million metric tons, and was valued at \$171 million. Common clays output totaled 641,000 metric tons and was valued at \$7.99 million.

Other commodities produced in New York included gypsum and peat. Major uses of wollastonite (a type of calcium silicate) are as a filler in ceramic tile, marine wallboard, paint, plastics, and refractory liners in steel mills.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, New York had 96 electrical power service providers, of which 48 were publicly owned and four were cooperatives. Of the remainder, nine were investor owned, three were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers, 25 were generation-only suppliers and seven were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 7,876,995 retail customers. Of that total, 6,245,232 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 16,816 customers, while publicly owned providers had 1,243,176 customers. There were 1,867 independent generator or "facility" customers, and 369,904 generation-only customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 36.696 million kW, with total production that same year at 137.643 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 30.2% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 69.8% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 40.697 billion kWh (29.6%), came from nuclear power generation, with natural gas fueled plants in second place at 28.156 billion kWh (20.5%) and hydroelectric plants in third at 24.268 billion kWh (17.6%). Other renewable power sources, coal and petroleum fired plants (17.1% and 14%, respectively) and pumped storage facilities accounted for the remaining power generated.

Electric bills for New York City are the highest in the nation, and customers in Buffalo and Rochester also pay above the national median. Sales of public and private electric power totaled 144.045 billion kWh in 2003, of which 50.3% went to commercial users, 15.1% to industrial purchasers, 32.7% to residential users, and 1.9% for transportation.

As of 2006, New York had four operating nuclear power stations: the James A. Fitzpatrick and the Nile Mile Point plants, both near Oswego; the Indian Point plant in Westchester County; and the Robert E. Ginna plant near Rochester.

As of 2004, New York had proven crude oil reserves of less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 464 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 29th (28th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 New York had

3,095 producing oil wells and accounted for under 1% of all US production. There are no refineries in the state of New York.

In 2004, New York had 5,781 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 36.137 billion cu ft (1.02 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 324 billion cu ft (9.2 billion cu m).

29 INDUSTRY

Until the 1970s, New York was the nation's foremost industrial state, ranking first in virtually every general category. However, US Commerce Department data show that by 1975 the state had slipped in manufacturing to second in number of employees, payroll, and value added, fourth in value of shipments of manufactured goods, and sixth in new capital spending. Important sectors are instruments and related products, industrial machinery and equipment, electronic and electric equipment, printing and publishing, and textiles.

The Buffalo region, with its excellent transport facilities and abundant power supply, is the main center for heavy industry in the state, while light industry is dispersed throughout the state. Rochester is especially well known for its photographic (Kodak) and optical equipment and office machines. The state's leadership in electronic equipment is in large part attributable to the International Business Machines Corp. (IBM), which was founded in 1911 at Endicott, near Binghamton. The presence of two large General Electric plants has long made Schenectady a leader in the manufacture of electric machinery.

New York City excels not only in the apparel and publishing trades but also in food processing, meat packing, chemicals, leather goods, metal products, and many other manufactures. In addition, the city serves as headquarters for many large industrial corporations whose manufacturing activities often take place entirely outside New York.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, New York's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$146.691 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$35.291 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$14.565 billion; food manufacturing at \$14.090 billion; transport equipment manufacturing at \$11.717 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$10.449 billion; and miscellaneous manufacturing at \$9.031 billion.

In 2004, a total of 569,641 people in New York were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 370,674 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 65,291, with 29,738 actual production workers. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at 57,004 employees (28,401 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 55,711 employees (39,809 actual production workers); miscellaneous manufacturing at 47,587 employees (31,212 actual production workers); and food manufacturing with 46,847 employees (31,160 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that New York's manufacturing sector paid \$24.145 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$3.713 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$2.874 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$2.193 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$2030 billion; transport equipment manufacturing at \$1.989 billion; and miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.708 billion.

3⁰ COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, New York's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$343.6 billion from 35,845 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 18,400 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 15,236 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 2,209 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$127.7 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$184.6 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$31.2 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, New York was listed as having 76,425 retail establishments with sales of \$178.06 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (15,210); clothing and clothing accessories stores (12,531); miscellaneous store retailers (8,346); and health and personal care stores (6,648). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$37.3 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$29.6 billion; general merchandise stores at \$19.7 billion; clothing and clothing accessories stores at \$17.2 billion; and health and personal care stores at \$16.2 billion. A total of 837,806 people were employed by the retail sector in New York that year.

The state's long border with Canada, its important ports on Lakes Erie and Ontario, and its vast harbor on New York Bay ensure it a major role in US foreign trade. About one-quarter of US waterborne imports and exports pass through the New York Customs District (including New York City, Albany, and Newark and Perth Amboy, N.J.). Exports of goods from New York totaled \$50.4 billion in 2005, third among the states.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

The New York State Consumer Protection Board (CPB) was created in 1970, and is headed by an executive director appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the Senate. The CPB is divided into three organizations: the Consumer Assistance Unit; the Law and Investigations Unit; and the Office of Strategic Programs (which in turn is composed of an Outreach and Education Unit, and a Utility Intervention Unit). The Board coordinates the activities of all state agencies performing consumer protection functions, represents consumer interests before federal, state, and local bodies (including the Public Service Commission), and encourages consumer education and research, but it has no enforcement powers. These are vested in the Bureau of Consumer Frauds and Protection within the Department of Law, under the direction of the Attorney General. The Department of Public Service has regulatory authority over several areas of key interest to consumers, including gas, electric, and telephone rates.

State law outlaws unfair or deceptive trade practices and provides for small-claims courts, where consumers can take action at little cost to themselves. New York licenses and regulates automobile repair services, permits advertising of prescription drug prices, and requires unit pricing. A "cooling-off" period for home purchase contracts is mandated, and standards have been established for mobile-home construction. New York also has no-fault automobile insurance. In 1974, the legislature outlawed sex discrimination in banking, credit, and insurance policy transactions. The state's fair-trade law, which allowed price fixing on certain items, was repealed in 1975. The Fair Credit Reporting Act passed in 1977, allows consumers access to their credit bureau files. A 1984 "Lemon Law" entitles purchasers of defective new cars to repairs, a refund, or a replacement under specified circumstances. A similar law for used cars requires a written warranty for most essential mechanical components.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, New York's Attorney General can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the New York State Consumer Protection Board are located in Albany. The offices of the Bureau of Consumer Frauds and Protection are located in Albany and in New York City. The Office of the Attorney General has regional offices in Binghamton, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Hauppauge, Mineola, Harlem (New York City), Plattsburgh, Rochester, Syracuse, Utica, Watertown and in White Plains. County government consumer affairs offices are located in Albany, Buffalo, Carmel, Goshen, Kingston, Mineola, Monticello, New York City, Poughkeepsie, Schenectady, and White Plains. City government consumer affairs offices are located in Mount Vernon, New York City, Newtonville, Schenectady, and in Yonkers.

3² BANKING

New York City is the major US banking center. Banking is one of the state's leading industries, ranking first in the United States. As of June 2005, the state of New York had 209 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 32 state-chartered and 519 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the New York-Northern New Jersey-Long Island market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 233 institutions and \$770.488 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 2.9% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$36.484 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 97.1% or \$1,202.550 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the state's insured banks reported a median past-due/nonaccrual loan to total loans percentage of 1.20%, down from 1.46% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) in 2004 was 3.77%, down slightly from 3.78% in 2003.

New York has a higher percentage of residential mortgage lenders than the rest of the nation, and its median ratio of long-term assets-to-average earning assets remains above that of the nation.

Regulation of state-chartered banks and other financial institutions is the responsibility of the New York State Banking Department. It was established in 1851 and is the oldest bank regulatory body in the United States.

3³ INSURANCE

Like banking, insurance is big business in New York. Three of the ten top US life insurance companies—Metropolitan Life, New York Life, and Equitable Life Assurance—had their headquarters in New York.

As of 2003, there were 195 property and casualty and 186 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. Direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$33.3 billion in 2004. That year, there were 100,121 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$17.5 billion. About \$11 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, New Yorkers held over 9 million individual life insurance policies with a value of about \$999 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$1.6 trillion. The average coverage amount is \$110,100 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$3.8 billion.

In 2004, 53% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 28% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 15% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 17% for single coverage and 19% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 9 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$1,160.80, which ranked as the second-highest average in the nation (following New Jersey).

3⁴ SECURITIES

The New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) is by far the largest organized securities market in the nation and the world. The exchange began as an agreement among 24 brokers, known as the Buttonwood Agreement, in 1792; the exchange adopted its first constitution in 1817 and took on its present name in 1863. A clear sign of the growth of the NYSE is the development of its communications system. Stock tickers were first introduced in 1867; a faster ticker, installed in 1930, was capable of printing 500 characters a minute. By 1964, this was no longer fast enough, and a 900-character-a-minute ticker was introduced. Annual registered share volume increased from 1.8 billion in 1965 to 7.6 billion in 1978 following the

introduction in 1976 of a new data line capable of handling 36,000 characters a minute. In August 2000, the NYSE switched to a decimal system. The New York Futures Exchange was incorporated in 1979 as a wholly owned subsidiary of the NYSE and began trading in 1980. It also deals in options on futures. In 2006, The NYSE merged with Archipelago Holdings (ArcaEx and the Pacific Exchange) to form the for-profit NYSE Group, Inc. As of 2005, there were about 2,672 issuers listed on the NYSE, including about 453 foreign companies. NYSE listed companies represent a total global market value of \$21 trillion.

The American Stock Exchange (AMEX) is the second-leading US securities floor-based market, but the AMEX ranks far below the NYSE in both volume and value of securities. The AMEX traces its origins to the outdoor trading in unlisted securities that began on Wall and Hanover streets in the 1840s, the exchange was organized as the New York Curb Agency in 1908; the exchange moved indoors, but continued to use the hand signals developed by outdoor traders. The AMEX adopted its current name in 1953. Constitutional changes in 1976 for the first time permitted qualified issues to be traded on both the AMEX and the NYSE as well as on other exchanges. This Intermarket Trading System (ITS) began in 1978. In 1996, the hand signals used in trading on the AMEX for over 100 years were replaced by a computerized communication system. AMEX has about 661 regular trading members, and 203 options members.

The National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotations (NASDAQ), created in 1971, is a highly active exchange for over-the-counter securities. New York City is also a major center for trading in commodity futures. Leading commodity exchanges are the New York Coffee and Sugar Exchange; the New York Cocoa Exchange; the New York Cotton Exchange; the Commodity Exchange, Inc. (COMEX), specializing in gold, silver, and copper futures; and the New York Mercantile Exchange, which trades in futures for potatoes, platinum, palladium, silver coins, beef, and gold, among other items. Bonds may be issued in New York by cities, counties, towns, villages, school districts, and fire districts, as well as by quasi-independent authorities.

In 2005, there were 16,530 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 34,860 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 1,097 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 280 XX NASDAQ companies, 378 NYSE listings, and 114 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 55 Fortune 500 companies, including 20 companies in the Fortune 100; Citigroup ranked first in the state and eighth in the nation with revenues of over \$131 billion, followed by American Intl. Group (ninth), Intl. Business Machines (10th), J.P. Morgan Chase and Co. (17th), and Verizon Communications (18th). All five if these companies are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

New York State has the second largest budget (behind California), of all states in the United States.

The New York State budget is prepared by the Division of the Budget and submitted annually by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 April to 31 March.

New York—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	136,520,762	7,080.59
General revenue	106,300,211	5,513.21
Intergovernmental revenue	47,838,143	2,481.10
Taxes	45,826,429	2,376.77
General sales	10,050,291	521.25
Selective sales	6,428,674	333.42
License taxes	1,193,019	61.88
Individual income tax	24,647,225	1,278.32
Corporate income tax	2,044,504	106.04
Other taxes	1,462,716	75.86
Current charges	6,537,484	339.06
Miscellaneous general revenue	6,098,155	316.28
Utility revenue	6,091,450	315.93
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	24,129,101	1,251.44
Total expenditure	132,883,277	6,891.93
Intergovernmental expenditure	44,112,115	2,287.85
Direct expenditure	88,771,162	4,604.07
Current operation	60,269,027	3,125.82
Capital outlay	8,786,756	455.72
Insurance benefits and repayments	14,365,484	745.06
Assistance and subsidies	1,392,954	72.24
Interest on debt	3,956,941	205.22
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	14,032,761	727.80
Total expenditure	132,883,277	6,891.93
General expenditure	108,248,168	5,614.24
Intergovernmental expenditure	44,112,115	2,287.85
Direct expenditure	64,136,053	3,326.39
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	31,359,362	1,626.44
Public welfare	41,154,459	2,134.46
Hospitals	3,860,409	200.22
Health	5,231,209	271.31
Highways	3,672,833	190.49
Police protection	818,700	42.46
Correction	2,586,817	134.16
Natural resources	356,697	18.50
Parks and recreation	475,625	24.67
Government administration	4,264,941	221.20
Interest on general debt	3,020,332	156.65
Other and unallocable	11,446,784	593.68
Utility expenditure	10,269,625	532.63
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	14,365,484	745.06
Debt at end of fiscal year	95,709,813	4,963.94
Cash and security holdings	262,375,039	13,607.96

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$50.2 billion for resources and \$47.2 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to New York were \$50.0 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, New York state was slated to receive: \$2 billion in tax credits for transportation infrastructure to replace underutilized provisions of the Liberty Zone tax package; \$628.5 million for major cities throughout the state to fund buses, railcars, and maintenance facilities essential to sustaining public transportation systems that serve their communities; \$300 million to begin construction of the Long Island Rail Road East Side commuter rail extension on Manhattan's East Side.

This extension will carry an estimated 166,000 daily passengers when complete in 2012; \$46 million for the modernization of the Thurgood Marshall US Courthouse in New York City, including safety and accessibility upgrades; \$24 million to improve public transportation in New York for the elderly, persons with disabilities, and persons with lower-incomes, providing access to job and health care facilities; \$15.3 million to provide transportation in rural areas statewide meeting the needs of individuals that may have no other means of transportation; and \$7.6 million to expand a national cemetery in Saratoga.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government also released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$15 million for New York.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, New York collected \$50,190 million in tax revenues or \$2,607 per capita, which placed it 11th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 21.9% of the total; selective sales taxes, 10.3%; individual income taxes, 56.0%; corporate income taxes, 5.5%; and other taxes, 6.3%.

As of 1 January 2006, New York had five individual income tax brackets ranging from 4.0% to 6.85%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 7.5%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$32,333,564,000 or \$1,677 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state fourth-highest nationally. New York does not have property taxes at the state level.

New York taxes retail sales at a rate of 4.25%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 4.50%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8.75%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 150 cents per pack, which ranks 10th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. New York taxes gasoline at 23.9 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, New York citizens received \$0.79 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

New York has created a number of incentives for business to foster new jobs and encourage economic prosperity. Among these are government-owned industrial park sites, state aid in the creation of county and city master plans, state recruitment and screening of industrial employees, programs for the promotion of research and development, and state help in bidding on federal procurement contracts. Through Empire State Development (ESD), New York State provides a full range of technical assistance. Representatives of the ESD call on firms in Canada, Asia, Latin America, and Europe; the division maintains offices in London, Tokyo, Montreal, Toronto, Jerusalem, and Mexico City. The ESD, through its ten regional offices, encourages the retention and expansion of existing facilities and the attraction of new job-creating investments. Other divisions aid small business and minority and women's business.

The state administers a number of financial programs to attract or retain businesses. Among these are low interest loans and grants

for small businesses or for firms that create substantial numbers of jobs; grants and low cost loans for the development of industrial parks; and working capital loans to help companies at risk of downsizing. The state awards both grants and loans to manufacturing companies to encourage productivity improvements and modernization. It also seeks to encourage economic development in distressed rural communities with low interest loans for small businesses located in such areas. To promote technological innovation, the state provides debt and equity financing for technology based start-up companies.

In 2002, the ESD announced that to assist businesses affected by the World Trade Center (WTC) tragedy, it was implementing a \$700 million Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) provided by the federal government. The funds were to be made available in the form of loans and grants to affected businesses that committed to job retention, job creation and investment in New York City, with priority on Lower Manhattan. Other WTC assistance programs of the ESD include a Disaster Assistance Program for Individuals, Disaster Recovery Resources for Small Businesses, Liberty Zone Tax Benefits, a New York Liberty Bond Program, and the World Trade Center Relief Fund. The Lower Manhattan Development Corporation (LMDC), created after the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, was charged with planning and coordinating the rebuilding and revitalization of lower Manhattan.

38 HEALTH

Health presents a mixed picture in New York State. The state has some of the finest hospital and medical education facilities in the United States, but it also has large numbers of the needy with serious health problems.

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.2 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 39.1 per 1,000 women in 2000, representing the second-highest rate in the country (following the District of Columbia). In 2003, about 82.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.1 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 295.8; cancer, 191.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 39.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 36.4; and diabetes, 20.5. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 10.3 per 100,000 population, representing the third-highest rate in the country (following the District of Columbia and Maryland). In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 39.7 per 100,000 population, the second-highest rate in the country (following the District of Columbia). In 2002, about 54.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.9% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, New York had 207 community hospitals with about 64,700 beds. There were about 2.49 million patient admissions that year and 48 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 50,600 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,402. Also in 2003, there were about 671 certified nursing facilities in the state with 122,633 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 92.5%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 71.7% of all state residents had received some type

of dental care within the year. New York had 401 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 854 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 14,498 dentists in the state.

In 2005, the New York–Presbyterian University Hospital of Columbia and Cornell ranked seventh on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, it also ranked fifth for best pediatric care and seventh for best care in heart disease and heart surgery. The Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center ranked first in the nation for cancer care.

About 24% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 14% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 15% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$44.5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

A 1938 New York constitutional provision mandated that the care and support of the needy shall be a state concern. Social welfare is a major public enterprise in the state; the growth of poverty relief programs has been enormous. In 2004, about 513,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$271. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,754,861 persons (915,703 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$101.43 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was over \$2.1 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. New York's TANF program is called the Family Assistance Program (FA). In 2004, the state program had 336,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$2 billion in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 3,045,290 New York residents. This number included 1,985,530 retired workers, 277,600 widows and widowers, 383,800 disabled workers, 149,780 spouses, and 248,580 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.8% of the total state population and 87.7% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$1,011; widows and widowers, \$947; disabled workers, \$943; and spouses, \$480. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$490 per month; children of deceased workers, \$666; and children of disabled workers, \$273. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 626,593 New York residents, averaging \$461 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, the state had an estimated 7,819,359 housing units, of which 7,087,566 were occupied. That year, the state ranked fourth in the nation for the highest number of housing units (following California, Texas, and Florida). An estimated 3,259,092 units, or 41.6%, are located in New York City (NYC). The housing stock in New York is relatively old. About 33.7% of all units in the state were built before or during 1939; 49.7% were built between 1940

and 1979. In NYC, 83% of all housing units were built before 1960; in Buffalo, 73% of all units were built before 1939.

Statewide in 2004, 42.3% of all units were single-family, detached homes. In NYC, however, only 9% were single, detached units; 46.9% of the city's housing units are located in buildings of 20 units or more. The average household had 2.63 members. Housing differences in New York City offer far greater contrasts than units per structure: the posh apartment houses of Manhattan and the hovels of the South Bronx both count as multi-unit dwellings. In 2004, New York State had the second-lowest percentage of owner-occupied housing in the nation, at 55.6% (only the District of Columbia was lower). In 2004, it was estimated that 140,133 units in NYC lacked telephone service, 19,137 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 20,630 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Statewide, about 247,421 units lacked telephone service, 32,130 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 211,862 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Characteristic of housing in New York is a system of rent controls that began in 1943.

The tight housing market—which may have contributed to the exodus of New Yorkers from the state—was not helped by the slump in housing construction from the mid-1970s to the mid-1980s. In New York City, more units were demolished than built every year from 1974 to 1981. The drop in construction of multi-unit dwellings was even more noticeable: from 64,959 units in 1972 to 11,740 units in 1982. In 1993, only 7,723 multi-unit dwellings were authorized. The overall decline in construction was coupled with a drastic drop in new public housing. In 1972, permits were issued for 111,282 units valued at \$2.1 billion. By 1975, however, only 32,623 units worth \$756 million were authorized; in 1982 there were only 25,280 units worth \$1.1 billion, and in 1996, 34,895 units valued at \$3.1 billion were authorized. In 1998, numbers were on the rebound with 38,400 new privately owned housing units.

In 2004, 53,500 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value for the state was \$220,981. The median home value in NYC was \$373,176. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners statewide was \$1,525; renters paid a median of \$796 per month. In NYC, the median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,920; renters paid a median of \$856 per month.

Direct state aid for housing is limited. Governmental and quasi-independent agencies dealing with housing include the following: the Division of Housing and Community Renewal of the Executive Department, which makes loans and grants to municipalities for slum clearance and construction of low-income housing, supervises the operation of more than 400 housing developments, and administers rent-control and rent-stabilization laws; the New York State Housing Finance Agency, which is empowered to issue notes and bonds for various construction projects, not limited to housing; the State of New York Mortgage Agency, which may purchase existing mortgage loans from banks in order to make funds available for the banks to make new mortgage loans, and which also offers mortgage insurance; and the New York State Urban Development Corporation (UDC), a multibillion dollar agency designed to raise capital for all types of construction, including low-income housing. In 2006, the state received over \$48.5 million in community development block grants (CDBG) from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). New

York City received \$185.5 million in CDBGs and Buffalo received \$16.5 million.

41 EDUCATION

The Board of Regents and the State Education Department govern education from pre-kindergarten to graduate school. They are constitutionally responsible for setting educational policy, standards, and rules and legally required to ensure that the entities they oversee carry them out. The board and department also provide vocational and educational services to people with disabilities.

In 2004, 85.4% of New Yorkers age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 30.6% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in New York's public schools stood at 2,888,000. Of these, 2,017,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 871,000 attended high school. Approximately 53.9% of the students were white, 19.7% were black, 19.4% were Hispanic, 6.6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 2,872,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 2,715,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 6% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$42.5 billion or \$12,930 per student, the second-highest among the 50 states. In fall 2003 there were 458,079 students enrolled in 1,959 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in New York scored 280 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 1,107,270 students enrolled in institutions of higher education; minority students comprised 32.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 New York had 309 degree-granting institutions including, 45 public four-year schools, 35 public two-year schools, and 163 nonprofit, private four-year schools.

There are two massive public university systems: the State University of New York (SUNY) and the City University of New York (CUNY). Established in 1948, SUNY is one of the largest university systems in the country and encompasses university colleges of arts and sciences, specialized colleges, agricultural and technical colleges, statutory colleges (allied with private universities), health sciences centers, and locally sponsored community colleges. University centers include Buffalo, Albany, and Binghamton. The City University of New York was created in 1961, although many of its component institutions (including 12 four-year institutions) were founded much earlier. Under an open-enrollment policy adopted in 1970, every New York City resident with a high school diploma is guaranteed the chance to earn a college degree within the CUNY system (which CUNY campus the student attends is determined by grade point average).

The oldest private university in the state is Columbia University, founded in New York City as Kings College in 1754. Also part of Columbia are Barnard College (all women) and Columbia University Teachers College. Other major private institutions are Cornell University in Ithaca (1865); Fordham University in Manhattan and the Bronx (1841); New York University in Manhattan (1831); Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in Troy (1824); St. John's University in Queens (1870); Syracuse University (1870); and the

University of Rochester (1850). Among the state's many smaller but highly distinguished institutions are Hamilton College, the Juilliard School, the New School for Social Research, Rockefeller University, Sarah Lawrence College, Vassar College, and Yeshiva University.

Unique features of education in New York are the "Regents exams," uniform subject examinations administered to all high school students, and the Regents Scholarships Tuition Assistance Program (TAP), a higher-education aid program. The state passed a "truth in testing" law in 1979, giving students the right to see their graded college and graduate school entrance examinations, as well as information on how the test results were validated.

42 ARTS

New York City is the cultural capital of the state, and leads the nation in both the creative and the performing arts. The state's foremost arts center is Lincoln Center for the Performing Arts, in Manhattan. Facilities at Lincoln Center include Avery Fisher Hall (which opened as Philharmonic Hall in 1962), the home of the New York Philharmonic; the Metropolitan Opera House (1966), where the Metropolitan Opera Company performs; and the New York State Theater, which presents both the New York City Opera and the New York City Ballet. Also at Lincoln Center are the Juilliard School and the Library and Museum of the Performing Arts. The best-known arts center outside New York City is the Saratoga Performing Arts Center at Saratoga Springs. During the summer, the Saratoga Center presents performances by the New York City Ballet and the Philadelphia Orchestra. Artpark, a state park at Lewiston, has a 2,324-seat theater for operas and musicals, and offers art exhibits during the summer.

The New York State Council on the Arts (NYSCA) consists of 20 governor-appointed members. In 2005, the NYSCA and other New York arts organizations received 440 grants totaling over \$16,204,450 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Council on the Arts also receives funding from the state as well as contributions from private sources. The New York State Council on the Arts contributed to the Arts Connection of New York City—a program dedicated to providing the New York City public schools with interactive programming associated with the various arts—and to the National Book Foundation—centered in New York city and created to promote literacy as well as the appreciation of great American writing.

The New York Council for the Humanities was established in 1975; as of 2006 the state's Council for the Humanities had provided programs to over 4,000 institutions reaching over 250,000 New Yorkers annually. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$13,421,970 to 124 state programs.

The city's most famous artists' district is Greenwich Village, which still holds an annual outdoor art fair. In 2005, the 57th Greenwich Village Art Fair featured over 100 artists, working in numerous different mediums. After the 1950s many artists moved to SoHo (Manhattan on the West Side between Canal and Houston Streets), NoHo (immediately north of Houston Street), the East Village, and Tribeca (between Canal Street and the World Trade Center). By the early 1980s, artists seeking space at reasonable prices were moving to Long Island City in Queens, to areas of Brooklyn, or out of the city entirely, to places such as Hoboken and Paterson in New Jersey. During the late 1940s and early 1950s,

abstract painters—including Jackson Pollock, Mark Rothko, and Willem de Kooning—helped make the city a center of the avant garde.

At the same time, poets such as Frank O'Hara and John Ashbery sought verbal analogues to developments in the visual arts, and an urbane, improvisatory literature was created. New York has enjoyed a vigorous poetic tradition throughout its history, most notably with the works of Walt Whitman (who served as editor of the *Brooklyn Eagle* from 1846 to 1848) and through Hart Crane's mythic vision of the city in his long poem, *The Bridge*. The emergence of New York as the center of the US publishing and communications industries fostered the growth of a literary marketplace, attracting writers from across the country and the world. Early New York novelists included Washington Irving, Edgar Allan Poe, and Herman Melville; among the many who made their home in the city in the 20th century were Thomas Wolfe and Norman Mailer. The simultaneous growth of the Broadway stage made New York City a vital forum for playwriting, songwriting, and theatrical production. New York City is also a major link in the US songwriting, music publishing, and recording industries.

There are more than 35 Broadway theaters—large theaters in midtown Manhattan presenting full-scale, sometimes lavish productions with top-rank performers. "Off Broadway" productions are often of high professional quality, though typically in smaller theaters, outside the midtown district, often with smaller casts and less costly settings. "Off-Off Broadway" productions range from small experimental theaters on the fringes of the city to performances in nightclubs and cabarets. The New York metropolitan area has hundreds of motion picture theaters—more than 65 in Manhattan alone, not counting special series at the Museum of Modern Art and other cultural institutions. In the 1970s, New York City made a determined and successful effort to attract motion picture production companies.

New York's leading symphony orchestra, the New York Philharmonic, is the oldest symphony orchestra in the United States with a history that dates back to the founding of the Philharmonic Society of New York in 1842. Among the principal conductors of the orchestra have been Gustav Mahler, Josef Willem Mengelberg, Wilhelm Furtwangler, Arturo Toscanini, Leonard Bernstein, Pierre Boulez, and Zubin Mehta. As of its 2004/05 season the orchestra had performed in over 416 cities and 57 countries. Leading US and foreign orchestras and soloists appear at both Avery Fisher Hall and Carnegie Hall, built in 1892 and famed for its acoustics. Important orchestras outside New York City include the Buffalo Philharmonic, which performs at Kleinhans Music Hall, the Rochester Philharmonic, and the Eastman Philharmonic, the orchestra of the Eastman School of Music (University of Rochester).

New York City is one of the world centers of ballet. Of special renown is the New York City Ballet; the company consisted of approximately 90 dancers—the largest in America. The New York City Ballet's principal choreographer until his death in 1983 was George Balanchine. Many other ballet companies, including the American Ballet Theatre and the Alvin Ailey American Dance Theater, make regular appearances in New York. Rochester, Syracuse, Cooperstown, Chautauqua, and Binghamton have opera companies, and Lake George has an opera festival. The Lake George Opera marked its 45th summer season in 2006. The North

Fork Theatre at Westbury presents wide-ranging musical and comedic programs.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, the state of New York had 750 public library systems, with a total of 1,089 libraries, of which 340 were branches. In that same year, the state's public library system had 78,546,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves, and a total circulation of 126,796,000. The system also had 4,371,000 audio and 2,115,000 video items, 665,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 10 bookmobiles. The state also had three of the world's largest libraries, and New York City has several of the world's most famous museums. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the public library system totaled \$902,746,000 and included \$3,981,000 from the federal government, \$51,055,000 from the state government, and the rest from local sources.

The leading public library systems and their operating statistics as of 1999 were the New York Public Library, 17,762,034 volumes in 127 branches; Brooklyn Public Library, 6,800,000 volumes and 10,077,559 circulation; Queens Borough Public Library, 8,668,948 volumes and 14,829,837 circulation; and Buffalo and Erie County system, 5,240,965 volumes and 8,734,854 circulation.

Chartered in 1895, the New York Public Library (NYPL) is the most complete municipal library system in the world. The library's main building, at 5th Avenue and 42d St., is one of the city's best-known landmarks; serving the needs of Manhattan, the Bronx, and Staten Island. The NYPL is a repository for every book published in the United States. The NYPL also operates the Library and Museum of the Performing Arts at Lincoln Center; the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture; and the Science, Industry, and Business Library that opened in May 1996.

Two private university libraries—at Columbia University (7,018,408 volumes in 1999) and Cornell University (6,617,242)—rank among the world's major libraries. Other major university libraries in the state, with their 1999 book holdings, are Syracuse University, 2,650,995; New York University, 2,987,062; the State University of New York at Buffalo, 2,534,500; and the University of Rochester, 2,446,729.

There are about 671 museums in New York State; about 150 are major museums, of which perhaps 80% are in New York City. In addition, some 579 sites of historic importance are maintained by local historical societies. Major art museums in New York City include the Metropolitan Museum of Art, with more than one million art objects and paintings from virtually every period and culture; the Cloisters, a branch of the Metropolitan Museum devoted entirely to medieval art and architecture; the Frick collection; the Whitney Museum of American Art; the Brooklyn Museum; and two large modern collections, the Museum of Modern Art and the Solomon R. Guggenheim Museum (the latter designed by Frank Lloyd Wright in a distinctive spiral pattern). The Jewish Museum, the Museum of the American Indian, and the museum and reference library of the Hispanic Society of America specialize in cultural history.

The sciences are represented by the American Museum of Natural History, famed for its dioramas of humans and animals in natural settings and for its massive dinosaur skeletons; the Hayden Planetarium; the New York Botanical Garden and New York Zoological Society Park (Bronx Zoo), both in the Bronx. Also of inter-

est are the Museum of the City of New York, the Museum of the New-York Historical Society, the South Street Seaport Museum, and the New York Aquarium.

The New York State Museum in Albany contains natural history collections and historical artifacts. Buffalo has several museums of note, including the Albright-Knox Art Gallery (for contemporary art), the Buffalo Museum of Science, and the Buffalo and Erie County Historical Society museum.

Among the state's many other fine museums, the Everson Museum of Art (Syracuse), the Rochester Museum and Science Center, the National Baseball Hall of Fame and Museum (Cooperstown), and the Corning Museum of Glass deserve special mention. Buffalo, New Rochelle, Rochester, Syracuse, and Utica have zoos.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

New York City is the hub of the entire US communications network. Postal service was established in New York State in 1692; at the same time, the first General Letter Office was begun in New York City. By the mid-19th century, postal receipts in the state accounted for more than 20% of the US total. "Fast mail" service by train started in the 1870s, with the main routes leading from New York City to either Chicago or St. Louis via Indianapolis and Cincinnati. Mail was carried by air experimentally from Garden City to Mineola, Long Island, in 1911; the first regular airmail service in the United States started in 1917, between New York City and Washington, DC, via Philadelphia.

Telephone service in New York is provided primarily by the New York Telephone Co., but also by more than 40 smaller companies throughout the state. As of 2004, 94.5% of New York's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 9,939,759 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 60.0% of New York households had a computer and 53.3% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 3,188,033 high-speed lines in New York, 2,833,478 residential and 354,555 for business.

Until 31 December 1983, New York Telephone was part of the Bell System, whose parent organization was the American Telephone and Telegraph Co. (AT&T). Effective 1 January 1984, as the result of a US Justice Department antitrust suit, AT&T divested itself of 22 Bell operating companies, which regrouped into seven independent regional telephone companies to provide local telephone service in the United States. One of these companies, NYNEX, is the parent company of New York Telephone. AT&T, which continued to supply long-distance telephone services to New Yorkers (along with competitive carriers such as MCI, ITT, and GTE), is headquartered in New York City.

Domestic telegraph service is provided by the Western Union Telegraph Co., ITT World Communications, RCA Global Communications, and Western Union International. All four companies have their headquarters in New York City. New York State had 58 major AM stations and 181 major FM stations operating in 2005. New York City operates its own radio stations, WNYC-AM and FM, devoted largely to classical music and educational programming. There were 46 major television stations in the state in 2005. The city is the headquarters for most of the major US television networks, including the American Broadcasting Co. (now part of Walt Disney Corp.), Columbia Broadcasting System (owned by the Westinghouse Corp.), National Broadcasting Co.

(owned by General Electric), Westinghouse Broadcasting (Group W), Metromedia, and the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS). The metropolitan area's PBS affiliate, WNET (licensed in Newark, N.J.), is a leading producer of programs for the PBS network. As of 1999, the New York metropolitan area had 6,874,990 television households, 74% of which received cable. The Buffalo region had 621,460 television homes, with a 77% penetration rate.

A total of 589,963 Internet domain names were registered in the state in the year 2000; the second highest number of all states.

45 PRESS

A pioneer in the establishment of freedom of the press, New York is the leader of the US newspaper, magazine, and book-publishing industries. The first major test of press freedom in the colonies came in 1734, when a German-American printer, John Peter Zenger, was arrested on charges of sedition and libel. In his newspaper, the *New-York Weekly Journal*, Zenger had published articles criticizing the colonial governor of New York. Zenger's lawyer, Andrew Hamilton, argued that because the charges in the article were true, they could not be libelous. The jury's acceptance of this argument freed Zenger and established the right of the press to criticize those in power. Two late decisions involving a New York newspaper also struck blows for press freedom. In *New York Times v. Sullivan* (1964), the US Supreme Court ruled that a public official could not win a libel suit against a newspaper unless he could show that its statements about him were not only false but also malicious or in reckless disregard of the truth. In 1971, the *New York Times* was again involved in a landmark case when the federal government tried—and failed—to prevent the newspaper from publishing the Pentagon Papers, a collection of secret documents concerning the war in Vietnam.

In 2005, New York had 37 morning newspapers, 23 evening papers, and 38 Sunday editions.

The following table shows leading papers in New York, with their average daily and Sunday circulations in 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Albany	<i>Times-Union</i> (m,S)	100,628	146,464
Buffalo	<i>News</i> (all day,S)	196,429	282,618
Long Island	<i>Newsday</i> (m,S)	481,816	574,081
New York City	<i>Daily News</i> (m,S)	715,052	786,952
	<i>Post</i> (m,S)	481,860	455,511
	<i>Times</i> (m,S)	1,121,057	1,680,583
	<i>Wall Street Journal</i> (m)	1,780,605	
Rochester	<i>Democrat and Chronicle</i> (m,S)	166,727	224,408
Syracuse	<i>Post-Standard</i> (m,S)	118,926	175,020

All of New York City's major newspapers have claims to fame. The *Times* is the nation's "newspaper of record," excelling in the publication of speeches, press conferences, and government reports. It is widely circulated to US libraries and is often cited in research. In 2005, the *Times* Sunday edition was the number one Sunday newspaper in the nation, based on circulation figures. The *New York Post*, founded in 1801, is the oldest US newspaper published continuously without change of name. The *Wall Street Journal*, published Monday through Friday, is a truly national paper, presenting mostly business news in four regional editions. In 2005, the *Wall Street Journal*, the *Times*, the *New York Daily News*, the *Long Island Newsday*, and the *Post* were among the top thirteen largest daily newspapers in the nation. Many historic New

York papers first merged and then—bearing compound names like the *Herald-Tribune*, *Journal-American*, and *World-Telegram & Sun Newspaper*—died in the 1950s and 1960s. In 2001, the Syracuse *Herald-American* and *Herald-Journal* merged to form the *Post-Standard*.

There are two Spanish dailies published in New York City: *El Diario La Prensa*, with a circulation of 50,019 daily and 34,636 Sundays; and *Hoy*, with a circulation of 49,681 daily and 25,465 Sundays.

The leading newspaper chain is the Gannett Co., Inc. (headquarters in Virginia). Other groups include Ogden Newspapers, Inc. (West Virginia), Hearst Newspapers (New York), and Johnson Newspaper Corp. (New York). All the major news agencies have offices in New York City, and the Associated Press has its headquarters there.

In 2005, there were 354 weekly publications in New York. Of these there are 208 paid weeklies, 53 free weeklies, and 93 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (1,635,143) and free weeklies (2,420,539) is 4,055,682. Two of New York City's paid weeklies, *People's Weekly World* and *Observer* ranked first and sixth, respectively, in the United States based on circulations of 67,700 and 52,000. Based on circulation in the United States in 2005, among free weeklies the Suffolk County *Life Newspapers* ranked second in the United States with a circulation of 548,657. The Nassau County *This Week/Pennysaver* (circulation 993,913) ranked seventh in the United States among shopping publications.

Many leading US magazines are published in New York City, including the newsmagazines *Time* and *Newsweek*, business journals like *Fortune*, *Forbes*, and *Business Week*, and hundreds of consumer and trade publications. *Reader's Digest* is published in Pleasantville. Two weeklies closely identified with New York are of more than local interest. While the *New Yorker* carries up-to-date listings of cultural events and exhibitions in New York City, the excellence of its journalism, criticism, fiction, and cartoons has long made it a literary standard-bearer for the entire nation. *New York* magazine influenced the writing style and graphic design of the 1960s and set the pattern for a new wave of state and local magazines that avoided boosterism in favor of independent reporting and commentary. Another weekly, the *Village Voice* (actually a tabloid newspaper), became the prototype for a host of alternative or "underground" journals during the 1960s.

New York City is also the center of the nation's book-publishing industry. New York publishers include McGraw-Hill, Macmillan, Simon & Schuster, and Random House; many book publishers are subsidiaries of other companies.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 25,673 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 19,427 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

The United Nations is the best-known organization to have its headquarters in New York. The UN Secretariat, completed in 1951, remains one of the most familiar landmarks of New York City. Hundreds of US nonprofit organizations also have their national headquarters in New York City. General and service organizations operating out of New York City include the American Field Service, Boys Clubs of America, Girls Clubs of America, Girl

Scouts of the USA, Young Women's Christian Associations of the USA (YWCA), and Associated YM-YWHAs of Greater New York (the Jewish equivalent of the YMCA and YWCA).

Among the cultural and educational groups of national interest are the American Academy of Arts and Letters, Authors League of America, Children's Book Council, Modern Language Association of America, and PEN American Center. State organizations include the Folk Music Society of New York, the New York Center for Books and Reading, the New York Academy of Sciences, the New York Drama Critics Circle, and the New York State Historical. The Statue of Liberty–Ellis Island Foundation sponsors educational programs as well as maintaining the monument and museum. There are numerous local musical and theater groups. There are also several regional historical societies.

Among the national environmental and animal welfare organizations with headquarters in the city are the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (ASPCA), Friends of Animals, Fund for Animals, National Audubon Society, Bide-A-Wee Home Association, Environmental Defense Fund, and American Kennel Club. State groups include the New York City Community Garden Coalition, the New York Conservation Foundation, and the New York State Conservation Council.

Many medical, health, and charitable organizations have their national offices in New York City, including Alcoholics Anonymous, American Foundation for the Blind, National Society to Prevent Blindness, CARE, American Cancer Society, United Cerebral Palsy Associations, Child Welfare League of America, American Diabetes Association, National Multiple Sclerosis Society, Muscular Dystrophy Association, and Planned Parenthood Federation of America.

Leading ethnic and religious organizations based in the city include the American Bible Society, National Conference of Christians and Jews, Hadassah, United Jewish Appeal, American Jewish Committee, American Jewish Congress, United Negro College Fund, Congress of Racial Equality, and National Urban League.

There are many commercial, trade, and professional organizations headquartered in New York City. Among the better known are the Actors' Equity Association, American Arbitration Association, American Booksellers Association, American Federation of Musicians, American Institute of Chemical Engineers, American Society of Civil Engineers, American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers (ASCAP), American Society of Journalists and Authors, American Insurance Association, Magazine Publishers Association, American Management Associations, American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and American Institute of Physics.

Sports organizations centered in New York City include the National Football League, the American and the National Leagues of Professional Baseball Clubs, the National Thoroughbred Racing Association, National Basketball Association, the Polar Bear Club–USA, and the US Tennis Association.

Influential political and international affairs groups include the American Civil Liberties Union, Council on Foreign Relations, Trilateral Commission, United Nations Association of the USA, and US Committee for UNICEF.

Virtually every other major US organization has one or more chapters within the state.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

New York City is the primary travel destination in the state. In 2001, there were 35.2 million visitors to New York City, including 5.7 million international visitors. The projection for 2006 was 43.3 million visitors to New York City. New York City alone brings in \$39 billion in revenue. New York City also supported 291,977 jobs in tourism in 2004. A typical visit to New York City might include a boat ride to the Statue of Liberty; a three-hour boat ride around Manhattan; the Empire State Building, the United Nations, Rockefeller Center, and the New York Stock Exchange; walking tours of the Bronx Zoo, Chinatown, and the theater district; and a sampling of the city's many museums, restaurants, shops, and shows.

Second to New York City as a magnet for tourists comes Long Island, with its beaches, racetracks, and other recreational facilities. Attractions of the Hudson Valley include the US Military Academy (West Point), the Franklin D. Roosevelt home at Hyde Park, Bear Mountain State Park, and several wineries. North of Hudson Valley is Albany, with its massive government center, Governor Nelson A. Rockefeller Plaza, often called the Albany Mall; Saratoga Springs, home of an arts center, racetrack, and spa; and the Adirondack region, with its forest preserve, summer and winter resorts, and abundant hunting and fishing. Northwest of the Adirondacks, in the St. Lawrence River, are the Thousand Islands—actually some 1,800 small islands extending over some 50 mi (80 km) and popular among freshwater fishermen and summer vacationers.

Scenic sites in central New York include the summer resorts and ski areas of the Catskills and the scenic marvels and wineries of the Finger Lakes region, including Taughannock Falls in Trumansburg, the highest waterfall east of the Rockies. Further west lie Buffalo and Niagara Falls. Niagara Falls alone attracts over 12 million visitors annually. Charter boat fishing is available on Lake Ontario. Chautauqua Lake and Allegany State Park, the state's largest, lie south of Buffalo and Niagara Falls. Elmont is the home of the Belmont race track, the third leg in the Triple Crown of thoroughbred horse racing. Motorsports fans can visit the Adirondacks International Speedway.

48 SPORTS

New York has eleven major league professional sports teams: the New York Yankees and the New York Mets of Major League Baseball; the New York Giants, the New York Jets (although the Giants' and Jets' stadiums are located in New Jersey), and the Buffalo Bills of the National Football League; the New York Knickerbockers (usually called the Knicks) of the National Basketball Association; the New York Islanders, the New York Rangers, and the Buffalo Sabres of the National Hockey League; the New York Liberty of the Women's National Basketball Association, and Red Bull New York of Major League Soccer.

The Yankees have a record of excellence spanning most of the twentieth century. They won the American League Pennant 39 times and the World Series 26 times, most recently in 2000, when they defeated the New York Mets in five games. The series was coined the "Subway Series" because both teams were from New York City. Other championship streaks include the American League Pennant in 1927 and 1928; 1936–39; 1941–43; 1949–53; 1955–58; 1960–64; 1998–2001. In the 28 years between 1936 and

1964, the Yankees competed in 23 World Series, winning 16. The Mets have played in four World Series, winning in 1969 and 1986. The Giants won Super Bowls in 1987 and 1991, and the Jets did so in 1969 in a memorable upset victory over the Baltimore Colts. The Buffalo Bills won the American Football Conference Championship in 1991, 1992, 1993, and 1994, losing the Super Bowl each time. The Knicks won the NBA championship in 1970 and 1973, and lost in the NBA finals in 1951, 1952, 1953, 1972, 1994, and 1999. The Islanders won the Stanley Cup in 1980, 1981, 1982, and 1983. The Rangers won it in 1928, 1933, 1940, and 1994.

Three New York teams, the Nets, Giants, and Jets, moved to New Jersey during the 1970s and 1980s. The Giants and Jets remained, in name, New York teams (unlike the Nets, who are now the New Jersey Nets), although the move remains controversial. In 1987, when the Giants won the Super Bowl, then mayor of New York Ed Koch refused them the ticker-tape parade through the city traditionally given in honor of championship teams on the grounds that, their name notwithstanding, they are a New Jersey team.

The state also has 13 minor league baseball teams and six minor league hockey teams.

Horse racing is important to New York State, both as a sports attraction and because of the tax revenues that betting generates. The main thoroughbred racetracks are Aqueduct in Queens, Belmont in Nassau County, and the Saratoga Race Course in Saratoga Springs. Belmont is the home of the Belmont Stakes, one of the three jewels in the Triple Crown of US racing. Saratoga Springs also has a longer harness-racing season at its Saratoga Equine Sports Center facility. Thoroughbred racing is also offered at the Finger Lakes track in Canandaigua. The top track for harness racing is Monticello Raceway (in the Catskills).

The New York City Off-Track Betting Corporation (OTB), which began operations in April 1971, takes bets on races at the state's major tracks, as well as on some out-of-state races. Off-track betting services operate on a smaller scale on Long Island and in upstate New York.

New York City hosts several major professional tennis tournaments every year, including the US Open in Flushing Meadows; the Last Minute Travel.com Masters (men) in Central Park, and the Chase Championships of the WTA Tour (women) at Madison Square Garden.

Among other professional sports facilities, the Watkins Glen International automobile racetrack was, until 1980, the site of a Grand Prix race every October. It now hosts a NASCAR Nextel Cup race in August. Lake Placid, an important winter-sports region, hosted the 1932 and 1980 Winter Olympics, and continues to host amateur winter sports competitions, such as bobsled racing and ski jumping. New York City's Madison Square Garden is a leading venue for professional boxing and hosts many other sporting events.

In collegiate sports, basketball is perhaps most popular. Historically, the City College of New York produced many nationally ranked teams including the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) champions of 1950; in that year, they also won the National Invitational Basketball Tournament (NIT). St. John's and Syracuse have produced nationally prominent teams, including the 1989 St. John's team that won the NIT. The Syracuse Orangemen won the 2003 National Championship.

The US Military Academy at West Point (Army) won college football national championships in 1944 and 1945, and, as of 1997, ranked 12th all-time among Division I-A teams with more than 600 victories.

Hockey and lacrosse are popular sports at the collegiate level and have been well represented by New York colleges and universities. Both the Syracuse Orangemen and Cornell Big Red have captured multiple national championships on the Division-I level. Cornell has been equally successful on the ice, advancing to the Frozen Four on a number of occasions (most recently in 2003). The Big Red captured the national championship in both 1967 and 1970.

In 1978, New York became the first state to sponsor a statewide amateur athletic event, the Empire State Games. More than 50,000 athletes now compete for a place in the finals, held each summer; the Winter Games, held each February in Lake Placid, host more than 1,000.

The New York City marathon, which is held in late October or early November, has become one of the largest, most prestigious marathons in the world.

Other annual sporting events include the Adirondack Hot Air Balloon Festival in Glens Falls in September and the Westminster Kennel Club Dog Show in New York City in February. The Baseball Hall of Fame is located in Cooperstown.

49 FAMOUS NEW YORKERS

New York State has been the home of five US presidents, eight US vice presidents (three of whom also became president), many statesmen of national and international repute, and a large corps of writers and entertainers.

Martin Van Buren (1782–1862), the eighth US president, became governor of New York in 1828. He was elected to the vice presidency as a Democrat under Andrew Jackson in 1832, and succeeded Jackson in the election of 1836. An unpopular president, Van Buren ran for reelection in 1840 but was defeated, losing even his home state. The 13th US president, Millard Fillmore (1800–74), was elected vice president under Zachary Taylor in 1848. He became president in 1850 when Taylor died. Fillmore's party, the Whigs, did not renominate him in 1852; four years later, he unsuccessfully ran for president as the candidate of the Native American (or Know-Nothing) Party.

Chester Alan Arthur (1829–86), a transplanted New Yorker born in Vermont, became the 21st US president when James Garfield was assassinated. New York's other US presidents had more distinguished careers. Although he was born in New Jersey, Grover Cleveland (1837–1908) served as mayor of Buffalo and as governor of New York before his election to his first presidential term in 1884; he was again elected president in 1892. Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919), a Republican, was elected governor in 1898. He won election as vice president under William McKinley in 1900, and became the nation's 26th president after McKinley was murdered in 1901. Roosevelt pursued an aggressive foreign policy, but also won renown as a conservationist and trustbuster. Reelected in 1904, he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1906 for helping to settle a war between Russia and Japan. Roosevelt declined to run again in 1908. However, he sought the Republican nomination in 1912 and, when defeated, became the candidate of the

Progressive (or Bull Moose) Party, losing the general election to Woodrow Wilson.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945), a fifth cousin of Theodore Roosevelt, first ran for national office in 1920, when he was the Democratic vice-presidential choice. A year after losing that election, FDR was crippled by poliomyelitis. He then made an amazing political comeback: he was elected governor of New York in 1928 and served until 1932, when US voters chose him as their 32d president. Reelected in 1936, 1940, and 1944, FDR is the only president ever to have served more than two full terms in office. Roosevelt guided the United States through the Great Depression and World War II, and his New Deal programs greatly enlarged the federal role in promoting social welfare.

In addition to Van Buren, Fillmore, and Theodore Roosevelt, five US vice presidents were born in New York: George Clinton (1739–1812), who was also New York State's first elected governor; Daniel D. Tompkins (1774–1825); William A. Wheeler (1819–87); Schuyler Colfax (1823–85); and James S. Sherman (1855–1912). Two other US vice presidents, though not born in New York, were New Yorkers by the time they became vice president. The first was Aaron Burr (1756–1836), perhaps best known for killing Alexander Hamilton in a duel in 1804; Hamilton (b.Nevis, West Indies, 1757–1804) was a leading Federalist, George Washington's treasury secretary, and the only New York delegate to sign the US Constitution in 1787. The second transplanted New Yorker to become vice president was Nelson Aldrich Rockefeller (1908–79). Born in Maine, Rockefeller served as governor of New York State from 1959 to 1973, was for two decades a major force in national Republican politics, and was appointed vice president by Gerald Ford in 1974, serving in that office through January 1977. Alan Greenspan (b.1926), a chairman of the Federal Reserve, was born in New York City.

Two native New Yorkers have become chief justices of the United States: John Jay (1745–1829) and Charles Evans Hughes (1862–1948). A third chief justice, Harlan Fiske Stone (1872–1946), born in New Hampshire, spent most of his legal career in New York City and served as dean of Columbia University's School of Law. Among New Yorkers who became associate justices of the US Supreme Court, Benjamin Nathan Cardozo (1870–1938) is noteworthy. Ruth Bader Ginsberg (b.1933) was President Bill Clinton's first appointment to the Supreme Court.

Other federal officeholders born in New York include US secretaries of state William Henry Seward (1801–72), Hamilton Fish (1808–93), Elihu Root (1845–1937), Frank B. Kellogg (1856–1937), and Henry L. Stimson (1867–1950). Prominent US senators have included Robert F. Wagner (1877–1953), who sponsored many New Deal laws; Robert F. Kennedy (1925–68), who though born in Massachusetts was elected to represent New York in 1964; Jacob K. Javits (1904–86), who served continuously in the Senate from 1957 through 1980; and Daniel Patrick Moynihan (1927–2003), a scholar, author, and former federal bureaucrat who has represented New York since 1977. Colin Powell (b.1937), first African American to lead the Armed Forces, attended the City University of New York.

The most important—and most colorful—figure in colonial New York was Peter Stuyvesant (b.Netherlands, 1592–1672); as director general of New Netherland, he won the hearty dislike of the Dutch settlers. Signers of the Declaration of Independence in

1776 from New York were Francis Lewis (1713–1803); Philip Livingston (1716–78); Lewis Morris (1726–98), the half-brother of the colonial patriot Gouverneur Morris (1752–1816); and William Floyd (1734–1821).

Other governors who made important contributions to the history of the state include DeWitt Clinton (1769–1828); Alfred E. Smith (1873–1944); Herbert H. Lehman (1878–1963); W. Averell Harriman (1891–1986), who has also held many US diplomatic posts; and Thomas E. Dewey (1902–71). Mario M. Cuomo (b.1932) served three terms as governor from 1982–94. Robert Moses (b.Connecticut, 1888–1981) led in the development of New York's parks and highway transportation system. One of the best-known and best-loved mayors in New York City history was Fiorello H. La Guardia (1882–1947), a reformer who held the office from 1934 to 1945. Edward I. Koch (b.1924) was first elected to the mayoralty in 1977.

Native New Yorkers have won Nobel prizes in every category. Winners of the Nobel Peace Prize besides Theodore Roosevelt were Elihu Root in 1912 and Frank B. Kellogg in 1929. The lone winner of the Nobel Prize for literature was Eugene O'Neill (1888–1953) in 1936. The chemistry prize was awarded to Irving Langmuir (1881–1957) in 1932, John H. Northrop (1891–1987) in 1946, and William Howard Stein (1911–80) in 1972. Winners in physics include Carl D. Anderson (b.1905–1991) in 1936, Robert Hofstadter (1915–90) in 1961, Richard Phillips Feynman (1918–88) and Julian Seymour Schwinger (1918–94) in 1965, Murray Gell-Mann (b.1929) in 1969, Leon N. Cooper (b.1930) in 1972, Burton Richter (b.1931) in 1976, and Steven Weinberg (b.1933) and Sheldon L. Glashow (b.1923) in 1979.

The following New Yorkers have been awarded the Nobel Prize for physiology or medicine: Hermann Joseph Muller (1890–1967) in 1946, Arthur Kornberg (b.1918) in 1959, George Wald (1906–97) in 1967, Marshall Warren Nirenberg (b.1927) in 1968, Julius Axelrod (1912–2004) in 1970, Gerald Maurice Edelman (b.1929) in 1972, David Baltimore (b.1938) in 1975, Baruch Samuel Blumberg (b.1925) and Daniel Carlton Gajdusek (b.1923) in 1976, Rosalyn Sussman Yalow (b.1921) in 1977, and Hamilton O. Smith (b.1931) in 1978.

The Nobel Prize for economic science was won by Kenneth J. Arrow (b.1921) in 1972, Milton Friedman (b.1912) in 1976, Richard Stone (1928–91) in 1984, and Robert Fogel (b.1926) in 1993. New York is also the birthplace of national labor leader George Meany (1894–1980) and economist Walter Heller (1915–87). Other distinguished state residents were physicist Joseph Henry (1797–1878), Mormon leader Brigham Young (b.Vermont, 1801–77), botanist Asa Gray (1810–88), inventor-businessman George Westinghouse (1846–1914), and Jonas E. Salk (1914–95), developer of a poliomyelitis vaccine. Melvin Schwartz (b.New York City, 1932) was a co-recipient of the 1988 Nobel prize in physics. Gertrude Belle Elion (1918–99), Nobel Prize winner in medicine 1988, was born in New York City. Leon Max Lederman (b.1922) was a co-recipient of the 1988 Nobel Prize in physics.

Writers born in New York include the storyteller and satirist Washington Irving (1783–1859); poets Walt Whitman (1819–92) and Ogden Nash (1902–71); and playwrights Eugene O'Neill (1888–1953), Arthur Miller (1915–2005), Paddy Chayefsky (1923–81), and Neil Simon (b.1927). Two of America's greatest novelists were New Yorkers: Herman Melville (1819–91), who was also an

important poet, and Henry James (1843–1916), whose short stories are equally well known. Other novelists include James Fenimore Cooper (b.New Jersey, 1789–1851), Henry Miller (1891–1980), James Michener (1907–97), J(erome) D(avid) Salinger (b.1919), Joseph Heller (1923–99), James Baldwin (1924–87), and Gore Vidal (b.1925). Lionel Trilling (1905–75) was a well-known literary critic; Barbara Tuchman (1912–89), a historian, has won both scholarly praise and popular favor. New York City has produced two famous journalist-commentators, Walter Lippmann (1889–1974) and William F. Buckley Jr. (b.1925), and a famous journalist-broadcaster Walter Winchell (1897–1972).

Broadway is the showcase of American drama and the birthplace of the American musical theater. New Yorkers linked with the growth of the musical include Jerome Kern (1885–1945), Lorenz Hart (1895–1943), Oscar Hammerstein II (1895–1960), Richard Rodgers (1902–79), Alan Jay Lerner (1918–86), and Stephen Sondheim (b.1930). George Gershwin (1898–1937), whose *Porgy and Bess* raised the musical to its highest artistic form, also composed piano and orchestral works. Other important US composers from New York include Irving Berlin (b.Russia, 1888–1989), Aaron Copland (1900–90), Elliott Carter (b.1908), and William Schuman (1910–92). New York was the adopted home of ballet director and choreographer George Balanchine (b.Russia, 1904–83); his associate Jerome Robbins (1918–98) was born in New York City, as was choreographer Agnes De Mille (1905–93). Leaders in the visual arts include Frederic Remington (1861–1909), the popular illustrator Norman Rockwell (1894–1978), Willem de Kooning (b.Netherlands, 1904–97), and the photographer Margaret Bourke-White (1906–71).

Many of America's best-loved entertainers come from the state. A small sampling would include comedians Groucho Marx (Julius Marx, 1890–1977), Mae West (1892–1980), Eddie Cantor (Edward Israel Iskowit, 1892–1964), James "Jimmy" Durante (1893–1980), Bert Lahr (Irving Lahrheim, 1895–1967), George Burns (1896–1996), Milton Berle (Berlinger, b.1908), Lucille Ball (1911–1989), Danny Kaye (David Daniel Kominsky, 1913–87), and Sid Caesar (b.1922); comedian-film directors Mel Brooks (Melvin Kaminsky, b.1926) and Woody Allen (Allen Konigsberg, b.1935); stage and screen stars Humphrey Bogart (1899–1957), James Cagney (1904–86), Zero Mostel (Samuel Joel Mostel, 1915–77), and Lauren Bacall (Betty Joan Perske, b.1924); pop, jazz, and folk singers Cab Calloway (1907–90), Lena Horne (b.1917), Pete Seeger (b.1919), Sammy Davis Jr. (1925–90), Harry Belafonte (b.1927), Joan Baez (b.1941), Barbra Streisand (b.1942), Carly Simon (b.1945), Arlo Guthrie (b.1947), Billy Joel (b.1951), and Mariah Carey, Grammy Award-winning pop singer, (b.1969); and opera stars Robert Merrill (1919–2004), Maria Callas (Kalogeropoulos, 1923–77), and Beverly Sills (Belle Silverman, b.1929). Also noteworthy are producers Irving Thalberg (1899–1936), David Susskind (1920–87), Joseph Papp (1921–91), and Harold Prince (b.1928) and directors George Cukor (1899–1983), Stanley Kubrick (1928–99), John

Frankenheimer (1930–2002), Peter Bogdanovich (b.1939), and actor Tom Cruise (b.1962 in Syracuse, New York).

Among many prominent sports figures born in New York are first-baseman Lou Gehrig (1903–41), football coach Vince Lombardi (1913–70), pitcher Sanford "Sandy" Koufax (b.1935), and basketball stars Kareem Abdul-Jabbar (Lew Alcindor, b.1947) and Julius Erving (b.1950). Orel Leonard Hershey IV (b.1958), who set the record for most consecutive scoreless innings pitched, was born in Buffalo, New York.

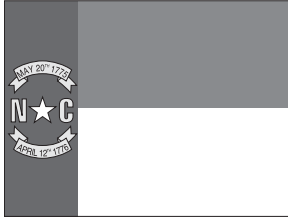
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NORTH CAROLINA

State of North Carolina



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named in honor of King Charles I of England. **NICKNAME:** The Tarheel State; Old North State. **CAPITAL:** Raleigh. **ENTERED UNION:** 21 November 1789 (12th). **SONG:** “The Old North State.” **MOTTO:** *Esse quam videri* (To be rather than to seem). **FLAG:** Adjacent to the fly of two equally sized bars, red above and white below, is a blue union containing a white star in the center, flanked by the letters N and C in gold. Above and below the star are two gold scrolls, the upper one reading “May 20th 1775,” the lower one “April 12th 1776.” **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Liberty, clasping a constitution and holding aloft on a pole a liberty cap, stands on the left, while Plenty sits beside a cornucopia on the right; behind them, mountains run to the sea, on which a three-masted ship appears. “May 20, 1775” appears above the figures; the words “The Great Seal of the State of North Carolina” and the state motto surround the whole. **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FISH:** Channel bass. **FLOWER:** Dogwood. **TREE:** Long leaf pine. **GEM:** Emerald. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the day following; Christmas Day, 25 December and the day following. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the southeastern United States, North Carolina ranks 28th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of North Carolina is 52,669 sq mi (136,413 sq km), of which land accounts for 48,843 sq mi (126,504 sq km) and inland water 3,826 sq mi (9,909 sq km). North Carolina extends 503 mi (810 km) E–W; the state’s maximum N–S extension is 187 mi (301 km).

North Carolina is bordered on the N by Virginia; on the E by the Atlantic Ocean; on the S by South Carolina and Georgia; and on the W by Tennessee. A long chain of islands or sand banks, called the Outer Banks, lies off the state’s Atlantic coast. The total boundary line of North Carolina is 1,270 mi (2,044 km), including a general coastline of 301 mi (484 km); the tidal shoreline extends 3,375 mi (5,432 km). The state’s geographic center is in Chatham County, 10 mi (16 km) NW of Sanford.

²TOPOGRAPHY

North Carolina’s three major topographic regions belong to the Atlantic Coastal Plain, the Piedmont Plateau, and the Appalachian Mountains.

The Outer Banks, narrow islands of shifting sandbars, screen most of the coastal plain from the ocean. Treacherous navigation conditions and numerous shipwrecks have earned the name of “Graveyard of the Atlantic” for the shoal waters off Cape Hatteras, which, like Cape Lookout and Cape Fear, juts out from the banks into the Atlantic. Cape Hatteras Lighthouse is the tallest in the United States, rising 208 ft (63 m). The shallow Pamlico and Albemarle sounds and broad salt marshes lying behind the Outer Banks serve not only as valuable habitats for marine life but as further hindrances to water transportation. Sea level at the Atlantic Ocean is the lowest elevation of the state.

On the mainland, the coastal plain extends westward from the sounds for 100 to 140 mi (160–225 km) and upward from sea level to nearly 500 ft (150 m). Near the ocean, the outer coastal plain is very flat and often swampy; this region contains all the natural lakes in North Carolina, the largest being Lake Mattamuskeet (67 sq mi/174 sq km), followed by lakes Phelps and Waccamaw. The inner coastal plain is more elevated and better drained. Infertile sand hills mark its southwestern section, but the rest of the region constitutes the state’s principal farming country.

The Piedmont is a rolling plateau of red clay soil roughly 150 mi (240 km) wide, rising from 30 to 600 ft (90–180 m) in the east to 1,500 ft (460 m) in the west. The fall line, a sudden change in elevation, separates the piedmont from the coastal plain and produces numerous rapids in the rivers that flow between the regions.

The Blue Ridge, a steep escarpment that parallels the Tennessee border, divides the piedmont from North Carolina’s westernmost region, containing the highest and most rugged portion of the Appalachian chain. The two major ranges are the Blue Ridge itself, which averages 3,000–4,000 ft high (900–1,200 m), and the Great Smoky Mountains, which have 43 peaks higher than 6,000 ft (1,800 m). Several smaller chains intersect these two ranges; one of them, the Black Mountains, contains Mt. Mitchell, at 6,684 ft (2,039 m) the tallest peak east of the Mississippi River. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 700 ft (214 m).

No single river basin dominates North Carolina. The Hiwassee, Little Tennessee, French Broad, Watauga, and New rivers flow from the mountains westward to the Mississippi River system. East of the Blue Ridge, the Chowan, Roanoke, Tar, Neuse, Cape Fear, Yadkin, and Catawba drain the piedmont and coastal plain. The largest artificial lakes are Lake Norman on the Catawba, Lake Gaston on the Roanoke, and High Rock Lake on the Yadkin.

3 CLIMATE

North Carolina has a humid, subtropical climate. Winters are short and mild, while summers are usually very sultry; spring and fall are distinct and refreshing periods of transition. In most of North Carolina, temperatures rarely go above 100°F (38°C) or fall below 10°F (-12°C), but differences in altitude and proximity to the ocean create significant local variations. Average January temperatures range from 36°F (2°C) to 48°F (9°C), with an average daily maximum January temperature of 51°F (11°C) and minimum of 29°F (-2°C). Average July temperatures range from 68°F (20°C) to 80°F (27°C), with an average daily high of 87°F (31°C) and a low of 66°F (19°C). The coldest temperature ever recorded in North Carolina was -34°F (-37°C), registered on 21 January 1985 on Mt. Mitchell; the hottest, 110°F (43°C), occurred on 21 August 1983 at Fayetteville.

In the southwestern section of the Blue Ridge, moist southerly winds rising over the mountains drop more than 80 in (203 cm) of precipitation per year, making this region the wettest in the eastern states; the other side of the mountains receives less than half that amount. Average annual precipitation at Charlotte is about 43 in (109 cm). The piedmont gets between 44 and 48 in (112 to 122 cm) of precipitation per year, while 44 to 56 in (112 to 142 cm) annually fall on the coastal plain. Average winter snowfalls vary from 50 in (127 cm) on Mt. Mitchell to only a trace amount at Cape Hatteras. In the summer, North Carolina weather responds to the Bermuda High, a pressure system centered in the mid-Atlantic. Winds from the southwest bring masses of hot humid air over the state; anticyclones connected with this system frequently lead to upper-level thermal inversions, producing a stagnant air mass that cannot disperse pollutants until cooler, drier air from Canada moves in. During late summer and early autumn, the eastern region is vulnerable to high winds and flooding from hurricanes. Hurricane Diana struck the Carolina coast in September 1984, causing \$36 million in damage. A series of tornadoes in March of that year killed 61 people, injured over 1,000, and caused damage exceeding \$120 million. Hurricanes Hugo (1989) and Fran (1996) caused major damage.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

North Carolina has approximately 300 species and subspecies of trees and almost 3,000 varieties of flowering plants. Coastal plant life begins with sea oats predominating on the dunes and salt meadow and cordgrass in the marshes, then gives way to wax myrtle, yaupon, red cedar, and live oak further inland. Blackwater swamps support dense stands of cypress and gum trees. Pond pine favors the peat soils of the Carolina bays, while longleaf pine and turkey oak cover the sand hills and other well-drained areas. Weeds take root when a field is abandoned in the piedmont, followed soon by loblolly, shortleaf, and Virginia pine; sweet gum and tulip poplars spring up beneath the pines, later giving way to an oak-hickory climax forest. Dogwood decorates the understory, but kudzu—a rank, weedy vine introduced from Japan as an antierosion measure in the 1930s—is a less attractive feature of the landscape. The profusion of plants reaches extraordinary proportions in the mountains. The deciduous forests on the lower slopes contain Carolina hemlock, silver bell, yellow buckeye, white basswood, sugar maple, yellow birch, tulip poplar, and beech, in addi-

tion to the common trees of the piedmont. Spruce and fir dominate the high mountain peaks. There is no true treeline in the North Carolina mountains, but unexplained treeless areas called “balds” appear on certain summits. Twenty-seven plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006, including Blue Ridge goldenrod, bunched arrowhead, Heller’s blazingstar, Virginia spiraea, seabeach amaranth, and rough-leaved loosestrife.

The white-tailed deer is the principal big-game animal of North Carolina, and the black bear is a tourist attraction in the Great Smoky Mountains National Park. The wild boar was introduced to the mountains during the 19th century; beavers have been reintroduced and are now the state’s principal furbearers. The largest native carnivore is the bobcat.

North Carolina game birds include the bobwhite quail, mourning dove, wild turkey, and many varieties of duck and goose. Trout and smallmouth bass flourish in North Carolina’s clear mountain streams, while catfish, pickerel, perch, crappie, and largemouth bass thrive in fresh water elsewhere. The sounds and surf of the coast yield channel bass, striped bass, flounder, and bluefish to anglers. Among insect pests, the pine bark beetle is a threat to the state’s forests and forest industries.

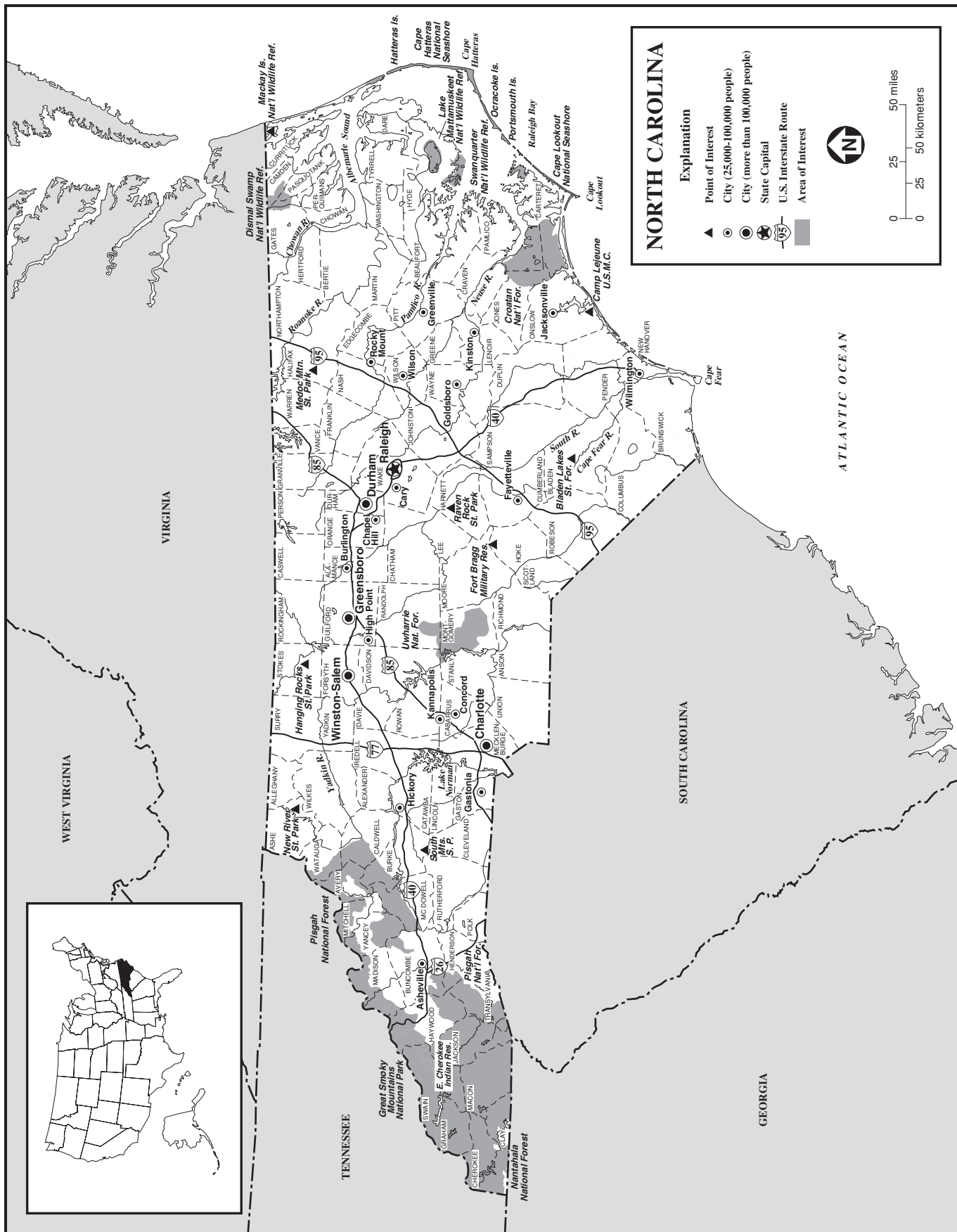
The gray wolf, elk, eastern cougar, and bison are extinct in North Carolina; the American alligator, protected by the state, has returned in large numbers to eastern swamps and lakeshores. Thirty animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including Indiana and Virginia big-eared bats, bald eagle, red-cockaded woodpecker, four species of whale, and five species of sea turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

State actions to safeguard the environment began in 1915 with the purchase of the summit of Mt. Mitchell as North Carolina’s first state park. North Carolina’s citizens and officials worked actively (along with those in Tennessee) to establish the Great Smoky Mountains National Park during the 1920s, the same decade that saw the establishment of the first state agency for wildlife conservation. In 1937, a state and local program of soil and water conservation districts began to halt erosion and waste of natural resources.

Interest in environmental protection intensified during the 1970s. In 1971, the state required its own agencies to submit environmental impact statements in connection with all major project proposals; it also empowered local governments to require such statements from major private developers. Voters approved a \$150 million bond issue in 1972 to assist in the construction of wastewater treatment facilities by local governments. The Coastal Management Act of 1974 mandated comprehensive land-use planning for estuaries, wetlands, beaches, and adjacent areas of environmental concern. The most controversial environmental action occurred mid-decade, when a coalition of state officials, local residents, and national environmental groups fought the proposed construction of a dam that would have flooded the New River Valley in northwestern North Carolina. Congress quashed the project when it designated the stream as a national scenic river in 1976.

Air quality in most of North Carolina’s eight air-quality-control regions is good, although the industrialized areas of the piedmont and mountains experience pollution from vehicle exhausts and



NORTH CAROLINA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ⊙ State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 25 50 miles
0 25 50 kilometers

North Carolina—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Alamance	Graham	433	140,533	Jones	Trenton	470	10,311
Alexander	Taylorsville	259	35,492	Lee	Sanford	259	55,704
Alleghany	Sparta	234	10,900	Lenoir	Kinston	402	57,961
Anson	Wadesboro	533	25,499	Lincoln	Lincolnton	298	69,851
Ashe	Jefferson	426	25,347	Macon	Franklin	517	32,148
Avery	Newland	247	17,641	Madison	Marshall	451	20,256
Beaufort	Washington	826	46,018	Martin	Williamston	461	24,643
Bertie	Windsor	701	19,480	McDowell	Marion	437	43,201
Bladen	Elizabethtown	879	32,938	Mecklenburg	Charlotte	528	796,372
Brunswick	Bolivia	861	89,162	Mitchell	Bakersville	222	15,784
Buncombe	Asheville	659	218,876	Montgomery	Troy	490	27,322
Burke	Morganton	505	89,399	Moore	Carthage	701	81,685
Cabarrus	Concord	364	150,244	Nash	Nashville	540	91,378
Caldwell	Lenoir	471	79,122	New Hanover	Wilmington	185	179,553
Camden	Camden	241	8,967	Northampton	Jackson	538	21,483
Carteret	Beaufort	525	62,525	Onslow	Jacksonville	763	152,440
Caswell	Yanceyville	427	23,608	Orange	Hillsborough	400	118,386
Catawba	Newton	396	151,641	Pamlico	Bayboro	341	12,735
Chatham	Pittsboro	708	58,002	Pasquotank	Elizabeth City	228	38,270
Cherokee	Murphy	452	25,796	Pender	Burgaw	875	46,429
Chowan	Edenton	181	14,528	Perquimans	Hertford	246	12,080
Clay	Hayesville	214	9,765	Person	Roxboro	398	37,217
Cleveland	Shelby	468	98,288	Pitt	Greenville	656	142,570
Columbus	Whiteville	939	54,746	Polk	Columbus	238	19,134
Craven	New Bern	702	90,795	Randolph	Asheboro	789	138,367
Cumberland	Fayetteville	657	304,520	Richmond	Rockingham	477	46,781
Currituck	Currituck	256	23,112	Robeson	Lumberton	949	127,586
Dare	Manteo	391	33,903	Rockingham	Wentworth	569	92,614
Davidson	Lexington	548	154,623	Rowan	Salisbury	519	135,099
Davie	Mocksville	267	39,136	Rutherford	Rutherfordton	568	63,771
Duplin	Kenansville	819	51,985	Sampson	Clinton	947	63,063
Durham	Durham	298	242,582	Scotland	Laurinburg	319	37,180
Edgecombe	Tarboro	506	54,129	Stanly	Albemarle	396	58,964
Forsyth	Winston-Salem	412	325,967	Stokes	Danbury	452	45,858
Franklin	Louisburg	494	54,429	Surry	Dobson	539	72,601
Gaston	Gastonia	357	196,137	Swain	Bryson City	526	13,167
Gates	Gatesville	338	11,224	Transylvania	Brevard	378	29,626
Graham	Robbinsville	289	8,085	Tyrrell	Columbia	407	4,157
Granville	Oxford	534	53,674	Union	Monroe	639	162,929
Greene	Snow Hill	266	20,026	Vance	Henderson	249	43,771
Guilford	Greensboro	651	443,519	Wake	Raleigh	854	748,815
Halifax	Halifax	724	56,023	Warren	Warrenton	427	19,729
Harnett	Lillington	601	103,692	Washington	Plymouth	332	13,282
Haywood	Waynesville	555	56,482	Watauga	Boone	314	42,472
Henderson	Hendersonville	375	97,217	Wayne	Goldsboro	554	114,448
Hertford	Winton	356	23,574	Wilkes	Wilkesboro	752	67,390
Hoke	Racford	391	41,016	Wilson	Wilson	374	76,281
Hyde	Swanquarter	624	5,413	Yadkin	Yadkinville	336	37,668
Iredell	Statesville	574	140,924	Yancey	Burnsville	314	18,201
Jackson	Sylva	490	35,368	TOTALS		48,843	8,683,242
Johnston	Smithfield	795	146,437				

coal-fired electric generating plants. Water quality ranges from extraordinary purity in numerous mountain trout streams to serious pollution in major rivers and coastal waters. Soil erosion and municipal and industrial waste discharges have drastically increased the level of dissolved solids in some piedmont streams, while runoffs from livestock pastures and nitrates leached from fertilized farmland have over stimulated the growth of algae in slow-moving eastern rivers. Pollution also has made certain areas of the coast unsafe for commercial shellfishing.

About 5.7 million acres (2.3 million hectares) of the state are wetlands; since 1997 the North Carolina Wetlands Partnership has overseen wetlands conservation. About 70% of North Car-

olina's rare and endangered plants and animals are considered wetland-dependent.

The Department of Environment, Health and Natural Resources, the state's main environmental agency, issues licenses to industries and municipalities and seeks to enforce clean air and water regulations. In 2003, 129.1 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, North Carolina had 311 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 31 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Barber Orchard in Waynesville and ABC One Hour Cleaners in Jacksonville. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$461,000 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of haz-

ardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$19.4 million for the water pollution control revolving fund and \$14.5 million for the drinking water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

North Carolina ranked 11th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 8,683,342 in 2005, an increase of 7.9% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, North Carolina's population grew from 6,628,637 to 8,049,313, an increase of 21.4%, making North Carolina the sixth-fastest-growing state of the decade. The population is projected to reach 10 million by 2015 and 11.4 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 175.4 persons per sq mi (67.7 persons per sq km). As of 2004, the state's population had a median age of 36. In the same year, 24.8% of the populace were under the age of 18 while 12.1% was age 65 or older.

At the time of the first census in 1790, North Carolina ranked third among the 13 states, with a population of 393,751, but it slipped to tenth by 1850. In the decades that followed, North Carolina grew slowly by natural increase and suffered from net out-migration, while the rest of the nation expanded rapidly. Out-migration abated after 1890, however, and North Carolina's overall growth rate in the 20th century was slightly greater than that of the nation as a whole.

Most North Carolinians live in and around a relatively large number of small and medium-sized cities and towns, many of which are concentrated in the Piedmont Crescent, between Charlotte, Greensboro, and Raleigh. Leading cities in 2004 were Charlotte, 594,359; Raleigh, 326,653; Greensboro, 231,543; Durham, 201,726; and Winston-Salem, 191,523. The Charlotte metropolitan area had an estimated 1,474,734 people in 2004.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

North Carolina's white population is descended mostly from English settlers who arrived in the east in the 17th and early 18th centuries and from Scottish, Scots-Irish, and German immigrants who poured into the piedmont in the middle of the 18th century. Originally very distinct, these groups assimilated with one another in the first half of the 19th century to form a relatively homogeneous body of native-born white Protestants. By 1860, North Carolina had the lowest proportion of foreign-born whites of any state; more than a century later, in 1990, only 1.7% (115,077) of North Carolina residents were foreign born, mostly from Germany, the United Kingdom, and Mexico. Within the following decade, however, the foreign-born population increased dramatically, to 430,000 (5.3%) in 2000. In the same year, the estimated Hispanic and Latino population was 378,963 (4.7% of the state total), up from 161,000 (2.1%) in 1990. In 2004, 6.1% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin.

According to the 2000 federal census there were some 99,551 Native Americans (including Eskimos and Aleuts) living in North Carolina, the sixth-largest number in any state, and the largest number in any state east of the Mississippi. In 2004, 1.3% of the state's population was American Indian or Alaskan Native. The Lumbee of Robeson County and the surrounding area are the major Indian group. The total population of their lands in 2000, including non-Indians, was 474,100. Their origins are mysterious, but they are probably descended from many small tribes, deci-

mated by war and disease, that banded together in the Lumber River swamps in the 18th century. The Lumbee have no language other than English, have no traditional tribal culture, and are not recognized by the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

The Haliwa, Waccamaw Siouan, Coharie, and Person County Indians are smaller groups in eastern North Carolina who share the Lumbee's predicament. The only North Carolina Indians with a reservation, a tribal language and culture, and federal recognition are the Cherokee, whose ancestors hid in the Smokies when the majority of their tribe was removed to Indian Territory (now Oklahoma) in 1838. The North Carolina Cherokee have remained in the mountains ever since, living in a community that now centers on the Qualla Boundary Reservation near Great Smoky Mountains National Park.

The 1,737,545 blacks in North Carolina made up 21.6% of its total population in 2000. In 2004, 21.8% of the state's population was black. Black slaves came to North Carolina from the 17th century through the early 19th; like most white immigrants, they usually arrived in North Carolina after previous residence in other colonies. Although black slaves performed a wide variety of tasks and lived in every county of the state, they were most often field laborers on the large farms in the eastern region. The distribution of black population today still reflects the patterns of plantation agriculture: the coastal plain contains a much higher than average concentration of black inhabitants. The overall proportion of blacks in North Carolina rose throughout the 19th century but fell steadily in the 20th, until about 1970, as hundreds of thousands migrated to northern and western states. Some of the earliest demonstrations of the civil rights movement, most notably a 1960 lunch counter sit-in at Greensboro, took place in the state.

In 2000 North Carolina's Asian population numbered 113,689, including 26,197 Asian Indians, 18,984 Chinese, 15,596 Vietnamese, 12,600 Koreans, 9,592 Filipinos, and 7,093 Hmong. Pacific Islanders numbered 3,983. In 2004, 1.7% of the state's population was Asian, and 0.1% Pacific Islander. That year, 1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Although most of the original Cherokee Indians were removed to Indian Territory around 1838, descendants of those who resisted and remained have formed a strong Indian community in the Appalachian foothills. Among Indian place-names are Pamlico, Nantahala, and Cullasaja.

Many regional language features are widespread, but others sharply distinguish two subregions: the western half, including the piedmont and the Appalachian Highlands, and the eastern coastal plain. Terms common to South Midland and Southern speech occur throughout the state: both *dog irons* and *fire dogs* (andirons), *bucket* (pail), *spicket* (spigot), *seesaw*, *comfort* (tied and filled bed-cover), *pullybone* (wishbone), *ground squirrel* (chipmunk), *branch* (small stream), *light bread* (white bread), *polecat* (skunk), and *carry* (escort). Also common are *greasy* with the /z/ sound, *new* as /nyoo/ and *due* as /dyoo/, *swallow it* as /swaller it/, *can't* rhyming with *paint*, *poor* with the vowel sound /aw/, and *horse* and *hoarse* with different vowels.

Distinct to the western region are *snake feeder* (dragonfly), *blinds* (roller shades), *poke* (paper bag), *redworm* (earthworm), a *little piece* (a short distance), *plum peach* (clingstone peach), *sick*

on the stomach (also found in the Pee Dee River Valley), *boiled* as /bawrlɪd/, *fog* as /fawg/, *Mary* sounding like *merry* and *bulge* with the vowel of *good*. Setting off eastern North Carolina are *lightwood* (kindling), *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), *earthworm*, *press peach* (instead of plum peach), *you-all* as second-person plural, and *sick in the stomach*. Distinctive eastern pronunciations include the loss of /r/ after a vowel, *fog* as /fagh/, *scarce* and *Mary* with the vowel of *gate*, *bulge* with the vowel sound /ah/. Along the coast, peanuts are *goobers* and a screech owl is a *shivering owl*.

In 2000, 6,909,648 North Carolinians—92% of the population five years of age and older—spoke only English at home, down from 96.1% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	7,513,165	100.0
Speak only English	6,909,648	92.0
Speak a language other than English	603,517	8.0
Speak a language other than English	603,517	8.0
Spanish or Spanish Creole	378,942	5.0
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	33,201	0.4
German	28,520	0.4
Chinese	15,698	0.2
Vietnamese	13,594	0.2
Korean	11,386	0.2
Arabic	10,834	0.1
African languages	9,181	0.1
Miao, Hmong	7,493	0.1
Tagalog	6,521	0.1
Greek	6,404	0.1
Japanese	6,317	0.1
Italian	6,233	0.1

⁹RELIGIONS

The Church of England was the established church of colonial North Carolina but was never a dominant force among the early immigrants. Scottish Presbyterians settled in the upper Cape Fear Valley, and Scots-Irish Presbyterians occupied the piedmont after 1757. Lutheran Evangelical Reformed Germans later moved into the Yadkin and Catawba valleys of the same region. The Moravians, a German sect, founded the town of Salem (later merging with Winston to become Winston-Salem) in 1766 as the center of their utopian community at Wachovia. Methodist circuit riders and Separate Baptists missionaries won thousands of converts among blacks and whites, strengthening their appeal in the Great Revival of 1801. In the subsequent generation, a powerful evangelical consensus dominated popular culture. After the Civil War, blacks left the white congregations to found their own churches, but the overall strength of Protestantism persisted. When many North Carolinians left their farms at the end of the 19th century, they moved to mill villages that were well supplied with churches, often at the mill owners' expense.

The majority of North Carolinians are Protestant. The largest denomination in 2000 was the Southern Baptist Convention which reported 1,512,058 adherents; there were 28,169 newly baptized members reported in 2002. The United Methodist Church claimed 529,272 members in 2004 and the Presbyterian Church USA had 203,647 in 2000. The next largest Protestant denominations in 2000 were the Evangelical Lutheran Church in Ameri-

ca, 88,830 adherents; the Church of God (Cleveland, Tennessee), 81,037; the Episcopal Church, 80,068; the United Church of Christ, 50,088; the International Pentecostal Holiness Church, 50,265; the Original Free Will Baptists, 46,020; Independent Charismatic Churches, 42,559. In 2006, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons) reported a statewide membership of 66,497 in 135 congregations; a Mormon temple was built in Raleigh-Durham in 1999. In 2000, the state had an estimated 25,545 Jews, and about 20,137 Muslims. There are still about 18,180 Moravians in the state. Over 4.3 million people (about 54.6% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization. In 2004, there were 319,492 Roman Catholics in the state.

The Advent Christian Church General Conference of America, representing 306 local Advent Christian churches in the United States and Canada, is based in Charlotte. The Billy Graham Evangelistic Association has its headquarters in Charlotte as well.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

The history of North Carolina's growth and prosperity has been inextricably linked to the history of transportation in the state, especially the history of highway development. North Carolina has the largest state-maintained highway system in the nation. To provide and maintain this system, North Carolina relies strictly on user-related sources of funds, such as motor fuel taxes and state license and registration fees.

The early settlers widened and improved the Indian trails into bridle trails and then dirt roads. In colonial times, waterways were the avenues of commerce. Almost all products moved on rivers and streams within the state, and most manufactured goods arrived by sea. When it became necessary to transport goods farther inland, local laws were passed which directed that a road be built to the nearest landing. By this piecemeal process, the state slowly acquired a system of dirt roads.

As the population of the state grew, so did the demand for roads. From 1830 onward, a new element was introduced into the picture—railroads, representing the newest and most efficient means of travel. In the 1850s, transportation took yet another turn when the state invested in plank roads, which did not prove financially practical.

With the coming of the Civil War, transportation improvements in North Carolina ground to a halt. During the war, the existing railroads were used heavily for military purposes. Renovations and improvements were delayed during the early years of the Reconstruction period because of poor economic conditions in the state. By 1870, the state gave up on assistance to railroads and left their further development to private companies. In 1895, the Southern Railway acquired a 99-year lease on the piedmont section of the North Carolina Railroad while eastern routes fell to the Atlantic Coast Line and the Seaboard Air Line Railway.

In the early years of the 20th century, the principal emphasis was on the further development of the investor-owned railroads. In 1911, there was 4,608 mi (7,414 km) of railroad right-of-way in the state, and by 1937 this figure had increased, if only slightly, to a total of 4,763 (7,663 km). By 2003, railroad track in North Carolina had fallen to 3,344 route mi (5,383 km). Two Class I railroads operate in the state, along with 13 local and eight switching and terminal lines. As of 2006, Amtrak provided service to 12 stations

in the state via its New York to Charlotte Carolinian and its daily Charlotte to Raleigh Piedmont trains.

By the second decade of the century, the building of roads received new emphasis. It was during this period that North Carolina earned the label “the Good Roads State.” In 1915, the Highway Commission was created, and in 1921 the General Assembly approved a \$40 million state highway bond to construct a system of hard-surface roads connecting each of the 100 county seats with all of the others. The new hard-surface roads soon proved ideal for automobiles and trucks. More highway bonds were approved to pay for a statewide system of paved highways, giving the state more roads by the end of the decade than any other southern state except Texas. The state government took over the county roads in 1931.

In 2004, North Carolina had 102,666 mi (165,529 km) of public roads. There were some 6.195 million motor vehicles registered in the state that same year, including around 3.627 million automobiles, approximately 2,458 million trucks, and some 10,000 buses. Licensed drivers numbered 6,122,137 in 2004. The major interstate highways are I-95, which stretches north–south across the coastal plain, and I-85, which parallels it across the piedmont. I-40 leads from the mountains to the coast at Wilmington, and I-26 and I-77 handle north–south traffic in the western section. I-73 and I-74 add 325 mi (523 km) of interstate highway and will handle north–south traffic in the eastern section of the state.

Transportation 2001, a plan to speed up highway construction and complete key corridors, eliminate the road maintenance backlog, and develop a master plan for public transportation, was unveiled in 1994. A \$950 million highway bond was approved by North Carolina voters in 1996 to accelerate construction of urban loops and intrastates and to pave secondary roads. Transit 2001, the master plan to improve public transportation was unveiled in February 1997. A major incentive has been placed on high-speed rail service from Raleigh to Charlotte, reducing travel time to two hours by 2000.

There are nine types of public transportation currently operating in North Carolina: human service transportation, rural general public transportation, urban transit, regional transit, vanpool and carpool programs, inter-city buses, inter-city rail passenger service, pupil transportation, and passenger ferry service. There are 17 publicly owned urban transit systems operating in North Carolina. More than three million North Carolinians have access to rural public transportation services operating in approximately 45 counties and towns.

The Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway follows sounds, rivers, and canals down the entire length of eastern North Carolina. The North Carolina ferry system, the second largest in the nation, transports more than 23 million passengers and 820,000 vehicles each year. Twenty-four ferry vessels move passengers and vehicles between the state’s coastal communities. Seventeen of the vessels feature the colors and seals of North Carolina’s public and private colleges and universities to promote the ferry system. There are major ports at Morehead City and Wilmington. In 2004, Morehead City handled 3.407 million tons of cargo, while Wilmington handled 7.888 million tons. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 10.231 million tons. In 2004, North Carolina had 1,152 mi (1,854 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, North Carolina had a total of 382 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 305 airports, 74 heliports, and 3 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing). The state’s two busiest airports are Charlotte-Douglas International and Raleigh-Durham International. In 2004, Charlotte–Douglas had 12,499,476 passengers enplaned, making it the 19th-busiest airport in the United States, while Raleigh–Durham had 4,371,883 enplanements that same year, making it the 43rd-busiest airport in the United States. Other major airports were at Asheville, Fayetteville, Greensboro, Kinston, Wilmington, and Winston-Salem.

11 HISTORY

Paleo-Indian peoples came to North Carolina about 10,000 years ago. These early inhabitants hunted game with spears and gathered nuts, roots, berries, and freshwater mollusks. Around 500 BC, with the invention of pottery and the development of agriculture, the Woodland Culture began to emerge. The Woodland way of life—growing corn, beans, and squash, and hunting game with bows and arrows—prevailed on the North Carolina coast until the Europeans arrived.

Living in North Carolina by this time were Indians of the Algonkian-, Siouan-, and Iroquoian-language families. The Roanoke, Chowanoc, Hatteras, Meherrin, and other Algonkian-speaking tribes of the coast had probably lived in the area the longest; some of them belonged to the Powhatan Confederacy of Virginia. The Siouan groups were related to larger tribes of the Great Plains. Of the Iroquoian-speakers, the Cherokee probably had lived in the mountains since before the beginning of the Christian era, while the Tuscarora had entered the upper coastal plain somewhat later. After their defeat by the colonists in the Tuscarora War of 1711–13, the tribe fled to what is now upper New York State to become the sixth member of the Iroquois Confederacy.

Contact with whites brought war, disease, and enslavement of the Algonkian and Siouan tribes. Banding together, the survivors probably gave rise to the present-day Lumbee and to the other Indian groups of eastern North Carolina. The Cherokee tried to avoid the fate of the coastal tribes by selectively adopting aspects of white culture. In 1838, however, the federal government responded to the demands of land-hungry whites by expelling most of the Cherokee to Indian Territory along the so-called Trail of Tears.

European penetration began when Giovanni da Verrazano, a Florentine navigator in French service, discovered the North Carolina coast in 1524. Don Lucas Vázquez de Ayllón led an unsuccessful Spanish attempt to settle near the mouth of the Cape Fear River two years later. Hernando de Soto tramped over the North Carolina mountains in 1540 in an unsuccessful search for gold, but the Spanish made no permanent contribution to the colonization of North Carolina.

Sixty years after Verrazano’s voyage, North Carolina became the scene of England’s first experiment in American empire. Sir Walter Raleigh, a courtier of Queen Elizabeth I, gained the queen’s permission to send out explorers to the New World. They landed on the Outer Banks in 1584 and returned with reports so enthusiastic that Raleigh decided to sponsor a colony on Roanoke Island between Albemarle and Pamlico sounds. After a second expedition returned without founding a permanent settlement, Raleigh sent out a third group in 1587 under John White as governor. The

passengers included White's daughter Eleanor and her husband, Ananias Dare. Shortly after landfall, Eleanor gave birth to Virginia Dare, the first child born of English parents in the New World. Several weeks later, White returned to England for supplies, but the threat of the Spanish Armada prevented his prompt return. By the time White got back to Roanoke in 1590, he found no trace of the settlers—only the word “Croatoan” carved on a tree. The fate of this “Lost Colony” has never been satisfactorily explained.

The next English venture focused on the more accessible Jamestown colony in the Chesapeake Bay area of Virginia. England tended to ignore the southern region until 1629, when Charles I laid out the territory between 30° and 36°N, named it Carolana for himself, and granted it to his attorney general, Sir Robert Heath. Heath made no attempt to people his domain, however, and Carolana remained empty of whites until stragglers drifted in from the mid-17th century onward. Events in England transformed Virginia's outpost into a separate colony. After the execution of Charles I in 1649, England had no ruling monarch until a party of noblemen invited Charles II back to England in 1660. Charles thanked eight of his benefactors three years later by making them lord proprietors of the province, now called Carolina. The vast new region eventually stretched from northern Florida to the modern boundary between North Carolina and Virginia, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

The proprietors divided Carolina into three counties and appointed a governor for each one. Albemarle County embraced the existing settlements in northeastern North Carolina near the waters of Albemarle Sound; it was the only one that developed a government within the present state boundaries. From the beginning, relations between the older pioneers and their newly imposed government were stormy. The English philosopher John Locke drew up the Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina, but his political blueprints proved unworkable. The proprietors' arbitrary efforts to collect royal customs touched off factional violence, culminating in Culpepper's Rebellion of 1677, one of the first American uprisings against a corrupt regime.

For a few years afterward, local residents had a more representative government, until the proprietors attempted to strengthen the establishment of the Anglican Church in the colony. In 1711, Cary's Rebellion was touched off by laws passed against the colony's Quakers. During the confusion, Tuscarora Indians launched a war against the white intruders on their lands. The whites won the Tuscarora War in 1713 with assistance from South Carolina, but political weakness in the north persisted. Proprietary officials openly consorted with pirates—including the notorious Edward Teach, alias Blackbeard—and royal inspectors questioned the fitness of proprietary government. South Carolina officially split off in 1719 and received a royal governor in 1721. Ten years later, all but one of the proprietors relinquished their rights for £2,500 each, and North Carolina became a royal colony. The remaining proprietor, Lord Granville, gave up his governing rights but retained ownership of one-eighth of the original grant; the Granville District thus included more than half of the unsettled territory in the North Carolina colony.

In the decades that followed, thousands of new settlers poured into North Carolina; by 1775 the population had swollen to 345,000, making North Carolina the fourth—most populous colony. Germans and Scots-Irish trekked down the Great Wagon Road

from Pennsylvania to the Piedmont. Scottish Highlanders spread over the upper Cape Fear Valley as more Englishmen filled up the coastal plain. Backcountry settlers practiced self-sufficient farming, but eastern North Carolinians used slave labor to carve out rice and tobacco plantations. The westerners were often exploited by an eastern-dominated colonial assembly that sent corrupt and overbearing officials to govern them. Organizing in 1768 and calling themselves Regulators, unhappy westerners first petitioned for redress and then took up arms. Royal Governor William Tryon used eastern militia to crush the Regulators in a two-hour pitched battle at Alamance Creek in 1771.

The eastern leaders who dominated the assembly opposed all challenges to their authority, whether from the Regulators or from the British ministry. When England tightened its colonial administration, North Carolinians joined their fellow colonists in protests against the Stamp Act and similar impositions by Parliament. Meeting at Halifax in April 1776, the North Carolina provincial congress resolved in favor of American independence, the first colonial representative body to do so. Years later, citizens of Mecklenburg County recalled a gathering in 1775 during which their region declared independence, but subsequent historians have not verified their claim. The two dates on the North Carolina state flag nevertheless commemorate the Halifax Resolves and the “Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence.”

Support for Britain appeared among recent Scottish immigrants, who answered the call to aid the royal governor but were ambushed by patriot militia at Moore's Creek Bridge on 27 February 1776. The incident effectively prevented a planned British invasion of the South. There was little further military action in North Carolina until late in the War for Independence, when Gen. Charles Cornwallis invaded the state from South Carolina in the fall of 1780. Guerrilla bands harassed his troops, and North Carolina militia wiped out a Loyalist detachment at King's Mountain. Pursuing the elusive American army under Gen. Nathanael Greene, Cornwallis won a costly victory at Guilford Courthouse in March 1781 but could neither eliminate his rival nor pacify the countryside. For the rest of 1781, Cornwallis wearied his men in marches and countermarches across North Carolina and Virginia before he finally succumbed to a trap set at Yorktown, Va., by an American army and a French fleet.

Numerous problems beset the new state. The government had a dire need of money, but when the victors sought to pay debts by selling land confiscated from the Loyalists, conservative lawyers objected strenuously, and a bitter political controversy ensued. Suspicious of outside control, North Carolina leaders hesitated before joining the Union. The state waited until November 1789 to ratify the US Constitution—a delay that helped stimulate the movement for adoption of a Bill of Rights. North Carolina relinquished its lands beyond the Great Smokies in 1789 (after an unsuccessful attempt by settlers to create a new state called Franklin), and thousands of North Carolinians migrated to the new western territories. The state did not share in the general prosperity of the early federal period. Poor transportation facilities hampered all efforts to expand commercial agriculture, and illiteracy remained widespread. North Carolina society came to appear so backward that some observers nicknamed it the “Rip Van Winkle state.”

In 1815, state senator Archibald D. Murphey of Orange County began to press for public schools and for improved transporta-

tion to open up the Piedmont. Most eastern planters resisted Murphey's suggestions, partly because they refused to be taxed for the benefit of the westerners and partly because they feared the destabilizing social effects of reform. As long as the east controlled the General Assembly, the ideas of Murphey and his sympathizers had little practical impact, but in 1835, as a result of reforms in the state constitution, the west obtained reapportionment and the political climate changed. North Carolina initiated a program of state aid to railroads and other public works, and established the first state—supported system of common schools in the South.

Like other southern whites, North Carolina's white majority feared for the security of slavery under a national Republican administration, but North Carolinians reacted to the election of Abraham Lincoln with caution. When South Carolina and six other states seceded and formed the Confederate States of America in 1861, North Carolina refused to join, instead making a futile attempt to work for a peaceful settlement of the issue. However, after the outbreak of hostilities at Ft. Sumter, S.C., and Lincoln's call for troops in April 1861, neutrality disappeared and public opinion swung to the Confederate side. North Carolina became the last state to withdraw from the Union, joining the Confederacy on 20 May 1861.

North Carolina provided more troops to the Confederacy than any other state, and its losses added up to more than one-fourth of the total for the entire South, but support for the war was mixed. State leaders resisted the centralizing tendencies of the Richmond government, and even Governor Zebulon B. Vance opposed the Confederacy's conscription policies. North Carolina became a haven for deserters from the front lines in Virginia. William W. Holden, a popular Raleigh editor, organized a peace movement when defeat appeared inevitable, and Unionist sentiment flourished in the mountain counties; nevertheless, most white North Carolinians stood by Vance and the dying Confederate cause. At the war's end, Gen. Joseph E. Johnston surrendered the last major Confederate army to Gen. William T. Sherman at Bennett House near Hillsborough on 26 April 1865.

Reconstruction was marked by a bitter political and social struggle in North Carolina. United in the Conservative Party, most of the prewar slaveholding elite fought to preserve as much as possible of the former system, but a Republican coalition of blacks and nonslaveholding white Unionists defended freedmen's rights and instituted democratic reforms for the benefit of both races. After writing a new constitution in 1868, Republicans elected Holden as governor, but native whites fought back with violence and intimidation under the robes of the Ku Klux Klan. Holden's efforts to restore order were ineffectual, and when the Conservatives recaptured the General Assembly in 1870, they impeached him and removed him from office. Election of a Conservative governor in 1876 signaled the end of the Reconstruction era.

Once in power, the Conservatives—or Democrats, as they renamed themselves—slashed public services and enacted legislation to guarantee the power of landlords over tenants and sharecroppers. They cooperated with the consolidation of railroads under northern ownership, and they supported a massive drive to build cotton mills on the swiftly flowing streams of the Piedmont. By 1880, industry had surpassed its prewar level. But it was not until 1900 that blacks and their white allies were entirely eliminated as contenders for political power.

As the Industrial Revolution gained ground in North Carolina, small farmers protested their steadily worsening condition. The Populist Party expressed their demands for reform, and for a brief period in the 1890s shared power with the Republican Party in the Fusion movement. Under the leadership of Charles Brantley Aycock, conservative Democrats fought back with virulent denunciations of "Negro rule" and a call for white supremacy. In 1900, voters elected Aycock governor and approved a constitutional amendment that barred all illiterates from voting, except for those whose ancestors had voted before 1867. This literacy test and "grandfather clause" effectively disenfranchised blacks, while providing a temporary loophole for uneducated whites. To safeguard white rights after 1908 (the constitutional limit for registration under the grandfather clause), Aycock promised substantial improvements in the school system to put an end to white illiteracy.

In the decades after Aycock's election, an alliance of business interests and moderate-to-conservative Democrats dominated North Carolina politics. The industrial triumvirate of textile, tobacco, and furniture manufacturers, joined by banks and insurance companies, controlled the state's economy. The Republican Party shrank to a small remnant among mountain whites as blacks were forced out of the electorate.

In the years after World War II, North Carolina took its place in the booming Sunbelt economy. The development of Research Triangle Park—equidistant from the educational facilities of Duke University, North Carolina State University, and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill—provided a home for dozens of scientific and technology laboratories for government and business. New industries, some of them financed by foreign capital, appeared in formerly rural areas, and a prolonged population drain was effectively reversed.

The process of development has not been smooth or uniform, however. The late 1980s and early 1990s saw a shift in employment patterns as financial and high-technology industries boomed while jobs in the state's traditional industries, notably textiles and tobacco, declined. North Carolina possessed both the largest percentage of manufacturing jobs in the country and the lowest manufacturing wages. In 1990, 30% of all jobs paid annual wages below the poverty line for a family of four, resulting in 13% of North Carolinians living below the nationally established poverty line. Despite widespread prosperity in the 1990s, North Carolina was one of only 15 states where poverty—and child poverty—were on the rise. The rate had climbed to 14% by 1998, and to 15.1% by 2003–04 (measured as a two-year average). The national poverty rate in 2003–04 was 12.6%.

The excellence of many of North Carolina's universities contrasted with the inferior education provided by its primary and secondary public schools. North Carolina students' SAT scores placed them last nationally in 1989. In the ongoing effort to improve the public school system, in 2000 Democratic Governor Jim Hunt's top two priorities were raising teacher pay by 6.5% and funding the Smart Start (early childhood education) program. But Hunt's stance was not popular with the state's workers, who were lobbying the governor and the General Assembly for pay raises.

Racial tensions have created divisions within the state, which has one of the highest levels of Ku Klux Klan activity in the country. While Charlotte integrated its schools peacefully in 1971

through court-ordered busing, the militancy of black activists in the late 1960s and early 1970s provoked a white backlash. That backlash, along with the identification of the Democratic party in the early 1970s with liberal causes and with opposition to the Vietnam War, helped the conservative wing of the Republican party gain popularity in a state whose six military bases had given it a hawkish tradition. In 1972, North Carolina elected its first Republican US senator (Jesse A. Helms) and governor (James E. Holshouser Jr.) since Fusion days, and Republican strength continued to build into the mid-1990s. But after 1998 elections, the state was leaning toward a more bipartisan representation: Democratic candidate John Edwards took the state's second Senate seat while conservative Republican Helms retained the other; and voters sent seven Republicans and five Democrats to represent them in the US House. In 2004, John Edwards was the Democratic Party's vice-presidential nominee; he and Democratic presidential candidate John Kerry were defeated by President George W. Bush and Vice-President Richard B. Cheney by a margin of 3 million popular votes. As of 2005, North Carolina was represented by two Republican senators, Elizabeth Dole and Richard Burr, but Democrat Michael Easley remained governor.

Rising crime rates were among the leading public policy issues in the 1990s. The state legislature enacted laws imposing tough penalties on adults who supply guns to minors, and mandating life imprisonment without parole for three-time violent offenders.

Mother Nature has posed serious problems for North Carolinians in recent times. In September 1999, successive hurricanes moved onshore, water logging the low-lying eastern part of the state. The worst flooding in North Carolina history was intensified by more rainfall in the weeks that followed. The death toll climbed to 40 while property damages and agricultural losses rose. Clean-up of the state's waterways, which were polluted by waste from pigs and other livestock as well as from flooded sewage plants, remained a major health concern. In January 2000 the same region was blanketed in record snowfalls, adding further hardships to those who were struggling to recover. A month earlier, in an emergency legislative session, the General Assembly approved Governor Jim Hunt's plan to send \$836 million to flood victims. By July 2000 the federal government had approved more than \$1 billion in aid to the state. But it was estimated that the conditions had put thousands of farmers permanently out of business. North Carolina experienced a harsh winter in 2002–03, with some of the heaviest snowfalls since 1989.

The state's agricultural producers were also facing the declining demand for tobacco. The documented health hazards of smoking, state and federal excise taxes, ongoing lawsuits, and declining exports combined to cut cigarette production (also hurting the state's manufacturing sector in the process). With Kentucky, North Carolina farmers produced more than 65% of the total US crop. The state's historical dependency on the cash crop caused lawmakers to allocate half the funds from the national tobacco settlement to tobacco communities—to support educational and job training programs, provide employment assistance for farmers and displaced laborers, fund rural health care and social service programs, and invest in local public works and economic development projects to attract new businesses to areas that had been dependent on tobacco. The other half of the settlement was evenly

divided between statewide health care and a trust fund for (former) tobacco growers and farm laborers.

Governor Mike Easley set his 2003 executive agenda on education, proposing a state lottery to fund education. In August 2005, Easley signed into law the North Carolina State Lottery Act, which enacted the North Carolina Education Lottery. One hundred percent of the net lottery proceeds will go to educational expenses, including reduced class sizes in early grades, academic pre-kindergarten programs, school construction, and scholarships for needy college and university students.

In 2005, Easley also focused on bringing more highly-skilled and high-tech jobs to the state, providing a quality transportation system for all of North Carolina, enacting strong Patients Bill of Rights legislation, helping seniors cope with the high costs of prescription drugs, promoting land and water conservation, and providing a strong environmental enforcement program.

¹²STATE GOVERNMENT

North Carolina has operated under three constitutions, adopted in 1776, 1868, and 1971, respectively. The first was drafted hurriedly under wartime pressures and contained several inconsistencies and undemocratic features. The second, a product of Reconstruction, was written by native white Republicans and a sprinkling of blacks and northern-born Republicans. When conservative whites regained power, they left the basic framework of this constitution intact, though they added the literacy test, poll tax, and grandfather clause to it.

A century after the Civil War, the document had become unwieldy and partially obsolete. A constitutional study commission submitted to the General Assembly in 1969 a rewritten constitution, which the electorate ratified, as amended, in 1971. As of January 2005, the document had been amended a total of 34 times. One amendment permits the governor and lieutenant governor to serve a maximum of two successive four-year terms.

Under the 1971 constitution, the General Assembly consists of a 50-member Senate and a 120-member House of Representatives. Regular sessions are held in odd-numbered years, with the provision that the legislature may (and in practice, does) divide to meet in even-numbered years. Sessions begin in January and are not formally limited in length. Special sessions may be called by three-fifths petition of each house. Senators must be at least 25 years old and must have been residents of the state for at least two years and residents of their districts for at least one year prior to election. Representatives must have lived in their district for at least a year; the constitution establishes 21 as the minimum age for elective office. All members of the General Assembly serve two-year terms. The legislative salary was \$13,951 in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

The governor and lieutenant governor (who run separately) must be 30 years old and a qualified voter; each must have been a US citizen for five years and a state resident for two. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$121,391. North Carolina's chief executive has powers of appointment, supervision, veto, and budgetary recommendation. The voters also elect a secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, superintendent of public instruction, attorney general, and commissioners of agriculture, insurance, and labor; all serve four-year terms. These officials preside over their respective departments and sit with the governor and lieutenant

governor as the council of state. The governor appoints the heads of the other executive departments.

Bills become law when they have passed three readings in each house of the General Assembly, and take effect 60 days after adjournment. Bills that are not signed or vetoed by the governor become law after 10 days when the legislature is in session and after 30 days if the legislature adjourns. A three-fifths vote of the elected members in each house is required to override a gubernatorial veto. Constitutional amendments may be proposed by a convention called by a two-thirds vote of both houses and a majority of the voters, or may be submitted directly to the voters by a three-fifths consent of each house. In either case, the proposed amendments must be ratified by a popular majority before becoming part of the constitution.

To vote in North Carolina a person must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, a resident of the state and county for at least 30 days prior to election day, and not registered to vote in another state. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Prior to the Civil War, Whigs and Democrats were the two major political groups in North Carolina. The Republican Party emerged during Reconstruction as a coalition of newly enfranchised blacks, northern immigrants, and disaffected native whites, especially from non-slaveholding areas in the mountains. The opposing Conservative Party, representing a coalition of antebellum Democrats and former Whigs, became the Democratic Party after winning the governorship in 1876; from that time and for most of the 20th century, North Carolina was practically a one-party state.

Beginning in the 1930s, however, as blacks reentered the electorate as supporters of the New Deal and the liberal measures associated with Democratic presidents, the Republican Party at-

tracted new white members who objected to national Democratic policies. Republican presidential candidates picked up strength in the 1950s and 1960s, and Richard Nixon carried North Carolina in 1968 and 1972, when Republicans also succeeded in electing Governor James E. Holshouser Jr., and US Senator Jesse A. Helms. The Watergate scandal cut short this movement toward a revitalized two-party system, and in 1976, Jimmy Carter became the first Democratic presidential candidate to carry the state since 1964.

Republican presidential candidate Ronald Reagan narrowly carried North Carolina in 1980, and a second Republican senator, John P. East, was elected that year. In 1984, the Republican Party had its best election year in North Carolina. Reagan won the state by a landslide, Helms won a third term—defeating two-term Governor James B. Hunt in the most expensive race to date in Senate history (more than \$26 million was spent)—and Republican James G. Martin, a US representative, was elected governor, succeeding Hunt. In 1990, Helms was reelected to the Senate, defeating black mayor Harvey Gantt in a bitterly contested race. In 1996 Gantt challenged Helms again, and once again Helms was the victor. Helms subsequently announced he would not run for reelection in 2002, and Republican Elizabeth H. Dole won his seat. In 2000 and 2004, Republican George W. Bush won 56% of the presidential vote, to Democrat Al Gore's 43% (2000) and Democrat John Kerry's 44% (2004).

But by the mid-1990s the states' Democrats were influential again. In 1993 Democrat James B. Hunt returned to the governor's office after a hiatus of eight years. He was elected to his third term (having served the first two between 1977 and 1985) in the 1992 election, and went on to a fourth term following the 1996 elections. Having served the limit, Hunt was leaving the gubernatorial race open for 2000, and Democrat Mike Easley won the governorship in 2000. In 1998 elections the second US Senate seat, which had been won by Republican Lauch Faircloth in 1992, was won by

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	NORTH CAROLINA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROGRESSIVE
1948	14	*Truman (D)	459,070	258,572	69,652	3,915
1952	14	Stevenson (D)	652,803	558,107	—	—
1956	14	Stevenson (D)	590,530	575,069	—	—
1960	14	*Kennedy (D)	713,136	655,420	—	—
1964	13	*Johnson (D)	800,139	624,841	—	—
						AMERICAN IND.
1968	13	*Nixon (R)	464,113	627,192	—	496,188
						AMERICAN
1972	13	*Nixon (R)	438,705	1,054,889	—	25,018
					LIBERTARIAN	
1976	13	Carter (D)	927,365	741,960	2,219	5,607
1980	13	*Reagan (R)	875,635	915,018	9,677	—
1984	13	*Reagan (R)	824,287	1,346,481	3,794	—
						NEW ALLIANCE
1988	13	*Bush (R)	890,167	1,237,258	1,263	5,682
						IND. (Perot)
1992	14	Bush (R)	1,114,042	1,134,661	5,171	357,864
1996	14	Dole (R)	1,107,849	1,225,938	8,740	168,059
						REFORM
2000	14	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,257,692	1,631,163	12,307	8,874
						WRITE-IN (Nader)
2004	15	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,525,849	1,961,166	11,731	1,805

*Won US presidential election.

Democrat John Edwards. In 2003 Edwards was running for president and had announced he would not seek reelection in 2004; the seat he vacated was won by Republican Richard Burr.

In 2004 there were 5,537,000 registered voters. In 1998, 53% of registered voters were Democratic, 34% Republican, and 14% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had 15 electoral votes in the 2005 presidential election, an increase of 1 vote over 2000.

Following the 2004 elections, 6 of North Carolina's 13 US Representatives were Democrats and 7 were Republicans. In mid-2005 the State Assembly had 63 Democrats and 57 Republicans, and there were 21 Republicans and 29 Democrats in the state Senate.

Minor parties have had a marked influence on the state. George Wallace's American Independent Party won 496,188 votes in 1968, placing second with more than 31% of the total vote. In 1992, Independent Ross Perot captured 14% of the vote.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, North Carolina had 100 counties, 541 municipalities, and 319 special districts. That year the state has 120 public school systems.

Counties have been the basis of local government in North Carolina for more than 300 years, and are still the primary governmental units for most citizens. All counties are led by boards of commissioners; commissioners serve either two- or four-year terms, and most are elected at large rather than by district. Most boards elect their own chairman from among their members, but voters in some counties choose a chairman separately. More than half the counties employ a county manager to supervise day-to-day operations of county government. Other elected officials are the sheriff, register of deeds, and the school board. Counties are subdivided into townships, but these are for administrative convenience only; they do not exercise any independent government functions.

County and municipal governments share many functions, but the precise allocation of authority varies in each case. Although the city of Charlotte and Mecklenburg County share a common school system, most often schools, streets, sewers, garbage collection, police and fire protection, and other services are handled separately. Most cities use the council-manager form of government, with council members elected from the city at large. Proliferation of suburban governments was hampered by a 1972 constitutional amendment that forbids the incorporation of a new town or city within 1 mi (1.6 km) of a city of 5,000–9,999 people, within 3 mi (4.8 km) of a city of 10,000–24,999, within 4 mi (6.4 km) of a city of 25,000–49,999, and within 5 mi (8 km) of a city of 50,000 or more unless the General Assembly acts to do so by a three-fifths vote of all members of each house.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 348,179 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in North Carolina operates under executive order; the public safety director/secretary is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Department of Public Instruction administers state aid to local public school systems, a board of governors directs the 16 state-supported institutions of higher education, and the Department of Community Colleges administers the 58 community colleges. The Department of Cultural Resources offers a variety of educational and enrichment services to the public, maintaining historical sites, operating two major state museums, funding the North Carolina Symphony, and providing for the State Library. The Department of Transportation plans, builds, and maintains state highways; registers motor vehicles; develops airport facilities; administers public transportation activities; and operates 24 ferries.

Within the Department of Health and Human Resources, the Division of Mental Health, Developmental Disabilities, and Substance Abuse Services operates psychiatric hospitals, mental retardation centers, and alcoholic rehabilitation centers; it also coordinates mental health programs that include community mental health centers, group homes for the developmentally disabled and emotionally disturbed, shelter workshops, halfway houses, a special-care facility, and reeducation programs for emotionally disturbed children and adolescents. The Division of Social Services administers public assistance programs, and other divisions license medical facilities, promote public health, administer programs for juvenile delinquents and the vocationally handicapped, and operate a school for the blind and visually impaired and schools for the deaf. The Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services protects the consumer.

The Department of Crime Control and Public Safety includes the Highway Patrol and the National Guard, while the Department of Correction manages the prison system. Local law enforcement agencies receive assistance from the Department of Justice's State Bureau of Investigation. The Department of Environment and Natural Resources addresses the issues of air and water quality, coastal management, environmental health, forest and land resources, marine fisheries, wildlife resources, waste management, and the Museum of Natural Sciences. The Department of Labor administers the state Occupational Safety and Health Act; inspects boilers, elevators, amusement rides, mines, and quarries; offers conciliation, mediation, and arbitration services to settle labor disputes; and enforces state laws governing child labor, minimum wages, maximum working hours, and uniform wage payment.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

North Carolina's general court of justice is a unified judicial system that includes appellate courts (Court of Appeals) and trial courts (Superior Court). District court judges are elected to four-year terms. Judges above that level are elected for eight years.

The state's highest court is the North Carolina Supreme Court, which consists of a chief justice and six associate justices. It hears cases from the Court of Appeals as well as certain cases from lower courts. The Court of Appeals comprises 12 judges who hear cases in 3-judge panels. Superior courts, in 44 districts, have original jurisdiction in most major civil and criminal cases. There are 99 superior court judges appointed by the governor to eight-year terms. All Superior Court justices rotate between the districts within their divisions. District courts try misdemeanors, civil cases involving less than \$5,000, and all domestic cases. They have no juries in criminal cases, but these cases may be appealed to Super-

rior Court and be given a jury trial *de novo*; in civil cases, jury trial is provided on demand.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 35,434 prisoners were held in North Carolina's state and federal prisons, an increase from 33,560 of 5.6% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,430 inmates were female, up from 2,256 or 7.7% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), North Carolina had an incarceration rate of 357 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, North Carolina in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 447.8 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 38,244 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 355,328 reported incidents or 4,160.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. North Carolina has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 42 executions, of which five were carried out in 2005 and three in 2006 (as of 5 May 2006). As of 1 January 2006, North Carolina had 190 inmates on death row.

In 1976, the US Supreme Court invalidated North Carolina's death penalty statute and the sentences of all inmates then on death row reverted to life imprisonment. However, the state passed a new capital punishment statute in 1977 which apparently assuaged the Court's objections. Two persons were executed in 1984—the state's first executions since 1961. One of the prisoners executed that year, Velma Barfield, was the first woman executed in the United States since 1962 and the first in North Carolina since 1944.

In 2003, North Carolina spent \$354,328,968 on homeland security, an average of \$43 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

North Carolina holds the headquarters of the 3rd Army at Ft. Bragg in Fayetteville. By population, Fort Bragg is the largest Army installation in the world, providing a home to almost 10% of the Army's active component forces. Approximately 43,000 military and 8,000 civilian personnel work at Fort Bragg. Fort Bragg hosts America's only airborne corps and airborne division, the "Green Berets" of the Special Operations Command, and the Army's largest support command. The 82nd Airborne Division soldiers and others make 100,000 parachute jumps each year at Fort Bragg. The Marine Corps Camp Lejeune in Jacksonville is home base for the II Marine Expeditionary Force, 2nd Marine Division, 2nd Force Service Support Group and other combat units and support commands with a population of more than 41,000 Marine and Sailors. The Marine Corps air stations at Cherry Point and New River and Seymour Johnson Air Force Base in Goldsboro are the state's other important military installations. North Carolina firms received more than \$2.2 billion in defense contract awards in 2004. Additionally, defense payroll outlays, including retired military pay, were \$6.5 billion. In 2002, there were 94,296 active duty military personnel and 16,444 civilian personnel stationed in North Carolina, most of whom were at Ft. Bragg.

There were 767,051 veterans living in North Carolina in 2003. Of these, 90,599 saw service in World War II; 77,617 in the Korean conflict; 225,498 during the Vietnam era; and 140,170 in the

Persian Gulf War. For the fiscal year 2004, total Veterans Affairs expenditures in New Carolina exceeded \$2.0 billion.

As of 31 October 2004, the North Carolina State Highway Patrol employed 1,686 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

For most of the state's history, more people have moved away every decade than have moved into the state, and population growth has come only from net natural increase. In 1850, one-third of all free, native-born North Carolinians lived outside the state, chiefly in Tennessee, Georgia, Indiana, and Alabama. The state suffered a net loss of population from migration in every decade from 1870 to 1970.

Before 1890, the emigration rate was higher among whites than among blacks; since then, the reverse has been true, but the number of whites moving into North Carolina did not exceed the number of white emigrants until the 1960s. Between 1940 and 1970, 539,000 more blacks left North Carolina than moved into the state; most of these emigrants sought homes in the North and West. After 1970, however, black out-migration abruptly slackened as economic conditions in eastern North Carolina improved. Net migration to North Carolina was estimated at 278,000 (sixth among the states) from 1970 to 1980, at 83,000 (ninth among the states) from 1980 to 1983; and 347,000 (fifth among the states) from 1985 to 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 501,000 in domestic migration and 49,000 in international migration. In 1998, 6,415 foreign immigrants arrived in North Carolina. The state's overall population increased 13.8% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 158,224 and net internal migration was 232,448, for a net gain of 390,672 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

North Carolina adheres to at least 23 interstate compacts, including 4 that promote regional planning and development. The oldest of the 4, establishing the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education, pools the resources of southern states for the support of graduate and professional schools. The Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact promotes regional forest conservation, while the Southern States Energy Board fosters cooperation in nuclear power development. The Southern Growth Policies Board, formed in 1971 at the suggestion of former North Carolina Governor Terry Sanford, collects and publishes data for planning purposes from its headquarters in Research Triangle Park. The Tennessee Valley Authority operates four dams in western North Carolina to aid in flood control, generate hydroelectric power, and assist navigation downstream on the Tennessee River; most of the electricity generated is exported to Tennessee. North Carolina also belongs to the Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council, the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, the Ohio River Basin Commission, and the Appalachian Regional Commission. Total federal grants in fiscal year 2005 were \$9.657 billion, an estimated \$10.285 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$10.8 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

North Carolina's economy was dominated by agriculture until the closing decades of the 19th century, with tobacco the major cash

crop. Today, tobacco is still the central factor in the economy of the coastal plain. In the piedmont, industrialization accelerated after 1880 when falling crop prices made farming less attractive. During the "cotton mill crusade" of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, local capitalists put spinning or weaving mills on swift streams throughout the region, until nearly every hamlet had its own factory. Under the leadership of James B. Duke, the American Tobacco Co. (now American Brands, with headquarters in New York City) expanded from its Durham headquarters during this same period to control, for a time, virtually the entire US market for smoking products. After native businessmen had established a successful textile boom, New England firms moved south in an effort to cut costs, and the piedmont became a center of southern industrial development.

As more and more Tar Heels left agriculture for the factory, their per capita income rose from 47% of the national average in 1930 to slightly less than 100% of the national average in 2000. The biggest employers are the textile and furniture industries. State government has made a vigorous effort to recruit outside investment and to improve the state's industrial mix. Major new firms now produce electrical equipment, processed foods, technical instruments, fabricated metals, plastics, and chemicals. The greatest industrial growth, however, has come not from wholly new industries, but from fields related to industries that were firmly established. Apparel manufacture spread across eastern North Carolina as an obvious extension of the textile industry, while other new firms produced chemicals and machinery for the textile and furniture business. Manufacturing remains the dominant sector in the state's economy, peaking at an output of nearly \$62 billion (23.8% of total output) in 1999, as the overall state economy grew at a rate of 8.8% in 1998 and 8% in 1999. A decline in manufacturing output of 4.9% by 2001 was accompanied by declining overall growth rates, of 4.7% in 2000, and 0.98% in the national recession of 2001. While the nation's unemployment rose 1.4 percentage points between the third quarter 1999 and third quarter 2002, the rise in North Carolina over this period was 6.4%, reflecting mainly layoffs in its manufacturing sector.

North Carolina's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 totaled \$336.398 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for \$72.295 billion or 21.4% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector, at \$32.848 billion (9.7% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance services, at \$19.862 billion (5.9% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 671,810 small businesses in North Carolina. Of the 182,598 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 179,008 or 98% were small companies. An estimated 23,387 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 4.1% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 22,055, down 5.1% from 2003. There were 486 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 464 filings per 100,000 people, ranking North Carolina 33rd in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 North Carolina had a gross state product (GSP) of \$345 billion which accounted for 2.8% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 12 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 North Carolina had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$29,322. This ranked 38th in the United States and was 89% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.7%. North Carolina had a total personal income (TPI) of \$250,426,537,000, which ranked 13th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.7% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.5%. Earnings of persons employed in North Carolina increased from \$181,840,239,000 in 2003 to \$193,812,229,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.6%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$39,000 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 14.8% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in North Carolina numbered 4,396,000, with approximately 189,800 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 3,962,200. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in North Carolina was 10.2% in February 1983. The historical low was 3.1% in April 1999. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 14.1% in manufacturing; 18.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.1% in financial activities; 11.3% in professional and business services; 11.9% in education and health services; 9.1% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17% in government.

North Carolina working conditions have brought the state considerable notoriety over the years. North Carolina is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law, and public officials are legally barred from negotiating a collective bargaining agreement.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 107,000 of North Carolina's 3,631,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 2.9% of those so employed, up from 2.7% in 2004, well below the national average of 12% and the second-lowest in the United States. Overall in 2005, a total of 143,000 workers (3.9%) in North Carolina were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. North Carolina is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, North Carolina had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.3% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Farm marketings in North Carolina totaled \$7.7 billion in 2005, eighth among the 50 states, with 34% from crop marketings. North Carolina led the nation in the production of tobacco and sweet potatoes, ranked fifth in peanuts, and was also a leading producer of corn, grapes, pecans, apples, tomatoes, and soybeans. Farm life plays an important role in the culture of the state.

The number of farms fell from 301,000 in 1950 to 52,000 in 2004, while the number of acres in farms declined from 17,800,000 to 9,000,000 (7,203,000 to 3,642,000 hectares). At 173 acres (70 hectares), the average North Carolina farm was only 39% the size of the average US farm—a statistic that in part reflects the smaller acreage requirements of tobacco, the state's principal crop. The relatively large number of family farm owner-operators who depend on a modest tobacco allotment to make their small acreages profitable is the basis for North Carolina's opposition to the US government's antismoking campaign and its fight to preserve tobacco price supports.

Although farm employment continues to decline, a significant share of North Carolina jobs—perhaps more than one-third—are still linked to agriculture either directly or indirectly. North Carolina's most heavily agricultural counties are massed in the coastal plain, the center of tobacco, corn, and soybean production, along with a bank of northern piedmont counties on the Virginia border. Virtually all peanut production is in the eastern part of the state, while tobacco, corn, and soybean production spills over into the piedmont. Cotton is grown in scattered counties along the South Carolina border and in a band leading northward across the coastal plain. Beans, tomatoes, cucumbers, strawberries, and blueberries are commercial crops in selected mountain and coastal plain locations. Apples are important to the economy of the mountains, and the sand hills are a center of peach cultivation.

In 2004, tobacco production was 351,630,000 lb (159,496,685 kg), 40% of US production. Production and value data for North Carolina's other principal crops were as follows: corn, 86,580,000 bushels, \$203,463,000; soybeans, 51,000,000 bushels, \$257,550,000; peanuts, 357,000,000 lb, \$77,112,000; and sweet potatoes, 6,880,000 hundredweight, \$92,880,000.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

North Carolina farms and ranches had an estimated 870,000 cattle and calves in 2005, valued at \$661.2 million. In 2004, the state had around 9.8 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$823.2 million. During 2003, North Carolina led the nation in turkey production with 1.1 billion lb (0.5 billion kg) of turkey, worth \$397.8 million; the state was fourth in broiler production with 4.3 billion lb (2 billion kg), worth \$1.51 billion; egg production totaled 2.52 billion eggs, worth \$241.8 million. Milk cows numbered 61,000 in 2003 and they produced 1.04 million lb (0.48 million kg) of milk.

25 FISHING

In 2004, the commercial catch in North Carolina totaled over 136.4 million lb (62 million kg) valued at \$77.1 million. The record landing for the state was in 1981, with a total of 432 million lb. Flounder, menhaden, and sea trout are the most valuable finfish; shrimp, crabs, and clams are the most sought-after shellfish. In 2004, the state catch for hard blue crab accounted for 20% of the total national supply, the second-highest percentage in the nation (after Louisiana). The port at Beaufort-Morehead City ranked 19th in the nation for volume, with a catch of 63.5 million lb (28.9 million kg).

In 2003, there were 31 processing and 78 wholesale plants in the state with about 1,471 employees. In 2001, the commercial fleet had 773 vessels.

North Carolina lakes and streams are stocked in part by three state fish hatcheries and two national hatcheries within the state (Edenton and KcKinney Lake). In 2004, the state issued 692,497 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

As of 2004, forests covered 18,269,000 acres (6,179,000 hectares) in North Carolina, or about 59% of the state's land area. North Carolina's forests constitute 2.5% of all US forestland, and 97% of the state's wooded areas have commercial value. The largest tracts are found along the coast and in the Western Mountains, where most counties are more than 70% tree-covered. Hardwoods make up 53% of the state's forests. Mixed stands of oak and pine account for an additional 14%. The remaining 33% is pine and other conifers. More than 90% of the acreage harvested for timber is reforested.

National forests cover 6% of North Carolina's timberlands, and state and local governments own another 2%. The remainder is privately owned. In the days of wooden sailing vessels, North Carolina pine trees supplied large quantities of "naval stores"—tar, pitch, and turpentine for waterproofing and other nautical purposes. Today, the state produces mainly saw logs, pulpwood, veneer logs, and Christmas trees.

In 2004, lumber production totaled 2.62 billion board feet, eighth in the United States and 5.3% of national production.

27 MINING

According to data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the value of nonfuel mineral production by North Carolina in 2004 was \$805 million, an increase from 2003 of about 9.7%. The USGS data ranked North Carolina as 21st among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for about 2% of total US output.

According to the data for 2004, crushed stone was the state's top nonfuel mineral produced, accounting for 68% by value of all nonfuel mineral output that year. It was followed by phosphate rock, construction sand and gravel, industrial sand and gravel, feldspar, dimension stone, common clays and mica. By volume, North Carolina was the leading state in the production of feldspar, common clays, mica, olivine, and pyrophyllite, of which the state was the sole producer. The state also ranked third in phosphate rock output, seventh in the production of industrial sand and gravel, and eighth in crushed stone.

Crushed stone production in 2004 totaled 72.3 million metric tons and was valued at \$548 million, while construction sand and gravel output that year totaled 11.5 million metric tons, with a value of \$59.7 million. Industrial sand and gravel production in 2004 totaled 1.630 million metric tons and was valued at \$29 million. Feldspar output totaled 351,000 metric tons and was valued at \$20.5 million. Dimension stone production in 2004 came to 43,000 metric tons and was valued at \$18.2 million.

North Carolina in 2004 was ranked 11th in the production (by value) of gemstones.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, North Carolina had 111 electrical power service providers, of which 72 were publicly owned and 32 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were investor owned, one was fed-

erally operated and three were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 4,365,692 retail customers. Of that total, 2,934,296 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 892,553 customers, while publicly owned providers had 538,836 customers. There were four federal customers and three were independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 27.263 million kW, with total production that same year at 127.582 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 92.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 74.776 billion kWh (58.6%), came from natural gas fired plants, with nuclear power generation in second place at 40.906 billion kWh (32.1%) and hydroelectric plants in third at 7.200 billion kWh (5.6%). Other renewable power sources, pumped storage facilities, petroleum and natural gas fired plants, and other types of generation accounted for the remainder.

As of 2006, North Carolina had three operating nuclear power stations: the Brunswick plant in Brunswick County; the McGuire plant near Charlotte; and the Shearon-Harris plant near Raleigh.

No petroleum or natural gas has been found in North Carolina, but major companies have expressed interest in offshore drilling. The state has no refineries. There is also no coal mining, and proven coal reserves are minor, at only 10.7 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

2⁹ INDUSTRY

North Carolina has had a predominantly industrial economy for most of the 20th century. Today, the state is a major manufacturer of textiles, cigarettes, and furniture, as well as of chemicals and allied products, industrial machinery, food products, electronics/electrical equipment, and rubber and plastics products.

The industrial regions of North Carolina spread out from the piedmont cities. Roughly speaking, each movement outward represents a step down in the predominant level of skills and wages and a step closer to the primary processing of raw materials.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, North Carolina's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$163.838 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$26.387 billion. It was followed by beverage and tobacco product manufacturing at \$24.029 billion; food manufacturing at \$15.294 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$14.360 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$9.664 billion.

In 2004, a total of 550,217 people in North Carolina were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 411,087 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the furniture and related product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 59,457, with 48,753 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 54,848 employees (41,503 actual production workers); textile mills at 52,459 employees (44,442 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 39,711 employees (30,816 actual produc-

tion workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing with 38,355 employees (29,699 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that North Carolina's manufacturing sector paid \$19.861 billion in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.882 billion. It was followed by furniture and related product manufacturing at \$1.632 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.558 billion; textile mills at \$1.509 billion; and computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$1.488 billion.

3⁰ COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, North Carolina's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$104.3 billion from 11,913 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 7,300 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 3,535 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,078 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$45.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$43.3 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$15.8 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, North Carolina was listed as having 35,851 retail establishments with sales of \$88.8 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (4,818); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (4,589); clothing and clothing accessories stores (4,508); miscellaneous store retailers (4,044); and food and beverage stores (3,814). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$24.1 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$12.7 billion; general merchandise stores at \$12.2 billion; and gasoline stations at \$8.3 billion. A total of 435,421 people were employed by the retail sector in North Carolina that year.

The state ports at Wilmington and Morehead City handle a growing volume of international trade. In 2005, North Carolina exported \$19.4 billion worth of its goods to foreign markets (14th in the United States).

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues in North Carolina are the responsibility of the Consumer Protection Division, which is a function of the state's Attorney General, both of which are part of the North Carolina Department of Justice. The Division has as its function the protection of North Carolina consumers from unfair and deceptive trade practices and from dishonest and unethical business competition. Although it assists in the resolution of disputes, investigates cases of consumer fraud, and initiates action to halt proscribed trade practices, it does not represent individual consumers in court. It also represents the public before the North Carolina Utilities Commission.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General can initiate civil and to a limited extent, criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in

state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Consumer Protection Division are located in Raleigh.

3²BANKING

As of June 2005, North Carolina had 108 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 84 state-chartered and 48 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Charlotte-Gastonia-Concord market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 43 institutions and \$90.216 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 3.5% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$21.984 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 96.5% or \$607.160 billion in assets held.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 3.67%, up from 3.65% in 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans in 2004 was 1.23%, down from 1.58% in 2003.

Regulation of state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Office of the Commissioner of Banks and the North Carolina Banking Commission.

3³INSURANCE

In 2004, there were over 6.5 million individual life insurance policies in force, with a total value of over \$390 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$604 billion. The average coverage amount is \$59,300 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$1.66 billion.

As of 2003, there were 70 property and casualty and 6 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$10.6 billion. That year, there were 109,097 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$19.4 billion.

In 2004, 52% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 24% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 6.2 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Of those, 23% (over 1.4 million) were issued through the shared market, a system of insurance companies assigned by the state to offer coverage to high risk drivers. Of the 50 states and the District of Columbia, North Carolina has the highest percentage of insureds in the shared market. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$30,000 per individual and \$60,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003,

the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$604.75.

3⁴SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in North Carolina. The Securities Division of the Office of Secretary of State is authorized to protect the public against fraudulent issues and sellers of securities. In 2005, there were 3,240 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 4,720 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 167 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 65 NASDAQ companies, 39 NYSE listings, and 6 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 14 Fortune 500 companies; Bank of America Corp. (based in Charlotte) ranked first in the state and 12th in the nation with revenues of over \$83.9 billion, followed by Lowe's, based in Mooresville, and Wachovia Corp., Duke Energy, and Nucor, all based in Charlotte. All five of these companies are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵PUBLIC FINANCE

The North Carolina budget is prepared biennially by the governor and reviewed annually by the Office of State Budget and Management, in consultation with the Advisory Budget Commission, an independent agency composed of five gubernatorial appointees, five members from the Senate, and five from the House of Representatives. It is then submitted to the General Assembly for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$17.4 billion for resources and \$17.3 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to North Carolina were \$12.6 billion.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, North Carolina collected \$18,640 million in tax revenues or \$2,147 per capita, which placed it 25th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 24.7% of the total; selective sales taxes, 16.2%; individual income taxes, 45.2%; corporate income taxes, 6.8%; and other taxes, 7.1%.

As of 1 January 2006, North Carolina had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 6.0 to 8.25%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.9%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$6,093,170,000 or \$713 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 38th highest nationally. North Carolina does not collect property taxes at the state level.

North Carolina taxes retail sales at a rate of 4.50%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 3%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.50%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is exempt from state tax, but subject to local taxes. The tax on cigarettes is 30 cents per pack, which ranks 45th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. North Carolina taxes gasoline at 30.15 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, North Carolina citizens received \$1.10 in federal spending.

North Carolina—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	44,371,161	5,195.69
General revenue	32,951,167	3,858.45
Intergovernmental revenue	11,608,798	1,359.34
Taxes	16,836,454	1,971.48
General sales	4,351,822	509.58
Selective sales	2,917,379	341.61
License taxes	1,017,247	119.12
Individual income tax	7,510,978	879.51
Corporate income tax	837,085	98.02
Other taxes	201,943	23.65
Current charges	2,794,075	327.18
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,711,840	200.45
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	11,419,994	1,337.24
Total expenditure	37,050,568	4,338.47
Intergovernmental expenditure	10,326,743	1,209.22
Direct expenditure	26,723,825	3,129.25
Current operation	18,871,108	2,209.73
Capital outlay	2,961,676	346.80
Insurance benefits and repayments	3,939,093	461.25
Assistance and subsidies	511,322	59.87
Interest on debt	440,626	51.60
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	6,142,326	719.24
Total expenditure	37,050,568	4,338.47
General expenditure	33,009,076	3,865.23
Intergovernmental expenditure	10,326,743	1,209.22
Direct expenditure	22,682,333	2,656.01
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	13,290,923	1,556.31
Public welfare	8,755,747	1,025.26
Hospitals	1,107,043	129.63
Health	1,274,446	149.23
Highways	3,198,090	374.48
Police protection	378,278	44.29
Correction	1,041,109	121.91
Natural resources	516,959	60.53
Parks and recreation	151,009	17.68
Government administration	764,436	89.51
Interest on general debt	440,626	51.60
Other and unallocable	2,090,410	244.78
Utility expenditure	102,399	11.99
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	3,939,093	461.25
Debt at end of fiscal year	14,102,900	1,651.39
Cash and security holdings	73,703,368	8,630.37

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

lower and unemployment is higher than elsewhere in the state. In 1996, under the administration of Governor James B. Hunt, the General Assembly adopted the William S. Lee Quality Jobs and Business Expansion Act. The act groups North Carolina's counties into Enterprise Tiers, and provides for graduated tax credit amounts, depending upon Enterprise Tier location, for specific company activities including job creation, machinery and equipment investment, worker training, and research and development. The North Carolina Economic Development Board's goal has been to help the transformation of the economy from manufacturing to more high-technology enterprises.

The state also actively participates in programs involving industrial revenue bonds, state and federally assisted loan and grant programs, business energy loans, and assistance to local communities with shell buildings that can be customized to meet the needs of a company in a shorter period of time. The Business and Industry ServiCenter is a one-stop information and resource center for businesses.

38 HEALTH

Health conditions and health care facilities in North Carolina vary widely from region to region. In the larger cities-and especially in proximity to the excellent medical schools at Duke University and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, quality health care is as readily available as anywhere in the United States.

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.1 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 21 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84.5% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.7 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 222.6; cancer, 194.8; cerebrovascular diseases, 63.2; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 44.2; and diabetes, 26.5. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 5.8 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 13.3 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 23.1% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, North Carolina had 113 community hospitals with about 23,300 beds. There were about 987,000 patient admissions that year and 14.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 16,600 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,020. Also in 2003, there were about 423 certified nursing facilities in the state with 43,022 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 88.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 69.4% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. North Carolina had 252 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 831 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 3,903 dentists in the state.

The state acted to increase the supply of doctors in eastern North Carolina in the 1970s by the establishment of a new medical school at East Carolina University in Greenville. Medical schools and superior medical research facilities are also located at Duke University Medical Center in Durham, UNC Hospitals at the University of North Carolina in Chapel Hill, and the Bowman

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

North Carolina's government has actively stimulated economic growth ever since the beginning of the 19th century. During the administration of Governor Luther H. Hodges (1954–61), the state began to recruit outside investment directly, developing such forward-looking facilities as Research Triangle Park. Since the 1970s, other policies and legislation have been aimed at the fostering of development in rural areas, where per capita income is

Gray School of Medicine at Wake Forest University in Winston-Salem. In 2005, Duke University Medical Center ranked eighth on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, the hospital ranked fourth in the nation for best care in heart disease and heart surgery, sixth for best care in cancer, and in the top 20 for pediatric care.

About 17% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 14% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$10.5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 273,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$256. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 799,747 persons (343,397 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$89.21 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$856 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. North Carolina's TANF program is called Work First. In 2004, the state program had 77,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$136 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,467,400 North Carolina residents. This number included 910,400 retired workers, 131,150 widows and widowers, 236,680 disabled workers, 59,010 spouses, and 130,160 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.2% of the total state population and 94.7% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$934; widows and widowers, \$828; disabled workers, \$877; and spouses, \$464. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$480 per month; children of deceased workers, \$606; and children of disabled workers, \$263. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 195,654 North Carolinians, averaging \$359 a month. An additional \$10.8 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 24,056 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 3,860,078 units of housing in North Carolina, of which 3,340,330 were occupied; 69% were owner-occupied. About 64.7% of all housing units were single-family, detached homes. The state had one of the highest percentages of mobile home units in the nation at 16.8%. Nearly 36% of the entire housing stock was built between 1970 and 1989. The most common energy source for heating was electricity. It was estimated that 183,095 units lacked telephone service, 11,661 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 11,745 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.48 members.

Also in 2004, 93,100 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$117,771. The me-

dian monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,028. Renters paid a median of \$610 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$679,942 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$45 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

North Carolina's commitment to education was strengthened with legislative and financial support for improving student achievement through high standards; teacher accountability; an emphasis on teaching the basics of reading, writing and mathematics; and moving state control of schools to the local, community level. Legislation passed in 1996 allowed for the state's first public charter schools, up to 100 of them, and the first ones approved began operating in 1997. In 2004, 80.9% of North Carolinians age 25 and older were high school graduates, lower than the national average of 84%. Some 23.4% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher; the national average was 26%.

North Carolina has a rich educational history, having started the first state university in the United States, in 1795, and the first free system of common schools in the South in 1839. North Carolina led the nation in the construction of rural schools in the 1920s. In 1957, Charlotte, Greensboro, and Winston-Salem were the first cities in the South to admit black students voluntarily to formerly all-white schools. But, as was the case throughout the South, widespread desegregation took much longer. In 1971, the US Supreme Court, in the landmark decision *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education*, upheld the use of busing to desegregate that school system. The remainder of the state soon followed suit.

North Carolina established a statewide testing program in 1977 and increased high school graduation requirements in 1983, becoming the first state to require that students pass Algebra I in order to earn a diploma. North Carolina has been active in providing special programs for gifted students. Governor's School, a summer residential program for the gifted, was founded in 1963. Other talented students are served by the highly regarded North Carolina School of the Arts in Winston-Salem, which began operating in 1965, and the North Carolina School of Science and Mathematics, located in Durham, which opened in 1980.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in North Carolina's public schools stood at 1,336,000. Of these, 964,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 372,000 attended high school. Approximately 58.3% of the students were white, 31.6% were black, 6.7% were Hispanic, 2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,355,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 1,381,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 3.3% during the period 2002-14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$10.2 billion. In fall 2003, there were 102,642 students enrolled in 661 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in North Carolina scored 282 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 447,335 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 28.5% of total

postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 North Carolina had 130 degree-granting institutions. The University of North Carolina (UNC) was chartered in 1789 and opened at Chapel Hill in 1795. The state university system now embraces 16 campuses under a common board of governors. The three oldest and largest campuses, all of which offer research and graduate as well as undergraduate programs, are UNC-Chapel Hill, North Carolina State University in Raleigh (the first land-grant college for the study of agriculture and engineering), and UNC-Greensboro. North Carolina had 58 community colleges and 1 specialized technology center as of 2005.

Duke University in Durham is North Carolina's premier private institution and takes its place with the Chapel Hill and Raleigh public campuses as the third key facility in the Research Triangle. In addition to the public institutions and community colleges, there are also 49 private, four-year schools, of which Wake Forest University in Winston-Salem and Davidson College in Davidson are most noteworthy.

42 ARTS

North Carolina has been a pioneer in exploring new channels for state support of the arts. It was the first state to fund its own symphony, to endow its own art museum, to found a state school of the arts, to create a statewide arts council, and to establish a cabinet-level Department of Cultural Resources. The North Carolina Arts Council was established in 1964 and as of 2006 it was providing 1,000 grants annually to nonprofit organizations and artists. The council was instrumental in funding two of the first arts-based curriculum experiments in the state. The Arts Council's Grassroots Arts Program, established in 1977, was the nation's first per capita funding program for the local arts initiatives in which decision-making remained at the local level.

In 2005, North Carolina arts organizations received 41 grants totaling \$1,535,926 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The North Carolina Humanities Council (NCHC), founded in 1972, is active in a number of programs. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$2,475,754 to 29 state programs.

The North Carolina Symphony, based in Raleigh, is noted for having one of the most extensive educational programs of any orchestra nationwide. As of the 2006/07 season, its 75th anniversary, the North Carolina Symphony performed approximately 55 free concerts for more than 100,000 children annually. The North Carolina Museum of Art features one of the finest collections of early European master paintings in the country. The museum's collection spans 5,000 years and includes work by Dutch masters, Renaissance masterpieces, Egyptian artifacts, classical statues, and tribal and contemporary art. In 2005, the museum received a gift of 23 works by French sculptor Auguste Rodin, including 22 bronze sculptures. The gift made the museum one of the top Rodin repositories worldwide; the works of art were to be on display in new galleries that were part of a \$75 million expansion project, scheduled to be completed in 2008.

Summer dance and music festivals, as well as professional theaters and historical outdoor dramas, galleries and museums, and the crafts community all serve as anchors for the state's tourism industry. North Carolina's Pulitzer Prize-winning playwright Paul

Green created the genre of historical drama with the 1937 production of *The Lost Colony*.

Based for 20 years in Durham, the American Dance Festival (ADF) has commissioned new dance works, preserved dance history, trained dancers, and presented the best in contemporary dance. The African American Dance Ensemble, established in 1984 and based in North Carolina, performs for people across the United States promoting the preservation of African and African American dance. In 1961 Flat Rock Playhouse was officially designated the state theater of North Carolina.

Folk and traditional arts thrive across North Carolina in all disciplines. The North Carolina Folk Heritage Awards are given to recognize the state's leading folk artists. Penland School of Crafts, the John C. Campbell Folk School, the Southern Highland Craft Guild, Qualla Arts and Crafts Mutual, Inc., the Core Sound Waterfowl Museum, and the North Carolina Pottery Center are but a few of the organizations in North Carolina that help to keep the craft traditions alive.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, North Carolina had 76 public library systems, with 379 libraries, of which 314 were branches. Libraries, in nearly every North Carolina community, are linked together through the State Library, ensuring that users in all parts of the state can have access to printed, filmed, and recorded materials. In that same year, the state's 76 public library systems had 15,916,000 volumes of books and serial publications on their shelves, and a total circulation of 43,313,000. The system also had 521,000 audio and 438,000 video items, 68,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 47 bookmobiles. Major university research libraries are located at the Chapel Hill, Raleigh, and Greensboro campuses of the University of North Carolina and at Duke University in Durham. The North Carolina Collection and Southern Historical Collection at the Chapel Hill campus are especially noteworthy. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the public system totaled \$156,375,000 and included \$1,334,000 in federal grants and \$17,910,000 in state grants.

North Carolina had 188 museums and historical sites in 2000. Established in 1956, the North Carolina Museum of Art, in Raleigh, is one of only two state-supported art museums in the United States (the other is in Virginia); the museum had an attendance of 233,893 in 1999. The North Carolina Museum of History is in Raleigh, with an annual attendance of 239,642. The Department of Cultural Resources administers 20 state historical sites and Tryon Place Restoration in New Bern. The Museum of Natural History in Raleigh is maintained by the state Department of Agriculture; smaller science museums exist in Charlotte, Greensboro, and Durham.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Government postal service in North Carolina began in 1755 but did not become regular until 1771, with the establishment of a central post office for the southern colonies. Mails were slow and erratic, and many North Carolinians continued to entrust their letters to private travelers until well into the 19th century. Rural free delivery in the state began on 23 October 1896 in Rowan County.

Telephone service began in Wilmington and Raleigh in October 1879, and long distance connections between Wilmington and Petersburg, Va., began later that same year. In 2004, 93.3% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 4,875,916 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 57.7% of North Carolina households had a computer and 51.1% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,237,877 high-speed lines in North Carolina, 1,124,284 residential and 113,593 for business.

There were 50 major AM radio stations in North Carolina in 2005, and 106 major FM stations. Major television stations numbered 33. In 1999, the Greenville-Spartanburg-Asheville-Anderson area had 732,490 television households, 61% of which received cable. The Raleigh-Durham area had 858,490 television-viewing households, 62% of which had cable. Finally, the Greensboro-High Point-Winston Salem viewing area boasted 64% of all television households with cable.

A total of 120,858 Internet domain names were registered in the state in the year 2000.

45 PRESS

As of 2005, North Carolina had 34 morning newspapers, 13 evening dailies, and 39 Sunday papers.

The following table shows the circulation of the largest dailies as of 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Charlotte	<i>Observer</i> (m,S)	226,082	278,573
Greensboro	<i>News & Record</i> (m,S)	90,436	111,257
Raleigh	<i>News & Observer</i> (m,S)	176,550	211,735
Winston-Salem	<i>Journal</i> (m,S)	84,459	95,179

The *Charlotte Observer* won a 1981 Pulitzer Prize for its series on brown lung disease. The (Raleigh) *News & Observer* won a 1996 Pulitzer Prize for its series on the hog industry in North Carolina.

North Carolina has been the home of several nationally recognized "little reviews" of literature, poetry, and criticism, including *The Rebel*, *Crucible*, *Southern Poetry Review*, *The Carolina Quarterly*, *St. Andrews Review*, *The Sun*, *Pembroke Magazine*, and *Miscellany*. The *North Carolina Historical Review* is a quarterly scholarly publication of the Division of Archives and History.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were 8,500 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 6,404 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

The North Carolina Citizens Association serves as the voice of the state's business community. A teachers' organization, the North Carolina Association of Educators, is widely acknowledged as one of the most effective political pressure groups in the state, as is the North Carolina State Employees Association. Every major branch of industry has its own trade association; most are highly effective lobbying bodies. Carolina Action, the North Carolina Public Interest Research Group, the Kudzu Alliance, and the Brown Lung Association represent related consumer, environmental, antinuclear power, and public health concerns.

National organizations headquartered in the state include the American Board of Pediatrics, Association of Professors of Medi-

cine, the American Senior Citizens Association, the Institute for Southern Studies, the Tobacco Association of the United States, the US Power Squadrons, the Improved Benevolent Protective Order of Elks of the World, the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, the World Methodist Council, and the Center for Creative Leadership. The Billy Graham Evangelistic Association is based in Charlotte.

Cultural and educational organizations at the local and national levels include the American Dance Festival, the Appalachian Consortium, the Moravian Music Foundation, Art in the Public Interest, the Center for Urban and Regional Studies, the National Humanities Center, the National Institute of Statistical Sciences, the North Carolina Humanities Council, and Preservation North Carolina. There are several clan associations for those of Scottish heritage.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

North Carolina promotes itself as "the heart of motorsports." Raleigh and Charlotte are right in the heart of NASCAR racing. In 2002, there were 44.4 million visitors to North Carolina, with total travel expenditures reaching \$11.9 billion. About 30% of all trips are made by residents traveling within the state. About 53% of visitors travel from the following states: Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, New York, Maryland, and Ohio.

Tourists are attracted by North Carolina's coastal beaches (301 miles of coastline); by golf and tennis opportunities; and by parks and scenery in the North Carolina mountains. Sites of special interest are the Revolutionary War battlegrounds at Guilford Courthouse and Moore's Creek Bridge; Bennett Place, near Hillsborough, where the last major Confederate army surrendered; Ft. Raleigh, the site of the Lost Colony's misadventures; and the Wright Brothers National Memorial at Kitty Hawk. With more than 600 golf courses across the state, North Carolina is often nicknamed the "Golf Capital of the World." North Carolina is the home of three United States presidents; Andrew Jackson, James K. Polk, and Andrew Johnson.

Cape Hatteras and Cape Lookout national seashores, which protect the beauty of the Outer Banks, together cover 58,563 acres (23,700 hectares). The Blue Ridge Parkway, a scenic motor route operated by the National Park Service that winds over the crest of the Blue Ridge in Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia, attracts millions of visitors to North Carolina yearly. There are 300 mi (500 km) of the Appalachian Trail in North Carolina. Another popular attraction, Great Smoky Mountains National Park, straddles the North Carolina-Tennessee border. There are more than 1.2 million acres of national forest land located in North Carolina, 1,500 lakes of 10 acres or more, and 37,000 miles of freshwater streams. North Carolina was first settled by residents of Scotland and still maintains its Scottish heritage with festivals and crafts.

48 SPORTS

There are four major professional sports teams in North Carolina: the Charlotte Bobcats of the National Basketball Association, the Charlotte Sting of the Women's National Basketball Association, the Carolina Panthers of the National Football League, and the Carolina Hurricanes of the National Hockey League, who relocated to Raleigh from Hartford, Connecticut, in 1997. The Charlotte

Hornets, now located in New Orleans, left North Carolina in 2002. Minor league baseball's Carolina League is based in North Carolina, and 14 minor league teams call the state home. Additionally, there is minor league hockey in Charlotte, Fayetteville, and Winston-Salem. Two other professional sports that figure prominently in the state are golf and stock-car racing. The Greater Greensboro Chrysler Classic in April is a major tournament on the Professional Golfers' Association tour. The Lowe's Motor Speedway in Charlotte is the home of the Nextel All-Star Challenge, the Coca-Cola 600, and the Bank of America 500 on the NASCAR Nextel Cup circuit.

College basketball is the ruling passion of amateur sports fans in North Carolina. Organized in the Atlantic Coast Conference, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, North Carolina State University, Wake Forest University, and Duke University consistently field nationally ranked basketball teams. North Carolina won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Championship in 1957, 1982, 1993, and 2005, North Carolina State captured the title in 1974 and 1983, and Duke won back-to-back championships in 1991 and 1992, and in 2001.

Other annual sporting events include the Stoneybrook Steeplechase in Southern Pines in April and the National Hollerin' Contest in Spivey's Corner, which tests farmers' ability to call livestock.

Track and field star Marion Jones and boxing great Sugar Ray Leonard were born in North Carolina.

49 FAMOUS NORTH CAROLINIANS

Three US presidents had North Carolina roots, but all three reached the White House from Tennessee. Andrew Jackson (1767–1845), the seventh president, was born in an unsurveyed border region, probably in South Carolina, but studied law and was admitted to the bar in North Carolina before moving to frontier Tennessee in 1788. James K. Polk (1795–1849), the 11th president, was born in Mecklenburg County but grew up in Tennessee. Another native North Carolinian, Andrew Johnson (1808–75), was a tailor's apprentice in Raleigh before moving to Tennessee at the age of 18. Johnson served as Abraham Lincoln's vice president for six weeks in 1865 before becoming the nation's 17th president when Lincoln was assassinated. William Rufus King (1786–1853), the other US vice president from North Carolina, also served for only six weeks, dying before he could exercise his duties.

Three native North Carolinians have served as speaker of the US House of Representatives. The first, Nathaniel Macon (1758–1837), occupied the speaker's chair from 1801 to 1807 and served as president pro tem of the US Senate in 1826–27. The other two were James K. Polk and Joseph G. "Uncle Joe" Cannon (1836–1926), who served as speaker of the House from 1903 to 1911, but as a representative from Illinois.

Sir Walter Raleigh (or Ralegh, b.England, 1552?–1618) never came to North Carolina, but his efforts to found a colony there led state lawmakers to give his name to the new state capital in 1792. Raleigh's "Lost Colony" on Roanoke Island was the home of Virginia Dare (1587–?), the first child of English parents to be born in America. More than a century later, the infamous Edward Teach (or Thatch, b.England, ?–1716) made his headquarters at Bath and terrorized coastal waters as the pirate known as Blackbeard.

Principal leaders of the early national period included Richard Caswell (b.Maryland, 1729–89), Revolutionary War governor;

William Richardson Davie (b.England, 1756–1820), governor of the state and founder of the University of North Carolina; and Archibald De Bow Murphey (1777–1832), reform advocate, legislator, and judge. Prominent black Americans of the 19th century who were born or who lived in North Carolina were John Chavis (1763–1838), teacher and minister; David Walker (1785–1830), abolitionist; and Hiram Revels (1827–1901), first black member of the US Senate.

North Carolinians prominent in the era of the Civil War and Reconstruction included antislavery author Hinton Rowan Helper (1829–1909), Civil War governor Zebulon B. Vance (1830–94), Reconstruction governor William W. Holden (1818–92), and "carpetbagger" judge Albion Winegar Tourgee (b. Ohio, 1838–1905). Among major politicians of the 20th century are Furnifold McLendell Simmons (1854–1940), US senator from 1901 to 1931; Charles Brantley Aycock (1859–1912), governor from 1901 to 1905; Frank Porter Graham (1886–1972), University of North Carolina president, New Deal adviser, and US senator, 1949–50; Luther H. Hodges (b. Virginia, 1898–1974), governor from 1954 to 1960, US secretary of commerce from 1961 to 1965, and founder of Research Triangle Park; Samuel J. Ervin Jr. (1896–1985), US senator from 1954 to 1974 and chairman of the Senate Watergate investigation; Terry Sanford (1917–98), governor from 1961 to 1965, US presidential aspirant, and president of Duke University; and Jesse Helms (b. 1921), senator from 1973 to 2003. Civil rights leader Jesse Jackson (b. 1941) began his career as a student activist in Greensboro. The most famous North Carolinian living today is probably evangelist Billy Graham (b. 1918).

James Buchanan Duke (1856–1925) founded the American Tobacco Co. and provided the endowment that transformed Trinity College into Duke University. The most outstanding North Carolina-born inventor was Richard J. Gatling (1818–1903), creator of the "Gatling gun," the first machine gun. The Wright brothers, Wilbur (b. Indiana, 1867–1912) and Orville (b. Ohio, 1871–1948), achieved the first successful powered airplane flight at Kitty Hawk, on the Outer Banks, on 17 December 1903. Psychologist Joseph Banks Rhine (b. Pennsylvania, 1895–1980) was known for his research on extrasensory perception. Kary Mullis, 1993 winner of the Nobel Prize for chemistry, was born in Lenoir, North Carolina.

A number of North Carolinians have won fame as literary figures. They include Walter Hines Page (1855–1918), editor and diplomat; William Sydney Porter (1862–1910), a short-story writer who used the pseudonym O. Henry; playwright Paul Green (1894–1984); and novelists Thomas Wolfe (1900–38) and Reynolds Price (b. 1933). Major scholars associated with the state have included sociologist Howard W. Odum (b. Georgia, 1884–1954) and historians W. J. Cash (1901–41) and John Hope Franklin (b. Oklahoma, 1915). Journalists Edward R. Murrow (1908–65), Tom Wicker (b. 1926), and Charles Kuralt (1934–97) were all North Carolina natives. Harry Golden (Harry L. Goldhurst, b. New York, 1903–81), a Jewish humorist, founded the *Carolina Israelite*.

Jazz artists Thelonious Monk (1918–82), John Coltrane (1926–67), and Nina Simone (1933–2003) were born in the state, as were pop singer Roberta Flack (b. 1939), folksinger Arthel "Doc" Watson (b. 1923), bluegrass banjo artist Earl Scruggs (b. 1924), and actor Andy Griffith (b. 1926). North Carolina athletes include former heavyweight champion Floyd Patterson (1935–2006), NASCAR

driver Richard Petty (1937–2000), football quarterbacks Sonny Jurgenson (b.1934) and Roman Gabriel (b.1940), baseball pitchers Gaylord Perry (b.1938) and Jim “Catfish” Hunter (1946–99), and basketball player Meadowlark Lemon (b.1932), long a star with the Harlem Globetrotters. Michael Jordan (b.New York, 1963) played college basketball at the University of North Carolina, and went on to fame as a National Basketball Association star.

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NORTH DAKOTA

State of North Dakota



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: The state was formerly the northern section of Dakota Territory; *dakota* is a Siouan word meaning “allies.” **NICKNAME:** Peace Garden State; Flickertail State. **CAPITAL:** Bismarck. **ENTERED UNION:** 2 November 1889 (39th). **SONG:** “North Dakota Hymn;” “Flickertail March.” (march). **MOTTO:** Liberty and Union, Now and Forever, One and Inseparable. **FLAG:** The flag consists of a blue field with yellow fringes; on each side is depicted an eagle with outstretched wings, holding in one talon a sheaf of arrows, in the other an olive branch, and in his beak a banner inscribed with the words “*E Pluribus Unum.*” Below the eagle are the words “North Dakota”; above it are 13 stars surmounted by a sunburst. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the center is an elm tree; beneath it are a sheaf of wheat, a plow, an anvil, and a bow and three arrows, and in the background a Native American chases a buffalo toward a setting sun. The depiction is surrounded by the state motto, and the words “Great Seal State of North Dakota October 1st 1889” encircle the whole. **BIRD:** Western meadowlark. **FISH:** Northern pike. **FLOWER:** Wild prairie rose. **TREE:** American elm. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT; 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the western north-central United States, North Dakota ranks 17th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of North Dakota is 70,703 sq mi (183,121 sq km), comprising 69,300 sq mi (179,487 sq km) of land and 1,403 sq mi (3,634 sq km) of inland water. Shaped roughly like a rectangle, North Dakota has three straight sides and one irregular border on the E. Its maximum length E–W is about 360 mi (580 km), its extreme width N–S about 210 mi (340 km).

North Dakota is bordered on the N by the Canadian provinces of Saskatchewan and Manitoba; on the E by Minnesota (with the line formed by the Red River of the North); on the S by South Dakota; and on the W by Montana. The total boundary length is 1,312 mi (2,111 km). The state’s geographic center is in Sheridan County, 5 mi (8 km) sw of McClusky.

² TOPOGRAPHY

North Dakota straddles two major US physiographic regions: the Central Plains in the east and the Great Plains in the west. Along the eastern border is the generally flat Red River Valley, with the state’s lowest point, 750 ft (229 m); this valley was once covered by the waters of a glacial lake. Most of the eastern half of North Dakota consists of the Drift Prairie, at 1,300–1,600 ft (400–500 m) above sea level. The Missouri Plateau occupies the western half of the state and has the highest point in North Dakota—White Butte, 3,506 ft (1,069 m)—in Slope County in the southwest. Separating the Missouri Plateau from the Drift Prairie is the Missouri Escarpment, which rises 400 ft (122 m) above the prairie and extends diagonally from northwest to southeast. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,900 ft (580 m).

North Dakota has two major rivers: the Red River of the North, flowing northward into Canada; and the Missouri River, which enters in the northwest and then flows east and, joined by the Yellowstone River, southeast into South Dakota.

³ CLIMATE

North Dakota lies in the northwestern continental interior of the United States. Characteristically, summers are hot, winters very cold, and rainfall sparse to moderate, with periods of drought. The average annual temperature is 40°F (4°C), ranging from 7°F (-14°C) in January to 69°F (21°C) in July. The record low temperature, -60°F (-51°C), was set at Parshall on 15 February 1936; the record high, 121°F (49°C), at Steele on 6 July 1936.

The average yearly precipitation was about 15.8 in (40 cm) at Bismarck. The total annual snowfall averages 41.9 in (106 cm) at Bismarck.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

North Dakota is predominantly a region of prairie and plains, although the American elm, green ash, box elder, and cottonwood grow there. Cranberries, juneberries, and wild grapes are also common. Indian, blue, grama, and buffalo grasses grow on the plains; the wild prairie rose is the state flower. The western prairie fringed orchid was the only plant species classified by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened in 2006; no plant species were listed as endangered that year.

Once on the verge of extinction, the white-tailed and mule deer and pronghorn antelope have been restored. The elk and grizzly bear, both common until about 1880, had disappeared by 1900; bighorn sheep, reintroduced in 1956, are beginning to flourish.

North Dakota claims more wild ducks than any other state except Alaska, and it has the largest sharptailed grouse population in the United States. Six animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in North Dakota in April 2006, including the bald eagle, Eskimo curlew, pallid sturgeon, least tern, and whooping crane.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

North Dakota has little urban or industrial pollution. An environmental issue confronting the state in the mid-1980s and early 1990s was how to use its coal resources without damaging the land through strip mining or polluting the air with coal-fired industrial plants. Major environmental issues confronting the state are importation of non-hazardous and hazardous solid wastes for treatment or disposal, non-point surface water pollution from agricultural and native land, groundwater contamination by fuel storage tanks and by irrigation, and air pollution by energy conversion plants.

The Environmental Health Section of the North Dakota Department of Health oversees programs to ensure water and air quality. North Dakota has little urban air pollution with one exception: motor vehicle traffic is causing excess ambient carbon monoxide in an area within the city of Fargo. The major industrial sources of air contaminants within the state are seven coal-fired electrical generating plants, a coal gasification plant, a refinery, and agricultural commodity processing facilities. The ambient air quality has been in compliance with federal standards, although an epidemiological study has associated certain air contaminants with a higher incidence of respiratory illness among persons living in the vicinity of coal-burning plants. In 2003, 23.6 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

To conserve water and provide irrigation, nearly 700 dams have been built, including Garrison Dam, completed in 1960. The Garrison Diversion Project, authorized by the US Congress in 1965, was intended to draw water from Lake Sakakawea, the impoundment behind Garrison Dam. As of the 1980s, there were about 2.7 million acres of wetlands in the state. This total has been diminishing, however, by agricultural development.

Diversion of household waste to recycling grew to about nearly 15% of the waste stream. Yard wastes, household appliances, and scrap tires are also diverted for compost, recycling, or fuel, respectively. In 2003, North Dakota had 17 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, but none were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$2.6 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$11.7 million for the water pollution control state revolving fund and \$8.2 for the safe drinking water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

North Dakota ranked 48th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 636,677 in 2005 a decrease of 0.9% from 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, North Dakota's population grew from 638,800 to 642,200, an increase of 0.5%. The population is projected to decrease to 620,777 by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 9.2 persons per sq mi, the fourth-lowest in the nation (after Alaska, Wyoming, and Montana). In 2004, the median age

in North Dakota was 38.8; 21.9% of the populace were under age 18 while 14.7% was age 65 or older.

North Dakota is one of the most rural states in the United States, with over half of its population living outside metropolitan areas. The Fargo metropolitan area had an estimated population of 181,520 in 2004. The Bismarck metropolitan area had a population of about 97,924 and the Grand Forks area had a population of about 96,046.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

As of 2000, about 92.4% of the state's population was white. The American Indian population was 31,329, or about 4.9% of the total; that percentage had increased to 5.2% by 2004. In 2000, there were some 3,916 blacks, representing 0.6% of the population. That percentage had increased to 0.7% by 2004. Among Americans of European origin, the leading groups were Germans, who made up 44% of the total population, and Norwegians, who made up 30%. Only about 1.9% of the state's population (12,114) was foreign born as of 2000, predominantly from neighboring Canada. In the same year, the Asian population totaled 3,606, with 230 Pacific Islanders. In 2000, 7,786 North Dakotans were Hispanic or Latino, representing 1.2% of the state's total population. In 2004, 1.5% of the population was Hispanic or Latino, 0.7% Asian, 0.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Although a few Indian words are used in the English spoken near the reservations where Ojibwa and Sioux live in North Dakota, the only general impact of Indian speech on English is in such place-names as Pembina, Mandan, Wabek, and Anamoose.

A few Norwegian food terms like *lefse* and *lutefisk* have entered the Northern dialect that is characteristic of North Dakota, and some Midland terms have intruded from the south.

In 2000, 93.7% of the population five years old or older spoke only English at home, down slightly from 92.1% in 1990.

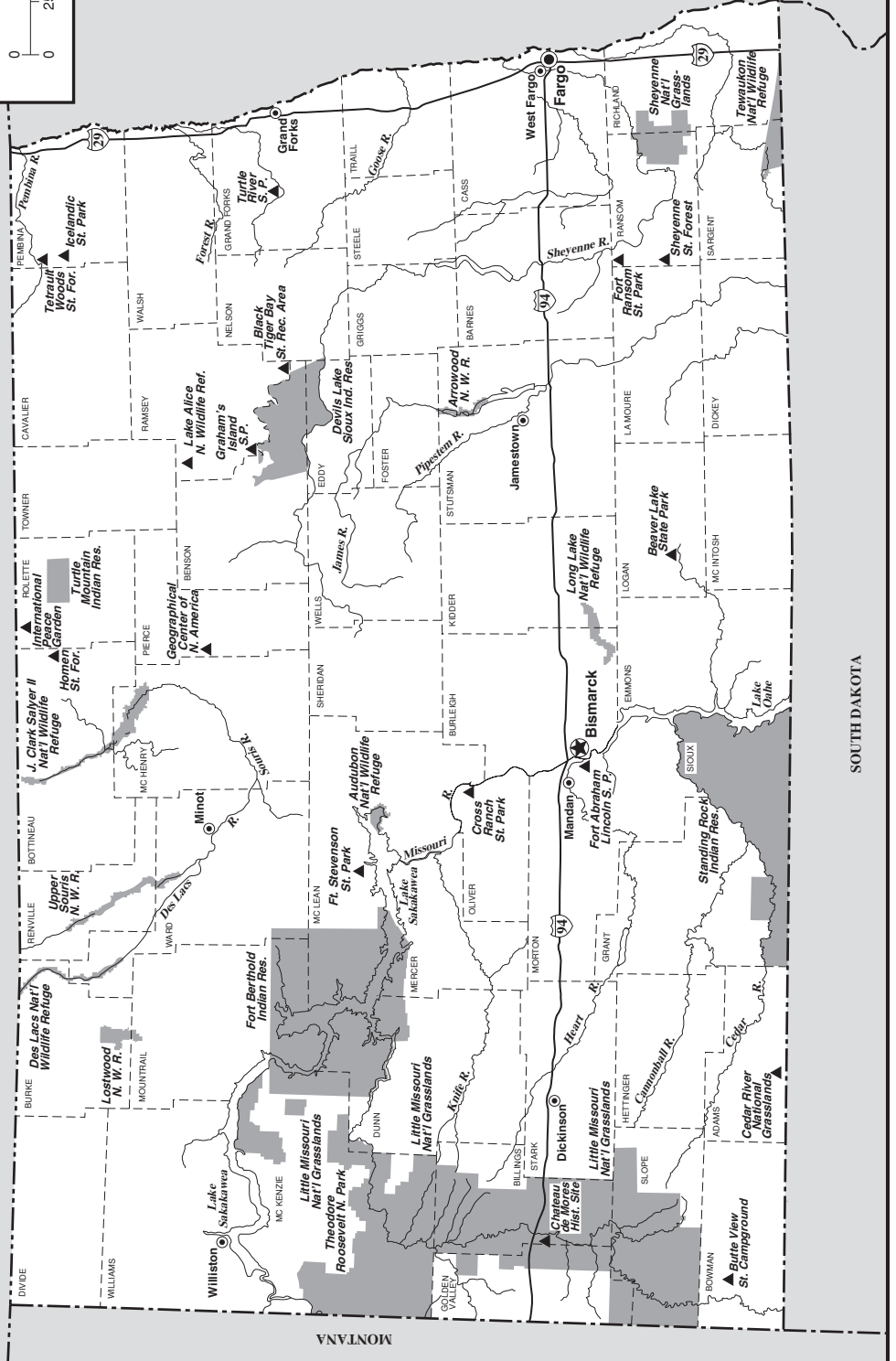
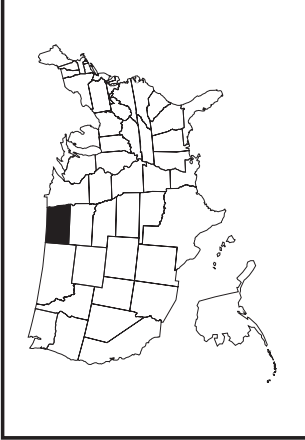
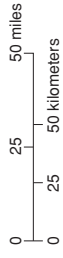
The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	603,106	100.0
Speak only English	565,130	93.7
Speak a language other than English	37,976	6.3
Speak a language other than English	37,976	6.3
German	14,931	2.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	8,263	1.4
Scandinavian languages	3,193	0.5
Other Native North American languages	2,536	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	1,597	0.3
Other Slavic languages	1,350	0.2
Serbo-Croatian	825	0.1
African languages	459	0.1
Polish	452	0.1
Chinese	437	0.1
Russian	331	0.1
Tagalog	330	0.1

NORTH DAKOTA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (10,000 - 50,000 people)
- City (more than 50,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- ⚡ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



SOUTH DAKOTA

CANADA

MONTANA

MINNESOTA

⁹RELIGIONS

Most of the state population is mainline Protestant, with the leading denominations being the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America with 174,554 adherents (in 2000) and the United Methodist Church with 20,159 adherents. The Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod had about 23,720 members. The Roman Catholic Church had about 148,435 members in 2004. There were an estimate 920 Muslims and 730 Jews in the state in 2000. About 26.8% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

In 2003, there was 3,727 mi (6,000 km) of rail trackage in North Dakota. The largest railroad lines are the Burlington Northern Santa Fe (BNSF) and the Soo Line. Farm products and coal accounted for most of the state originated tonnage carried by the railroads. As of 2006, Amtrak passenger service was provided to seven stations in the state via its Chicago–Seattle/Portland Empire Builder train.

There were 86,782 mi (139,719 km) of public roads, streets, and highways in North Dakota in 2004. There were also some 707,000 registered motor vehicles of all types and 461,780 licensed drivers in the state for that same year.

In 2005, North Dakota had a total of 308 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 292 airports, 15 heliports, and 1 seaplane base. Hector International Airport at Fargo is the state's main airport, with 261,872 passengers enplaned in 2004.

¹¹HISTORY

Human occupation of what is now North Dakota began about 13,000 BC in the southwestern corner of the state, which at that time was covered with lush vegetation. Drought drove away the aboriginal hunter-gatherers, and it was not until about 2,000 years ago that Indians from the more humid regions to the east moved into the easternmost third of the Dakotas. About AD 1300 the Mandan Indians brought an advanced agricultural economy up the Missouri River. They were joined by the Hidatsa and Arikara about three or four centuries later. Moving from the Minnesota forests during the 17th century, the Yanktonai Sioux occupied the southeastern quarter of the state. Their cousins west of the Missouri River, the Teton Sioux, led a nomadic life as hunters and mounted warriors. The Ojibwa, who had driven the Sioux out of Minnesota, settled in the northeast.

European penetration of the Dakotas began in 1738, when Pierre Gaultier de Varennes, Sieur de la Vérendrye, of Trois Rivières in New France, traded for furs in the Red River region. Later the fur trade spread farther into the Red and Missouri river valleys, especially around Pembina, where the North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company had their posts. After the Lewis and Clark expedition (1804–06) explored the Missouri, the American Fur Company traded there, with buffalo hides the leading commodity.

In 1812, Scottish settlers from Canada moved up the Red River to Pembina. This first white farming settlement in North Dakota also attracted numerous métis, half-breeds of mixed Indian and European ancestry. An extensive trade in furs and buffalo hides, which were transported first by heavy carts and later by steam-

boats, sprang up between Pembina, Ft. Garry (Winnipeg, Canada), and St. Paul, Minn.

Army movements against the Sioux during and after the Civil War brought white men into central North Dakota, which in 1861 was organized as part of the Dakota Territory, including the present-day Dakotas, Montana, and Wyoming. The signing of treaties confining the agricultural Indians to reservations, the arrival of the Northern Pacific Railroad at Fargo in 1872, and its extension to the Missouri the following year led to the rise of homesteading on giant "bonanza farms." Settlers poured in, especially from Canada. This short-lived "Great Dakota boom" ended in the mid-1880s with drought and depressed farm prices. As many of the original American and Canadian settlers left in disgust, they were replaced by Norwegians, Germans, and other Europeans. By 1910, North Dakota, which had entered the Union in 1889, was among the leading states in percentage of foreign-born residents.

From the time of statehood onward, Republicans dominated politics in North Dakota. Their leader was Alexander McKenzie, a Canadian immigrant who built a reputation as an agent of the railroads, protecting them from regulation. Between 1898 and 1915, the "Second Boom" brought an upsurge in population and railroad construction. In politics, Republican Progressives enacted reforms, but left unsolved the basic problem of how North Dakota farmers could stand up to the powerful grain traders of Minneapolis-St. Paul. Agrarian revolt flared in 1915, when Arthur C. Townley organized the Farmers' Nonpartisan Political League. Operating through Republican Party machinery, Townley succeeded in having his gubernatorial candidate, Lynn J. Frazier, elected in 1916. State-owned enterprises were established, including the Bank of North Dakota, the Home Building Association, the Hail Insurance Department, and a mill and grain elevator. However, the league was hurt by charges of "socialism" and, after 1917, by allegations of pro-German sympathies in World War I, as well as of mismanagement. In 1921, Frazier and Attorney General William Lemke were removed from office in the nation's first recall election.

The 1920s, a period of bank failures, low farm prices, drought, and political disunity, saw the beginnings of an exodus from the state. Matters grew worse during the Great Depression. Elected governor by hard-pressed farmers in 1932, William Langer took spectacular steps to save farms from foreclosure and to raise grain prices, until a conflict with the Roosevelt administration led to his removal from office on charges that he had illegally solicited political contributions.

World War II brought a quiet prosperity to North Dakota that lasted into the following decades. The Arab oil embargo of 1973 and the rise of oil prices throughout the decade spurred drilling for oil, encouraged the mining of lignite for electrical generation, and led to the construction of the nation's first coal gasification plant, at a cost of \$2 billion, in a lignite mining area near Beulah. In the 1980s, however, North Dakota's economy suffered a setback when oil prices dropped. In addition, a drought that began in 1987 damaged over 5.3 million acres of land by 1988 and persisted into the 1990s and early 2000s. Agricultural production was strong in early 1990s. However, severe storms and flooding in 1994 damaged about \$600 million in crops. The state continues to experience extreme weather conditions.

The state's economy was boosted by the 1991 repeal of the "blue laws" enforcing the closing of all retail businesses on Sundays. Republican Governor Ed Schafer, elected in 1992 and reelected in 1996, set an aggressive plan for the state's economic development, resulting in an estimated 10% increase in the number of jobs and record-low unemployment. By 2000 Fargo boasted one of the lowest unemployment rates in the nation. Nevertheless, poverty was on the rise in the 1990s. With 15.1% of its residents living below the nationally established poverty line, North Dakota ranked as the ninth-poorest in the United States in 1998. The state had begun the decade ranked nineteenth, with a 13.7% rate. It was also one of just 15 states where child poverty was on the rise—one in five children lived in poverty in 1998. However, by 2003–04, North Dakota had turned its poverty statistics around: the poverty rate during that two-year average was 9.7%, well below the national average of 12.6%. Per capita personal income in 2004 was \$31,398, just below the US average of \$32,937. In 2003, North Dakota led the nation in personal income and wage growth.

Census Bureau figures in 2000 showed the state (population 642,200) continued to be one of the least populated in the nation—only Alaska, Vermont, and Wyoming had fewer residents. Stemming the tide of North Dakotans moving out of state was a top priority. The state enjoyed the rank of safest in the nation in 1999, with only 89 crimes per 100,000 people.

As of 2005, it was illegal for unmarried couples to cohabit in North Dakota, one of seven states to have such laws. Republican governor John Hoeven, during his second term in office, was committed to enhancing the state's business climate. In 2005, the state had a budget surplus and the budget called for tax relief through higher state funding for K–12 education, additional revenue sharing with cities and counties, tax credits for farms and businesses, and a property tax break for seniors and people with disabilities.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

North Dakota is governed by the constitution of 1889, as amended (145 times by January 2005). The constitution may be amended by a majority vote in the legislature; a majority vote of the state electorate is required for ratification. Amendments may also be proposed by initiative (by petition of 4% of the state's population).

State elected officials are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, attorney general, superintendent of public instruction, three public service commissioners, and the commissioners of insurance, taxation, and agriculture. With the exception of the public service commissioners, who serve six-year terms, all terms are four years. Candidates for governor must be 30 years old, US citizens, qualified voters, and state residents for at least five years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$85,506.

The legislature, which convenes every two years (in odd-numbered years) beginning in early January, is bicameral, with a 47-member Senate and a 94-member House of Representatives. Regular sessions are limited to 80 legislative days. The governor or a legislative council may call for a special session. All legislators must be at least 18 years old, state residents for at least one year, and qualified voters in their districts prior to election; they serve four-year terms. In 2004 legislators received a per diem salary during regular sessions of \$125 per calendar day. A two-thirds vote of the elected members of each house is required to override

a gubernatorial veto. Bills that are not vetoed or signed by the governor become law after three days (or after 15 days if the legislature adjourns).

Voters in North Dakota must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and a precinct resident for at least 30 days prior to election. The state does not require voters to register. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Between 1889 and 1960, Republicans held the governorship for 58 years. North Dakota politics were not monolithic, however, for aside from the Populist and Democratic opposition, the Republican Party was itself torn by factionalism, with Progressive and Nonpartisan League challenges to the conservative, probusiness party establishment. Between 1960 and 1980, the statehouse was in Democratic hands. In the early and mid-nineties, the Republican party increased its influence at the state level, gaining dominance in both houses of the state legislature, having wrestled control of the Senate away from the Democrats in the November 1994 election. The state had 481,351 registered voters in 2002, 49% of whom turned out to vote. Following the 2004 election, the state Senate had 32 Republicans and 15 Democrats. The state House was dominated by the Republicans, who held 67 seats, while the Democrats had 27.

In the 2000 presidential election, Republican George W. Bush won 61% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 33%. Independent candidate Ralph Nader and Reform Party candidate Pat Buchanan each received 3% of the vote. In 2004, Bush won 66% of the vote to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 33%. North Dakota had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

Republican John Hoeven was elected governor in 2000. North Dakota's US senators in 2003 were Kent Conrad, a Democrat elected in 1992 to fill a seat vacated by the death of Quentin D. Burdick and reelected to full terms in 1994 and 2000, and Democrat Byron Dorgan, who was also reelected for second and third terms in 1998 and 2004. Following the 2004 elections, North Dakota's sole representative to the US House was a Democrat.

North Dakota Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	N. DAKOTA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	Dewey (R)	95,812	115,139
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	76,694	191,712
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	96,742	156,766
1960	4	Nixon (R)	123,963	154,310
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	149,784	108,207
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	94,769	138,669
1972	3	*Nixon (R)	100,384	174,109
1976	3	Ford (R)	136,078	153,470
1980	3	*Reagan (R)	79,189	193,695
1984	3	*Reagan (R)	104,429	200,336
1988	3	*Bush (R)	127,739	166,559
1992**	3	Bush (R)	99,168	136,244
1996**	3	Dole (R)	106,905	125,050
2000	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	95,284	174,852
2004	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	111,052	196,651

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 71,084 votes in 1992 and 32,515 votes in 1996.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, North Dakota had 53 counties, 360 municipalities (all designated as cities regardless of size), 230 public school districts, and 764 special districts. In 2002, there were 1,332 special districts. Typical elected county officials are commissioners, a sheriff, a court clerk, a county judge, a county justice, and a state's attorney. Counties are divided into townships, each with its own elected administrative officers. Most municipalities operate by the mayor-council system of government.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 23,093 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in North Dakota operates under the authority of the governor; the emergency management director was designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Educational services are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Public Instruction and the Board of Higher Education; there are state schools for the deaf, blind, handicapped, and developmentally disabled. Health and welfare agencies include the State Health Department, Department of Agriculture, Department of Economic Development and Finance, Council on the Arts, Veterans Affairs Department, Department of Human Services, and Indian Affairs Commission. Agricultural services include an extensive program of experiment and extension stations.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

North Dakota has a supreme court of five justices, seven district courts with 43 justices, and a system of local (county) courts. Supreme court justices are elected for 10-year terms, district court judges for 6-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 1,327 prisoners were held in North Dakota's state and federal prisons, an increase from 1,239 of 7.1% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 129 inmates were female, up from 113 or 14.2% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), North Dakota had an incarceration rate of 195 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, North Dakota in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 79.4 reported incidents per 100,000 population (the lowest in the United States), or a total of 504 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 12,158 reported incidents or 1,916.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. North Dakota does not have a death penalty. It was abolished in 1973, with the last execution in that state taking place in 1930. North Dakota does provide for life without parole.

In 2003, North Dakota spent \$26,679,568 on homeland security, an average of \$39 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 7,840 active-duty military personnel and 1,706 civilian personnel stationed in North Dakota, the majority of whom were stationed at the Strategic Air Command bases at

Minot and Grand Forks. North Dakota firms received more than \$309 million in defense contract awards in 2004. Defense Department payroll outlays in that same year were \$498 million.

In 2003, 55,374 veterans were living in North Dakota, including 7,558 from World War II; 6,787 from the Korean conflict; 17,850 from the Vietnam era; and 8,680 in the Persian Gulf War. A total of more than \$156 million was spent on major veterans' benefit programs in the state in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the North Dakota Highway Patrol employed 134 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

During the late 19th century, North Dakota was largely settled by immigrants of German and Scandinavian stock. The state reached a peak population in 1930, but then suffered steady losses until well into the 1970s because of out-migration. This trend has shown some signs of abating, however. From 1980 to 1983, the state's population grew 4.3%, in part because of a net gain in migration of about 5,000 people. Also during the 1980s, the urban population grew to outnumber the rural population, rising from 48.8% to 53.3% of the total populace. From 1985 to 1990, North Dakota had a net loss of 44,142 from migration. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 30,000 in domestic migration but a net gain of 4,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 472 foreign immigrants. North Dakota's overall population decreased by 0.1% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 3,687 and net internal migration was -18,568, for a net loss of 14,881 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

North Dakota participates in such interstate agreements as the Yellowstone River Compact, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, and Interstate Oil and Gas Compact. A Minnesota–North Dakota Boundary Compact was ratified in 1961. Federal grants in fiscal year 2001 totaled almost \$1.3 billion. Mirroring a national trend, that figure declined significantly by fiscal year 2005, to \$935 million. Federal grants were estimated at \$908 million in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$921 million in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

North Dakota has been and still is an important agricultural state, especially as a producer of wheat, much of which finds its way onto the world market. Many segments of the economy are affected by agriculture; for example, a substantial wholesale trade is involved in moving grain and livestock to market. Like other Midwestern farmers, North Dakotans suffered from high interest rates and a federal embargo on grain shipments to the Soviet Union in the early 1980s. Farm numbers have continued to decline, posing a threat to the vitality of the state's rural lifestyle. From 1970, 43 of North Dakota's 53 counties have lost population, and for 23 of these the population decline accelerated in the 1990s. The exodus has been aggravated by prolonged drought conditions, which in 2002 helped reduce wheat production (representing a quarter of the state's total agricultural revenues) by 24% and disrupted cattle production. Not being deeply involved in the dot.com frenzy of the 1990s, North Dakota was only slightly affected by the national recession and slowdown of 2001 and 2002. By December 2002,

state unemployment which had risen to 3.6% in October, had fallen back to 3%.

Growth industries for the state include petroleum and the mining of coal, chiefly lignite. North Dakota has more coal resources than any other state. Manufacturing is concentrated to a great extent on farm products and machinery.

North Dakota's gross state product (GSP) in 2004 was \$22.687 billion, of which manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$2.366 billion or 10.4% of GSP, followed by health care and social assistance services at \$2.069 billion (9.1% of GSP), and the real estate sector at \$1.840 billion (8.1% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 59,158 small businesses in North Dakota. Of the 19,177 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 18,522 or 96.6% were small companies. An estimated 1,747 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 20% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 2,621, up 27.9% from 2003. There were 85 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 19% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 345 filings per 100,000 people, ranking North Dakota as the 46th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 North Dakota had a gross state product (GSP) of \$24 billion which accounted for 0.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 50 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 North Dakota had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$29,494. This ranked 37th in the United States and was 89% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. North Dakota had a total personal income (TPI) of \$18,767,503,000, which ranked 50th in the United States and reflected an increase of 2.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.4%. Earnings of persons employed in North Dakota increased from \$14,513,974,000 in 2003 to \$14,966,009,000 in 2004, an increase of 3.1%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$39,594 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.3% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in North Dakota numbered 363,900, with approximately 12,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 349,800. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in North Dakota was 6.9% in March 1983. The historical low was 2.5% in January 1998. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10.4% in manufacturing; 21.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.4% in financial activities; 7.7% in professional and

business services; 14% in education and health services; 9.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 21.5% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 21,000 of North Dakota's 289,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 7.3% of those so employed, down from 7.7% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 26,000 workers (9.2%) in North Dakota were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. North Dakota is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, North Dakota had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.8% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

North Dakota's farm marketings totaled \$3.96 billion in 2005. Typically, North Dakota is the number one producer of hard spring wheat, durum wheat, sunflowers, barley, oats, flax, all dry edible beans, and pinto beans. In 2004, North Dakota led the nation in spring wheat, drum wheat, barley, dry edible beans, sunflowers, and was second in the nation in overall wheat production.

The total number of farms has declined over the years as the average size of farming operations has increased. In 2004, the state had approximately 30,300 farms and ranches occupying 39.4 million acres (16 million hectares) and producing 306.5 million bushels of wheat (second after Kansas), 91.7 million bushels of barley (1st), 791.7 million lb of sunflowers, 14.1 million bushels of oats, 4.75 hundredweight of dry edible beans (1st), 120.8 million bushels of corn, 4.8 million tons of sugar beets (third), and 26.7 million hundredweight of potatoes. The average farm is 1,300 acres (526 hectares).

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

North Dakota farms and ranches had an estimated 1.7 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.83 billion in 2005. During 2004, there were around 169,000 hogs and pigs, worth \$18.6 million. North Dakota farmers produced nearly 7 million lb (3.2 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which brought in \$7.5 million in gross income in 2003, and nearly 29.4 million lb (13.4 million kg) of turkey were produced in that same year. North Dakota was the leading producer of honey in 2004, with 9.1 million lb (4.1 million kg), worth \$31.9 million.

2⁵ FISHING

There is little commercial fishing in North Dakota. The Garrison Dam National Fish Hatchery produces up to 3 million northern pike and nearly 10 million walleye each year. Other species produced there and at the Valley City National Fish Hatchery include smallmouth bass, crappie, rainbow trout, lake trout, brown trout, cutthroat trout, chinook salmon, paddlefish, and pallid sturgeon. In 2004, the state issued 168,497 sport fishing licenses.

2⁶ FORESTRY

The dispersed forests on the rolling prairie are not a dominant feature of the landscape; North Dakota's climate is more favorable to grassland ecosystems. At the time of settlement, native forests cov-

ered about 700,000 acres (283,000 hectares). In 2004, there were 673,000 acres (272,000 hectares) of forestland, with 441,000 acres (178,000 hectares) classified as viable timberland. Agricultural clearing, inundation by reservoirs, and other land use changes have resulted in a 9% reduction in total forestland since 1954.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by North Dakota in 2003 was \$37.7 million, an increase from 2002 of about 3%.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, construction sand and gravel was the state's leading nonfuel mineral by value and accounted for around 75% of all nonfuel minerals produced, by value. In second place was lime, which was followed by crushed stone.

The preliminary data for 2003 showed that a total of 10.6 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel were produced, having a value of \$8.1 million. Lapidary and collectible materials such as petrified wood, agates, jasper, and flint are also found in North Dakota. The state is also a producer of leonardite, an oxidized lignite that is used for viscosity control in oil well drilling muds, as a dispersant, a soil conditioner, and as a stabilizer for ion-exchange resins.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, North Dakota had 39 electrical power service providers, of which 12 were publicly owned and 23 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were investor owned and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 354,323 retail customers. Of that total, 213,027 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 130,081 customers, while publicly owned providers had 11,197 customers. There were 18 federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 4.644 million kW, with total production that same year at 31.322 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 99.2% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 29.427 billion kWh (94%), came from coal-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 1.723 billion kWh (5.5%). Other renewable power sources, petroleum fired plants, and plants using other types of gases each accounted for 0.2%.

North Dakota in 2004, had four producing coal mines, all of which were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 29,943,000 short tons, down from 30,775,000 short tons in 2003. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 1.19 billion short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

As of 2004, North Dakota had proven crude oil reserves of 389 million barrels, or over 2% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 85,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked ninth (eighth excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and tenth (ninth excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 North Dakota had 3,072 producing oil wells and account-

ed for 2% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's sole refinery had a crude oil distillation capacity of 58,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, North Dakota had 117 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 55.009 billion cu ft (1.56 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 417 billion cu ft (11.8 billion cu m).

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, North Dakota's manufacturing sector covered some seven product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$7.371 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$2.370 billion. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$1.874 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$454.510 million; wood product manufacturing at \$305.188 million; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$261.463 million.

In 2004, a total of 22,027 people in North Dakota were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 16,485 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 4,902 with 3,808 actual production workers. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at 4,707 employees (3,331 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing at 1,908 employees (1,745 actual production workers); computer and electronic product manufacturing at 1,785 employees (1,192 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 1,573 employees (1,208 actual production workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing with 1,417 employees (1,132 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that North Dakota's manufacturing sector paid \$764.390 million in wages. Of that amount, the machinery manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$182.480 million. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$159.059 million; wood product manufacturing at \$68.594 million; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$66.649 million; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$55.437 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, North Dakota's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$8.8 billion from 1,485 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 751 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 691 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 43 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$2.7 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$5.4 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$627.3 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, North Dakota was listed as having 3,433 retail establishments with sales of \$7.7 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (496); motor vehicle and motor vehicle

parts dealers (471); building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (432); food and beverage stores (368); and miscellaneous store retailers (353). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$2.08 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$1.1 billion; gasoline stations at \$1.01 billion; and food and beverage stores at \$902.4 million. A total of 41,342 people were employed by the retail sector in North Dakota that year.

Exports of North Dakota origin totaled nearly \$1.2 billion in 2005, ranking the state 46th in the nation.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Allegations of consumer fraud and other illegal business practices are handled by the Consumer Protection and Antitrust Division (CPAT) of the state's Attorney General's Office. The CPAT can investigate and prosecute instances of consumer fraud, as well as mediate consumer-business disputes and educates the public on how to avoid consumer fraud.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil (but not criminal) proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law. However the Office cannot initiate criminal proceedings in antitrust cases.

The offices of the Consumer Protection and Antitrust Division are located in Bismarck.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, North Dakota had 100 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 38 state-chartered and 20 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Fargo market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 25 institutions and \$3.412 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 8.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$1.458 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 91.7% or \$16.180 billion in assets held.

Regulation of state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the North Dakota Department of Financial Institutions and its three divisions: the Banking Division; the Credit Union Division; and the Consumer Division.

In 2004, the median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.15%, down from 4.17% in 2003.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, North Dakota had 416,000 life insurance policies in force, worth over \$38.8 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$56 billion. The

average coverage amount is \$93,500 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled over \$138.3 million.

As of 2003, there were 19 property and casualty and 4 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$1.2 billion. That year, there were 5,136 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$685 million.

In 2004, 55% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 10% held individual policies, and 21% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. North Dakota has the highest percentage of individual (non employment-based) policy holders among the fifty states. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage and 27% for family coverage. The state offers a 39-week health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 554,234 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$565.30, which is the lowest average of the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

34 SECURITIES

North Dakota has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 170 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 480 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over six publicly traded companies within the state, with over four NASDAQ companies and two NYSE listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 1,000 company; MDU Resources Group, listed on the NYSE and based in Bismarck, ranked 546th in the nation with revenues of over \$3.4 billion.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Total expenditures for fiscal years 1995–97 (including federal and special funds) totaled approximately \$3.6 billion, including \$500 million for transportation, a total of \$1.1 billion for health and human services, and a total of \$1.3 billion for education. North Dakota has the only state-owned bank and state-owned mill, contributing \$50 million and \$3 million, respectively, to the general fund during the fiscal year 1999–01 biennium.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$1.1 billion for resources and \$975 million for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to North Dakota were \$1.5 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, North Dakota was slated to receive: \$7.8 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; \$4 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help North Dakota fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 13% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$12 million to complete the

North Dakota—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	5,228,053	8,220.21
General revenue	3,172,034	4,987.47
Intergovernmental revenue	1,220,547	1,919.10
Taxes	1,228,890	1,932.22
General sales	367,304	577.52
Selective sales	299,434	470.81
License taxes	118,377	186.13
Individual income tax	213,982	336.45
Corporate income tax	49,807	78.31
Other taxes	179,986	283.00
Current charges	516,265	811.74
Miscellaneous general revenue	206,332	324.42
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	2,056,019	3,232.73
Total expenditure	3,197,884	5,028.12
Intergovernmental expenditure	613,513	964.64
Direct expenditure	2,584,371	4,063.48
Current operation	1,960,581	3,082.67
Capital outlay	281,143	442.05
Insurance benefits and repayments	223,187	350.92
Assistance and subsidies	42,952	67.53
Interest on debt	76,508	120.30
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	560,791	881.75
Total expenditure	3,197,884	5,028.12
General expenditure	2,974,697	4,677.20
Intergovernmental expenditure	613,513	964.64
Direct expenditure	2,361,184	3,712.55
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,057,056	1,662.04
Public welfare	683,035	1,073.95
Hospitals	44,002	69.19
Health	57,081	89.75
Highways	385,158	605.59
Police protection	13,866	21.80
Corrections	45,458	71.47
Natural resources	133,888	210.52
Parks and recreation	13,934	21.91
Government administration	123,047	193.47
Interest on general debt	76,508	120.30
Other and unallocable	341,664	537.21
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	223,187	350.92
Debt at end of fiscal year	1,662,390	2,613.82
Cash and security holdings	7,301,736	11,480.72

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Army Corps of Engineers' urban flood damage reduction project in Grand Forks-East Grand Forks.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, North Dakota collected \$1,403 million in tax revenues or \$2,203 per capita, which placed it 21st among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total; sales taxes, 29.2%; selective sales taxes, 21.3%; individual income taxes, 17.2%; corporate income taxes, 5.4%; and other taxes, 26.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, North Dakota had five individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.1 to 5.54%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 2.6 to 7.0% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$584,622,000 or \$919 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 31st nationally. Local governments collected \$583,144,000 of the total and the state government \$1,478,000.

North Dakota taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2.50%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7.50%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 44 cents per pack, which ranks 38th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. North Dakota taxes gasoline at 23 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, North Dakota citizens received \$1.73 in federal spending, which ranks the state fifth-highest nationally.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The North Dakota Economic Development and Finance Division of the Department of Commerce seeks to attract new industry, retain and expand existing industry, promote start-up businesses, and develop markets for state products. The state uses a local approach to provide business incentives, including job training, financing, and tax-abatement programs. The main operating units within the division include the Rural Development Council, Research, Marketing, and Business Development. Other divisions within the Department of Commerce focus on Community Services, Tourism and Workforce Development.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.6 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 9.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 87.3% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.6 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 255.9; cancer, 203.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 74; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 50.8; and diabetes, 33.7. North Dakota and Ohio share the distinction of having the third-highest diabetes mortality rate in the nation (following West Virginia and Louisiana). The mortality rate from HIV infection was not available in 2002. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 2.7 per 100,000 population, one of the lowest in the nation. In 2002, about 59.3% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, North Dakota had 40 community hospitals with about 3,600 beds. There were about 88,000 patient admissions that year and 1.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,100 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$859. Also in 2003, there were about 84 certified nursing facilities in the state with 6,582 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 93.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 69.6% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the

year. North Dakota had 244 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 1,059 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 319 dentists in the state.

About 12% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 16% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$767,000.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 13,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$226. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 42,204 persons (18,927 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.21 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$44.6 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. North Dakota's TANF program is called Training, Employment, Education Management (TEEM). In 2004, the state program had 8,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$29 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 114,720 North Dakota residents. This number included 71,820 retired workers, 15,650 widows and widowers, 10,820 disabled workers, 9,330 spouses, and 7,100 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18% of the total state population and 94.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$891; widows and widowers, \$869; disabled workers, \$840; and spouses, \$447. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$489 per month; children of deceased workers, \$582; and children of disabled workers, \$274. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 7,966 North Dakota residents, averaging \$337 a month. An additional \$160,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 355 residents.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, North Dakota had 300,815 housing units, 262,585 of which were occupied; 68.1% were owner-occupied. About 63.2% of all housing units were single-family, detached homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 10,860 units lacked telephone services, 1,161 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 1,825 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.32 members.

In 2004, 4,000 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$84,354, one of the lowest in the nation. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$902. Renters paid a median of \$466 per month, representing the second-lowest rate in the nation (above West Virginia). In 2006, the state received over \$4.9 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

4¹ EDUCATION

In 2004, 89.5% of North Dakota residents age 25 and older were high school graduates; 25.2% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in North Dakota's public schools stood at 104,000. Of these, 69,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 35,000 attended high school. Approximately 88% of the students were white, 1.2% were black, 1.4% were Hispanic, 0.8% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 8.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 102,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 94,000 by 2014, a decline of 10.2% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$901 million. There were 6,209 students enrolled in 52 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in North Dakota scored 287 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 45,800 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 9.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 North Dakota had 21 degree-granting institutions. The chief universities are the University of North Dakota in Grand Forks and North Dakota State University in Fargo. The North Dakota Student Financial Assistance Program offers scholarships for North Dakota college students, and the state Indian Scholarship Board provides aid to Native Americans attending college in the state.

4² ARTS

The North Dakota Council on the Arts (NDCA) was established in 1967 and is a branch of the North Dakota state government. NDCA provides grants to local artists and groups such as the Trollwood Performing Arts School and the Annual United Tribes Indian Art Expo; encourages visits by out-of-state artists and exhibitions; and provides information and other services to the general public.

In 2005, the North Dakota Council of the Arts and other North Dakota arts organizations received 9 grants totaling \$647,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The state also provided the council with funding. In 2006, the North Dakota Humanities Council, established in 1973, provided programs that included Read North Dakota, to promote literature from and about the state, and the Great Plains Chautauqua Society. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$778,772 to six state programs.

The historic Fargo Theater presents live theatrical performances as well as films and sponsors the annual Fargo Film Festival. Fargo is also the center for the Fargo-Moorhead Opera and the Fargo-Moorhead Symphony. The Northern Plains Ballet is based in Bismarck but tours to Sioux Falls, Fargo, Billings, and Grand Forks.

Two popular musical events are the Old Time Fiddlers Contest (at Dunseith in June) and the Medora Musical (Medora, June through Labor Day); the latter features Western songs and dance.

The North Dakota Museum of Art is the official state art museum. Founded in the mid-1970s, its permanent collection focuses on, but is not exclusive to, contemporary Native American Art.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, North Dakota had 82 public library systems, with a total of 89 libraries, of which eight were branches. In that same year, North Dakota public libraries had 2,158,000 volumes of books and serial publications on their shelves, and a total circulation of 3,937,000. The system also had 61,000 audio and 51,000 video items, 7,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 14 bookmobiles. The leading academic library was that of the University of North Dakota (Grand Forks), with 1,221,953 items. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$8,837,000 and included \$75,000 in federal funding and \$565,000 in state funding. Operating expenditures that year totaled \$8,185,000, of which 60.5% was spent on staff, and 19.6% on the collection.

Among the most notable of the state's 50 museums are the Art Galleries and Zoology Museum of the University of North Dakota and the North Dakota Heritage Center at Bismarck, which has an outstanding collection of Indian artifacts. Theodore Roosevelt National Park contains relics from the Elkhorn ranch where Roosevelt lived in the 1880s.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 95.0% of North Dakota's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June 2002 there were 245,578 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 61.2% of North Dakota households had a computer and 53.2% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 56,057 high-speed lines in North Dakota, 47,278 residential and 8,799 for business. There were 28 major radio stations (10 AM, 18 FM) in 2005. As of 2005, 9 major network television stations were in operation. A total of 15,091 Internet domain names were registered in North Dakota in 2000.

45 PRESS

As of 2005, there were six morning dailies and four evening dailies. There were also seven Sunday papers in the state. The leading dailies were the *Fargo Forum*, with a daily circulation of 51,106, Sunday, 62,097; the *Grand Forks Herald*, 31,524 morning, 34,763 Sunday; the *Minot Daily News*, 20,974 morning, 21,848 Sunday; and the *Bismarck Tribune*, 27,620 morning, 31,081 Sunday. In addition, there were about 15 periodicals. The leading historical journal is *North Dakota Horizons*, a quarterly founded in 1971.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,276 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 770 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Two of the state's largest organizations are the Friends (Service Club) and the Northwest Farm Managers Association, both headquartered in Fargo.

State organizations focusing on arts, culture, history, and the environment include Arts on the Prairie, ArtWise, the Bluegrass and Old Time Music Association of North Dakota, the Crazy Horse Memorial Foundation, Fargo Garden Society, the North Dakota Council on Arts, the Badlands Conservation Alliance, and the North Dakota Wildlife Federation. The North Dakota Academy of Science is located in Grand Forks. There are at least three chapters of the Sons of Norway active in the state.

The National Sunflower Association is in Bismarck.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

North Dakota's 17 state parks received 922,434 visitors in 2003, a 5% decline over 2002. Visitors to Theodore Roosevelt National Park and other national historic sites in the state in 2003 numbered 517,356, representing a 15% increase over 2002. Some 40% of all park users come from other states and countries.

A \$1.8-million tourism campaign in 2005 brought \$88 million in tourism revenue to the state. Tourism is North Dakota's second-largest industry, accounting for \$3 billion of economic impact.

Among the leading tourist attractions is the International Peace Garden, covering 2,200 acres (890 hectares) in North Dakota and Manitoba; it commemorates friendly relations between the United States and Canada. Ft. Abraham Lincoln State Park, south of Mandan, has been restored to evoke the 1870s, when General Custer left the area for his "last stand" against the Sioux. The most spectacular scenery in North Dakota is found in the Theodore Roosevelt National Park. The so-called "badlands," an integral part of the park, consist of strangely colored and intricately eroded buttes and other rock formations. Hunting and fishing are major recreational activities in North Dakota.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in North Dakota. In collegiate football, the University of North Dakota Fighting Sioux and the North Dakota State University Bison compete in the North Central Conference. The University of North Dakota competes in collegiate ice hockey, winning National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championships in 1959, 1963, 1980, 1982, 1987, 1997, and 2000.

Other annual sporting events include the PWT Championship (a walleye fishing tournament) in Bismarck in September, and several rodeos throughout the state. Former New York Yankee slugger Roger Maris grew up in Fargo, North Dakota.

49 FAMOUS NORTH DAKOTANS

Preeminent among North Dakota politicians known to the nation was Gerald P. Nye (b. Wisconsin, 1892–1971), a US senator and a leading isolationist opponent of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's foreign policy, as was Senator William Langer (1886–1959). Another prominent senator, Porter J. McCumber (1858–1933), supported President Woodrow Wilson in the League of Nations battle. US Representative William Lemke (1878–1950) sponsored farm-relief legislation and in 1936 ran for US president on the Union Party ticket. Usher L. Burdick (1879–1960), a maverick isolationist and champion of the American Indian, served 18 years in the US House of Representatives.

Vilhjalmur Stefansson (b. Canada, 1879–1962) recorded in numerous books his explorations and experiments in the high Arctic. Orin G. Libby (1864–1952) made a significant contribution to the study of American history. Other North Dakota-nurtured writers and commentators include Maxwell Anderson (b. Pennsylvania, 1888–1959), a Pulitzer Prize-winning playwright; Edward K. Thompson (Minnesota, 1907–96), editor of *Life* magazine and founder-editor of *Smithsonian*; radio and television commentator Eric Severeid (1912–1992); and novelist Larry Woiwode (b. 1941).

To the entertainment world North Dakota has contributed band leaders Harold Bachman (1892–1972), Lawrence Welk (1903–92),

and Tommy Tucker (Gerald Duppler, 1908–89); jazz vocalist Peggy Lee (Norma Delores Egstrom, b.1920) and country singer Lynn Anderson (b.1947); and actresses Dorothy Stickney (1900–98) and Angie Dickinson (Angeline Brown, b.1931).

Sports personalities associated with the state include outfielder Roger Maris (1934–85), who in 1961 broke Babe Ruth's record for home runs in one season.

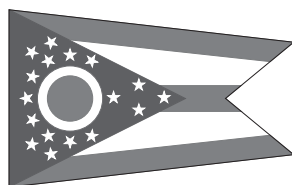
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OHIO

State of Ohio



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: From the Iroquois Indian word *oheo*, meaning “beautiful.” **NICKNAME:** The Buckeye State. **CAPITAL:** Columbus. **ENTERED UNION:** 1 March 1803 (17th). **SONG:** “Beautiful Ohio.” **MOTTO:** With God All Things Are Possible. **FLAG:** The flag is a burgee, with three red and two white lateral stripes. At the staff is a blue triangular field covered with 17 stars (signifying Ohio’s order of entry into the Union), which is grouped around a red disk superimposed on a white circular “O.” **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the foreground are a sheaf of wheat and a sheaf of 17 arrows; behind, a sun rises over a mountain range, indicating that Ohio is the first state west of the Alleghenies. Surrounding the scene are the words “The Great Seal of the State of Ohio.” **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FLOWER:** Scarlet carnation. **TREE:** Buckeye. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern north-central United States, Ohio is the 11th largest of the 12 Midwestern states and ranks 35th in size among the 50 states.

The state’s total area is 41,330 sq mi (107,044 sq km), of which land comprises 41,004 sq mi (106,201 sq km) and inland water 326 sq mi (823 sq km). Ohio extends about 210 mi (338 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 230 mi (370 km).

Ohio is bordered on the N by Michigan and the Canadian province of Ontario (with the line passing through Lake Erie); on the E by Pennsylvania and West Virginia (with the Ohio River forming part of the boundary); on the S by West Virginia and Kentucky (with the entire line defined by the Ohio River); and on the W by Indiana.

Five important islands lie off the state’s northern shore, in Lake Erie: the three Bass Islands, Kelleys Island, and Catawba Island. Ohio’s total boundary length is 997 mi (1,605 km).

The state’s geographic center is in Delaware County, 25 mi (40 km) NNE of Columbus.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Ohio has three distinct topographical regions: the foothills of the Allegheny Mountains in the eastern half of the state; the Erie lakeshore, extending for nearly three-fourths of the northern boundary; and the central plains in the western half of the state.

The Allegheny Plateau in eastern Ohio consists of rugged hills and steep valleys that recede gradually as the terrain sweeps westward toward the central plains. The highest point in the state is Campbell Hill (1,549 ft/472 m), located in Logan County about 50 mi (80 km) northwest of Columbus. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 850 ft (259 m).

The Erie lakeshore, a band of level lowland that runs across the state to the northwestern corner on the Michigan boundary, is

distinguished by sandy beaches. The central plains extend to the western boundary with Indiana. In the south, undulating hills decline in altitude as they reach the serpentine Ohio River, which forms the state’s southern boundary with Kentucky and West Virginia. The state’s lowest point is on the banks of the Ohio River in the southwest, where the altitude drops to 455 ft (139 m) above sea level.

Most of Ohio’s 2,500 lakes are situated in the east, and nearly all are reservoirs backed up by river dams. The largest, Pymatuning Reservoir, on the Pennsylvania border, has an area of 14,650 acres (5,929 hectares). Grand Lake (St. Mary’s), located near the western border, covering 12,500 acres (5,059 hectares), is the largest lake wholly within Ohio.

Ohio has two drainage basins separated by a low ridge extending from the northeast corner to about the middle of the western border with Indiana. North of the ridge, more than one-third of Ohio’s area is drained by the Maumee, Portage, Sandusky, Cuyahoga, and Grand rivers into Lake Erie. South of the ridge, the remaining two-thirds of the state is drained mainly by the Muskingum, Hocking, Raccoon, Scioto, Little Miami, and Miami rivers into the Ohio River, which winds for about 450 mi (725 km) along the eastern and southern borders.

Ohio’s bedrock of sandstone, shale, and limestone was formed during the Paleozoic era some 300–600 million years ago. The oldest limestone rocks are found in the Cincinnati anticline, a ridge of sedimentary rock layers about 3,000 ft (900 m) thick that extends from north to south in west-central Ohio. Inland seas filled and receded periodically to form salt and gypsum, also creating peat bogs that later were pressurized into the coal beds of southeastern Ohio. At the end of the Paleozoic era, the land in the eastern region uplifted to form a plateau that was later eroded by wind and water into hills and gorges.

About two million years ago, glaciers covering two-thirds of the state leveled the western region into plains and deposited fertile

limestone topsoil. As the glaciers retreated, the melting ice formed a vast lake, which overflowed southward into the channels that became the Ohio River. Perhaps 15,000 years ago, during the last Ice Age, the glacial waters ran off and reduced Lake Erie to its present size. Limestone rocks in Glacier Grooves State Park on Kelley's Island bear the marks of the glaciers' movements.

3 CLIMATE

Lying in the humid continental zone, Ohio has a generally temperate climate. Winters are cold and summers mild in the eastern highlands. The southern region has the warmest temperatures and longest growing season—198 days on the average, compared with 150 to 178 days in the remainder of the state. More than half of the annual rainfall occurs during the growing season, from May to October.

Among the major cities, Columbus, in the central region, has an annual average temperature of 52°F (11°C), with a normal maximum of 62°F (16°C) and a normal minimum of 42°F (5°C). Cleveland, in the north, has an annual average of 51°F (10°C), with a normal maximum of 59°F (15°C) and minimum of 41°F (5°C). The average temperature in Cincinnati, in the south, is 54.5°F (12°C), the normal maximum 64.6°F (18°C), and the normal minimum 44.3°F (6°C). Cleveland has an average of 122 days per year in which the temperature drops to 32° (0°C) or lower, Columbus 117 days, and Cincinnati 90 days. The record low temperature for the state is -39°F (-39°C), set at Milligan on 10 February 1899. The record high is 113°F (45°C), registered near Gallipolis on 21 July 1934.

Cleveland has an average annual snowfall of 55.4 in (140 cm), while Columbus receives 27.6 in (70 cm), and Cincinnati 14.2 in (36 cm). The average annual precipitation in Cincinnati is about 40.7 in (103 cm), compared with 37.8 in (96 cm) for Columbus and 37.2 in (94 cm) for Cleveland. Because of its proximity to Lake Erie, Cleveland is the windiest city, with winds that average 11 mph (18 km/hr).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

More than 2,500 plant species have been found in Ohio. The southeastern hill and valley region supports pitch pine, bigleaf magnolia, and sourwood, with undergrowths of sassafras, witch-hazel, pawpaw, hornbeam, and various dogwoods. At least 14 species of oak, 10 of maple, 9 of poplar, 9 of pine, 7 of ash, 7 of elm, 6 of hickory, 5 of birch, and 2 of beech grow in the state, along with butternut, eastern black walnut, wild black cherry, black locust, and sycamore. A relative of the horse chestnut (introduced to Ohio from Asia), the distinctive buckeye—first called the Ohio buckeye and now the official state tree—is characterized by its clusters of cream-colored flowers that bloom in spring and later form large, brown, thick-hulled nuts. Five Ohio plant species were listed as threatened in 2006, including eastern prairie fringed orchid, northern wild monkshood, and lakeside daisy; the running buffalo clover was listed as endangered that year by the US Fish and Wildlife Service.

The Buckeye State is rich in mammals. White-tailed deer, badger, mink, raccoon, red and gray foxes, coyote, beaver, eastern cottontail, woodchuck, least shrew, and opossum are found throughout the state's five wildlife districts; the bobcat, woodland jumping mouse, and red-backed mole are among many species with more

restricted habitats. Common birds include the eastern great blue heron, green-winged teal, mourning dove, eastern belted kingfisher, eastern horned lark, blue-gray gnatcatcher, eastern cowbird, and a great variety of ducks, woodpeckers, and warblers; the cardinal is the state bird, and the ruffed grouse, mostly confined to the Allegheny Plateau, is a favorite game species. Bass, pickerel, perch, carp, pike, trout, catfish, sucker, and darter thrive in Ohio's lakes and streams. The snapping, midland painted, and spiny soft-shelled turtles, five-lined skink, northern water snake, midland brown snake, eastern hognose, and eastern milk snake appear throughout Ohio. The northern copperhead, eastern massasauga (swamp rattler), and timber rattlesnake are Ohio's only poisonous reptiles. Fowler's toad, bullfrog, green pickerel frog, and marbled and red-backed salamanders are common native amphibians.

Acting on the premise that the largest problem facing wildlife is the destruction of their habitat, the Division of Wildlife of the Department of Natural Resources has instituted an ambitious endangered species program. The US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 17 Ohio animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including the bald eagle, Indiana bat, Scioto madtom, and piping plover.

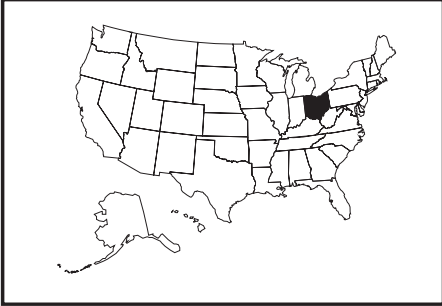
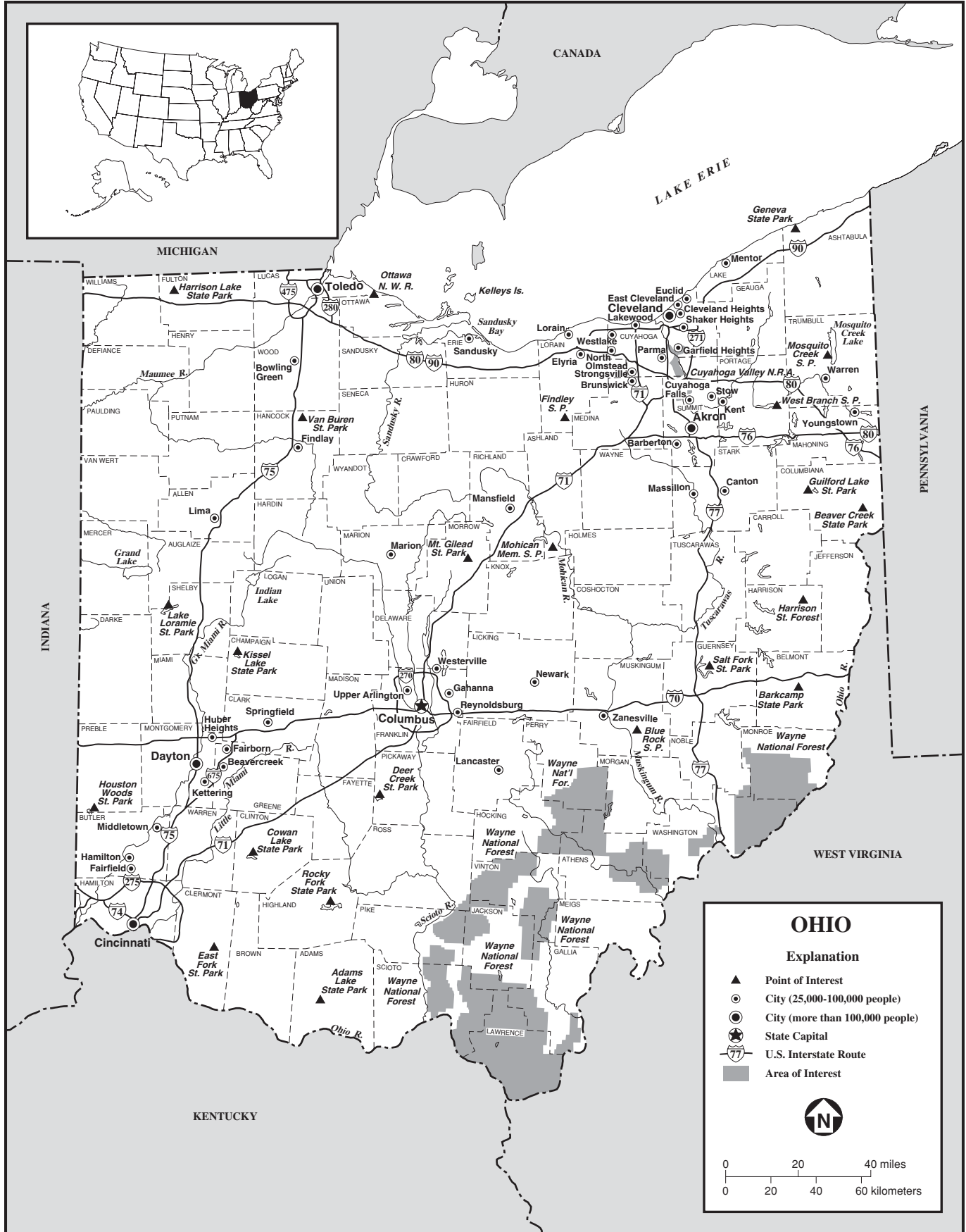
5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Early conservation efforts in Ohio were aimed at controlling the ravages of spring floods and preventing soil erosion. After the Miami River floods of March 1913, which took 361 lives and resulted in property losses of more than \$100 million in Dayton alone, the Miami Conservancy District was formed; five earth dams and 60 mi (97 km) of river levees were completed by 1922, at a cost of \$40 million, to hold back cresting water. In the Muskingum Conservancy District in eastern Ohio, construction of flood-control dams has prevented spring flooding and the washing away of valuable topsoil into the Ohio River.

In recent years, the state's major environmental concerns have been to reverse the pollution of Lake Erie, control the air pollution attributable to industries and automobiles, clean up dumps for solid and hazardous wastes, improve water quality, and prevent pollution. Of recent concern is the problem with so-called "brownfields"—polluted industrial sites whose cleanup costs present barriers to development. In November 2000, voters approved the Clean Ohio Fund; it will provide \$200 million to help revitalize abandoned commercial and industrial sites, promoting reuse of existing infrastructure, and helping to reduce sprawl. The Clean Ohio Revitalization Fund awarded nearly \$40 million to 17 projects in its first round of funding.

The state's regulatory agency for environmental matters is the Ohio Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), established in 1972. The agency has long-range programs to deal with pollution of air, water, and land resources. Ohio EPA also coordinates state, local, and federal funding of environmental programs.

Since 1972, antipollution efforts in Lake Erie have focused on reducing the discharge of phosphorus into the lake from sewage and agricultural wastes; sewage treatment facilities have been upgraded with the aid of more than \$750 million in federal grants, and efforts have been made to promote reduced-tillage farming to control runoff. By the early 1980s, numerous beaches had been reopened, and sport fishing was once again on the increase. Since 1972, Ohio industries spent billions of dollars on efforts to control



MICHIGAN

CANADA

LAKE ERIE

INDIANA

PENNSYLVANIA

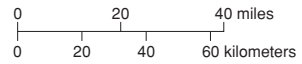
WEST VIRGINIA

KENTUCKY

OHIO

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- ⦿ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



air pollution. Peak ozone levels have dropped by 25% overall and by up to 50% in some urban areas. Lead levels in the outdoor air have dropped 98% since 1978 and particulate levels have dropped 80%. From 1967 to 1983, through the efforts of local health departments and with the eventual help of the EPA, over 1,300 open garbage dumps were closed down and more than 200 sanitary landfills constructed to replace them. In 2003, 251.6 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state; Ohio ranks fourth in the nation for highest levels of toxic chemicals released (following Alaska, Nevada, and Texas).

In 1980, Ohio passed its first legislation aimed at controlling hazardous wastes, and by the mid-1980s, with the aid of more than \$11 million in federal Superfund grants, cleanup had been completed or begun at 16 major sites. In 2003, Ohio had 318 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database. In 2006, 30 of these sites were on the National Priorities List, including Wright-Patterson Air Force Base. Rickenbacker Air National Guard base has been proposed as a National Priority List Site. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$5.1 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$25.2 million for its safe drinking water revolving fund. An addition grant of \$60.6 million was awarded to provide assistance for water resource protection and improvement projects in small and hardship communities.

Another agency, the Ohio Department of Natural Resources, is responsible for the development and use of the state's natural resources. The state's parks and recreational areas totaled 208,000 acres (84,000 hectares). The department also assists in soil conservation, issues permits for dams, promotes conservation of oil and gas, and allocates strip-mining licenses.

6 POPULATION

Ohio ranked seventh in population in the United States with an estimated total of 11,464,042 in 2005, an increase of 1% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Ohio's population grew from 10,847,115 to 11,353,140, an increase of 4.7%. The population is projected to reach 11.63 million by 2015, but a decline to 11.6 is projected by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 280.1 persons per sq mi.

Ohio's population grew slowly during the colonial period and totaled 45,365 persons in 1800. Once the territory became a state in 1803, settlers flocked to Ohio and the population quintupled to 230,760 by 1810. The state's population doubled again by 1820, approached 2,000,000 in 1850, and totaled 3,198,062 by 1880. Ohio's annual rate of population increase slowed considerably after 1900, when its population was 4,157,545; nevertheless, in the period between 1900 and 1960, the total population more than doubled to 9,706,397. A slow rate of population increase during the 1970s, and a population decline during 1980–85, resulted from a net migration loss and a declining birthrate.

In 2004, the median age in Ohio was 37.5. In the same year, more than 24.3% of the populace were under age 18 while 13.3% was age 65 or older.

As of the 1990 census, Columbus became Ohio's largest city, with a population of 632,910, trading second place with Cleveland, which had 505,616 residents. Whereas Columbus increased its population by 12% during the 1980s, Cleveland's population de-

creased by 11.9%. The 2004 estimated populations of the two cities were Columbus, 730,008, and Cleveland, 458,684. The Columbus metropolitan area had an estimated population of 1,693,906. The Cleveland metropolitan area (including Elyria and Mentor) had a population of about 2,137,073. Cincinnati and other large cities also lost population during this period, largely because of the shift of the middle class from the inner cities to the suburbs or to other states. In 2004, Cincinnati's estimated population was 314,154, followed by Toledo, 304,973; Akron, 212,179; and Dayton, 160,293. The Cincinnati metropolitan area had an estimated population of 2,058,221.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Ohio was first settled by migrants from the eastern states and from the British Isles and northern Europe, especially Germany. Cincinnati had such a large German population that its public schools were bilingual until World War I. With the coming of the railroads and the development of industry, Slavic and other south Europeans were recruited in large numbers.

By 2000, however, only about 3% of Ohioans were foreign born, the major places of origin being Germany, Italy, and the United Kingdom. Ethnic clusters persist in the large cities, and some small communities retain a specific ethnic flavor, such as Fairport Harbor on Lake Erie, with its large Finnish population.

As of 2000 there were 1,301,307 blacks, representing 11.5% of the population. That percentage increased to 11.9% by 2004. Most live in the larger cities, especially Cleveland, which in 2000 had a black population of 243,939, or 51.0% of the city total. Historically, Ohio was very active in the antislavery movement. Oberlin College, established in 1833 by dissident theological students, admitted blacks from its founding and maintained a "station" on the Underground Railroad. Cleveland elected its first black mayor, Carl B. Stokes, in 1967.

Some 217,123 people in Ohio (1.9% of the total population) were Hispanic or Latino in 2000, up from 140,000 in 1990. The largest number (90,663) were of Mexican descent, but there were also many Puerto Ricans. In 2004, 2.2% of the population was Hispanic or Latino. In 2000, American Indians numbered about 24,486. In 2004, 0.2% of the population was American Indian. In 2000, Asians were estimated to number 132,633, including 30,425 Chinese (up from 16,829 in 1990), 12,393 Filipinos, 10,732 Japanese, and 13,376 Koreans. Pacific Islanders numbered 2,749. In 2004, Asians accounted for 1.4% of the population. In 2004, 1.2% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

Except for small Iroquoian groups like the Erie and Seneca, most of the Indian population before white settlement comprised four Algonkian tribes: Delaware, Miami, Wyandot, and Shawnee. Indian place-names include Ohio, Coshocton, Cuyahoga, and Wapakoneta.

8 LANGUAGES

Ohio English reflects three post-Revolutionary migration paths. Into the Western Reserve south of Lake Erie came Northern speech from New York and Connecticut. Still common there are the Northern pronunciation of the *ow* diphthong, as in *cow*, with a beginning like the /ah/ vowel in *father*, and the use of the /ah/ in *fog* and *college*; /krik/ is more common than /kreek/ for *creek*. A dragonfly is a *devil's darnin' needle*; doughnuts may be *fried cakes*;

a boy throws himself face down on a sled in a *bellyflop* (*per*); and a tied and filled bedcover is a *comforter*.

Most of nonurban Ohio has North Midland speech from Pennsylvania. Generally, except in the northern strip, *cot* and *caught* are sound-alikes, and *now* is /naow/, south of Columbus, because of the influence of South Midland patterns from Kentucky and extreme southern Pennsylvania, corn bread may be *corn pone*, lima beans are *butter beans*, and a tied quilt is a *comforter*. *Spouting*, yielding to *gutters*, barely reaches across to Indiana; and *sick at the stomach*, *dived*, and *wait on me* are competing with expanding Northern *to the stomach*, *dove*, and *wait for me*. A new Midland term, *bellybuster*, originated around Wheeling and has spread north to compete with *bellyflop*. Northern and Midland merge in the mixed dialect west of Toledo.

From Kentucky, South Midland speakers took *you-all* into Ohio River towns, and in the southwestern tip of the state can be heard their *evening* for *afternoon*, *terrapin* for *tortoise*, and *frogstool* for

toadstool. Recent northward migration has introduced South Midland speech and black English, a southern dialect, into such industrial centers as Cleveland, Toledo, and Akron.

Localisms have developed. For the grass strip between sidewalk and street, Akron has *devil-strip* and Cleveland has *treelawn*. Foreign-language influence appears in such Pennsylvania Germanisms as *clook* (hatching hen), *snits* (dried apples), *smearcase* (cottage cheese), and *got awake*.

Of Ohioans aged five years or older 93.9% spoke only English at home in 2000, down from 94.6% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu,

Ohio—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Adams	West Union	586	28,454	Logan	Bellefontaine	458	46,580
Allen	Lima	405	106,234	Lorain	Elyria	495	296,307
Ashland	Ashland	424	54,123	Lucas	Toledo	341	448,229
Ashtabula	Jefferson	703	103,221	Madison	London	467	41,295
Athens	Athens	508	62,062	Mahoning	Youngstown	417	254,274
Auglaize	Wapakoneta	398	47,242	Marion	Marion	403	65,932
Belmont	St. Clairsville	537	69,228	Medina	Medina	422	167,010
Brown	Georgetown	493	44,398	Meigs	Pomeroy	432	23,232
Butler	Hamilton	469	350,412	Mercer	Celina	457	41,202
Carroll	Carrollton	393	29,388	Miami	Troy	410	101,619
Champaign	Urbana	429	39,698	Monroe	Woodsfield	458	14,698
Clark	Springfield	398	142,376	Montgomery	Dayton	458	547,435
Clermont	Batavia	456	190,589	Morgan	McConnelsville	420	14,958
Clinton	Wilmington	410	42,570	Morrow	Mt. Gilead	406	34,322
Columbiana	Lisbon	534	110,928	Muskingum	Zanesville	654	85,579
Coshocton	Coshocton	566	36,945	Noble	Caldwell	399	14,156
Crawford	Bucyrus	403	45,774	Ottawa	Port Clinton	253	41,583
Cuyahoga	Cleveland	459	1,335,317	Paulding	Paulding	419	19,537
Darke	Greenville	600	52,983	Perry	New Lexington	412	35,246
Defiance	Defiance	414	39,112	Pickaway	Circleville	503	52,989
Delaware	Delaware	443	150,268	Pike	Waverly	443	28,146
Erie	Sandusky	264	78,665	Portage	Ravenna	493	155,631
Fairfield	Lancaster	506	138,423	Preble	Eaton	426	42,527
Fayette	Washington Ct. House	405	28,199	Putnam	Ottawa	484	34,928
Franklin	Columbus	542	1,090,771	Richland	Mansfield	497	127,949
Fulton	Wauseon	407	42,955	Ross	Chillicothe	692	75,197
Gallia	Gallipolis	471	31,362	Sandusky	Fremont	409	61,676
Geauga	Chardon	408	95,218	Scioto	Portsmouth	614	76,561
Greene	Xenia	415	151,996	Seneca	Tiffin	553	57,483
Guernsey	Cambridge	522	41,123	Shelby	Sidney	409	48,736
Hamilton	Cincinnati	412	806,652	Stark	Canton	574	380,608
Hancock	Findlay	532	73,503	Summit	Akron	412	546,604
Hardin	Kenton	471	32,032	Trumbull	Warren	612	219,296
Harrison	Cadiz	400	15,920	Tuscarawas	New Philadelphia	569	91,944
Henry	Napoleon	415	29,453	Union	Marysville	437	45,751
Highland	Hillsboro	553	42,818	Van Wert	Van Wert	410	29,154
Hocking	Logan	423	29,009	Vinton	McArthur	414	13,429
Holmes	Millersburg	424	41,567	Warren	Lebanon	403	196,622
Huron	Norwalk	495	60,385	Washington	Marietta	640	62,210
Jackson	Jackson	420	33,526	Wayne	Wooster	557	113,697
Jefferson	Steubenville	410	70,599	Williams	Bryan	422	38,688
Knox	Mt. Vernon	529	58,398	Wood	Bowling Green	619	123,929
Lake	Painesville	231	232,466	Wyandot	Upper Sandusky	406	22,813
Lawrence	Ironton	457	63,112	TOTALS		41,005	11,464,042
Licking	Newark	686	154,806				

Swahili, and Somali. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	10,599,968	100.0
Speak only English	9,951,475	93.9
Speak a language other than English	648,493	6.1
Speak a language other than English	648,493	6.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	213,147	2.0
German	72,647	0.7
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	44,594	0.4
Italian	27,697	0.3
Other West Germanic languages	26,372	0.2
Chinese	25,704	0.2
Arabic	22,647	0.2
Other Slavic languages	21,230	0.2
Polish	16,462	0.2
Russian	16,030	0.2
Greek	13,656	0.1
African languages	13,261	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	12,577	0.1
Hungarian	11,859	0.1
Other Indo-European languages	11,070	0.1
Korean	11,028	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

The first religious settlement in Ohio territory was founded among Huron Indians in 1751 by a Roman Catholic priest near what is now Sandusky. Shortly afterward, Moravian missionaries converted some Delaware Indians to Christianity; the first Protestant church was founded by Congregationalist ministers at Marietta in 1788. Dissident religious sects such as the Shakers, Amish, and Quakers moved into Ohio from the early 18th century onward, but the majority of settlers in the early 19th century were Presbyterians, Methodists, Baptists, Disciples of Christ, and Episcopalians.

The first Roman Catholic priest to be stationed permanently in Ohio was Father Edward Fenwick, who settled in Cincinnati in 1817. When the Protestant settlers there did not allow him to build a Catholic church in the town, he founded Christ Church (now St. Francis Church) just outside Cincinnati. In 1821, Father Fenwick became the first Catholic bishop in Ohio. The large influx of Irish and German immigrants after 1830 greatly increased the Catholic constituency in Cleveland, Cincinnati, Columbus, and Toledo. Among the German immigrants were many Lutherans and large number of Jews, who made Cincinnati a center of Reform Judaism. In the mid-19th century, Cincinnati had the nation's third-largest Jewish community; the Union of American Hebrew Congregations, the most important Reform body, was founded there in 1873, and Hebrew Union College, a rabbinical training school and center of Jewish learning, was founded two years later.

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons), founded in 1930 by Joseph Smith Jr. of New York, built its first permanent place of worship in Kirtland, Ohio, in 1933. The Kirtland Temple, as it has been called, is still open today as a museum and educational center. A functioning temple was opened in Columbus in 1999. In 2006, the Latter-day Saints reported a statewide membership of 54,297 in 124 congregations.

In 2004, Ohio had a Roman Catholic population of about 2,139,524, with about 512,146 members belonging to the archdiocese of Cincinnati and 812,675 members within the Cleveland diocese. In 2000, the state's Jewish population was estimated at 142,255. Leading Jewish communities were in Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Columbus. The Muslim population was at about 41,281

people. Ohio communities of Amish and Mennonites are among the largest in the nation with over 24,000 Amish and over 20,000 Mennonites in the state (primarily central Ohio).

In the United Methodist Church is one of the largest Protestant denominations, with a membership of about 420,142 statewide in 2004. In 2000, the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America reported 301,749 members; the Southern Baptist Convention had 187,227 (with 5,251 newly baptized members in 2002); the Presbyterian Church USA, 160,800, Christian Churches and Churches of Christ, 142,571; and the American Baptist Churches USA, 117,757. In 2000, about 6.2 million people (55.1% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization. The national Office of General Ministries of the United Church of Christ is located in Cleveland. The Ohio conference of the United Church of Christ had about 118,449 members in 2005.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Sandwiched between two of the country's largest inland water systems, Lake Erie and the Ohio River, Ohio has long been a leader in water transport. With its numerous terminals on the Ohio River and deepwater ports on Lake Erie, Ohio ranks as one of the major US states for shipping.

The building of railroads in the mid-19th century greatly improved transportation within the state by connecting inland counties with Lake Erie and the Ohio River. The Mad River and Lake Erie Railroad, between Dayton and Sandusky, was completed in 1844, and two years later, it was joined with the Little Miami Railroad, to provide through service to Cincinnati. By 1856, Cleveland was connected by rail with Columbus and Pittsburgh. Railroad building in the state reached a peak in the 1850s. At the outbreak of the Civil War, Ohio had more miles of track than any other state. By 1900, railroads were by far the most important system of transport.

In 2003, Class I railroads operated 4,510 rail mi (7,261 km) of track in the state, out of a total of 6,519 mi (10,495 km) of track in service. In that same year, Ohio had 19 railroads within its borders, including three Class I railroads. Freight service on branch lines to counties has been maintained through a state subsidy program.

Mass transit in Ohio's cities began in 1859 with horse-drawn carriages carrying paying passengers in Cleveland and Cincinnati, which added a cable car on rails about 1880. The electric trolley car, introduced to Cleveland in 1884, soon became the most popular mass transit system for the large cities. Inter-urban electric railways carried passengers to and from rural towns that had been bypassed by the railroads. There were 2,809 mi (4,521 km) of interurban track in the state by 1907. The use of electric railways declined with the development of the motor car in the 1920s, and by 1939, for example, the seven interurban lines serving Columbus had been abandoned. Today, suburbanites mostly commute to their workplaces in Columbus and other cities by automobile and bus lines. However, Cleveland continues to operate a light rail system, that as of 2004, had around 40 mi (64 km) of track, which stretched from the city's east side and eastern suburbs to the downtown lakefront and out to Cleveland Hopkins Airport on the city's southwestern side. In 2006, Amtrak operated three regularly scheduled trains through Ohio, connecting six cities.

Rough roads were used by settlers in the early 19th century. The National Road was built from Wheeling, West Virginia, to Zanes-

ville in 1826, and was extended to Columbus by 1833. The increasing use of the automobile in the 1930s led to massive state and federal road-building programs in Ohio as elsewhere. The major interstate highways across Ohio connect Cleveland and the Toledo area in the north (I-80, I-90); link Columbus with Dayton, Zanesville, and Wheeling (I-70) and with Cincinnati and Cleveland (I-71); and extend north-south from Cleveland and Akron to Marietta in the east (I-77), and from Toledo to Dayton and Cincinnati in the west (I-75).

In 2004, Ohio had 124,752 mi (200,850 km) of roads. In that same year, there were some 6.395 million automobiles, about 4.061 million trucks of all types, some 298,000 motorcycles, and around 18,000 buses registered in the state, along with 7,675,007 licensed drivers.

Inland waterways have long been important for transport and commerce in Ohio. The first settlers traveled into Ohio by flatboat down the Ohio River to establish such towns as Marietta and Cincinnati. Lake Erie schooners brought the founders of Cleveland and Sandusky. Steamboat service began on the Ohio River in 1811, and at Lake Erie ports in 1818. The public demand for water transportation in the interior of the state, where few rivers were navigable, led to construction of the Ohio and Erie Canal from Portsmouth on the Ohio River to Cleveland, and the Miami and Erie Canal from Cincinnati to Toledo. Both canals were opened to traffic in 1827 but not completed for another 14 years. The canals gave Ohio's farmers better access to eastern and southern markets. Water transportation is still a principal means of shipping Ohio's products through the St. Lawrence Seaway to foreign countries, and the method by which millions of tons of cargo, particularly coal, are moved via the Ohio River to domestic markets.

Ohio's ports rank among the busiest of the 50 states in volume. In 2004, the state's most active ports were: Cleveland, with 15.774 million tons of cargo handled; Cincinnati with 13.898 million tons; Ashtabula with 10.938 million tons; and Toledo with 9.861 million tons. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 113.743 million tons. In 2004, Ohio had 444 mi (714 km) of navigable inland waterways.

Ohioans consider Dayton to be the birthplace of aviation because it was there that Wilbur and Orville Wright built the first motor-powered airplane in 1903. In 2005, Ohio had a total of 734 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 519 airports, 209 heliports, 4 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 2 seaplane bases. The state's major air terminals are the Greater Cincinnati airport (actually located across the Ohio River in Kentucky) and Hopkins International in Cleveland. In 2004, Cincinnati/Northern Kentucky International Airport had 10,864,547 passenger enplanements, while Cleveland Hopkins had 5,389,196 enplanements in that same year, making them the 22nd- and 35th-busiest airports in the United States, respectively.

11 HISTORY

The first people in Ohio, some 11,000 years ago, were hunters. Their stone tools have been found with skeletal remains of long-extinct mammoths and mastodons. Centuries later, Ohio was inhabited by the Adena people, the earliest mound builders. Their descendants, the Hopewell Indians, built burial mounds, fortifications, and ceremonial earthworks, some of which are now preserved in state parks.

The first European travelers in Ohio, during the 17th century, found four Indian tribes: Wyandot and Delaware in northern Ohio, Miami and Shawnee in the south. All were hunters who followed game trails that threaded the dense Ohio forest. All together, these four tribes numbered about 15,000 people. European exploration was begun by a French nobleman, Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, who, with Indian guides and paddlers, voyaged from the St. Lawrence River to the Ohio, which he explored in 1669-70. In the early 1700s, French and English traders brought knives, hatchets, guns, blankets, tobacco, rum, and brandy to exchange for the Indians' deer and beaver skins.

Both the French and the English claimed possession of Ohio, the French claim resting on La Salle's exploration, while the British claimed all territory extending westward from their coastal colonies. To reinforce the French claim, Celeron de Bienville led an expedition from Canada to Ohio in 1749 to warn off English traders, win over the Indians, and assert French possession of the land. Traveling by canoe, with marches overland, he found the Indians better disposed at that time to the English than to the French. The following year, a company of Virginia merchants sent Christopher Gist to map Ohio trade routes and to make friendship and trade agreements with the tribes. The clash of ambitions brought on the French and Indian War—during which the Indians fought on both sides—ending in 1763 with French defeat and the ceding of the vast western territory to the British. During the Revolutionary War, the American militiaman George Rogers Clark, with a small company of woodsmen-soldiers, seized British posts and trading stations in Ohio, and, in the Battle of Piqua, defeated Indian warriors allied with the British. It was largely Clark's campaigns that won the Northwest Territory for the United States.

The new nation had a huge public domain, extending from the Allegheny Mountains to the Mississippi River. To provide future government and development of the territory northwest of the Ohio River, the US Congress enacted the Land Ordinance of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. The Land Ordinance created a survey system of rectangular sections and townships, a system begun in Ohio and extended to all new areas in the expanding nation. The farsighted Northwest Ordinance provided a system of government under which territories could achieve statehood on a basis equal with that of the original colonies. When a specified area had a population of 60,000 free adult males, it could seek admission to the Union as a state.

The first permanent settlement in Ohio was made in 1788 by an organization of Revolutionary War veterans who had received land warrants as a reward for their military service. They trekked by ox-drawn wagons over the mountains and by flatboat down the Ohio River to the mouth of the Muskingum, where they built the historic town of Marietta. John Cleves Symes, a New Jersey official, brought pioneer settlers to his Miami Purchase in southwestern Ohio; their first settlement, in 1789, eventually became the city of Cincinnati. Access to the fertile Ohio Valley was provided by the westward-flowing Ohio River, which carried pioneer settlers and frontier commerce. Flatboats made a one-way journey, as families floated toward what they hoped would be new settlements. Keelboats traveled both downstream and upstream—an easy journey followed by a hard one. The keelboat trade, carrying military supplies and frontier produce, created an enduring river lore. Its legendary hero is burly, blustering Mike Fink, "half horse

and half alligator,” always ready for a fight or a frolic, for riot or rampage.

Increasing settlement of the Ohio Valley aroused Indian resistance. War parties raided outlying villages, burned houses, and drove families away. Two military expeditions against the Indians were shattered by Chief Little Turtle and his Miami warriors. Then, in 1793, Maj. Gen. “Mad Anthony” Wayne took command in the west. He built roads and forts in the Miami Valley, and trained a force of riflemen. On a summer morning in 1794, Wayne routed allied tribesmen, mostly Miami and Shawnee, in the decisive Battle of Fallen Timbers. In the ensuing Treaty of Greenville, Indian leaders surrendered claim to the southern half of Ohio, opening that large domain to uncontested American occupation.

When, in 1800, Connecticut ceded to the United States a strip of land along Lake Erie claimed by its colonial charter and called the Western Reserve, that region became a part of the Northwest Territory. Now the future seemed unclouded, and from the older colonies came a great migration to the promised land. By 1802, Ohio had enough population to seek statehood, and in November, a constitutional convention assembled at Chillicothe. In 25 days and at a total cost of \$5,000, the 35 delegates framed a constitution that vested most authority in the state legislature and gave the vote to all white male taxpayers. On 1 March 1803, Ohio joined the Union as the 17th state.

Beyond Ohio’s western border, Indians still roamed free. In 1811, the powerful Shawnee chief Tecumseh led a tribal resistance movement (supported by the British) seeking to halt the white man’s advance into the new territory and to regain lands already lost to the Americans. Ohio militia regiments led by Gen. William Henry Harrison repulsed an Indian invasion near Toledo in the battle of Tippecanoe on 7 November 1811. Control of Lake Erie and of Great Lakes commerce was at stake when Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry won a decisive naval victory over a British fleet in western Lake Erie during the War of 1812. Tecumseh was slain in the Battle of Thames in Canada on 5 October 1813.

With peace restored in 1815, “Ohio fever” spread through New England. In a great migration, people streamed over the mountains and the lakes to a land of rich soil, mild climate, and beckoning opportunities. Across the Atlantic, especially in England, Ireland, and Germany, thousands of immigrants boarded ship for America. At newly opened land offices, public land was sold at \$1.25 an acre. Forest became fields, fields became villages and towns, towns became cities. By 1850, Ohio was the third-most populous state in the Union.

Having cleared millions of acres of forest, Ohioans turned to economic development. Producing more than its people consumed, the state needed transportation routes to eastern markets. The National Road extended across the central counties in the 1830s, carrying stagecoach passengers and wagon commerce from Pennsylvania and Maryland. The Ohio canal system, created between 1825 and 1841, linked the Ohio River and Lake Erie, providing a waterway to the Atlantic via New York’s Erie Canal. In 1826, state lands were valued at \$16 million; 15 years later, their value exceeded \$100 million. The chief products were wheat, corn, pork, beef, salt, wool, and leather. By 1850, when farm and factory production outstripped the capacity of mule teams and canal barges, railroad building had begun. In the next decade, railroads crisscrossed the state.

In 1861, Ohio, like the rest of the nation, was divided. The northern counties, teeming with former New Englanders, were imbued with abolitionist zeal. But Ohio’s southern counties had close ties with Virginia and Kentucky across the river. From southeastern Ohio came Clement L. Vallandigham, leader of the Peace Democrats—called Copperheads by their opponents—who defended states’ rights, opposed all of President Lincoln’s policies, and urged compromise with the Confederacy. While Ohio surpassed its quota by providing a total of 320,000 Union Army volunteers, the Copperhead movement grew strong enough to nominate Vallandigham for state governor in 1863. Responding to the news of Vallandigham’s defeat by the rugged Unionist John Brough, Lincoln telegraphed: “Ohio has saved the nation.” Ohio became directly involved in the war for two weeks in 1863, when Confederate Gen. John Hunt Morgan led a Kentucky cavalry force on a daring but ineffectual raid through the southern counties.

Ohio gave the Union its greatest generals—Ulysses S. Grant, William Tecumseh Sherman, and Philip H. Sheridan—each of whom won decisive victories at crucial times. Also essential to the Union cause was the service of Ohio men in Lincoln’s cabinet, including Treasury Secretary Salmon P. Chase and War Secretary Edwin M. Stanton.

Mid-19th-century Ohio was primarily an agricultural state, but war demands stimulated Ohio manufacturing, and in the decade following the war, the state’s industrial products surpassed the value of its rich farm production. The greatest commercial development came in northern Ohio, where heavy industry grew dramatically. To Toledo, Cleveland, and Youngstown via Lake Superior came iron ore that was converted into iron and steel with coal from the Ohio Valley. In the 1870s, John D. Rockefeller of Cleveland organized the Standard Oil Co., which soon controlled oil refining and distribution throughout the nation. At the same time, B. F. Goodrich of Akron began making fire hose, the first rubber product in an industry whose prodigious growth would make Akron the “rubber capital of the world.” In the middle of the state, the capital city, Columbus, became a center of the brewing, railroad equipment, and farm implement industries. Cincinnati factories made steamboat boilers, machine tools, meat products, railroad cars, and soap. Dayton became known for its paper products, refrigerators, and cash registers. With industrial growth came political power. In the next half century, Ohio virtually took possession of the White House. Presidents Grant, Rutherford B. Hayes, James A. Garfield, Benjamin Harrison, William McKinley, William Howard Taft, and Warren G. Harding were all Ohioans.

The four great business pursuits—agriculture, commerce, mining, and manufacturing—were remarkably balanced in Ohio. Its ethnic strains were various. Following the earlier English, Irish, and German influx came Italian, Czech, Dutch, Finnish, Greek, Hungarian, Polish, Russian, Serbian, and Ukrainian immigrants, along with a growing number of blacks from the rural South. Thus Ohio provided an advantageous background for a president; to any segment of the nation, an Ohio candidate did not seem alien. In the 1920 campaign, both the Republican and Democratic nominees—Harding and James M. Cox—were Ohio men. Norman Thomas, a perennial Socialist candidate, was likewise an Ohioan.

During World War I, Ohio’s heavy industry expanded and its cities grew. Progressivism developed in Toledo and Cleveland, under their respective mayors, Samuel M. “Golden Rule” Jones and

Tom L. Johnson, whose reforms resulted in the city-manager form of government that spread to other Ohio cities. In the postwar 1920s, Ohio's oil, rubber, and glass industries kept pace with accelerating automobile production. Yet none of these industries was immune to the prolonged depression of the 1930s. Widespread unemployment and a stagnant economy were not relieved until the outbreak of World War II. The war swept 641,000 Ohioans into military service and gave Ohio industry military contracts totaling \$18 billion.

The state's economy prospered after World War II, with highway building, truck and tractor production, aircraft manufacture, and airport construction leading the field. The completion of the St. Lawrence Seaway in 1959 made active international ports of Toledo and Cleveland. Major problems during this period involved pollution created by the dumping of industrial wastes (especially in Lake Erie) and urban decay resulting from the departure of middle-class families to the suburbs, an exodus that left the central cities to growing numbers of the poor and underprivileged. Related to these problems were troubles in the Ohio school system. Deteriorating neighborhoods produced inadequate revenues for schools and public services, and attempts at racial integration brought controversy and disturbance. When political offices were won by minority leaders—in 1967, for example, Carl Stokes of Cleveland became the first black mayor of any major US city—friction and tension continued. A further shock to Ohioans was the May 1970 shooting of 13 Kent State University students, four of whom died, by national guardsmen who had been sent to the campus to preserve order during a series of demonstrations against US involvement in Vietnam.

During the early 1980s, Ohio was still beset by serious social and economic problems. While the state's population remained static, the unemployment rate in 1982 and 1983 reached 14%. A decline in manufacturing jobs was only partly offset by the employment brought by a growing service sector. In 1983, the state established the Thomas Edison Program to provide start-up companies with venture capital funds. The legislation helped jumpstart the state's economy. But by the end of the 1980s, economic progress slowed again. Unemployment rose in the recession of the early 1990s, reaching 6.9% in 1992. Within two years, as part of a national recovery, it had rebounded to 4.9%. In March 1995, Ohio was the site of the largest work stoppage in the auto industry in a quarter century, when almost 178,000 employees were laid off in response to a 17-day strike by auto workers at two General Motors plants in Dayton. In 1999 the economy was holding steady with an unemployment rate of 4.3%, in line with the national average. In July 2003, the unemployment rate stood at 6.2%, again on par with the national average. Ohio's unemployment rate stood at 5.8% in September 2005, above the national average of 5.1%. Ohio continued to experience job losses in a national economy that had just begun to recover from the 2001 recession.

Hunger and homelessness were on the rise in the late 1990s and early 2000s. A 1999 report by the Ohio Hunger Task Force found that nearly one million children in low-income families faced hunger, while the Coalition on Homelessness and Housing reported that need for emergency shelters for families had grown, stretching resources in the state's 10 largest counties.

In January 1999, newly elected Governor Robert Taft, the great grandson of President William Howard Taft, took office. His ad-

ministration moved quickly to address the problem highlighted in a 1996 federal study that revealed the state had the worst school facilities in the nation. His plan to spend \$23 billion on school repairs over 12 years was boosted in November 1999 by voters who approved Issue 1, a ballot initiative allowing Ohio to borrow money less expensively for school construction. The governor was also pushing for tougher gun control.

Conservancy programs at the state level encompassed the watersheds of the Muskingum and Miami rivers, which became models for such undertakings in other states in the 1980s. Pollution in Lake Erie, where poor water conditions had made national headlines, was successfully reversed through a coalition of government efforts. By the end of the 1990s, the state was viewed as a national leader in improving waterways. But, as the Environmental Protection Agency lined up partners to clean up the Cuyahoga River, Ohio still faced serious environmental threats. A study released in 2000 indicated air pollution in the Ohio River Valley was worse than that on the nation's East Coast. It was reported earlier that rain contaminated with mercury from coal-fired electric plants was polluting Midwest lakes and rivers. In 2000 the EPA released a study citing the state for failing to meet tighter federal ozone limits. Illegal dumping also posed a persistent problem, with an estimated 30 to 40 million tires having been unlawfully deposited at nearly 100 sites around the state.

In 2000 the state remained among the most populous in the nation, with its more than 11.3 million people giving it a rank of seventh among the states.

Ohio was one of the states affected by the 14 August 2003 massive power blackout in Canada, the Northeast and Midwestern states. The largest electrical outage in US history affected 9,300 square miles and a population of over 50 million. An initial power failure in Ohio was later found to be the trigger for the outage. Many areas of Cleveland were without safe drinking water for a number of days.

Ohio remained at the center of the nation's presidential politics in 2004: President George W. Bush narrowly defeated John Kerry in Ohio by less than 120,000 votes, which swung the election for him. Ohio politics in 2005 were also the subject of controversy. Beginning in April 2005, the Toledo Blade newspaper began publishing a series of stories revealing that Toledo coin dealer Tom Noe, chair of the Bush-Cheney campaign for Lucas County, was investing \$50 million for the state through coin speculation: buying and selling rare coins to turn a profit. Noe could not account for \$10–13 million in the fund. Noe had also been placed under federal investigation for money laundering—perhaps state money—to the Bush campaign. The “coingate” scandal was complicated further by the fact that a Blade reporter with close ties to the Republican Party reportedly knew about Noe's campaign violations in early 2004, but suppressed the information. The publisher and editor-in-chief of the Blade held that if the “coingate” scandal had become public knowledge before the November election, Kerry would have won Ohio and won the presidency. Republican governor Bob Taft was the subject of a scandal in 2005 in which he pleaded no contest to accepting certain gifts—including from Noe—without reporting them, as required by law.

In the November 2004 election, Ohio voters approved by initiative petition an amendment to the Ohio constitution that adopted

a section declaring a valid and recognized marriage to be between one man and one woman only.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The Ohio constitution of 1803 was replaced by a second constitution in 1851. Amendments proposed by a constitutional convention in 1912 and subsequently approved by the voters so heavily revised the 1851 constitution as to make it virtually a new document. This modified constitution, with subsequent amendments (a total of 161 by January 2005), provides for county and municipal home rule, direct primary elections, recall of elected officials, and constitutional amendments by initiative and referendum.

Ohio's General Assembly consists of a 99-member House of Representatives, elected for two years, and a Senate of 33 members serving four-year terms (half the members are chosen every two years). Regular sessions of the legislature convene the first Monday in January of each year and are not formally limited in length. The presiding officers of both houses may issue a joint call to convene a special session. Legislators must be at least 18 years old, have lived in their districts for at least one year, and be qualified voters. The legislative salary was \$54,942 in 2004. Each house may introduce legislation, and both houses must approve a bill before it can be signed into law by the governor. The governor's veto of a bill can be overridden by three-fifths majority votes of the elected members of each houses. Bills not signed or vetoed by the governor become law after 10 days.

Officials elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, attorney general, auditor, and treasurer, all of whom serve four-year terms. (Eleven members of the state Board of Education are elected; six are appointed: all serve four-year terms.) Effective in 1959, a constitutional

amendment changed the governor's term from two to four years and forbade a governor from serving more than two successive terms. The governor appoints the heads of executive departments, as well as the adjutant general and members of most statutory boards. Candidates for governor must be 18 years old, US citizens, qualified voters, and state residents. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$126,485.

The constitution may be amended legislatively by a three-fifths vote of each house; the proposed amendment must then receive majority approval by the voters at the next general election. Amendments may also be proposed by petition of 10% of the electors who voted for governor in the last general election; a majority vote in a subsequent referendum is required for passage.

The constitution provides that every 20 years (from 1932 onward), the voters must be given the chance to choose whether a constitutional convention should be held. Voters rejected this option in 1932, 1952, 1972, and again in 1992.

To vote in Ohio, one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and have been a state resident for at least 30 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Ohio has sent seven native sons and one other state resident to the White House—equaling Virginia as the “mother of presidents.” The state's two major political parties, Democratic and Republican, have dominated the political scene since 1856.

Ohioans scattered their votes among various political factions until 1836, when they rallied behind state resident William Henry Harrison and the Whig Party; they again supported Harrison in 1840, helping him win his second bid for the presidency. Whigs

Ohio Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	OHIO WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST LABOR	COMMUNIST	LIBERTARIAN
1948	25	*Truman (D)	1,452,791	1,445,684	37,487	—	—	—
1952	25	*Eisenhower (R)	1,600,367	2,100,391	—	—	—	—
1956	25	*Eisenhower (R)	1,439,655	2,262,610	—	—	—	—
1960	25	Nixon (R)	1,944,248	2,217,611	—	—	—	—
1964	26f	*Johnson (D)	2,498,331	1,470,865	—	—	—	—
1968	26	*Nixon (R)	1,700,586	1,791,014	AMERICAN IND. 467,495	—	—	—
1972	25	*Nixon (R)	1,558,889	2,441,827	AMERICAN 80,067	7,107	6,437	—
1976	25	*Carter (D)	2,011,621	2,000,505	15,529	SOC. WORKERS 4,717	7,817	8,961
1980	25	*Reagan (R)	1,745,103	2,203,139	8,979	4,436	5,030	49,604
1984	25	*Reagan (R)	1,825,440	2,678,560	—	—	—	5,886
1988	25	*Bush (R)	1,939,629	2,416,549	—	WORKERS LEAGUE 5,432	NEW ALLIANCE 12,017	11,989
1992	21	*Clinton (D)	1,984,942	1,894,310	IND. (Perot) 1,036,426	POPULIST/AM. FIRST 4,698	6,411	7,252
1996	21	*Clinton (D)	2,148,222	1,859,883	483,207	—	—	12,851
2000	21	*Bush, G. W. (R)	2,186,190	2,351,209	IND. (Nader) 117,857	IND. (Buchanan) 26,724	—	13,475
2004	20	*Bush, G. W. (R)	2,741,167	2,859,768	WRITE-IN (Cobb) 192	NONPARTISAN (Peroutka) 11,939	WRITE-IN (Schriner) 114	NONPARTISAN (Badnarik) 14,676

*Won US presidential election.

and Democrats divided the votes in 1844, 1848, and 1852; in 1856, however, Ohio supported the newly formed Republican Party, and after the Civil War, seven of the country's next 12 presidents were Ohio-born Republicans, beginning with Grant and ending with Harding. From 1856 to 1996, Ohioans voted for the Republican candidate in all presidential elections except those in which the following six Democrats were elected: Woodrow Wilson (twice), Franklin D. Roosevelt (three times), Harry S. Truman, Lyndon B. Johnson, Jimmy Carter, and Bill Clinton (twice). In 1920, when the presidential candidates of both major parties were Ohioans, the Republican, Warren G. Harding, carried Ohio as well as the nation.

Political bossism flourished in Ohio during the last quarter of the 19th century, when the state government was controlled by Republicans Mark Hanna in Cleveland and George B. Cox in Cincinnati. Hanna played an influential role in Republican national politics; in 1896, his handpicked candidate, William McKinley, was elected to the presidency. But the despotism of the bosses and the widespread corruption in city governments led to public demands for reform. In Toledo, a reform mayor, Samuel "Golden Rule" Jones, began to clean house in 1897. Four years later, another group of reformers, led by Mayor Tom L. Johnson, ousted the Hanna machine and instituted honest government in Cleveland. At the time, journalist Lincoln Steffens called Cleveland "the best-governed city in the United States" and Cincinnati "the worst." The era of bossism ended for Cincinnati in 1905, when the voters overthrew the Cox machine, elected a reform mayor on a fusion ticket, and instituted reforms that in 1925 made Cincinnati the first major US city with a nonpartisan city-manager form of government.

With the decline of big-city political machines, ticket splitting has become a regular practice among Ohio voters in state and local contests. Governor Frank J. Lausche, a Democrat, was elected to an unprecedented five two-year terms (1945–47, 1949–57), and Republican James A. Rhodes served four four-year terms (1963–71, 1975–83). In 1982, Ohioans elected a Democratic governor, Richard F. Celeste, and Democrats swept all state offices and won control of both houses of the state legislature. Republican George Voinovich won the governorship in 1990 and again in 1994. In 1998 elections, Republican candidate Bob Taft won the governor's office; he was reelected in 2002. In 2005 the Republicans also dominated the state Senate (22 seats as opposed to the Democrats' 11), and the state House, which had 61 Republicans and 38 Democrats.

Following November 2004 elections, there were 6 Democrats and 12 Republicans serving as US Representatives. In 1992 both Ohio senators—John Glenn, elected to a fourth term in 1992, and Howard Metzenbaum, elected to a third term in 1988—were Democrats. However, in 1994 Metzenbaum retired and a Republican, Mike DeWine, took the seat (he was reelected in 2000). In 1998, the seat held by retiring Senator John Glenn was won by former Ohio governor, Republican George Voinovich.

In general, third parties have fared poorly in Ohio since 1856. Exceptions were the 1968 presidential election, in which American Independent Party candidate George Wallace garnered nearly 12% of Ohio's popular vote, and the 1992 presidential election, when Independent Ross Perot captured 21% of the vote. A more typical voting pattern was displayed in the 1976 presidential election when the two major parties together received 97.7% of the

total votes cast, and only 2.3% of the votes were split among minor parties and independents. In 2000, independent candidate Ralph Nader took 3% of the vote, and independent candidate Pat Buchanan won 1%.

The result was not nearly so close in 1980, when Ronald Reagan, the Republican presidential nominee, won 51% of the popular vote to 41% for Jimmy Carter (with 6% going to John Anderson and 2% to minor party candidates), or in 1984, when Reagan won 59% of the popular vote to defeat Walter Mondale in the state. Republican George Bush won 55% of the vote in 1988. In 1992, however, Bush lost the state to Democratic nominee Bill Clinton, who captured 40% of the vote to Bush's 38%. In 1996, Clinton won 47% of the vote, Republican Bob Dole won 41%, and Independent Ross Perot received 11%. In 2000, Republican George W. Bush won 50% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 46%. In 2004, Bush increased his support slightly, to take 51% of the vote to John Kerry's 48.5%. In 2002 there were 7,973,000 registered voters. In 1998, 17% of registered voters were Democratic, 18% Republican, and 65% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had 20 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a loss of 1 vote over 2000.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, local government in Ohio is exercised by 88 counties, 942 municipal governments, 662 public school districts, and 631 special districts. In 2002, there were 1,308 townships.

Each county is administered by a board of commissioners, elected to four-year terms, whose authority is limited by state law. The county government is run by officials elected to four-year terms: auditor or financial officer, clerk of courts, coroner, engineer, prosecuting attorney, recorder, sheriff, and treasurer.

Within each county are incorporated areas with limited authority to govern their own affairs. Thirty voters in an area may request incorporation of the community as a village. A village reaching the population of 5,000 automatically becomes a city, which by law must establish executive and legislative bodies. There are three types of city government: the mayor-council plan, which is the form adopted by a majority of the state's cities; the city-manager form, under which the city council appoints a professional manager to conduct nonpartisan government operations; and the commission type, in which a board of elected commissioners administers the city government. In practice, most large cities have adopted a home-rule charter that permits them to select the form of government best suited to their requirements.

Cleveland experimented with the city-manager form of government from 1924 to 1932, at which time public disclosures of municipal corruption led the city's voters to return to the mayor-council plan. In 1967, Cleveland became the first major US city to elect a black mayor; Carl Stokes served two two-year terms but retired from politics in 1971. Cleveland again attracted national attention in 1978 when its 31-year-old mayor, Dennis J. Kucinich, publicly disputed the city's financial policies with members of the city council, and the city defaulted on \$15 million in bank loans. Mayor Kucinich narrowly survived a recall election; in 1979, he was defeated for reelection.

Cincinnati has retained the city-manager form of government since 1925. The mayor, elected by the city council from among its members, has no administrative duties. Instead, the council ap-

points a city manager to a term as chief executive. Columbus, the state capital since 1816, has a mayor-council form of government.

Townships are governed by three trustees and a clerk, all elected to staggered four-year terms. These elected officials oversee zoning ordinances, parks, road maintenance, fire protection, and other matters within their jurisdiction.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 484,096 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Ohio operates under the authority of the governor; the state police superintendent is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The State Department of Education administers every phase of public school operations, including counseling and testing services, the federal school lunch program, and teacher education and certification. The department also oversees special schools for the blind and deaf. The department's chief administrator is the superintendent of public instruction.

Health and welfare services are provided by several departments. The Department of Health issues and enforces health and sanitary regulations. Violations of health rules are reviewed by a Public Health Council of seven members, including three physicians and a pharmacist. The Department of Mental Health administers mental health institutions; develops diagnostic, prevention, and rehabilitation programs; and trains mental health professionals. The Department of Job and Family Services helps the poor through TANF (temporary assistance to needy families), food stamps, and Medicaid. The Bureau of Workers' Compensation and the Division of Labor and Worker Safety administer labor benefit programs.

Public protection services include those of the State Highway Patrol and the Bureau of Motor Vehicles, both within the Department of Public Safety; the Department of Rehabilitation and Correction, which operates penal institutions; the Department of Youth Services, which administers juvenile correction centers; and the Environmental Protection Agency.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Supreme Court of Ohio, the highest court in the state, reviews proceedings of the lower courts and of state agencies. The high court has a chief justice and six associate justices elected to six-year terms. Below the Supreme Court are 12 courts of appeals, which exercise jurisdiction over their respective judicial districts. Each court has at least three judges elected to six-year terms. The district that includes Cleveland has nine appeals court judges, while the Cincinnati district has six.

Trial courts include 88 courts of common pleas, one in each county. Judges are elected to six-year terms. Probate courts, domestic relations courts, and juvenile courts often function as divisions of the common pleas courts. In 1957, a system of county courts was established by the legislature to replace justices of the peace and mayor's courts at the local level. Large cities have their own municipal, juvenile, and police courts.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 44,806 prisoners were held in Ohio's state and federal prisons, an increase from 44,778 of 0.1%

from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 3,185 inmates were female, up from 2,897 or 9.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Ohio had an incarceration rate of 391 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Ohio in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 341.8 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 39,163 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 420,910 reported incidents or 3,673.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Ohio has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 21 executions, including four in 2005 and two in 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, Ohio had 196 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Ohio spent \$278,109,346 on homeland security, an average of \$24 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 7,211 active-duty military personnel and 21,704 civilian personnel stationed in Ohio, the vast majority of whom were at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base near Dayton. Wright-Patterson AFB is one of the largest and most important bases in the United States Air Force and houses the National Museum of the United States Air Force. In 2004, it had a workforce numbering approximately 17,000 people including nearly 10,000 civilians, making it the one of the largest employers in the state of Ohio and the largest employer at a single location. In 2004, the Defense Department awarded over \$4.6 billion in defense contracts to Ohio companies. Additionally, defense payroll outlays were \$2.89 billion.

In 2003, Ohio had 1,051,007 living veterans, of whom 158,697 had served in World War II; 121,342 during the Korean conflict; 320,046 during the Vietnam era; and 145,893 during the Persian Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$2.1 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Ohio State Highway Patrol employed 1,481 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

After the Ohio country became a US territory in 1785, Virginians, Connecticut Yankees, and New Jerseyites began arriving in significant numbers; tens of thousands of settlers from New England, Pennsylvania, and some southern states thronged into Ohio in subsequent decades. The great migration from the eastern states continued throughout most of the 19th century, and was bolstered by new arrivals from Europe. The Irish came in the 1830s, and many Germans began arriving in the 1840s. Another wave of European immigration brought about 500,000 people a year to Ohio during the 1880s, many of them from southern and eastern Europe. Former slaves left the South for Ohio following the Civil War, and a larger migratory wave brought blacks to Ohio after World War II to work in the industrial cities. In the 1910s, many emigrants from Greece, Albania, and Latvia settled in Akron to work in the rubber industry.

The industrialization of Ohio in the late 19th and the 20th centuries encouraged the migration of Ohioans from the farms to the

cities. The large number of Ohioans who lived in rural areas and worked on farms declined steadily after 1900, with the farm population decreasing to under 1,000,000 during World War II and then to fewer than 400,000 by 1979. A more recent development has been the exodus of urbanites from Ohio's largest cities. From 1970 to 1990, Cleveland lost 245,000 residents, Cincinnati 90,000, Dayton 61,000, Akron 52,000, and Toledo 50,000. Columbus was the only major city to gain residents—93,000—during this period. Ohio lost more than one million people through migration during the period 1970–83. Net migration loss for the state from 1985 to 1990 came to 72,000. Between 1990 and 1998, Ohio had a net loss of 144,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 48,000 in international migration. In 1998, 7,697 foreign immigrants arrived in Ohio; of these, the greatest number, 900, came from India. The state's overall population increased 3.3% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 75,142 and net internal migration was -177,150, for a net loss of 102,008 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Ohio Commission on Interstate Cooperation represents the state in dealings with the Council of State Governments and its allied organizations. Ohio is a signatory to interstate compacts covering the Ohio River Valley, Pymatuning Reservoir, and the Great Lakes Basin, including the Great Lakes Charter signed in February 1985. The state also participates in the Interstate Mining Compact Commission, the Appalachian Regional Commission, the Midwest Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact Commission, the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, and other compacts. Federal grants to Ohio exceeded \$13.734 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$14.011 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$14.301 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Ohio's economy has shown remarkable balance over the years. In the mid-19th century, Ohio became a leader in agriculture, ranking first among the states in wheat production in 1840, and first in corn and wool by 1850. With industrialization, Ohio ranked fourth in value added by manufacturing in 1900.

Coal mining in the southeastern part of the state and easy access to Minnesota's iron ore via the Great Lakes contributed to the growth of the iron and steel industry in the Cleveland-Youngstown area. Ohio led the nation in the manufacture of machine tools and placed second among the states in steel production in the early 1900s. Automobile manufacturing and other new industries developed after World War I. Hit hard by the depression of the 1930s, the state diversified its industrial foundation and enjoyed prosperity during and after World War II, as its population increased and its income grew.

In the 1970s, however, growth began to lag. By 1980, per capita income in Ohio had fallen well behind the national average. While the gross national product in constant dollars grew 99% from 1960 to 1980, the gross state product expanded only 66%. Manufacturing, which traditionally accounted for more than one-third of the gross state product, was shrinking, as demand for durable goods declined. Manufacturing employment peaked at 1.4 million in 1969; by 1982, the total was down to 1.1 million, and it was believed that many of these jobs would be permanently lost because

of a reorientation of Ohio's economy from manufacturing toward services. With unemployment reaching peak levels, the state was forced to borrow from the federal government to fund the soaring cost of unemployment benefits.

Steel was produced primarily in Youngstown, automotive and aircraft parts in Cleveland, automobile tires and other rubber products in Akron, and office equipment in Dayton. Recessionary trends in 1980 led to the closing of a US Steel plant in Youngstown and of two Firestone tire and rubber factories in the Akron area, and to widespread layoffs in the auto parts industry. This bad economic news was partially offset when in 1983 the Honda Motor Co. opened Japan's first US automobile assembly plant at Marysville near Columbus, where Honda had already been manufacturing motorcycles. Honda suppliers also began establishing plants in the state.

Despite its shrinking size, manufacturing remains dominant in Ohio's economy. The sector centers on durable goods. Among manufacturers, transportation equipment and industrial machinery are the largest employers. Both durable and nondurable goods (instruments, chemicals, printing and lumber) enjoyed the greatest gains in employment between 1987 and 1993. However, durable goods' share of the gross state product, particularly primary metals, motor vehicles, and industrial machinery, fell 4.5% between 1977 and 1990 while nondurable goods industries' share of the gross state product remained constant and services, particularly business services, increased their share by 2.5%. In 2002, durable goods made up two-thirds of Ohio's manufacturing output. Output from Ohio's manufacturing sector peaked in 1998 at approximately \$90.4 billion (about 26.1% of gross state product), and had fallen 11.9% by 2001, including a 7.1% dip in the national recession of 2001. Output from manufacturing in 2001 constituted only 21.3% of gross state product. The fall in manufacturing output helped bring down the state's annual growth rates down from 6.5% in 1998 to an average of 3.3% 1999-2000, and then to 0.83% in 2001. In 2002, Ohio lagged the rest of the nation in employment performance because of significant losses in manufacturing, employing 18% of the state's labor force. Employment losses were sharpest among manufacturers of durable goods (which make up two-thirds of Ohio's manufactures), falling 8.4% between the fourth quarter of 2000 and the fourth quarter of 2002. Ohio's recovery hinges on recovery in its durable manufacturing sector.

In 2004, Ohio's gross state product (GSP) was \$419.866 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) contributed \$84.597 billion or 20.1% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$44.588 billion (10.6% of GSP), and health care and social assistance services at \$33.201 billion (7.9% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 850,961 small businesses in Ohio. Of the 231,374 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 227,339 or 98.3% were small companies. An estimated 22,725 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 2.2% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 21,328, down 9.4% from 2003. There were 1,432 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 0.4% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 774 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Ohio as the eighth-highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Ohio had a gross state product (GSP) of \$442 billion which accounted for 3.6% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 7 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Ohio had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$31,161. This ranked 26th in the United States and was 94% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.7%. Ohio had a total personal income (TPI) of \$356,795,912,000, which ranked eighth in the United States and reflected an increase of 4.2% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.0%. Earnings of persons employed in Ohio increased from \$263,241,162,000 in 2003 to \$274,175,471,000 in 2004, an increase of 4.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$44,160 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.8% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Ohio numbered 5,927,300, with approximately 326,900 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.5%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 5,460,800. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Ohio was 13.8% in January 1983. The historical low was 3.9% in March 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.3% of the labor force was employed in construction; 14.8 in manufacturing; 19.1% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.7% in financial activities; 11.9% in professional and business services; 14.1% in education and health services; 9.3% in leisure and hospitality services; and 14.5% in government.

The first workers' organization in Ohio was formed by Dayton mechanics in 1811. The Ohio Federation of Labor was founded in 1884; the American Federation of Labor (AFL) was founded in Columbus in 1886, and Ohio native William Green became president of the AFL in 1924. But it was not until the 1930s that labor unions in Ohio were formed on a large scale. In 1934, the United Rubber Workers began to organize workers in Akron; through a successful series of sit-down strikes at the city's rubber plants, the union grew to about 70,000 members by 1937. In that year, the United Steelworkers struck seven steel plants in the Youngstown area and won the right to bargain collectively for 50,000 steelworkers. The number of union members increased from about 25% of the state's non-farm employees in 1939 to 32% in 1980 when about 1.4 million workers belonged to labor organizations.

Progressive labor legislation in the state began in 1852 with laws regulating working hours for women and children and limiting men to a 10-hour workday. In 1890, Ohio became the first state to establish a public employment service. Subsequent labor legislation included a workers' compensation act in 1911 and child labor

and minimum wage measures in the 1930s. In 1983, a law was passed giving public employees, other than police officers and fire fighters, a limited right to strike.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 804,000 of Ohio's 5,039,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 16% of those so employed, up from 15.2% in 2004, and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 866,000 workers (17.2%) in Ohio were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Ohio is one of 28 states that do not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Ohio had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 40.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Despite increasing urbanization and industrialization, agriculture retains its economic importance. Ohio ranked 17th in net farm income among the 50 states in 2005. In that year, the state's production of crops, dairy products, and livestock was valued at nearly \$5.1 billion.

The number of farms in 2004 was 77,300, down from 234,000 in 1940. The average size of farms increased from 94 acres (38 hectares) in 1940 to 189 acres (76 hectares) in 2004.

Grain is grown and cattle and hogs are raised on large farms in the north-central and western parts of the state, while smaller farms predominate in the hilly southeastern region. Truck farming has continued to expand near the large cities.

Ohio was the third-leading producer of tomatoes for processing in 2004 with 177,320 tons. Field crops in 2004 (in bushels) included corn for grain, 491,380,000; soybeans, 207,740,000; wheat, 55,180,000; and oats, 3,150,000. The most valuable crops included soybeans, with sales of \$1.2 billion, and corn, \$1.0 billion. These two crops accounted for 41% of Ohio's farm receipts in 2004. Ohio farmers also produced 3,232,000 tons of hay and 34,000 tons of sugar beets in 2004.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Cattle and hogs are raised in the central and western regions. In 2005, Ohio had 1.3 million cattle and calves, worth over \$1.2 billion. In 2004, Ohio farmers had 1.5 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$159.5 million. During 2003, Ohio farmers produced nearly 12.9 million lb (5.8 million kg) of sheep and lambs.

Dairying is common in most regions of the state, but especially in the east and southeast. In 2003, Ohio's 260,000 milk cows produced 4.5 billion lb (2 billion kg) of milk. The poultry industry is dispersed throughout the state. Ohio ranked second among the states in production of eggs with 7.6 billion eggs in 2003. Poultry farmers in Ohio also produced 212.3 million lb (96.5 million kg) of turkey and sold 225.5 million lb (102.3 million kg) of broilers worth \$78.9 million in 2003.

2⁵ FISHING

Commercial fishing, which once flourished in Lake Erie, has declined during the 20th century. In 2004, commercial fish landings brought about 3.9 million lb (1.8 million kg) valued at \$2.9 mil-

lion. The primary Lake Erie fish species are walleye, perch, lake trout, and small mouth bass. In 2001, the commercial fleet had 31 vessels and 19 boats.

A statewide fish hatchery system (of six locations) annually produces and stocks up to 30 million fry and yearling size fish—mostly walleye, saugeye, trout, catfish, bass, sunfish, muskellunge, and pike. In 2004, the state issued 917,902 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

In 2003, Ohio had 7,855,000 acres (3,179,000 hectares) of forestland, representing 30% of the state's total land area, but only 1% of all US forests. Although scattered throughout the state, hardwood forests are concentrated in the hilly region of the southeast. Lawrence and Vinton counties are more than 70% forested. Commercial timberlands in 2002 totaled 7,568,000 acres (3,063,000 hectares), of which over 90% was privately owned.

The state's lumber and wood products industry supplies building materials, household furniture, and paper products. In 2004, total lumber production was 379 million board feet. In 2002 there were about 690,000 acres (279,000 hectares) of federal, state, county, and municipal forestland in Ohio.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Ohio in 2003 was \$968 million, down slightly from 2002. The USGS data ranked Ohio as 15th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for around 2.5% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, crushed stone, followed by construction sand and gravel, salt, lime, cement (portland and masonry), and industrial sand and gravel were the state's top nonfuel minerals by value. Crushed stone and construction sand and gravel accounted for around 57% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. Ohio in 2003 was the nation's third leading producer by volume of fire clay, fourth in the production of salt and lime, fifth in construction sand and gravel and common clays, and tenth in industrial sand and gravel.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed that a total of 68.8 million metric tons of crushed stone were produced, with a value of \$310 million, while construction sand and gravel output totaled 47 million metric tons, and was valued at \$242 million. Lime production that same year was 1.7 million metric tons, and was worth \$110 million.

Ohio's mines produced only coal and industrial minerals. Metals production came from materials received from other states or foreign sources. Ohio ranked second in 2003 in the production of raw steel, for which output that year totaled 11.9 million metric tons.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Ohio has abundant energy resources. The state government estimates that Ohio's coal reserves are sufficient to meet demand for 500 years and that oil and natural gas reserves are also ample.

As of 2003, Ohio had 136 electrical power service providers, of which 85 were publicly owned and 25 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, nine were investor owned, one was the owner of an in-

dependent generator that sold directly to customers, 10 were generation-only suppliers and six were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 5,397,308 retail customers. Of that total, 3,751,772 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 358,050 customers, while publicly owned providers had 370,524 customers. There was one independent generator or "facility" customer, and 916,961 generation-only customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 34.060 million kW, with total production that same year at 146.638 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 94.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 134.769 billion kWh (91.9%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear power generation plants in second place at 8.475 billion kWh (5.8%) and natural gas fueled plants in third at 1.793 billion kWh (1.2%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 0.3% of all power generated. Petroleum fired plants, hydroelectric generation and plants using other types of gases accounted for the remainder.

As of 2006, Ohio had two operating nuclear power plants: the Davis-Besse plant in Oak Harbor; and the Perry plant in Lake County, near Cleveland.

In the 1880s, petroleum was discovered near Lima and natural gas near Toledo, both in the northwest. These fossil fuels have since been found and exploited in the central and eastern regions. As of 2004, Ohio had proven crude oil reserves of 49 million barrels, or less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 16,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 20th (19th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 19th (20th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Ohio had 28,941 producing oil wells and accounted for under 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's four refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 551,400 barrels per day.

In 2004, Ohio had 33,828 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 93.641 billion cu ft (2.65 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 974 billion cu ft (27.66 billion cu m). A potential energy source is the rich bed of shale rock, underlying more than half of Ohio, which was estimated to contain more than 200 trillion cu ft (5.7 trillion cu m) of natural gas. But much research is needed before the gas can be extracted economically.

Coalfields lie beneath southeastern Ohio, particularly in Hocking, Athens, and Perry counties. In 2004, Ohio had 52 producing coal mines, 44 of which were surface operations and eight were underground. Coal production that year totaled 23,222,000 short tons, up from 22,009,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, underground mines accounted for 14,270,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 318 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Ohio has been a leading manufacturing state since the mid-1800s. During the last two decades of the 20th century, Ohio became the nation's leader in machine-tool manufacturing, the second-leading steel producer, and a pioneer in oil refining and in the production of automobiles and automotive parts, such as rubber tires.

In recent decades, Ohio has also become important as a manufacturer of glassware, soap, matches, paint, business machines, refrigerators—and even comic books and Chinese food products.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Ohio's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$258.799 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$77.937 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$24.634 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$22.736 billion; food manufacturing at \$21.156 billion; and primary metal manufacturing at \$20.363 billion.

In 2004, a total of 782,617 people in Ohio were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 570,149 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 138,306, with 108,070 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 120,011 employees (90,874 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 80,830 employees (62,397 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 75,954 employees (46,117 actual production workers); and food manufacturing with 51,607 employees (37,247 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Ohio's manufacturing sector paid \$34.503 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$8.042 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$4.868 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$3.392 billion; plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$2.924 billion; and primary metal manufacturing at \$2.580 billion.

30 COMMERCE

Ohio is a major commercial state. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Ohio's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$166.4 billion from 16,000 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 10,149 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 4,316 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,535 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$78.5 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$70.04 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$17.8 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Ohio was listed as having 42,280 retail establishments with sales of \$119.7 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (5,757); clothing and clothing accessories stores (5,139); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (4,909); miscellaneous store retailers (4,863); and gasoline stations

(4,460). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$30.7 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$17.9 billion; food and beverage stores at \$17.4 billion; gasoline stations at \$10.4 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$9.1 billion. A total of 611,814 people were employed by the retail sector in Ohio that year.

In 2005, Ohio ranked seventh in the United States as an exporter of goods, with exports worth \$34 billion. Transportation equipment, nonelectric machinery, chemicals, electric and electronic equipment, primary metals, fabricated metal products, stone, clay, and glass products, and rubber and plastic products account for most of the export value.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Although Ohio has some of the toughest consumer protection laws in the United States, the state does not have a single, dedicated agency or department responsible for consumer protection. Instead, the state relies upon a range of state offices to provide consumer protection activities that are specific to that agency or department. Agencies involved in consumer protection include the Agriculture Department's Division of Food Safety, which operates inspection programs to protect consumers, and the Commerce Department's Office of Consumer Affairs (created in 2002), which protects consumers from abusive lending practices through education, fielding complaints, referring borrowers to organizations that can assist them, and initiating enforcement action if lending laws are violated. The Ohio Consumers' Counsel acts to protect the interests of residential consumers of public utilities and works to educate consumers about utility issues and resolve consumer complaints. The Attorney General's Office via its Consumer Protection Section, resolves consumer complaints and enforces consumer protection laws.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Ohio Consumer's Council and the Consumer Protection Section of the Attorney General's Office are located in Columbus. There is also a county government consumer affairs office in Akron.

32 BANKING

Ohio's first banks, in Marietta and Chillicothe, were incorporated in 1808, and a state bank was authorized in 1845. As of June 2005, Ohio had 281 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 223 state-chartered and 272 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Cleveland-Elyria-Mentor market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's depos-

its in 2004, at \$64.472 billion, but ranked third in the number of institutions at 44. The Cincinnati-Middletown market area (which includes a portion of Kentucky) ranks second in deposits with \$37.080 billion, and first in the number of institutions at 87. The Columbus market area ranks second in the number of institutions at 57, and third in deposits at \$28.762 billion. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 1% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$16.575 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 99% or \$1,580.100 billion in assets held.

The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans as of fourth quarter 2005 stood at 1.74%, down from 1.79% in 2004 and 1.89% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for the state's insured institutions was 3.82% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 3.83% in 2004 but up from 2003's rate of 3.80%.

State chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions are the responsibility of the Ohio Department of Commerce's Division of Financial Institutions. Federally chartered institutions are regulated by the US government.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, there were over 7.1 million individual life insurance policies in force, with a total value of over \$480 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$780.8 billion. The average coverage amount is \$66,700 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$2.4 billion. In 2000, 46 life and health insurance companies had headquarters in Ohio.

At the end of 2003, 134 property and casualty and 41 life and health insurance companies were domiciled in Ohio. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$13.8 billion. That year, there were 36,166 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$3.9 billion. About \$14.7 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 61% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 12% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 17% for single coverage and 21% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 7.9 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$12,500 per individual and \$25,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$7,500. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$671.23.

34 SECURITIES

The Cincinnati Stock Exchange (CSE) was organized on 11 March 1885 by 12 stockbrokers who agreed to meet regularly to buy and sell securities. In the mid-1990s, the Cincinnati Stock Exchange moved to Chicago and ceased operations in Ohio.

The Ohio securities marketplace is overseen by the Ohio Division of Securities of the Ohio Department of Commerce. The division provides investor protection, enhances capital formation, and protects the integrity of the securities marketplace by administering and enforcing the Ohio Securities Act, which was enacted in 1913. It requires that all securities sold in Ohio be registered with the division or properly exempted from registration and requires that each person transacting business in securities in Ohio be licensed by the division. It also imposes anti-fraud standards in connection with the sale of securities.

In 2005, there were 2,710 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 10,940 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 279 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 93 NASDAQ companies, 93 NYSE listings, and 13 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 28 Fortune 500 companies; Cardinal Health (based in Dublin) ranked first in the state and ninth in the nation with revenues of over \$74.9 billion, followed by Kroger, Procter and Gamble, and Federated Department Stores, all based in Cincinnati, and Nationwide Financial Services, based in Columbus. These five NYSE-listed companies are also part of the Fortune 100.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The state budget is prepared on a biennial basis by the Office of Budget and Management. It is submitted by the governor to the state legislature, which must act on it by the close of the current fiscal year (FY). The state's fiscal year runs from 1 July through 30 June.

The General Assembly has nearly total discretion in allocating general revenues, which are used primarily to support education, welfare, mental health facilities, law enforcement, property tax relief, and government operations. The assembly also allocates money from special revenue funds by means of specific legislative acts. More than one-half of all state expenditures come from the general fund.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$25.7 billion for resources and \$25.3 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Ohio totaled \$16.5 billion.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Ohio collected \$24,007 million in tax revenues or \$2,094 per capita, which placed it 27th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.2% of the total; sales taxes, 34.1%; selective sales taxes, 12.3%; individual income taxes, 39.3%; corporate income taxes, 5.5%; and other taxes, 8.6%.

As of 1 January 2006, Ohio had nine individual income tax brackets ranging from 0.712% to 7.185%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 5.1% to 8.5% depending on tax bracket.

Ohio—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	76,443,362	6,676.28
General revenue	45,732,357	3,994.09
Intergovernmental revenue	14,870,405	1,298.73
Taxes	22,475,528	1,962.93
General sales	7,881,510	688.34
Selective sales	2,901,794	253.43
License taxes	1,813,479	158.38
Individual income tax	8,705,161	760.28
Corporate income tax	1,060,594	92.63
Other taxes	112,990	9.87
Current charges	5,103,632	445.73
Miscellaneous general revenue	3,282,792	286.71
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	581,412	50.78
Insurance trust revenue	30,129,593	2,631.41
Total expenditure	58,874,466	5,141.87
Intergovernmental expenditure	15,730,201	1,373.82
Direct expenditure	43,144,265	3,768.06
Current operation	25,303,008	2,209.87
Capital outlay	3,097,504	270.52
Insurance benefits and repayments	11,984,509	1,046.68
Assistance and subsidies	1,566,629	136.82
Interest on debt	1,192,615	104.16
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	6,775,542	591.75
Total expenditure	58,874,466	5,141.87
General expenditure	46,524,145	4,063.24
Intergovernmental expenditure	15,730,201	1,373.82
Direct expenditure	30,793,944	2,689.43
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	17,006,672	1,485.30
Public welfare	13,558,685	1,184.16
Hospitals	1,579,696	137.96
Health	1,936,533	169.13
Highways	3,032,342	264.83
Police protection	254,436	22.22
Correction	1,558,121	136.08
Natural resources	416,181	36.35
Parks and recreation	113,070	9.88
Government administration	1,942,370	169.64
Interest on general debt	1,192,615	104.16
Other and unallocable	3,933,424	343.53
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	365,812	31.95
Insurance trust expenditure	11,984,509	1,046.68
Debt at end of fiscal year	22,183,360	1,937.41
Cash and security holdings	166,738,540	14,562.32

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$11,232,828,000 or \$981 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 25th nationally. Local governments collected \$11,192,192,000 of the total and the state government \$40,636,000.

Ohio taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 125 cents per pack, which ranks 13th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Ohio taxes gasoline at 28 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Ohio citizens received \$1.01 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Although Ohio seeks to attract new industries, a substantial portion of the state's annual economic growth stems from the expansion of existing businesses.

Ohio offers numerous business incentives to spur industrial development. The state encourages capital investment by offering private developers property tax abatements for commercial redevelopment. A 1976 state law permits municipal corporations to exempt certain property improvements from real property taxes for periods of up to 30 years. The state's guaranteed-loan program for industrial developers provides repayment guarantees on 90% of loans up to \$1 million. The state also offers revenue bonds to finance a developer's land, buildings, and equipment at interest rates below the going mortgage interest rates.

The Ohio Department of Development (ODOD) consists of several divisions, including the: Economic Development Division, Office of Business Development, Office of Tax Incentives, Office of Financial Incentives, Office of Industrial Training, and Office of Small and Developing Business. These organizations administer plans for economic growth in cooperation with city and county governments. They inform companies about opportunities and advantages in the state and promote the sale of Ohio's exports abroad. In the 1990s, the departments instituted research and development programs at state universities in such fields as biotechnology, clean coal technologies, welding and joining technologies, robotics, polymers, and artificial intelligence. Special attention has been paid to the development of Ohio's growing life science industry. The Third Frontier Internship Program is designed to keep Ohio's college graduates in the state by connecting them with Ohio businesses through student internships.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.3 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 16.5 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 87.7% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 80% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 274.8; cancer, 220.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 63.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 53.1; and diabetes, 33.7. Ohio and North Dakota share the distinction of having the third-highest diabetes mortality rate in the nation (following West Virginia and Louisiana). The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.1 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 5.8 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 55.6% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 25.8% of state residents were smokers, representing the fifth-highest rate in the country.

In 2003, Ohio had 163 community hospitals with about 33,000 beds. There were about 1.4 million patient admissions that year and 30 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 20,600 patients. The average cost per day for hos-

pital care was \$1,504. Also in 2003, there were about 989 certified nursing facilities in the state with 106,426 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 75%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 72.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Ohio had 289 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 930 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 5,981 dentists in the state.

In 2005, the Cleveland Clinic ranked fourth on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, it ranked first in the nation for care of heart disease and heart surgery. Rainbow Babies and Children's Hospital in Cleveland ranked sixth in the nation for best pediatric care. University Hospitals of Cleveland, Akron General Medical Center, Christ Hospital in Cincinnati, and Ohio State University Hospital in Columbus all ranked within the top 40 best hospitals in care for heart disease and heart surgery.

About 17% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 12% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$13.3 billion.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

The growth of welfare programs in the state was remarkably rapid during the 1970s and early 1980s. From 1970 to 1978, for example, Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) nearly tripled, to \$446 million; by 1996, there were 552,000 AFDC recipients; the average payment per family was \$421.

In 2004, about 306,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$252. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,007,172 persons (448,524 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$95.72 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$1.15 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Ohio's TANF program is called Ohio Works First (OWF). In 2004, the state program had 186,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$310 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,950,740 Ohio residents. This number included 1,199,320 retired workers, 236,870 widows and widowers, 230,860 disabled workers, 134,780 spouses, and 148,910 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17% of the total state population and 92.6% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$970; widows and widowers, \$933; disabled workers, \$876; and spouses, \$489. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$501 per month; children of deceased workers, \$636; and children of disabled workers, \$263. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 245,401 Ohio residents, averaging \$418 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, Ohio had an estimated 4,966,746 housing units, 4,514,723 of which were occupied; 69.8% were owner-occupied. About 68% of all units were single-family, detached homes. About 22.4% of the housing units were built in 1939 or earlier; 43.7% were built between 1950 and 1979. It was estimated that 173,724 units lacked telephone service, 16,483 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 19,901 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Utility gas was the most common energy source for heating. The average household had 2.47 members.

In 2004, 51,700 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$122,384. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,090. Renters paid a median of \$587 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$255,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$48.9 million in community development block grants (CDBG). The city of Cleveland received over \$24.5 million in CDBGs.

4¹ EDUCATION

In 2004, 88.1% of Ohio residents age 25 and older were high school graduates, surpassing the national average of 84%. Some 24.6% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

Ohio claims a number of "firsts" in US education: the first kindergarten, established by German settlers in Columbus in 1838; the first junior high school, also at Columbus, in 1909; the first municipal university, the University of Cincinnati, founded in 1870; and the first college to grant degrees to women, Oberlin, in 1837. The state's earliest school system was organized in Akron in 1847.

The total enrollment in Ohio's public schools for fall 2002 stood at 1,838,000. Of these, 1,284,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 554,000 attended high school. Approximately 79.4% of the students were white, 17% were black, 2.1% were Hispanic, 1.3% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.1% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,825,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 1,752,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 4.7% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$19.2 billion or \$8,963 per student. In fall 2003, there were 239,323 students enrolled in 987 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Ohio scored 283 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 587,996 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 15.1% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Ohio had 187 degree-granting institutions. State universities include Ohio State University (Columbus), Ohio University (Athens), Miami University (Oxford), and other state universities at Akron, Bowling Green, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dayton, Kent, Toledo, Wilberforce, and Youngstown. The largest, Ohio State, was chartered in 1870 and also has campuses at Lima, Mansfield, Marion, Newark, and Wooster. Ohio has 36 public two-year colleges. Well-known private colleges and universities include Antioch (Yellow Springs), Case Western Reserve (Cleveland), Kenyon (Gambier), Muskingum (New Concord),

Oberlin, Wittenberg (Springfield), and Wooster. The conservatories at both Oberlin and the Cleveland Institute of Music have national reputations.

Ohio residents enrolled as full-time students at an eligible institution within the state may apply for instructional grants from the Student Assistance Office of the Ohio Board of Regents. Guaranteed loans are provided through the Ohio Student Loan Commission.

42 ARTS

The Ohio Arts Council was founded in 1965 with the mission of developing and preserving the state's cultural heritage. The council consists of a Board with 15 governor-appointed, voting members and 4 non-voting members 2 from the Ohio Senate and 2 from the House of Representatives. In 2005, the Ohio Arts Council and other Ohio arts organizations received 52 grants totaling \$1,740,300 from the National Endowment for the Arts. State and private sources contributed funds to arts programming as well. As of 2006, the Ohio Humanities Council presented a number of historical and literary programs, including "Booked for the Day: Literary Retreats for Working Professionals" and the Ohio Chautauqua. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$2,270,470 to 27 state programs.

The earliest center of artistic activities in Ohio was Cincinnati, where a group of young painters did landscapes and portraits as early as 1840. The state's first art gallery was established there in 1854; the Cincinnati Art Academy was founded in 1869, and the Art Museum in 1886. Famous American artists who worked in Cincinnati during part of their careers include Thomas Cole, a founder of the "Hudson River School" of landscape painting, and Columbus-born George Bellows, whose realistic *Stag at Sharkey's* is displayed at the Cleveland Museum of Art (founded in 1913). Other notable centers for the visual arts include the Akron Art Institute, Columbus Museum of Art, Dayton Art Institute, Toledo Museum of Art, and museums or galleries in Marion, Oberlin, Springfield, Youngstown, and Zanesville.

Cincinnati also was an early center for the theater; the Eagle Theater opened there in 1839, and shortly afterward, the first showboat on the Ohio River began making regular stops at the city. The first US minstrel show appeared in Ohio in 1842. Ohio has three professional theatrical companies: the Cincinnati Playhouse, the Cleveland Play House, and the Great Lakes Theatre Festival. Celebrating its 90th anniversary during the 2005/06 season, The Cleveland Play House is the nation's oldest permanent repertory theater. As of 2006, The Ohio Community Theater Association included groups in Akron, Canton, Columbus, Mansfield, Toledo, and Youngstown, among many other locations.

The Cincinnati Symphony was founded in 1895 and reorganized in 1909 with Leopold Stokowski as conductor. The Cincinnati Pops Orchestra acquired a new summer home in 1984 at the newly opened Riverbend Music Center. The Cincinnati Opera Association, founded in 1920, is the second-oldest opera company in the United States. Cincinnati is also the host of the annual Cincinnati May Festival, a classical music event that is considered to be the oldest continuous choral festival in the Western Hemisphere.

The Cleveland Orchestra, founded in 1918, has risen to world-class stature since 1946, when George Szell began his 24-year ten-

ure as conductor and music director. Blossom Music Center, the Cleveland Orchestra's summer home located between Cleveland and Akron, has been a center for both classical and popular music in Northeast Ohio since opening in 1968. In 2002/2003 Blossom underwent major improvements to its structures and landscaping. A \$36.7 million renovation and expansion of the orchestra's main home, Severance Hall, had been completed three years earlier.

Smaller professional musical groups in Cleveland include Apollo's Fire (the Cleveland Baroque Orchestra), the Cleveland Chamber Orchestra, and the Cleveland Pops Orchestra. The Cleveland Opera finds its home at the State Theatre and the Lyric Opera Cleveland is a resident of Playhouse Square.

There are civic symphony orchestras in Columbus, Dayton, Toledo, and Youngstown. Ballet companies are based in Cincinnati, Dayton, and Toledo. E. J. Thomas Hall in Akron is the home of the Ohio Ballet and the Akron Symphony. Operas are performed by resident companies in Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Toledo, and Dayton. There are numerous local arts festivals and craft shows. In 2005, Cleveland introduced the first ever Ingenuity Festival, a four-day event celebrating and promoting the awareness of the relationship between art and technology.

The nation's first college music department was established at Oberlin College in 1865; the Cincinnati Conservatory of Music was established in 1867, the Baldwin-Wallace College Conservatory in 1899, and the Cleveland Institute of Music in 1920. The Baldwin-Wallace Bach Festival, begun in 1932, is the oldest collegiate Bach festival in the country, celebrating its 75th Anniversary in 2007. Bach's four major choral works are performed at the festival in four-year cycles (one per year). Baldwin-Wallace is also home to the Riemenschneider Bach Institute, guardian of priceless Bach-related first editions and manuscripts.

The Cleveland International Piano Competition, held biennially at the Cleveland Institute of Music since 1975, has become one of the foremost events of its type, drawing contestants from 19 countries throughout the world. In 2005, the competition awarded a record cash prize of \$50,000 to the winner.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

Ever since early settlers traded coonskins for books and established, in 1804, the Coonskin Library (now on display at the Ohio Historical Center in Columbus), Ohioans have stressed the importance of the public library system. In calendar year 2001, Ohio had 250 public library systems, with a total of 716 libraries, of which 482 were branches. For that same year, the state's public library system had 47,088,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves, and a total circulation of 156,527,000. The system also had 3,418,000 audio and 2,716,000 video items, 127,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 66 bookmobiles.

Major public library systems include those of Cincinnati, with 4,721,766 volumes in 1998; Cleveland, 3,782,419; Cuyahoga County, 3,085,123; Dayton, 1,782,419; and Columbus, 2,433,636. Leading academic libraries include those of Ohio State University, over seven million books; Case Western Reserve University, 1,304,852 books; and the University of Cincinnati, over three million books. The State Library of Ohio in Columbus, founded in 1817, provides research and information services for Ohio's state

government and agencies with more than two million books and periodicals. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system came to \$682,412,000 and included \$1,085,000 in federal grants and \$499,124,000 in state grants.

Among the state's more than 284 museums are the Museum of Art, Natural History Museum, and Western Reserve Historical Society Museum in Cleveland; the Museum of Natural History, Art Museum, and Taft Museum in Cincinnati; the Dayton Art Institute; and the Center of Science and Industry and Ohio Historical Center in Columbus. The Zanesville Art Center has collections of ceramics and glass made in the Zanesville area. Also noteworthy are the US Air Force Museum near Dayton, the Neil Armstrong Air and Space Museum at Wapakoneta, and the Ohio River Museum in Marietta. Cincinnati has a conservatory of rare plants, while Cleveland has botanical gardens and an aquarium; both cities have zoos. The National First Ladies' Library in Canton features the artwork and artifacts of First Lady Caroline Harrison.

Historical sites in Ohio include the Schoenbrunn Village State Memorial, a reconstruction of the state's first settlement by Moravian missionaries, near New Philadelphia; the early-19th-century Piqua Historical Area, with exhibits of Indian culture; and the Fort Meigs reconstruction at Perrysburg. Archaeological sites include the "great circle" mounds, built by the Hopewell Indians at present-day Newark, and Inscription Rock, marked by prehistoric Indians, on Kelley's Island.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 94.9% of Ohio's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 6,188,081 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 58.8% of Ohio households had a computer and 52.5% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,505,272 high-speed lines in Ohio, 1,395,062 residential and 110,210 for business.

Many of the state's radio stations were established in the early 1920s, when the growth of radio broadcasting was fostered by the availability of low-priced sets manufactured by Crosley Radio of Cincinnati. In 2005, there were 46 major AM stations, 159 major FM stations, and 31 commercial and 11 noncommercial television stations. In 1999, the Cleveland area had 1,479,020 television households, 72% of which received cable. In that same year the Cincinnati area had 820,000 television households, 64% receiving cable. Finally, of the Columbus area's 757,860 television-viewing families, 66% watched cable. A total of 168,083 Internet domain names were registered in Ohio in 2000.

45 PRESS

The first newspaper published in the region north and west of the Ohio River was the *Centinel of the North-Western Territory*, which was written, typeset, and printed in Cincinnati by William Maxwell in 1793. The oldest newspaper in the state still published under its original name is the *Scioto Gazette*, which appeared in 1800. The oldest extant weekly, the *Lebanon Western Star*, began publication in 1807, and the first daily, the *Cincinnati Commercial Register*, appeared in 1826. By 1840 there were 145 newspapers in Ohio.

Two of the state's most influential newspapers, the *Cleveland Plain Dealer* and the *Cincinnati Enquirer*, were founded in 1841.

In 2005, the *Cleveland Plain Dealer* was the twentieth-largest daily newspaper in the country. In 1878, Edward W. Scripps established the *Cleveland Penny Press* (later called the *Press*), the first newspaper in what would become the extensive Scripps-Howard chain (though the *Press* folded in 1982). He later added to his newspaper empire the *Cincinnati Post* (1881) and the *Columbus Citizen* (1899), as well as papers in Akron, Toledo, and Youngstown.

In 2005, the state had 30 mornings dailies, 54 evening editions, and 41 Sunday editions. With a total of 84 daily newspapers, Ohio has the third-largest number of daily papers in the country (following California and Texas).

The following table lists leading Ohio newspapers with their approximate daily circulation in 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Akron	<i>Beacon Journal</i> (m,S)	173,975	185,963
Cincinnati	<i>Enquirer</i> (m,S)	183,051	192,240
	<i>Post</i> (e)	43,398	68,910 (Sat.)
Cleveland	<i>Plain Dealer</i> (m,S)	354,309	479,131
Columbus	<i>Dispatch</i> (m,S)	251,045	361,304
Dayton	<i>Daily News</i> (m,S)	178,099	185,122
Toledo	<i>Blade</i> (m,S)	139,398	183,632
Youngstown	<i>Vindicator</i> (e,S)	66,487	94,710

Sun Newspapers, a weekly newspaper, founded in 1969, produces 25 regional editions to serve 82 communities in the greater Cleveland and Akron areas, with a weekly circulation of 270,000. It is the largest chain of fully paid weekly newspapers in the United States. *Crain's Cleveland Business* has reported a readership of about 90,000 per week. Regional interest periodicals include *Cleveland Magazine*, *Cincinnati Magazine*, *Ohio Magazine*, and *Northern Ohio Live*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 15,895 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 10,308 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Service organizations with headquarters in Ohio include Disabled American Veterans and the National Exchange Club.

Commercial and professional organizations include the American Ceramic Society, the Order of United Commercial Travelers of America, Music Teachers National Association, ASM International, the United States Police Canine Association, the Association for Systems Management, and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers.

Sports associations operating out of Ohio are the Lighter-Than-Air Society and Professional Bowlers Association, American Motorcyclist Association, the Amateur Trapshooting Association, the International Soap Box Derby, the Freethrowers Boomerang Association, US Flag and Touch Football League, US Speedskating, and Indoor Sports Club. Special interest and hobbyist groups include the Etch-A-Sketch Club, the National Quilting Association, and the American Bonsai Society.

Arts, culture, and history are promoted in the state through such organizations as the Botanical Society of America, the American Guild of English Handbell Ringers, the American-Slovenian Polka Foundation, the Ohio and Erie Canal Association, the Ohio Art League, the Ohio Arts Council, and the Ohio Valley

Art League. There are also numerous local arts groups and historical societies.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Ohio visitors spend more than \$30.7 billion annually on travel and tourism and the industry supports nearly 529,100 travel-related positions. Ohio has a \$162 million dollar travel market. Visitors spend more than one billion annually in Ashtabula County alone. It is known as the Covered Bridge Capital (16) and the Wine Capital (11) of Ohio, and offers more campsites than any other county in Ohio (18).

Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati all offer major attractions of museums, restaurants, shopping, parks, and concerts. The Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum and the Great Lakes Science Center, both in Cleveland, are major attractions. Major league sports (Indians baseball, Cavaliers basketball, Browns football) also draw visitors to Cleveland. The semiannual Cleveland International Piano Competition, with its \$50,000 first prize, draws crowds to see performances with the Cleveland Orchestra. The NFL Hall of Fame is located in Canton. Popular amusement parks include Cedar Point in Sandusky, King's Island in Cincinnati, and Six Flags Worlds of Adventure in Aurora. Sandusky is also the launching point for visiting the Lake Erie Islands of Put-in-Bay and Middle Bass Island. There visitors can see the monument to William Hazard Perry (naval hero of the War of 1812) and visit wineries.

Beaches and parks in the Lake Erie region are especially popular with tourists during the summer, including the Mentor Headlands State Park. The Cuyahoga Valley National Park is also a popular attraction, linking the urban centers of Cleveland and Akron. The Cleveland Metroparks system creates an "Emerald Necklace" around the greater Cleveland area.

Ohio state parks comprise 204,274 acres (84,000 hectares). Among the most visited state parks are Alum Creek, East Harbor and Kelleys Island (both on Lake Erie), Grand Lake, St. Mary's, Hocking Hills, Hueston Woods, Mohican, Pymatuning (on the Pennsylvania border), Rocky Fork, Salt Fork, Scioto Trail, and West Branch. Ohio is the home of many Indian communities and archaeological sites such as the Great Circle Earthworks and the Miamisburg Mound and the Serpent Mound are popular visitor sites.

The most popular sport fish are bass, catfish, bullhead, carp, perch, and rainbow trout. The deer-hunting season varies for shotgun, primitive arms, and bows.

The eastern Allegheny region has several ski resorts for winter sports enthusiasts. Popular tourist attractions here include the Amish settlement around Millersburg, the National Road-Zane Grey Museum near Zanesville, and the restored Roscoe Village on the Ohio-Erie Canal. The southern region offers scenic hill country and the showboat *Majestic*, the last of the original floating theaters, in Cincinnati.

In the western region, tourist sites include the Wright brothers' early flying machines in Dayton's Carillon Park, the Ohio Caverns at West Liberty, and the Zane Caverns near Bellefontaine. The central region is "Johnny Appleseed" country; the folk hero (a frontiersman whose real name was John Chapman) is commemorated in Mansfield by the blockhouse to which he directed settlers in order to save them from an Indian raid. In Columbus are the

reconstructed Ohio Village and the Exposition Center, site of the annual Ohio State Fair, held for 13 days in mid-August.

Other leading tourist attractions include Ohio's presidential memorials and homes: the William Henry Harrison Memorial at North Bend, Ulysses S. Grant's birthplace at Point Pleasant, the James A. Garfield home at Mentor, the Rutherford B. Hayes home at Fremont, the William McKinley Memorial at Canton, the Taft National Historic Site in Cincinnati, and the Warren G. Harding home in Marion. Also of interest are the Thomas A. Edison birthplace at Milan, and Malabar Farm, in Richland County, home of author and conservationist Louis Bromfield.

48 SPORTS

There are seven major professional sports teams in Ohio: the Cleveland Indians and the Cincinnati Reds of Major League Baseball, the Columbus Crew of Major League Soccer, the Cincinnati Bengals and the Cleveland Browns of the National Football League, the Columbus Blue Jackets of the National Hockey League, and the Cleveland Cavaliers of the National Basketball Association.

The state is also home to Triple-A minor league baseball teams in Columbus and Toledo, a Double-A team in Akron, and Single-A teams in Eastlake, Niles, and Dayton. In addition, there are minor league hockey teams in Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, and Toledo.

The Cincinnati Reds (traditionally short for Redstockings) were the first professionally organized baseball team, playing their first season in 1869. Their record was 64–0. The Reds won the World Series in 1919, 1940, 1975, 1976, and 1990. The Indians won the World Series in 1920 and 1948. In 1995, the Indians won their first American League pennant since 1954, but lost to the Atlanta Braves in the World Series. They returned to the Series in 1997, this time losing to the Florida Marlins. The original Cleveland Browns, who moved to Baltimore in 1995, won four NFL titles, football's championship prior to the Super Bowl, the last in 1964. An expansion or relocation NFL team began play as the Browns in a new stadium in Cleveland beginning in 1999. The Bengals won the American Football Conference Championship in both 1981 and 1988, but lost each year's Super Bowl.

Akron has been headquarters for the Professional Bowlers Association (PBA) since its founding in 1958. The PBA's top tournament is played there each year, and the PBA Hall of Fame is also located in Akron. The NEC Invitational is played annually in Akron, and the Memorial Golf Tournament in Dublin.

Major horse-racing tracks include Cleveland's Thistledown, Cincinnati's River Downs, Columbus's Scioto Downs, and other tracks at Toledo, Lebanon, Grove City, and Northfield. The Cleveland Gold Cup race is held annually at Thistledown, as is the Ohio Derby. The Little Brown Jug classic for three-year-old pacers takes place every year at the Delaware Fairgrounds, and the Ohio State race for two-year-old trotters is held during the state fair at Columbus.

Several new facilities have been constructed, including the new Cleveland Browns Stadium in 1999, Jacobs Field in 1994 (home of the Indians), Columbus Crew Stadium, and most recently, the Great American Ballpark in Cincinnati (2003). The Cincinnati Reds make it their home park.

In collegiate sports, Ohio State University has long been a football powerhouse, winning over 25 Big Ten titles. Ohio State won

the Rose Bowl in 1950, 1955, 1958, 1969, 1974, and 1997. The Buckeyes were named national champions in 1942, 1954 (with UCLA), 1957 (with Auburn), 1968, and in 2003 after upsetting Miami (FL) in the Fiesta Bowl. Ohio State also has won National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championships in baseball, basketball, fencing, golf, gymnastics, and swimming, while Cincinnati and Dayton universities have had highly successful basketball teams. The Pro Football Hall of Fame is located in Canton, where the sport was first organized professionally in 1920.

Other annual sporting events include the grand tournament of the American Trapshooting Association in Vandalia, the Grand Prix or Cleveland Indy car race, and the All-American Soap Box Derby in Akron, a nationally covered event in which 9- to 15-year-olds compete.

49 FAMOUS OHIOANS

Ohio has been the native state of seven US presidents and the residence of another. Inventions by Ohioans include the incandescent light, the arc light, and the airplane.

William Henry Harrison (b. Virginia, 1773–1841), the ninth US president, came to Ohio as a US Army ensign in territorial times. After serving in the Indian wars under Gen. Anthony Wayne, he became secretary of the Northwest Territory. As the territorial delegate to Congress, he fostered the Harrison Land Act, which stimulated settlement of the public domain. Named territorial governor in 1800, Harrison conducted both warfare and peace negotiations with the Indians. After the defeat of British and Indian forces in 1813, he became known as the “Washington of the West.” After settling at North Bend on the Ohio River, he began a political career that carried him to the White House in 1841. Harrison caught a chill from a cold March wind and died of pneumonia exactly one month after his inauguration.

From 1869 to 1881, the White House was occupied by three Ohioans. All were Republicans who had served with distinction as Union Army generals. The first, Ulysses Simpson Grant (Hiram Ulysses Grant, 1822–85), the 18th US president, was an Ohio farm boy educated at West Point. After service in the Mexican War, he left the US Army, having been charged with intemperance. He emerged from obscurity in 1861, when he was assigned to an Illinois regiment. Grant rose quickly in command; after victories at Shiloh and Vicksburg, he was commissioned major general. In 1864, he directed the Virginia campaign that ended with Confederate surrender, and this rump, slouching, laconic man became the nation’s hero. In 1868, he was elected president, and he was reelected in 1872. His second term was rocked with financial scandals, though none were directly connected to Grant. After leaving the presidency in 1877, he went bankrupt, and to discharge his debts, he wrote his memoirs. That extraordinary book was completed four days before his death from throat cancer in 1885. Grant is buried in a monumental tomb in New York City.

Rutherford B. Hayes (1822–93), the 19th US president, was born in Delaware, Ohio, and educated at Kenyon College and Harvard Law School. Following Army service, he was elected to Congress, and in 1876 became the Republican presidential nominee. In a close and disputed election, he defeated New York’s Governor Samuel J. Tilden. Hayes chose not to run for re-election, returning instead to Ohio to work on behalf of humanitarian causes.

In 1893, Hayes died in Fremont, where the Hayes Memorial was created—the first presidential museum and library in the nation.

James A. Garfield (1831–81), 20th US president, was born in a log cabin in northern Ohio. Between school terms, he worked as a farmhand and a mule driver on the Ohio Canal. After holding several Civil War commands, he served in Congress for 18 years. Elected president in 1880, he held office but a few months; he was shot by a disappointed office seeker in the Washington, DC, railroad station on 2 July and died 11 weeks later.

Benjamin Harrison (1833–1901), 23rd US president and grandson of William Henry Harrison, was born in North Bend. After graduation from Miami University, he studied law and began to practice in Indianapolis. Military command in the Civil War was followed by service in the US Senate and the Republican presidential nomination in 1888. As president, Harrison gave impetus to westward expansion, moved toward annexation of Hawaii, and enlarged the civil-service system.

US presidents in the 20th century include three more native Ohioans. William McKinley (1843–1901) was born in Niles. Elected in 1896 as the 25th president, he established the gold standard and maintained tariff protection for US manufactures. Early in his second term, while greeting a throng of people, he was shot to death by a young anarchist. William Howard Taft (1857–1930), of Cincinnati, was the 27th US president. He gained a national reputation in 1904 as President Theodore Roosevelt’s secretary of war; five years later, he succeeded Roosevelt in the White House. Defeated in 1912, Taft then left Washington for a law professorship at Yale. In 1921, under President Warren G. Harding (1865–1923), he became US chief justice, serving in that office until a month before his death. Harding, the last Ohioan to win the White House, was born in Blooming Grove. He went into politics from journalism, after serving as editor of the *Marion Star*. After eight years in the US Senate, he was a dark-horse candidate for the Republican presidential nomination in 1920. He won the election from James M. Cox (1870–1957), another Ohio journalist-politician, and became the 29th US president. Harding, who died in office, was surrounded by graft and corruption in his own cabinet.

Three US vice presidents were natives of Ohio. Thomas A. Hendricks (1819–85) was elected on the Democratic ticket with Grover Cleveland in 1884. Charles W. Fairbanks (1852–1918) served from 1905 to 1909 under Theodore Roosevelt. Charles Gates Dawes (1865–1951) became vice president under Calvin Coolidge in 1925, the same year the Dawes Plan for reorganizing German finances brought him the Nobel Peace Prize; from 1929 to 1932, he served as US ambassador to Great Britain.

Three Ohioans served as chief justice on the Supreme Court: Salmon P. Chase (b. New Hampshire, 1808–73), Morrison R. Waite (b. Connecticut, 1816–88), and Taft. Most notable among nearly 40 cabinet officers from Ohio were Secretary of State Lewis Cass (b. New Hampshire, 1783–1866), Treasury Secretaries Chase and John Sherman (1823–1900), and Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton (1814–69). William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91) was a Union general in the Civil War whose Georgia campaign in 1864 helped effect the surrender of the Confederacy. Although disappointed in his quest for the presidency, US Senator Robert A. Taft (1889–1953) was an enduring figure, best remembered for his authorship of the Taft-Hartley Labor Management Relations Act of 1947.

Nobel Prize winners from Ohio include Dawes and physicists Arthur Compton (1892–1962) and Donald Glaser (b.1926). Notable Pulitzer Prize winners include novelist Louis Bromfield (1896–1956), dramatist Russell Crouse (1893–1966), historian Paul Herman Buck (1899–1979), and historian and biographer Arthur Schlesinger Jr. (b.1917). Ohio writers of enduring fame are novelists William Dean Howells (1837–1920), Zane Grey (1875–1939), and Sherwood Anderson (1876–1941), whose short story collection *Winesburg, Ohio* was set in his hometown of Clyde; poets Paul Laurence Dunbar (1872–1906) and Hart Crane (1899–1932); and humorist James Thurber (1894–1961). Toni Morrison (b.1931), winner of the 1988 Pulitzer Prize for literature and the 1993 Nobel Prize for literature, was born in Lorain, Ohio. Among Ohio's eminent journalists are Whitelaw Reid (1837–1912), satirists David R. Locke (1833–88) and Ambrose Bierce (1842–1914), columnist O. O. McIntyre (1884–1938), newsletter publisher W. M. Kiplinger (1891–1967), and James Reston (b.Scotland, 1909–95), an editor and columnist for the *New York Times* along with author-commentator Lowell Thomas (1892–1981). Important in the art world were painters Thomas Cole (b.England, 1801–48), Frank Duveneck (b.Kentucky, 1848–1919), and George Bellows (1882–1925), as well as architects Cass Gilbert (1859–1934) and Philip Johnson (1906–2005). Defense lawyer Clarence Darrow (1857–1938) was also an Ohioan.

Ohio educators whose books taught reading, writing, and arithmetic to the nation's schoolchildren were William Holmes McGuffey (b.Pennsylvania, 1800–73), Platt R. Spencer (1800–64), and Joseph Ray (1807–65). In higher education, Horace Mann (b.Massachusetts, 1796–1859) was the first president of innovative Antioch College, and William Rainey Harper (1856–1906) founded the University of Chicago.

Several Ohio-born inventor-scientists have furthered the nation's industrial progress. Thomas A. Edison (1847–1931) produced the incandescent lamp, the phonograph, and the movie camera. Charles Brush (1849–1929) invented the arc light. John H. Patterson (1844–1922) helped develop the cash register. The Wright brothers, Orville (1871–1948) and Wilbur (b.Indiana, 1867–1912), made the first flight in a powered aircraft. Charles F. Kettering (1876–1958) invented the automobile self-starter. Ohio's leading industrialist was John D. Rockefeller (b.New York, 1839–1937), founder of Standard Oil of Ohio. Harvey S. Firestone (1868–1938) started the tire company that bears his name. Edward "Eddie" Rickenbacker (1890–1973), an ace pilot in World War I, was president of Eastern Airlines.

The most notable Ohioans in the entertainment field are marks-woman Annie Oakley (Phoebe Anne Oakley Mozee, 1860–1926);

movie actors Clark Gable (1901–60) and Roy Rogers (Leonard Slye, 1912–98); movie director Stephen Spielberg (b.1947); comedian Bob Hope (Leslie Townes Hope, b.England, 1903); actors Paul Newman (b.1925), Hal Holbrook (b.1925), and Joel Grey (b.1932); jazz pianist Art Tatum (1910–56); and composer Henry Mancini (1924–94).

Leading sports figures from Ohio are boxing champion Jim Jeffries (1875–1953), racing driver Barney Oldfield (1878–1946), baseball pitcher Cy Young (1867–1955), baseball executive Branch Rickey (1881–1965), baseball star Peter "Pete" Rose (b.1941), who broke Ty Cobb's record for the most hits, track star Jesse Owens (b.Alabama, 1912–80), jockey George Edward "Eddie" Arcaro (1916–97), and golfer Jack Nicklaus (b.1940).

Astronauts from Ohio include John Glenn (b.1921), the first American to orbit Earth, who was elected US senator from Ohio in 1974; and Neil Armstrong (b.1930), the first man to walk on the moon.

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OKLAHOMA

State of Oklahoma

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Choctaw Indian words *okla humma*, meaning “land of the red people.” **NICKNAME:** The Sooner State. **CAPITAL:** Oklahoma City. **ENTERED UNION:** 16 November 1907 (46th). **SONG:** “Oklahoma!” **MOTTO:** *Labor omnia vincit* (Labor conquers all things). **FLAG:** On a blue field, a peace pipe and an olive branch cross an Osage warrior’s shield, which is decorated with small crosses and from which seven eagle feathers descend. The word “Oklahoma” appears below. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Each point of a five-pointed star incorporates the emblem of a Native American nation: (clockwise from top) Chickasaw, Choctaw, Seminole, Creek, and Cherokee. In the center, a frontiersman and Native American shake hands before the goddess of justice; behind them are symbols of progress, including a farm, train, and mill. Surrounding the large star are 45 small ones and the words “Great Seal of the State of Oklahoma 1907.” **BIRD:** Scissor-tailed flycatcher. **FISH:** White bass (sand bass). **FLOWER:** Mistletoe. **TREE:** Redbud. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Confederate Memorial Day, May 10; National Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the following day; Christmas Day, 25 December and the day following. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the western south-central United States, Oklahoma ranks 18th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Oklahoma is 69,956 sq mi (181,186 sq km), of which land takes up 68,655 sq mi (177,817 sq km) and inland water 1,301 sq mi (3,369 sq km). Oklahoma extends 464 mi (747 km) E–W including the panhandle in the NW, which is about 165 mi (266 km) long. The maximum N–S extension is 230 mi (370 km).

Oklahoma is bordered on the N by Colorado and Kansas; on the E by Missouri and Arkansas; on the S and SW by Texas (with part of the line formed by the Red River); and on the extreme W by New Mexico. The total estimated boundary length of Oklahoma is 1,581 mi (2,544 km). The state’s geographic center is in Oklahoma County, 8 mi (13 km) N of Oklahoma City.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The land of Oklahoma rises gently to the west from an altitude of 289 ft (88 m) at Little River in the southeastern corner (the lowest point in the state) to a height of 4,973 ft (1,517 m) at Black Mesa, the highest elevation, on the tip of the panhandle. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,300 ft (397 m). Four mountain ranges cross this Great Plains state: the Boston Mountains (part of the Ozark Plateau) in the northeast, the Quachitas in the southeast, the Arbuckles in the south-central region, and the Wichitas in the southwest. Much of the northwest belongs to the High Plains, while northeastern Oklahoma is mainly a region of buttes and valleys.

Not quite two-thirds of the state is drained by the Arkansas River, and the remainder by the Red River. Within Oklahoma, the Arkansas is joined by the Verdigris, Grand (Neosho), and Illinois rivers from the north and northeast, and by the Cimarron and Canadian rivers from the northwest and west. The Red River,

which marks most of the state’s southern boundary, is joined by the Washita, Salt Fork, Blue, Kiamichi, and many smaller rivers. There are few natural lakes but many artificial ones, of which the largest is Lake Eufaula, covering 102,500 acres (41,500 hectares).

³ CLIMATE

Oklahoma has a continental climate with cold winters and hot summers. Normal daily average temperatures in Oklahoma City range from 37°F (2°C) in January to 82°F (27°C) in July. The record low temperature of -27°F (-33°C) was set at Watts on 18 January 1930; the record high, 120°F (49°C), occurred at Tipton on 27 June 1994.

Dry, sunny weather generally prevails throughout the state. Precipitation varies from an average of 15 in (38 cm) annually in the panhandle to over 50 in (127 cm) in the southeast. Average annual precipitation in Oklahoma City is about 33.3 in (84 cm). Snowfall averages 9 in (23 cm) a year in Oklahoma City, which is also one of the windiest cities in the United States, with an average annual wind speed of 13 mph (20 km/hr).

Oklahoma is tornado-prone. One of the most destructive windstorms was the tornado that tore through Ellis, Woods, and Woodward counties on 9 April 1947, killing 101 people and injuring 782 others.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Grasses grow in abundance in Oklahoma. Bluestem, buffalo, sand lovegrass, and grama grasses are native, with the bluestem found mostly in the eastern and central regions, and buffalo grass most common in the western counties, known as the “short grass country.” Deciduous hardwoods stand in eastern Oklahoma, and red and yellow cactus blossoms brighten the Black Mesa area in the northwest. The eastern prairie fringed orchid was listed as threat-

ened in 2006; there were no plant species listed as endangered that year in Oklahoma.

The white-tailed deer is found in all counties, and Rio Grande wild turkeys are hunted across much of the state. Pronghorn antelope inhabit the panhandle area, and elk survive in the Wichita Mountains Wildlife Refuge, where a few herds of American buffalo (bison) are also preserved. The bobwhite quail, ring-necked pheasant, and prairie chicken are common game birds. Native sport fish include largemouth, smallmouth, white, and spotted bass; catfish; crappie; and sunfish.

In April 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 18 species of animals (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered. These included three species of bat (Ozark big-eared, Indiana, and gray), bald eagle, whooping crane, black-capped vireo, red-cockaded woodpecker, Eskimo curlew, and Neosho madtom.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Oklahoma Department of Environment Quality has overall responsibility for coordinating all pollution control activities by other state agencies and for developing a comprehensive water quality management program for Oklahoma. The Oklahoma Conservation Commission is responsible for conservation of renewable natural resources through land use planning, small watershed upstream flood control, reclamation of abandoned mine land, water quality monitoring and soil and water conservation, as well as environmental education and wetlands conservation. The Department of Wildlife Conservation manages wildlife resources and habitat specifically for hunters, anglers, and others who appreciate wildlife.

The Department of Health is responsible for the monitoring of air quality standards; the enforcement of regulations covering control of industrial and solid waste; the enforcement of regulations covering radioactive materials at the Kerr-McGee processing facility at Gore and elsewhere; and the maintenance of standards at all public waterworks and sewer systems. The Water Resources Board has broad statutory authority to protect the state's waters.

Toxic industrial wastes remain an environmental concern, and old mines in the Tar Creek area of northeastern Oklahoma still exude groundwater contaminated by zinc, iron, and cadmium. In 2003, 30 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, Oklahoma had 165 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 10 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006; among these were Tar Creek in Ottawa County and Tinker Air Force Base. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$8.8 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$10.7 million for wastewater system improvements. A special grant of \$4.96 million was awarded for the Oklahoma Plan Demonstration Project in Tar Creek, Ottawa County, which is designed to offer demonstration programs for land restoration and environmental management.

Lands devastated by erosion during the droughts of the 1930s were purchased by the federal government and turned over to the Soil Conservation Service for restoration. When grasses were firmly established in the mid-1950s, the land was turned over to the US Forest Service and is now leased for grazing. In 2003, the state had about 890,000 acres of wetlands—about 2% of the land.

6 POPULATION

Oklahoma ranked 28th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 3,547,884 in 2005, an increase of 2.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Oklahoma's population grew from 3,145,585 to 3,450,654, an increase of 9.7%. The population is projected to reach 3.6 million by 2015 and 3.8 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 51.3 persons per sq mi. In 2004 the median age in Oklahoma was 36.5; 24.4% of the on under age 18 while 13.2% was age 65 or older.

The largest city is Oklahoma City, which in 2004 had an estimated 528,042 inhabitants in the city proper and an estimated population of 1,144,327 in the metropolitan statistical area. Tulsa, the second-largest city, had an estimated population of 383,764 in the city proper and a 881,815 in the metropolitan area. Norman ranked third with a population of 100,923 in 2004. The Lawton metropolitan area had a population of about 110,514.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

According to the 1990 Census, Oklahoma had more American Indians—252,420—than any other state, but by 1998 its estimated American Indian population of 281,000 had been surpassed by California's (292,000), and it remained in second place in 2000, with an Indian population of 273,230, or 7.9% of the state's total population—the fourth-highest percentage ranking in the United States. Oklahoma was also home to some of the nation's largest Indian reservations, including those of the Creek, Cherokee, Chickasaw, and Choctaw Indians. By 2004, the state's American Indian population had increased to 8.1% of the total population.

Black slaves came to Oklahoma (then known as Indian Territory) with their Indian masters after Congress forced the resettlement of Indians from the southeast to lands west of the Mississippi River in 1830. By the time of the Civil War, there were 7,000 free Negroes in Oklahoma. After the depression of the 1930s, blacks left the farms and small towns and concentrated in Oklahoma City and Tulsa. In 2000, the black population of 260,968 was smaller than the American Indian population. It remained thus in 2004, when the black population accounted for 7.7% of the state's total population.

Mexicans came to Oklahoma during the 19th century as laborers on railroads and ranches, and in coal mines. Later they worked in the cotton fields until the depression of the 1930s and subsequent mechanization reduced the need for seasonal labor. Today, most first- and second-generation Mexicans live in Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Lawton. In 2000, Oklahomans who were classified as Hispanics or Latinos numbered 179,304 and represented 5.2% of the state's total population. Of this total, 132,813 were Mexican. In 2004, 6.3% of the state's population was Hispanic or Latino.

Italians, Czechs, Germans, Poles, Britons, Irish, and others of European stock also came to Oklahoma during the 19th century. Foreign immigration has been small since that time, however, and in 2000, less than 4% of the population consisted of the foreign born (who numbered 131,747). Persons claiming at least one specific ancestry group in 2000 included English, 291,553; German, 435,245; and Irish, 354,802. In 2000, the Asian population numbered 46,767 and there were 2,372 Pacific Islanders. In 2004, 1.5% of the population was Asian, and 0.1% of the population was Pa-

cific Islander. A full 4% of the population reported origin of two or more races that year.

⁸LANGUAGES

Once the open hunting ground of the Osage, Comanche, and Apache Indians, what is now Oklahoma later welcomed the deported Cherokee and other transferred eastern tribes. The diversity of tribal and linguistic backgrounds is reflected in numerous place-names such as Oklahoma itself, Kiamichi, and Muskogee. Almost equally diverse is Oklahoma English, with its uneven blending of features of North Midland, South Midland, and Southern dialects.

In 2000, 2,977,187 Oklahomans—92.6% of the resident population five years or older—spoke only English at home, down from 95% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “Other Native North American languages” includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik. The category “Other Asian languages” includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	3,215,719	100.0
Speak only English	2,977,187	92.6
Speak a language other than English	238,532	7.4
Speak a language other than English	238,532	7.4
Spanish or Spanish Creole	141,060	4.4
Other Native North American languages	18,871	0.6
German	13,445	0.4
Vietnamese	11,330	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	8,258	0.3
Chinese	6,413	0.2
Korean	3,948	0.1
Arabic	3,265	0.1
Other Asian languages	3,134	0.1
Tagalog	2,888	0.1
Japanese	2,546	0.1
African languages	2,546	0.1

⁹RELIGIONS

Evangelical Protestant groups predominate in Oklahoma with adherents representing about 41.4% of the total population in 2000. This group was influential in keeping the state “dry”—that is, banning the sale of all alcoholic beverages—until 1959 and resisting legalization of public drinking until 29 counties voted to permit the sale of liquor by the drink in 1985.

The leading Protestant group in 2000 was the Southern Baptist Convention with 967,223 adherents; in 2002 there were 16,563 new baptized members. Other leading Evangelical Protestant denominations in 2000 included the Assemblies of God, 88,301 adherents; the Churches of Christ, 83,047; the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ), 53,729; and the Christian Churches, 42,708. Free Will Baptists, Nazarenes, Missouri Synod Lutherans, and those of various other Pentecostal traditions are also fairly well represented. The largest Mainline Protestant denominations are the United Methodist Church, with 253,375 adherents (in 2004), and the Presbyterian Church USA, with 35,211 adherents (in 2000) In 2006, there were 38,011 members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons) in 75 congregations.

In 2004, there were about 169,045 Roman Catholics in the state, of which 112,951 reside in the archdiocese of Oklahoma City. In 2000, there were 6,145 Muslims and about 5,050 Jews throughout the state. About 39.2% of the population did not claim any religious affiliation.

Oral Roberts, a popular minister, has established a college and faith-healing hospital in Tulsa, and his “Tower of Faith” broadcasts by radio and television have made him a well-known preacher throughout the United States. A Mormon temple was built in Oklahoma City in 2000. The offices of the Unitarian Universalist Christian Fellowship are in Turley.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

In 1930, the high point for railroad transportation in Oklahoma, there were 6,678 mi (10,747 km) of railroad track in the state. In 2003, there were 3,853 rail mi (6,201 km) of track. As of that same year, there were three Class I railroads operating in Oklahoma: the Burlington Northern Santa Fe; the Union Pacific; and the Kansas City Southern. Together, they operated 2,536 mi (4,82 km) of right-of-way in the state as of 2003. As of 2006, Amtrak provided passenger service to five stations in Oklahoma via its Oklahoma City to Fort Worth Heartland Flyer train. Inter-urban transit needs, formerly served by streetcars (one of the most popular routes operated between Oklahoma City and Norman), are now supplied by buses.

The Department of Transportation is responsible for construction and maintenance of the state road system, which in 2004 included state roads and highways, and interstate highways. The main east–west highways are I-44, connecting Tulsa and Oklahoma City, and I-40; the major north–south route is I-35, which links Oklahoma City with Topeka, Kansas and Dallas–Ft. Worth, Texas. Overall in 2004, Oklahoma had 112,713 mi (181,467 km) of roadway. A total of some 3.156 million motor vehicles were registered in the state that same year, including 1.622 million automobiles and 1.448 million trucks of all types. There were 2,369,621 licensed drivers in 2004.

The opening of the McClellan–Kerr Arkansas River Navigation System in 1971 linked Oklahoma with the Mississippi River and thus to Gulf coast ports. Tulsa, Port of Catoosa, is the chief port on the system, handling 2.159 million tons of cargo in 2004. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 4.895 million tons. In 2004, Oklahoma had 150 mi (241 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, Oklahoma had a total of 439 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 346 airports, 91 heliports, 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 1 seaplane base. Will Rogers World Airport in Oklahoma City and Tulsa International Airport are the state’s largest airports. In 2004, Will Rogers had 1,695,096 passengers enplaned, while Tulsa International had 1,462,799 enplanements.

¹¹HISTORY

There is evidence—chiefly from the Spiro Mound in eastern Oklahoma, excavated in 1930—that an advanced Indian civilization inhabited the region around AD 900–1100. By the time the Spanish conquistadores, led by Hernando de Soto and Francisco Vasquez de Coronado, arrived there in the 16th century, however, only a few scattered tribes remained. Two centuries later, French trappers moved up the rivers of Oklahoma.

Except for the panhandle, which remained a no-man's-land until 1890, all of present-day Oklahoma became part of US territory with the Louisiana Purchase in 1803. Under the Indian Removal Act of 1830, Indian tribes from the southeastern United States were resettled in what was then known as Indian Country. Although 4,000 Indians died along the "Trail of Tears" (from Georgia to Oklahoma) between the time of removal and the Civil War, the Five Civilized Tribes—Cherokees, Chickasaw, Choctaw, Creek, and Seminole—prospered in the new land. The eastern region that they settled, comprising not quite half of modern Oklahoma and known as Indian Territory since the early 19th century (although not formally organized under that name until 1890), offered rich soil and luxurious vegetation. White settlers also came to farm the land, but their methods depleted the soil, preparing the way for the dust bowl of the 1930s. Meanwhile, the increasing movement of people and goods between Santa Fe and New Orleans spurred further growth in the region. Military posts such as Ft. Gibson, Ft. Supply, and Ft. Towson were established between 1824 and the 1880s, with settlements growing up around them.

During the early Civil War period, the Five Civilized Tribes—some of whose members were slaveholders—allied with the Confederacy. After Union troops captured Ft. Gibson in 1863, the Union Army controlled one-half of Indian Territory. From the end of the Civil War to the 1880s, the federal government removed the eastern tribes from certain lands that were especially attractive to the railroads and to interested white settlers. Skirmishes between the Indians and the federal troops occurred, culminating in a massacre of Cheyenne Indians on 27 November 1868 by Colonel George Custer and his 7th Cavalry at the Battle of the Washita.

Amid a clamor for Indian lands, Congress opened western Oklahoma—formerly reserved for the Cherokee, Cheyenne, Fox, and other tribes—to homesteaders in 1889. Present-day Oklahoma City, Norman, Guthrie, Edmond, and Stillwater represent the eastern boundary for the 1889 "run" on Oklahoma lands; eight more runs were to follow. The greatest was in 1893, when about 100,000 people stormed onto the newly opened Cherokee outlet. The drive to get a land claim was fierce, and thousands of "Sooners" staked their claims before the land was officially opened. The western region became Oklahoma Territory, governed by a territorial legislature and a federally appointed governor in 1890; Guthrie was named the capital. Most of eastern Oklahoma continued to be governed by the Five Civilized Tribes.

Although an Oklahoma statehood bill was introduced in Congress as early as 1892, the Five Civilized Tribes resisted all efforts to unite Indian Territory until their attempt to form their own state was defeated in 1905. Congress passed an enabling act in June 1906, and Oklahoma became the 46th state on 16 November 1907 after a vote of the residents of both territories. Oklahoma City was named the state capital in 1910.

When President Theodore Roosevelt signed the statehood proclamation, Oklahoma's population was about 1,500,000—75% rural, 25% urban—most of them drawn by the state's agricultural and mineral resources. The McAlester coal mines had opened in 1871, and lead and zinc were being mined in Ottawa County. But it was oil that made the state prosperous. Prospecting began in 1882, and the first commercial well was drilled at Bartlesville in 1897. The famous Glenn Pool gusher, near Tulsa, was struck in 1905. Oil wells were producing more than 40 million barrels an-

nually when Oklahoma entered the Union, and the state led all others in oil production until 1928.

Generally, the decade of the 1920s was a tumultuous period for Oklahoma. A race riot in Tulsa in 1921 was put down by the National Guard. (In February 2001, a state commission recommended that the surviving victims be compensated for what has been called the nation's most violent instance of racial oppression. The recommendation launched an intense debate over whether today's taxpayers should have to pay restitution for yesterday's crimes.) Also in 1921, the Ku Klux Klan claimed close to 100,000 Oklahomans. The Klan was outlawed when Governor John C. Walton declared martial law in 1923, during a period of turmoil and violence that culminated in Walton's impeachment and conviction on charges of incompetence, corruption, and abuse of power. The 1930s brought a destructive drought, dust storms, and an exodus of "Okies," many of them to California. Colorful Governor William "Alfalfa Bill" Murray led the call for federal relief for the distressed dust bowl region—though he insisted on his right to administer the funds. When Oklahoma oil fields were glutting the market at 15 cents a barrel, Murray placed 3,106 producing wells under martial law from August 1931 to April 1933. Kansas, New Mexico, and Texas also agreed to control their oil production and under the leadership of Governor E. W. Marland, the Interstate Oil Compact was created in 1936 to conserve petroleum and stabilize prices.

Oklahoma's first native-born governor, Robert Kerr (later a senator for 14 years) held the statehouse during World War II and brought the state national recognition by promoting Oklahoma as a site for military, industrial, and conservation projects. Under early postwar governors Roy Turner, Johnston Murray, and Raymond Gary, tax reductions attracted industry, major highways were built, a loyalty oath for state employees was declared unconstitutional, and Oklahoma's higher educational facilities were integrated. The term of Governor Howard Edmondson saw the repeal of prohibition in 1959, the establishment of merit and central purchasing systems, and the introduction of a state income tax withholding plan.

Oil and gas again brought increased wealth to the state in the 1960s, 1970s, and early 1980s, as state revenues from oil and gas increased from \$72 million in 1972 to \$745 million in 1982. Nearly \$1 billion was spent for new highways, schools, and state offices; new police were hired; and teacher salaries were raised to nationally competitive levels. Unemployment fell to 3.6% in 1981 while an influx of job seekers from other states made Oklahoma one of the fastest-growing states in the nation in the early 1980s.

In 1983, as oil prices fell in the face of a growing worldwide oil glut, the oil boom suddenly ended. Between 1982 and 1986, jobs in the extraction of oil and gas dropped by 50%. The failure of 24 banks, home mortgage foreclosures, and mounting distress among the state's farmers added to Oklahoma's financial woes. Falling state revenues and a balanced budget requirement in the state constitution compelled Governor George Nigh in 1983 to cut appropriations and to preside over a series of tax increases that lost for Oklahoma its claim to one of the lowest tax burdens in the nation.

The oil bust did not entirely devastate the Oklahoma economy. Those industries with a national rather than a regional base, such as distribution, transportation, food processing, and light man-

ufacturing, continued to prosper, and the state's leaders made a concerted effort to diversify Oklahoma's industries even further by attracting both private enterprise and defense contracts. By the end of the decade, the economy had begun to recover, and recovery continued into the 1990s. By 1999 the unemployment rate had dropped to 3.4%, below the national average. Poverty was on the decline in the state: 15.6% of Oklahomans lived below the federal poverty level in 1990; in 1998 the rate dipped to 14.1%. But with the tenth-lowest median income in the nation, the state's income levels lagged behind, causing some analysts to predict that Oklahoma might have problems competing in a strong economy.

On 19 April 1995, the Alfred P. Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City was destroyed in a bomb blast that claimed 168 lives and constituted the most serious act of terrorism in the history of the United States until the events of 11 September 2001. Governor Frank Keating was commended for his strong leadership during the crisis. A memorial to the victims was unveiled in April 2000, the five-year anniversary of the tragedy. Timothy McVeigh was executed in 2001 for his part in the Oklahoma bombing.

In 2003 Oklahoma faced its largest budget deficit in state history (\$600 million). Democratic Governor Brad Henry pledged to eliminate taxes on retirement income for senior citizens, provide access to affordable prescription drugs, retain jobs in the state, improve Oklahoma schools, and increase teachers' salaries. Henry proposed a state lottery to fund education; voters overwhelmingly passed the lottery in November 2004. He secured a state vote to fund healthcare initiatives through an increase in the tobacco tax. Henry promoted tort reform, Medicaid screening for breast and cervical cancer, voluntary relocation assistance for the troubled Tar Creek region, and expansion of pre-school programs. He secured a workers' compensation reform package that business groups applauded, worked on funding for road and bridge repair, created a successful anti-methamphetamine program, and ensured that assistance went to Oklahoma National Guard members and their families. The projected 2005 fiscal year budget gap in Oklahoma was \$5.3 billion.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Oklahoma's first and only constitution became effective on 16 November 1907. By January 2005, that document had been amended 171 times (including five amendments that were subsequently nullified by the courts).

The Oklahoma legislature consists of two chambers, a 48-member Senate and a 101-member House of Representatives. To serve in the legislature one must be a qualified voter, US citizen, and district resident; also, senators must be at least 25 years old and representatives at least 21. Senators hold office for four years, representatives for two. The legislature meets annually, beginning on the first Monday in February; the regular session ends on the last Friday in May. Special sessions may be called by a vote of two-thirds of the members of each house. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$38,400, unchanged from 1999.

State elected officials are the governor, lieutenant governor, attorney general, auditor, state treasurer, superintendent of public instruction, commissioner of labor, and commissioner of insurance, all of whom serve four-year terms, and three corporation commissioners, who serve staggered six-year terms. The governor is limited to serving two consecutive terms. A candidate for gov-

ernor must be at least 31 years old and a qualified voter in Oklahoma. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$110,298.

Any member of either house may introduce legislation. A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned by the governor for five days while the legislature is in session, or if passed over the governor's veto by two-thirds of the elected members of each house (three-fourths in the case of emergency bills). A bill dies after 15 days if the governor takes no action and the legislature has adjourned. Constitutional amendments may be placed on the ballot by majority vote in both houses, by initiative petition of 15% of the electorate, or by constitutional convention. To be ratified, proposed amendments must receive a majority vote of the electorate.

To vote in Oklahoma, one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a state resident. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incapacitated by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The history of the two major political groups in Oklahoma, the Democratic and Republican parties, dates back to 1890, when Indian Territory and Oklahoma Territory were separately organized. Indian Territory was dominated by Democrats, reflecting the influence of southern immigrants, while Oklahoma Territory was primarily Republican because of immigration from the northern states. When the two territories joined for admission to the Union in 1907, Democrats outnumbered Republicans, as they have ever since. Democrats have continued to dominate the lesser state offices, but the Republicans won the governorship three times between 1962 and 1990, and the Republican presidential nominee out-pollied his Democratic counterpart in ten of twelve presidential elections between 1948 and 1992. The best showing by a minor party in a recent presidential race was 25% garnered by Independent Ross Perot in 1992.

Oklahomans cast 60% of their popular vote for Republican George W. Bush in the 2000 presidential election, and 38% for Al Gore. In 2004, 65.6% of the vote went for the incumbent President Bush, with 32.4% to the challenger, Democrat John Kerry. In 2004 there were 2,143,000 registered voters. In 1998, 57% of registered

Oklahoma Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	OKLAHOMA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	10	*Truman (D)	452,782	2687,817
1952	8	*Eisenhower (R)	430,939	518,045
1956	8	*Eisenhower (R)	385,581	473,769
1960	8	Nixon (R)	370,111	533,039
1964	8	*Johnson (D)	519,834	412,665
1968	8	*Nixon (R)	301,658	449,697
1972	8	*Nixon (R)	247,147	759,025
1976	8	Ford (R)	532,442	545,708
1980	8	*Reagan (R)	402,026	695,570
1984	8	*Reagan (R)	385,080	861,530
1988	8	*Bush (R)	483,423	678,367
1992**	8	Bush (R)	473,066	592,929
1996***	8	Dole (R)	488,105	582,315
2000***	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	474,276	744,337
2004	7	*Bush, G. W. (R)	503,966	959,792

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 319,878 votes in 1992 and 130,788 votes in 1996.

voters were Democratic, 35% Republican, and 8% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had seven electoral votes in the 2000 presidential election, a loss of one vote over 2000.

Democrat Brad Henry was elected governor in 2002. Republican senator James Inhofe, first elected in a special election in 1994, was reelected to full terms in 1996 and 2002. Republican senator Don Nickles, first elected in 1980, was reelected in 1998 to a fourth term; in 2004, Republican Tom Coburn won a seat in the US Senate. In 2004, Oklahoma sent four Republicans and one Democrat to the US House of Representatives. In 2005, there were 26 Democrats and 20 Republicans in the state House, and 44 Democrats and 57 Republicans in the state Senate.

¹⁴LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, local governmental units in Oklahoma included 77 counties, 590 municipal governments, 544 public school districts and 560 special districts.

County government consists of three commissioners elected by districts, a county clerk, assessor, treasurer, sheriff, surveyor, and (in most counties) superintendent of schools. Towns of 1,000 residents or more may incorporate as cities. Any city of 2,000 or more people may vote to become a home-rule city, determining its own form of government, by adopting a home-rule charter. Cities electing not to adopt a home-rule charter operate under aldermanic, mayor-council, or council-manager systems. A large majority of home-rule cities have council-manager systems.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 140,324 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

¹⁵STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Oklahoma operates under state statute and executive order; the homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Oklahoma Department of Education, functioning under a six-member appointed Board of Education and an elected superintendent of public instruction, has responsibility for all phases of education through the first 12 grades. Postsecondary study is under the general authority of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education and other separate boards of regents associated with one or more institutions. Vocational and technical education, a federal-state cooperative program, is administered in Oklahoma under the Department of Career and Technology Education. The Department of Transportation has authority over the planning, construction, and maintenance of the state highway system. The Oklahoma Corporation Commission regulates transportation and transmission companies, public utilities, motor carriers, and the oil and gas industry, while the Oklahoma Aeronautics Commission participates in financing airports.

The Department of Health has as a major function the control and prevention of communicable diseases; it administers community health program funds and licenses most health-related facilities. The Department of Human Services oversees the care of neglected children, delinquent youths, and the developmentally disabled and operates various facilities and programs for the handicapped, the elderly, and the infirm.

Protective services are supplied through the Oklahoma Military Department, which administers the Army and Air National Guard; the Department of Corrections, overseeing the state penitentiary and reformatory, adult correctional centers, and community treatment centers; and the Department of Public Safety, with general safety and law enforcement responsibilities, among which are licensing drivers and patrolling the highways. Natural resource protection services are centered principally in the Oklahoma Conservation Commission. The Department of Wildlife Conservation administers the game and fish laws.

¹⁶JUDICIAL SYSTEM

In 1967, following some of the worst judicial scandals in the history of the state, in which one supreme court justice was imprisoned for income tax evasion and another impeached on charges of bribery and corruption, Oklahoma approved a constitutional amendment to reform the state's judicial system. Under the new provisions, the Supreme Court, the state's highest court, consists of nine justices initially elected to six-year terms, but with additional terms pursuant to nonpartisan, noncompetitive elections. If a justice is rejected by the voters, the vacancy is filled by gubernatorial appointment, subject to confirmation by the electorate. The court's appellate jurisdiction includes all civil cases (except those which it assigns to the courts of appeals), while its original jurisdiction extends to general supervisory control over all lesser courts and agencies created by law.

The highest appellate court for criminal cases is the Court of Criminal Appeals, a five-member body filled in the same manner as the Supreme Court. Courts of Civil Appeals, created by the legislature in 1968, are located in Tulsa and Oklahoma City. Each has six elective judges with powers to hear civil cases assigned to them by the Supreme Court. When final, their decisions are not appealable to any other state court, a system unique to Oklahoma.

District courts have original jurisdiction over all judicial matters and some review powers over administrative actions. There are 26 districts with 131 district judges who are elected to four-year terms. Municipal courts hear cases arising from local ordinances.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 23,319 prisoners were held in Oklahoma's state and federal prisons, an increase from 22,821 of 2.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,361 inmates were female, up from 2,320 or 1.8% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Oklahoma had an incarceration rate of 649 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Oklahoma in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 500.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 17,635 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 149,472 reported incidents or 4,242.1 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Oklahoma has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. However, should lethal injection be declared unconstitutional, electrocution would be authorized, and if electrocution was found to be unconstitutional, the law authorizes the use of a firing squad. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 80 executions, of which four were carried out in 2005 and one in 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, Oklahoma had 91 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Oklahoma spent \$75,847,874 on homeland security, an average of \$22 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 23,476 active-duty military personnel and 21,860 civilian personnel stationed in Oklahoma, the majority of whom were at Ft. Sill, near Lawton, the training facility for the Artillery Branch. A total of nearly \$1.5 billion in prime military contracts was received by local businesses in 2004. Defense Department payroll outlays were \$2.97 billion.

In 2003, 355,312 veterans were living in Oklahoma, of whom 45,491 saw service in World War II; 36,837 in the Korean conflict; 113,616 during the Vietnam era; and 59,264 during the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$1.2 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Oklahoma Department of Public Safety employed 808 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Early immigrants to what is now Oklahoma included explorers, adventurers, and traders who made the country conscious of the new territory, and Indian tribes forcibly removed from the East and Midwest. The interior plains of Oklahoma remained basically unchanged until white settlers came in the late 1880s.

Coal mining brought miners from Italy to the McAlester and Krebs area in the 1870s, and Poles migrated to Bartlesville to work in the lead and zinc smelters. British and Irish coal miners came to Indian Territory because they could earn higher wages there than in their native countries, and Czechs and Slovaks arrived from Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, and Texas when railroad construction began. Mexicans also worked as railroad laborers, ranch hands, and coal miners before statehood. The oil boom of the early 20th century brought an influx of workers from the eastern and Midwestern industrial regions. In 1907, the population of Oklahoma was 75% rural and 25% urban; by 1990, however, 67.7% of all inhabitants resided in urban areas. Oklahoma lost population during the 1930s because of dust bowl and drought conditions, and the trend toward out-migration continued after World War II; from 1940 through 1960, the net loss from migration was 653,000. Migration patterns were reversed, however, after 1960. From 1960 to 1970 nearly 21,000 more people moved into the state than out of it. In the period 1970–80, a total of 293,500 more people came than left, the migration accounting for nearly two-thirds of Oklahoma's total increase of 466,000 persons in that decade. From 1980 to 1983, Oklahoma ranked fourth among the states with a total net gain from migration of 186,000 people. From 1985 to 1990, a net migration loss of about 95,500 was reported. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 48,000 in domestic migration and 26,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,273 foreign immigrants arrived in Oklahoma. The state's overall population increased 6.4% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 36,546 and net internal migration was -15,418, for a net gain of 21,128 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Oklahoma participates in a number of regional intergovernmental agreements, among them the Arkansas River Compact, Arkan-

sas River Basin Compact, Canadian River Compact, Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Red River Compact, South Central Interstate Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern States Energy Board, Southern Regional Education Board, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, and the Central Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact. Federal grants in fiscal year 2005 totaled \$4.047 billion, an estimated \$4.197 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$4.424 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Primarily an agricultural state through the first half of the 20th century, Oklahoma has assumed a broader economic structure since the 1950s. Manufacturing heads the list of growth sectors, followed by wholesale and retail trade, services, finance, insurance, and real estate. Oil and gas extraction continues to play a major role. The oil industry boomed from the mid-1970s through the mid-1980s. In 1985, however, the boom ended. Prices dropped from \$27 a barrel to \$13 a barrel within a month in 1985. In 1998, gas and oil production was valued at only \$3.4 billion; one-third of what it was worth in the mid-1980s. Oklahoma's unemployment rate, which averaged about 3% in the early 1980s, jumped to 9% in 1983, and then fell to 7% in 1985, and rose again, to 8%, in 1986. Since then, the economy has undergone a slow but steady recovery. Unemployment was at 3.4% in 1999. Gains in manufacturing made up for the losses in mining. Manufacturing output, however, peaked in 1999, and by 2001 had fallen 9.2%. The state's overall growth rate, which accelerated from 3.5% in 1998 to 3.9% in 1999 to 6.5% in 2000, fell back to 3.2% in the national recession and slowdown of 2001. The main growth sectors in terms of output coming into the 21st century (1997 to 2001) were general services (up 26.8%), government (up 24.2%), financial services (up 2.5%) and trade (up 21.3%). Oklahoma's military installations, Fort Sill and Tinker Air Force Base, are two of the state's top five employers and with rising defense spending, and oil and gas prices, the state's economy is seen as heading upward.

In 2004, Oklahoma's gross state product (GSP) was \$107.600 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$11.981 billion or 11.1% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$10.494 billion (9.7% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance services at \$7.518 billion (6.9% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 303,135 small businesses in Oklahoma. Of the 77,027 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 75,058 or 97.4% were small companies. An estimated 9,263 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 5.2% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 8,018, down 4.9% from 2003. There were 659 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 7.7% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 761 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Oklahoma as the 10th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Oklahoma had a gross state product (GSP) of \$121 billion which accounted for 1.0% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 29 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Oklahoma had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$27,840. This ranked 40th in the United States and was 84% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.2%. Oklahoma had a total personal income (TPI) of \$98,095,384,000, which ranked 29th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.4% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.0%. Earnings of persons employed in Oklahoma increased from \$68,758,304,000 in 2003 to \$73,134,429,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$38,281 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 12.6% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Oklahoma numbered 1,757,900, with approximately 69,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.9%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,537,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Oklahoma was 9.4% in August 1986. The historical low was 2.7% in January 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.4% of the labor force was employed in construction; 18.3% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.5% in financial activities; 11.3% in professional and business services; 12.1% in education and health services; 8.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 20.5% in government. Data was unavailable for manufacturing.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 77,000 of Oklahoma's 1,432,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 5.4% of those so employed, down from 6.1% in 2004, well below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 91,000 workers (6.4%) in Oklahoma were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Oklahoma is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Oklahoma had a two-tiered state-mandated minimum wage rate. Employers with annual sales of more than \$100,000 came under the \$5.15 per hour rate, while all others came under a \$2.00 per hour rate. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.3% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Agriculture remains an important economic activity in Oklahoma, even though its relative share of personal income and employment has declined since 1950. Total farm income, estimated at \$5.04 billion, ranked 18th in the United States in 2005. Crop marketings contributed \$1.03 billion; livestock, \$4.01 billion.

As of 2004, Oklahoma had 83,500 farms and ranches covering 33,700,000 acres (13,640,000 hectares). The state ranked fifth in the United States for wheat production in 2004, with 164,500,000

bushels worth \$542.8 million. Peanut production ranked seventh in 2004, with 102,300,000 lb, valued at \$19,232,000. Other 2004 crop figures include sorghum for grain, 14,400,000 bushels, \$25,402,000; soybeans, 8,700,000 bushels, \$43,500,000; corn for grain, 30,000,000 bushels, \$75,000,000; and oats, 555,000 bushels, \$944,000.

Virtually all of Oklahoma's wheat production is located in the western half of the state; cotton (310,000 bales in 2004) is grown in the southwest corner. Sorghum-producing regions include the panhandle, central to southwestern Oklahoma, and the northeast corner of the state.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, there were 5.4 million cattle and calves, worth \$4.4 billion. During 2004, Oklahoma farmers had 2.4 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$194.4 million. In 2003, the state produced around 4 million lb (1.8 million kg) of sheep and lambs which brought in nearly \$3.8 million in gross income. Also during 2003, poultry farmers produced 1.11 billion lb (0.5 billion kg) of broilers valued at \$379.1 million, and 933 million eggs valued at \$72 million. Oklahoma's 82,000 dairy cows produced an estimated 1.31 billion lb (0.59 billion kg) of milk in 2003.

25 FISHING

Commercial fishing is of minor importance in Oklahoma. The prolific white bass (sand bass), Oklahoma's state fish, is abundant in most large reservoirs. Smallmouth and spotted bass, bluegill, and channel catfish have won favor with fishermen. Rainbow trout are stocked year round in the Illinois River, and walleye and sauger are stocked in most reservoirs. The Tishomingo National Fish Hatchery produces primarily smallmouth bass for distribution to federal wildlife areas in Oklahoma and Texas. In 2004, the state issued 668,924 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

While Oklahoma is not generally known as a forested state, a significant amount of forest is found there. Oklahoma's forests cover approximately 7,665,000 acres (3,102,000 hectares) or nearly 17% of the state's land area. Approximately 65% of this is commercially productive forestland. These forests are about 95% privately owned. They are intensively utilized for lumber, plywood, paper, fuelwood, and other products. They also provide high quality drinking water for the state's two largest cities, excellent wildlife habitat, substantial protection against soil erosion, and numerous recreational opportunities.

Oklahoma's forests play a vital role in the economy in the eastern half of the state. Much of the timber harvested in Oklahoma is shipped to processing plants in western Arkansas. Nearly two million acres of the loblolly-shortleaf pine and shortleaf pine-oak forests support several major wood processing plants in the southeastern corner of the state. Hardwood processing is scattered over the entire forested area in smaller sawmills. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, Oklahoma's eastern red cedar forests and woodlands supported a surge in processing plants.

In 2004 lumber output from Oklahoma's forests totaled 355 million board ft, 97% softwood.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Oklahoma in 2003 was \$479 million, an increase from 2002 of about 1%. The USGS data ranked Oklahoma as 28th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, crushed stone was the leading nonfuel mineral produced by Oklahoma, accounting for over 40% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. It was followed by cement (portland and masonry), construction sand and gravel, industrial sand and gravel, iodine, and gypsum, by value. By volume, Oklahoma in 2003, was the nation's leading producer of gypsum and ranked second in tripoli output. It ranked fifth in feldspar, seventh in common clays, and eighth in industrial sand and gravel. Oklahoma was the only state to produce iodine.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed that a total of 45.8 million metric tons of crushed stone were produced, with a value of \$202 million, while construction sand and gravel output came to 9.8 million metric tons, with a value of \$39.7 million. Industrial sand and gravel production that same year totaled 1.32 million metric tons, and had a value of \$28.4 million. Crude iodine output totaled 1,750 metric tons and was valued at \$19.7 million. Crude gypsum production in 2003 stood at 2.41 million metric tons, with a value of \$18.7 million.

According to the Oklahoma Department of Mines in 2003, the state had 233 mine operators and 307 operating mines. A total of 26,702 people were directly employed by the state's mining industry, excluding those employed by helium and iodine mine operators.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Oklahoma had 98 electrical power service providers, of which 62 were publicly owned and 30 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, one was federally operated and one was the owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 1,805,442 retail customers. Of that total, 1,179,570 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 436,446 customers, while publicly owned providers had 189,346 customers. There was one federal customer and 79 were independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 18,239 million kW, with total production that same year at 60.626 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 82.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 36.676 billion kWh (60.5%), came from coal-fired plants, with natural gas fueled plants in second place at 21.822 billion kWh (36%) and hydroelectric facilities in third at 1.798 billion kWh (3%). Other renewable power sources, pumped storage facilities, petroleum fired plants and plants using other types of gases accounted for the remainder.

Oklahoma is rich in fossil fuel resources, producing oil, natural gas, and coal. Crude oil production declined from 223.6 million barrels in 1968, to 150.5 million barrels in 1978, to 70.6 mil-

lion barrels in 1999. As of 2004, Oklahoma had proven crude oil reserves of 570 million barrels, or 3% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 171,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked seventh (sixth excluding federal offshore) in both proven reserves and production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Oklahoma had 83,750 producing oil wells and accounted for 3% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's five refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 484,961 barrels per day.

In 2004, Oklahoma had 35,612 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1,663.148 billion cu ft (47.23 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 16,238 billion cu ft (461.15 billion cu m).

Oklahoma in 2004, had eight producing coal mines, seven of which were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 1,792,000 short tons, up from 1,565,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, the surface mines accounted for 1,383,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 17 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Oklahoma's earliest manufactures were based on agricultural and petroleum production. As late as 1939, the food-processing and petroleum-refining industries together accounted for one-third of the total value added by manufacture. Although resource-related industries continue to predominate, manufacturing has become much more diversified.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Oklahoma's manufacturing sector covered some 17 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$45.710 billion. Of that total, petroleum and coal products manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$8.904 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$7.902 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$5.378 billion; food manufacturing at \$5.035 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$3.891 billion.

In 2004, a total of 132,540 people in Oklahoma were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 98,281 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the fabricated metal product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 22,319, with 16,497 actual production workers. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at 20,438 employees (12,935 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 17,071 employees (13,166 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 14,277 employees (10,905 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 12,104 employees (9,765 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Oklahoma's manufacturing sector paid \$5.241 billion in wages. Of that amount, the machinery manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$900.746 million. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$799.199 million; transport equipment manufacturing at

\$714.183 million; plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$528.999 million; and food manufacturing at \$480.609 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Oklahoma's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$30.7 billion from 4,770 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,993 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,489 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 288 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$11.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$15.9 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$3.6 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Oklahoma was listed as having 13,922 retail establishments with sales of \$32.1 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (2,020); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,830); miscellaneous store retailers (1,652); and food and beverage stores (1,558). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$9.4 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$6.2 billion; gasoline stations at \$3.7 billion; and food and beverage stores at \$3.3 billion. A total of 167,949 people were employed by the retail sector in Oklahoma that year.

Exporters located in Oklahoma exported \$4.3 billion in merchandise during 2005. Major exports included industrial machinery and transportation equipment.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues in Oklahoma are generally the responsibility of the Consumer Protection Division of the Attorney General's Office. Among the Division's duties are the resolution of complaints against businesses, the provision of information on those complaints and of publications to consumers to help educate the public and the enforcement of the state's laws regarding unfair and deceptive practices. However, consumer protection issues involving "Supervised Lenders," such as finance companies, and non-lender extenders of credit is the responsibility of the Commission on Consumer Credit, which also maintains a program of consumer education and has the power to require lawful and businesslike procedures by lending agencies under the state's Uniform Credit Code.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Commission on Consumer Credit and of the Consumer Protection Division are located in Oklahoma City.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Oklahoma had 274 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 26 state-chartered and 60 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Oklahoma City market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 70 institutions and \$15.734 billion in deposits, followed by the Tulsa market area with 68 institutions and \$13.276 billion. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 9.7% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$6.412 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 90.3% or \$59.840 billion in assets held.

The State Banking Department has the responsibility for supervising all state-chartered banks, savings and loan associations, credit unions, and trust companies.

The median percentage of past-due/non accrual loans to total loans stood at 1.98% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 2004's rate of 2.17% and 2003's level of 2.37%, mark an ongoing improvement in the state's lending environment. In 2004, the median net internal margin (the difference between the lower rates offered savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for the state's insured institutions stood at 4.49%, up from 4.45% in 2003, but down from the 4.54% rate as of fourth quarter 2005.

33 INSURANCE

As of 2003, there were 54 property and casualty and 29 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$4.8 billion. That year, there were 13,843 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1.5 billion.

In 2004, there were over 1.6 million individual life insurance policies in force, with a total value of about \$111 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$174 billion. The average coverage amount is \$67,700 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$604 million.

In 2004, 48% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 25% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 20% of residents were uninsured. Oklahoma has the third-highest percentage of uninsured residents among the fifty states (following Texas and New Mexico). In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state offers a 30-day health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees (in some cases) in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.4 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$688.64.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no stock or commodity exchanges in Oklahoma. In 2005, there were 560 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,320 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 75 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 20 NASDAQ companies, 15 NYSE listings, and 5 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had six Fortune 500 companies; ONEOK ranked first in the state and 176th in the nation with revenues of over \$12.8 billion, followed by Williams (energy), Devon Energy, Kerr-McGee, OGE Energy, and Chesa-

peake Energy. Devon Energy is listed on AMEX; the other listed companies are on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The Oklahoma budget is prepared by the director of state finance and submitted by the governor to the legislature each February. Article 10, section 23 of the Oklahoma Constitution requires a balanced budget. The constitution establishes a "Rainy Day" Fund into which general revenue fund revenues in excess of the certified estimate are deposited for emergency appropriation at a later date. All funds are "appropriated" pursuant to the constitution. In addition, state law authorizes a cash-flow reserve fund that can be up to 10% of the approved budget. The fiscal year (FY) is 1 July through 30 June.

2006 general funds were estimated at \$5.6 billion for resources and \$5.5 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Oklahoma were \$5.2 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Oklahoma was slated to receive \$70.8 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$21.7 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Oklahoma fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Oklahoma collected \$6,859 million in tax revenues or \$1,933 per capita, which placed it 34th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 24.2% of the total; selective sales taxes, 12.2%; individual income taxes, 36.0%; corporate income taxes, 2.5%; and other taxes, 25.1%.

As of 1 January 2006, Oklahoma had eight individual income tax brackets ranging from 0.5% to 6.25%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.0%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$1,637,457,000 or \$465 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 47th highest nationally. Oklahoma does not collect property taxes at the state level.

Oklahoma taxes retail sales at a rate of 4.50%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 6%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 10.50%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 103 cents per pack, which ranks 18th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Oklahoma taxes gasoline at 17 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Oklahoma citizens received \$1.48 in federal spending.

3⁷ ECONOMIC POLICY

Pro-business measures in Oklahoma include comparatively low property tax rates, limits on annual increases in property tax rates,

Oklahoma—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	17,520,326	4,971.72
General revenue	13,700,103	3,887.66
Intergovernmental revenue	4,565,639	1,295.58
Taxes	6,426,713	1,823.70
General sales	1,594,246	452.40
Selective sales	744,782	211.35
License taxes	840,421	238.48
Individual income tax	2,319,123	658.09
Corporate income tax	133,309	37.83
Other taxes	794,832	225.55
Current charges	1,686,097	478.46
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,021,654	289.91
Utility revenue	353,290	100.25
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	3,466,933	983.81
Total expenditure	14,914,919	4,232.38
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,715,417	1,054.32
Direct expenditure	11,199,502	3,178.07
Current operation	8,241,628	2,338.71
Capital outlay	864,752	245.39
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,531,825	434.68
Assistance and subsidies	204,201	57.95
Interest on debt	357,096	101.33
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,183,778	619.69
Total expenditure	14,914,919	4,232.38
General expenditure	13,078,274	3,711.20
Intergovernmental expenditure	3,715,417	1,054.32
Direct expenditure	9,362,857	2,656.88
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	5,594,067	1,587.42
Public welfare	3,535,155	1,003.17
Hospitals	154,342	43.80
Health	495,409	140.58
Highways	1,050,621	298.13
Police protection	102,790	29.17
Correction	501,001	142.17
Natural resources	205,152	58.22
Parks and recreation	77,230	21.92
Government administration	571,760	162.25
Interest on general debt	286,610	81.33
Other and unallocable	504,137	143.06
Utility expenditure	304,820	86.50
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	1,531,825	434.68
Debt at end of fiscal year	6,930,071	1,966.54
Cash and security holdings	28,273,456	8,023.11

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

and requirements that tax increases be submitted to a vote of the people or pass the legislature with a 75% vote.

Business incentives include wage rebates of up to 5% for 10 years for qualifying basic firms that add at least \$2.5 million of new payroll in the state over a three-year period. This incentive, known as the Oklahoma Quality Jobs Program, was adopted in 1993. Since that time, more than 130 firms have received in excess of \$35 million in incentive payments while adding more than 26,000 jobs to the Oklahoma economy. More than 55,000 jobs were planned to be added as of 2005.

Other incentives include a job tax credit of \$1,000 per year for five years for new manufacturing jobs in state enterprise zones; a 30% investment tax credit for investment in qualifying agricultural processing ventures or cooperatives; and free customized training for qualifying firms from the Oklahoma Department of Vocational and Technical Education through its Training in Industry Program (TIP). The state has placed emphasis on the Oklahoma Main Street Program, a statewide downtown revitalization program providing training, resources, and technical assistance to 36 targeted Main Street communities. The Oklahoma Main Street Program was first created in late 1985. By 2006, there were 44 communities in the Main Street program.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 10.1 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 77.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 72% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 10.2 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 321.4; cancer, 213.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 69.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 56.9; and diabetes, 30.5. Oklahoma had the second-highest heart disease death rate in the country (following West Virginia). The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.6 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 5.5 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 56.2% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 26% of state residents were smokers, representing the fourth-highest percentage in the country.

In 2003, Oklahoma had 108 community hospitals with about 11,000 beds. There were about 450,000 patient admissions that year and 5.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 6,500 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,777. Also in 2003, there were about 370 certified nursing facilities in the state with 32,733 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 66.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 61.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Oklahoma had 205 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 695 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 1,728 dentists in the state.

About 19% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 20% of the state population was uninsured in 2004, ranking the state as third in the nation for highest percentage of

uninsured residents (following Texas and New Mexico). In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$3.4 billion.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 60,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$219. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 424,402 persons (172,837 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$86.32 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$439.5 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state TANF program had 34,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$174 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 623,160 Oklahoma residents. This number included 381,090 retired workers, 68,000 widows and widowers, 84,630 disabled workers, 36,180 spouses, and 53,260 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.7% of the total state population and 93.1% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$916; widows and widowers, \$869; disabled workers, \$880; and spouses, \$449. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$477 per month; children of deceased workers, \$589; and children of disabled workers, \$257. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 77,100 Oklahoma residents, averaging \$382 a month. An additional \$3.2 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 76,939 residents.

40 HOUSING

Indian teepees and settlers' sod houses dotted the Oklahoma plains when the "eighty-niners" swarmed into the territory; old neighborhoods in cities and towns of Oklahoma still retain some of the modest frame houses they built. Oklahomans continue to prefer single-family dwellings, despite a recent trend toward condominiums. Modern underground homes and solar-heated dwellings can be seen in the university towns of Norman and Stillwater.

In 2004, there were an estimated 1,572,756 housing units, of which 1,360,032 were occupied; 68.2% were owner-occupied. About 72.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 85,609 units lacked telephone service, 2,351 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 7,496 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.51 members.

In 2004, 17,100 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$85,060. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$871. Renters paid a median of \$525 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$300,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development

programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$17.2 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 85.2% of Oklahomans 25 years of age or older were high school graduates; during the same year, 22.9% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Oklahoma's public schools stood at 625,000. Of these, 449,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 176,000 attended high school. Approximately 61.5% of the students were white, 10.9% were black, 7.6% were Hispanic, 1.5% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 18.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 615,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 626,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 0.3% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$4.4 billion or \$6,176 per student the fourth-lowest among the 50 states. There were 27,603 students enrolled in 168 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Oklahoma scored 271 out of 500 in mathematics, compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 198,423 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 23.8% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 year Oklahoma had 53 degree-granting institutions including 15 public four-year schools, 14 public two-year schools, and 17 nonprofit, private four-year schools. The comprehensive institutions, the University of Oklahoma (Norman) and Oklahoma State University (Stillwater), also offer major graduate-level programs. Well-known institutions include Oral Roberts University and the University of Tulsa.

42 ARTS

The Oklahoma Arts Council was founded in 1965. In 2005, the State Arts Council of Oklahoma and other Oklahoma arts organizations received 12 grants totaling \$828,700 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The State Arts Council of Oklahoma also received funding from the state and private sources. Among the organizations that typically benefit from federal funding are the Metropolitan Library Commission of Oklahoma Country, the Red Earth Native American Cultural Festival, and the Theater of North Tulsa. The Oklahoma Humanities Council (OHC) was founded in 1971. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$760,924 for 12 state programs.

Major arts centers are located in Tulsa and Oklahoma City, but there are many arts and crafts museums throughout the state. Oklahoma City's leading cultural institution is the Oklahoma City Philharmonic, formed in 1924. The Tulsa Philharmonic, Tulsa Ballet Theater, and Tulsa Opera all appear at the Tulsa Performing Arts Center, a municipally owned and operated facility. As of 2005, this six-level center consisted of the 2,365-seat Chapman Music Hall, the 437-seat John H. Williams Theater, and two multilevel experimental theaters (the Liddy Doenges Theater and Charles E. Norman Theater).

There are five other ballet companies located in Oklahoma City, Bartlesville, Clinton, Lawton, and Norman. The intermingling of Native American, American West, and Euro-American art tradi-

tions infuses all aspects of Oklahoma culture. Native American contributions to the arts include achievements in art and sculpture, as well as the international acclaim accorded to ballerinas Maria and Marjorie Tallchief, Rosella Hightower, and Moscelyne Larkin.

The Oklahoma City Museum of Art was noted for serving over 130,000 visitors annually as of 2005. The museum's permanent collection covers five centuries, emphasizing the 19th and 20th centuries.

Bartlesville is home to a symphony orchestra, a show choir, a civic ballet, and a theater guild. It is also the host of the annual OK Mozart International Festival, established in 1985, which features the Solisti New York Orchestra and attracts world-class guest artists. In 2006, the festival celebrated its 22nd season and Mozart's 250th birthday.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In June 2001, Oklahoma had 115 public library systems, with a total of 210 libraries, of which 95 were branches. In that same year, the public library system had 6,316,000 volumes of books and serial publications on its shelves, and a total circulation of 15,354,000. The system also had 174,000 audio and 151,000 video items, 6,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and five bookmobiles. The Five Civilized Tribes Museum Library in Muskogee has a large collection of Indian documents and art, while the Cherokee archives are held at the Cherokee National Historical Society in Tahlequah. The Morris Swett Library at Ft. Sill has a special collection on military history, particularly field artillery. The Oklahoma Department of Libraries in Oklahoma City has holdings covering law, library science, Oklahoma history, and other fields. Large academic libraries include those of the University of Oklahoma (Norman), with 3,642,653 volumes and 10,496 periodical subscriptions in 1998, and Oklahoma State University Library (Stillwater), with 2,025,168. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$63,440,000 and included \$313,000 in federal grants and \$1,792,000 in state grants.

Oklahoma has 113 museums and historic sites. The Philbrook Art Center in Tulsa houses important collections of Indian, Renaissance, and Oriental art. Also in Tulsa are the Thomas Gilcrease Institute of American History and Art. Major museums in Norman are the University of Oklahoma's Museum of Art and the Stovall Museum of Science and Industry. The Oklahoma Art Center, National Cowboy Hall of Fame and Western Heritage Center, Oklahoma Heritage Association, Oklahoma Historical Society Museum, Oklahoma Museum of Art, State Museum of Oklahoma, and the Omniplex Science Museum are major attractions in Oklahoma City. Other museums of special interest include the Museum of the Great Plains in Lawton, the Will Rogers Memorial in Claremore, Cherokee National Museum in Tahlequah, and the Woolaroc Museum in Bartlesville.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

The Butterfield Stage and Overland Mail delivered the mail to Millerton on 18 September 1858 as part of the first US transcontinental postal route. After the Civil War, the early railroads delivered mail and parcels to the Oklahoma and Indian territories.

In 2004, 91.0% of Oklahoma's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 1,724,505 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 55.4% of Oklahoma households had a computer and 48.4% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 449,631 high-speed lines in Oklahoma, 409,046 residential and 40,585 for business. In 2005, Oklahoma had 25 major AM and 64 major FM radio stations, and 19 major television channels. Oklahoma City had 600,240 television households, 63% of which received cable in 1999. A total of 44,743 Internet domain names were registered in the state in 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005, Oklahoma had 13 morning dailies, 29 evening dailies, and 34 Sunday newspapers. In 2004, the *Oklahoman* ranked 50th in the United States according to circulation among the top 100 daily newspapers, and the *Tulsa World* ranking 82nd.

Leading dailies and their approximate circulation in 2005 were as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Oklahoma City	<i>Oklahoman</i> (m,S)	250,496	288,948
Tulsa	<i>Tulsa World</i> (m,S)	158,965	198,477

As of 2005 there were 143 newspapers that appeared weekly or up to three times a week; most had circulations of less than 10,000 copies.

Tulsa and Oklahoma City each have monthly city-interest publications and the University of Oklahoma has a highly active university press.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,810 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,000 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the organizations headquartered in Oklahoma are the Football Writers Association of America, the International Professional Rodeo Association, the National Judges Association, the National Pigeon Association and the American Racing Pigeon Union, the Amateur Softball Association of America, the International Softball Federation, the American Association of Petroleum Geologists, the Gas Processors Association, and the US Jaycees.

Organizations focusing on the arts include the American Choral Directors Association and Sweet Adelines International. Historical and cultural organizations include the Cherokee National Historical Society, the Institute of the Great Plains, and the National Cowboy and Western Heritage Museum. Organizations dedicated to the rights and welfare of Native Americans include the American Indian Institute, American Indian Research and Development, and the Institute for the Development of Indian Law.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism has become a growing sector of Oklahoma's economy. Domestic travelers spent \$3.9 billion on overnight and day trips in 2002, a 5.2% increase over 1999. The travel industry employed over 69,200 people in the same year. Oklahoma and Tulsa received the most visitors.

Oklahoma's 50 state parks and recreational areas draw some 16 million visitors annually. The national park service maintains one

facility in Oklahoma-Chickasaw National Recreation Area, centering on artificial Lake Arbuckle.

The state also maintains and operates the American Indian Hall of Fame, in Anadarko; Black Kettle Museum, in Cheyenne; the T. B. Ferguson Home in Watonga; the Murrell Home, south of Tahlequah; the Pawnee Bill Museum, in Pawnee; the Pioneer Woman Statue and Museum, in Ponca City; the Chisholm Trail Museum, in Kingfisher; and the Western Trails Museum, in Clinton.

National wildlife refuges include Optima, Salt Plains, Sequoyah, Tishomingo, Washita, and Wichita Mountains; they have a combined area of 140,696 acres (56,938 hectares). The Great Salt Plains National Park extends over 14 counties. Fort Sill, in Lawton, is the army's principal artillery school. Oklahoma is also the winter quarters for many traveling circuses. Many Indian tribes were forcibly relocated to Oklahoma on a march which became known as the Trail of Tears. There are 39 tribes still located in Oklahoma.

48 SPORTS

Oklahoma has no major professional sports teams. The Triple-A baseball Red Hawks play in Oklahoma City, and the Tulsa Drillers play in the Double-A Texas League. Collegiate sports, however, is the primary source of pride for Oklahomans. As of 2003, the University of Oklahoma Sooners had won seven national football titles. They won the Orange Bowl in 1954, 1956, 1958, 1959, 1968, 1976, 1979, 1980, 1981, 1986, 1987, and 2001. They have also produced championships in wrestling, baseball, softball, and gymnastics. Recently, the Sooners have had a resurgence in basketball. The Oklahoma State University Cowboys have captured National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and Big Eight titles in basketball, baseball, and golf, and are a perennial national contender in wrestling.

Oklahoma City hosts the rodeo at the Oklahoma state fair every September and October. In golf, Tulsa has been the site of several US Open tournaments. The Softball Hall of Fame is in Oklahoma City.

Jim Thorpe, possibly the greatest athlete of all time, was born in Oklahoma, as were baseball greats Mickey Mantle and Johnny Bench.

49 FAMOUS OKLAHOMANS

Carl Albert (1908–2000), a McAlester native, has held the highest public position of any Oklahoman. Elected to the US House of Representatives in 1947, he became majority leader in 1962 and served as speaker of the House from 1971 until his retirement in 1976. Patrick Jay Hurley (1883–1963), the first Oklahoman appointed to a cabinet post, was secretary of war under Herbert Hoover and later ambassador to China.

William "Alfalfa Bill" Murray (b.Texas, 1869–1956) was president of the state constitutional convention and served as governor from 1931 to 1935. Robert S. Kerr (1896–1963), founder of Kerr-McGee Oil, was the state's first native-born governor, serving from 1943 to 1947; elected to the US Senate in 1948, he became an influential Democratic leader. A(lmer) S(tillwell) Mike Monroney (1902–80) served as US representative from 1939 to 1951 and senator from 1951 to 1969.

Oklahomans have been prominent in literature and the arts. Journalist and historian Marquis James (b.Missouri, 1891–1955)

won a Pulitzer Prize in 1930 for his biography of Sam Houston and another in 1938 for Andrew Jackson; John Berryman (1914–72) won the 1965 Pulitzer Prize in poetry for *77 Dream Songs, 1964*; and Ralph Ellison (1914–94) won the 1953 National Book Award for his novel *Invisible Man*. The popular musical *Oklahoma!* by Richard Rodgers and Oscar Hammerstein II is based on *Green Grow the Lilacs* by Oklahoman Lynn Riggs (1899–1954). N(avarre) Scott Momaday (b.1934), born in Lawton, received a Pulitzer Prize in 1969 for *House Made of Dawn*. Woodrow Crumbo (1912–89) and Allen Houser (1914–94) are prominent Indian artists born in the state.

Just about the best-known Oklahoman was William Penn Adair “Will” Rogers (1879–1935), the beloved humorist and writer who spread cheer in the dreary days of the Depression. Part Cherokee, Rogers was a horse rider, trick roper, and stage and movie star until he was killed in a plane crash in Alaska. Among his gifts to the American language are the oft-quoted expressions “I never met a man I didn’t like” and “All I know is what I read in the newspapers.” Other prominent performing artists include singer-songwriter Woody Guthrie (1912–67), composer of “This Land Is Your Land,” among other classics; ballerina Maria Tallchief (b.1925); popular singer Patti Page (b.1927); and operatic soprano Roberta Knie (b.1938). Famous Oklahoma actors include (Francis) Van Heflin (1910–71), Ben Johnson (1918–96), Jennifer Jones (b.1919), Tony Randall (1920–2004), James Garner (James Baumgardner, b.1928), and Cleavon Little (1939–92). Paul Harvey (b.1918) is a widely syndicated radio commentator. James Francis “Jim” Thorpe (1888–1953) became known as the “world’s greatest athlete” after his pentathlon and decathlon performances at the 1912 Olympic Games; of Indian ancestry, Thorpe also starred in baseball, football, and other sports. Bud Wilkinson (b.Minnesota, 1916–94) coached the University of Oklahoma football team to a record 47-game unbeaten streak in the 1950s. Baseball stars Paul Warner (1903–65) and his brother Lloyd (1906–82), Mickey Man-

tle (1931–95), Wilver Dornel “Willie” Stargell (1941–2001), and Johnny Bench (b.1947) are native Oklahomans.

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OREGON

State of Oregon

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Unknown; name first applied to the river now known as the Columbia, possibly from the Algonquian for “beautiful water.” **NICKNAME:** The Beaver State. **CAPITAL:** Salem. **ENTERED UNION:** 14 February 1859 (33rd). **SONG:** “Oregon, My Oregon.” **MOTTO:** She Flies With Her Own Wings. **FLAG:** The flag consists of a navy-blue field with gold lettering and illustrations. Obverse: the shield from the state seal, supported by 33 stars, with the words “State of Oregon” above and the year of admission below. Reverse: a beaver. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A shield, supported by 33 stars and crested by an American eagle, depicts mountains and forests, an elk, a covered wagon and ox team, wheat, a plow, a pickax, and the state motto. In the background, as the sun sets over the Pacific, an American merchant ship arrives as a British man-o’-war departs. The words “State of Oregon 1859” surround the whole. **BIRD:** Western meadowlark. **FISH:** Chinook salmon. **FLOWER:** Oregon grape. **TREE:** Douglas fir. **GEM:** Sunstone. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT; 4 AM PST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located on the Pacific coast of the northwestern United States. Oregon ranks 10th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Oregon is 97,073 sq mi (251,419 sq km), with land comprising 96,184 sq mi (249,117 sq km) and inland water 889 sq mi (2,302 sq km). Oregon extends 395 mi (636 km) E–W; the state’s maximum N–S extension is 295 mi (475 km).

Oregon is bordered on the N by Washington (with most of the line formed by the Columbia River); on the E by Idaho (with part of the line defined by the Snake River); on the S by Nevada and California; and on the W by the Pacific Ocean. The total boundary length of Oregon is 1,444 mi (2,324 km), including a general coastline of 296 mi (476 km); the tidal shoreline extends 1,410 mi (2,269 km). The state’s geographic center is in Crook County, 25 mi (40 km) SSE of Prineville.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The Cascade Range, extending north–south, divides Oregon into distinct eastern and western regions, each of which contains a great variety of landforms.

At the state’s western edge, the Coast Range, a relatively low mountain system, rises from the beaches, bays, and rugged headlands of the Pacific coast. Between the Coast and Cascade ranges lie fertile valleys, the largest being the Willamette Valley, Oregon’s heartland. The two-thirds of the state lying east of the Cascade Range consists generally of arid plateaus cut by river canyons, with rolling hills in the north-central portion giving way to the Blue Mountains in the northeast. The Great Basin in the southeast is characterized by fault-block ridges, weathered buttes, and remnants of large prehistoric lakes.

The Cascades, Oregon’s highest mountains, contain nine snow-capped volcanic peaks more than 9,000 ft (2,700 m) high, of which the highest is Mt. Hood, at 11,239 ft (3,428 m). A dormant volcano,

Mt. Hood last erupted in 1865. (Mt. St. Helen’s, which erupted in 1980, is only 60 mi/97 km to the northwest, in Washington.) The Blue Mountains include several rugged subranges interspersed with plateaus, alluvial basins, and deep river canyons. The Klamath Mountains in the southwest form a jumble of ridges where the Coast and Cascade ranges join. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 3,300 ft (1,007 m).

Oregon is drained by many rivers, but the Columbia, demarcating most of the northern border with Washington, is by far the biggest and most important. Originating in Canada, it flows more than 1,200 mi (1,900 km) to the Pacific Ocean. With a mean flow rate of 250,134 cu ft per second, the Columbia is the third-largest river in the United States. It drains some 58% of Oregon’s surface by way of a series of northward-flowing rivers, including the Deschutes, John Day, and Umatilla. The largest of the Columbia’s tributaries in Oregon, and longest river entirely within the state, is the Willamette, which drains a fertile valley more than 100 mi (160 km) long. Better than half of Oregon’s eastern boundary with Idaho is formed by the Snake River, which flows through Hell’s Canyon, one of the deepest canyons in North America.

Oregon has 19 natural lakes with a surface area of more than 3,000 acres (1,200 hectares), and many smaller ones. The largest is Upper Klamath Lake, which covers 58,922 acres (23,845 hectares) and is quite shallow. The most famous, however, is Crater Lake, which formed in the crater created by the violent eruption of Mt. Mazama several thousand years ago and is now a national park. Its depth of 1,932 ft (589 m)—greater than any other lake in the United States—and its nearly circular expanse of bright-blue water, edged by the crater’s rim, make it a natural wonder. Sea level at the Pacific Ocean is the lowest elevation in the state.

³ CLIMATE

Oregon has a generally temperate climate, but there are marked regional variations. The Cascade Range separates the state into

two broad climatic zones: the western third, with relatively heavy precipitation and moderate temperatures, and the eastern two-thirds, with relatively little precipitation and more extreme temperatures. Within these general regions, climate depends largely on elevation and land configuration.

In January, normal daily mean temperatures range from more than 45°F (7°C) in the coastal sections to between 25°F (-4°C) and 28°F (-2°C) in the southeast. In July, the normal daily means range between 65°F (18°C) and 70°F (21°C) in the plateau regions and central valleys and between 70°F (21°C) and 78°F (26°C) along the eastern border. Oregon's record low temperature, -54°F (-48°C), was registered at Seneca on 10 February 1933; the all-time high, 119°F (48°C), at Pendleton on 10 August 1898.

The Cascades serve as a barrier to the warm, moist winds blowing in from the Pacific, confining most precipitation to western Oregon. The average annual rainfall in Portland is about 37 in (94 cm); rainfall elsewhere varied from less than 8 in (20 cm) in the drier plateau regions to as much as 200 in (508 cm) at locations on the upper west slopes of the Coast Range. In the Blue Mountains and the Columbia River Basin, totals are about 15 in (38 cm) to 20 in (51 cm). In Portland, fog is common, with about 123 days of fog per year, and the sun shines, on average, during only 48% of the daylight hours. From 300 in (760 cm) to 550 in (1,400 cm) of snow falls each year in the highest reaches of the Cascades.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

With its variety of climatic conditions and surface features, Oregon has a diverse assortment of vegetation and wildlife, including 78 native tree species. The coastal region is covered by a rain forest of spruce, hemlock, and cedar rising above dense underbrush. A short distance inland, the stands of Douglas fir—Oregon's state tree and dominant timber resource—begin, extending across the western slopes to the summit of the Cascade Range. Where the Douglas fir has been destroyed by fire or logging, alder and various types of berries grow. In the high elevations of the Cascades, Douglas fir gives way to pines and true firs. Ponderosa pine predominates on the eastern slopes, while in areas too dry for pine the forests give way to open range, which, in its natural state, is characterized by sagebrush, occasional juniper trees, and sparse grasses. The state's many species of smaller indigenous plants include Oregon grape—the state flower—as well as salmonberry, huckleberry, blackberry, and many other berries. Fifteen Oregon plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in 2006, including the Willamette daisy, Western lily, Malheur wire-lettuce, rough popcornflower, and MacFarlane's four-o'clock.

More than 130 species of mammal are native to Oregon, of which 28 are found throughout the state. Many species, such as the cougar and bear, are protected, either entirely or through hunting restrictions. The bighorn sheep, once extirpated—deliberately exterminated—in Oregon, has been reintroduced in limited numbers; the Columbian white-tailed deer, with an extremely limited habitat along the Columbia River, is still classified as endangered. Deer and elk are popular game mammals, with herds managed by the state: mule deer predominate in eastern Oregon, black-tailed deer in the west. Among introduced mammals, the nutria and opossum are now present in large numbers. At least 60 species of fish are found in Oregon, including five different salmon species, of which the Chinook is the largest and the coho most common.

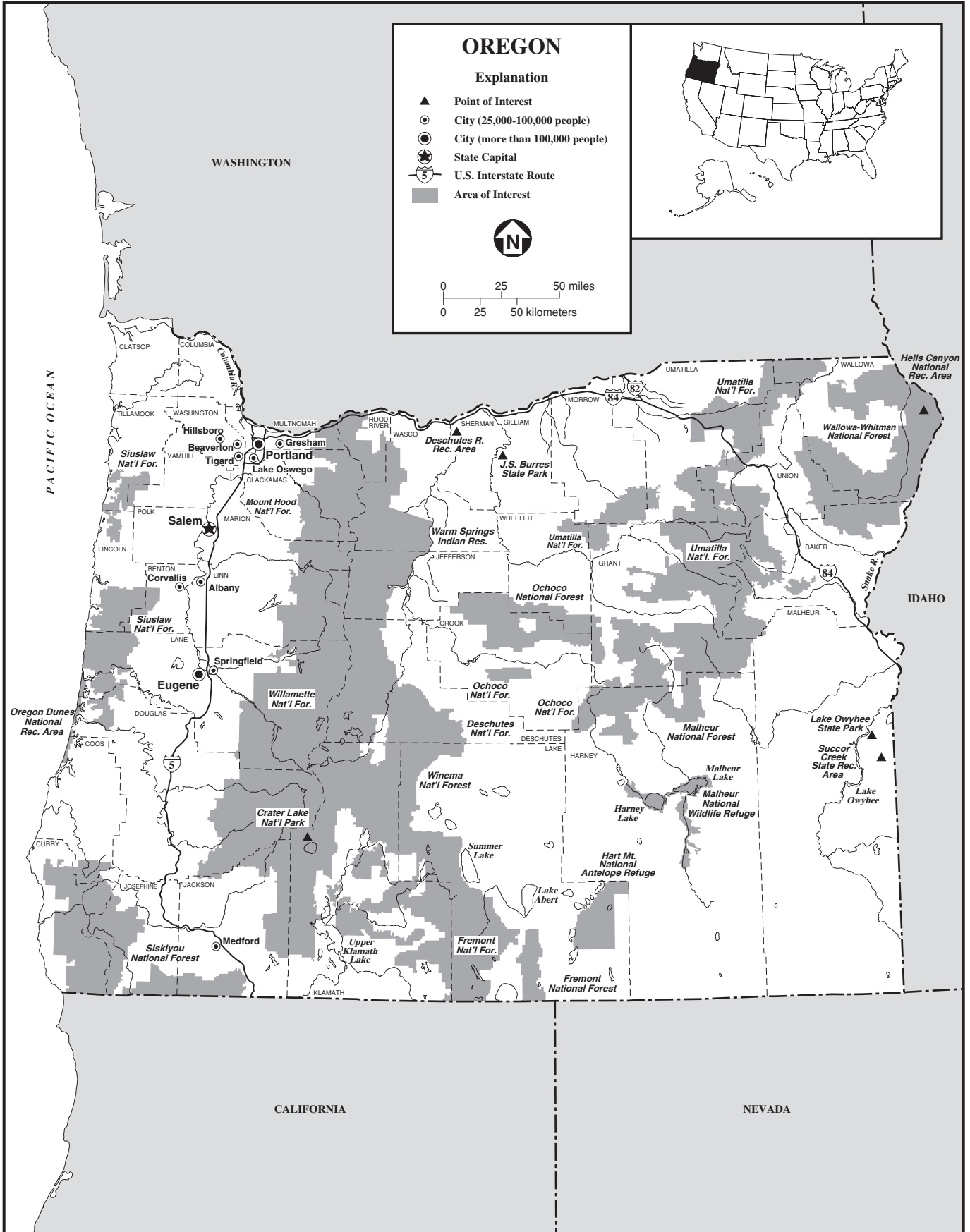
Salmon form the basis of Oregon's sport and commercial fishing, although dams and development have blocked many spawning areas, causing a decline in numbers and heavy reliance on hatcheries to continue the runs. Hundreds of species of birds inhabit Oregon, either year-round or during particular seasons. The state lies in the path of the Pacific Flyway, a major route for migratory waterfowl, and large numbers of geese and ducks may be found in western Oregon and marshy areas east of the Cascades. Extensive bird refuges have been established in various parts of the state. Thirty-three Oregon animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were classified as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service in April 2006, including the short-tailed albatross, bald eagle, Fender's blue butterfly, three species of chub, brown pelican, northern spotted owl, and three species of sea turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Oregon has been among the most active states in environmental protection. In 1938, the polluted condition of the Willamette River led to the enactment, by initiative, of one of the nation's first comprehensive water pollution control laws, which helped restore the river's quality for swimming and fishing. An air pollution control law was enacted in 1951, and air and water quality programs were placed under the Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ), established in 1969. This department is Oregon's major environmental protection agency, enforcing standards for air and water quality and solid and hazardous waste disposal. A vehicle inspection program has been instituted to reduce exhaust emissions in the Portland area and in Rogue Valley. The DEQ also operates an asbestos program to protect the public from asbestos in buildings that are being demolished or remodeled. The DEQ monitors 18 river basins for water quality and issues permits to businesses, industries, and government bodies that discharge waste water into public waters. A Wetland Conservation Strategy has been developed to protect the nearly 1.4 million acres (566,559 hectares) of wetlands in the state.

In 2003, 42.1 million pounds of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, Oregon had 112 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 11 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Portland Harbor and the Union Pacific Railroad Tie Treating Plant. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$8.7 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$14.5 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$12.1 million for the water pollution control/clean water revolving fund.

In 1973, the legislature enacted what has become known as the Oregon Bottle Bill, the first state law prohibiting the sale of non-returnable beer or soft-drink containers. The DEQ estimates that more than 95% of beverage containers are returned for recycling. The success of the Bottle Bill was partly responsible for the passage in 1983 of the Recycling Opportunity Act, which reduces the amount of solid waste generated. Furthermore, all cities with 5,000 or more residents are required to provide curbside recycling services.



6 POPULATION

Oregon ranked 27th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 3,641,056 in 2005, an increase of 6.4% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Oregon's population grew from 2,842,321 to 3,421,399, an increase of 20.4%, making it one of the fastest-growing states in the nation. The population is projected to reach 4 million by 2015 and 4.5 million by 2025. In 2004 the median age was 37. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 23.7% of the population while 12.8% was age 65 or older.

Like other western states, Oregon experienced more rapid population growth than that of the United States as a whole in the 1970s, when population expanded 26%. The 1990 census figure represented a 7.9% increase over the 1980 census population. The population density in 2004 was 37.5 persons per sq mi.

As of 2000, more than half of all Oregonians lived in the Portland region, while much of the remainder also lived in the Willamette Valley, particularly in and around Salem and Eugene. The city of Portland had an estimated 533,492 residents in 2004; the Portland metropolitan area (which includes Vancouver and Beaverton) had an estimated 2004 population of 2,064,336. The estimated population of Salem was 146,120 and Eugene had a population of about 142,681.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

In 2000, the estimated number of American Indians was 45,211, with most of the population living in urban areas. The state's four reservations (with estimated 1995 population) are the Umatilla (2,154), Siletz (1,778), Spokane (1,416), and Kalispel (170). Important salmon fishing rights in the north are reserved under treaty. In 2004, 1.4% of the state's population was American Indian or Alaskan Native.

About 55,662 blacks were estimated to live in Oregon in 2000, up from 46,000 in 1990; most blacks reside in the Portland area. In 2004, 1.8% of the state's population was black. In 2000, Hispanics and Latinos numbered about 275,314, or 8% of the state total population, up from 113,000 in 1990. In 2004, 9.5% of the state's population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2000, Asians numbered 101,350. There were 20,930 Chinese, 12,131 Japanese, 12,387 Koreans, 10,627 Filipinos, 18,890 Vietnamese (up from 8,130 in 1990), 9,575 Asian Indians (more than triple the 1990 population of 2,726), and 4,392 Laotians. Pacific Islanders numbered 7,976. In 2004, 3.4% of the population was Asian, and 0.3% Pacific Islander. In 2004, 2.3% of the total population reported origin of two or more races.

French Canadians have lived in Oregon since the opening of the territory, and they have continued to come in a small but steady migration. As of 2000, 31,354 Oregonians reported French Canadian ancestry. In all, the 2000 census counted some 289,702 Oregonians of foreign birth, accounting for 8.5% of the population (up from 139,307, or 4.9%, in 1990).

8 LANGUAGES

Place-names such as Umatilla, Coos Bay, Klamath Falls, and Tillamook reflect the variety of Indian tribes that white settlers found in Oregon territory.

The midland dialect dominates Oregon English, except for an apparent Northern dialect influence in the Willamette Valley.

Throughout the state, *foreign* and *orange* have the /aw/ vowel, and *tomorrow* has the /ah/ of *father*.

In 2000, 2,810,654 Oregonians—87.9 of the population five years old or older—spoke only English at home, down from 92.7% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Indo-European languages" includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. Samoan. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	3,199,323	100.0
Speak only English	2,810,654	87.9
Speak a language other than English	388,669	12.1
Speak a language other than English	388,669	12.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	217,614	6.8
German	18,400	0.6
Vietnamese	17,805	0.6
Russian	16,344	0.5
Chinese	15,504	0.5
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	11,837	0.4
Japanese	9,377	0.3
Korean	9,185	0.3
Tagalog	6,181	0.2
Other Indo-European languages	5,945	0.2
Other Slavic languages	5,630	0.2
Other Pacific Island languages	4,331	0.1
Other Asian languages	4,109	0.1
Arabic	3,723	0.1
Scandinavian languages	3,276	0.1
Italian	3,104	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Just over one-third of Oregon's population is affiliated with an organized religion. About 2.3 million people, 68% of the population, were not counted as members of any religious organization in a 2000 survey. The leading Christian denomination is the Roman Catholic Church, with 425,765 members in 2004. The next largest denomination is the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, which reported a 2006 membership of 141,482 people in 294 congregations. There are two Mormon temples in the state: Portland (est. in 1989) and Medford (est. 2000). Other major Protestant groups (with 2000 membership data), are the Assemblies of God, 49,357; the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 46,807; Christian Churches and Churches of Christ, 39,011; United Methodists, 34,101; Presbyterians (USA), 33,909; and Southern Baptists, 32,433. The International Church of the Foursquare Gospel (established in California in 1923) had 44,826 members in Oregon in 2000. The same year, Jewish Oregonians were estimated to number 31,625, a figure which represents a 195% increase from 1990; there were about 5,225 Muslims throughout the state.

10 TRANSPORTATION

With the state's major deepwater port and international airport, Portland is the transportation hub of Oregon. As of 2003, the state had 2,863 rail mi (4,609 km) of track and is served by two major rail systems: the Union Pacific; and the Burlington Northern Santa Fe. Lumber and wood products are the major commodities originating in Oregon. Farm products and chemicals are the

major commodities terminating in Oregon, primarily at the Port of Portland. As of 2006, Amtrak provided north–south passenger service to seven stations in the state via its Amtrak Cascade and Coast Starlight trains, and east–west service from Portland to Chicago via its Empire Builder train.

Starting with pioneer trails and toll roads, Oregon's roads and highways had become a network extending 65,861 mi (106,036 km) by 2004. The main interstate highways are I-5, running the length of the state north–south connecting the major cities, and I-84, running northwest from Ontario in eastern Oregon and then along the northern border. In 2004, there were some 3.006 million registered vehicles in the state, including about 1.447 million passenger cars registered in Oregon, and 2,625,856 licensed drivers.

The Columbia River forms the major inland waterway for the Pacific Northwest, with barge navigation possible for 464 mi (747 km) upstream to Lewiston, Idaho, via the Snake River. Wheat from eastern Oregon and Washington is shipped downstream to Portland for reloading onto oceangoing vessels. The Port of Portland owns five major cargo terminals and handled more than 29.995 million tons of cargo in 2004. Oregon also has several important coastal harbors, including Astoria, Newport, and Coos Bay. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 31.811 million tons. In 2004, Oregon had 681 mi (1,096 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, Oregon had a total of 455 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 346 airports, 104 heliports, two STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and three seaplane bases. The state's largest and busiest airport is Portland International, with 6,379,884 passengers enplaned in 2004, making it the 33rd-busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

The land now known as Oregon has been inhabited for at least 10,000 years, the age assigned to woven brush sandals found in caves along what was once the shore of a large inland lake. Later, a variety of Indian cultures evolved. Along the coast and lower Columbia River lived peoples of the Northern Coast Culture, who ate salmon and other marine life, built large dugout canoes and cedar plank houses, and possessed a complex social structure, including slavery, that emphasized status and wealth. East of the Cascade Range were hunter-gatherers who migrated from place to place as the food supply dictated.

The first European to see Oregon was probably Sir Francis Drake. In 1578, while on a raiding expedition against the Spanish, Drake reported sighting what is believed to be the Oregon coast before being forced to return southward by “vile, thicke and stinking fogges.” For most of the next 200 years, European contact was limited to occasional sightings by mariners, who considered the coast too dangerous for landing. In 1778, however, British Captain James Cook, on his third voyage of discovery, visited the Northwest and named several Oregon capes. Soon afterward, American ships arrived in search of sea otter and other furs. A Yankee merchant captain, Robert Gray, discovered the Columbia River (which he named for his ship) in 1792, contributing to the US claim to the Northwest.

The first overland trek to Oregon was the Lewis and Clark Expedition, which traveled from St. Louis to the mouth of the Columbia, where it spent the winter of 1805–06. In 1811, a party of fur traders employed by New York merchant John Jacob Astor ar-

rived by ship at the mouth of the Columbia and built a trading post named Astoria. The venture was not a success and was sold three years later to British interests, but some of the Astor party stayed, becoming Oregon's first permanent white residents. For the next 20 years, European and US interest in Oregon focused on the quest for beaver pelts. Agents of the British North West Company (which merged in 1821 with the Hudson's Bay Company) and some rival American parties explored the region, mapped trails, and established trading posts. Although Britain and the United States had agreed to a treaty of joint occupation in 1818, the de facto governor from 1824 to the early 1840s was Dr. John McLoughlin, the Hudson's Bay Company chief factor at Ft. Vancouver in Washington.

Another major influence on the region was Protestant missionary activity, which began with the arrival of Jason Lee, a Methodist missionary, in 1834. Lee started his mission in the Willamette Valley, near present-day Salem. After a lecture tour of the East, he returned to Oregon in 1840 with 50 settlers and assistants. While Lee's mission was of little help to the local Indians, most of whom had been killed off by white men's diseases, it served as a base for subsequent American settlement and as a counterbalance to the Hudson's Bay Company.

The first major wagon trains arrived by way of the Oregon Trail in the early 1840s. On 2 May 1843, as a “great migration” of 875 men, women, and children was crossing the plains, about 100 settlers met at the Willamette Valley community of Champoeg and voted to form a provisional government. That government remained in power until 1849, when Oregon became a territory, three years after the Oregon Treaty between Great Britain and the United States established the present US-Canadian boundary. As originally constituted, Oregon Territory included present-day Washington and much of Montana, Idaho, and Wyoming. A constitution prepared by an elected convention was approved in November 1857, and after a delay caused by North-South rivalries, on 14 February 1859, Congress voted to make Oregon, reduced to its present borders, the 33rd state.

Oregon remained relatively isolated until the completion of the first transcontinental railroad link in 1883. State politics, which had followed a pattern of venality and influence buying, underwent an upheaval in the early 1900s. Reformers led by William S. U'Ren instituted what became known as the “Oregon System” of initiative, referendum, and recall, by which voters could legislate directly and removed corrupt elected officials.

Oregon's population grew steadily in the 20th century as migration into the state continued. (By 2004, its population was almost 3.6 million.) Improved transportation helped make the state the nation's leading lumber producer and a major exporter of agricultural products. Development was also aided by hydroelectric projects, many undertaken by the federal government. The principal economic changes after World War II were the growth of the aluminum industry, a rapid expansion of the tourist trade, and the creation of a growing electronics industry. The dominant industries in the Oregon economy, however, remained those centered on its abundant natural resources—agriculture, timber, and coal. These industries suffered in the late 1970s and 1980s when interest rates skyrocketed, reducing demand for houses and therefore for wood. Employment in the lumber and wood industry dropped from 81,000 jobs in 1979 to 64,000 in 1985. High interest rates, by

boosting the value of the dollar, also lowered foreign demand for lumber and produce.

It was hoped that the construction of high-technology plants in the mid-1980s would help immunize Oregon from the fluctuating fortunes of the extractive (mining and timber) and agricultural industries. However, a slump in the computer industry delayed the building of planned facilities in the state. By the early 1990s, Oregon did boast a burgeoning electronics industry, but the greatest job growth had occurred in the service sector. Agricultural industries also helped boost the state's economy. By 1994, unemployment stood at a 25-year low of 5%. Nevertheless, by 1999 it had increased to 5.7%, well above the national average (it was the third-highest jobless rate in the nation). Other statistics pointed out problems in Oregon. Poverty was on the rise during the decade—climbing from 9.2% in 1990 to 15% in 1998. The dramatic increase came as levels in most other states were on the decline, so that Oregon began the decade as the 43rd-poorest (one of the best-off states) in the nation and was set to close the decade as the 10th-poorest state. Children were a large part of these statistics: Oregon's child poverty rate shot up 25% between 1993 and 1998 alone, so that in 1998 one in five children in the state was living in poverty.

By 1990, the struggle between environmentalists and the timber industry over logging in Oregon's forests had become a major public policy debate. Federal legislation passed in 1993 set limits on commercial exploitation of older forests that were home to the spotted owl. With the shift in focus from timber production to protecting habitat, timber harvests in national forests declined 70% during the 1990s. The decline of logging resulted in severe economic downturns in rural areas and a loss of school funding, which the National Education Association called a "crisis for many forest county education systems" in western states, including Oregon. To assist communities affected by the downturn, Congress considered disparate proposals—from requiring the US Forest Service to generate more income (a portion of which, by a 1908 law, funds schools) from logging on public lands to issuing US Treasury payments to afflicted counties as they transition from logging-based economies. Conservationists were being backed by analysts who forecasted the state's greatest job growth would come from the environmentally friendly high-tech sector and the environmentally dependent tourism industry.

In 2003, Oregon faced a \$2.5 billion budget deficit. Upon being elected in 2002, Democratic Governor Ted Kulongoski supported a temporary income tax increase, which voters rejected in a January 2003 referendum. The state then had to face cuts of over \$300 million in education, health care, and other programs in order to balance the \$11.6 billion budget for 2003–05. By 2005, Kulongoski had made inroads in creating jobs and expanding business opportunities in both rural and urban areas, while protecting the environment. He also promoted investment in post-secondary education, so that more Oregonians would be able to attend college, with the intent that graduates would remain in the state and put their skills back into the economy.

Despite Oregon's fiscal woes, its poverty rate improved slightly in the early 2000s: the 2003–04 two-year average poverty rate in the state was 12.1%, compared with a national average of 12.6%. However, the state unemployment rate in 2004 was 7.4%, well above the national average of 5.5%. Per capita personal income

in Oregon for 2004 was \$29,971, below the national average of \$32,937.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The Oregon constitution—drafted and approved in 1857, effective in 1859, and amended 238 times by January 2005—governs the state today. The first decade of the 20th century saw the passage of numerous progressive amendments, including provisions for the direct election of senators, the rights of initiative, referendum, recall, and a direct primary system.

The constitution establishes a 60-member House of Representatives, elected for two years, and a Senate of 30 members, serving four-year terms. Legislative sessions, which are not formally limited in length, begin in January of odd-numbered years. Special sessions may be called by the majority petition of each house. Legislators must be US citizens, at least 21 years old, and must have lived in their districts for at least one year. In 2004 the legislative salary was \$15,396 for the biennial session.

State elected officials are the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, state treasurer, superintendent of public instruction, and a commissioner of labor and industries, all elected for four-year terms. The governor, who may serve no more than eight years in any 12-year period, must be a US citizen, a qualified voter, must be at least 30 years old, and must have been a resident of the state for three years before assuming office. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$93,600. Much policy in Oregon is set by boards and commissions whose members are appointed by the governor, subject to confirmation by the Senate.

Bills become law when approved by a majority of the House and Senate and either signed by the governor or left unsigned for five days when the legislature is in session or for 30 days after it has adjourned. Measures presented to the voters by the legislature or by petition become law when approved by a majority of the electorate. The governor may veto a legislative bill, but the legislature may override a veto by a two-thirds vote of those present in each house. Proposed constitutional amendments require voter approval to take effect, and they may be placed on the ballot either by the legislature or by initiative petition (8% of total votes for all candidates for governor at last election).

To vote in Oregon a person must be a US citizen, age 18 or older, and a state resident. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Oregon has two major political parties, Democratic and Republican. Partly because of the role the direct primary system plays in choosing nominees, party organization is relatively weak. There is a strong tradition of political independence, evidenced in 1976 when Oregon gave independent presidential candidate Eugene McCarthy 3.9% of the vote—his highest percentage in any state—a total that probably cost Jimmy Carter Oregon's then six electoral votes. Another independent, John Anderson, won 112,389 votes (9.5%) in the 1980 presidential election.

Democrat Barbara Roberts was elected governor in 1990. She did not run for reelection in 1994, and John Kitzhaber, a Democrat and physician who designed Oregon's health care rationing system, defeated Republican congressman Denny Smith to become governor. Kitzhaber won a second term in 1998. In 2002, Democrat Ted Kulongoski won the governorship.

Oregonians elected two US senators in 1996. In a special election in January, Democrat Ron Wyden was chosen to serve the remainder of Robert Packwood's term after Packwood resigned from the Senate due to allegations of sexual misconduct; Wyden was elected to his first full term in 1998 and was reelected in 2004. In the November 1996 election, Republican Gordon Smith won the seat vacated by five-term senator Mark Hatfield; he was reelected in 2002. Following 2004 elections, all but one of the state's five US representatives were Democrats.

In mid-2005 there were 18 Democrats and 12 Republicans in the state Senate and 33 Republicans and 27 Democrats in the state House. In 2000, Oregon voters gave Democratic presidential candidate Al Gore a very slight victory over Republican George W. Bush. (Gore won by a margin of 6,765 votes out of over 1.5 million cast statewide.) In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerry won 51.5% of the vote to incumbent President Bush's 47.6%. In 2004 there were 2,120,000 registered voters. In 1998, 40% of registered voters were Democratic, 36% Republican, and 24% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had seven electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Oregon had 36 counties, 240 municipal governments, 197 public school districts, and 927 special districts. Towns and cities enjoy home rule, the right to choose their own form of government and enact legislation on matters of local concern. In 1958, home rule was extended to counties. Most of Oregon's larger cities have council-manager forms of government while smaller communities are governed by a city council and mayor. At the county level, typical elected officials are commissioners, judge, assessor, district attorney, sheriff, and treasurer.

The state constitution gives voters strong control over local government revenue by requiring voter approval of property tax levies.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 124,458 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Oregon operates under executive order; the homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Special offices within the governor's office include the Economic Revitalization Team, the state Affirmative Action Office, and the Advocate for Minority, Women, and Emerging Small Business. The Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman is now a separate agency. The Oregon Government Standards and Practices Commission investigates conflicts of interest involving public officials and to levy civil penalties for infractions. Responsibility for educational matters is divided among the Board of Education, which oversees primary and secondary schools and community colleges; the Board of Higher Education, which controls the state college and university system; and the Childhood Care and Education Coordinating Council. The economy is guided by the departments of agriculture, consumer and business services, revenue, and economic and community development.

State highways, airfields, and public transit systems are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Transportation, which is headed by an appointed commission. The largest state agency is the Department of Human Services, encompassing children's services, adult and family services, health, mental health, seniors, and people with disabilities. State agencies involved in environmental matters include the Department of Environmental Qual-

Oregon Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	OREGON WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	LIBERTARIAN
1948	6	Dewey (R)	243,147	260,904	14,978	5,051	—
1952	6	*Eisenhower (R)	270,579	420,815	3,665	—	—
1956	6	Eisenhower (R)	329,204	406,393	—	—	—
1960	6	Nixon (R)	367,402	408,065	—	—	—
1964	6	*Johnson (D)	501,017	282,779	—	—	—
						AMERICAN IND.	
1968	6	*Nixon (R)	358,866	408,433	—	49,683	—
						AMERICAN	
1972	6	*Nixon (R)	392,760	486,686	—	46,211	—
1976	6	Ford (R)	490,407	492,120	—	—	—
						CITIZENS	
1980	6	*Reagan (R)	456,890	571,044	—	13,642	25,838
1984	7	*Reagan (R)	536,479	685,700	—	—	—
					NEW ALLIANCE		
1988	7	Dukakis (D)	678,367	483,423	2,985	—	6,261
						IND. (Perot)	
1992	7	*Clinton (D)	621,314	475,757	3,030	354,091	4,277
					GREEN		
1996	7	*Clinton (D)	649,641	538,152	49,415	121,221	8,903
						IND. (Buchanan)	
2000	7	Gore (D)	720,342	713,577	77,357	7,063	7,447
					PACIFIC GREEN (Cobb)	CONSTITUTION	
2004	7	Kerry (D)	943,163	866,831	5,315	5,257	7,260

*Won US presidential election.

ity, the Department of Land Conservation and Development, and the departments of Energy, Forestry, Fish and Wildlife, and Water Resources. State-owned lands are administered through the Land Board.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Oregon's highest court is the Supreme Court, consisting of seven justices who elect one of their number to serve as chief justice. It accepts cases on review from the 10-judge Court of Appeals, which has exclusive jurisdiction over all criminal and civil appeals from lower courts and over certain actions of state agencies. Circuit courts and tax courts are the trial courts of original jurisdiction for civil and criminal matters. The 30 more-populous counties also have district courts, which hear minor civil, criminal, and traffic matters. In 1998, the circuit courts and district courts were merged. The circuit courts are thus the only state-level trial courts. Thirty localities retain justices of the peace, also with jurisdiction over minor cases. State judges and local justices of the peace are elected by nonpartisan ballot for six-year terms.

Oregon's penal system is operated by the Oregon Department of Corrections. As of 31 December 2004, a total of 13,183 prisoners were held in Oregon's state and federal prisons, an increase from 12,715 of 3.7% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 985 inmates were female, up from 883 or 11.6% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Oregon had an incarceration rate of 365 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Oregon in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 298.3 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 10,724 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 166,475 reported incidents or 4,631.3 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Oregon has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out only two executions, one in September 1996 and the other in May 1997. As of 1 January 2006, Oregon had 33 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Oregon spent \$144,873,368 on homeland security, an average of \$40 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 667 active duty military personnel and 3,276 civilian personnel stationed in Oregon. The US Coast Guard does maintain search-and-rescue facilities, and the Army Corps of Engineers operates a number of hydroelectric projects in the state. Military contract awards in 2004 totaled nearly \$530 million, and defense payroll outlays were \$804 million.

In 2003, 366,780 military veterans were living in Oregon, of whom 51,587 served in World War II; 37,648 during the Korean conflict; 121,365 during the Vietnam era; and 49,235 during in the Persian Gulf War. Federal veterans' benefits in Oregon totaled more than \$1.0 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Oregon State Police employed 610 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The Oregon Trail was the route along which thousands of settlers traveled to Oregon by covered wagon in the 1840s and 1850s. This early immigration was predominantly from Midwestern states. After the completion of the transcontinental railroad, northeastern states supplied an increasing proportion of the newcomers.

Foreign immigration began in the 1860s with the importation of Chinese contract laborers, and reached its peak about 1900. Germans and Scandinavians (particularly after 1900) were the most numerous foreign immigrants; Japanese, who began arriving in the 1890s, met a hostile reception in some areas. Canadians have also come to Oregon in significant numbers. Nevertheless, immigration from other states has predominated. Between 1970 and 1980, the state's net gain from migration was about 341,000; from 1980 to 1983, however, the state suffered a net loss of about 37,000, and from 1985 to 1990, the net migration gain was 123,500. Between 1990 and 1998, Oregon had net gains of 260,000 in domestic migration and 58,000 in international migration. In 1998, 5,909 foreign immigrants arrived in Oregon; of these, the greatest number, 1,879, came from Mexico. The state's overall population increased 15.5% between 1990 and 1998, making it one of the fastest growing states in the nation. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 72,263 and net internal migration was 77,821 for a net gain of 150,084 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Oregon participates in such regional accords as the Columbia River Compact (between Oregon and Washington on fishing), Columbia River Gorge Compact, Columbia River Boundary Compact, Klamath River Compact (with California), Pacific States Marine Fisheries Commission, Pacific Ocean Resources Compact, Northwest Power and Conservation Council (with Idaho, Montana, and Washington), and several western groups concerned with corrections, education, and energy matters.

While Oregon receives federal assistance for a variety of programs, federal involvement is particularly heavy in the areas of energy and natural resources, through federal development, operation, and marketing of hydroelectric power and federal ownership of forest and grazing lands. Approximately 49% of Oregon's land area is owned by the federal government. Federal grants to Oregon totaled more than \$4.3 billion in fiscal year 2001. Following a national trend, that figure decreased significantly to \$3.682 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$3.745 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$3.767 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Since early settlement, Oregon's natural resources have formed the basis of its economy. Vast forests have made lumber and wood products the leading industry in the state. Since World War II, however, the state has striven to diversify its job base. The aluminum industry has been attracted to Oregon, along with computer and electronics firms, which now constitute the fastest-growing manufacturing sector. Development, principally in the "Silicon Forest" west of Portland, was expected to bring as many as 3,000 jobs a year during the mid- and late 1980s. Meanwhile, the trend in employment has been toward white-collar and service jobs, with agriculture and manufacturing holding a declining share of

the civilian labor force. Tourism and research-related businesses growing out of partnerships between government and higher education are on the rise.

A large portion of manufacturing jobs outside the Portland area are in the lumber and wood products field, making them dependent on the health of the US construction industry. Jobs are plentiful when US housing starts rise, but unemployment increases when nationwide construction drops off. The cyclical changes in demand for forest products are a chronic problem, with rural areas and small towns particularly hard hit by the periodic closing of local lumber and plywood mills. State efforts at diversification in the 1990s were very effective, however, resulting in an astounding 79.8% growth in output from the electronics field of manufactures 1997 to 2000, the main component in an overall increase in output from manufactures of 43% across this period. Oregon was almost unique among the states in that growth in manufacturing, instead of services, led overall growth coming into the 21st century, with the state economy's annual growth rate accelerating from 5.6% in 1998, to 7.2% in 1999 to 10% in 2000. Oregon's economy was clearly headed for a correction, which came abruptly in the national recession of 2001, in which manufacturing output fell 7.7% and the state economy contracted overall -1.1% (one of the few states to register negative growth for the year). As a result, the personal bankruptcy rate soared, and foreclosures were running at rates not seen since the mid-1980s. By the end of 2002, employment in the electronic products and industrial machinery manufacturing sectors (which produce semiconductors and computers) had fallen 3%, and Oregon was posting the second highest unemployment rate in the country (7%).

In 2004, Oregon's gross state product (GSP) was \$128.103 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) contributed the largest share at \$19.581 billion or 15.2% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$17.937 billion (14% of GSP) and healthcare and social assistance services at \$9.770 billion (7.6% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 320,019 small businesses in Oregon. Of the 104,114 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 101,693 or 97.7% were small companies. An estimated 13,481 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 2.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 14,407, up 1.5% from 2003. There were 852 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 46.4% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 675 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Oregon as the 13th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Oregon had a gross state product (GSP) of \$145 billion which accounted for 1.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 26 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Oregon had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$30,561. This ranked 30th in the United States and was 92% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 3.8%. Oregon had a total personal income (TPI) of \$109,756,586,000, which ranked 28th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.6% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.3%. Earnings of persons

employed in Oregon increased from \$80,090,192,000 in 2003 to \$85,554,132,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.8%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$42,617 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 11.7% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Oregon numbered 1,877,400, with approximately 103,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.5%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,704,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Oregon was 12.1% in November 1982. The historical low was 4.7% in April 1995. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.8% of the labor force was employed in construction; 12.4% in manufacturing; 19.6% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.2% in financial activities; 11.2% in professional and business services; 12.1% in education and health services; 9.6% in leisure and hospitality services; and 16.7% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 213,000 of Oregon's 1,470,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 14.5% of those so employed, down from 15.2% in 2004, but still above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 231,000 workers (15.7%) in Oregon were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Oregon is one of 28 states that do not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Oregon had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$7.50 per hour. As of 1 January 2004, Oregon is required to annually adjust its minimum wage rate for inflation. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 45.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Oregon ranked 27th in the United States in agricultural output in 2005, with cash receipts of \$3.7 billion. Crops accounted for 72% of the total. While wheat has been Oregon's leading crop since the state was first settled, in recent years nursery and greenhouse products, valued at more than \$951 million in 2004, have taken over the number-one spot, followed by hay and ryegrass production which bring in \$262 million and \$204 million respectively. Additionally, more than 170 farm and ranch commodities are commercially produced in the state. Oregon leads the nation in the production of hazelnuts, peppermint oil, blackberries, black raspberries, boysenberries, loganberries, several grass and seed crops, and Christmas trees.

Farmland covers about 17.2 million acres (7 million hectares), or 28% of Oregon's total area. Oregon's average farm is 427 acres (173 hectares), around the same size as the national average. In 2004, the state had some 40,000 farms. Quantity and value of selected crops in 2004 were as follows: hay, 3.6 million tons (val-

ued at \$381 million); wheat, 55.9 million bushels (valued at \$201.7 million); potatoes, 19,775,000 hundred weight; pears, 208,000 tons (valued at \$72.8 million).

Oregon produces about 98% of the nation's supply of ryegrass seed, with sales of nearly \$198 million in 2005. In recent years, the growth of Oregon's wine industry has become noteworthy.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Most beef cattle are raised on the rangeland of eastern Oregon, while dairy operations are concentrated in the western portion of the state. Sheep and poultry are also raised largely in the west.

After greenhouse/nursery products, cattle and calf production is Oregon's leading agricultural activity in terms of value, although income varies greatly with market conditions. Ranchers lease large tracts of federally owned grazing land under a permit system.

In 2005, Oregon ranches and farms had around 1.4 million cattle and calves, worth an estimated \$1.37 billion. During 2003, the state produced nearly 10.1 million lb (4.6 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which brought in \$11.7 million in gross income; in 2004 shorn wool production was an estimated 1.1 million lb (0.5 million kg) of wool. The 2003 milk output was estimated at 2.2 billion lb (1 billion kg). Oregon's poultry farmers produced nearly 2.8 million lb (1.3 million kg) of chickens in 2003, and 783 million eggs.

25 FISHING

Oregon's fish resources have long been of great importance to its inhabitants. For centuries, salmon provided much of the food for Indians, who gathered at traditional fishing grounds when the salmon were returning upstream from the ocean to spawn.

In 2004, Oregon ranked seventh among the states in the total amount of its commercial catch, at over 294.7 million lb (134 million kg) valued at \$101 million. The port at Astoria ranked ninth in the nation in catch volume with 135.8 million lb (61.7 million kg). Newport ranked 11th the same year with 111.2 million lb (50.5 million kg). The catch included salmon, especially chinook and silver; groundfish such as flounder, rockfish, and lingcod; shellfish such as shrimp and oysters; and albacore tuna. Salmon landings in 2004 totaled 5.9 million lb (2.7 million kg), the third largest salmon catch in the nation, and were valued at \$13 million. Oregon led the nation in dungeness crab landings, with 27.3 million lb (12.4 million kg), which accounted for 38% of the total for the nation.

In 2003, there were 26 processing plants in the state with about 1,012 employees. In 2002, the commercial fishing fleet consisted of 998 boats and vessels.

Sport fishing, primarily for salmon and trout, is a major recreational attraction. In 2004, the state issued 666,454 sport fishing licenses. Hatchery production of salmon and steelhead has taken on increased importance, as development has destroyed natural fishspawning areas. There are 34 public fish hatcheries in the state, including two national fish hatcheries (Eagle Creek and Warm Springs).

26 FORESTRY

About 48% (29.7 million acres/12 million hectares) of Oregon is forested. Oregon's forests are divided into two major geographic regions. Douglas-fir is a primary conifer species in western Oregon, with western hemlock and sitka spruce found along the coast.

In eastern Oregon, ponderosa pine is the main species. Several species of true fir, larch, and lodgepole pine also grow east of the Cascades. Noncommercial forests are found along the crest of the Cascade Range and in the high-desert country of eastern Oregon. These species include alpine fir, mountain hemlock and western juniper.

Over 60% of Oregon's forests are publicly owned. National Forest Service lands cover 17.5 million acres (7.1 million hectares). Most of these are federal lands. Federal timber harvest levels have steadily declined over the last several years as timber sales have been appealed and forest set-asides for habitat protection have increased. Reduced revenues have affected local services and infrastructure—where a percentage of harvest tax dollars are reinvested—and the overall structure and funding of federal agencies. The Oregon Department of Forestry manages about 786,000 acres (318,000 hectares) of forestland. About 654,000 acres (265,000 hectares) are managed by the department for the counties, and a further 132,000 acres (53,000 hectares) are Common School Fund forestlands, managed for the State Land Board. State forestlands are not managed with the same "multiple-use" strategy as lands managed by the US Forest Service. According to statute, state lands are managed to produce sustainable revenue for counties, schools, and local taxing districts. About 80% of the state's forestland, or 23.8 million acres (9.6 million hectares), is land capable of producing timber for commercial harvest. However, less than 60% of this commercial land is available for full-yield timber production. The remaining forestland base contains commercial forest, but at reduced levels, and provides vital environmental and recreational functions.

Forestland available for commercial timber management has decreased since the 1970s. Estimates show that Oregon's commercial land base has decreased by more than 24% since 1945. Private forestland has been lost due to urban expansion and other non-timber uses. Private forestlands, however, have assumed a much more important role as Oregon's timber supplier due to harvest limitations placed on federal forestland. Timber harvest levels on non-industrial forestlands—parcels typically smaller than 5,000 acres (2,000 hectares) and owned by individuals, not corporations—have more than doubled since 1981, and harvest levels on industry-owned forestlands have also increased during the same period. The relative percentage of overall harvest, however, emphasizes the importance of Oregon's private forestlands.

In 2004, Oregon led the nation in total lumber production, with 7.08 billion board feet, and contributed 14.3% to the national total. Nearly all of the timber harvested from private forestlands is second-growth—trees originating from 1920 to 1940. Private forestlands are being reforested and play a major role in sustaining Oregon's long-term timber supply. Oregon law has required reforestation following timber harvesting since 1941. Oregon was the first state to pass a Forest Practices Act, in 1971. About 100 million seedlings are planted in Oregon each year.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Oregon in 2003 was \$311 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 3%. The USGS data ranked Oregon as 35th among the 50 states by

the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for about 1% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, construction sand and gravel and crushed stone were the state's top nonfuel minerals by value. They were followed in descending order of value by portland cement, diatomite, and lime. Collectively, these five commodities accounted for approximately 96% of all nonfuel mineral production, by value. Oregon in 2003 was the nation's only producer of emery; it ranked second in the output of perlite and pumice, third in diatomite and (by value) gemstones, and fifth in talc.

Preliminary figures for 2003 showed Oregon produced 19 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel, valued at \$113 million, and 18.8 million metric tons of crushed stone, worth \$96.8 million.

In 2003, Oregon was also a producer of zeolites and common clays. Zeolites are used as an ammonia absorbent in aquarium systems, as animal feed supplements, anticaking agents, fungicide carriers, in odor control, and in wastewater treatment.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Oregon had 41 electrical power service providers, of which 18 were publicly owned and 19 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were investor owned, and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 1,739,659 retail customers. Of that total, 1,282,670 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 183,752 customers, while publicly owned providers had 273,235 customers. There were two federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 12.882 million kW, with total production that same year at 48.966 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 78.8% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 33.250 billion kWh (67.9%), came from hydroelectric plants, with natural gas fired plants in second place at 10.243 billion kWh (20.9%) and coal-fired plants in third at 4.304 billion kWh (8.8%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.3% of all power generated, with petroleum fired plants at 0.1.

Oregon ranks high in the development of hydroelectric power, which supplies more than half of the state's energy needs. Multi-purpose federal projects, including four dams on the Columbia River and eight in the Willamette Basin, and projects owned by private or public utilities give Oregon a hydroelectric capacity of over 8,100,000 kW. In recent decades, low-cost power from dams has proved inadequate to meet the state's energy needs, with coal and natural gas fired steam plants being built to supply additional electric power. As of 2003, however, there were no nuclear power plants in operation.

Oregon has no proven reserves or production of crude oil. Although the state has one refinery, it is used to produce asphalt.

In 2004, Oregon had 15 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 467 million cu ft (13.26 million cu m). There is no data available on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Oregon's manufacturing sector covered some 17 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$54.836 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$17.849 billion. It was followed by wood product manufacturing at \$8.782 billion; food manufacturing at \$5.876 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$3.211 billion; and paper manufacturing at \$2.849 billion.

In 2004, a total of 174,214 people in Oregon were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 124,218 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the wood product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 31,497 with 26,622 actual production workers. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at 25,481 employees (12,966 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 18,625 employees (14,659 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 15,335 employees (10,930 actual production workers); and transportation equipment manufacturing with 14,784 employees (11,931 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Oregon's manufacturing sector paid \$7.276 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.459 billion. It was followed by wood product manufacturing at \$1.148 billion; food manufacturing at \$628.849 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$599.949 million; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$564.379 million.

More than half of Oregon's industrial workers are employed in the Portland area. The Willamette Valley is the site of one of the nation's largest canning and freezing industries.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Oregon's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$56.8 billion from 5,770 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 3,620 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,707 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 443 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$27.7 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$22.7 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$6.4 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Oregon was listed as having 14,277 retail establishments with sales of \$37.8 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (1,964); food and beverage stores (1,938); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,805); and clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,514). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$10 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$7.02 billion; food and beverage stores at \$6.07 billion; and gasoline stations at \$2.4 billion. A total of 183,706 people were employed by the retail sector in Oregon that year.

Exports moving through Oregon were valued at \$12.3 billion in 2005. Exports went primarily to Canada, Japan, Korea, and the Philippines.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Department of Consumer and Business Services (DCBS) is Oregon's largest regulatory and consumer protection agency. It is a part of the state's Department of Justice, along with the Office of the Attorney General, the latter of which litigates consumer protection issues. The DCBS administers laws and rules regarding workmen's compensation, occupational safety and health, building codes, financial institutions and insurance companies, and securities offerings. The Financial Fraud/Consumer Protection Section of the state's Department of Justice coordinates consumer services carried on by other government agencies, conducts studies and research in consumer services, and advises executive and legislative branches in matters affecting consumer interests. In addition, it is responsible for the enforcement of Oregon's Unlawful Trade Practices Act. Also responsible for consumer protection are the Department of Agriculture (measurement standards division); and the state's public utilities commission.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and to a limited extent, criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the Attorney General's Office cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Financial Fraud/Consumer Protection Section are located in Salem.

3² BANKING

Consolidations and acquisitions transformed Oregon's banking system from one characterized by a large number of local banks into one dominated by two large chains—the US National Bank of Oregon and Wells Fargo.

As of June 2005, Oregon had 39 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 23 state-chartered and 70 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Portland-Vancouver-Beaverton market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 40 institutions and \$25.150 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 34.4% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$11.810 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 65.6% or \$22.560 billion in assets held.

The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans as of fourth quarter 2005 stood at 0.32%, down from 0.44% in 2004 and 0.84 in 2003, reflecting solid economic growth in the state. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) has increased as the Federal Reserve has continued a policy of interest rate hikes. As of fourth quarter 2005, the NIM rate stood at 5.45%, up from 4.95% in 2004 and 5.04% in 2003.

Regulation of Oregon's state chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Oregon Division of Finance and Corporate Securities.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were over 1.18 million individual life insurance policies in force, with a total value of over \$128 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$195 billion. The average coverage amount is \$108,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$512.9 million.

As of the end of 2003, there were 14 property and casualty and 3 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2003, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$5 billion. That year, there were 26,351 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$4.4 million. About \$424 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 53% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 6% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 13% for single coverage and 24% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 2.4 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Personal injury protection and uninsured motorist coverage are also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$734.99.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities or commodities exchanges in Oregon. In 2005, there were about 2,350 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents employed in the state. In 2004, there were over 100 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 51 NASDAQ companies, 13 NYSE listings, and 1 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 500 companies; Nike, based in Beaverton and listed on the NYSE, ranked 163rd in the nation with revenues of over \$13.7 billion. The NYSE-listed companies Precision Catparts, Lithia Motors, and StanCorp Financials were included on the Fortune 1,000.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Oregon's biennial budget, covering a period from 1 July of each odd-numbered year to 30 June of the next odd-numbered year, is prepared by the Executive Department and submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. Unlike some state budgets, Oregon's is not contained in a single omnibus appropriations bill. Instead, each agency appropriation is considered

as a separate measure. When the legislature is not in session, an emergency board of 17 legislators considers fiscal problems; this board may adjust budgets, allocate money from a special emergency fund, and establish new expenditure limitations, but it cannot enact new general fund appropriations. The Oregon constitution prohibits a state budget deficit and requires that all general obligation bond issues be submitted to the voters.

Fiscal year 2005 general funds were estimated at \$4.8 billion for resources and \$4.6 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Oregon were nearly \$5.2 billion.

Oregon—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	24,488,705	6,819.47
General revenue	13,766,126	3,833.51
Intergovernmental revenue	4,160,915	1,158.71
Taxes	6,103,071	1,699.55
General sales	—	—
Selective sales	748,882	208.54
License taxes	651,016	181.29
Individual income tax	4,270,740	1,189.29
Corporate income tax	320,065	89.13
Other taxes	112,368	31.29
Current charges	2,143,679	596.96
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,358,461	378.30
Utility revenue	2,016	.56
Liquor store revenue	289,365	80.58
Insurance trust revenue	10,431,198	2,904.82
Total expenditure	18,788,196	5,232.02
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,637,052	1,291.30
Direct expenditure	14,151,144	3,940.73
Current operation	8,562,329	2,384.39
Capital outlay	787,202	219.22
Insurance benefits and repayments	4,074,456	1,134.63
Assistance and subsidies	351,104	97.77
Interest on debt	376,053	104.72
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,105,615	864.83
Total expenditure	18,788,196	5,232.02
General expenditure	14,560,257	4,054.65
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,637,052	1,291.30
Direct expenditure	9,923,205	2,763.35
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	5,465,246	1,521.93
Public welfare	3,517,473	979.52
Hospitals	677,811	188.75
Health	285,489	79.50
Highways	1,232,642	343.26
Police protection	196,166	54.63
Correction	494,152	137.61
Natural resources	380,247	105.89
Parks and recreation	73,727	20.53
Government administration	946,791	263.66
Interest on general debt	376,053	104.72
Other and unallocable	914,460	254.65
Utility expenditure	9,083	2.53
Liquor store expenditure	144,400	40.21
Insurance trust expenditure	4,074,456	1,134.63
Debt at end of fiscal year	10,495,671	2,922.77
Cash and security holdings	59,094,738	16,456.35

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Oregon was slated to receive: \$107.6 million to begin construction on two Portland-area fixed guideway transit systems. The first, an eight-mile MAX system extension parallel to Interstate 205, was forecast to have a 2009 ridership of over 25,000 additional weekday boardings. The second, a 15-mile project, would serve rapidly growing suburban communities west of Portland in Washington County. The state also was to receive \$40 million in incremental funding for a \$160 million project for I-5 bridge repair and for other improvements in the I-5 corridor; \$39.8 million for major cities throughout the state to fund buses, railcars, and maintenance facilities essential to sustaining public transportation systems that serve their communities; \$13 million (a \$12 million increase over fiscal year 2006) to continue actions to remove the Savage Rapids Dam on Oregon's Rogue River; \$8.5 million to provide transportation in rural areas statewide; and \$3.8 million to improve public transportation in Oregon for the elderly, persons with disabilities, and persons with lower-incomes, providing access to job and health care facilities.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Oregon collected \$6,523 million in tax revenues or \$1,791 per capita, which placed it 41st among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.4% of the total; selective sales taxes, 10.7%; individual income taxes, 72.0%; corporate income taxes, 5.6%; and other taxes, 11.3%.

As of 1 January 2006, Oregon had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 5.0% to 9.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.6%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$3,459,371,000 or \$963 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 28th nationally. Local governments collected \$3,443,506,000 of the total and the state government \$15,865,000.

Oregon taxes gasoline at 24 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Oregon citizens received \$0.97 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Oregon actively seeks balanced economic growth in order to diversify its industrial base, reduce its dependence on the wood products industry, and provide jobs for a steadily growing labor force. The Oregon Economic and Community Development Department (OECD) offers a variety of financial assistance and incentives to companies which create jobs, particularly for low-income residents. It extends loans and issues industrial development bonds for manufacturing, processing and tourism-related facilities in Oregon. The bonds are exempt from federal taxes. The Department enables banks to make loans to projects that carry higher than conventional risk by creating reserve accounts which function as insurance for the banks. To promote new technologies, the Oregon Resource and Technology Development Corporation invests in applied research. Enterprise zones offer incentives for new businesses. The state offers tax credits to encourage businesses to use pollution control facilities, to invest in energy conservation and to employ renewable energy resources. The De-

partment provides a Guidebook and Readiness Assessment Tool to help communities assess their economic development potentials. Oregon also launched a Brand Oregon campaign in 2003, which was a statewide effort to stimulate the economy through the promotion of Oregon's local characteristics and products. The program began with the promotion of seafood. Since then, wines and cheeses have been promoted, as have organic foods.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.5 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.9 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 23.5 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 81.2% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 79% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.7 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 206.2; cancer, 205.8; cerebrovascular diseases, 75.1; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 52.4; and diabetes, 29.6. Oregon had the third-highest death rate for cerebrovascular diseases in the nation, following Arizona and Iowa. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.6 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 7.8 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.9% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Oregon had 58 community hospitals with about 6,800 beds. There were about 342,000 patient admissions that year and 8.2 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 4,000 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,842. Also in 2003, there were about 141 certified nursing facilities in the state with 12,789 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 67.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Oregon had 269 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 768 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 1,768 dentists in the state.

About 18% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$3.8 million.

The only medical and dental schools in the state are at the University of Oregon Health Sciences University in Portland.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

The Department of Human Resources was created in 1971 to coordinate social service activities. In 2004, about 148,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$252. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 429,358 persons (218,297 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.49 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$455.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reautho-

rized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Oregon's TANF program is called JOBS (Job Opportunities and Basic Skills). In 2004, the state program had 42,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$120 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 611,490 Oregon residents. This number included 406,330 retired workers, 57,330 widows and widowers, 73,750 disabled workers, 34,460 spouses, and 39,620 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 16.8% of the total state population and 95.5% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$964; widows and widowers, \$944; disabled workers, \$894; and spouses, \$482. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$501 per month; children of deceased workers, \$653; and children of disabled workers, \$283. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 58,842 Oregon residents, averaging \$395 a month. An additional \$1.7 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 16,972 residents.

40 HOUSING

During the 1970s and early 1980s, a growing percentage of new construction went for rental units. Between 1970 and 1980, the proportion of the housing stock in single-family units fell from 77% to 68%. In 2004, there were an estimated 1,535,381 housing units in Oregon, of which 1,427,711 were occupied; 63% owner-occupied. About 62.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Electricity and utility gas were the most common energy sources for heat. It was estimated that 56,590 units lacked telephone service, 4,834 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 10,081 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.46 members.

In 2004, 27,300 new privately owned units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$181,544. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,217. Renters paid a median of \$681 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$649,984 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$14.2 million in community development block grants. The city of Portland received \$10.4 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

Passed by Oregon's legislature in 1991, the Educational Act for the 21st Century set into motion an extensive restructuring of the state's kindergarten through 12th grade public school system. Key components of the Act include raising academic standards for all students, increasing student skills and abilities needed in the workplace, involving parents in decision-making, assessing student performance, requiring accountability for results, emphasizing early childhood education, providing learning opportunities in partnership with communities, and giving local schools more freedom and autonomy.

In 2004, 87.4% of Oregon residents age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 25.9% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher. The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Oregon's public schools stood at 554,000. Of these, 382,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 172,000 attended high school. Approximately 76.6% of the students were white, 3.1% were black, 13.6% were Hispanic, 4.4% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 2.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 555,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 591,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 6.7% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$5.7 billion. In fall 2003 there were 46,968 students enrolled in 362 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Oregon scored 282 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 204,565 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 14.6% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Oregon had 59 degree-granting institutions including 9 public four-year schools, 17 public two-year schools, and 25 nonprofit, private four-year schools. The University of Oregon in Eugene has the highest regular enrollment, followed by Portland State University in Portland, and Oregon State University in Corvallis. The Oregon State Scholarship Commission (OSSC) administers an extensive financial aid program for state college students.

Major private higher education institutions include Willamette University, Salem; George Fox College, Newberg; Linfield College, McMinnville; and University of Portland, Reed College, Lewis and Clark College, and Oregon Graduate Institute of Science and Technology, all in Portland.

42 ARTS

The Oregon Arts Commission was established in 1967 and became a division of the Oregon Economic and Community Development Department in 1993. In 2005, the Oregon Arts Commission and other Oregon arts organizations received 31 grants totaling \$1,187,500 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The state and private sources contribute funding for the arts as well.

The Oregon Council for the Humanities (OCH) has a number of annual historical and literary programs. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,221,549 for 15 state programs.

The Portland Art Museum, with an associated art school, is the city's center for the visual arts. A \$125 million preservation and renovation project was completed in October 2005 on the Portland Art Museum's Mark Building, featuring a new Center for Modern and Contemporary Art. The University of Oregon's Jordan Schnitzer Museum of Art, specializes in Oriental art. The Jordan Schnitzer Museum of Art reopened in January 2005, after a \$14.2 million expansion project almost doubled the size of the building.

The state's most noted theatrical enterprise is the Tony Award-winning Oregon Shakespeare Festival (OSF) in Ashland, with a complex of theaters drawing actors and audiences from around

the nation. Founded in 1935, the OSF is one of the oldest and largest professional nonprofit theaters in the United States. As of 2005, OSF had presented over 780 performances annually serving approximately 360,000 visitors. The Portland Center for the Performing Arts is home to the Oregon Symphony Orchestra, the Portland Opera, Oregon Ballet Theatre, Oregon Children's Theatre, Portland Center Stage, Portland Youth Philharmonic, Tears of Joy Puppet Theatre, and Broadway in Portland. Salem and Eugene have small symphony orchestras of their own; in 2005 the Oregon Symphony Association in Salem celebrated its 50th anniversary.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Oregon had 125 public library systems, with a total of 210 libraries, of which 89 were branches. In that same year, the total book/serial publication stock of all public libraries was 8,476,000 volumes and their combined circulation was 38,047,000. The system also had 473,000 audio and 359,000 video items, 12,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and nine bookmobiles. Most cities and counties in Oregon have public library systems, the largest being the Multnomah County library system in Portland, with 14 branches and 1,288,634 volumes in 1999. The State Library in Salem serves as a reference agency for state government. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$112,473,000 and included \$1,151,000 in federal grants and \$729,000 in state grants.

Oregon has 105 museums, historic sites, botanical gardens and arboretums. Historical museums emphasizing Oregon's pioneer heritage appear throughout the state, with Ft. Clatsop National Memorial—featuring a replica of Lewis and Clark's winter headquarters—among the notable attractions. The Oregon Historical Society operates a major historical museum in Portland, publishes books of historical interest, and issues the *Oregon Historical Quarterly*. In Portland's Washington Park area are the Oregon Museum of Science and Industry, Washington Park Zoo, Western Forestry Center, and an arboretum and other gardens.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

As of 2004, 95.5% of Oregon's households had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 1,894,285 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 67.0% of Oregon households had a computer and 61.0% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 561,867 high-speed lines in Oregon, 505,260 residential and 56,607 for business. Oregon had 37 major AM and 86 major FM commercial radio stations in 2005; and 24 major television stations. A state-owned broadcasting system provides educational radio and television programming. The Portland area had over one million television households, 62% of which ordered cable in 1999. A total of 97,453 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

Oregon's first newspaper was the weekly *Oregon Spectator*, which began publication in 1846. Early newspapers engaged in what became known as the "Oregon style" of journalism, characterized by intemperate, vituperative, and fiercely partisan comments. As of 2005, 7 morning, 13 evening, and 12 Sunday newspapers were

published in Oregon. The state's largest newspaper, the *Oregonian*, published in Portland, is owned by Advance Publications.

The following table lists leading Oregon newspapers with their approximate 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Eugene	<i>Register-Guard</i> (m,S)	79,266	75,460
Portland	<i>Oregonian</i> (all day,S)	324,863	405,295
Salem	<i>Statesman-Journal</i> (m,S)	53,366	61,652

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 3,390 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,459 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the many forestry-related organizations in Oregon are the International Woodworkers of America (AFL-CIO), Association of Western Pulp and Paper Workers, Pacific Lumber Exporters Association, Western Forest Industries Association, and Western Wood Products Association, all with their headquarters in Portland. State and national conservation issues are represented in part by the Native Fish Society, the Native Forest Council, and the Natural Areas Association. The National Indian Child Welfare Association is based in Portland.

Other national organizations based in the state are the Hop Growers of America and the North American Bungee Association. Local history is represented in part through the Big Butte Historical Society and the Oregon Trail Travelers, as well as several other regional historical societies. The United States Judo Federation is based in Ontario.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Oregon's abundance and variety of natural features and recreational opportunities make the state a major tourist attraction. Travel and tourism is the state's third-largest employer, generating over 94,500 jobs. In 2002, travel revenues reached \$6.3 billion. The Oregon Tourism Commission maintains an active tourist advertising program, and Portland hotels busily seek major conventions.

Among the leading attractions are the rugged Oregon coast, with its offshore salmon fishing; Crater Lake National Park; the Rogue River, for river running and fishing; the Columbia Gorge, east of Portland; the Cascades wilderness; and Portland's annual Rose Festival. Oregon has one national park, Crater Lake, and three other areas—John Day Fossil Beds National Monument, Oregon Caves National Monument, and Ft. Clatsop National Memorial—managed by the National Park Service. The US Forest Service administers the Oregon Dunes National Recreation Area, on the Oregon coast; the Lava Lands Visitor Complex near Bend; and the Hells Canyon National Recreation Area, east of Enterprise. Oregon has one of the nation's most extensive state park systems: 225 parks and recreation areas cover 90,000 acres (36,400 hectares). Portland and the Mt. Hood area attracts many mountain climbers and outdoor recreation seekers. There are places one can travel the original Oregon Trail of Westward expansion. In 2006 Oregon was celebrating the bicentennial of the Lewis and Clark expedition.

48 SPORTS

Oregon has one major league team, based in Portland. The Portland Trail Blazers, winners of the National Basketball Association

championship in 1977, play in the NBA. The Portland Beavers are a Triple-A affiliate of the San Diego Padres. The state fields three teams that compete in baseball's class-A Northwest League, in Eugene and Salem.

Horse racing takes place at Portland Meadows in Portland and, in late August and early September, at the Oregon State Fair in Salem. There is greyhound racing at the Multnomah Greyhound Park near Portland. Pari-mutuel betting is permitted at the tracks, but off-track betting is prohibited.

The University of Oregon and Oregon State University belong to the Pacific 10 Conference. The Oregon State Ducks won the Rose Bowl in 1942 and appeared in, but lost, in 1965. Oregon was a surprise winner at the Pac-10 in 1994, and made its first Rose Bowl appearance in 37 years. The Ducks lost to Penn State in the 1995 Rose Bowl. Since 1996, the Ducks have won several bowl contests, highlighted by a victory over the Colorado Buffaloes in the 2002 Fiesta Bowl.

Other annual sporting events include sled dog races in Bend and Union Creek, the All-Indian Rodeo in Tygh Valley in May (one of many rodeos), and the Cycle Oregon Bike Ride.

49 FAMOUS OREGONIANS

Prominent federal officeholders from Oregon include Senator Charles McNary (1874–1944), a leading advocate of federal reclamation and development projects and the Republican vice-presidential nominee in 1940; Senator Wayne Morse (b.Wisconsin, 1900–1974), who was an early opponent of US involvement in Vietnam; Representative Edith Green (1910–1984), a leader in federal education assistance; and Representative Al Ullman (b.Montana, 1914–1986), chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee until his defeat in 1980. Recent cabinet members from Oregon have been Douglas McKay (1893–1959), secretary of the interior; and Neil Goldschmidt (b.1940) secretary of transportation.

A major figure in early Oregon history was sea captain Robert Gray (b.Rhode Island. 1755–1806), discoverer of the Columbia River. Although never holding a government position, fur trader Dr. John McLoughlin (b.Canada, 1784–1857) in effect ruled Oregon from 1824 to 1845; he was officially designated the "father of Oregon" by the 1957 state legislature. Also of importance in the early settlement was Methodist missionary Jason Lee (b.Canada, 1803–45). Oregon's most famous Indian was Chief Joseph (1840?–1904), leader of the Nez Percé in northeastern Oregon; when tension between the Nez Percé and white settlers erupted into open hostilities in 1877, Chief Joseph led his band of about 650 men, women, and children from the Oregon-Idaho border across the Bitterroot Range evading three army detachments before being captured in northern Montana.

Other important figures in the early days of statehood were Harvey W. Scott (b.Illinois 1838–1910), longtime editor of the *Portland Oregonian*, and his sister, Abigail Scott Duniway (b.Illinois, 1823–1915), the Northwest's foremost advocate of women's suffrage, a cause her brother strongly opposed. William Simon U'Ren (b.Wisconsin, 1859–1949) was a lawyer and reformer whose influence on Oregon politics and government endures to this day. Journalist and Communist John Reed (1887–1920), author of *Ten Days That Shook the World*, an eyewitness account of the Bolshevik Revolution, was born in Portland, and award-winning science-fiction writer Ursula K. LeGuin (b.California, 1929) is a Portland

resident. Linus Pauling (1901–94), two-time winner of the Nobel Prize (for chemistry in 1954, for peace in 1962) was another Portland native. Other scientists prominent in the state's history include botanist David Douglas (b.Scotland, 1798–1834), who made two trips to Oregon and after whom the Douglas fir is named; and geologist and paleontologist Thomas Condon (b.Ireland, 1822–1907), discoverer of major fossil beds in eastern Oregon.

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PENNSYLVANIA

Commonwealth of Pennsylvania



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for Admiral William Penn, father of the founder of Pennsylvania. **NICK-NAME:** The Keystone State. **CAPITAL:** Harrisburg. **ENTERED UNION:** 12 December 1787 (2nd). **SONG:** "Pennsylvania." **MOTTO:** Virtue, Liberty and Independence. **COAT OF ARMS:** A shield supported by two horses displays a sailing ship, a plow, and three sheaves of wheat; an eagle forms the crest. Beneath the shield an olive branch and a cornstalk are crossed, and below them is the state motto. **FLAG:** The coat of arms appears in the center of a blue field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** OBVERSE: a shield displays a sailing ship, a plow, and three sheaves of wheat, with a cornstalk to the left, an olive branch to the right, and an eagle above, surrounded by the inscription "Seal of the State of Pennsylvania." REVERSE: a woman representing Liberty holds a wand topped by a liberty cap in her left hand and a drawn sword in her right, as she tramples a lion representing Tyranny. The legend "Both Can't Survive" encircles the design. **BIRD:** Ruffed grouse. **FISH:** Brook trout. **FLOWER:** Mountain laurel. **TREE:** Hemlock. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents' Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans' Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the following day; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the northeastern United States, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania is the second-largest of the three Middle Atlantic states and ranks 33rd in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Pennsylvania is 45,308 sq mi (117,348 sq km), of which land occupies 44,888 sq mi (116,260 sq km) and inland water 420 sq mi (1,088 sq km). The state extends 307 mi (494 km) E–W and 169 mi (272 km) N–S. Pennsylvania is rectangular in shape, except for an irregular side on the E and a break in the even boundary in the NW where the line extends N–E for about 50 mi (80 km) along the shore of Lake Erie.

Pennsylvania is bordered on the N by New York; on the E by New York and New Jersey (with the Delaware River forming the entire boundary); on the SE by Delaware; on the S by Maryland and West Virginia (demarcated by the Mason-Dixon line); on the W by West Virginia and Ohio; and on the NW by Lake Erie. The total boundary length of Pennsylvania is 880 mi (1,416 km). The state's geographical center lies in Centre County, 2.5 mi (4 km) SW of Bellefonte.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Pennsylvania may be divided into more than a dozen distinct physiographic regions, most of which extend in curved bands from east to south. Beginning in the southeast, the first region (including Philadelphia) is a narrow belt of coastal plain along the lower Delaware River; this area, at sea level, is the state's lowest region. The next belt, dominating the southeastern corner, is the Piedmont Plateau, a wide area of rolling hills and lowlands. The Great Valley, approximately 10–15 mi (16–24 km) in width, runs from the middle of the state's eastern border to the middle of its southern border. The eastern, central, and western parts of the Great Valley are known as the Lehigh, Lebanon, and Cumberland

valleys, respectively. West and north of the Great Valley, the Pocono Plateau rises to about 2,200 ft (700 m). Next, in a band 50–60 mi (80–100 km) wide, most of the way from the north-central part of the eastern border to the west-central part of the southern border are the Appalachian Mountains, a distinctive region of parallel ridges and valleys.

The Allegheny High Plateau, part of the Appalachian Plateaus, makes up the western and northern parts of the state. The Allegheny Front, the escarpment along the eastern edge of the plateau, is the most striking topographical feature in Pennsylvania, dissected by many winding streams to form narrow, steep-sided valleys; the southwestern extension of the Allegheny High Plateau contains the state's highest peak, Mt. Davis, at 3,213 ft (980 m). A narrow lowland region, the Erie Plain, borders Lake Erie in the extreme northwestern part of the state. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,100 ft (336 m).

According to federal sources, Pennsylvania has jurisdiction over 735 sq mi (1,904 sq km) of Lake Erie; the state government gives a figure of 891 sq mi (2,308 sq km). Pennsylvania contains about 250 natural lakes larger than 20 acres (8 hectares), most of them in the glaciated regions of the northeast and northwest. The largest natural lake within the state's borders is Conneaut Lake, about 30 mi (48 km) south of the city of Erie, with an area of less than 1.5 sq mi (39 sq km); the largest manmade lake is Lake Wallenpaupack, in the Poconos, occupying about 9 sq mi (23 sq km). Pennsylvania claims more than 21 sq mi (54 sq km) of the Pymatuning Reservoir on the Ohio border.

The Susquehanna River and its tributaries drain more than 46% of the area of Pennsylvania, much of it in the Appalachian Mountains. The Delaware River forms Pennsylvania's eastern border and, like the Susquehanna, flows southeastward to the Atlantic Ocean. Most of the western part of the state is drained by the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, which join at Pittsburgh to form

the Ohio. The Beaver, Clarion, and Youghiogheny rivers are also important parts of this system.

During early geological history, the topography of Pennsylvania had the reverse of its present configurations, with mountains in the southeast and a large inland sea covering the rest of the state. This sea, which alternately expanded and contracted, interwove layers of vegetation (which later became coal) with layers of sandstone and shale.

3 CLIMATE

Although Pennsylvania lies entirely within the humid continental zone, its climate varies according to region and elevation. The regions with the warmest temperatures and the longest growing seasons are the low-lying southwest Ohio valley and the Monongahela valley in the southeast. The region bordering Lake Erie also has a long growing season, as the moderating effect of the lake prevents early spring and late autumn frosts. The first two areas have hot summers, while the Erie area is more moderate. The rest of the state, at higher elevations, has cold winters and cool summers.

Among the major population centers, Philadelphia has an annual average temperature of 55°F (12°C), with a normal minimum of 46°F (7°C) and a normal maximum of 64°F (17°C). Pittsburgh has an annual average of 51°F (10°C), with a minimum of 41°F (5°C) and a maximum of 60°F (15°C). In the cooler northern areas, Scranton has a normal annual average ranging from 40°F (4°C) to 59°F (15°C); Erie, from 41°F (5°C) to 57°F (13°C). The record low temperature for the state is -42°F (-41°C), set at Smethport on 5 January 1904; the record high, 111°F (44°C), was reached at Phoenixville on 10 July 1936.

Philadelphia has about 40.9 in (103 cm) of precipitation annually, and Pittsburgh has 37 in (93 cm). Pittsburgh, however, has much more snow—43.1 in (109 cm), compared with 21 in (52 cm) for Philadelphia. The snowfall in Erie, in the snow belt, averages 85.5 in (217 cm) per year, with heavy snows sometimes experienced late in April. In Philadelphia, the sun shines an average of 56% of the time; in Pittsburgh, 45%.

The state has experienced several destructive floods. On 31 May 1889, the South Fork Dam near Johnstown broke after a heavy rainfall, and its rampaging waters killed 2,200 people and devastated the entire city in less than 10 minutes. On 19–20 July 1977, Johnstown experienced another flood, resulting in 68 deaths. Three tornadoes raked the southwestern part of the commonwealth on 23 June 1944, killing 45 persons and injuring another 362. Rains from Hurricane Agnes in June 1972 resulted in floods that caused 48 deaths and more than \$1.2 billion worth of property damage in the Susquehanna Valley.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Maple, walnut, poplar, oak, pine, ash, beech, and linden trees fill Pennsylvania's extensive forests, along with sassafras, sycamore, weeping willow, and balsam fir (*Abies fraseri*). Red pine and paper birch are found in the north while the sweet gum is dominant in the extreme southwest. Mountain laurel (the state flower), Juneberry, dotted hawthorn, New Jersey tea, and various dogwoods are among the shrubs and small trees found in most parts of the state, and dewberry, wintergreen, wild columbine, and wild ginger are also common. In April 2006, the small whorled pogonia and

Virginia spirea were classified as threatened, with the northeastern bulrush as endangered.

Numerous mammals persist in Pennsylvania, among them the white-tailed deer (the state animal), black bear, red and gray foxes, opossum, raccoon, muskrat, mink, snowshoe hare, common cottontail, and red, gray, fox, and flying squirrels. Native amphibians include the hellbender, Fowler's toad, and the tree, cricket, and true frogs; among reptilian species are the five-lined and black skinks and five varieties of lizard. The ruffed grouse, a common game species, is the official state bird; other game birds are the wood dove, ring-necked pheasant, bobwhite quail, and mallard and black ducks. The robin, cardinal, English sparrow, red-eyed vireo, cedar waxwing, tufted titmouse, yellow-shafted flicker, barn swallow, blue jay, and killdeer are common non-game birds. More than 170 types of fish have been identified in Pennsylvania, with brown and brook trout, grass pickerel, bigeye chub, pirate perch, and white bass among the common native varieties.

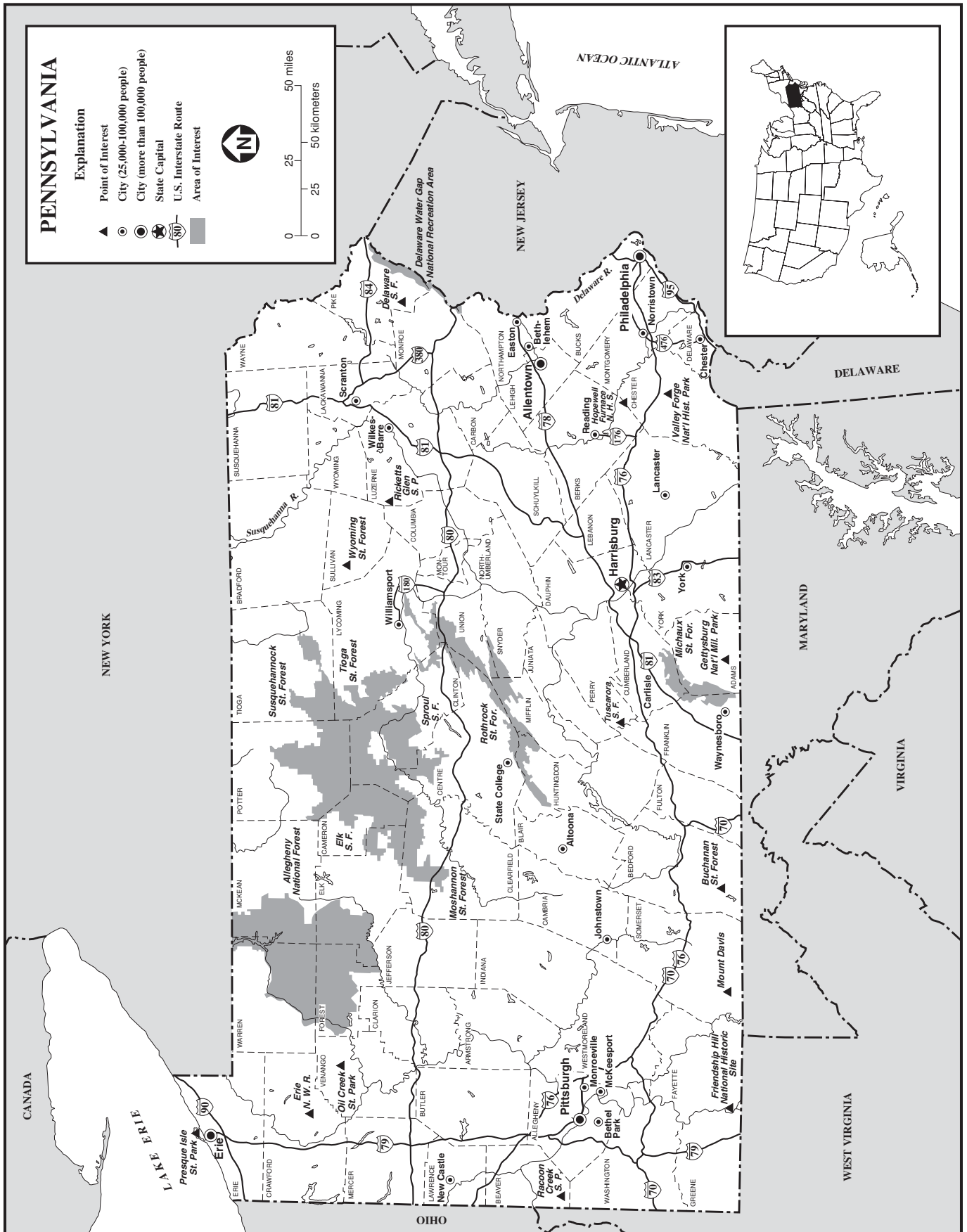
In 1978, the Pennsylvania Game Commission and the US Fish and Wildlife Service signed a cooperative agreement under which the federal government provides two dollars for each dollar spent by the state to determine the status of and improve conditions for threatened or endangered species. On the threatened or endangered list in April 2006 were 12 animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates), including the Indiana bat, bald eagle, orangefoot pimpleback pearly mussel, dwarf wedgemussel, and pink mucket pearly mussel.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Pennsylvania's environment was ravaged by uncontrolled timber cutting in the 19th century, and by extensive coal mining and industrial development until recent times. Pittsburgh's most famous landmarks were its smokestacks, and it was said that silverware on ships entering the port of Philadelphia would tarnish immediately from the fumes of the Delaware River. The anthracite-mining regions were filled with huge, hideous culm piles, and the bituminous and anthracite fields were torn up by strip-mining.

In 1895, Pennsylvania appointed its first commissioner of forestry, in an attempt to repair some of the earlier damage. Gifford Pinchot, who twice served as governor of Pennsylvania, was the first professionally trained forester in the United States (he studied at the École National Forestiere in Paris), developed the US Forest Service, and served as Pennsylvania forest commissioner from 1920 to 1922. In 1955, the state forests were put under scientific management.

In 1972, Pennsylvania voters ratified a state constitutional amendment adopted 18 May 1971, acknowledging the people's "right to clean air, pure water, and to the preservation of the natural, scenic, historic, and esthetic values of the environment" and naming the state as trustee of these resources. Passage of the amendment came only two years after establishment of the Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Resources, which in the 1990s was reorganized into two separate entities. The Department of Conservation and Natural Resources (DCNR) was established on 1 July 1995 to maintain and preserve the state's 116 state parks, manage the 2.1 million acres of state forest land, and provide information on the state's ecological and geologic resources. The DCNR also oversees environmental education and provides assistance and grants for preserving rivers, community trails, parks,



and recreation. The Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection (DEP) was established to protect the state's air, land, and water from pollution and to provide a cleaner environment for the health and safety of Pennsylvania's citizens.

In March 1979, Pennsylvania suffered the worst nuclear-power accident in US history when a nuclear reactor on Three Mile Island malfunctioned and radioactive gases escaped. A second reactor was shut down immediately even though it was not damaged. The cleanup of radioactive waste cost about \$1 billion, and it was not until late 1985 that the undamaged unit was placed back in operation.

An oil spill at Marcus Hook, near the Delaware Border, released 435,000 gallons of crude oil into the Delaware River in September 1985; damage to birds and wetlands was more extensive in Delaware than in Pennsylvania. In 1996, there were 404,000 acres (163,492 hectares) of wetlands in the state. There are about 50 private conservancy groups that work with the state to protect these lands.

As of the early 1990s, sewage and industrial wastes were the major pollutants in areas with high industrial and population concentrations. In western and parts of central Pennsylvania, drainage from abandoned bituminous coal mines created serious water quality problems; active mines in this region were also potentially polluting. A similar situation prevailed in the anthracite areas of northeastern Pennsylvania. Oil and gas well operations, locat-

ed primarily in the northwestern portion of the commonwealth, were additional pollution sources. In 2003, 166.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

After miners were trapped (and subsequently successfully rescued) in an accident at Quecreek Mine in July 2002, the DEP launched a program to build a database of abandoned mine locations to minimize the risk of another such accident occurring.

In 2003, Pennsylvania had 572 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database. In 2006, Pennsylvania ranked second in the nation (following New Jersey) for the highest number of hazardous waste sites on the National Priorities List, with 94 sites; these included the Rodale Manufacturing Co. Westinghouse Electric Corp. (Sharon), and Saegertown Industrial Area. At least 26 sites have been deleted from the list in past years. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$14 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. In 2004, the state received a federal EPA grant of \$52.5 million for the clean water state revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Pennsylvania ranked sixth in population in the United States with an estimated total of 12,429,616 in 2005, an increase of 1.2% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Pennsylvania's population grew from 11,881,643 to 12,281,054, an increase of 3.4%. The population is projected to reach 12.7 million by 2015 and 12.8 million by

Pennsylvania—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Adams	Gettysburg	521	99,749	Lackawanna	Scranton	461	209,525
Allegheny	Pittsburgh	727	1,235,841	Lancaster	Lancaster	952	490,562
Armstrong	Kittanning	646	70,586	Lawrence	New Castle	363	92,809
Beaver	Beaver	436	177,377	Lebanon	Lebanon	363	125,578
Bedford	Bedford	1,017	50,091	Lehigh	Allentown	348	330,433
Berks	Reading	861	396,314	Luzerne	Wilkes-Barre	891	312,861
Blair	Hollidaysburg	527	126,795	Lycoming	Williamsport	1,237	118,395
Bradford	Towanda	1,152	62,537	McKean	Smethport	1,237	44,370
Bucks	Doylestown	610	621,342	Mercer	Mercer	672	119,598
Butler	Butler	789	182,087	Mifflin	Lewistown	413	46,235
Cambria	Ebensburg	691	148,073	Monroe	Stroudsburg	609	163,234
Cameron	Emporium	398	5,639	Montgomery	Norristown	486	775,883
Carbon	Jim Thorpe	384	61,959	Montour	Danville	131	18,032
Centre	Bellefonte	1,106	140,561	Northampton	Easton	376	287,767
Chester	West Chester	758	474,027	Northumberland	Sunbury	461	92,610
Clarion	Clarion	607	40,589	Perry	New Bloomfield	557	44,728
Clearfield	Clearfield	1,149	82,783	Philadelphia	Philadelphia	136	1,463,281
Clinton	Lock Haven	891	37,439	Pike	Milford	550	56,337
Columbia	Bloomsburg	486	64,939	Potter	Coudersport	1,081	17,834
Crawford	Meadville	1,011	89,442	Schuylkill	Pottsville	782	147,447
Cumberland	Carlisle	547	223,089	Snyder	Middleburg	329	38,207
Dauphin	Harrisburg	528	253,995	Somerset	Somerset	1,073	78,907
Delaware	Media	184	555,648	Sullivan	Laporte	451	6,391
Elk	Ridgeway	830	33,577	Susquehanna	Montrose	826	42,124
Erie	Erie	804	280,446	Tioga	Wellsboro	1,131	41,649
Fayette	Uniontown	794	146,142	Union	Lewisburg	317	43,131
Forest	Tionesta	428	5,739	Venango	Franklin	679	55,928
Franklin	Chambersburg	774	137,409	Warren	Warren	885	42,033
Fulton	McConnellsburg	438	14,673	Washington	Washington	858	206,406
Greene	Waynesburg	577	39,808	Wayne	Honesdale	731	50,113
Huntingdon	Huntingdon	877	45,947	Westmoreland	Greensburg	1,033	367,635
Indiana	Indiana	829	88,703	Wyoming	Tunkhannock	399	28,160
Jefferson	Brookville	657	45,759	York	York	906	408,801
Juniata	Mifflintown	392	23,507	TOTALS		45,150	12,429,616

2025. In 2004, the median age for Pennsylvanians was 39.3. In the same year, 22.9% of the populace was under age 18 while 15.3% was age 65 or older. The population density in 2004 was 276.9 persons per sq mi.

As recently as 1940, Pennsylvania was the second most populous state in the United States. By the 1980 census, however, the state had slipped to fourth place, with a population of 11,863,895; it dropped to fifth place in 1990 with a population of 11,881,643.

The largest city in the state, Philadelphia, was the fifth-largest US city as of 2004, with a population of 1,470,151. Philadelphia's population has declined since 1970, when 1,949,996 people lived there. The population of the Philadelphia-Camden-Wilmington metropolitan area was estimated 5,800,614 in 2004. Pittsburgh's population declined from 616,806 in 1950 to an estimated 322,450 in 2004 in the city proper. In 2004, the Pittsburgh metropolitan area had an estimated population of 2,401,575. The 2004 estimated populations of Pennsylvania's other major cities were Allentown, 106,732, and Erie, 103,925. Other cities with large populations include Reading, Scranton, Bethlehem, Lancaster, Harrisburg, Altoona, and Wilkes-Barre.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

During the colonial period, under the religious tolerance of a Quaker government, Pennsylvania was a haven for dissident sectarians from continental Europe and the British Isles. Some German sectarians, including the Amish, have kept up their traditions to this day. An initially friendly policy toward the Indians waned in the late 18th century under the pressures of population growth and the anxieties of the French and Indian War. The famous Carlisle Indian School (1879–1918) educated many leaders from various tribes throughout the United States. In Pennsylvania itself, however, there were only 18,348 American Indians in 2000, up from 15,000 in 1990. In 2004, American Indians accounted for 0.2% of the population.

Modest numbers of black slaves were utilized as domestics, field workers, and iron miners in colonial Pennsylvania. Antislavery sentiment was stirred in the 18th century through the efforts of a Quaker, John Woolman, and other Pennsylvanians. The Gradual Abolition of Slavery Act was passed in 1780, and the important antislavery newspaper *The Liberator* appeared in Philadelphia in 1831. As of 2000, black Americans numbered 1,224,612 (10% of the total state population), and were concentrated in the large cities. Philadelphia was 43.2% black in 2000, with 655,824 African American residents. In 2004, 10.5% of the state's population was black.

The late 19th and early 20th centuries brought waves of immigrants from Ireland, Wales, various Slavic nations, and the eastern Mediterranean and the Balkans. Many of the new immigrants settled in the east-central anthracite coal-mining region. In 2000, 508,291 Pennsylvania residents, or 4.1% of the total population, were foreign born, up from 3.1% in 1990. Italy, Germany, the United Kingdom, India, the former Soviet Union, Korea, and Poland were the leading countries of origin. In the valleys surrounding Pittsburgh there are still self-contained ethnic enclaves, and there has been increased interest in preserving distinctive ethnic traditions.

Hispanics and Latinos in Pennsylvania numbered 394,088 in 2000 (3.2%), up from 232,000 in 1990. Most were Puerto Ricans, with smaller numbers of Cubans and Central Americans. In 2004, 3.8% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2000, Asians numbered 219,813; the Asian population included 50,650 Chinese (almost double the 1990 total of 25,908), 31,612 Koreans, 57,241 Asian Indians (almost triple the 1990 figure of 19,769), 14,506 Filipinos, and 30,037 Vietnamese, up sharply from 14,126 in 1990. Pacific Islanders numbered 3,417. In 2004, Asians accounted for 2.2% of the population. That year, 0.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Once home to several Algonkian tribes, Pennsylvania still has such Algonkian place-names as Punxsutawney, Aliquippa, Pocomo, Towanda, Susquehanna, and Shamokin. An Iroquoian tribe gave its name to the Conestoga region. The word came to identify first the pioneers' covered wagons manufactured in the area and then, in shortened form, a cheap cigar called a *stogie*.

Although not quite homogeneous, Pennsylvania's North Midland dialect is significant as the source of much Midwestern and western speech. The only non-Midland sector is the northern tier of counties, settled from southern New York State, where features of the northern dialect predominate.

On the whole, Pennsylvania North Midland is distinguished by the presence of *want off* a tram or bus, *snake feeder* (dragonfly), *run* (small stream), *waterspouts* and *spouts* (gutters), and *creek* as /krik/. With these features are found others that commonly occur in Southern Pennsylvania, such as *corn pone*, *roasting ears*, and *spiket* (spigot). Western Pennsylvania, however, contrasts with the eastern half by the dominance of /nawthing/ for *nothing*, /greezy/ for *greasy*, /kao/ for *cow*, *sugar tree* (sugar maple), *hap* (quilt), and *clothes press* (closet), as well as by the influential merging of the /ah/ vowel and the /aw/ vowel so that *cot* and *caught* sound alike. Southern Pennsylvania has *flannel cakes* for pancakes and *ground hackie* for chipmunk. Within this region, Philadelphia and its suburbs have distinctive *baby coach* for baby carriage, *pavement* for sidewalk, *hoagie* for a large sandwich, the vowel of *put* in *broom* and *Cooper*, and the vowel of *father* in *on* and *fog*. In the east and northeast, a doughnut is a *cruller*, one is *sick in the stomach*, and *syrup* has the vowel of *sit*.

In much of central Pennsylvania, descendants of the colonial Palatinate German population retain their speech as Deutsch, often misnamed Pennsylvania Dutch, which has influenced English in the state through such loanwords as *toot* (bag), *rainworm* (earthworm), *snits* (dried apples), and *smearcase* (cottage cheese).

In 2000, 10,583,054 Pennsylvanians—91.6% of the population five years old or older—spoke only English at home, down slightly from 92.7% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The

category “Other Indo-European languages” includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	11,555,538	100.0
Speak only English	10,583,054	91.6
Speak a language other than English	972,484	8.4
Speak a language other than English	972,484	8.4
Spanish or Spanish Creole	356,754	3.1
Italian	70,434	0.6
German	68,672	0.6
Other West Germanic languages	51,073	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	47,735	0.4
Chinese	42,790	0.4
Russian	32,189	0.3
Polish	31,717	0.3
Korean	25,978	0.2
Vietnamese	25,880	0.2
Other Slavic languages	24,423	0.2
Arabic	19,557	0.2
Greek	17,348	0.2
Other Asian languages	16,196	0.1
Other Indic languages	12,297	0.1
Other Indo-European languages	11,656	0.1
Hindi	10,045	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

With a long history of toleration, Pennsylvania has been a haven for numerous religious groups. The first European settlers were Swedish Lutherans; German Lutherans began arriving 1703. William Penn brought the Quakers to Pennsylvania during the 1680s and the climate of religious liberty soon attracted other dissident groups, including German Mennonites, Dunkars, Moravians, and Schwenkfelders; French Huguenots; Scots-Irish Presbyterians; and English Baptists. Descendants of the 16th-century Anabaptists, the Mennonites for the most part settled as farmers; they and the Quakers were the first religious groups openly to advocate abolition of slavery and to help runaway slaves to freedom via the Underground Railroad. The Amish-Mennonite followers of Jacob Amman continue to dress in black clothing, shun the use of mechanized tools, automobiles and electrical appliance, and observe Sundays by singing 16th-century hymns.

The Presbyterians, who built their first church in the state in 1704, played a major role both in the establishment of schools in the colony and in the later development of Pittsburgh and other cities in the western part of the state. Methodists held their first services in Philadelphia in 1768; for many years thereafter, Methodist circuit riders proselytized throughout the state.

Immigration during the 19th century brought a major change in patterns of worship. The Quakers gradually diminished in number and influence, while Roman Catholic and Greek Orthodox churches and Jewish synagogues opened in many of the mining and manufacturing centers. The bulk of the Jewish migration came, after 1848, from Germany and, after 1882, from East Europe and Russia. The Gilded Age saw the founding of a new group in Pittsburgh by clergyman Charles Taze Russell; first called the Russellites, members of this group (established in 1872) are known today as Jehovah's Witnesses.

Roman Catholics constitute the largest religious group in the state, with a total membership of about 3,686,088 in 2004, with about 1,486,058 belonging to the archdiocese of Philadelphia. The largest Protestant denomination in 2000 was the United Methodist Church, with 659,350 adherents; however, member-

ship in 2004 was reported at about 471,311. Other major Protestant groups (with 2000 membership data) were the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 611,913; the Presbyterian Church USA, 324,714; the American Baptist Church USA, 132,858; and the Episcopal Church, 116,511. The historically important Mennonites, of various traditions, had over 68,000 adherents in 2000. Amish communities had over 25,000 members and Moravians numbered over 10,000. Friends USA (Quakers) reported a membership of about 11,844. Jewish congregations included an estimated 283,000 members and the Muslim congregations had about 71,190 adherents. About 5.1 million people (42.1% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization. In 2005, the United Church of Christ reported about 182,779 members statewide.

The American Council of Christian Churches maintains executive offices in Bethlehem. The Mennonite Central Committee, a relief organization, is based in Akron. The Moravian Historical Society can be found in Nazareth,

10 TRANSPORTATION

Like so many of its industrial assets, Pennsylvania's well-developed road and rail networks are showing signs of old age. Nevertheless, the state remains an important center of transportation, and its ports are among the busiest in the United States.

The early years of railroad building left Pennsylvania with more miles of track than any other state. The first railroad charter, issued in 1819, provided for a horse-drawn railroad from the Delaware Valley to the headwaters of the Lehigh River. The state authorized construction of a line between Columbia and Philadelphia in 1828, and partial service began four years later as part of the State Works. The roadbed was state-owned, and private rail car companies paid a toll to use the rails. During this time, Pennsylvanians John Jervis and Joseph Harrison were developing steam-powered locomotives. Taking advantage of the new technology were separate rail lines connecting Philadelphia with Germantown (1834), Trenton, New Jersey (1838), and Reading (1839), with the Lehigh Valley (1846), and with New York City (1855). In December 1852, the Pennsylvania Central completed lines connecting Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Five years later, the Pennsylvania Railroad purchased the State Works, eliminating state competition and tolls. By 1880, the company (which had added many smaller coal hauling lines to its holdings) was the world's largest corporation, with more than 30,000 employees and \$400 million in capital. Although railroad revenues declined with the rise of the automobile, the Pennsylvania Railroad remained profitable until the 1960s, when the line merged with the New York Central to form the Penn Central. In 1970, the Penn Central separated its real estate holdings from its transportation operation, on which it declared bankruptcy.

As of 2003, the state had 6,942 rail mi (11,176 km) of track, of which 3,566 mi (5,741 km) were operated by the two Class I railroads serving the state: CSX Transportation and the Norfolk Southern. Overall that same year, Pennsylvania was served by 60 railroads, more than any other state. Coal was the top commodity by tonnage, carried by rail originating and terminating within the state. As of 2006, Amtrak operated passenger service through Pennsylvania to Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and other cities along

the east–west route, and from Philadelphia to New York and Washington, DC, along the northeast corridor.

Mass transit systems exist in metropolitan Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, in Bucks, Chester, Delaware, Montgomery, and Philadelphia counties, and in Altoona, Allentown, Erie, Harrisburg, Johnstown, Lancaster, Reading, Scranton, State College, and Wilkes-Barre. The Philadelphia Rapid Transit System, the state's first subway, was established in 1902 and is operated by the Southeastern Pennsylvania Transportation Authority, (SEPTA), which also runs buses, trolleys, trackless trolleys, and commuter trains in Bucks, Chester, Delaware, Montgomery, and Philadelphia counties. In 1985, a 1.1-mile (1.8-km) subway was opened in Pittsburgh as part of a 10.5-mile (16.9-km) light-rail (trolley) transit system linking downtown Pittsburgh with the South Hills section of the city.

Throughout its history, Pennsylvania has been a pioneer in road transportation. One of the earliest roads in the colonies was a “king’s highway,” connecting Philadelphia to Delaware in 1677; a “queen’s road” from Philadelphia to Chester opened in 1706. A flurry of road building connected Philadelphia with other eastern Pennsylvania communities between 1705 and 1735. The first interior artery, the Great Conestoga Road, was opened in 1741 and linked Philadelphia with Lancaster. Indian trails in western Pennsylvania were developed into roadways, and a thoroughfare to Pittsburgh was completed in 1758. During the mid-1700s, a Lancaster County artisan developed an improved wagon for transporting goods across the Alleghenies. Called a Conestoga wagon after the region from which it came, this vehicle later became the prime means of transport for westward pioneers. Another major improvement in land transportation came with the opening in 1792 of the Philadelphia and Lancaster Turnpike, one of the first stone-surfaced roads in the United States. The steel-cable suspension bridge built by John Roebling over the Monongahela River at Pittsburgh in 1846 revolutionized bridge building, leading to the construction of spans longer and wider than had previously been thought possible. During the 1920s, Pennsylvania farmers were aided by the building of inexpensive rural roads connecting them with their markets.

A major development in automotive transport, the limited-access highway came to fruition with the Pennsylvania Turnpike, which opened in 1940 and was the first high-speed, multilane highway in the United States. In 2004, Pennsylvania had 120,623 mi (194,203 km) of public roads. Besides the Turnpike, the major highways are I-80 (Keystone Shortway), crossing the state from East Stroudsburg to the Ohio Turnpike; I-81, from the New York to the Maryland border via Scranton, Wilkes-Barre, and Harrisburg; and I-79, from Erie to the West Virginia border via Pittsburgh. As of 2004, there were some 9.989 million motor vehicles registered, including around 5.593 million automobiles, about 3.716 million trucks of all types, and some 29,000 buses. In that same year, there were a total of 8,430,142 licensed drivers in the state.

Blessed with access to the Atlantic Ocean and the Great Lakes and with such navigable waterways as the Delaware, Monongahela, Allegheny, and Ohio rivers, Pennsylvania was an early leader in water transportation, and Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Erie all developed as major ports. The peak period of canal building came during the 1820s and 1830s, which saw the completion of the Main Line of Public Works, used to transport goods between

Philadelphia and Pittsburgh from 1834 to 1854. This system used waterways and a spectacular portage railroad that climbed over and cut through, via a tunnel, the Allegheny Mountains. Monumental as it was, the undertaking was largely a failure. Built too late to challenge the Erie Canal’s domination of east–west trade, the Main Line was soon made obsolete by the railroads, as was the rest of the state’s 800-mi (1,300-km) canal system.

Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Erie are the state’s major shipping ports. The Philadelphia Harbor (including ports in the Philadelphia metropolitan area) handled 35.219 million tons of cargo in 2004. Although no longer the dominant gateway to the Mississippi, Pittsburgh is still a major inland port, and handled 41.034 million tons of cargo that year, while Erie, the state’s port on the Great Lakes, handled 1.099 million tons of cargo. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 104.404 million tons. In 2004, Pennsylvania had 259 mi (416 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, Pennsylvania had a total of 810 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 468 airports, 329 heliports, three STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 10 seaplane bases. The busiest air terminal in the state is Philadelphia International Airport, with 13,824,332 passenger enplanements in 2004, followed by Pittsburgh International Airport with 6,606,117 enplanements in that same year, making them the 17th- and 32nd-busiest airports in the United States, respectively.

11 HISTORY

Soon after the glacier receded from what is now Pennsylvania, about 20,000 years ago, nomadic hunters from the west moved up the Ohio River, penetrated the passes through the Allegheny Mountains, and moved down the Susquehanna and Delaware rivers. By about AD 500, the earliest Indians, already accustomed to fishing and gathering nuts, seeds, fruit, and roots, were beginning to cultivate the soil, make pottery, and build burial mounds. Over the next thousand years, the Indians became semisedentary, or only seasonal, nomads.

Woodland Indians living in Pennsylvania, mostly of the Algonkian language family, were less inclined toward agriculture than other Indian tribes. The first Europeans to sail up the Delaware River found the Leni-Lenape (“original people”), who, as their name signified, had long occupied that valley, and whom the English later called the Delaware. Other Algonkian tribes related to the Leni-Lenape were the Nanticoke, who ranged along the Susquehanna River, and the Shawnee, who were scattered throughout central Pennsylvania. The other major Indian language group in Pennsylvania was Iroquoian. This group included the Susquehanna (Conestoga), living east of the Susquehanna River and south to the shores of Chesapeake Bay; the Wyandot, along the Allegheny River; and the Erie, south of Lake Erie. Proving that tribes related by language could be deadly enemies, the Iroquoian Confederacy of the Five Nations, located in what is now New York, destroyed the Iroquoian-speaking Erie in the 1640s and the Susquehanna by 1680. The confederacy conquered the Leni-Lenape by 1720 but failed to destroy them.

The first European to reach Pennsylvania was probably Cornelis Jacobssen, who in 1614 entered Delaware Bay for Dutch merchants interested in the fur trade. In 1638, the Swedes began planting farms along the Delaware River; they lived in peace with the Leni-Lenape and Susquehanna, with whom they traded for furs.

Under Governor Johan Printz, the Swedes expanded into present-day Pennsylvania with a post at Tinicum Island (1643) and several forts along the Schuylkill River. The Dutch conquered New Sweden in 1655, but surrendered the land in 1664 to the English, led by James, Duke of York, the brother of King Charles II and the future King James II.

The English conquest was financed partly by Admiral William Penn, whose son, also named William, subsequently joined the Society of Friends (Quakers), a radical Protestant sect persecuted for espousing equality and pacifism. Dreaming of an ideal commonwealth that would be a refuge for all persecuted peoples, Penn asked Charles II, who had not paid the debt owed to Penn's father, to grant him land west of the Delaware. The Duke of York willingly gave up his claim to that land, and Charles II granted it in 1681 as a proprietary colony to the younger Penn and named it Pennsylvania in honor of Penn's father.

As proprietor of Pennsylvania, Penn was given enormous power to make laws and wars (subject to approval by the king and the freeman of Pennsylvania), levy taxes, coin money, regulate commerce, sell land, appoint officials, administer justice, and construct a government. From the beginning, Penn virtually gave up his lawmaking power and granted suffrage to property holders of 50 acres or £50. Even before coming to Pennsylvania, he forged his first Frame of Government, a document that went into effect on 25 April 1682 but lasted less than a year. Under it, a 72-member council, presided over by a governor, monopolized executive, legislative, and judicial power, although a 200-member assembly could veto or amend the council's legislation. Arriving in the colony in October 1682, Penn approved the location and layout of Philadelphia, met with the Leni-Lenape to acquire land and exchange vows of peace, called for elections to select an assembly, and proposed a Great Law that ranged from prescribing weights and measures to guaranteeing fundamental liberties.

When the First Frame proved unwieldy, Penn on 2 April 1683 approved a Second Frame, which created an 18-member council and a 36-member assembly. A conspicuous friend of the deposed James II, Penn lost control of Pennsylvania from 1692 to 1694, and it was during this period that the legislature began to assert its rights. Penn returned to the colony in 1699, and on 28 October 1701 approved yet another constitution, called the Charter of Privileges. This document lodged legislative power in an annually elected unicameral assembly, executive power in a governor and council, which he now appointed, and judicial power in appointed provincial judges and an elected county judiciary. The Charter of Privileges remained in force until 1776.

As Pennsylvania's government evolved, its population grew steadily. Most of the first immigrants were from the British Isles and Germany. From 1681 to 1710, numerous English and Welsh Quaker migrants populated a 25-mi (40-km) zone surrounding Philadelphia. By 1750, most German immigrants were settled in a semicircular zone some 25–75 mi (40–120 km) from Philadelphia. A third and outermost ring, extending roughly 75 mi (120 km) west and north of the Germans, was populated beginning in 1717 by the Scots-Irish, who were indifferent farmers, but known as aggressive pioneers. By 1776, each of the major groups—which remained quite distinct—constituted roughly a third of the 300,000 Pennsylvanians. Minorities included about 10,000 Scots, 10,000

Irish Catholics, 8,000 French Huguenots, 8,000 black slaves (despite Quaker hostility to slavery), and 1,000 Jews.

A key issue during the pre-Revolutionary period was the size and extent of the colony. Conflicting colonial charters, reflecting vague English ideas of American geography, brought all of Pennsylvania's boundaries except the Delaware River into dispute. After a protracted struggle, Pennsylvania and Maryland agreed upon a basis for Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon to run the famous line (1763–67) that divided North and South. Although Virginia and Pennsylvania both claimed the area around Pittsburgh, a joint commission agreed in 1779 to extend the Mason-Dixon line west the full five degrees prescribed in Penn's original charter. Five years earlier, the Penn family had abandoned to New York land north of the 42d parallel. This was confirmed as Pennsylvania's northern border in 1782, when the US Congress rejected Connecticut's claim to the Wyoming Valley area, where skirmishes (called the Yankee-Pennamite wars) had been going on since the 1760s.

Pennsylvania moved rapidly toward independence after the British victory in the French and Indian War. The Proclamation of 1763, preventing settlement west of the Alleghenies, outraged western Pennsylvania, while the Stamp Act (1765), Townshend Acts (1767), and Tea Act (1773) incensed Philadelphians. Although the Continental Congress began meeting in Philadelphia in September 1774, Pennsylvania revolted reluctantly. In July 1776, only three Pennsylvania delegates to the Second Continental Congress voted for independence, while two were opposed and two absented themselves from the vote. Nevertheless, the Declaration of Independence was proclaimed from Independence Hall, Pennsylvania's State House, on 4 July 1776. As the headquarters of the Congress, Philadelphia was an important British target. The American defeat at the Battle of Brandywine Creek on 11 September 1777 led to the British occupation of the city. The provisional capital was moved first to Lancaster and then to York, where the Articles of Confederation were drafted. Following battles at Germantown and Whitemarsh, General George Washington set up winter headquarters at Valley Forge, remaining there from December 1777 to June 1778. Faced with the threat of French naval power intervening on behalf of the Americans, the British evacuated Philadelphia during the spring of 1778, and Congress reconvened there on 2 July. Philadelphia would serve as the US capital until 1783, and again from 1790 to 1800.

With independence, Pennsylvania adopted the state constitution of 1776, which established a powerful unicameral assembly elected annually by all freemen supporting the Revolution, a weak administrative supreme executive council (with a figurehead president), an appointed judiciary, and a council of censors meeting every seven years in order to take a census, reapportion the assembly, and review the constitutionality of state actions. In 1780, Pennsylvania passed the first state law abolishing slavery. Seven years later, Pennsylvania became the second state to ratify the US Constitution and join the Union. In 1790, Pennsylvania adopted a new constitution, modeled on the federal one, allowing all tax-paying males to vote. This document provided for a powerful governor, elected for a three-year term and eligible to succeed himself twice, a bicameral legislature (with senators elected every four years and a house elected annually), and an appointed judiciary.

Opposition to national taxes was evidenced by two disturbances in the 1790s. In 1794, western Pennsylvania settlers, opposed

to a federal excise tax on distilled spirits, waged the Whiskey Rebellion. The insurrection was soon quashed by state troops under federal command. The levying of a federal property tax inspired the unsuccessful Fries Rebellion (1799) among Pennsylvania Germans.

By 1800, the first stages of industrialization were at hand. Pittsburgh's first iron furnace was built in 1792, and the increasing use of coal as fuel made its mining commercially feasible. The completion of the Main Line of Public Works, a canal and rail system connecting Philadelphia with Pittsburgh, was a major development of the early 19th century, which was otherwise a period of political turmoil and shifting party alliances.

By 1838, Pennsylvania adopted a new constitution curtailing the governor's power (he could serve only two three-year terms in a nine-year period), making many judgeships elective for specific terms, restricting the charter of banks, and disenfranchising black people. The 1840s saw not only an influx of Irish immigrants but also the rise of the Native American (Know-Nothing) Party, an anti-Catholic movement. The antislavery crusade, which gave birth to the Republican Party, influenced state politics during the following decade.

Although a Pennsylvania Democrat, James Buchanan, carried the state and won the presidency in 1856, the Republicans captured Pennsylvania for Abraham Lincoln in 1860, partly by their strong support for a protective tariff. Protectionism attracted Pennsylvania because, in addition to its enormously productive farms, it was heavily industrialized, leading the nation in the production of iron, lumber, textiles, and leather.

Pennsylvania rallied to the Union cause, supplying some 338,000 men, a figure exceeded only by New York. The state was the scene of the Battle of Gettysburg (1–3 July 1863), a turning point in the war for the Union cause. Under General George Gordon Meade, the Union troops (one-third of whom were Pennsylvanians) defeated Confederate forces under General Robert E. Lee, who was then forced to lead a retreat to Virginia.

The Civil War left the Republican Party dominant in Pennsylvania, but, in the postwar years, the Republicans were themselves dominated by industry, particularly the Pennsylvania Railroad. Between 1890 and 1900, the state was the nation's chief producer of coal, iron, and steel, and for much of that period the main source of petroleum and lumber. Farmers' sons and daughters joined immigrants from abroad in flocking to the anthracite and bituminous coal regions and to Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and other urban centers to work in mines, mills, and factories. As the state's industrial wealth increased, education, journalism, literature, art, and architecture flourished in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. The 1876 Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia illustrated America's advancement in the arts and industry.

Pennsylvania adopted a reform constitution in 1873, increasing the size of the Senate and house to reduce the threat of bribery, prescribing rules to prevent treachery in legislation and fraud at the polls, equalizing taxation, limiting state indebtedness, restricting the governor to one four-year term in eight years, and creating the office of lieutenant governor. None of this, however, seriously hampered the Republican political machine, led by Simon Cameron, Matthew Quay, and Boies Penrose, which dominated the state from the 1860s to the 1920s. Though Progressive reforms were enacted in subsequent years, the Penrose machine grew ever more

efficient, while industrial leaders—supported both by the Pennsylvania state government and by society at large—smashed labor's efforts to unite, particularly in the great steel strike of 1919.

During the nationwide boom years of the 1920s, Pennsylvania did little more than hold its own economically, and its industrial growth rate was low. The state's share of the nation's iron and steel output no longer exceeded that of the rest of the country combined. Coal, textiles, and agriculture—all basic to the state's economy—were depressed. When Penrose died in 1921, at least five factions sought to control the powerful Pennsylvania Republican Party. In this confusion, Gifford Pinchot, a Progressive disciple of Theodore Roosevelt, won the governorship for 1923–27 and reorganized the state's administration, but failed in his attempt to enforce prohibition and to regulate power utilities.

The disastrous depression of the 1930s brought major changes to Pennsylvania. Serving again as governor (1931–35), Pinchot fought for state and federal relief for the unemployed. The Republican organization's lack of enthusiasm for Pinchot and Progressivism helped revive the state Democratic Party long enough to secure the election in 1934—for the first time since 1890—of its gubernatorial nominee, George H. Earle. As governor, Earle successfully introduced a Little New Deal, supporting labor, regulating utilities, aiding farmers, and building public works. With government support, coal miners, steelworkers, and other organized labor groups emerged from the Depression strong enough to challenge industry. Full employment and prosperity returned to Pennsylvania with the unprecedented demands on it for steel, ships, munitions, and uniforms during World War II.

Despite their professed opposition to government control, the Republican administrations (1939–55) that succeeded the Earle regime espoused and even enlarged Earle's program. They regulated industry, improved education, and augmented social services, at the same time increasing state bureaucracy, budgets, and taxes. Markets, transportation, banks, factories, machinery, and skilled labor remained abundant. Two Democratic governors were able to attract new industries to the state during the 1950s and early 1960s. However, the economy was still not healthy in 1963, when Republican William W. Scranton entered the statehouse (1963–67). Scranton continued both to enlarge state responsibilities (through increased taxes) and to secure federal aid for economic and social programs. He was rewarded with four years of steady economic growth. Pennsylvania's unemployment level, second-highest in the nation from 1950 to 1962, had dropped below the national average by 1966. The 1873 constitution was extensively revised at a constitutional convention held in 1967–68, during the administration of Raymond P. Shafer (1967–71), Scranton's Republican successor.

Pennsylvania faced an unresolved financial crisis in 1971 when Democrat Milton J. Shapp became governor. During his first term (1971–75), Shapp weathered the storm by securing passage of a state income tax. He virtually eliminated state patronage by signing union contracts covering state employees. Not only did he continue to attract business to Pennsylvania, but he also championed the consumer with no-fault auto insurance, adopted in 1974. Shapp's second term, however, was wrecked by his pursuit of the 1976 presidential nomination and by rampant corruption among Pennsylvania Democrats. Shapp's successor, Republican Richard L. Thornburgh, had scarcely been seated in the governor's chair

before the release of radioactive gases resulting from the malfunction of one of the two nuclear reactors at Three Mile Island in March 1979 confronted him—and others—with vexing questions concerning the safety and wisdom of nuclear power. Nevertheless, in September 1985, during Thornburgh's second term, and following six years of cleanup of radioactive waste, the undamaged reactor at Three Mile Island was restarted.

In the mid-1980s, Pennsylvania found itself confronted with the problem of completing the transition from a manufacturing to a service economy. While some parts of the state, namely southeastern Pennsylvania and Philadelphia, had successfully negotiated the transition, the economies of Pittsburgh, Lehigh Valley, Scranton, and Wilkes-Barre remained centered on the depressed steel and coal industries. Under Governor Robert Casey, who took office in 1987, Pennsylvania created an organization called the Governor's Response Team to assist ailing industries in the state. The team helped companies obtain low-interest loans and subsidized companies that sought to retrain their workers. In the first year of its existence, the team reached out to assist 214 companies, saved 10,000 existing jobs, and created 10,000 new ones.

In the mid-1990s, steel was no longer the mainstay of industry in Pennsylvania, although the state still led the nation in production of specialty steel. Important manufacturing sectors included food processing and chemicals, especially pharmaceuticals. Philadelphia had become a center for high-technology industries, while Pittsburgh was a mecca for corporate headquarters. By 2000 the state's economy was described as "relentlessly strong" by one newspaper, and legislators considered \$643.5 million in tax cuts to residents and businesses along with increased spending in education and health care. As in many other regions of the nation, one of the by-products of Pennsylvania's robust economy was urban sprawl. A landmark in the anti-sprawl movement, in June 2000 Republican Governor Tom Ridge signed into law a plan that encouraged local governments to work together, allowed them to determine growth areas, and required state agencies to comply with community development guidelines.

In 1996 Governor Ridge approved the deregulation of the state's electrical utilities. Four years later, a report indicated the move had helped the economy (by lower consumer bills) but would result in lower tax revenues (due to restructuring and lower prices). While computer models forecasted that by 2004 reductions in electric rates under deregulation would lead to \$1.9 billion in additional economic output, a \$1.4-billion increase in personal income, and 36,000 new jobs, legislators had not yet addressed the projected shortfall in tax revenues, which would affect public transportation and municipalities.

The state remained one of the nation's most populous, ranking fifth both in the 1990 census and 1995 estimates, before slipping to sixth (with over 12.2 million people) in 2000. The July 2004 population was 12.4 million, still ranking sixth in the nation.

Following the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States, President George Bush proposed the creation of a cabinet-level Department of Homeland Security. Former Governor Tom Ridge was named first secretary of the department.

Democratic Governor Ed Rendell, elected in 2002, was the first former Philadelphia mayor to become Pennsylvania governor in 90 years. Rendell pledged to lower property taxes by one-third

during his first year in office, raise income taxes, and to provide prescription drug coverage for senior citizens. He favored the introduction of slot machines at the state's racetracks and increasing school spending. In 2003, Pennsylvania faced a \$2.4 billion budget deficit for fiscal year 2003/04.

Pennsylvania's 2005 budget was \$22 billion; and the state's budget had been balanced. Governor Rendell was implementing his "Plan for a New Pennsylvania," by increasing education funding; passing an economic stimulus package to revitalize towns and communities; passing legislation to reduce property taxes; and expanding Pennsylvania's PACE and PACENET program to provide seniors with prescription drug coverage.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The 1873 constitution, substantially reshaped by a constitutional convention in 1967–68, is the foundation of state government in Pennsylvania. Between 1968 and January 2005, 30 amendments had been adopted.

The General Assembly consists of a 50-member Senate, elected to staggered four-year terms, and a 203-member House of Representatives, elected every two years. Regular sessions are two-years and begin on the first Tuesday in January of the odd-numbered year. The session ends on November 30 of the even-numbered year. Each calendar receives its own legislative number. Special sessions may be called by the majority petition of each house. To qualify for the General Assembly, a person must have been a state resident for four years and a district resident for at least one year; senators must be at least 25 years old, representatives at least 21. The legislative salary was \$66,203.55 in 2004.

As head of the executive branch and chief executive officer of the state, the governor of Pennsylvania has the power to appoint heads of administrative departments, boards, and commissions, to approve or veto legislation, to grant pardons, and to command the state's military forces. The governor, who may serve no more than two four-year terms in succession, must be a US citizen, a qualified voter, be at least 30 years old, and have been a Pennsylvania resident for at least seven years before election. Elected with the governor is the lieutenant governor, who serves as president of the Senate and chairman of the board of pardons, and assumes the powers of the governor if the governor becomes unable to continue in that office. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$155,753.

Other state elected officials are the auditor general, who oversees all state financial transactions; the state treasurer, who receives and keeps records of all state funds; and the attorney general, who heads the Department of Justice. All other department heads, or secretaries, are appointed by the governor and confirmed by a majority of the Senate.

A bill may be introduced in either house of the General Assembly. After the measure is passed by majority vote in each house, the governor has 10 days including Sundays (or 30 days, including Sundays, if the legislature has adjourned) in which to sign it, refuse to sign it (in which case it automatically becomes law), or veto it. Vetoes may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members of each house. A bill becomes effective 60 days after enactment.

A proposed constitutional amendment must be approved by a majority of both house and Senate members in two successive legislatures before it can be placed on the ballot. If approved by a majority of the voters in a general election, the amendment then becomes part of the constitution.

To vote in state elections a person must be a US citizen for at least one month before the next election, at least 18 years old, and a resident of Pennsylvania and of the precinct for at least 30 days preceding the election. Restrictions apply to convicted felons.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republican Party totally dominated Pennsylvania politics from 1860, when the first Republican governor was elected, to the early 1930s. During this period, there were 16 Republican and only two Democratic administrations. Most of the Republicans were staunchly probusiness, though one Republican Progressive, Gifford Pinchot, was elected governor in 1922 and again in 1930. A Democrat, George Earle, won the governorship in 1934, in the depths of the Depression, but from 1939 through 1955, Republicans again held the office without interruption. Only since the mid-1950s has Pennsylvania emerged as a two-party state, with Democrats electing governors in 1954, 1958, 1970, 1974, 1986 and 1990, and Republicans winning the governorships in 1962, 1966, 1978, 1982, and 1994. In 1998, Tom Ridge, the Republican first elected to the office in 1994, won a second term as governor. He was named the first secretary of the newly created Department of Homeland Security in November 2002, after having served as the first administrator of the Office of Homeland Se-

curity from September 2001. In 2002, Democrat Ed Rendell was elected governor.

Both US Senate seats were held by Republicans from 1968 to 1991. In November of 1991, a little-known Democrat and former college president named Harris Wofford defeated former governor Richard Thornburgh for the seat of Senator John Heinz, who died in 1991. In 1994, Republican Rick Santorum, a congressman from the Pittsburgh area, defeated Wofford; Santorum was reelected in 2000. Pennsylvania's other senator, Republican Arlen Specter, was elected to his fifth term in 2004. In 2005, Pennsylvania's 19 US House seats were held by 7 Democrats and 12 Republicans. In mid-2005, there were 30 Republicans and 20 Democrats in the state Senate, and 110 Republicans and 93 Democrats in the state House.

Democratic voters were heavily concentrated in metropolitan Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Pennsylvania, a pivotal state for Jimmy Carter in 1976, was swept by the Republican tide in the 1980 presidential election; Ronald Reagan, the Republican nominee, won nearly 50% of the popular vote. In 1984, President Reagan received 53% of the popular vote, while Democrat Walter Mondale received 46%. In 1988, Republican and former vice president George Bush won 51% of the popular vote. Democratic nominee Bill Clinton garnered 45% of the vote in 1992, and in 1996, Clinton won 49% of the vote. In 2000, Democrat Al Gore won 51% of the vote to Republican George W. Bush's 47%; Green Party candidate Ralph Nader won 2% of the vote. In 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 50.8% of vote to incumbent President Bush's 48.6%. In 2004 there were 8,367,000 registered voters. In 1998, 48% of registered voters were Democratic, 42% Republican, and 9% unaffili-

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	PENN. WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	PROHIBITION	SOC. LABOR
1948	35	Dewey (R)	1,752,426	1,902,197	55,161	11,325	10,538	1,461
						SOC. WORKERS		
1952	32	*Eisenhower (R)	2,146,269	2,415,789	4,222	1,508	8,951	1,377
1956	32	*Eisenhower (R)	1,981,769	2,585,252	—	2,035	—	7,447
1960	32	*Kennedy (D)	2,556,282	2,439,956	—	2,678	—	7,158
1964	29	*Johnson (D)	3,130,954	1,673,657	—	10,456	—	5,092
						PEACE/FREEDOM	AMERICAN IND.	
1968	29	Humphrey (D)	2,259,403	2,090,017	7,821	4,862	378,582	4,977
								AMERICAN
1972	27	*Nixon (R)	1,796,951	2,714,521	—	4,639	—	70,593
					COMMUNIST			US LABOR
1976	27	*Carter (D)	2,328,677	2,205,604	1,891	3,009	25,344	2,744
						LIBERTARIAN	SOC. WORKERS	
1980	27	*Reagan (R)	1,937,540	2,261,872	5,184	33,263	20,291	—
1984	25	*Reagan (R)	2,228,131	2,584,323	21,628	6,982	—	—
					CONSUMER		NEW ALLIANCE	POPULIST
1988	25	*Bush (R)	2,194,944	2,300,087	19,158	12,051	4,379	3,444
								IND. (Perot)
1992	23	*Clinton (D)	2,239,164	1,791,164	—	21,477	4,661	902,667
1996	23	*Clinton (D)	2,215,819	1,801,169	—	28,000	—	430,984
					GREEN		REFORM	
2000	23	Gore (D)	2,485,967	2,281,127	103,392	11,248	16,023	—
							WRITE-IN (Nader)	CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)
2004	21	Kerry (D)	2,938,095	2,793,847	6,319	21,185	2,656	6,318

*Won US presidential election.

ated or members of other parties. The state had 21 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a loss of 2 votes over 2000.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Pennsylvania had 67 counties, 1,018 municipal governments, 501 public school districts, and 1,885 special districts. In 2002, there were 1,546 townships.

Under home-rule laws, municipalities may choose to draft and amend their own charter. Pennsylvania counties are responsible for state law enforcement, judicial administration, and the conduct of state elections: counties also are involved in public health, regional planning, and solid waste disposal. Counties can also maintain hospitals, homes for the aged, community colleges, libraries, and other community facilities. The chief governing body in each county is a three-member board of commissioners, each elected to a four-year term. Other elected officials generally include the sheriff, district attorney, notary, clerk of courts, register of wills, recorder of deeds, jury commissioners, auditor or controller, and treasurer. Among the appointed officials is a public defender. Counties are divided by law into nine classes, depending on population. Philadelphia's county offices were merged with the city government in 1952, pursuant to the home-rule charter of 1951.

There are four classes of cities. The only first-class city, Philadelphia, is governed by a mayor and city council. Other elected officials are the controller, district attorney, sheriff, register of wills, and three city commissioners. Major appointed officials include managing director, director of finance, city representative, and city solicitor. Both Pittsburgh and Scranton (classified as second-class cities) are governed under mayor-council systems that give the mayors strong discretionary powers.

Boroughs are governed under mayor-council systems giving the council strong powers. Other elected officials are the tax assessor, tax collector, and auditor or controller. The state's first-class townships, located mostly in metropolitan areas, are governed by elected commissioners who serve four-year overlapping terms. Second-class townships, most of them located in rural areas, have three supervisors who are elected at large to six-year terms.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 416,829 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Pennsylvania operates under executive order; a homeland security director was appointed to oversee the state's homeland security activities.

Executive agencies under the governor's jurisdiction are the Advisory Commission on African American Affairs, the Advisory Commission on Asian American Affairs, Advisory Commission on Latino Affairs, Commission for Children and Families, Green Government Council, Sportsmen's Advisory Council, Office of Inspector General, Office of Public Liaison, Pennsylvania Rural Development Council, and the Council on the Arts. The State Ethics Commission enforces the Pennsylvania Public Official and Employee Ethics Act. The Liquor Control Board operates state liquor stores and claims to be the world's largest single purchaser of liquors and wines.

The Department of Education administers the school laws of Pennsylvania, oversees community colleges, licenses and regulates private schools, and administers the state public library program. Educational policy is the province of the State Board of Education, a panel with 17 members appointed by the governor to six-year terms. Also within the department are various boards that make policies for and review developments within the state's higher educational system.

The Department of Transportation maintains state-operated highways, mass transit, rail service, and aviation facilities. The Pennsylvania Turnpike Commission also has transport-related responsibilities. Agencies and departments providing health and welfare services include the Department of Aging, Department of Community and Economic Development, and Department of Health. All public assistance, social service, mental health, and developmental disability programs are administered by the Department of Public Welfare.

The Office of Attorney General has divisions on criminal law, legal services, and public protection. The National Guard, Bureau for Veterans' Affairs, and state veterans' homes are under the Department of Military and Veterans Affairs; the Pennsylvania State Police is a separate state agency. The Pennsylvania Commission on Crime and Delinquency allocates federal funds for crime control, juvenile justice, and delinquency prevention. The Pennsylvania Emergency Management Agency (formerly the State Council of Civil Defense) provides assistance in emergency situations resulting from natural or manmade disasters.

All state park and forest preservation programs, ecological and geological resource information programs, and community conservation partnerships are under the supervision of the Department of Conservation and Natural Resources and the Department of Environmental Protection. Land and water environmental protection programs are under the supervision of the Department of Environmental Protection. The Department of Labor and Industry administers safety, employment, and industrial standards; operates vocational rehabilitation and workers' compensation programs; and mediates labor disputes.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Since 1968, all Pennsylvania courts have been organized under the Unified Judicial System. The highest court in the state is the Supreme Court, which, having been established in 1722, is the oldest appellate court in the United States. The Court consists of 7 justices, elected to 10-year terms. The justice with the longest continuous service on the court automatically becomes chief justice. In general, the Supreme Court hears appeals from the commonwealth court. A separate appellate court, called the Superior Court, hears appeals from the courts of common pleas. There are 15 superior court judges, also elected to 10-year terms, as are the commonwealth and common pleas, which have original jurisdiction over all civil and criminal cases not otherwise specified.

In counties other than Philadelphia, misdemeanors and other minor offenses are tried by district justices, formerly known as justices of the peace. The Philadelphia municipal court consists of 22 judges, all of whom must be lawyers; the six judges who constitute the Philadelphia traffic court need not be lawyers. Pittsburgh's magistrates' court, appointed by the mayor, comprises 5 to 8 judges who need not be lawyers. All of Pennsylvania's judges, except

traffic court judges and Pittsburgh's magistrates, are initially elected on a partisan ballot and thereafter on a nonpartisan retention ballot.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 40,963 prisoners were held in Pennsylvania's state and federal prisons, an increase from 40,890 of 0.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,827 inmates were female, up from 1,823 or 0.2% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Pennsylvania had an incarceration rate of 329 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Pennsylvania in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 411.1 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 50,998 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 299,611 reported incidents or 2,415 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Pennsylvania has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out three executions, the last of which took place in July 1999. As of 1 January 2006, Pennsylvania had 231 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Pennsylvania spent \$218,059,061 on homeland security, an average of \$18 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 2,837 active-duty military personnel and 25,076 civilian personnel stationed in Pennsylvania. The US Army War College is in Carlisle, and there are army depots in Chambersburg, New Cumberland, and Scranton. Defense contracts worth more than \$6.2 billion were awarded to Pennsylvania firms in 2004, tenth-highest in the United States for that year. In addition, there was another \$2.9 billion in payroll outlays by the Department of Defense.

In 2003, there were 1,145,919 veterans living in the state, of whom 221,316 served in World War II; 149,673 in the Korean conflict; 335,124 during the Vietnam era; and 124,852 in the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$2.4 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Pennsylvania State Police employed 4,227 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

When William Penn's followers arrived in Pennsylvania, they joined small groups of Dutch, Swedish, and Finnish immigrants who were already settled along the Delaware River. By 1685, 50% of Pennsylvania's European population was British. In 1683, the Frankfort Land Co. founded the Mennonite community of Germantown on 6,000 acres (2,400 hectares) east of the Schuylkill River. One hundred years later there were 120,000 Germans, about one-fourth of the state's census population; the Moravians, from Saxony, settled primarily in Bethlehem and Nazareth, and the Amish in Lancaster and Reading.

During the 19th century, more immigrants settled in Pennsylvania than in any other state except New York. Between 1840 and 1890, the anthracite mines in east-central Pennsylvania attracted the Irish, Welsh, and Slavs; Scots-Irish, Italian, Austrian, Hungar-

ian, and Polish (and, after 1880, Russian) immigrants worked the western coal fields. The cities attracted Italian, French, and Slavic workers. East European and Russian Jews settled in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh between 1882 and 1900. By the turn of the century, the urban population surpassed the rural population.

During the 20th century, these patterns have been reversed. The trend among whites, particularly since World War II, has been to move out—from the cities to the suburbs, and from Pennsylvania to other states. Blacks, who began entering the state first as slaves and then as freemen, continued to migrate to the larger cities until the early 1970s, when a small out-migration began. Overall, between 1940 and 1980, Pennsylvania lost a net total of 1,759,000 residents through migration; it lost an additional 98,000 residents between 1980 and 1983. From 1985 to 1990, Pennsylvania had a net migration gain of nearly 21,000. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had a net loss of 219,000 in domestic migration but a net gain of 104,000 in international migration. In 1996, about 3% of Pennsylvania's population (421,000) was foreign-born. In 1998, 11,942 foreign immigrants arrived in the state; of these, the greatest number, 1,127, came from India. Pennsylvania's overall population increased only 1% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 102,470 and net internal migration was -28,012, for a net gain of 74,458 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Pennsylvania participates in such regional bodies as the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Susquehanna River Basin Commission, Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation Commission, Wheeling Creek Watershed Protection and Flood Prevention Commission, and Great Lakes Commission. In 1985, Pennsylvania, seven other Great Lakes states, and the Canadian provinces of Quebec and Ontario signed the Great Lakes Compact to protect the lakes' water reserves. Other agreements include the Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Ohio River Basin Commission, Appalachian Regional Commission, Brandywine River Valley Compact, New Jersey-Pennsylvania Turnpike Bridge Compact, Potomac Valley Conservancy District, Pymatuning Lake Compact, and the Tri-State Agreement on the Chesapeake Bay.

Some of the most important interstate agreements concern commerce and development along the Delaware River. The Delaware River Basin Commission involves the governors of Delaware, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania in the utilization and conservation of the Delaware and its surrounding areas. Through the Delaware River Port Authority, New Jersey and Pennsylvania control an interstate mass transit system. The two states also are signatories to the Delaware River Joint Toll Bridge Compact and Delaware Valley Regional Planning Commission. During fiscal year 2005, Pennsylvania received \$15.561 billion in federal grants (fifth among the 50 states). Federal grants were estimated at \$16.324 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$16.846 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Dominated by coal and steel, Pennsylvania is an important contributor to the national economy, but its role has diminished considerably since the early 20th Century. The state reached the height of its economic development by 1920, when its western oil

wells and coal fields made it the nation's leading energy producer. By that time, however, Pennsylvania's oil production was already on the decline, and demand for coal had slackened. No longer did the state dominate US steel production. Pennsylvania produced 60% of the United States total in 1900, but only 30% in 1940 and 24% in 1960. Philadelphia, a diversified manufacturing center, began to lose many of its textile and apparel factories. The Great Depression of the 1930s hastened the decline. Industrial production in 1932 was less than half the 1929 level, and mineral production, already in a slump throughout the 1920s, dropped more than 50% in value between 1929 and 1933. By 1933, some 37% of the state's workforce was unemployed.

Massive federal aid programs and the production of munitions stimulated employment during the 1940s, but some sections of the state have never fully recovered from the damage of the Depression years. Declines in coal and steel production and the loss of other industries to the Sunbelt have not yet been entirely countered by gains in other sectors, despite a steady expansion of machinery production, increased tourism, and the growth of service-related industries and trade. Manufacturing, the second-largest employer in Pennsylvania—providing one million jobs in the 1990s—lost about 350,000 jobs during the 1980s. The outlook for the steel industry remains uncertain, as Pennsylvania's aging factories face severe competition from foreign producers. Services, in contrast, recorded about as much growth as manufacturing lost. The fastest growing service industries were concentrated in the medical and health fields. Coming into the 21st century, the annual growth rate for Pennsylvania's economy averaged 4.75% (1998 to 2000), which was then more than halved to 2.2% in the national recession of 2001. Manufacturing output, which grew 5.2% from 1997 to 2000 (although decreasing as a share of total output from 20.1% to 18.4%), fell 7.2% in 2001 (decreasing its share to 16.7%). The strongest growth in output was in various service sectors, with output from general services up 28% from 1997 to 2001; from financial services, up 22.1%, and from trade, up 19.5%.

In 2004, Pennsylvania's gross state product (GSP) was \$468.089 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$75.281 billion or 16% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$55.986 billion (11.9% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance services at \$42.035 billion (8.9% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 927,369 small businesses in Pennsylvania. Of the 275,853 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 271,410 or 98.4% were small companies. An estimated 33,188 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 6.3% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 34,507, up 4.8% from 2003. There were 1,138 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 4.6% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 472 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Pennsylvania as the 31st highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Pennsylvania had a gross state product (GSP) of \$487 billion which accounted for 3.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 6 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Pennsylvania had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$33,312. This

ranked 19th in the United States and was 101% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.0%. Pennsylvania had a total personal income (TPI) of \$412,890,270,000, which ranked sixth in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.2%. Earnings of persons employed in Pennsylvania increased from \$291,978,764,000 in 2003 to \$308,068,372,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$44,286 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.4% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Pennsylvania 6,318,700, with approximately 299,400 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.7%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 5,747,200. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Pennsylvania was 12.9% in March 1983. The historical low was 4% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.4% of the labor force was employed in construction; 11.6% in manufacturing; 19.7% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.8% in financial activities; 11.6% in professional and business services; 18.3% in education and health services; 8.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 13% in government.

The history of unionism in Pennsylvania dates back to 1724 when Philadelphia workers organized the Carpenters' Company, the first crafts association in the colonies. Its Carpenters' Hall gained fame as the site of the First Continental Congress in 1774; the carpenters were also responsible for the first strike in the United States in 1791. The nation's first labor union was organized by Philadelphia shoemakers in 1794. By 1827, the Mechanics' Union of Trade Associations, the country's first central labor body, was striking for a 10-hour workday and was the impetus behind the formation of the Organized Workingman's Party. Nine years later there were no fewer than 58 labor organizations in Philadelphia and 13 in Pittsburgh, but the Panic of 1837 resulted in a sharp decline of union strength and membership for many years. Union ranks were further depleted by the Civil War, despite the efforts of Pennsylvania labor leader William Sylvius, who later became an important figure in the national labor reform movement. After the Civil War ended, the Noble Order of the Knights of Labor was established in Philadelphia in 1869.

The coal fields were sites of violent organizing struggles. In 1835, low wages and long hours sparked the first general mine strikes, which, like a walkout by anthracite miners in 1849, proved unsuccessful. During the 1850s and 1870s, a secret society known as the Molly Maguires led uprisings in the anthracite fields, but its influence ended after the conviction of its leaders for terrorist activities. The demise of the Molly Maguires did not stop the violence, however. Eleven persons were killed during a mine strike at Connellsville in 1891, and a strike by Luzerne County miners in

1897 resulted in 20 deaths. Finally, a five-month walkout by anthracite miners in 1902 led to increased pay, reduced hours, and an agreement to employ arbitration to settle disputes.

Steelworkers, burdened for many years by 12-hour workdays and 7-day workweeks, called several major strikes during this period. An 1892 lockout at Andrew Carnegie's Homestead steel mill led to a clash between workers and Pinkerton guards hired by the company. After several months, the strikers went back to work, their resources exhausted. A major strike in 1919, involving half of the nation's steelworkers, shut down the industry for more than three months, but it too produced no immediate gains. The Steel Workers Organizing Committee, later the United Steelworkers, finally won a contract and improved benefits from US Steel in 1937, although other steel companies held out until the early 1940s, when the Supreme Court forced recognition of the union.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 753,000 of Pennsylvania's 5,456,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 13.8% of those so employed, down from 15% in 2004, but still above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 818,000 workers (15%) in Pennsylvania were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Pennsylvania is one of 28 states that do not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Pennsylvania had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.5% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Pennsylvania ranked 20th among the 50 states in agricultural income in 2005, with receipts of \$4.7 billion.

During the colonial period, German immigrants farmed the fertile land in southeastern Pennsylvania, making the state a leader in agricultural production. Unlike farmers in other states, who worked the soil until it was depleted and then moved on, these farmers carefully cultivated the same plots year after year, using crop rotation techniques that kept the land productive. As late as 1840, the state led the nation in wheat production, thanks in part to planting techniques developed and largely confined to southeastern Pennsylvania. However, westward expansion and the subsequent fall in agricultural prices hurt farming in the state, and many left the land for industrial jobs in the cities. Today, most farms in the state produce crops and dairy items for Philadelphia and other major eastern markets.

As of 2004 there were about 58,200 farms averaging 132 acres (54 hectares) in size. The leading farm areas were all in southeastern Pennsylvania. Lancaster County is by far the most productive, followed by the counties of Chester, Berks, Franklin, and Lebanon. These five counties account for over 40% of state agricultural sales.

Field crops in 2004 included: hay, 4,296,000 tons (valued at \$380 million); corn for grain, 137.2 million bushels (valued at \$274.4 million); soybeans, 10.5 million bushels (valued at \$97.5 million); wheat, 6.6 million bushels (valued at \$21.8 million); oats, 6.1 million bushels (valued at \$10.3 million); and barley, 3.4 million (valued at \$7.7 million).

Pennsylvania is a major producer of mushrooms and greenhouse and nursery crops. Other crops are fresh vegetables, po-

tatoes, strawberries, apples, pears, peaches, grapes, and cherries (sweet and tart). The value of fresh market vegetables exceeded \$70.4 million in 2004; the value of vegetables for processing, \$10.9 million.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Most of Pennsylvania's farm income stems from livestock production, primarily in Lancaster County.

In 2005, there were an estimated 1.63 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.8 billion. During 2004, there were around 1.1 million hogs and pigs, worth \$106.9 million. In 2003 the state produced 7 million lb (3.2 million kg) of sheep and lambs, which brought in \$7.5 million in gross income.

Pennsylvania is a leading producer of chickens in the United States, selling 44.2 million lb (20 million kg) in 2003. An estimated 10.4 billion lb (4.7 billion kg) of milk (fourth among the 50 states) was produced from 575,000 milk cows in the same year.

25 FISHING

There is very little commercial fishing in Pennsylvania. In 2004, the commercial catch was only 14,000 lb (640 kg), worth \$38,000. In 2003, there were 5 processing and 34 wholesale plants in the state with about 976 employees.

The state's many lakes and streams make it a popular area for sport fishing. All recreational fishing in the state is supervised by the Fish Commission, established in 1866 and one of the oldest conservation agencies in the United States. Walleye, trout, and salmon were the leading species. There are two national fish hatcheries in the state. In 2004, Pennsylvania issued 1,018,756 sport fishing licenses.

26 FORESTRY

Pennsylvania's richly diverse forests dominate the landscape, covering 58% (16,585,000 acres/6,712,000 hectares) of the total land area. For the northeastern United States, public ownership is high at 26% (4,403,000 acres/1,782,000 hectares), mostly owned by the commonwealth. The 1989 Forest Inventory identified 90 different tree species; most of the 2,076 species of native vascular plants are forest related. Eagles and ospreys are making a comeback, there is a resident elk herd (the largest east of the Mississippi), coyotes have moved in, and river otters and fishers have been re-introduced. Some species of forest birds which are experiencing declines regionally have increasing populations in Pennsylvania's forests.

The forest products industry and forest-based recreation are very important to Pennsylvania's economy. Ten commercial tree species dominate the average annual net growth, producing 74% of the wood grown each year. In 2004, the total lumber production was 1,143 million board feet, or 2.3% of the US total.

Camping, fishing, hiking, and hunting are traditional Pennsylvania pastimes and the clean streams, vistas, and flora and fauna of the forest provide a focal point for these activities.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Pennsylvania in 2003 was \$1.26 billion, a decrease from 2002 of about 2%. The USGS data ranked Pennsylvania as 10th among the

50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 3% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, by descending order of value, crushed stone, cement (portland and masonry), and construction sand and gravel were the state's top nonfuel minerals by value. Collectively, these commodities accounted for almost 92% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. By volume, Pennsylvania in 2003 was third in portland cement, fourth (out of four states) in the production of tripoli, and sixth in the production of masonry cement and lime.

Preliminary figures for 2003 showed that crushed stone production totaled 96 million metric tons, which had a value of \$547 million, while portland cement output that year totaled 6.13 million metric tons and was valued at an estimated \$457 million. Construction sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 18 million metric tons and was worth \$115 million. Lime output that same year stood at 1.25 million metric tons and was worth \$91.3 million.

Although no metals were mined in Pennsylvania, the state was the nation's fifth leading producer of raw steel, processing 5.53 million metric tons of raw steel in 2003.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Pennsylvania had 85 electrical power service providers, of which 35 were publicly owned and 13 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, 11 were investor owned, 17 were generation-only suppliers and nine were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 5,747,853 retail customers. Of that total, 5,161,605 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 207,495 customers, while publicly owned providers had 83,030 customers. Generation-only suppliers had 295,723 customers. There was no customer data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 42.368 million kW, with total production that same year at 206.349 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 14.6% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 85.4% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 116.009 billion kWh (56.2%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear power generation in second place at 74.360 billion kWh (36%). Other renewable power sources, pumped storage facilities, hydroelectric, petroleum, natural gas, and other types of gas fueled plants accounted for the remaining production.

Operating nuclear plants in Pennsylvania as of 2006 were: Peach Bottom in York County; Beaver Valley at Shippingsport, Susquehanna in Luzerne County; Limerick, near Philadelphia; and Unit 1 of the Three Mile Island plant near Harrisburg.

The nation's first oil well was struck in Titusville in 1859, and for the next five decades Pennsylvania led the nation in oil production. As of 2004, Pennsylvania had proven crude oil reserves of 12 million barrels, less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 7,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 24th (23rd excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 22nd (21st excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Pennsylvania had 16,242 producing oil wells, accounting for

under 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's five refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 770,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Pennsylvania had 44,227 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 159.827 billion cu ft (4.5 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 2,386 billion cu ft (67.76 billion cu m).

Virtually all the state's commercial oil and gas reserves lie beneath the Allegheny High Plateau, in western Pennsylvania.

Coal is the state's most valuable mineral commodity, accounting for more than two-thirds of all mine income. In 2004, Pennsylvania had 260 producing coal mines, 202 of which were surface operations and 58 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 65,996,000 short tons, up from 63,708,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, underground mines accounted for most of the production at 53,224,000 short tons.

Pennsylvania is the only state to produce both anthracite (hard) and bituminous (soft or brown) coal. The state has a total of 66 anthracite mines (46 surface and 20 underground) and 194 bituminous (156 surface and 38 underground) mines. In 2004, anthracite production totaled 1,679,000 short tons, with bituminous output at 64,317,000 short tons.

Total recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 614 million short tons. Of that total, recoverable anthracite reserves that year totaled 22 million short tons, while recoverable bituminous reserves were placed at 592 million short tons. Bituminous coal is mined in Washington, Clearfield, Greene, Cambria, Armstrong, Somerset, Clarion, Allegheny, and 19 other counties in the western part of the state. A anthracite mining is concentrated in Schuylkill, Luzerne, Lackawanna, Northumberland, Carbon, Columbia, Sullivan, and Dauphin counties in the east. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

At different times throughout its history, Pennsylvania has been the nation's principal producer of ships, iron, chemicals, lumber, oil, textiles, glass, coal, and steel. Although it is still a major manufacturing center, Pennsylvania's industrial leadership has diminished steadily during the 20th century.

The first major industry in colonial Pennsylvania was shipbuilding, centered in Philadelphia. Iron works, brick kilns, candle factories, and other small crafts industries also grew up around the city. By 1850, Philadelphia alone accounted for nearly half of Pennsylvania's manufacturing output, with an array of products including flour, preserved meats, sugar, textiles, shoes, furniture, iron, locomotives, pharmaceuticals, and books. The exploitation of the state's coal and oil resources and the discovery of new steel-making processes helped build Pittsburgh into a major industrial center.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Pennsylvania's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$190.370 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the

largest share at \$29.876 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$23.707 billion; primary metal manufacturing at \$17.760 billion; petroleum and coal product manufacturing at \$17.471 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$15.090 billion.

In 2004, a total of 645,796 people in Pennsylvania were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 457,003 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the fabricated metal product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees with 85,795 (62,587 actual production workers). It was followed by food manufacturing, with 71,228 (51,734 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing, with 51,643 (32,815 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing, with 44,095 (34,117 actual production workers); printing and related support activities, with 42,733 (31,705 actual production workers); and transportation equipment manufacturing, with 37,763 (27,124 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Pennsylvania's manufacturing sector paid \$26.816 billion in wages. Of that amount, the fabricated metal product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$3.402 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$2.468 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$2.372 billion; primary metal manufacturing at \$2.140 billion; and chemical manufacturing at \$2.063 billion.

30 COMMERCE

A major component in Philadelphia's early economy, trade remains important to the state.

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Pennsylvania's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$183.7 billion from 15,991 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 9,887 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 4,777 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 1,327 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$77.5 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$83.2 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$22.9 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Pennsylvania was listed as having 48,041 retail establishments with sales of \$130.7 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (6,949); clothing and clothing accessories stores (6,276); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (5,465); miscellaneous store retailers (5,449); and gasoline stations (4,476). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$33.1 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$21.3 billion; general merchandise stores at \$16.8 billion; nonstore retailers at \$11.6 billion; gasoline stations at \$9.6 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$9.2 billion. A total of 661,993 people were employed by the retail sector in Pennsylvania that year.

During the colonial era, Philadelphia was one of the busiest Atlantic ports and the leading port for the lucrative Caribbean trade. Philadelphia remains one of the country's leading foreign trade centers. In 2005, total exports of Pennsylvania goods had a value of \$22.2 billion (ninth in the United States).

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection affairs in Pennsylvania are the responsibility of the Bureau of Consumer Protection, which is under the Office of Attorney General. The bureau investigates and mediates complaints, acts in an advisory position to the legislature on issues that would affect consumers, investigates claims of fraud and deception, and acts to promote consumer education. Also within the Office of Attorney General is the Charitable Trusts and Organizations section and the Office of Consumer Advocate, which is responsible for representing the state's consumers in matters that involve utility services. Pennsylvanians are encouraged to report instances of fraud, waste, or mismanagement of state funds through a toll-free telephone service run by the Auditor General. Additionally, the Department of Insurance and the Department of Banking protect state residents against insurance fraud and banking fraud, respectively.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General cannot represent the state before regulatory agencies. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Bureau of Consumer Protection and of the Office of Consumer Advocate are located in Harrisburg. The Office of the Attorney General has regional offices in Allentown, Ebensburg, Erie, Harrisburg, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh and Scranton. County government consumer protection offices are located in Doylestown, Media, Norristown and West Chester.

32 BANKING

Philadelphia is the nation's oldest banking center, and Third Street, between Chestnut and Walnut, has been called the cradle of American finance. The first chartered commercial bank in the United States was the Bank of North America, granted its charter in Philadelphia by the federal government in December 1781 and by Pennsylvania in April 1782. The First Bank of the United States was headquartered in Philadelphia from its inception in 1791 to 1811, when its charter was allowed to expire. Its building was bought by Stephen Girard, a private banker whose new institution quickly became one of the nation's largest banks. Girard's bank was closed after he died in 1831, but a new Girard Bank was opened in 1832; it merged with Philadelphia National Bank in 1926.

By the early 1800s, Philadelphia had reached its zenith as the nation's financial center. It was the home of the Bank of Pennsylvania, founded in 1793; the Bank of Philadelphia (1804); the Farmers and Mechanics Bank (1809); the Philadelphia Savings Fund Society (1816), the first mutual savings bank; and, most powerful of all, the Second Bank of the United States (1816). After 1823, under the directorship of Nicholas Biddle, this bank became an international leader and the only rival to New York City's growing banking industry. When President Jackson vetoed the bank's

recharter in 1831, Philadelphia lost its preeminence as a banking center.

Pittsburgh's rise to prominence during the late 1800s, was due in great part to the efforts of its most successful financier, Andrew Mellon. In March 1982, the state legalized multibank holding companies; subsequently, the Mellon Bank acquired Centre County Bank of State College, Girard Bank, and Northwest Bank. Other major institutions are: Pittsburgh National Bank, part of PNC Financial, and Philadelphia National Bank. First Pennsylvania, in financial difficulty for several years, was saved from possible failure early in 1980 through a loan package engineered by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.

As of June 2005, Pennsylvania had 254 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 73 state-chartered and 579 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Philadelphia-Camden-Wilmington market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 156 institutions and \$221.259 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 6.2% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$23.100 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 93.8% or \$348.550 billion in assets held.

The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for the state's banks stood at 3.31% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 3.37% in 2004 and 3.38% in 2003. Pennsylvania's banks' media past-due/nonaccrual loan to total loan ratios in fourth quarter 2005 stood at 1.26%, down from 1.36% in 2004 and 1.51% in 2003.

Regulation of Pennsylvania's state-charter banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the state's Department of Banking.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were over 8.5 million individual life insurance policies in force, with a total value of about \$551 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$909.5 billion. The average coverage amount is \$64,100 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$2.67 billion.

There were 37 life and health and 200 property and casualty insurance companies domiciled in Pennsylvania in 2003. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$19.2 billion. That year, there were 60,779 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$8 billion. About \$2.2 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 58% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 25% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 12% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 15% for single coverage and 23% for family coverage. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 8.3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage in-

cludes bodily injury liability of up to \$15,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$5,000. Coverage for first party medical expenses is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$810.25.

3⁴ SECURITIES

Formally established in 1790, the Philadelphia Stock Exchange (PHLX) is the oldest stock exchange in the United States. It was also the nation's most important exchange until the 1820s, when the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) eclipsed it. Since World War II, the Philadelphia exchange has merged with stock exchanges in Baltimore (1949), Washington, DC (1953), and Pittsburgh (1969). As the primary odd-lot market for Government National Mortgage Association securities and as a leading market for odd-lot government securities and stock options, PHLX ranks after only the NYSE and American exchanges (AMEX) in trading volume. PHLX was the first exchange in the United States to trade foreign currency options (1982) and the National Over-the-Counter Index (1985). Over 2,600 stocks and over 800 options are traded on the exchange.

Sales of securities are regulated by the Pennsylvania Securities Commission, which also licenses all securities dealers, agents, and investment advisers in the state.

In 2005, there were 5,490 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 7,680 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 415 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 168 NASDAQ companies, 97 NYSE listings, and 26 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 26 Fortune 500 companies; AmerisourceBergen ranked first in the state and 27th in the nation with revenues of over \$54.5 billion, followed by Sunoco, Comcast, Rite Aid, and Cigna. Comcast is listed on NASDAQ; the other top four are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Pennsylvania's budget is prepared annually by the Office of Budget and submitted by the governor to the General Assembly for amendment and approval. By law, annual operating expenditures may not exceed available revenues and surpluses from prior years. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$24.7 billion for resources and \$24.5 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Pennsylvania were \$19.9 billion.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$7.7 million for Pennsylvania.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Pennsylvania collected \$27,263 million in tax revenues or \$2,193 per capita, which placed it 22nd among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.2% of the total; sales taxes, 29.6%; selective sales taxes, 18.9%; individual income taxes, 30.4%; corporate income taxes, 6.2%; and other taxes, 14.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, Pennsylvania had one individual income tax bracket of 3.07%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 9.99%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$12,518,226,000 or \$1,010 per capita. The per capita amount

Pennsylvania—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	69,212,674	5,584.37
General revenue	50,028,732	4,036.53
Intergovernmental revenue	15,298,110	1,234.32
Taxes	25,346,879	2,045.09
General sales	7,773,133	627.17
Selective sales	4,756,518	383.78
License taxes	2,547,850	205.57
Individual income tax	7,323,364	590.88
Corporate income tax	1,677,998	135.39
Other taxes	1,268,016	102.31
Current charges	5,706,808	460.45
Miscellaneous general revenue	3,676,935	296.67
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	1,109,204	89.50
Insurance trust revenue	18,074,738	1,458.35
Total expenditure	57,353,773	4,627.54
Intergovernmental expenditure	12,156,969	980.88
Direct expenditure	45,196,804	3,646.67
Current operation	31,408,588	2,534.18
Capital outlay	3,361,917	271.25
Insurance benefits and repayments	8,044,411	649.06
Assistance and subsidies	1,258,487	101.54
Interest on debt	1,123,401	90.64
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	7,457,562	601.71
Total expenditure	57,353,773	4,627.54
General expenditure	48,242,901	3,892.44
Intergovernmental expenditure	12,156,969	980.88
Direct expenditure	36,085,932	2,911.56
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	15,391,363	1,241.84
Public welfare	16,772,449	1,353.27
Hospitals	2,201,565	177.63
Health	1,471,027	118.69
Highways	4,026,416	324.87
Police protection	604,141	48.74
Correction	1,488,414	120.09
Natural resources	631,347	50.94
Parks and recreation	168,300	13.58
Government administration	2,068,165	166.87
Interest on general debt	1,123,401	90.64
Other and unallocable	2,296,313	185.28
Utility expenditure	48,285	3.90
Liquor store expenditure	1,018,176	82.15
Insurance trust expenditure	8,044,411	649.06
Debt at end of fiscal year	25,995,752	2,097.45
Cash and security holdings	104,532,372	8,434.11

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

ranks the state 24th nationally. Local governments collected \$12,449,837,000 of the total and the state government \$68,389,000.

Pennsylvania taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 135 cents per pack, which ranks 12th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Pennsylvania taxes gasoline at 31.2 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Pennsylvania citizens received \$1.06 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Center for Entrepreneurial Assistance directs and controls the Department of Community and Economic Development's economic assistance activities. Other agencies include the Pennsylvania Industrial Development Authority and the Pennsylvania Capital Loan Fund. Pennsylvania also encourages industrial development, domestic and foreign investment to the state, and export assistance to Pennsylvania companies.

The Pennsylvania Industrial Development Authority Board and the Pennsylvania Minority Business Development Authority provide loans to businesses that want to build new facilities or renovate and expand older ones. The Office of Minority Business Enterprise seeks to strengthen minority businesses by helping them obtain contracts with the state. The Small Business Development Center aids small businesses by providing a network of informational sources. Additional services are provided by the Appalachian Regional Commission, the Office of Corporate and Financial Regulation, the Ben Franklin Technology Development Authority, the Community Economic Development Loan Program, the Customized Job Training Program, the Enterprise Zone Program, the Export Finance Program, the First Industries Fund, the Industrial Sites Reuse Program, the Infrastructure Development Program, the Keystone Innovation Starter Kit, Keystone Opportunity Zones, the Pennsylvania Capital Access Program (PennCap), the Pennsylvania Economic Development Financing Authority, Small Business Development Centers, and the Tax Increment Financing Guarantee Program.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.9 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 11.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 14.3 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 76% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 86% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 10.5 deaths per 1,000 population, which was the second-highest rate in the country that year (following West Virginia). As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 315; cancer, 242 (the third-highest rate in the country); cerebrovascular diseases, 69.5; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 48.8; and diabetes, 30.1. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 13.1 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 57% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 22.6% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Pennsylvania had 201 community hospitals with about 40,900 beds. There were about 1.8 million patient admissions that year and 33 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 28,200 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,326. Also in 2003, there were about 740 certified nursing facilities in the state with 90,857 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 89.7%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 69.9% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Pennsylvania had 332 physicians per 100,000

resident population in 2004 and 995 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 7,789 dentists in the state.

About 14% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003. In 2004, Pennsylvania tied with Arkansas and Florida at third in the nation for the highest percentage of residents on Medicare (following West Virginia and Maine). Approximately 12% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$18.8 million.

The University of Pennsylvania School of Medicine, which originated as the medical school of the College of Philadelphia in 1765, is the nation's oldest medical school. One of the nation's newest is the Hershey Medical Center of Pennsylvania State University. Other medical schools in Pennsylvania are the University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine, Temple University's School of Medicine, the Medical College of Pennsylvania, and Allegheny University, the last three in Philadelphia. The state also aids colleges of osteopathic medicine, podiatric medicine, and optometry—all in Philadelphia. In 2005, the University of Pittsburgh Medical Center and the Hospital of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, ranked 13th and 15th respectively on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia ranked first in the nation in reputation for pediatric care

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 487,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$294. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 1,042,809 persons (471,960 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.28 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$1.1 billion.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the Pennsylvania TANF program had 231,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$346 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 2,405,080 Pennsylvania residents. This number included 1,556,970 retired workers, 266,100 widows and widowers, 275,950 disabled workers, 133,490 spouses, and 172,570 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 19.3% of the total state population and 93.3% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$982; widows and widowers, \$945; disabled workers, \$910; and spouses, \$496. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$509 per month; children of deceased workers, \$658; and children of disabled workers, \$266. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 316,917 Pennsylvania residents, averaging \$437 a month.

40 HOUSING

Faced with a decaying housing stock, Philadelphia during the 1970s and 1980s encouraged renovation of existing units along

with the construction of new ones, effectively revitalizing several neighborhoods. About 22.4% of all units in the state were built in the period from 1970 to 1989.

In 2004, there were 5,385,729 housing units in Pennsylvania, 4,817,757 of which were occupied; 72.8% were owner-occupied. About 57.6% of all units were single-family, detached homes. About 30.7% of all units were built in 1939 or earlier. In 2004, utility gas and fuel oil were the most common sources of energy for heating. It was estimated that 135,756 units lacked telephone services, 23,755 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 28,415 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.48 members.

In 2004, 49,700 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$116,520. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,114. Renters paid a median of \$611 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$450,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$50 million in community development block grants. The city of Philadelphia was awarded over \$53 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

Pennsylvania fell behind many of its neighbors in establishing a free public school system. From colonial times until the 1830s, almost all instruction in reading and writing took place in private schools. Called "dame schools" in the cities and "neighborhood schools" in rural areas, they offered primary courses, usually taught by women in their own homes. In addition, the Quakers, Moravians, and Scots-Irish Presbyterians all formed their own private schools, emphasizing religious study. Many communities also set up secondary schools, called academies, on land granted by the state; by 1850, there were 524 academies, some of which later developed into colleges. A public school law passed in 1834 was not mandatory in the school districts but was still unpopular. Thaddeus Stevens, then a state legislator, is credited with saving the law from repeal in 1835. Two years later, more than 40% of the state's children were in public schools.

As of 2004, 86.5% of the population 25 years old and older had completed four years of high school, and 25.3% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Pennsylvania's public schools stood at 1,817,000. Of these, 1,242,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 575,000 attended high school. Approximately 76.3% of the students were white, 15.8% were black, 5.5% were Hispanic, 2.3% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.1% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,812,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 1,676,000 by 2014, a decline of 7.7% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$20.7 billion or \$9,979 per student, the ninth-highest among the 50 states. In fall 2003 there were 316,337 students enrolled in 2,009 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Pennsylvania scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 654,826 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 16.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Pennsylvania had 262 degree-granting institutions including 44 public four-year schools, 21 public two-year schools, and 98 nonprofit, private four-year schools. Indiana University of Pennsylvania, established in 1872, accounted for about 15% of enrollment. Four universities have nonprofit corporate charters but are classified as state-related: Pennsylvania State University, Temple University, the University of Pittsburgh, and Lincoln University. Of these, Penn State is by far the largest. Founded in 1855 as the Farmers' High School of Pennsylvania, Penn State now has its main campus at University Park and 23 smaller campus locations statewide as well as a Penn State World Campus that allows online access to a Penn State education.

State-aided private institutions receiving designated grants from the legislature include the University of Pennsylvania, the largest of these schools, founded in 1740 by Benjamin Franklin as the Philadelphia Academy and Charitable School; among its noteworthy professional schools is the Wharton School of Business. Other private colleges and universities, also eligible to receive state aid through a per-pupil funding formula, include Bryn Mawr College (founded in 1880), Bucknell University (1846) in Lewisburg, Carnegie-Mellon University (1900) in Pittsburgh, Dickinson College (1733) in Carlisle, Duquesne University (1878) in Pittsburgh, Haverford College (1833), Lafayette College (1826), Lehigh University (1865), Swarthmore College (1864), and Villanova University (1842). The Pennsylvania Higher Education Assistance Agency (PHEAA) offers higher education grants, guarantees private loans, and administers work-study programs for Pennsylvania students.

4² ARTS

The Pennsylvania Council on the Arts (PCA) was established in 1966 and consists of a Council comprised of 19 members—15 private citizens appointed by the governor and 4 members of the General Assembly. In 2005, the PCA and other Pennsylvania arts organizations received 103 grants totaling \$3,135,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Pennsylvania Humanities Council (PHC) was established in 1973. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$6,181,059 for 59 state programs. The state and various private sources also provided funding for arts programs.

Philadelphia was the cultural capital of the colonies and rivaled New York as a theatrical center during the 1800s. In 1984, Philadelphia had five fully developed resident theaters, ranking third in the nation after New York and California. As of 2005 a number of regional and summer stock theaters were scattered throughout the state, the most noteworthy being in Bucks County, Lancaster, and Pittsburgh. The Bucks County Playhouse is recognized as the State Theater and carries a rich history of featuring well-known stars such as Grace Kelly, Robert Redford, and Walter Matthau. The Bucks County Playhouse is also noted for premiering the famous dramas, *Harvey*, *Nobody Loves Me (Barefoot In The Park)* and *Give 'Em Hell Harry*.

Pennsylvania's most significant contribution to the performing arts has come through music. One of America's first important songwriters, Stephen Foster, was born in 1826 in Lawrenceville and grew up in Pittsburgh. Some of Foster's songs include, "Oh!

Susanna" (1848), "Jeanie With the Light Brown Hair" (1854), and "Old Folks at Home (Swanee River)" (1851). The Pittsburgh Symphony, which began performing in 1896, first achieved prominence under Victor Herbert. Temporarily disbanded in 1910, the symphony was revived under Fritz Reiner in 1927; subsequent music directors have included William Steinberg and Andre Previn. Even more illustrious has been the career of the Philadelphia Orchestra, founded in 1900. Among this orchestra's best-known permanent conductors have been Leopold Stokowski and Eugene Ormandy, both of whom recorded extensively.

An important dance company, the Pennsylvania Ballet, is based in Philadelphia, which is also home to the Curtis Institute of Music, founded in 1924. Pittsburgh hosts the Pittsburgh Ballet Theater (PBT). In 1989 PBT began conducting educational programs; as of 2005 the outreach programs had reached over 65,000 students from more than 200 school districts. The National Choreographic Center was established in the mid-1980s in Carlisle in conjunction with the Central Pennsylvania Youth Ballet School. Opera companies include the Fulton Opera House in Lancaster, Pittsburgh Opera, and Opera Company of Philadelphia.

In 1997 the Philadelphia Fringe Festival was founded. Under a changed title, the Philadelphia Live Arts Festival and Philly Fringe evolved into a 16-day festival. The festival, which includes theater, dance, music, poetry and puppetry performances, has been recorded as drawing over 47,000 attendants. The *American Poetry Review*, published in Philadelphia, has become one of the nation's premier poetry journals. Favorite tourist sites featuring the arts include the Andy Warhol Museum in Pittsburgh and the Edgar J. Kaufmann House, more commonly known as, Fallingwater, a home designed by renowned architect Frank Lloyd Wright in Bear Run.

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

As of December 2001, Pennsylvania had 459 public library systems, with a total of 636 libraries, of which there were 181 were branches. In that same year, the libraries had a combined 28,061,000 volumes of books and serial publications on their shelves, and a total circulation of 56,929,000. The system also had 1,957,000 audio and 831,000 video items, 29,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 35 bookmobiles. The largest public library in the state, and one of the oldest in the United States, is the Free Library of Philadelphia, with 6,700,000 volumes in 73 branches. The Carnegie Library in Pittsburgh has 3,439,666 volumes and 18 branches. Harrisburg offers the State Library of Pennsylvania, which had 1,000,494 volumes in 1998. The Alverthorpe Gallery Library in Jenkintown contains the Rosenwald collection of illustrated books dating from the 15th century. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system came to \$277,782,000 and included \$2,705,000 in federal grants and \$73,274,000 in state grants.

Philadelphia is the site of the state's largest academic collection, the University of Pennsylvania Libraries, with 4,791,342 volumes. Other major academic libraries are at the University of Pittsburgh, 3,968,106 volumes; Penn State, over 2.5 million; Temple, 2,445,164; Carnegie-Mellon, 906,069; and Bryn Mawr, 1,062,594.

Pennsylvania has 362 museums and public gardens, with many of the museums located in Philadelphia. The Franklin Institute, established in 1824 as an exhibition hall and training center for

inventors and mechanics, is a leading showcase for science and technology. Other important museums are the Philadelphia Museum of Art, Academy of Natural Sciences, Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, Afro-American Historical and Cultural Museum, American Catholic Historical Society, American Swedish Historical Foundation Museum, and Museum of American Jewish History.

The Carnegie Institute in Pittsburgh is home to several major museums, including the Carnegie Museum of Natural History and the Museum of Art. Also in Pittsburgh are the Buhl Planetarium and Institute of Popular Science and the Frick Art Museum. Other institutions scattered throughout the state include the Moravian Museum, Bethlehem; US Army Military History Institute, Carlisle; Erie Art Center, Museum, and Old Custom House; Pennsylvania Lumber Museum, Galeton; Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission and William Penn Memorial Museum, Harrisburg; Pennsylvania Dutch Folk Culture Society, Lenhartsville; Schwenkfelder Museum, Pennsburg; and Railroad Museum of Pennsylvania, Strasburg. A new exhibit at the Pittsburgh Zoo and Aquarium opened in June of 2000, featuring a \$16.8 million aquarium that was twice as big as the old Aqua Zoo, and included 500 species of sea creatures.

Several old forts commemorate the French and Indian War, and George Washington's Revolutionary headquarters at Valley Forge is now a national historical park. Brandywine Battlefield (Chadds Ford) is another Revolutionary War site. Gettysburg National Military Park commemorates the Civil War. Other historic sites are Independence National Historical Park, Philadelphia; the Daniel Boone Homestead, Birdsboro; John Brown's House, Chambersburg; James Buchanan's home, Lancaster; and Ft. Augusta, Sunbury, a frontier outpost.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Philadelphia already had mail links to surrounding towns and to Maryland and Virginia by 1737, when Benjamin Franklin was named deputy postmaster of the city, but service was slow and not always reliable. During the remainder of the century, significant improvements in delivery were made, but some townspeople devised ingenious ways of transmitting information even faster than the mails. Philadelphia stock exchange brokers, for instance, communicated with agents in New York by flashing coded signals with mirrors and lights from a series of high points across New Jersey, thereby receiving stock prices on the same day they were transacted. By 1846, the first telegraph service in the state linked Harrisburg and Lancaster.

In 2004, 95.6% of Pennsylvania's households had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 6,420,037 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 60.2% of Pennsylvania households had a computer and 54.7% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,602,716 high-speed lines in Pennsylvania, 1,455,509 residential and 157,207 for business.

Pittsburgh's KDKA became the world's first commercial radio station in 1920. By 2005, it was one of 55 major AM and 144 major FM radio stations. In addition, there were 34 major television stations. WQED in Pittsburgh pioneered community-sponsored educational television when it began broadcasting in 1954. In 1999, the Philadelphia area had 2,670,710 households, 79% with cable; the Pittsburgh area had a 79% penetration rate in 1,135,290

households; and the Harrisburg-Lancaster-Lebanon-York area had 599,930 households, 78% with cable.

A total of 217,724 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

Benjamin Franklin may have been colonial Pennsylvania's most renowned publisher, but its first was Andrew Bradford, whose *American Weekly Mercury*, established in 1719, was the third newspaper to appear in the colonies. Founded nine years later, the *Pennsylvania Gazette* was purchased by Franklin in 1730 and served as the springboard for *Poor Richard's Almanack*.

During the 1800s, newspapers sprang up in all the major cities and many small communities. By 1880, Pittsburgh had 10 daily newspapers—more than any other city its size. After a series of mergers and closings, however, it is left with only one paper today—the *Post-Gazette*. Philadelphia has two newspapers, the *Inquirer* and the *Daily News*. The *Inquirer*, founded in 1829, has won numerous awards for its investigative reporting.

In 2005, Pennsylvania had 50 morning newspapers, 31 evening newspapers, and 41 Sunday papers.

The following table shows the approximate circulation of some of the leading dailies in 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Allentown	<i>Morning Call</i> (m,S)	126,470	159,733
Erie	<i>Times-News</i> (m,S)	59,454	86,185
Harrisburg	<i>Patriot-News</i> (m,S)	100,129	150,061
Philadelphia	<i>Inquirer</i> (m,S)	368,833	750,780
	<i>Daily News</i> (m)	135,956	68,333 (Sat.)
Pittsburgh	<i>Post-Gazette</i> (m,S)	238,860	402,981
Wilkes-Barre	<i>Citizens' Voice</i> (m,S)	31,606	30,664
	<i>Times Leader</i> (m,S)	42,585	59,730

In 2005, there were 198 weekly publications in Pennsylvania. Of these there are 107 paid weeklies, 38 free weeklies, and 53 combined weeklies. The total circulation of paid weeklies (506,614) and free weeklies (1,556,969) is 1,679,404. The *Moon Record* of Crescent, Pennsylvania ranked eighth among paid weeklies in the United States based on a circulation of 49,000. Based on circulation in the United States in 2005, among free weeklies the Bucks County *Trend Midweek* ranked first with a circulation of 625,000, followed by two northeast Philadelphia publications, the *News Gleaner* and *Northeast Times*, ranking fourteenth and fifteenth, respectively, with circulations of 136,070 and 119,673. The Pittsburgh *Pennysaver* (circulation 772,546) ranked ninth in the United States among shopping publications in 2005.

Farm Journal and *Current History*, both monthlies, are published in Philadelphia, and there are monthlies named for both Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Of more specialized interest are the gardening, nutrition, and health magazines and books from Rodale Press in Emmaus which publishes *Prevention*, *Men's Health* and *Runner's World*, *Women's Health*, *Organic Gardening*, *Backpacker*, *Best Life*, *Bicycling* and *Mountain Bike*. The Chilton Co., publisher of automotive guides, was acquired by The Thompson Corporation in 2003.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 17,340 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 11,572 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Philadelphia is the home for two major service organizations: Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America and the Grand United Order of Odd Fellows. Educational organizations in that city include the American Academy of Political and Social Science, the Academy of Natural Sciences, the American Philosophical Society, and Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools. The Association for Children with Learning Disabilities is located in Pittsburgh, the College Placement Council in Bethlehem, and the American Philatelic Society in State College.

State organizations for arts and culture include ArtsQuest, Dance Theatre of Pennsylvania, the Pittsburgh Center for the Arts, the Folk Heritage Institute, and the Pennsylvania Historical Association. There are also several municipal and regional historical societies and art councils. State environmental organizations include Preservation Pennsylvania and the Rodale Institute.

Professional and trade groups in the state include the American Board of Surgery, the American College of Physicians—American Society of Internal Medicine, the National Board of Medical Examiners, the United Steel Workers of America, and the Society of Automotive Engineers. Valley Forge is the home of the Patriotic Order of the Sons of America.

Among the many sports organizations headquartered in Pennsylvania are the US Squash Racquets Association, Pop Warner Football, US Rowing Association, and the Little League Foundation. The Major League Umpires Association is also based in the state.

The Jewish Publication Society is based in Philadelphia. The Mennonite Central Committee, a major international relief and service organization, is based in Akron. The Moravian Historical Society is based in Nazareth.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is the second-largest industry in the state of Pennsylvania, which hosted a record 126 million travelers in 2003. Of these, some 1.3 million were international visitors with the majority from Canada, the United Kingdom, and Germany. Two-thirds of out-of-state visitors traveled to the state from New York, New Jersey, and Maryland; Virginians and Ohioans completed the list of top-five states providing tourists to Pennsylvania. The total economic impact from travel expenditures was \$21.9 billion in 2003. The industry supported over 563,440 jobs.

Philadelphia—whose Independence National Historical Park has been called the most historic square mile in America—offers the Liberty Bell, Independence Hall, Carpenter's Hall, and many other sites. North of Philadelphia, in Bucks County, is the town of New Hope, with its numerous crafts and antique shops.

The Lancaster area is “Pennsylvania Dutch” country, featuring tours and exhibits of Amish farm life. Gettysburg contains not only the famous Civil War battlefield but also the home of Dwight D. Eisenhower, opened to the public in 1980. Among the most popular sites are Chocolate World and Hershey Park in the town of Hershey and Valley Forge National Historic Park. Annual parades and festivals include the Mummers Parade on 1 January

in Philadelphia and the Kutztown Folk Festival, commemorating Pennsylvania Dutch life, held the first week of July. Fallingwater is a Frank Lloyd Wright-designed house and visitor center.

No less an attraction are the state's outdoor recreation areas. The Laurel Highlands have many ski areas. The Laurel Caverns feature guided tours of the caves. By far the most popular for both skiing and camping are the Delaware Water Gap and the Poconos, also a favorite resort region. The state park system includes 116 state parks, 20 state forests, 1 national forest, and 3 environmental education centers.

48 SPORTS

Pennsylvania has seven major professional sports teams: the Philadelphia Phillies and the Pittsburgh Pirates of Major League Baseball, the Philadelphia Eagles and the Pittsburgh Steelers of the National Football League, the Philadelphia 76ers of the National Basketball Association, and the Pittsburgh Penguins and Philadelphia Flyers of the National Hockey League.

The Phillies won the World Series in 1980; they won the National League Championship in 1993, but lost the World Series to the Toronto Blue Jays. The Pirates won the World Series in 1909, 1925, 1960, 1971, and 1979. The Steelers established a legendary football dynasty in the 1970s, winning Super Bowls in 1975, 1976, 1979, 1980, and 2006. They also played in the 1996 Super Bowl, losing to the Dallas Cowboys. The Eagles won the National Football Conference championship in 1981, but lost to Oakland in that year's Super Bowl. The 76ers won the NBA championship in 1947, 1956, 1967, and 1983, and lost the championship series in 1977, 1980, and 1982. The Flyers won the Stanley Cup in 1974 and 1975 and lost in the finals in 1976, 1980, 1985, 1987, and 1997. The Penguins won the Stanley Cup in 1991 and 1992.

There are also minor league baseball teams in Harrisburg, Scranton, Altoona, Reading, Williamsport, Allentown, and Erie, and minor league hockey teams in Hershey, Johnstown, Wilkes-Barre, and Philadelphia.

Horse racing is conducted at Keystone Race Track in Bucks County, Penn National Race Course in Dauphin County, and Commodore Downs in Erie County. Harness-racing tracks include Liberty Bell Park in northeast Philadelphia, the Meadows in Washington County, and Pocono Downs in Luzerne County. Each June, Pennsylvania hosts a major auto race, the Pocono 500. Each July, the state hosts a second NASCAR Nextel Cup event, the Pennsylvania 500. The Penn Relays, an important amateur track meet, are held in Philadelphia every April.

In collegiate sports, football is most prominent. The University of Pittsburgh Panthers were named national champions in 1918, 1937, and 1976. Pennsylvania State University was named champion in 1982 and 1986 and joined the Big Ten in 1990. The Nittany Lions of Penn State won the Rose Bowl in 1995; the Sugar Bowl in 1983; the Orange Bowl in 1969, 1970, and 2006; the Fiesta Bowl in 1997; the Outback Bowl in 1996 and 1999; and the Cotton Bowl in 1972, to name just a few of their bowl victories. The University of Pennsylvania, members of the Ivy League, traditionally field strong teams in football and basketball. Villanova University, located in Philadelphia, won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) basketball championship in 1985.

Each summer, Williamsport hosts baseball's Little League World Series.

49 FAMOUS PENNSYLVANIANS

Johan Printz (b.Sweden, 1592–1663), the 400-lb, hard-drinking, hard-swearing, and hard-ruling governor of New Sweden, was Pennsylvania's first European resident of note. The founder of Pennsylvania was William Penn (b.England, 1644–1718), a Quaker of sober habits and deep religious beliefs. Most extraordinary of all Pennsylvanians, Benjamin Franklin (b.Massachusetts, 1706–90), a printer, author, inventor, scientist, legislator, diplomat, and statesman, served the Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and US governments in a variety of posts.

Only one native Pennsylvanian, James Buchanan (1791–1868), has ever become US president. Buchanan was a state assemblyman, five-term US representative, two-term US senator, secretary of state, and minister to Russia and then to Great Britain before entering the White House as a 65-year-old bachelor in 1857. As president, he tried to maintain the Union by avoiding extremes and preaching compromise, but his toleration of slavery was abhorrent to abolitionists and his desire to preserve the Union was obnoxious to secessionists. Dwight D. Eisenhower (b.Texas, 1890–1969) retired to a farm in Gettysburg after his presidency was over. George M. Dallas (1792–1864), Pennsylvania's only US vice president, was James K. Polk's running mate.

The six Pennsylvanians who have served on the US Supreme Court have all been associate justices: James Wilson (1742–98), Henry Baldwin (1780–1844), Robert C. Grier (1794–1870), William Strong (1808–95), George Shiras Jr. (1832–1924), and Owen J. Roberts (1875–1955). Controversial supreme court nominee Robert Heron Bock (b.Pennsylvania 1927) served as a federal judge for many years.

Many other Pennsylvanians have held prominent federal positions. Albert Gallatin (b.Switzerland, 1761–1849), brilliant secretary of the treasury under Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, later served as minister to France and then to Great Britain. Richard Rush (1780–1859) was Madison's attorney general and John Quincy Adams's secretary of the treasury. A distinguished jurist, Jeremiah Sullivan Black (1810–83) was Buchanan's attorney general and later his secretary of state. John Wanamaker (1838–1922), an innovative department store merchandiser, served as postmaster general under Benjamin Harrison. Philander C. Knox (1853–1921) was Theodore Roosevelt's attorney general and William Howard Taft's secretary of state. Financier Andrew C. Mellon (1855–1937) was secretary of the treasury under Warren G. Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover. Recent Pennsylvanians in high office include Richard Helms (1913–2002), director of the US Central Intelligence Agency from 1966 to 1973, and Alexander Haig (b.1924), former commander of NATO forces in Europe, chief of staff under Richard Nixon, and Ronald Reagan's first choice for secretary of state.

Three US senators, Simon Cameron (1799–1889), Matthew Quay (1833–1904), and Boies Penrose (1860–1921), are best known as leaders of the powerful Pennsylvania Republican machine. Senator Joseph F. Guffey (1870–1959) sponsored legislation to stabilize the bituminous coal industry. After serving as reform mayor of Philadelphia, Joseph S. Clark (1901–1990) also distinguished himself in the Senate, and Hugh Scott (1900–94) was Republican minority leader from 1969 to 1977. Outstanding representatives from Pennsylvania include Thaddeus Stevens (1792–1868), leader of radical Republicans during the Civil War

era; David Wilmot (1814–68), author of the proviso attempting to prohibit slavery in territory acquired from Mexico; and Samuel J. Randall (1828–90), speaker of the House of Representatives from 1876 to 1881.

Other notable historical figures were Joseph Galloway (b.Maryland, 1729?–1803), a loyalist; Robert Morris (England, 1734–1806), a Revolutionary financier; and Betsy Ross (Elizabeth Griscom, 1752–1836), the seamstress who allegedly stitched the first American flag. Pamphleteer Thomas Paine (England, 1737–1809), pioneer Daniel Boone (1734–1820), and General Anthony Wayne (1745–96) also distinguished themselves during this period. In the Civil War, General George B. McClellan (1826–85) led the Union army on the Peninsula and at the Battle of Antietam, while at the Battle of Gettysburg, Generals George Gordon Meade (b.Spain, 1815–72) and Winfield Scott Hancock (1824–86) both showed their military prowess.

Important state governors include John W. Geary (1819–73), Samuel W. Pennypacker (1843–1916), Robert E. Pattison (b.Maryland, 1850–1904), Gifford Pinchot (b.Connecticut 1865–1946), James H. Duff (1883–1969), George H. Earle (1890–1974), Milton J. Shapp (Ohio, 1912–88), William W. Scranton (b.Connecticut, 1917), George M. Leader (b.1918), and Richard L. Thornburgh (b.1932).

Pennsylvanians have won Nobel Prizes in every category except literature. General George C. Marshall (1880–1959), chief of staff of the US Army in World War II and secretary of state when the European Recovery Program (Marshall Plan) was adopted, won the 1953 Nobel Peace Prize. Simon Kuznets (b.Russia, 1901–85) received the 1971 Nobel Prize in economic science for work on economic growth, and Herbert A. Simon (b.Wisconsin, 1916–2001) received the 1978 award for work on decision making in economic organizations; in 1980, Lawrence R. Klein (b.Nebraska, 1920) was honored for his design and application of econometric models. In physics, Otto Stern (b.Germany, 1888–1969) won the 1943 prize for work on the magnetic momentum of protons. In chemistry, Theodore W. Richards (1868–1928) won the 1914 Nobel Prize for determining the atomic weight of many elements, and Christian Boehmer Anfinsen (1916–95) won the 1972 award for pioneering studies in enzymes. In physiology or medicine, Philip S. Hench (1896–1965) won in 1950 for his discoveries about hormones of the adrenal cortex, Haldane K. Hartline (1903–83) won in 1967 for work on the human eye, and Howard M. Temin (1934–94) was honored in 1975 for the study of tumor viruses.

Many other Pennsylvanians were distinguished scientists. Ebenezer Kinnersly (1711–78) studied electricity, and Benjamin Franklin's grandson Alexander Dallas Bache (1806–67) was an expert on magnetism. Caspar Wistar (b.Germany, 1761–1818) and Thomas Woodhouse (1770–1809) pioneered the study of chemistry, while William Maclure (b.Scotland, 1763–1840) and James Mease (1771–1846) were early geologists. David Rittenhouse (1732–96) was a distinguished astronomer. John Bartram (1699–1777) and his son William (1739–1823) won international repute as botanists. Benjamin Rush (1745–1813) was Pennsylvania's most distinguished physician. Philip Syng Physick (1768–1837) was a leading surgeon, and Nathaniel Chapman (b.Virginia, 1780–1853) was the first president of the American Medical Association. Rachel Carson (1907–64), a marine biologist and writer, became widely known for her crusade against the use of chemical pesti-

cides. Noted inventors born in Pennsylvania include steamboat builder Robert Fulton (1765–1815) and David Thomas (1794–1882), the father of the American anthracite iron industry.

Pennsylvania played a large role in the economic development of the United States. In addition to Mellon, outstanding bankers include Stephen Girard (b.France, 1750–1831), Nicholas Biddle (1786–1844), Anthony J. Drexel (1826–93), and John J. McCloy (1895–1985). Andrew Carnegie (b.Scotland, 1835–1919) and his lieutenants, including Henry Clay Frick (1849–1919) and Charles M. Schwab (1862–1939), created the most efficient steel-manufacturing company in the 19th century. Wanamaker, Frank W. Woolworth (b.New York, 1852–1919), and Sebastian S. Kresge (1867–1966) were pioneer merchandisers.

Other prominent businessmen born in Pennsylvania are automobile pioneer Clement Studebaker (1831–1901), chocolate manufacturer Milton S. Hershey (1857–1945), and retired Chrysler chairman Lee A. Iacocca (b.1924).

Pennsylvania labor leaders include Uriah S. Stephens (1821–82) and Terence V. Powderly (1849–1924), leaders of the Knights of Labor; Philip Murray (b.Scotland, 1886–1952), president of the CIO; and David J. MacDonald (1902–79), leader of the steelworkers. Among economic theorists, Henry George (1839–97) was the unorthodox advocate of the single tax. Florence Kelley (1859–1932) was an important social reformer, as is Bayard Rustin (1910–1987).

Important early religious leaders, all born in Germany, include Henry Melchior Muhlenberg (1711–87), organizer of Pennsylvania's Lutherans; Count Nikolaus Ludwig von Zinzendorf (1700–1760), a Moravian leader; and Johann Conrad Beissel (1690–1768), founder of the Ephrata Cloister. Charles Taze Russell (1852–1916), born a Congregationalist, founded the group that later became Jehovah's Witnesses. Among the state's outstanding scholars are historians Henry C. Lee (1825–1909), John Bach McMaster (1852–1932), Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer (1868–1936), and Henry Steele Commager (1902–98); anthropologist Margaret Mead (1901–78); behavioral psychologist B(urrrhus) F(rederic) Skinner (1904–1990); urbanologist Jane Jacobs (1916–2006); and language theorist Noam Chomsky (b.1928). Thomas Gallaudet (b.1787–1851) was a pioneer in education of the deaf.

Pennsylvania has produced a large number of distinguished journalists and writers. In addition to Franklin, newspapermen include John Dunlap (b.Ireland, 1747–1812), Benjamin Franklin Bache (1769–98), William L. McLean (1852–1931), and Moses L. Annenberg (1878–1942). Magazine editors were Sarah Josepha Buell Hale (b.New Hampshire, 1788–1879), Cyrus H. K. Curtis (b.Maine, 1850–1933), Edward W. Bok (b.Netherlands, 1863–1930), and I(sidor) F(einstein) Stone (1907–1989). Ida M. Tarbell (1857–1944) was perhaps Pennsylvania's most famous muckraker. Among the many noteworthy Pennsylvania-born writers are Charles Brockden Brown (1771–1810), Bayard Taylor (1825–78), novelist and physician Silas Weir Mitchell (1829–1914), Charles Godfrey Leland (1824–1903), Owen Wister (1860–1938), Richard Harding Davis (1864–1916), Gertrude Stein (1874–1946), Mary Roberts Rinehart (1876–1958), Hervey Allen (1889–1949), Christopher Morley (1890–1957), Conrad Richter (1890–1968), John O'Hara (1905–70), Donald Barthelme (1931–89), and John Updike (b.1932). James Michener (b.New York, 1907–97) was raised in the state. Pennsylvania playwrights include James Nel-

son Barker (1784–1858), Maxwell Anderson (1888–1959), George S. Kaufman (1889–1961), Marc Connelly (1890–1980), Clifford Odets (1906–63), and Ed Bullins (b.1935). Among Pennsylvania poets are Francis Hopkinson (1737–91), Philip Freneau (b.New York, 1753–1832), Thomas Dunn English (1819–1902), Thomas Buchanan Read (1822–72), and Wallace Stevens (1879–1955).

Composers include Stephen Collins Foster (1826–64), Ethelbert Woodbridge Nevin (1862–1901), Charles Wakefield Cadman (1881–1946), and Samuel Barber (1910–81). Among Pennsylvania painters prominent in the history of American art are Benjamin West (1738–1820), renowned as the father of American painting; Charles Willson Peale (1741–1827), who was also a naturalist; Thomas Sully (b.England, 1783–1872); George Catlin (1796–1872); Thomas Eakins (1844–1916); Mary Cassatt (1845–1926); Man Ray (1890–1976); Andrew Wyeth (b.1917); and Andy Warhol (1927–87). Outstanding sculptors include William Rush (1756–1833), George Grey Barnard (1863–1938), and Alexander Calder (1898–1976).

Pennsylvania produced and patronized a host of actors, including Edwin Forrest (1806–72) Lionel (1878–1954), Ethel (1879–1959), and John (1882–1942) Barrymore; W. C. Fields (William Claude Dukenfield, 1880–1946); Ed Wynn (Isaiah Edwin Leopold, 1886–1966); William Powell (1892–1987); Ethel Waters (1896–1977); Janet Gaynor (1906–84); James Stewart (1908–97); Broderick Crawford (1911–1986); Gene Kelly (1912–96); Charles Bronson (Charles Buchinsky, b.1922); Mario Lanza (1925–59); Shirley Jones (b.1934); and comedian Bill Cosby (b.1937). Film directors Joseph L. Mankiewicz (1909–1993), Arthur Penn (b.1922), and Sidney Lumet (b.1924) and film producer David O. Selznick (1902–65) also came from Pennsylvania.

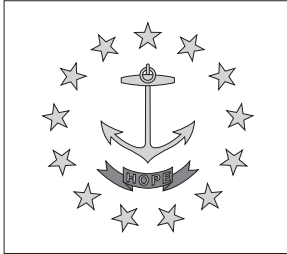
Pennsylvania has produced outstanding musicians. Four important Pennsylvania-born vocalists are Marian Anderson (b.1897–1993), Blanche Thebom (b.1919), Marilyn Horne (b.1934), and Anna Moffo (1934–2006). Pianists include the versatile Oscar Levant (1906–72) and jazz interpreters Earl "Fatha" Hines (1905–83) and Erroll Garner (1921–77). Popular band leaders include Fred Waring (1900–84), Jimmy Dorsey (1904–57) and his brother Tommy (1905–56), and Les Brown (1912–2001). Perry Como (1913–2001), Daryl Hall (b.1949), and John Oates (b.New York, 1948) have achieved renown as popular singers. Dancers and choreographers from Pennsylvania include Martha Graham (1893–1991), Paul Taylor (b.1930), and Gelsey Kirkland (b.1952).

Of the many outstanding athletes associated with Pennsylvania, Jim Thorpe (b.Oklahoma, 1888–1953) was most versatile, having starred in Olympic pentathlon and decathlon events and football. Baseball Hall of Famers include Honus Wagner (1874–1955), Stan Musial (b.1920), and Roy Campanella (1921–1993). Outstanding Pennsylvania football players include Harold "Red" Grange (1903–91), George Blanda (b.1927), John Unitas (1933–2002), Joe Namath (b.1943), and Tony Dorsett (b.1954). Other stars include basketball's Wilt Chamberlain (1936–99); golf's Arnold Palmer (b.1929), tennis's Bill Tilden (1893–1953); horse racing's Bill Hartack (b.1932); billiards' Willie Mosconi (1913–93); swimming's Johnny Weissmuller (1904–84); and track and field's Bill Toomey (b.1939).

Pennsylvania has also been the birthplace of a duchess—Bessie Wallis Warfield, the Duchess of Windsor (1896–1986)—and of a princess—Grace Kelly, Princess Grace of Monaco (1929–82).

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RHODE ISLAND

State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for Rhode Island in Narragansett Bay, which was likened to the isle of Rhodes in the Mediterranean Sea. **NICKNAME:** The Ocean State; Little Rhody. **CAPITAL:** Providence. **ENTERED UNION:** 29 May 1790 (13th). **SONG:** "Rhode Island." **MOTTO:** Hope. **COAT OF ARMS:** A golden anchor on a blue field. **FLAG:** In the center of a white field is a golden anchor with a blue ribbon containing the state motto in gold letters beneath it, all surrounded by a circle of 13 gold stars. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The anchor of the arms is surrounded by four scrolls, the topmost bearing the state motto: the words "Seal of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations 1636" encircle the whole. **BIRD:** Rhode Island Red. **FLOWER:** Violet. **TREE:** Red maple. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Victory Day, 2nd Monday in August; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans' Day and Armistice Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

One of the six New England states in the northeastern United States, Rhode Island is the smallest of all the 50 states. Rhode Island occupies only 0.03% of the total US area, and could fit inside Alaska, the largest state, nearly 486 times.

The total area of Rhode Island is 1,212 sq mi (3,139 sq km), of which land comprises 1,055 sq mi (2,732 sq km), and inland water 157 sq mi (407 sq km). The state extends 37 mi (60 km) E–W and 48 mi (77 km) N–S.

Rhode Island is bordered on the N and E by Massachusetts; on the S by the Atlantic Ocean (enclosing the ocean inlet, Narragansett Bay); and on the W by Connecticut (with part of the line formed by the Pawcatuck River). Three large islands—Prudence, Aquidneck (officially known as Rhode Island), and Conanicut—are situated within Narragansett Bay. Block Island, with an area of about 11 sq mi (28 sq km), lies some 9 mi (14 km) SW of Pt. Judith, on the mainland. There are 38 islands in all.

The total boundary length of Rhode Island is 160 mi (257 km). The state's geographic center is in Kent County, 1 mi (1.6 km) SSW of Cranston.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Rhode Island comprises two main regions. The New England Upland Region, which is rough and hilly and marked by forests and lakes, occupies the western two-thirds of the state, while the Seaboard Lowland, with its sandy beaches and salt marshes, occupies the eastern third. The highest point in the state is Jerimoth Hill, at 812 ft (248 m), in the northwest. The lowest elevation is sea level at the Atlantic Ocean. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 200 ft (61 m).

Rhode Island's principal river, the Blackstone, flows from Woonsocket past Pawtucket and thence into the Providence River, which, like the Sakonnet, is an estuary of Narragansett Bay; the

Pawcatuck River flows into Block Island Sound. There are about 65,000 acres (26,304 hectares) of wetlands in the state. The state has 38 islands, the largest being Aquidneck (Rhode Island), with an area of about 45 sq mi (117 sq km).

³CLIMATE

Rhode Island has a humid climate, with cold winters and short summers. The average annual temperature is 50°F (10°C). At Providence the temperature ranges from an average of 29°F (-1°C) in January to 73°F (22°C) in July. The record high temperature, 104°F (40°C), was registered in Providence on 2 August 1975; the record low, -23°F (-31°C), at Kingston on 11 January 1942. In Providence, the average annual precipitation is about 45.1 in (114 cm); snowfall averages 35.6 in (90 cm) a year. Rhode Island's weather is highly changeable, with storms and hurricanes an occasional threat. On 21 September 1938, a hurricane and tidal wave took a toll of 262 lives; Hurricane Carol, on 31 August 1954, left 19 dead, and property damage was estimated at \$90 million. A blizzard on 6–7 February 1978 dropped a record 28.6 in (73 cm) of snow on the state, as measured at Warwick, and caused 21 storm-attributed deaths.

⁴FLORA AND FAUNA

Though small, Rhode Island has three distinct life zones: sandplain lowlands, rising hills, and highlands. Common trees are the tuliptree, pin and post oaks, and red cedar. Cattails are abundant in marsh areas, and 40 types of fern and 30 species of orchid are indigenous to the state. In April 2006, the small whorled pogonia was listed by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as threatened and the sandplain gerardia endangered.

Urbanization and industrialization have taken their toll of native mammals. Swordfish, bluefish, lobsters, and clams populate coastal waters; brook trout and pickerel are among the common

freshwater fish. Fourteen Rhode Island animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including the American burying beetle, bald eagle, finback and humpback whale, and four species of sea turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Department of Environmental Management (DEM) coordinates all of the state's environmental protection and management programs. The Air, Solid Waste, and Hazardous Materials Section enforces controls on solid waste disposal, hazardous waste management facilities, industrial air pollution, and site remediation; the Water Quality Management Section regulates waste-treatment facilities, the discharge of industrial and oil wastes into state waters and public sewer facilities, groundwater protection, freshwater wetlands, dam maintenance, and home sewage disposal systems; the Natural Resources Management Section oversees fish, wildlife and estuarine resources, forest management, parks and recreation, and the enforcement of conservation laws; Planning and Administrative Services assists industry in pollution prevention, administers recycling programs, administers land preservation programs, and coordinates land acquisitions. The department also oversees water supply management. In 2003, the DEM, working the Department of Health, operated a Mosquito Abatement Coordination Office to help citizens minimize the risk of contracting West Nile virus from the mosquito population.

In 2003, 0.9 million pounds of toxic chemicals were released in the state, the second lowest amount of all the states in the nation. Also in 2003, Rhode Island had 187 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 12 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Newport Naval Education & Training Center. In 1996, 10% of the state's area was wetland. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$2.4 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8.3 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$7.2 million for the clean water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Rhode Island ranked 43rd in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,076,189 in 2005, an increase of 2.7% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Rhode Island's population grew from 1,003,464 to 1,048,319, an increase of 4.5%. The population is projected to reach 1.13 million by 2015 and over 1.15 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 1,041.3 persons per sq mi (402 persons per sq km), making Rhode Island the nation's second most densely populated state, after New Jersey. In 2004 the median age was 38.1. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 22.6% of the population while 13.9% was age 65 or older.

Providence, the capital, is the leading city, with an estimated population in 2004 of 178,126 (compared to the 1940 peak of 253,504). Other cities with large populations include Pawtucket and Woonsocket.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Rhode Island's black population numbered 46,908 in 2000, up from 39,000 in 1990 (and 4.5% of the state total). In 2004, 6.1% of the state's population was black. In 2000 there were 90,820 Hispanics and Latinos (8.7% of the total population), nearly twice the

1990 census count of 46,000. In 2004, 10.3% of the state's population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2000, there were 5,121 American Indians, up from 4,000 in 1990. In 2004, 0.6% of the population was American Indian or Alaskan Native. The Asian population was 23,665; the 2000 census reported 4,974 Chinese, 4,522 Cambodians, 2,942 Asian Indians, and 2,062 Filipinos. Pacific Islanders numbered 567. In 2004, 2.7% of the population was Asian and 0.1% Pacific Islander. The foreign born made up 11.4% of the population in 2000, or 119,277 persons, up from 9.5% of the population in 1990. In 2004, 1.5% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Many place-names in Rhode Island attest to the early presence of Mahican Indians: for instance, Sakonnet Point, Pawtucket, Matunuck, Narragansett.

English in Rhode Island is of the Northern dialect, with the distinctive features of eastern New England: absence of final /r/, and a vowel in *part* and *bath* intermediate between that in *father* and that in *bat*.

Rhode Island's immigrant tradition is reflected in the fact that in 2000, 20% of the state's residents reported speaking a language other than English in the home, up from 18% in 1990.

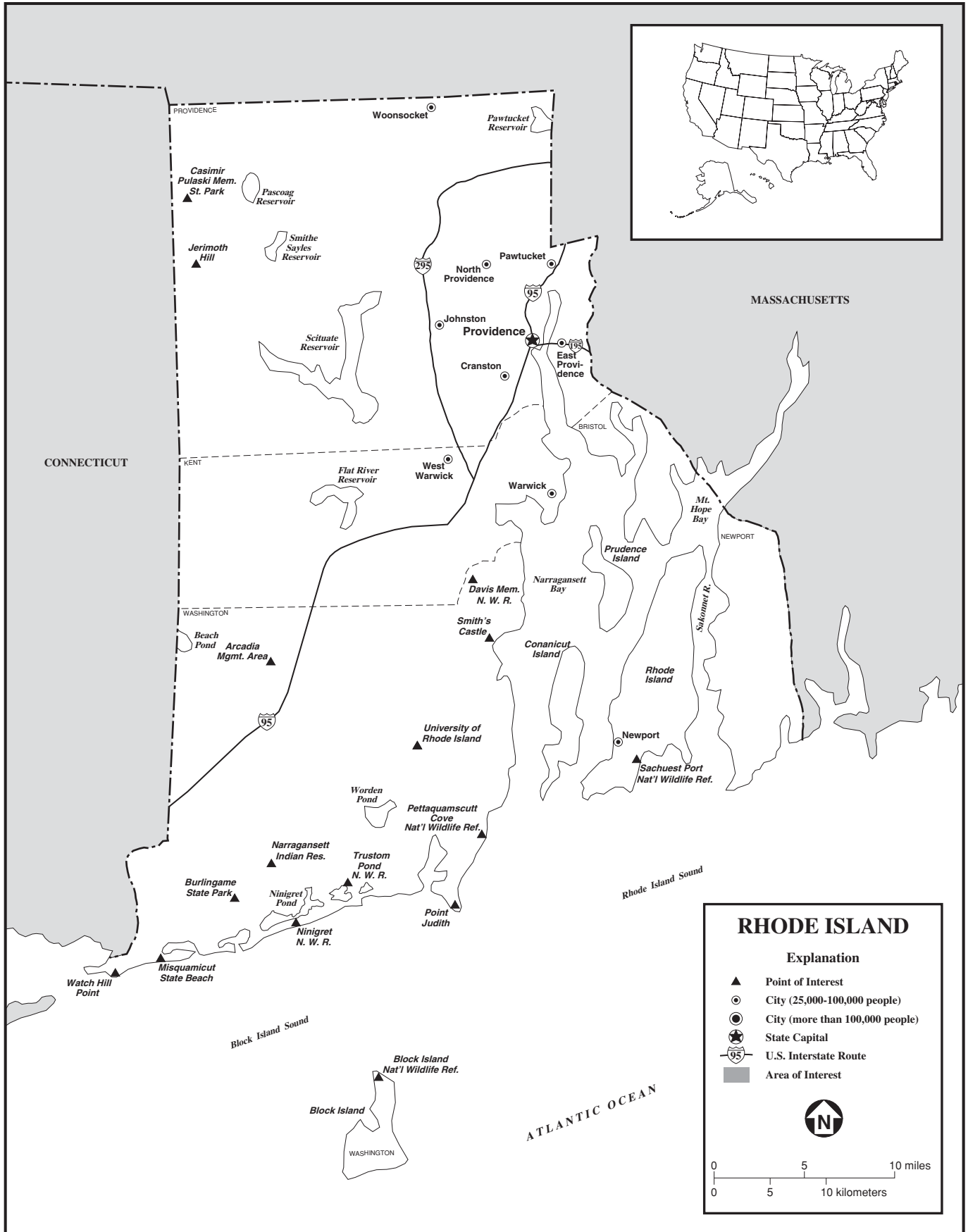
The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	985,184	100.0
Speak only English	788,560	80.0
Speak a language other than English	196,624	20.0
Speak a language other than English	196,624	20.0
Spanish or Spanish Creole	79,443	8.1
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	37,437	3.8
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	19,385	2.0
Italian	13,759	1.4
Mon-Khmer, Cambodian	5,586	0.6
French Creole	4,337	0.4
Chinese	3,882	0.4
Laotian	3,195	0.3
Polish	2,966	0.3
German	2,841	0.3
African languages	2,581	0.3
Arabic	2,086	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

The first European settlement in Rhode Island was founded by an English clergyman, Roger Williams, who left Massachusetts to find freedom of worship. The Rhode Island Charter of 1663 proclaimed that a "flourishing civil state may stand and best be maintained with full liberty in religious concerns." Rhode Island has maintained this viewpoint throughout its history, and has long been a model of religious pluralism. The first Baptist congregation in the United States was established in 1638 in Providence. In Newport stands the oldest synagogue (1763) and the oldest Quaker meetinghouse (1699) in the United States.

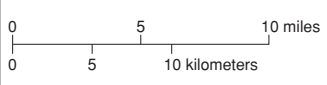
A majority of the population of Rhode Island is Catholic, reflecting heavy immigration from Italy, Ireland, Portugal, and French Canada. In 2004, there were 679,275 Roman Catholics, accounting for about 64% of the total state population. According to 2000 data, the largest Protestant denominations were Episco-



RHODE ISLAND

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 95 U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



palians, with 26,756 adherents, and American Baptists USA, with 20,997. There were about 7,686 members of the United Church of Christ in 2005. An estimated 16,10 Jews resided in the state the same year, as did about 1,827 Muslims. Friends–USA (Quakers) had only 599 members. About 36.5% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

As of 2003, Rhode Island had only one operating railroad within its borders, the regional Providence & Worcester, which utilized the state's 102 rail mi (164 km) of track. In the same year, chemicals were the top commodity hauled from the state. As of 2006, Amtrak operated daily trains through Rhode Island, via its Acela Express train and its Regional northeast corridor trains.

In 2004, there were 6,419 mi (10,334 km) of public highways and roads. In that same year, some 824,000 motor vehicles were registered with the state, while there were 741,841 licensed drivers. The major route through New England, I-95, crosses Rhode Island. The Rhode Island Public Transit Authority provides commuter bus service connecting urbanized areas.

Some of the best deepwater ocean ports on the east coast are in Narragansett Bay. The port at Providence handled 9.558 million tons of cargo in 2004. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 9.417 million tons. In 2004, Rhode Island had only 39 mi (62 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, Rhode Island had a total of 28 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 10 airports, 17 heliports and one seaplane base. Theodore Francis Green Airport is the state's major air terminal, with 2,732,524 passengers enplaned in 2004.

¹¹HISTORY

Before the arrival of the first white settlers, the Narragansett Indians inhabited the area from what is now Providence south along Narragansett Bay. Their principal rivals, the Wampanoag, dominated the eastern shore region.

In 1524, Florentine navigator Giovanni da Verrazano, sailing in the employ of France, became the first European to explore Rhode Island. The earliest permanent settlement was established at Providence in 1636 by English clergyman Roger Williams and a small band of followers who left the repressive atmosphere of the Massachusetts Bay Colony to seek freedom of worship. Other nonconformists followed, settling Portsmouth (1638), Newport (1639), and Warwick (1642). In 1644, Williams journeyed to England, where he secured a parliamentary patent uniting the four original towns into a single colony, the Providence Plantations. This legislative grant remained in effect until the Stuart Restoration made it prudent to seek a royal charter. The charter, secured for Rhode Island and the Providence Plantations from Charles II in 1663, guaranteed religious liberty, permitting significant local autonomy, and strengthened the colony's territorial claims. Encroachments by white settlers on Indian lands led to the Indian uprising known as King Philip's War (1675–76), during which the Indians were soundly defeated.

The early 18th century was marked by significant growth in agriculture and commerce, including the rise of the slave trade. Having the greatest degree of self-rule, Rhode Island had the most to

lose from British efforts after 1763 to increase the mother country's supervision and control over the colonies. On 4 May 1776, Rhode Island became the first colony formally to renounce all allegiance to King George III. Favoring the weak central government established by the Articles of Confederation, the state quickly ratified them in 1778, but subsequently resisted the centralizing tendencies of the federal constitution. Rhode Island withheld ratification until 29 May 1790, making it the last of the original 13 states to join the Union.

The principal trends in 19th-century Rhode Island were industrialization, immigration, and urbanization. The state's royal charter (then still in effect) contained no procedure for its amendment, gave disproportionate influence to the declining rural towns, and conferred almost unlimited power on the legislature. In addition, suffrage was restricted by the General Assembly to owners of real estate and their eldest sons. Because earlier, moderate efforts at change had been virtually ignored by the assembly, political reformers decided to bypass the legislature and convene a People's Convention. Thomas Wilson Dorr, who led this movement, became the principal draftsman of a progressive "People's Constitution," ratified in a popular referendum in December 1841. A coalition of Whigs and rural Democrats used force to suppress the movement now known as Dorr's Rebellion, but they bowed to popular pressure and made limited changes via a new constitution, effective May 1843.

The latter half of the 19th century was marked by continued industrialization and urbanization. Immigration increased and became more diverse. Politically the state was dominated by the Republican Party until the 1930s. The Democrats, having seized the opportunity during the New Deal, consolidated their power during the 1940s, and from that time onward have captured most state and congressional elections. Present-day Rhode Island, though predominantly Catholic and Democratic, retains an ethnic and cultural diversity surprising in view of its size but consistent with its pluralist traditions. Rhode Island's residents have been moving from the cities to the suburbs, and in 1980 the state lost its ranking as the most urban state in the country to New Jersey. In the mid-1990s Rhode Island was still the nation's second most densely populated state, with more than three-quarters of its residents living within 15 mi (25 km) of the capital city of Providence.

From the 1950s to the 1980s, 30% of the workforce was in manufacturing jobs; in the 1990s many of these were still low-paid jobs in the jewelry and textile industries. Rhode Island experienced a real estate boom in the 1980s thanks to federal savings and loan deregulation and the state's proximity to the thriving Boston metropolitan area. However, real estate values declined at the end of the decade, and Rhode Island entered the 1990s with a banking crisis that forced its government to spend taxpayer dollars proping up uninsured financial institutions. The state was also hard hit by the recession of the early 1990s. By 1994 a slow recovery was under way, with unemployment fluctuating between 6% and 8%. Though the state's economy grew less quickly than that of its New England neighbors, it experienced a full recovery by the end of the 1990s and successfully made the transition from a manufacturing-based system to one reliant on the service sector. Further, it had done so without widening the gap between rich and poor, an achievement that had eluded other states. As of 1999,

Rhode Island's unemployment rate was 4.1%, in line with the national average. Between January 1999 and January 2000 alone, the state added 10,300 jobs. By 2001, however, the nation was in the grip of recession, and Rhode Island's unemployment rate by July 2003 was 5.6%, albeit below the national average of 6.2%. The state faced a \$200 million budget deficit that year. In 2005, the state had a budget deficit of \$164 million. The unemployment rate in 2004 was 5.2%, below the national average of 5.5%.

Rhode Island was the setting for a landmark lawsuit settlement in 1999. Three years earlier, the worst oil spill in the state's history contaminated waters and destroyed lobsters in Block Island Sound. Under the federal Oil Spill Act of 1990, those responsible for the spill settled separately with local lobstermen and the state, which was to direct \$18 million in ongoing cleanup and recovery efforts. The cases were expected to set the standard for future negotiations in the wake of oil spills.

Republican Governor Donald Carcieri, elected in 2002, allowed a minimum wage increase of 60 cents to become law without his signature in 2003. Rhode Island's minimum wage law effective 1 January 2004 was \$6.75 per hour. Carcieri pledged to revamp state government, create jobs, and balance the budget without raising taxes. In 2004, he proposed new state bonds to provide the funding necessary to preserve Narragansett Bay and to safeguard drinking water resources. Those measures were approved by voters in November 2004. He also formed the Narragansett Bay and Watershed Commission, which drafted a long-term plan for saving coastal resources.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Rhode Island has had two constitutions: the first based on the colonial charter (1842) and a revision (1986). In 1986, 8 amendments and a revision of the constitution were approved; subsequently, the constitution has been known as the 1986 Constitution. From 1986 through January 2005 there have been 8 amendments; total amendments since 1842 number 60.

Legislative authority is vested in the General Assembly, a bicameral body composed of 38 senators and 75 representatives. All legislators are elected for two-year terms from districts that are apportioned equally according to population after every federal decennial census. Annual sessions begin in January and are unlimited. The legislature may call for a special session by a joint call of the presiding officers of both houses. Legislators must be US citizens, qualified voters, at least 18 years of age, and residents of both state and district for at least 30 days. Among the more important checks enjoyed by the assembly is the power to override the governor's veto by a three-fifths vote of its members present and the power to establish all courts below the supreme court. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$12,285.53.

State elected officials are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected separately), attorney general, secretary of state, and general treasurer. All are elected, in the odd-numbered year following presidential elections, for four-year terms. The governor is limited to serving two consecutive terms. The governor and lieutenant governor must be US citizens, qualified voters, at least 18 years of age, and 30 days a citizen and resident of Rhode Island. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$105,194.

A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned by the governor for six days while the legislature is in session (10 days if the legislature adjourns), or if passed over the governor's veto by three-fifths of the members present in each house. Legislation becomes effective upon enactment. Constitutional amendments are made by majority vote of the whole membership of each house of the legislature, and by a simple majority at the next general election.

Voters must be US citizens, 18 years old or over, and must have been residents of the state at least 30 days prior to an election. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

For nearly five decades, Rhode Island has been one of the nation's most solidly Democratic states. It has voted for the Republican presidential candidate only four times since 1928, elected only one Republican (former Governor John H. Chafee) to the US Senate since 1934, and sent no Republicans to the US House from 1940 until 1980, when one Republican and one Democrat were elected. (They were reelected in 1982 and 1984.) Also in 1980, Rhode Island was one of only six states to favor Jimmy Carter. However, in 1984, Republican Edward DiPrete was elected governor, and Ronald Reagan narrowly carried the state in the presidential election. In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore won 61% of the vote to Republican George W. Bush's 32%; independent candidate Ralph Nader took 6% of the popular vote. In 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 59.5% of the vote to incumbent President Bush's 38.9%.

In 1994, Republican John H. Chafee won a fourth term in the US Senate. Republican Lincoln D. Chafee was named senator in November 1999 upon the death of his father; he was elected to his first full term in 2000. In 1996, Democrat Jack Reed won the Senate seat vacated by Claiborne Pell after 36 years in office; Reed was reelected in 2002. Both US Representatives were Democrats in 2005. In mid-2005 there were 33 Democrats and 5 Republicans in the state Senate, and 59 Democrats and 16 Republicans in the

Rhode Island Presidential Vote, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	RHODE ISL. WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	*Truman (D)	188,736	135,787
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	203,293	210,935
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	161,790	225,819
1960	4	*Kennedy (D)	258,032	147,502
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	315,463	74,615
1968	4	Humphrey (D)	246,518	122,359
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	194,645	220,383
1976	4	*Carter (D)	227,636	181,249
1980	4	Carter (D)	198,342	154,793
1984	4	*Reagan (R)	197,106	212,080
1988	4	Dukakis (D)	225,123	177,761
1992**	4	*Clinton (D)	213,299	131,601
1996**	4	*Clinton (D)	233,050	104,683
2000	4	Gore (D)	249,508	130,555
2004	4	Kerry (D)	259,760	169,046

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 105,045 votes in 1992 and 43,723 votes in 1996.

state House; the governor's office was held by Republican Donald L. Carcieri, who was elected in 2002.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Rhode Island was subdivided into 5 counties, 8 municipal governments, 36 school districts, and 75 special districts. In 2002, there were 31 townships.

Many smaller communities retain the New England town meeting form of government, under which the town's eligible voters assemble to enact the local budget, set the tax levy, and approve other local measures. Larger cities and towns are governed by a mayor and/or city manager and a council.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 30,118 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Rhode Island operates under the authority of the governor; the public safety director/secretary is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and the Board of Governors for Higher Education oversee all state educational services. Railroads, motor vehicle administration, and highway and bridge management come under the jurisdiction of the Department of Transportation. Health and welfare services are provided through the Department of Corrections; Department of the Attorney General; Department of Children, Youth, and Families; Department of Elderly Affairs; Department of Health; Department of Mental Health, Retardation, and Hospitals; and the Department of Human Services.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The five-member Supreme Court is the state's highest appellate tribunal. It may also issue, upon request, advisory opinions on the constitutionality of a questioned act to the governor or either house of the legislature. Supreme court justices are chosen by the legislature and, like other state judges, hold office for life ("during good behavior"), but in actuality they can be removed by a mere resolution of the General Assembly. In 1935, all five justices were ousted in this manner when a Democratic legislature replaced a court previously appointed by Republicans. In 1994, Chief Justice Thomas Fay resigned under impeachment pressure.

The General Trial Court is the superior court, with 1,012 justices in 1999. The state's trial court hears all jury trials in criminal cases and in civil matters involving more than \$5,000, but can also hear non-jury cases. Superior and district court judges are appointed by the governor with the consent of the Senate.

District courts do not hold jury trials. Civil matters that involve \$5,000 or less, small claims procedures, and non-jury criminal cases, including felony arraignments and misdemeanors, are handled at the district level. All cities and towns appoint judges to operate probate courts for wills and estates. Providence and a few other communities each have a municipal or police court.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 3,430 prisoners were held in Rhode Island's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 3,527 of 2.8% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 208 inmates were female, down from 222 or 6.3% from the year before.

Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), New Mexico had an incarceration rate of 175 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Rhode Island in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 247.4 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 2,673 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 31,166 reported incidents or 2,884.1 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Rhode Island has no death penalty.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 2,336 active duty military personnel and 4,370 civilian personnel stationed in Rhode Island, most of whom were at the US Naval Education and Training Center and Naval War College in Newport. Rhode Island firms received more than \$417 million in defense contracts during 2004. Defense Department payroll outlays totaled \$621 million.

In 2003, there were 91,161 US veterans living in the state, of whom 16,658 saw military service during World War II; 11,442 in the Korean conflict; 26,598 during the Vietnam era; and 10,008 in the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$254 million in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Rhode Island State Police employed 190 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

During the 19th and early 20th centuries, the major immigrant groups who came to work in the state's growing industries were Irish, Italian, and French-Canadian. Significant numbers of British, Portuguese, Swedish, Polish, and German immigrants also moved to Rhode Island. Between 1940 and 1970, however, 2,000 more people left the state than moved to it, and between 1970 and 1983 there was a net loss of about 42,000. From 1985 to 1990, there was a net gain from migration of nearly 34,000. Between 1990 and 1998, Rhode Island had a net loss of 64,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 16,000 in international migration. In 1998, 1,976 foreign immigrants arrived in the state. Rhode Island's overall population decreased 1.5% between 1990 and 1998.

During the 1980s, the urban proportion of the population remained virtually unchanged, dropping from 87% to 86%. By 1996, the metropolitan population had reached 93.8%. In the period 2000-05, net international migration was 18,965 and net internal migration was -4,964, for a net gain of 14,001 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Rhode Island participates in many interstate regional bodies, including the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Interstate Compact for Juveniles, New England Interstate Water Pollution Control Commission, and Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Commission. New England regional agreements include those on tuberculosis control, radiological health protection, higher education, police, and dairy products. Federal grants to Rhode Island state and local governments totaled \$1.697 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$1.752 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.790 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Rhode Island's economy was historically based overwhelmingly on industry, with agriculture, mining, forestry, and fishing making only small contributions. The state's leading manufactured products were jewelry, silverware, machinery, primary metals, textiles, and rubber products. In the late 1990s, manufacturing declined steadily as a contributor to state economic output, falling from 14.7% in 1997 to 11.1% in 2001. The recession of 2001 only accelerated the contraction in Rhode Island's manufacturing output to 3.3% from its previous rates of about 2% a year. The strongest growth sectors in terms of output coming into the 21st century were: financial services (up 44.3%); trade (up 28.5%); general services (up 25.6%); and government (up 20.6%). Unemployment rates in Rhode Island exceeded those of the United States throughout the 1970s, and the state's economic growth lagged behind that of the nation as a whole. Unemployment fell dramatically in 1983 and 1984, rose again to 8.7% in 1992, but had fallen to around 5% by 1996. Manufacturing employment declined 23% between 1983 and 1992 while service jobs increased 36%. In all, only about 1,000 jobs were lost between 1988 and 1998, mostly in the manufacturing sector, while service-related jobs rose, accounting for about half of all personal income in 1998. The impact of the 2001 national recession and slowdown on Rhode Island's employment and income was the mildest among the New England states. By mid-2002, job growth had surpassed the peak reached in 2000.

In 2004, Rhode Island's gross state product (GSP) was \$41.679 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for \$5.421 billion or 13% of GSP, with health and social assistance at \$3.798 billion (9.1% of GSP) and construction at \$2.459 billion (5.8% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 95,390 small businesses in Rhode Island. Of the 33,253 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 32,098 or 96.5% were small companies. An estimated 3,932 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 13.5% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 4,250, up 3.6% from 2003. There were 74 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 54.2% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 422 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Rhode Island 35th in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Rhode Island had a gross state product (GSP) of \$44 billion which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 45 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Rhode Island had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$34,207. This ranked 16th in the United States and was 104% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. Rhode Island had a total personal income (TPI) of \$36,940,300,000, which ranked 43rd in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.1%. Earnings of persons employed in Rhode Island increased from \$24,586,561,000 in 2003 to \$25,887,459,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$46,199 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 11.3% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Rhode Island 578,400, with approximately 31,100 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.4%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 495,000. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Rhode Island was 9.7% in November 1982. The historical low was 2.9% in July 1988. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.6% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10.7% in manufacturing; 16.3% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 7.2% in financial activities; 11.4% in professional and business services; 19.4% in education and health services; 10.1% in leisure and hospitality services; and 13.1% in government.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 79,000 of Rhode Island's 494,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 15.9% of those so employed, down from 16.3% in 2004, but still above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 83,000 workers (16.8%) in Rhode Island were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Rhode Island is one of 28 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Rhode Island had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$7.10 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 49% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

The state's total receipts from farm marketings were \$63 million in 2005, 50th in the United States. Rhode Island had only about 850 farms in 2004 with an average size of just 71 acres (29 hectares), with the smallest area devoted to crops (21,000 acres, or 8,500 hectares) of any state. Nursery and greenhouse products were the main agricultural commodity. Total crop marketings amounted to \$53 million in 2005.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Rhode Island had around 5,500 cattle and calves, valued at \$5.5 million. During 2004, there were some 2,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$220,000. In 2003, the state produced 22 million lb (10 million kg) of milk, from 1,300 milk cows.

25 FISHING

The commercial catch in 2004 was 97.4 million lb (44.3 million kg), valued at \$71.1 million. Point Judith is the main fishing port, ranking 24th in the United States, with catch value at \$31.5 million. The state ranked second in the nation for squid catch with 38.1 million lb (17.3 million kg). Other valuable fish and shellfish include whiting, fluke and yellowtail flounders, cod, scup lobster, and clams. In 2001, the commercial fishing fleet consisted of 2,920

boats and 344 vessels. In 2003, there were 16 processing plants employing about 453 people.

In 2004, Rhode Island issued 26,629 sport-fishing licenses. Three hatcheries distribute nearly 326,000 lb (148,000 kg) of trout throughout the state each year.

2⁶ FORESTRY

In 2004, forests covered 393,000 acres (159,000 hectares), about 60% of the state's land area. Some 340,000 acres (138,000 hectares) were usable as commercial timberland.

2⁷ MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Rhode Island in 2003 was \$25.8 million, an increase from 2002 of about 1%.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, construction sand and gravel, and crushed stone were the state's top nonfuel minerals, accounting for around 52% and almost 48% of output by value, respectively. Industrial sand and gravel, and gemstones (by hobbyists) were also produced in Rhode Island, that same year.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed that a total of 1.9 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel was produced, with a value of \$13.5 million, while crushed stone output that year totaled 1.9 million metric tons, valued at \$12.3 million.

2⁸ ENERGY AND POWER

Rhode Island is part of the New England regional power grid and imports most of its electric power. As of 2003, Rhode Island had eight electrical power service providers, of which one was publicly owned, three were investor owned, three were generation-only suppliers and two were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 476,316 retail customers. Of that total, 466,805 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Publicly owned providers had 4,525 customers, while generation-only suppliers had 4,986 customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 1.733 million kW, with total production that same year at 5.621 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, only 0.2% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 99.8% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 5.454 billion kWh (97%), came from natural gas fired plants, with other renewable sources in second place at 101.768 billion kWh (1.8%) and petroleum fueled plants in third at 58.359 billion kWh (1%). Hydroelectric sources at 0.1% accounted for the remainder.

Rhode island has no refineries, nor any proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas.

2⁹ INDUSTRY

The Industrial Revolution began early in Rhode Island. The first spinning jenny in the United States was built at Providence in 1787. Three years later, in Pawtucket, Samuel Slater opened a cotton mill, one of the first modern factories in America. By the end of the 18th century, textile, jewelry, and metal products were being

manufactured in the state.

Over 1,000 manufacturers in the state produce finished jewelry and jewelry parts. Electronic and related products manufactured in the state include online lottery machines, circuit boards, and meteorological, navigational, and medical equipment. Chemicals and allied products made in the state include pigments and dyes, drugs and biomedical products, and liquid and aerosol consumer products.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Rhode Island's manufacturing sector covered some 14 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$11.173 billion. Of that total, miscellaneous manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$1.949 billion. It was followed by electrical equipment, appliance and component manufacturing at \$1.824 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.561 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$813.739 million; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$736.243 million.

In 2004, a total of 55,367 people in Rhode Island were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 35,544 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the miscellaneous manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 11,614, with 7,618 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 9,001 employees (6,706 actual production workers); computer and electronic product manufacturing at 4,825 employees (799 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 4,083 employees (3,096 actual production workers); and electrical equipment, appliance and component manufacturing at 3,469 employees (2,052 actual production employees).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Rhode Island's manufacturing sector paid \$2.235 billion in wages. Of that amount, the miscellaneous manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$384.278 million. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$356.366 million; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$282.567 million; electrical equipment, appliance and component manufacturing at \$169.127 million; and machinery manufacturing at \$154.401 million.

3⁰ COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Rhode Island's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$8.5 billion from 1,479 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 936 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 442 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 101 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$3.74 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$3.71 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$1.1 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Rhode Island was listed as having 4,134 retail establishments with sales of \$10.3 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (695); clothing and clothing accessories stores (565); miscellaneous store retailers (504); and motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (429). In terms of sales,

motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$2.6 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$1.9 billion; health and personal care stores at \$1.07 billion; general merchandise stores at \$973.3 million; and gasoline stations at \$655.7 million. A total of 50,665 people were employed by the retail sector in Rhode Island that year.

Rhode Island's foreign exports of manufactured goods totaled \$1.2 billion in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Consumer Protection Unit of the Department of the Attorney General bears the primary responsibility for investigating and mediating consumer complaints of unlawful and unfair business practices and misleading advertising that arise from violations of the state's Deceptive Trade Practices Act. The unit also enforces the state's Telephone Sales Solicitation Act, the registration of health clubs under the state's Health Club Law, and provides information and referral services to the general public. In addition to the Consumer Protection Unit, the state's Attorney General's Office has other office units dedicated to other specific consumer protection related issues such as: charitable trusts (Charitable Trust Unit); antitrust violations (Antitrust Unit); environmental issues (Environmental Unit); insurance advocacy (Insurance Advocacy Unit (covers insurance rate hearings, healthcare and insurance fraud); public utilities (Public Utilities Regulation Unit); open government (complaints over access to public records and violations of the Open Meetings Act); and healthcare advocacy (Office of Health Care Advocate; helps patients with healthcare issues and can act on behalf of those consumers who are not able to act on their own).

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise limited subpoena powers. However, the Attorney General's Office cannot represent the state before regulatory agencies. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's office cannot act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own, but can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts and initiate criminal proceedings. The Attorney General's office, cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Consumer Protection Unit and the Department of the Attorney General are located in Providence.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Rhode Island had 14 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 11 state-chartered and 19 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Providence-New Bedford-Fall River market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 40 institutions and \$29.179 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 14.6% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$3.518 billion. Banks, sav-

ings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 85.4% or \$20.500 billion in assets held.

As of 2002, about 50% of the state's banks had long-term asset concentrations of greater than 40%. Savings banks represented 50% of insured banks in Rhode Island and residential real estate loans made up 56% of the average loan portfolio in that year.

The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans in the fourth quarter of 2005 stood at 0.56%, down from 0.56% in 2004 and 0.62% in 2003. regulation of state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions in Rhode Island is the responsibility of the state's Department of Business Regulation's Division of Banking.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, 509,000 individual life insurance policies worth \$51.6.0 billion were in force in Rhode Island; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$83.9 billion. The average coverage amount is \$101,000 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$233.6 million.

As of 2003, there were 23 property and casualty and 4 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$1.9 billion. That year, there were 11,774 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$2 million. About \$802 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 56% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 28% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 22% for single coverage and 27% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 672,295 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$992.22, which ranked as the seventh-highest average in the nation.

34 SECURITIES

Rhode Island has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 500 personal financial advisers employed in the state. In 2004, there were over 21 publicly traded companies within the state, with over seven NASDAQ companies, five NYSE listings, and two AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; CVS, based in Woonsocket and listed on the NYSE, ranked 1st in the state and 53rd in the nation, with revenues of over \$37 billion, followed by Textron, based in Providence and also on the NYSE, ranked 190th in the nation with revenues of \$11.9 billion. FM

Global, Hasbro, American Power Conversion, Nortek, and Amica Mutual Insurance were listed in the Fortune 1,000.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The annual budget is prepared by the State Budget Office in conjunction with the governor, and submitted to the legislature for approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$3.13 billion for resources and \$3.14 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Rhode Island were \$2.3 billion.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$844,000 for Rhode Island.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Rhode Island collected \$2,629 million in tax revenues or \$2,443 per capita, which placed it 12th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total; sales taxes, 32.1%; selective sales taxes, 20.3%; individual income taxes, 38.0%; corporate income taxes, 4.3%; and other taxes, 5.2%.

Rhode Island, as of 1 January 2006, taxed corporations at a flat rate of 9.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$1.8 billion or \$1,629 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state fifth nationally. Local governments collected \$1,757,602,000 of the total and the state government \$1,532,000.

Rhode Island taxes retail sales at a rate of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 246 cents per pack, which ranks first among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Rhode Island taxes gasoline at 31 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Rhode Island citizens received \$1.02 in federal spending.

3⁷ ECONOMIC POLICY

The Rhode Island Economic Development Corporation (RIEDC) exists to preserve and expand Rhode Island businesses, and to attract new businesses to the state. Some of the services available to businesses through RIEDC are: job training assistance; financial assistance; government contracting assistance; site selection; and exporting assistance. The RIEDC includes a Job Creation Grant Fund, an Excellence Through Training Grant Program, an Employee Investment Grant Program, and an Export Management Training Grant Program.

The Innovation [T] Scale strategy is Rhode Island's effort to make its small size a competitive advantage. Innovators can take advantage of the state's manageable size, close knit networks, and densely concentrated resources to quickly and cost effectively test new ways of doing business.

3⁸ HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.9 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.3 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 24.1 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 90.9% of pregnant woman received prenatal care be-

Rhode Island—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	7,266,196	6,727.96
General revenue	5,619,076	5,202.85
Intergovernmental revenue	2,095,870	1,940.62
Taxes	2,408,861	2,230.43
General sales	804,647	745.04
Selective sales	500,727	463.64
License taxes	94,481	87.48
Individual income tax	899,939	833.28
Corporate income tax	69,479	64.33
Other taxes	39,588	36.66
Current charges	447,628	414.47
Miscellaneous general revenue	666,717	617.33
Utility revenue	21,952	20.33
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	1,625,168	1,504.79
Total expenditure	6,386,602	5,913.52
Intergovernmental expenditure	868,929	804.56
Direct expenditure	5,517,673	5,108.96
Current operation	3,817,330	3,534.56
Capital outlay	332,836	308.18
Insurance benefits and repayments	921,469	853.21
Assistance and subsidies	211,841	196.15
Interest on debt	234,197	216.85
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,274,120	1,179.74
Total expenditure	6,386,602	5,913.52
General expenditure	5,371,080	4,973.22
Intergovernmental expenditure	868,929	804.56
Direct expenditure	4,502,151	4,168.66
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,468,437	1,359.66
Public welfare	1,961,808	1,816.49
Hospitals	108,043	100.04
Health	205,720	190.48
Highways	256,348	237.36
Police protection	49,715	46.03
Correction	162,234	150.22
Natural resources	37,389	34.62
Parks and recreation	8,931	8.27
Government administration	297,829	275.77
Interest on general debt	234,197	216.85
Other and unallocable	580,429	537.43
Utility expenditure	94,053	87.09
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	921,469	853.21
Debt at end of fiscal year	6,490,701	6,009.91
Cash and security holdings	12,755,483	11,810.63

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

ginning in the first trimester, this was the second-highest rate in the nation for prenatal care (after New Hampshire). In 2004, approximately 87% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.3 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 290.6; cancer, 224.7; cerebrovascular diseases, 56.6; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 48.7; and diabetes, 24.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2.2 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 12.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about

52.9% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 21.3% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Rhode Island had 11 community hospitals with about 2,400 beds. There were about 122,000 patient admissions that year and 2 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 1.8 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,591. Also in 2003, there were about 94 certified nursing facilities in the state with 9,376 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 91%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 78.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Rhode Island had 361 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 987 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 557 dentists in the state.

About 20% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 16% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.8 billion.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 41,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$324. For 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 76,085 persons (34,751 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$86 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$78.5 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Rhode Island's TANF program is called the Family Independence Program (FIP). In 2004, the state program had 32,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$91 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 191,710 Rhode Island residents. This number included 127,350 retired workers, 15,260 widows and widowers, 27,730 disabled workers, 6,480 spouses, and 14,890 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.8% of the total state population and 92.7% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$955; widows and widowers, \$931; disabled workers, \$877; and spouses, \$471. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$461 per month; children of deceased workers, \$664; and children of disabled workers, \$256. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 29,703 Rhode Island residents, averaging \$430 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 446,305 housing units, 409,767 of which were occupied; 61.8% were owner-occupied. About 55.8% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 33.3% of all units were built in 1939 or earlier. Utility gas and fuel oil were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 13,132 units lacked telephone service, 1,435 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 2,161 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.53 members.

In 2004, 2,500 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. Much of the new residential construction has taken place in the suburbs south and west of Providence. The median home value was \$240,150. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,469. Renters paid a median of \$740. In 2006, the state received over \$5.2 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). The city of Providence received \$5.7 million in similar grant awards.

4¹ EDUCATION

In 2004, 81.1% of Rhode Islanders age 25 and older were high school graduates. Approximately 27.2% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Rhode Island's public schools stood at 159,000. Of these, 113,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 47,000 attended high school. Approximately 71.2% of the students were white, 8.5% were black, 16.4% were Hispanic, 3.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.6% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 160,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 154,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 3.6% during the period 2002 to 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1.7 billion, or \$9,903 per student, the 10th-highest among the 50 states. In fall 2003 there were 28,119 students enrolled in 139 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Rhode Island scored 272 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 77,417 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 16.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Rhode Island had 13 degree-granting institutions. Leading institutions include Brown University (1764) in Providence; the University of Rhode Island (1892) in Kingston; and Providence College (1917). The Rhode Island School of Design (1877) is located in Providence.

4² ARTS

The Rhode Island State Council on the Arts (RISCA) was established in 1967. In 2005, RISCA and other Rhode Island arts organizations received 13 grants totaling \$806,300 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). The Rhode Island Council for the Humanities, founded in 1973, had awarded over \$2.5 million to community and academic organizations as of 2005. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,235,058 for eight state programs. The state, the New England Foundation for the Arts, and various private sources also provide funding for arts activities.

Newport and Providence have notable art galleries and museums, including the museum at the Rhode Island School of Design (RISD) in Providence. As of 2005, the RISD Museum housed over 80,000 pieces of art. Theatrical groups include the Trinity Repertory Company in Providence founded in 1964. As of 2005, hosting both an annual production of *A Christmas Carol* and Trinity Summer Shakespeare, the theater drew an annual audience of more than 185,000. The Rhode Island Philharmonic, with approximately 72 professional musicians, performs throughout the state. New-

port is the site of the internationally famous Newport Jazz Festival, founded in 1954, and the Newport Music Festival. In 2006, the Newport Music Festival's 38th season hosted 67 concerts with 46 artists representing 17 countries. The Festival Ballet Providence and the State Ballet of Rhode Island are prominent dance groups. The Providence Performing Arts Center, restored to its original 1920s splendor in the late 1990s (and now listed on the National Register of Historic Places), hosts touring Broadway shows as well as concerts by a variety of performers.

The WaterFire public art installation on the riverfront in downtown Providence has played a key role in the revitalization of the city. The lighting of bonfires in 97 braziers placed in three rivers that flow through Providence has drawn thousands to the downtown area to enjoy music and other entertainment. As of 2006 there were 17 lightings scheduled from May until October.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Rhode Island had 48 public library systems, with a total of 72 libraries, of which 24 were branches. In that same year, the state's public libraries had a book and serial publication stock of 3,997,000 volumes, and a total combined circulation of 6,627,000. The system also had 109,000 audio and 117,000 video items, 6,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and two bookmobiles. The Providence Public Library maintains several special historical collections. The Brown University Libraries, containing more than 2.6 million books and periodicals, include the Annmary Brown Memorial Library, with its collection of rare manuscripts, and the John Carter Brown Library, with an excellent collection of early Americana. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$36,378,000 and included \$172,000 from federal sources and \$6,031,000 in state funding.

Among the state's more than 53 museums and historic sites are the Haffenreffer Museum of Anthropology in Bristol, the Museum of Art of the Rhode Island School of Design in Providence, the Roger Williams Park Museum, also in Providence, the Nathanael Greene Homestead in Coventry, and the Slater Mill Historic Site in Pawtucket. Providence has the Roger Williams Park Zoo.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

The first automated post office in the US postal system was opened in Providence in 1960. As of 2004, 95.3% of the state's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 615,398 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 62.3% of Rhode Island households had a computer and 55.7% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 186,743 high-speed lines in Rhode Island, 177,393 residential and 9,350 for business. In 2005, the state had 7 major AM and 9 major FM radio stations. Rhode Island had five television stations, including one public broadcasting affiliate operated by the state's Public Telecommunications Authority. The Providence-New Bedford area had 565,230 television-viewing homes, 79% with cable in 1999. A total of 23,508 Internet domain names were registered in Rhode Island as of 2000.

45 PRESS

The *Rhode Island Gazette*, the state's first newspaper, appeared in 1732. In 1850, Paulina Wright Davis established *Una*, one of the first women's rights newspapers in the country.

In 2005, Rhode Island had six daily newspapers with three Sunday editions.

The following table shows the approximate circulation for the state's leading dailies in 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Newport	<i>Daily News</i> (e)	12,352	12,352 (Sat.)
Pawtucket	<i>Times</i> (m)	11,407	11,407 (Sat.)
Providence	<i>Journal</i> (m,S)	168,021	236,476
Woonsocket	<i>The Call</i> (m,S)	11,984	17,638

Regional interest periodicals include *Providence Monthly* and *Rhode Island Monthly*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,095 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,578 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Among the professional and educational organizations with headquarters in Rhode Island are the Foundation for Gifted and Creative Children, Foster Parents Plan USA, The American Boat Builders and Repairers Association, the American Mathematical Society, the Manufacturing Jewelers and Silversmiths of America.

The US Sailing Association is based in Portsmouth and the International Tennis Hall of Fame is in Newport.

State art organizations include the Alliance of Artists' Communities, the Art League of Rhode Island, and the Summer Arts and Festival Organization.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is the second-largest and fastest-growing industry in Rhode Island. In 2005, the state hosted over 15 million visitors, generating total revenues of \$4.69 billion (a figure that represents an increase of 16.4% from 1999). The industry supports over 57,837 jobs.

Historic sites—especially the mansions of Newport and Providence—and water sports (particularly the America's Cup yacht races) are the main tourist attractions of Narragansett Bay. Rhode Island has over 400 miles of coastline. Block Island is a popular resort reachable by a ferry from Point Judith. Visitors can relax or participate in kayaking, sailing, sport fishing, or horseback riding. The Providence Place Mall, a 13-acre mega shopping complex with 150 specialty shops, restaurants, and cinemas opened in 1999. An architectural marvel, the shopping complex spans a highway, a river, and a train track bed. Rhode Island's state parks and recreational areas total 8,063 acres (3,263 hectares).

48 SPORTS

Rhode Island has no major league professional sports teams. Pawtucket has a Triple-A minor league baseball team and Providence has a minor league team in the American Hockey League. Providence College has competed successfully in collegiate basketball, winning National Invitational Tournament titles in 1961 and 1963, and advancing to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Final Four in 1973 and 1987.

Historically, Rhode Island has played an important part in the development of both yachting and tennis. The Newport Yacht Club hosted the America's Cup, international sailing's most prestigious event, from 1930 until 1983, when an Australian yacht won the race. It was the first time since 1851 that the cup had been won by a non-American. The cup was returned to America in 1987, but by a yacht from San Diego. Lawn tennis was first played in America at the Newport Casino, which was also the site of the United States Tennis championship from 1881 until 1915. Today it is home to the International Tennis Hall of Fame. The Museum of Yachting is located in Newport as well. Dog racing at Lincoln and jai alai at Newport are popular spectator sports with pari-mutuel betting.

Other annual sporting events include the Tennis Hall of Fame Championships in Newport in July, the Annual Tuna Tournament near Galilee and Narragansett in September, the Rhode Island Marathon in Newport in November, and summer college baseball league on Martha's Vineyard.

49 FAMOUS RHODE ISLANDERS

Important federal officeholders from Rhode Island have included US Senators Nelson W. Aldrich (1841–1915), Henry Bowen Anthony (1815–84), Theodore Francis Green (1867–1966), and John O. Pastore (1907–2000), and US Representative John E. Fogarty (1913–67). J. Howard McGrath (1903–66) held the posts of US senator, solicitor general, and attorney general.

Foremost among Rhode Island's historical figures is Roger Williams (b.England, 1603?–83), apostle of religious liberty and founder of Providence. Other significant pioneers, also born in England, include Anne Hutchinson (1591–1643), religious leader and cofounder of Portsmouth, and William Coddington (1601–78), founder of Newport. Other 17th-century Rhode Islanders of note were Dr. John Clarke (b.England, 1609–76), who secured the colony's royal charter, and Indian leader King Philip, known also as Metacomet (1639?–76). Important participants in the War for Independence were Commodore Esek Hopkins (1718–1802) and General Nathanael Greene (1742–86). The 19th century brought to prominence Thomas Wilson Dorr (1805–54), courageous leader of Dorr's Rebellion; social reformer Elizabeth Buffum Chace (1806–99); and naval officers Oliver Hazard Perry (1785–1819), who secured important US victories in the War of 1812, and his brother, Matthew C. Perry (1794–1858), who led the expedition that opened Japan to foreign trade in 1854. Among the state's many prominent industrialists and inventors are Samuel Slater (b.England, 1768–1835), pioneer in textile manufacturing, and

silversmith Jabez Gorham (1792–1869). Other significant public figures include Unitarian theologian William Ellery Channing (1780–1842); political boss Charles R. Brayton (1840–1910); Roman Catholic bishop and social reformer Matthew Harkins (b.Massachusetts, 1845–1921); and Dr. Charles V. Chapin (1856–1941), pioneer in public health.

Rhode Island's best-known creative writers are Gothic novelists H. P. Lovecraft (1890–1937) and Oliver La Farge (1901–63), and its most famous artist is portrait painter Gilbert Stuart (1755–1828). Popular performing artists include George M. Cohan (1878–1942), Nelson Eddy (1901–67), Bobby Hackett (1915–76), Van Johnson (b.1916), and Spalding Gray (1941–2004).

Important sports personalities include Baseball Hall of Famers Hugh Duffy (1866–1954), Napoleon Lajoie (1875–1959), and Charles "Gabby" Hartnett (1900–1972).

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SOUTH CAROLINA

State of South Carolina



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named in honor of King Charles I of England. **NICKNAME:** The Palmetto State. **CAPITAL:** Columbia. **ENTERED UNION:** 23 May 1788 (8th). **SONG:** “Carolina;” “South Carolina on My Mind.” **MOTTO:** *Animis opibusque parati* (Prepared in mind and resources); *Dum spiro spero* (While I breathe, I hope). **COAT OF ARMS:** A palmetto stands erect, with a ravaged oak (representing the British fleet) at its base; 12 spears, symbolizing the first 12 states, are bound crosswise to the palmetto’s trunk by a band bearing the inscription “Quis separabit” (Who shall separate?). Two shields bearing the inscriptions “March 26” (the date in 1776 when South Carolina established its first independent government) and “July 4,” respectively, hang from the tree. Under the oak are the words “Meliozem lapsa locavit” (Having fallen, it has set up a better one) and the year “1776.” The words “South Carolina” and the motto *Animis opibusque parati* surround the whole. **FLAG:** Blue field with a white palmetto in the center and a white crescent at the union. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The official seal consists of two ovals showing the original designs for the obverse and the reverse of South Carolina’s great seal of 1777. **LEFT (OBVERSE):** same as the coat of arms. **RIGHT (REVERSE):** as the sun rises over the seashore, Hope, holding a laurel branch, walks over swords and daggers. The motto *Dum spiro spero* is above her, the word “Spes” (Hope) below. **BIRD:** Carolina wren; wild turkey (wild game bird). **FISH:** Striped bass. **FLOWER:** Yellow jessamine. **TREE:** Palmetto. **GEM:** Amethyst. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday/Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Confederate Memorial Day, 10 May; National Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Eve, 24 December, when declared by the governor; Christmas Day, 25 December and the day following. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the southeastern United States, South Carolina ranks 40th in size among the 50 states.

The state’s total area is 31,113 sq mi (80,583 sq km), of which land takes up 30,203 sq mi (78,226 sq km) and inland water 910 sq mi (2,357 sq km). South Carolina extends 273 mi (439 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 210 mi (338 km).

South Carolina is bounded on the N and NE by North Carolina; on the SE by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the SW and W by Georgia (with the line passing through the Savannah and Chattooga rivers).

Among the 13 major Sea Islands in the Atlantic off South Carolina are Bull, Sullivans, Kiawah, Edisto, Hunting, and Hilton Head, the largest island (42 sq mi—109 sq km) on the Atlantic seaboard between New Jersey and Florida. The total boundary length of South Carolina is 824 mi (1,326 km), including a general coastline of 187 mi (301 km); the tidal shoreline extends 2,876 mi (4,628 km). The state’s geographic center is located in Richland County, 13 mi (21 km) SE of Columbia.

² TOPOGRAPHY

South Carolina is divided into two major regions by the fall line that runs through the center of the state from Augusta, Georgia, to Columbia and thence to Cheraw, near the North Carolina border. The area northwest of the line, known as the upcountry, lies within the Piedmont Plateau; the region to the southeast, called the low country, forms part of the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The rise

of the land from ocean to the fall line is very gradual: Columbia, 120 mi (193 km) inland, is only 135 ft (41 m) above sea level. In the extreme northwest, the Blue Ridge Mountains cover about 500 sq mi (1,300 sq km); the highest elevation, at 3,560 ft (1,086 m), is Sassafras Mountain. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 350 ft (107 m).

Among the many artificial lakes, mostly associated with electric power plants, is Lake Marion, the state’s largest, covering 173 sq mi (48 sq km). Three river systems—the Pee Dee, Santee, and Savannah—drain most of the state. No rivers are navigable above the fall line.

³ CLIMATE

South Carolina has a humid, subtropical climate. Average temperatures range from 68°F (20°C) on the coast to 58°F (14°C) in the northwest, with colder temperatures in the mountains. Summers are hot: in the central part of the state, temperatures often exceed 90°F (32°C), with a record of 111°F (44°C) set at Camden on 28 June 1954. In the northwest, temperatures of 32°F (0°C) or less occur from 50 to 70 days a year; the record low for the state is -20°F (-29°C), set at Caesars Head Mountain on 18 January 1977. The daily average temperature at Columbia is 45°F (7°C) in January and 82°F (27°C) in July.

Rainfall is ample throughout the state, averaging 48.7 in (123 cm) annually at Columbia and ranging from 38 in (97 cm) in the central region to 52 in (132 cm) in the upper piedmont. Snow and sleet (averaging 2 in/5 cm a year at Columbia) occur about

three times annually, but more frequently and heavily in the mountains.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Principal trees of South Carolina include palmetto (the state tree), balsam fir, beech, yellow birch, pitch pine, cypress, and several types of maple, ash, hickory, and oak; longleaf pine grows mainly south of the fall line. Rocky areas of the piedmont contain a wide mixture of moss and lichens. The coastal plain has a diversity of land formations—swamp, prairie, savannah, marsh, dunes—and, accordingly, a great number of different grasses, shrubs, and vines. Azaleas and camellias, not native to the state, have been planted profusely in private and public gardens. Nineteen plant species were listed as threatened or endangered in April 2006, including smooth coneflower, Schweinitz's sunflower, black spored quillwort, pondberry, and persistent trillium.

South Carolina mammals include white-tailed deer (the state animal), black bear, opossum, gray and red foxes, cottontail and marsh rabbits, mink, and woodchuck. Three varieties of raccoon are indigenous, one of them unique to Hilton Head Island. The state is also home to Bachman's shrew, originally identified in South Carolina by John Bachman, one of John J. Audubon's collaborators. Common birds include the mockingbird and Carolina wren (the state bird). Nineteen animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in South Carolina in April 2006, including the Indiana bat, Carolina heelsplitter, bald eagle, five species of sea turtle, wood stork, and short-nose sturgeon.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Department of Health and Environmental Control (DHEC), established in 1973, is South Carolina's primary environmental protection agency. The agency's responsibilities were broadened in 1993 by government restructuring, which brought all natural resources permitting under the DHEC umbrella. The former Land Resources Commission and Water Resources Commission were dissolved by restructuring. The DHEC's areas of responsibility include all programs dealing with surface and groundwater protection; air quality; solid, hazardous, infectious and nuclear waste; mining; dam safety; public drinking water protection; shellfish; public swimming pool inspection; and environmental laboratory certification, among other things. In 2002, more than 99% of the state's 1,520 federally defined public water systems had complied with drinking water regulatory requirements.

The state has implemented an innovative river basin planning program for the modeling, permitting and protection of its surface water resources. South Carolina's five major river basins are to be studied, modeled, and subsequent permits renewed on a five-year rotating basis. The state's goal is to use the environmental permitting process to assess and control the overall health of the basin systems. About 25% of the state is covered with wetlands, most of which are forested and of freshwater.

In 2002 DHEC implemented programs to help citizens minimize risk of contracting West Nile virus, transmitted by mosquitoes.

South Carolina, as the rest of the nation, is preparing to implement an aggressive air quality permitting program. The state has in place an industrial fee system to support the air program which will include both stationary and mobile source activities.

In 1992, South Carolina passed the Solid Waste Management and Policy Act requiring county and regional solid waste planning to be in conformance with the State Solid Waste Management Plan. The state has in place innovative programs for source reduction, waste minimization, and recycling. Regulations have been approved for municipal and industrial waste land disposal systems, incineration, construction, and land clearing debris and other solid waste activities.

South Carolina has implemented aggressive regulatory reform. Coupled with "streamlined permitting," customer-friendly programs promote economic development without sacrificing environmental protection.

In 2003, 83.7 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, South Carolina had 194 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 26 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Parris Island Marine Corps Recruit Depot. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$4.8 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$11 million for the clean water state revolving fund and \$8 million for the drinking water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

South Carolina ranked 25th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 4,255,083 in 2005, an increase of 6.1% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, South Carolina's population grew from 3,486,703 to 4,012,012, an increase of 15.1%. The population is projected to reach 4.6 million by 2015 and 4.98 million by 2025. In 2004, the median age for South Carolinians was 36.9. In the same year, 24.4% of the populace was under age 18 while 12.4% was age 65 or older. The population density in 2004 was 139.4 persons per sq mi.

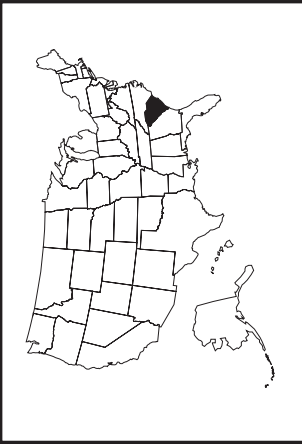
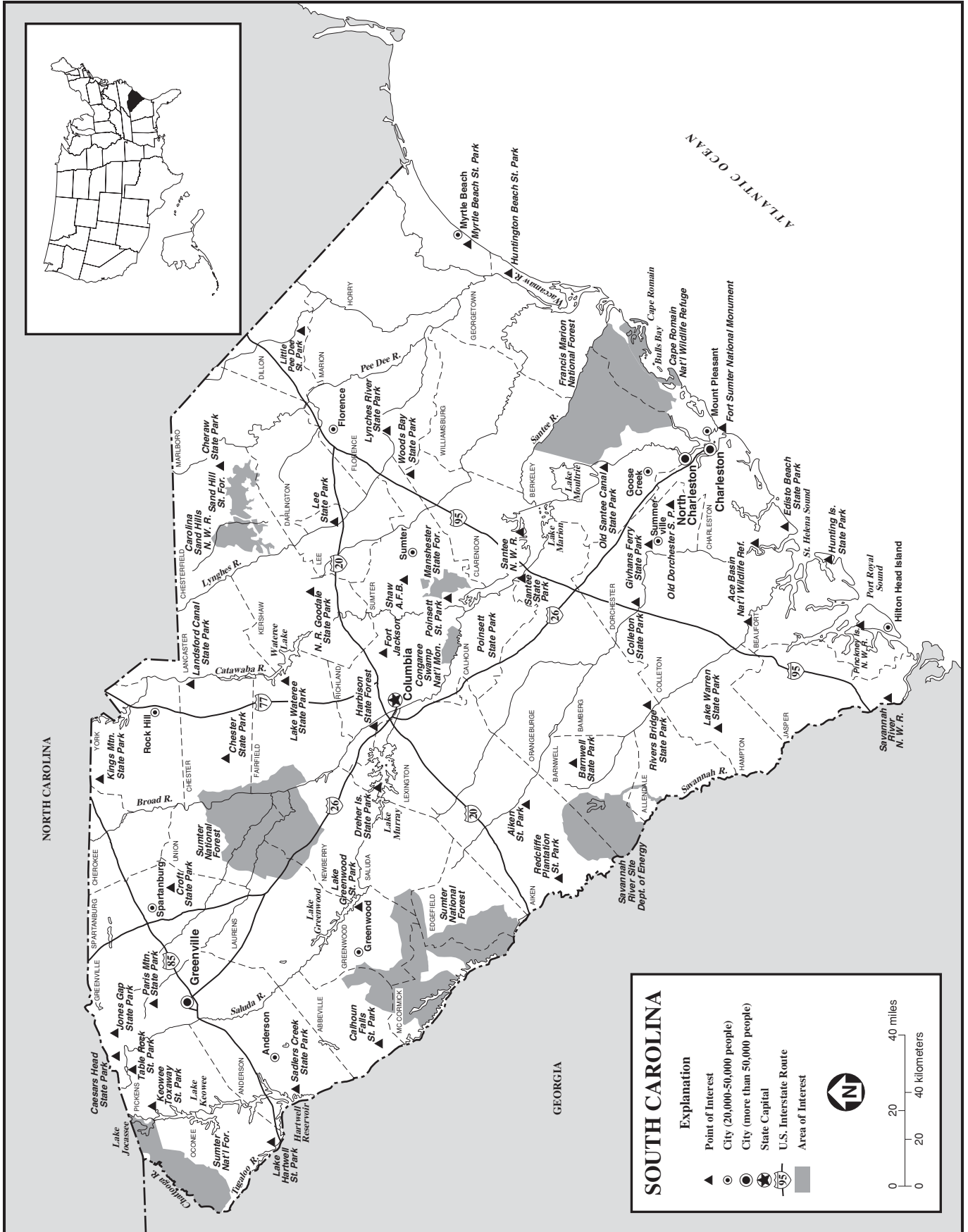
In 2004, Columbia was the largest city proper, with 116,331 residents. Other cities with large population concentrations include Charleston (104,883), Greenville, and Spartanburg. In 2004, the Columbia metropolitan area had an estimated 679,456 residents and the Charleston metropolitan area had 583,434.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

The white population of South Carolina is mainly of Northern European stock; the great migratory wave from Southern and Eastern Europe during the late 19th century left South Carolina virtually untouched. As of 2000, 115,978, or 2.9%, of South Carolinians were foreign born (up from 1.4% in 1990).

In 2000, the black population was 1,185,216, or 29.5% of the state's population (the third-highest percentage in the nation). In 2004, that percentage had dropped only slightly, to 29.4%. In the coastal regions and offshore islands there still can be found some vestiges of African heritage, notably the Gullah dialect. South Carolina has always had an urban black elite, much of it of mixed racial heritage. After 1954, racial integration proceeded relatively peacefully, with careful planning by both black and white leaders.

The 2000 census counted 13,718 American Indians, up from 8,000 in 1990. In 2004, 0.4% of the population was American Indian. In 1983, a federal appeals court upheld the Indians' claim that 144,000 acres (58,275 hectares) of disputed land still belonged to the Catawba tribe, who numbered an estimated 1,597 in 1995.



SOUTH CAROLINA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (20,000-50,000 people)
- City (more than 50,000 people)
- State Capital
- U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 20 40 miles
0 20 40 kilometers

In 2000, there were 95,076 Hispanics and Latinos (2.4% of the total population), nearly double the 1990 figure of 50,000 (1.3%). In 2004, 3.1% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2000, the census reported 52,871 Mexicans and 12,211 Puerto Ricans (up from 4,282 in 1990) in South Carolina. In the same year, South Carolina had 36,014 Asians, including 6,423 Filipinos, 2,448 Japanese, and 3,665 Koreans. Pacific Islanders numbered 1,628. In 2004, 1.1% of the population was Asian and 0.1% Pacific Islander. That year, 0.8% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

⁸LANGUAGES

English settlers in the 17th century encountered first the Yamasee Indians and then the Catawba, both having languages of the Hoka-Siouan family. Few Indians remain today, and a bare handful of their place-names persist: Cherokee Falls, Santee, Saluda.

South Carolina English is marked by a division between the South Midland of the upcountry and the plantation Southern of the coastal plain, where dominant Charleston speech has extensive cultural influence even in rural areas. Many upcountry speakers of Scotch-Irish background retain /r/ after a vowel, as in *hard*, a feature now gaining acceptance among younger speakers in Charleston. At the same time, a longtime distinctive Charleston feature, a centering glide after a long vowel, so that *date* and *eight* sound like /day-uh/ and /ay-uh/, is losing ground among younger speakers. Along the coast and on the Sea Islands, some blacks still use the Gullah dialect, based on a Creole mixture of pre-Revolutionary English and African speech. The dialect is rapidly dying in South Carolina, though its influence on local pronunciations persists.

In 2000, 94.8% of all state residents five years of age and older reported speaking English at home, up from 96.5% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	3,748,669	100.0
Speak only English	3,552,240	94.8
Speak a language other than English	196,429	5.2
Speak a language other than English	196,429	5.2
Spanish or Spanish Creole	110,030	2.9
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	19,110	0.5
German	15,195	0.4
Chinese	5,648	0.2
Tagalog	4,496	0.1
Vietnamese	3,772	0.1
Korean	3,294	0.1
Italian	3,091	0.1
Japanese	2,807	0.1
Greek	2,566	0.1
Arabic	2,440	0.1
Gujarathi	2,101	0.1
Russian	1,618	0.0

⁹RELIGIONS

Evangelical Protestants account for a majority of the religiously active residents in the state. The largest single Christian denomination in 2000 was the Southern Baptist Convention with 928,341 adherents; there were 16,802 newly baptized members in 2002. The next largest of the Evangelical denominations were the Church of God (Cleveland, Tennessee) with 56,612 adherents and the Pentecostal Holiness Church with 33,820 adherents. The

largest Mainline Protestant denomination is the United Methodist Church, which had 241,680 members in 2004. Other denominations (with 2000 figures) include the Presbyterian Church USA, 103,883; and the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 61,380. The Episcopal Church had great influence during colonial times, but in 2000 it had only 52,486 members. In 2004, there were 152,413 Roman Catholics in the state. In 2000, there were an estimated 11,000 Jews, 17,586 adherents to the Baha'i faith, and 5,761 Muslims. About 2.1 million people (52.4% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Since the Revolutionary War, South Carolina has been concerned with expanding the transport of goods between the upcountry and the port of Charleston and the Midwestern United States. Several canals were constructed north of the fall line, and the 136-mi (219-km) railroad completed from Charleston to Hamburg (across the Savannah River from Augusta, Georgia) in 1833 was the longest in the world at that time. Three years earlier, the *Best Friend of Charleston* had become the first American steam locomotive built for public railway passenger service; by the time the Charleston-Hamburg railway was completed, however, the *Best Friend* had blown up, and a new engine, the *Phoenix*, had replaced it. Many other efforts were made to connect Charleston to the interior by railway, but tunnels through the mountains were never completed. As of 2003, there were 2,423 rail mi (3,901 km) of track, utilized by two Class I, seven local, and four switching and terminal railroads. Lumber and wood products were the top commodities originating within the state that were carried by the railroads. Coal was the top commodity terminating in the state that was carried by the railroads. As of 2006, Amtrak provided north-south passenger train service to 11 cities in the state via its Crescent, Silver Services and Palmetto trains.

The public road network in 2004 was made up of 66,250 mi (106,662 km) of roads. Highway I-26, running northwest-southeast from the upcountry to the Atlantic, intersects I-85 at Spartanburg, I-20 at Columbia, and I-95 on its way toward Charleston. In 2004, there were some 1.912 million automobiles, approximately 1.290 million trucks of all types, and around 5,000 buses registered in the state, while the number of licensed drivers totaled 2,972,369 for that same year. City bus service is most heavily used in the Charleston and Columbia systems.

The state has three deepwater seaports. Charleston is one of the major ports on the Atlantic, handling 24.739 million tons of cargo in 2004, and the harbors of Georgetown and Port Royal also handle significant waterborne trade. The Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway, crossing the state slightly inward from the Atlantic Ocean, is a major thoroughfare. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 27.811 million tons. In 2004, South Carolina had 482 mi (776 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, South Carolina had a total of 193 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 162 airports, 29 heliports, and two seaplane bases. Charleston International is the state's main airport. In 2004, Charleston had 909,084 passenger enplanements. Other major state airports were Greenville-Spartanburg International, Myrtle Beach International, and Columbia Metropolitan.

11 HISTORY

Prior to European settlement, the region now called South Carolina was populated by several Indian groups. Indians of Iroquoian stock, including the Cherokee, inhabited the northwestern section, while those of the Siouan stock—of whom the Catawba were the most numerous—occupied the northern and eastern regions. Indians of Muskogean stock lived in the south.

In the early 1500s, long before the English claimed the Carolinas, Spanish sea captains explored the coast. The Spaniards made an unsuccessful attempt to establish a settlement in 1526 at Winyah Bay, near the present city of Georgetown. Thirty-six years later, a group of French Huguenots under Jean Ribault landed at a site near Parris Island, but the colony failed after Ribault returned to France. The English established the first permanent settlement in 1670 under the supervision of the eight lords proprietors who had been granted “Carolina” by King Charles II. At first the colonists settled at Albemarle Point on the Ashley River; 10 years later, they moved across the river to the present site of Charleston.

Rice cultivation began in the coastal swamps, and black slaves were imported as field hands. The colony flourished, and by the mid-1700s, new areas were developing inland. Germans, Scots-Irish, and Welsh, who differed markedly from the original aristocratic settlers of the Charleston area, migrated to the southern part of the new province. Although the upcountry was developing and was taxed, it was not until 1770 that the settlers there were represented in the government. For the most part, the colonists had friendly relations with the Indians. In 1715, however, the Yamasee were incited by Spanish colonists at St. Augustine, Fla., to attack the South Carolina settlements. The settlers successfully resisted, with no help from the proprietors.

The original royal grant had made South Carolina a very large colony, but eventually the separate provinces of North Carolina and Georgia were established, two moves that destined South Carolina to be a small state. The colonists were successful in having the proprietors overthrown in 1719 and the government transferred to royal rule by 1721.

Skirmishes with the French, Spanish, Indians, and pirates, as well as a slave uprising in 1739, marked the pre-Revolutionary period. South Carolina opposed the Stamp Act of 1765 and took an active part in the American Revolution. The first British property seized by American Revolutionary forces was Ft. Charlotte in McCormick County in 1775. Among the many battles fought in South Carolina were major Patriot victories at Ft. Moultrie in Charleston (1776), Kings Mountain (1780), and Cowpens (1781), the last two among the war’s most important engagements. Delegates from South Carolina, notably Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, were leaders at the federal constitutional convention of 1787. On 23 May 1788, South Carolina became the eighth state to ratify the Constitution.

Between the Revolutionary War and the Civil War, two issues dominated South Carolinians’ political thinking: tariffs and slavery. Senator John C. Calhoun took an active part in developing the nullification theory by which a state claimed the right to abrogate unpopular federal laws. Open conflict over tariffs during the early 1830s was narrowly averted by a compromise on the rates, but in 1860, on the issue of slavery, no compromise was possible. At the time of secession, on 20 December 1860, more than half the state’s population consisted of black slaves. The first battle of the Civil

War took place at Ft. Sumter in Charleston Harbor on 12 April 1861. Federal forces soon captured the Sea Islands, but Charleston withstood a long siege until February 1865. In the closing months of the war, Union troops under General William Tecumseh Sherman burned Columbia and caused widespread destruction elsewhere. South Carolina contributed about 63,000 soldiers to the Confederacy out of a white population of some 291,000. Casualties were high: nearly 14,000 men were killed in battle or died after capture.

Federal troops occupied South Carolina after the war. During Reconstruction, as white South Carolinians saw it, illiterates, carpetbaggers, and scalawags raided the treasury, plunging the state into debt. The constitution was revised in 1868 by a convention in which blacks outnumbered whites by 76 to 48; given the franchise, blacks attained the offices of lieutenant governor and US representative. In 1876, bands of white militants called Red Shirts, supporting the gubernatorial candidacy of former Confederate General Wade Hampton, rode through the countryside urging whites to vote and intimidating potential black voters. Hampton, a Democrat, won the election, but was not permitted by the Republican incumbent to take office until President Rutherford B. Hayes declared an end to Reconstruction and withdrew federal troops from the state in April 1877.

For the next 100 years, South Carolina suffered through political turmoil, crop failures, and recessions. A major political change came in the 1880s with a large population increase upcountry and the migration of poor whites to cities. These trends gave farmers and industrial workers a majority of votes, and they found their leader in Benjamin Ryan “Pitchfork Ben” Tillman, a populist who stirred up class and racial hatreds by attacking the “Charleston ring.” Tillman was influential in wresting control of the state Democratic Party from the coastal aristocrats; he served as governor from 1890 to 1894 and then as US senator until his death in 1918. However, his success inaugurated a period of political and racial demagoguery that saw the gradual (though not total) disfranchisement of black voters.

The main economic transformation after 1890 was the replacement of rice and cotton growing by tobacco and soybean cultivation and truck farming, along with the movement of tenant farmers, or sharecroppers, from the land to the cities. There they found jobs in textile mills, and textiles became the state’s leading industry after 1900. With the devastation of the cotton crop by the boll weevil in the 1920s, farmers were compelled to diversify their crops, and some turned to raising cattle. Labor shortages in the North during and after World War II drew many thousands of African Americans from South Carolina to Philadelphia, Washington, DC, New York, and other cities.

In the postwar period, industry took over the dominant role formerly held by agriculture in South Carolina’s economy, and the focus of textile production shifted from cotton to synthetic fabrics. In the 1990s the major industries were textiles and chemicals, and foreign investment played a major role in the state’s economy. BMW, the German automobile company, established their North American plant in Greenville. Tourism also played a role, with the coastal areas drawing visitors from around the nation. In the early 2000s, South Carolina, along with other tobacco-producing states, was in the midst of a transition away from tobacco production.

Public school desegregation after the *Brown vs. Board of Education* ruling of 1954 proceeded peaceably, but very slowly, and blacks were gradually accepted alongside whites in the textile mills and other industries. In 1983, for the first time in 95 years, a black state senator was elected; the following year, four blacks were elected to the reapportioned Senate. Despite these changes, most white South Carolinians remained staunchly conservative in political and social matters, as witnessed by the 1999–2000 firestorm over the display of the Confederate flag on the dome of the State House. The controversy prompted the NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People) to call for a tourism boycott of the state. A January 2000 protest drew nearly 50,000 demonstrators, black and white, against the flag. Legislators brokered a compromise that moved the flag, viewed as a symbol of oppression by African Americans, to a spot in front of the capitol, where it flies from a 30-ft pole. The “solution,” though favored by most South Carolinians who were polled, did not satisfy most of the black community. Tourism officials called for the NAACP to lift its boycott, but the organization refused to do so, maintaining the flag’s only place is in a museum of history. The issue was raised by presidential candidate Al Sharpton in the 2004 presidential campaign.

In the postwar period, the Democrats’ traditional control of the state weakened, and, beginning with Barry Goldwater, Republican presidential candidates have carried the state in every election except that of 1976, in which Southerner Jimmy Carter prevailed. Well-known conservative Republican J. Strom Thurmond represented South Carolina in the US Senate from 1954 to 2003, when he died at age 100. But his Democratic counterpart, Ernest Hollings (also a former governor) served in the Senate from 1966 to 2005.

In 1989, Hurricane Hugo struck South Carolina, packing 135-mph (217-kph) winds. Ripping roofs off buildings and sweeping boats onto city streets, the storm killed 37 people and produced over \$700 million worth of property damage. Seven South Carolina counties were declared disaster areas. In 1993, flooding, followed by a record-breaking drought, caused an estimated \$226 million in crop damage.

In response to a Supreme Court ruling, The Citadel (in Charleston), one of only two state-supported military schools in the country, admitted its first female cadet, Shannon Faulkner, in 1995. Faulkner left the institution after only six days. In 1997 two of four women attending the institution quit, alleging hazing and sexual harassment by their male peers. In May 1999 the institution graduated its first female cadet. By the following August, there were 75 female cadets enrolled at the Citadel, as the school fought a sexual harassment lawsuit of a former cadet.

In 1999 a settlement was reached in the worst oil spill in the state’s history. A record \$7-million fine was to be paid by a national pipeline company that admitted its negligence caused nearly one million gallons of diesel fuel to pollute the Upstate River.

South Carolina finished fiscal year 2003 with a \$68.8 million budget deficit, down from the \$248.8 million deficit at the end of fiscal year 2002. In 2003, Republican Governor Mark Sanford, elected in 2002, urged state legislators to reform the way the government conducts its business, from allowing state officials to hire and fire employees more easily, to funding schools with block grants rather than line items. The 2005–06 budget was \$5.3 billion,

and the state was struggling with a deficit of some \$300–\$500 million. South Carolina was among the 10 states in the nation with the lowest per capita personal incomes and the highest poverty rates.

¹²STATE GOVERNMENT

South Carolina has had seven constitutions, dating from 1776, 1778, 1790, 1861, 1865, 1868, and 1895, respectively. Beginning in 1970, most articles of the 1895 constitution were rewritten. The present document had been amended 485 times as of January 2005.

The General Assembly consists of a Senate of 46 members, elected for four-year terms, and a House of Representatives of 124 members, elected for two-year terms. Senators must be 25 years old, representatives 21; all legislators must be residents of the districts they represent. The legislative salary was \$10,400 in 2004, unchanged from 1999.

Officials elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected separately), attorney general, secretary of state, comptroller general, treasurer, adjutant general, secretary of agriculture, secretary of banking, and superintendent of education, all elected to four-year terms in odd-numbered years following presidential elections. The governor is limited to serving two consecutive terms. Eligibility requirements for the governor include a minimum age of 30, US and state citizenship for at least five years, and a five-year state residency. As of December 2004, the governor’s salary was \$106,078, unchanged from 1999.

Legislative sessions are held biennially, beginning in January; there is no limit to regular sessions. Special sessions can be called by a vote of two-thirds of the members of each house; there is no limit to special sessions. Bills may be introduced in either house, except for revenue measures, which are reserved to the House of Representatives. The governor has a regular veto, which may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members in each house of the legislature. Bills automatically become law after five days if the governor takes no action. The constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of each house of the General Assembly and by a majority of those casting ballots at the next general election. To take effect, however, the amendment must then be ratified by a majority vote of the next General Assembly.

US citizens 18 years old and older who are residents of the state are eligible to vote. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

¹³POLITICAL PARTIES

South Carolina’s major political organizations are the Democratic and Republican parties. From the end of Reconstruction, the Democratic Party dominated state politics. Dissatisfaction with the national party’s position on civil rights in 1948 led to the formation of the States’ Rights Democrat faction, whose candidate, South Carolina Governor J. Strom Thurmond, carried the state in 1948. Thurmond’s subsequent switch to the Republicans while in the US Senate was a big boost for the state’s Republican Party, which since 1964 has captured South Carolina’s eight electoral votes in ten of the eleven presidential elections. In 2000, Republican George W. Bush received 57% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore’s 41%. In 2004, Bush won 58% to 41% for Democrat John Kerry.

South Carolina's US senators are Republican James DeMint, who won the seat vacated by Democrat Ernest F. Hollings, who announced in August 2003 that he would retire at the end of his term, and Republican Lindsey Graham, elected in 2002. Republican Strom Thurmond, who was reelected in 1996 at the age of 93—was the oldest senator in the country's history. Thurmond died in June 2003 at the age of 100. As of 2005, there were two Democrats and four Republicans serving as US representatives. As on 2005, the state Senate had 19 Democrats and 27 Republicans; while in the state House there were 74 Republicans and 50 Democrats. In 2002 voters elected a Republican, Mark Sanford, to the governor's office.

Voters do not register according to political party in South Carolina. Instead, at primary elections, they simply take an oath that they have not participated in another primary. In 2004 there were 2,315,000 registered voters and the state held eight electoral votes for the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, South Carolina had 46 counties, 269 municipal governments, 90 public school districts, and 301 special districts of various types. Ten regional councils provide a broad range of technical and advisory services to county and municipal governments.

Under legislation enacted in 1975, all counties and municipalities have the same powers, regardless of size. Most municipalities operate under the mayor-council or city manager system; more than half the counties have a county administrator or manager. Customarily, each county has a council or commission, attorney, auditor, clerk of court, coroner, tax collector, treasurer, and sheriff. Many of these county officials are elected, but the only municipal officers elected are the mayor and the members of the council.

While the state shares revenues from many different sources with the counties and, municipalities, these local units derive virtually all their direct revenue from the property tax. The state's school districts have rapidly increased their own property tax levies, squeezing the counties' and municipalities' revenue base.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 167,783 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in South Carolina operates under state statute; a state police superintendent is appointed to oversee the state's homeland security activities.

The State Ethics Commission establishes rules covering possible conflicts of interest, oversees election campaign practices, and provides for officeholders' financial disclosure.

The Department of Education administers state and federal aid to the public schools, while the State Commission on Higher Education oversees the public colleges and universities, and the State Board for Technical and Comprehensive Education is responsible for postsecondary technical training schools. The state also runs special schools for the deaf and blind. Complementing both public and higher education is a state educational television network, under the jurisdiction of the South Carolina Educational Television Commission. Transportation services are provided by the Department of Transportation, which maintains most major roads, issues drivers' licenses, and has jurisdiction over the Highway Patrol. The Department of Public Safety regulates traffic, motor vehicles, and commercial vehicles. The Department of Commerce Division of Aeronautics oversees airport development.

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	SOUTH CAROLINA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	LIBERTARIAN
1948	8	Thurmond (SRD)	34,423	5,386	102,607	—
1952	8	Stevenson (D)	172,957	168,043	—	—
					UNPLEGGED	—
1956	8	Stevenson (D)	136,278	75,634	88,509	—
1960	8	*Kennedy (D)	198,121	188,558	—	—
1964	8	Goldwater (R)	215,723	309,048	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.	—
1968	8	*Nixon (R)	197,486	254,062	215,430	—
					AMERICAN	—
1972	8	*Nixon (R)	1,868,824	477,044	10,075	—
1976	8	*Carter (D)	450,807	346,149	2,996	—
						LIBERTARIAN
1980	8	*Reagan (R)	430,385	441,841	—	4,975
1984	8	*Reagan (R)	344,459	615,539	—	4,359
1988	8	*Bush (R)	370,554	606,443	—	4,935
					IND. (Perot)	—
1992	8	Bush (R)	479,514	577,507	138,872	2,719
1996	8	Dole (R)	506,283	573,458	64,386	4,271
					UNITED CITIZENS	—
2000	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	565,561	785,937	20,200	4,876
					IND. (Nader)	—
2004**	8	*Bush, G. W. (R)	661,699	937,974	5,520	3,608

*Won US presidential election.
 ****CONSTITUTION** Party candidate Michael Peroutka received 5,317 votes.

Through a variety of agencies, South Carolina offers a broad array of human services in the fields of mental health, developmental disabilities, vocational rehabilitation, veterans' affairs, care of the blind, and adoptions. An ombudsman for the aging handles complaints about nursing homes, which are licensed by the state. The South Carolina Law Enforcement Division provides technical aid to county sheriffs and municipal police departments. Emergency situations are handled by the Emergency Management Division and the National Guard.

The State Housing Finance and Development Authority is authorized to subsidize interest rates on mortgages for middle- and low-income families. The Employment Security Commission oversees unemployment compensation and job placement, while the Department of Labor, Licensing and Regulation offers arbitration and mediation services and enforces health and safety standards. The Human Affairs Commission looks into unfair labor practices based on sex, race, or age.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

South Carolina's unified judicial system is headed by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, who, along with four associate justices, is elected by the General Assembly to a 10-year term. The state's Supreme Court is the final court of appeal. A five-member intermediate court of appeals for criminal cases was established in 1979, but legal questions (specifically, about the election of General Assembly members to four of the five seats) prevented the court from convening until 1981. The court became a permanent constitutional court in 1984.

Sixteen circuit courts hear major criminal and civil cases. As of 1999 there were 154 circuit court judges, all of them elected by the General Assembly to six-year terms. The state also has a system of family courts for domestic and juvenile cases. In addition, there are magistrates' courts (justices of the peace) in all counties, municipal courts, and county probate judges.

The state penal system is rapidly becoming centralized under the state Department of Corrections. There is also a separate state system for juvenile offenders.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 23,428 prisoners were held in South Carolina's state and federal prisons, a decrease from 23,719 of 1.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,562 inmates were female, down from 1,576 or 0.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), South Carolina had an incarceration rate of 539 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, South Carolina in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 784.2 reported incidents per 100,000 population (the highest of any state) or a total of 32,922 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 189,113 reported incidents or 4,504.8 reported incidents per 100,000 people. South Carolina has a death penalty, of which prisoners are allowed to choose between lethal injection or electrocution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 35 executions, of which three in 2005 were the most recent (as of 5 May 2006). As of 1 January 2006, South Carolina had 74 inmates on death row.

In 2003, South Carolina spent \$101,287,819 on homeland security, an average of \$25 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 38,213 active duty military personnel and 9,382 civilian personnel stationed in South Carolina. Ft. Jackson, in Columbia, is the largest and most active Initial Entry Training Center in the US Army, training 34% of all Soldiers and 69% of the women entering the Army each year. Air Force bases at Charleston and Sumter are major installations. Parris Island has long been one of the country's chief Marine Corps training bases. South Carolina firms received more than \$1.59 billion in defense contract awards during 2004. In addition, there was another \$3.3 billion in payroll outlays, including retired military pay, by the Department of Defense.

Veterans in South Carolina in 2003 totaled 413,551, including 45,135 from World War II; 39,518 from the Korean conflict; 122,974 who served during the Vietnam era; and 76,461 who served during in the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$1.2 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the South Carolina Highway Patrol employed 829 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The original European migration into South Carolina consisted mostly of German, Welsh, and Scotch-Irish settlers. During the 19th century, many of the original settlers emigrated westward to Alabama, Mississippi, and Texas. In the 20th century, many blacks left the state for cities in the North. Between 1940 and 1970, South Carolina's net loss from migration was 601,000. During 1970–80, however, the state enjoyed a net gain of 210,000; in the 1980s, the net gain from migration was nearly 200,000. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 119,000 in domestic migration and 16,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,125 foreign immigrants arrived in South Carolina. The state's overall population increased 10% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000–05, international migration was 36,401 and net internal migration was 115,084, for a net gain of 151,485 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The South Carolina Interstate Cooperation Commission represents the state before the Council of State Governments. South Carolina also participates in the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern States Energy Board, Appalachian Regional Commission, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, and Southern Regional Education Board. In fiscal year 2005, the state received \$4.918 billion in federal grants, an estimated \$4.843 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$4.972 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

During its early days, South Carolina was one of the country's richest areas. Its economy depended on foreign commerce and agriculture, especially indigo, rice, and later cotton. After the Civil War, the state suffered severe economic depression. Not until the

1880s did the textile industry—today the state's major employer—begin to develop.

Textiles and farming completely dominated the economy until after World War II, when efforts toward economic diversification attracted paper, chemical, and other industries to the state. During the postwar period, the state spent sizable amounts to improve its three ports, especially the harbor facilities of Charleston.

By 1999, manufacturing had become the most important sector in the South Carolina economy. Almost 25% of the labor force worked in manufacturing, well above the national average of 17%. The top ten manufacturers in the state employed over 40,000 workers. The Westinghouse Savannah River Site military base accounts for a significant portion of the state's manufacturing base. Employment at those facilities grew significantly during the 1980s when the Reagan administration increased military expenditures. In the 1990s, however, the federal government began cutting staff at the bases and considered phasing them out. Rising foreign and domestic investment, coupled with an abundance of first-class tourist facilities along the coast, contributed to the continuing growth of South Carolina's economy in the 1980s and were only temporarily hurt by the national recession of the early nineties. The state economy's annual growth rate, averaging 5.5% 1998 to 2000, dropped to 2.6% in the national recession of 2001. Manufacturing output, nearly flat from 1997 to 2001, dropped as a share of total state output from 24.5% to 20%. The strongest output growth was in the transportation and public utilities sector (up 41.9% 1997 to 2001). General services, including health, business, tourist, personal and educational services were up 30.3%, while financial services, including insurance and real estate were up 28%, and government services were up 25.7%.

In 2004, South Carolina's gross state product (GSP) was \$136.125 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) contributed \$26.265 billion or 19.3% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$15.185 billion (11.1% of GSP), and construction at \$7.670 billion (5.6% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 312,108 small businesses in South Carolina. Of the 92,940 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 90,416 or 97.3% were small companies. An estimated 11,745 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 9.2% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 10,975, up 2.5% from 2003. There were 175 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 23.2% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 391 filings per 100,000 people, ranking South Carolina as the 39th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 South Carolina had a gross state product (GSP) of \$140 billion which accounted for 1.1% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 28 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 South Carolina had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$27,185. This ranked 45th in the United States and was 82% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.0%. South Carolina had a total personal income (TPI) of \$114,121,015,000, which ranked 26th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.0% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average

annual growth rate of TPI was 5.3%. Earnings of persons employed in South Carolina increased from \$79,528,714,000 in 2003 to \$84,052,494,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.7%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$39,326 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 14.0% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in South Carolina 2,123,800, with approximately 139,900 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 6.6%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,907,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in South Carolina was 11.4% in January 1983. The historical low was 3.1% in March 1998. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.4% of the labor force was employed in construction; 13.7% in manufacturing; 19.3% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.3% in financial activities; 10% in education and health services; 10.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.5% in government. Data was unavailable for professional and business services.

South Carolina has one of the lowest work stoppage rates in the nation and only a small percentage of the total labor force is organized. Textile, clothing, and ladies' garment workers' unions make up the bulk of the membership, followed by transportation and electrical workers. Several large textile companies have made major efforts to prevent their workers from organizing unions. Conflicts between management and workers have continued for years, but without serious violence.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 40,000 of South Carolina's 1,739,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 2.3% of those so employed, down from 3% in 2004, well below the national average of 12% and the lowest rate of all states. Overall in 2005, a total of 58,000 workers (3.3%) in South Carolina were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. South Carolina is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, South Carolina did not have a state-mandated minimum wage law. Employees in that state however, were covered under federal minimum wage statutes. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is an integral part of the state's economy. The total cash receipts for agriculture were about \$1.75 billion in 2004, but that figure represents only a fraction of the impact of agriculture and agribusiness in the state. Agriculture (food and fiber) along with forestry and forestry products contribute about 25% to the gross state product (GSP). Some 18% of all jobs in South Carolina are from agriculture and agribusiness. As of 2004 there were about

24,400 farms in the state, occupying 4.8 million acres (1.9 million hectares) with an average size of 199 acres (80 hectares). Agriculture in South Carolina supplies not only food for consumption, but also cotton for clothing and soybean oil for newsprint ink.

The main farming area is a 50-mi (80-km) band across the upper coastal plain. The Pee Dee region in the east is the center for tobacco production. Cotton is grown mostly south of the fall line, and feed crops thrive in the coastal and sand hill counties. Tobacco is the leading crop by value; in 2004, farmers in the state produced 60.75 million lb (27.61 million kg) of tobacco on 27,000 acres (10,900 hectares). Soybean and cotton production in that year were 14.8 million bushels and 390,000 bales, respectively. Peach production in 2004 was 70 million lb (31.8 million kg). Greenhouse and nursery products contributed 15.6% to total farm receipts in 2004.

South Carolina farmers and agribusinesses also produce apples, barley, beans, berries, canola, corn, cucumbers, hay, kiwifruit, mushrooms, oats, peanuts, pecans, popcorn, rye, sorghum, sweet potatoes, tea, turf grasses, tomatoes, ornamental trees, and wheat. As more people relocate and retire to the state, demand for agricultural products is increasing in order to supply restaurant, hotel, and landscaping businesses. The South Carolina Department of Agriculture operates three state farmers' markets in Columbia, Florence, and Greenville.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, there were an estimated 435,000 cattle and calves, worth \$339.3 million. During 2004, there were around 300,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$27 million. Dairy farmers produced around 318 million lb (144.5 million kg) of milk from 19,000 milk cows in 2003. Poultry farmers produced 1.4 billion eggs, worth some \$87.9 million in the same year, and 14.8 million lb (6.7 million kg) of chicken, 1.14 billion lb (518 million kg) of broilers, and 494 million lb (224.5 million kg) of turkey.

25 FISHING

The state's oceanfront saltwater inlets and freshwater rivers and lakes provide ample fishing opportunities. Major commercial fishing is restricted to saltwater species of fish and shellfish, mainly shrimp, crabs, clams, and oysters. In 2004, the commercial catch totaled 12.4 million lb (5.6 million kg), valued at \$18.5 million. In 2003, there were two processing plants in the state. In 2002, the commercial fleet had 556 vessels.

In 2004, the state issued 498,088 sport fishing licenses. There are two national fish hatcheries in the state (Orangeberg and Bears Bluff), stocking more than 5 million fish annually. In 2004, there were nine catfish farms covering 90 acres (36 hectares).

26 FORESTRY

South Carolina had 12,415,000 acres (5,024,000 hectares) of forestland in 2004—about two-thirds of the state's area and 1.7% of all US forests. The state's two national forests, Francis Marion and Sumter, comprised 5% of the forested area. Nearly all of South Carolina's forests are classified as commercial timberland, about 90% of it privately owned. Several varieties of pine, loblolly, longleaf, and shortleaf, are the major source of timber and of pulp for the paper industry. Total lumber production in 2004 was 1.57 billion board ft, 90% softwood.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by South Carolina in 2003 was \$474 million, an increase from 2002 of 3%. The USGS data ranked South Carolina as 27th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, portland cement was the state's leading nonfuel mineral commodity by value, and was followed by crushed stone, construction sand and gravel, kaolin, industrial sand and gravel, and vermiculite. Collectively, the initial three commodities accounted for 91% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. By volume, South Carolina in 2003 ranked first in the production of vermiculite (out of two states), and was the nation's second leading producer of fire clay. It was third in masonry cement and kaolin, and ninth in common clays.

Preliminary data showed that production of portland cement in 2003 totaled 2.5 million metric tons, and was worth an estimated \$183 million. It was followed by crushed stone, of which 26.3 million metric tons were produced, with a value of \$171 million. Masonry cement output in 2003 totaled 425,000 metric tons and was worth an estimated \$40.4 million. Construction sand and gravel production for that same year totaled 10.3 million metric tons and was valued at \$36.1 million.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, South Carolina had 47 electrical power service providers, of which 22 were publicly owned and 21 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned. As of that same year there were 2,177,474 retail customers. Of that total, 1,235,618 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 645,551 customers, while publicly owned providers had 296,305 customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 20.658 million kW, with total production that same year at 93.772 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 97.6% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 50.417 billion kWh (53.8%), came from nuclear power generation, with coal-fired plants in second place at 37.432 billion kWh (39.9%). Other renewable power sources, petroleum and natural gas fueled plants, hydroelectric and pumped storage facilities accounted for the remaining power generated.

Although it lacks fossil fuel resources, South Carolina produces more electricity than it consumes. South Carolina is heavily engaged in nuclear energy and is one of the nation's largest generators of nuclear power. As of 2006, the state had seven nuclear reactors in operation, two at the Catawba plant (the state's largest), three at the Oconee facility near Greenville, one at the H. B. Robinson plant near Hartsville, and one at the Virgil C. Summer plant near Jenkinsville. The vast Savannah River plant in Aiken County produces most of the plutonium for the nation's nuclear weapons; Chem-Nuclear Systems in Barnwell County stores about half of the country's low-level nuclear wastes; and a Westinghouse plant in Richland County makes fuel assemblies for nuclear reactors.

South Carolina has no proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. There are no refineries in the state.

29 INDUSTRY

South Carolina's principal industry beginning in the 1880s was textiles, but many textile mills were closed during the 1970s and early 1980s because of the importation of cheaper textiles from abroad. The economic slack was made up, however, by the establishment of new industries, especially paper and chemical manufactures, and by increasing foreign investment in the state. Principal overseas investment came from Switzerland, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Japan. South Carolina's major manufacturing centers are concentrated north of the fall line and in the piedmont.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, South Carolina's manufacturing sector covered some 18 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$81.630 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$15.251 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$12.722 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$6.735 billion; textile mills at \$6.445 billion; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$6.296 billion.

In 2004, a total of 258,222 people in South Carolina were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 194,712 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the textile mill industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 32,183, with 27,591 actual production workers. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at 29,896 employees (16,550 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing at 29,655 employees (22,290 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 25,664 employees (19,819 actual production workers); and plastics and rubber products manufacturing with 20,292 employees (16,001 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that South Carolina's manufacturing sector paid \$10.293 billion in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.696 billion. It was followed by transport equipment manufacturing at \$1.356 billion; textile mills at \$958.880 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$929.957 million; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$877.816 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, South Carolina's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$32.9 billion from 4,917 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 3,031 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 1,559 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 327 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$16.3 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$12.8 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$3.8 billion. Tobacco wholesale markets and warehouses are centered in the Pee Dee region, while soybean sales and storage facilities cluster around the port of Charleston. Truck crops, fruits, and melons are sold in large quantities at the state farmers' market in Columbia.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, South Carolina was listed as having 18,416 retail establishments with sales of \$40.6 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,647); gasoline stations (2,476); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,237); and miscellaneous store retailers (2,131). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$10.4 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$6.2 billion; food and beverage stores at \$6.03 billion; and gasoline stations at \$4.6 billion. A total of 212,926 people were employed by the retail sector in South Carolina that year.

In 2005, foreign exports were valued at \$13.9 billion. Exports, mostly machinery, transportation equipment, and electronics, went primarily to Canada, Mexico, and Germany.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The South Carolina Department of Consumer Affairs, established in 1974, has the authority to take, process, and investigate consumer complaints for probable basis and merit, represent the public at regulatory proceedings, and enforce consumer credit laws and consumer-related licensing laws. The Department is organized into five divisions: Administration; Consumer Services; Consumer Advocacy; Public Information and Education; and the Legal Division.

The Department is also responsible for the licensing and registration of pawnbrokers, motor clubs, physical fitness service organizations, mortgage loan brokers, athletic agents, prescription drug cards, continuing care retirement communities and prepaid legal representatives.

The state's Office of the Ombudsman, which is under the Governor's Office, also provides consumer services to the state's citizens on questions involving complaints, concerns and questions over the activities of the state government.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate only limited civil, and only when permitted, criminal proceedings. It can represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies, but cannot administer consumer protection and education programs. Formal consumer complaints can only be handled on a limited basis because of the authority granted to the Department of Consumer Affairs. The Attorney General's Office in consumer issues has limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the South Carolina Department of Consumer Affairs, the Office of the Attorney General and the State Ombudsman are located in Columbia.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, South Carolina had 96 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 18 state-chartered and 69 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Charleston-Gastonia-Concord market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with

43 institutions and \$90.216 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 11.9% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$6.399 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 88.1% or \$47.240 billion in assets held.

The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for the state's insured institutions as of fourth quarter 2005 stood at 4.21%, up from 4.02% in 2004 and 4.06% in 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans in fourth quarter 2005 was 1.42%, up from 1.35% in 2004, but down from 1.67% in 2003.

Regulation of South Carolina's state-chartered banks and other financial institutions is the responsibility of the state's Board of Financial Institutions.

3³INSURANCE

The South Carolina Department of Insurance licenses and supervises the insurance companies doing business in the state. Most of these represent national insurance organizations. In 2004, over 3.5 million individual life insurance policies worth \$163.9 billion were in force in South Carolina; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$256.3 billion. The average coverage amount is \$46,400 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$874 million.

As of 2003, there were 32 property and casualty and 12 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$5.7 billion. That year, there were 148,301 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$28.7 billion. There were also 21,440 beach and windstorm insurance policies against hurricane and other windstorm damage in force, with a total value of \$6 billion.

In 2003, there were over 3.3 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$15,000 per individual and \$30,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$744.79.

In 2004, 51% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 28% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 15% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 20% for single coverage and 29% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

3⁴SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in South Carolina. In 2005, there were 1,060 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 1,700 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 64 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 18 NASDAQ companies, 8 NYSE listings, and 4

AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 500 company; SCANA, based in Columbia and listed on the NYSE, ranked 447th in the nation with revenues of over \$4.7 billion. Sonoco Products (NYSE), Bowater (NYSE), and ScanSource (NASDAQ) were all listed in the Fortune 1,000.

Enforcement of the state Securities Act is vested in the securities commissioner within the Office of the Attorney General.

3⁵PUBLIC FINANCE

South Carolina's governor submits the annual budget to the General Assembly in January as the basis for enactment of an appropriation bill, effective for the fiscal year beginning July 1.

The state constitution requires that budget appropriations not exceed expected revenues. A General Reserve Fund (equaling 3% of General Fund revenues) is maintained to cover operating deficits. In addition, approximately 25% of projected revenue growth is set-aside and may be used as a surplus at the end of the fiscal year. Many tax revenues are earmarked for specific purposes and are deposited in accounts other than the general fund: all gasoline taxes and related charges are designated for highways, and a portion of the sales tax goes directly to public education. In addition, public education accounts for more than half of all general fund expenditures. The state shares tax collections with its subdivisions (counties and municipalities), which determine how their share of the money will be spent.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$6.4 billion for resources and \$5.7 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to South Carolina were \$6.1 billion.

3⁶TAXATION

In 2005, South Carolina collected \$7,318 million in tax revenues or \$1,720 per capita, which placed it 43rd among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total; sales taxes, 39.7%; selective sales taxes, 13.4%; individual income taxes, 36.8%; corporate income taxes, 3.4%; and other taxes 6.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, South Carolina had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.5% to 7.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 5.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$3,704,419,000 or \$882 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 33rd highest nationally. Local governments collected \$3,692,822,000 of the total and the state government \$11,597,000.

South Carolina taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 7 cents per pack, which ranks 51st among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. South Carolina taxes gasoline at 16 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, South Carolina citizens received \$1.38 in federal spending.

3⁷ECONOMIC POLICY

The Department of Commerce seeks to encourage economic growth and to attract new industries; it has been successful in at-

South Carolina—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	21,241,956	5,060.02
General revenue	16,836,232	4,010.54
Intergovernmental revenue	6,229,053	1,483.81
Taxes	6,803,568	1,620.67
General sales	2,726,657	649.51
Selective sales	963,329	229.47
License taxes	383,505	91.35
Individual income tax	2,438,712	580.92
Corporate income tax	196,510	46.81
Other taxes	94,855	22.60
Current charges	2,593,732	617.85
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,209,879	288.20
Utility revenue	1,047,934	249.63
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	3,357,790	799.85
Total expenditure	21,427,748	5,104.28
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,159,942	990.93
Direct expenditure	17,267,806	4,113.34
Current operation	11,898,782	2,834.39
Capital outlay	1,771,527	421.99
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,293,201	546.26
Assistance and subsidies	695,601	165.70
Interest on debt	608,695	145.00
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,736,968	651.97
Total expenditure	21,427,748	5,104.28
General expenditure	17,960,507	4,278.35
Intergovernmental expenditure	4,159,942	990.93
Direct expenditure	13,800,565	3,287.41
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	6,091,352	1,451.01
Public welfare	4,936,352	1,175.88
Hospitals	978,551	233.10
Health	677,607	161.41
Highways	1,412,728	336.52
Police protection	182,727	43.53
Correction	419,758	99.99
Natural resources	201,047	47.89
Parks and recreation	68,284	16.27
Government administration	759,380	180.89
Interest on general debt	453,179	107.95
Other and unallocable	1,779,542	423.90
Utility expenditure	1,174,040	279.67
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	2,293,201	546.26
Debt at end of fiscal year	11,162,865	2,659.09
Cash and security holdings	30,436,285	7,250.19

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

tracting foreign companies, especially to the Piedmont. The Community and Rural Development Division strengthens and improves the leadership capacity and education of local community leaders. The division offers technical assistance to all South Carolina communities.

The state exempts all new industrial construction from local property taxes (except the school tax) for five years. Moreover, industrial properties are assessed very leniently for tax purposes. State and local governments have cooperated in building necessary roads to industrial sites, providing water and sewer services,

and helping industries to meet environmental standards. Counties are authorized to issue industrial bonds at low interest rates. Generally conservative state fiscal policies, relatively low wage rates, and an anti-union climate also serve as magnets for industry.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 9.3 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 77.5% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 80% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.2 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 235.2; cancer, 202.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 68.7; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 46; and diabetes, 27.1. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 7.3 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 18.1 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 59.3% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 24.3% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, South Carolina had 61 community hospitals with about 11,100 beds. There were about 506,000 patient admissions that year and 7.4 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 8,100 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,355. Also in 2003, there were about 178 certified nursing facilities in the state with 18,306 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 88.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.7% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. South Carolina had 231 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 732 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,949 dentists in the state.

About 24% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 15% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5.5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 123,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$211. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 521,125 persons (219,503 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$90.48 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$565.8 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. South Carolina's TANF program is called Family Independence. In 2004, the state program had 39,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$51 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 750,970 South Carolina residents. This number included 453,910 retired workers, 69,510 widows and widowers, 123,460 disabled workers,

30,770 spouses, and 73,320 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18% of the total state population and 93.8% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$931; widows and widowers, \$820; disabled workers, \$884; and spouses, \$468. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$490 per month; children of deceased workers, \$597; and children of disabled workers, \$270. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 105,223 Pennsylvania residents, averaging \$369 a month. An additional \$937,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 2,981 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 1,890,682 housing units, 1,611,401 of which were occupied; 69.7% were owner-occupied. About 60.6% of all housing units were single-family, detached homes. The state had one of the largest percentages of mobile home units with nearly 18.8% in 2004. Electricity and utility gas were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated 102,653 units lacked telephone service, 5,428 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 8,284 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.52 members.

In 2004, 43,200 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$113,910. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$987. Renters paid a median of \$610 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$23.9 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

South Carolina has made a determined effort to upgrade housing. The State Housing Authority, created in 1971, is empowered to issue bonds to provide mortgage subsidies for low- and middle-income families.

41 EDUCATION

For decades, South Carolina ranked below the national averages in most phases of education, including expenditures per pupil, median years of school completed, teachers' salaries, and literacy levels. During the 1970s, however, significant improvements were made through the adoption of five-year achievement goals, enactment of a statewide educational funding plan, provision of special programs for exceptional children and of kindergartens for all children, measurement of students' achievements at various stages, and expansion of adult education programs. As of 2004, 83.6% of residents 25 years or older had completed high school, almost meeting the national average of 84%. Some 24.9% had attended four or more years of college.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in South Carolina's public schools stood at 695,000. Of these, 501,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 194,000 attended high school. Approximately 54.2% of the students were white, 41.3% were black, 3.2% were Hispanic, 1.1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 689,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 675,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 2.7% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$6.1 billion. In fall 2003 there were 58,005 students enrolled in 345 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005,

eight graders in South Carolina scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 202,007 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 30.6% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 South Carolina had 63 degree-granting institutions. The state has three major universities: the University of South Carolina, with its main campus in Columbia; Clemson University, at Clemson; and the Medical University of South Carolina in Charleston. In addition, there are four-year state colleges, as well as four-year and two-year branches of the University of South Carolina. The state also has 23 four-year non-profit private colleges and universities; most are church-affiliated. The Lutheran Theological Southern Seminary in Columbia is the only major private graduate institution. South Carolina has an extensive technical education system, supported by both state and local funds. Tuition grants are offered for South Carolina students in need that are enrolled in private colleges in the state.

42 ARTS

The South Carolina Arts Commission, created in 1967, has developed apprenticeship programs, under the Folklife and Traditional Arts Apprenticeship Initiative, in which students learn from master artists. In 2005, the South Carolina Arts Commission and other South Carolina arts organizations received 15 grants totaling \$933,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$769,885 for 10 state programs. The state and various private sources also provided funding for the council's activities.

South Carolina's three major centers for the visual arts are the Gibbes Museum of Art in Charleston, the Columbia Museum of Art, and the Greenville County Museum of Art. The Town Theater in Columbia was built in 1924 and is the nation's oldest community playhouse in continuous use. The theater building is also listed in the National Register of Historic Places. As of 2005, the Town Theater offered Summer Camps for youths between 2nd and 12th grade.

The Charleston Symphony Orchestra, founded in 1936, celebrated its 70th anniversary during the 2005/06 season. The Charlotte Symphony Orchestra celebrated its 75th anniversary during its 2006/07. Perhaps South Carolina's best-known musical event is the Spoleto Festival—held annually in Charleston during May and June and modeled on the Spoleto Festival in Italy—at which artists of international repute perform in original productions in opera, theater, dance, music, and circus.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, South Carolina had 41 public library systems, with a total of 183 libraries, of which 143 were branches. In that same year, the South Carolina public library systems had a combined book/serial publication stock of 8,260,000 volumes and a total circulation of 18,166,000. The system also had 280,000 audio and 234,000 video items, 30,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 35 bookmobiles. The State Library in Columbia works to improve library services throughout the state and also provides reference and research services for the state government. The University of South Carolina and Clemson University libraries, with more than 3,067,457 and 1,024,289 volumes, respectively, have the most outstanding academic collections. Special libraries are maintained by the South Carolina Historical Society in Charleston and the De-

partment of Archives and History in Columbia; the South Caroliniana Society at the University of South Carolina is a friends' group devoted to the USC library. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$75,829,000 and included \$648,000 in federal funds and \$6,990,000 in state funding.

There are 131 museums and historic sites, notably the State Museum in Columbia, with collections reflecting all areas of the state; Charleston Museum (specializing in history, natural history, and anthropology); and the University of South Carolina McKissick Museums (with silver, lapidary, and military collections) also in Columbia. Charleston is also famous for its many old homes, streets, churches, and public facilities; at the entrance to Charleston Harbor stands Ft. Sumter, where the Civil War began. Throughout the state, numerous battle sites of the American Revolution have been preserved; many antebellum plantation homes have been restored, especially in the low country. Restoration projects have proceeded in Columbia and Charleston, where the restored Exchange Building, dating to the Revolutionary War, was opened to the public in 1981.

Among the state's best-known botanical gardens are the Cypress, Magnolia, and Middleton gardens in the Charleston area. Edisto Garden in Orangeburg is renowned for its azaleas and roses, and Brookgreen Gardens near Georgetown displays a wide variety of plants, animals, and sculpture.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 93.4% of South Carolina's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,337,367 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 54.9% of South Carolina households had a computer and 45.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 464,917 high-speed lines in South Carolina, 414,608 residential and 50,309 for business. The state had 62 major radio stations (14 AM, 48 FM) and 20 major television stations in 2005. South Carolina has one of the most highly regarded educational television systems in the nation, with ten stations serving the public schools, higher education institutions, state agencies, and the general public through a multichannel closed-circuit network and seven open channels. The Charlotte area alone had 880,570 television households, 67% receiving cable in 1999. Some 45,839 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

Charleston *Courier*, founded in 1803, and the *Post*, founded in 1894 merged to form the *Charleston Post and Courier* in 1991. The *Spartanburg Herald-Journal* was founded in 1844 and the *Greenville News* began publication in 1874. Overall, as of 2005, South Carolina had 14 morning newspapers, 2 evening dailies, and 14 Sunday newspapers.

Leading dailies and their approximate 2005 circulation rates are as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Charleston	<i>Post and Courier</i> (m,S)	95,588	106,061
Columbia	<i>The State</i> (m,S)	115,464	148,865
Greenville	<i>News</i> (m,S)	86,573	115,758
Spartanburg	<i>Herald-Journal</i> (m,S)	48,798	56,981

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 3,110 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 2,238 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. National professional and business organizations with headquarters in the state include the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, the National Peach Council, and the United States Sweet Potato Council. National offices for US Club Soccer and the Southern Conference of collegiate sports are located within the state. State educational and cultural organizations include the South Carolina Historical Society and the South Carolina Humanities Council. There are several local arts councils. The Congressional Medal of Honor Society in Mount Pleasant hosts a museum to honor recipients of this award.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the tourism and travel industry ranked first in the state as the largest employer and the largest "export." That year, the state hosted some 32 million visitors with total visitor spending at \$7.8 billion. Approximately 132,400 South Carolinians are directly employed by the tourism industry. About 75% of travelers are from out-of-state. Nearly one-third of all trips are day trips. About 75% of out-of-state tourist revenue is spent by vacationers in Charleston, where visitors may tour in a horse-drawn buggy, and at the Myrtle Beach and Hilton Head Island resorts. The Marketplace at the center of Charleston marks the place where over 70% of all slaves were processed into the country. Outside of Charleston, several historic plantations offer tours.

The Cowpens National Battlefield and the Ft. Sumter and Ft. Moultrie and Kings Mountain national military sites are popular tourist attractions. Golf is a major attraction, generating more income than any other single entertainment or recreational activity. During the last week in May, Charleston hosts the Spoleto Festival, which features exhibits, plays, and musical presentations.

There are 46 state parks and 9 welcome centers in the state.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in South Carolina. Minor league baseball teams are located in Myrtle Beach and Charleston. There are also minor league hockey teams in North Charleston, Greenville, and Florence. Several steeplechase horse races are held annually in Camden, and important professional golf and tennis tournaments are held at Hilton Head Island.

In collegiate football, the Clemson Tigers of the Atlantic Coast Conference won the AP and UPI National Championship in 1981. The University of South Carolina of the Southeastern Conference and South Carolina State of the Mid-Eastern Athletic Conference also have football programs. Under the tutelage of former Notre Dame coach Lou Holtz, the South Carolina Gamecocks saw a turnaround in their football program, highlighted by consecutive Outback Bowl victories over Ohio State in 2001 and 2002.

Fishing, water-skiing, and sailing are popular sports. There are two major stock car races held at Darlington each year: the Mallcom 400 in March and the Southern 500 on Labor Day weekend.

Other annual sporting events include Polo Games held from February through Easter in Aiken, and the Governor's Annual Frog Jumping Contest held in Springfield on the Saturday before Easter.

49 FAMOUS SOUTH CAROLINIANS

Many distinguished South Carolinians made their reputations outside the state. Andrew Jackson (1767–1845), the seventh US president, was born in a border settlement probably inside present-day South Carolina, but studied law in North Carolina before establishing a legal practice in Tennessee. Identified more closely with South Carolina is John C. Calhoun (1782–1850), vice president from 1825 to 1832; Calhoun also served as US senator and was a leader of the South before the Civil War.

John Rutledge (1739–1800), the first governor of the state and a leader during the American Revolution, served a term as US chief justice but was never confirmed by the Senate. Another Revolutionary leader, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney (1746–1825), was also a delegate to the US constitutional convention. A strong Unionist, Joel R. Poinsett (1779–1851) served as secretary of war and as the first US ambassador to Mexico; he developed the poinsettia, named after him, from a Mexican plant. Benjamin R. Tillman (1847–1918) was governor, US senator, and leader of the populist movement in South Carolina. Bernard M. Baruch (1870–1965), an outstanding financier, statesman, and adviser to presidents, was born in South Carolina. Another presidential adviser, James F. Byrnes (1879–1972), also served as US senator, associate justice of the Supreme Court, and secretary of state. The state's best-known recent political leader was J(ames) Strom Thurmond (1902–2003), who ran for the presidency as a States' Rights Democrat ("Dixiecrat") in 1948, winning 1,169,134 popular votes and 39 electoral votes, and served in the Senate from 1954 until his death.

Famous military leaders native to the state are the Revolutionary War General Francis Marion (1732?–95), known as the Swamp Fox, and James Longstreet (1821–1904), a Confederate lieutenant general during the Civil War, Mark W. Clark (b. New York, 1896–1984), US Army general and former president of the Citadel, lived in South Carolina after 1954. General William C. Westmoreland (1914–2005) was commander of US forces in Viet-Nam.

Notable in the academic world are Francis Lieber (b. Germany, 1800–1872), a political scientist who taught at the University of South Carolina and, later, Columbia University in New York City, and wrote for the United States the world's first comprehensive code of military laws and procedures; Mary McLeod Bethune (1875–1955), founder of Bethune-Cookman College in Florida and of the National Council of Negro Women; John B. Watson (1878–1958), a pioneer in behavioral psychology; and Charles H. Townes (b. 1915), awarded the Nobel Prize in physics in 1964. South Carolinians prominent in business and the professions include architect Robert Mills (1781–1855), who designed the Washington Monument and many other buildings; William Gregg (b. Virginia, 1800–1867), a leader in establishing the textile industry in the South; David R. Coker (1870–1938), who developed many varieties of pedigreed seed; and industrial builder Charles E. Daniel (1895–1964), who helped bring many new industries to the state.

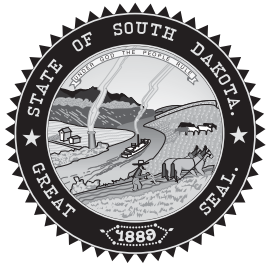
South Carolinians who made significant contributions to literature include William Gilmore Simms (1806–70), author of nearly 100 books; Julia Peterkin (1880–1961), who won the Pulit-

zer Prize for *Scarlet Sister Mary*; DuBose Heyward (1885–1940), whose novel *Porgy* was the basis of the folk opera *Porgy and Bess*; and James M. Dabbs (1896–1970), a writer who was also a leader in the racial integration movement.

Entertainers born in the state include singer Eartha Kitt (b. 1928) and jazz trumpeter John Birks "Dizzy" Gillespie (1917–1993). Tennis champion Althea Gibson (1927–2003) was another South Carolina native.

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SOUTH DAKOTA

State of South Dakota

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: The state was formerly the southern part of Dakota Territory; *dakota* is a Sioux word meaning “friend” or “ally.” **NICKNAME:** Mount Rushmore State; the Coyote State. **CAPITAL:** Pierre. **ENTERED UNION:** November 2, 1889 (40th). **SONG:** “Hail, South Dakota.” **MOTTO:** Under God the People Rule. **COAT OF ARMS:** Beneath the state motto, the Missouri River winds between hills and plains; symbols representing mining (a smelting furnace and hills), commerce (a steamboat), and agriculture (a man plowing, cattle, and a field of corn) complete the scene. **FLAG:** The state seal, centered on a light-blue field and encircled by a serrated sun, is surrounded by the words “South Dakota” above and “The Mount Rushmore State” below. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The words “State of South Dakota. Great Seal. 1889” encircle the arms. **BIRD:** Chinese ring-necked pheasant. **FISH:** Walleye. **FLOWER:** American Pasque (also called the May Day flower). **TREE:** Black Hills spruce. **GEM:** Fairburn agate. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Native Americans’ Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GM; 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the western north-central United States, South Dakota ranks 16th in size among the 50 states.

The state has a total area of 77,121 sq mi (199,730 sq km), comprising 75,896 sq mi (196,715 sq km) of land and 1,164 sq mi (3,015 sq km) of inland water. Shaped roughly like a rectangle with irregular borders on the E and SE, South Dakota extends about 380 mi (610 km) E–W and has a maximum N–S extension of 245 mi (394 km).

South Dakota is bordered on the N by North Dakota; on the E by Minnesota and Iowa (with the line in the NE passing through the Bois de Sioux River, Lake Traverse, and Big Stone Lake, and in the SE through the Big Sioux River); on the S by Nebraska (with part of the line formed by the Missouri River and Lewis and Clark Lake); and on the W by Wyoming and Montana.

The total boundary length of South Dakota is 1,316 mi (2,118 km). The state’s geographic center is in Hughes County, 8 mi (13 km) NE of Pierre. The geographic center of the United States, including Alaska and Hawaii, is at 44°58’N, 103°46’W, in Butte County, 17 mi (27 km) W of Castle Rock.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The eastern two-fifths of South Dakota is prairie, belonging to the Central Lowlands. The western three-fifths falls within the Missouri Plateau, part of the Great Plains region; the High Plains extend into the southern fringes of the state. The Black Hills, an extension of the Rocky Mountains, occupy the southern half of the state’s western border; the mountains, which tower about 4,000 ft (1,200 m) over the neighboring plains, include Harney Peak, at 7,242 ft (2,209 m) the highest point in the state. East of the southern Black Hills are the Badlands, a barren, eroded region with extensive fossil deposits. The mean elevation of the state is approxi-

mately 2,200 ft (671 m).

South Dakota’s lowest elevation, 966 ft (295 m), is at Big Stone Lake, in the northeastern corner. Flowing south and southeast, the Missouri River cuts a huge swath through the heart of South Dakota before forming part of the southeastern boundary. Tributaries of the Missouri include the Grand, Cheyenne, Bad, Moreau, and White rivers in the west and the James, Vermillion, and Big Sioux in the east. The Missouri River itself is controlled by four massive dams, Gavins Point, Ft. Randall, Big Bend, and Oahe, which provide water for irrigation, flood control, and hydroelectric power. Major lakes in the state include Traverse, Big Stone, Lewis and Clark, Francis Case, and Oahe.

³ CLIMATE

South Dakota has an interior continental climate, with hot summers, extremely cold winters, high winds, and periodic droughts. The normal January temperature is 12°F (-11°C); the normal July temperature, 74°F (23°C). The record low temperature is -58°F (-50°C), set at McIntosh on 17 February 1936; the record high, 120°F (49°C), at Gannvalley on 5 July 1936.

Normal annual precipitation averages about 25 in (63 cm) in Sioux Falls in the southeast, decreasing to less than 13 in (33 cm) in the northwest. Sioux Falls receives an average of 39.6 in (100 cm) of snow per year.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Oak, maple, beech, birch, hickory, and willow are all represented in South Dakota’s forests while thickets of chokecherry, wild plum, gooseberry, and currant are found in the eastern part of the state. Pasqueflower (*Anemone ludoviciana*) is the state flower; other wild flowers are beardtongue, bluebell, and monkshood. No South Dakota plant species were listed as threatened or endangered as of April 2006.

Familiar native mammals are the coyote (the state animal), porcupine, raccoon, bobcat, buffalo, white-tailed and mule deer, white-tailed jackrabbit, and black-tailed prairie dog. Nearly 300 species of birds have been identified; the sage grouse, bobwhite quail, and ring-necked pheasant are leading game birds. Trout, catfish, pike, bass, and perch are fished for sport.

Nearly 50% of the North American population of Franklin's gull have stopped at the site of the Sand Lake National Wildlife Refuge, which is also considered to be the world's largest nesting site for this bird. The site also serves as a nesting area for nearly 50% of the continental duck population.

In April 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed nine South Dakota animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered, including the American burying beetle, whooping crane, Eskimo curlew, black-footed ferret, Topeka shiner, pallid sturgeon, least tern, and bald eagle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The mission of the Department of the Environment and Natural Resources (DENR), the primary environmental agency in South Dakota, is to provide environmental services in a customer-oriented manner that promotes economic development; conserves natural resources; helps municipalities, industry, and citizens comply with regulations; and protects public health and the environment.

There are about 1.8 million acres (728,434 hectares) of wetlands in the state, accounting for about 3.6% of the land area. The Sand Lake National Wildlife Refuge, a freshwater cattail marsh, was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1998.

In 2003, 10.3 million pounds of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2003, South Dakota had 39 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, two of which, Ellsworth Air Force Base and Gilt Edge Mine, were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$3 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8.2 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$5 million for the clean water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

South Dakota ranked 46th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 775,933 in 2005, an increase of 2.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, South Dakota's population grew from 696,004 to 754,844, an increase of 8.5%. The population is projected to reach 796,954 by 2015 and 801,845 by 2025.

In 2004, the median age for South Dakotans was 37. In the same year, more than 24.8% of the populace was under the age of 18 while 14.2% was age 65 or older. The population density in 2004 was 10.2 persons per sq mi, making it the fifth most sparsely populated state in the nation.

Sioux Falls proper had an estimated 2004 population of 136,695. The Sioux Falls metropolitan area had an estimated population of 203,324. The Rapid City metropolitan area had an estimated 117,487 residents.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

According to the 2000 census, South Dakota's population included some 62,283 American Indians, or 8.3% of the total state population—the third-highest percentage among the 50 states.. Many lived on the 5,099,000 acres (2,063,500 hectares) of Indian lands in 1982, but Rapid City also had a large Indian population. Among the state's largest reservations, with their populations as of 2000, are the Pine Ridge (15,521), Rosebud (10,469), and Cheyenne River (8,470) reservations. In 2004, 8.6% of the state's population was American Indian.

As of 2000, the black population was 4,685, up from 3,000 recorded in the 1990 census. The black population accounted for 0.8% of the state's total population in 2004. The estimated number of Asian residents was 4,378. In 2004, 0.7% of the population was Asian. Pacific Islanders numbered 261 in 2000. Of the South Dakotans who reported at least one specific ancestry in the 2000 census, 307,309 listed German, 115,292 Norwegian, 78,481 Irish, 53,214 English, and 35,655 Dutch. In the same year, 13,495 South Dakotans—1.8% of the population—were foreign born, up from 7,731 in 1990. In 2000, the number of Hispanics and Latinos was 10,903, or 1.4% of the population. In 2004, 2% of the state's population was of Hispanic or Latino origin, and 1.2% reported origin of two or more races.

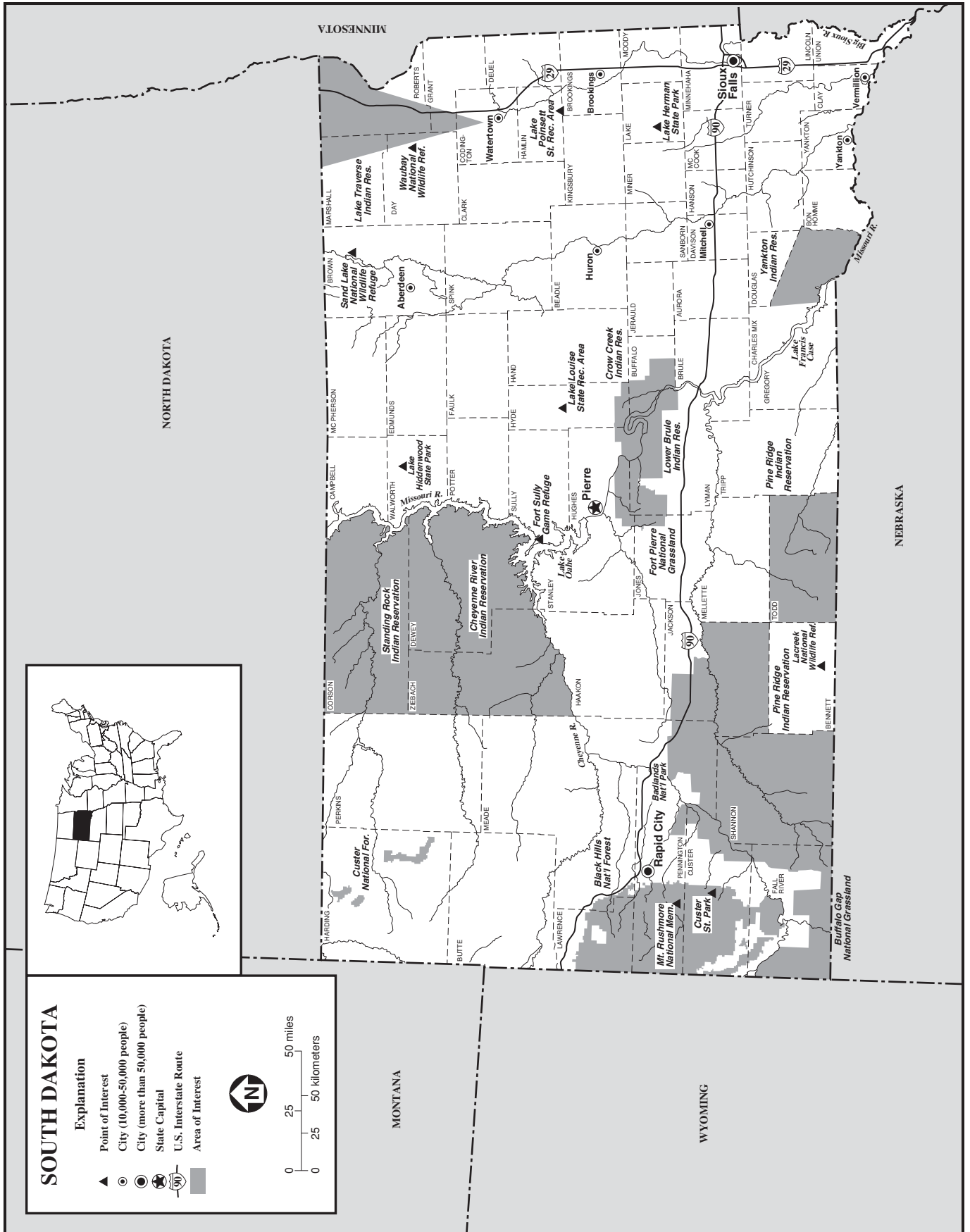
8 LANGUAGES

Despite hints given by such place-names as Dakota, Oahe, and Akaska, English has borrowed little from the language of the Sioux still living in South Dakota. *Tepee* is such a loanword, and *tado* (jerky) is heard near Pine Ridge. South Dakota English is transitional between the Northern and Midland dialects. Diffusion throughout the state is apparent, but many terms contrast along a curving line from the southeast to the northwest corner.

In 2000, 658,245 South Dakotans—93.5% of the resident population five years of age or older—spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik. The category "Other Slavic languages" includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	703,820	100.0
Speak only English	658,245	93.5
Speak a language other than English	45,575	6.5
Speak a language other than English	45,575	6.5
German	13,422	1.9
Other Native North American languages	11,246	1.6
Spanish or Spanish Creole	10,052	1.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	1,256	0.2
Other Slavic languages	1,055	0.1
African languages	1,042	0.1
Scandinavian languages	1,024	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	573	0.1
Chinese	569	0.1
Vietnamese	553	0.1
Tagalog	457	0.1
Russian	411	0.1
Arabic	384	0.1



⁹RELIGIONS

The largest single denomination in the state is the Roman Catholic Church, which had 154,772 adherents, in 2004. According to 2000 data, leading Protestant denominations were the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, with 121,871 adherents; the United Methodist Church, 37,280; and the Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod, 31,524. The Jewish population was estimated at 350 adherents. A few religious groups, though still relatively small in numbers, reported significant growth in membership since 1990. The Salvation Army grew from 732 members in 1990 to 2,804 in 2000, a difference of 283%. Likewise, the International Church of the Foursquare Gospel grew from 466 adherents in 1990 to 1,518 in 2000, a difference of 225%. In the 2000 survey, about 242,950 people (32.3% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints reported a membership of about 8,957 adherents in 32 congregations in 2006.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

In 2003, a total of 1,940 mi (3,123 km) of railroad track was operated in South Dakota by nine railroads. The Burlington Northern Santa Fe (BNSF) and Soo Line were the state's two Class I railroads, operating a combined total of 937 mi (1,508 km) of track that same year. The remaining track was operated by nine other regional, local, or switching and terminal railroads. Freight was primarily coal and petroleum gas (terminating), and agricultural products (originating). As of 2006, there was no Amtrak passenger service in the state.

Public highways, streets, and roads covered 83,574 mi (134,554 km) in 2004 when the state had some 863,000 registered motor vehicles and 563,298 licensed drivers. In 2005, South Dakota had a total of 193 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 159 airports, 33 heliports and one seaplane base. Joe Foss Field at Sioux Falls is the state's most active airport, with 333,338 passenger enplanements in 2004. South Dakota had 75 mi (120 km) of navigable inland waterways.

¹¹HISTORY

People have lived in what is now South Dakota for at least 25,000 years. The original inhabitants, who hunted in the northern Great Plains until about 5000 BC, were the first of a succession of nomadic groups, followed by a society of semisedentary mound builders. After them came the prehistoric forebears of the modern riverine groups—Mandan, Hidatsa, and Arikara—who were found gathering, hunting, farming, and fishing along the upper Missouri River by the first European immigrants. These groups faced no challenge until the Sioux, driven from the Minnesota woodlands, began to move westward during the second quarter of the 18th century, expelling all other Native American groups from South Dakota by the mid-1830s.

Significant European penetration of South Dakota followed the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1804–06. White men came to assert US sovereignty, to negotiate Indian treaties, to “save Indian souls,” and to traffic in hides and furs. Among the most important early merchants were Manuel Lisa, who pressed up the Missouri from St. Louis, and Pierre Chouteau Jr., whose offices in St. Louis dominated trade on both the upper Mississippi and upper Missouri

rivers from 1825 until his death in 1865, by which time all major sources of hides and furs were exhausted, negotiations for Indian land titles were in progress, and surveyors were preparing ceded territories for non-Indian settlers.

The Dakota Territory, which included much of present-day Wyoming and Montana as well as North and south Dakota, was established in 1861, with headquarters first at Yankton (1861–83) and later at Bismarck (1883–89). The territory was reduced to just the Dakotas in 1868; six years later, a gold rush brought thousands of prospectors and settlers to the Black Hills. South Dakota emerged as a state in 1889, with the capital in Pierre. Included within the state were nine Indian reservations, established, after protracted negotiations and three wars with the Sioux, by Indian Office personnel. Five reservations were established west of the Missouri for the Teton and Yanktonai Sioux, and four reserves east of the Missouri for the Yankton and several Isanti Sioux tribes. Sovereignty was thus divided among Indian agents, state officials, and tribal leaders, a division that did not always make for efficient government. Through the late 19th and early 20th centuries, South Dakotans had limited economic opportunities, for they depended mainly on agriculture. Some 30,000 Sioux barely survived on farming and livestock production, supplemented by irregular government jobs and off-reservation employment. The 500,000 non-Indians lived mainly off cattle-feeding enterprises and small grain sales east of the Missouri, mineral production (especially gold) in the Black Hills, and various service industries at urban centers throughout South Dakota.

The period after World War I saw extensive road building, the establishment of a tourist industry, and efforts to subdue and harness the waters of the Missouri. Like other Americans, South Dakotans were helped through the drought and depression of the 1930s by federal aid. Non-Indians were assisted by food relief, various work-relief programs, and crop-marketing plans, while Indians enjoyed an array of federal programs often called the “Indian New Deal.” The economic revival brought about by World War II persisted into the postwar era. Rural whites benefited from the mechanization of agriculture, dam construction along the Missouri, rural electrification, and arid-land reclamation. Federal programs were organized for reservation Indians, relocating them in urban centers where industrial jobs were available, establishing light industries in areas already heavily populated by Indians, and improving education and occupational opportunities on reservations.

Meanwhile, the Sioux continued to bring their historic grievances to public attention. For 70 days in 1973, some 200 armed Indians occupied Wounded Knee, on the Pine Ridge Reservation, where hundreds of Sioux had been killed by US cavalry 83 years earlier. In 1980, reviewing one of several land claims brought by the Sioux, the US Supreme Court upheld compensation of \$105 million for land in the Black Hills taken from the Indians by the federal government in 1877. But members of the American Indian Movement (AIM) opposed this settlement and demanded the return of the Black Hills to the Sioux. The economic plight of South Dakota's Indians worsened during the 1980s after the federal government reduced job training programs, and conditions on reservations remained bad in the 1990s, with unemployment in some cases as high as 70%. By 2005, unemployment on the Pine Ridge Reservation, the nation's second-largest, hovered at 80%; life ex-

pectancy for men was 48, and 52 for women. The alcoholism rate is the highest in the nation.

In sharp contrast, the state economy as a whole showed strength under the direction of Republican Governor William Janklow, elected in 1978 and reelected in 1982 and, after an eight-year hiatus, in 1994. Janklow, noted for his strong opposition to Indian claims, developed the state's water resources, revived railroad transportation, and attracted new industry to South Dakota, including Citicorp, the largest bank-holding company in the United States, which set up a credit-card operation in Sioux Falls and bought controlling interest in the American State Bank of Rapid City. In the 1990s, farm income had risen; record corn and soybean yields were reported in 1994, in spite of major flooding the year before that resulted in parts of the state being declared disaster areas. Manufacturing also prospered, expanding by up to 10% each year in the early 1990s. Legalized casino gambling has become an important source of government revenue since it was authorized in 1989.

Although the state had budget problems in the early 2000s, they were not as severe as other states. Republican Governor Mike Rounds, elected in 2002, asked legislators in 2003 to increase state aid to schools by \$15 million and to create a prescription drug program. He planned a full-scale review of the state department of education. By 2004, Rounds had passed a balanced state budget; reduced the structural deficit from \$28 to \$20 million; increased state aid for local public schools and public universities; created the Homestake Underground Laboratory project; and created a program to give sales tax on food relief to individuals within 150% of the poverty level.

In the early 2000s South Dakota was experiencing severe drought conditions; damaging drought conditions have ruined crops, kept grass from growing, and led ranchers to sell off their cattle. The Great Plains states by 2005 were projected to face widespread drought in the coming decades.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

South Dakota is governed by the constitution of 1889, which had been amended 212 times by January 2005. The legislature consists of a 35-seat Senate and 70-seat House of Representatives; all members serve two-year terms. Convening every January, regular sessions are limited to 40 legislative days in odd-numbered years and 35 legislative days in even-numbered years. To run for the legislature, a person must be at least 21 years old, a US citizen, a qualified voter in their district, and must have resided in the state for at least two years prior to election. As of 2004 the legislative salary was \$12,000 for two years.

Executives elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, the commissioner for school and public lands, who are all elected for four-year terms. (Voters also elect three public utility commissioners who serve six-year terms.) A candidate for governor must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and have been a resident of the state for at least two years. The governor is limited to serving two consecutive terms. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$103,222.

A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned by the governor for five days (including Sundays) while the legislature is in session (15 days, including

Sundays, if has adjourned), or if passed over the governor's veto by two-thirds of the elected members of each house. Constitutional amendments may be proposed by the legislature with a majority vote in both houses. If the amendment is approved by a majority of voters during general elections, it becomes part of the constitution. Amendments may also be proposed by initiative (by petition of 10% of total votes for governor at last election).

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and state residents. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

For the most part, South Dakota has voted Republican in presidential elections, even when native-son George McGovern was the Democratic candidate in 1972. Conservatism runs strong at the local level, although between the two world wars, populist groups gained a broad agrarian following. South Dakotans chose George Bush in 1988 and again in 1992, and in 1996 they gave Republican Bob Dole 46% of the vote. In 2000 and 2004, Republican George W. Bush received 60% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 38% (2000) and Democrat John Kerry's 38% (2004). In 2004 there were 502,000 registered voters. In 1998, 40% were Democratic, 48% Republican, and 12% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

In 1994 voters elected Republican William Janklow to the governor's office; Janklow had earlier served in that capacity for two terms, 1979–83 and 1983–87. He was reelected in 1998. Republican Mike Rounds was elected governor in 2002 (Janklow had reached his term limit). Janklow was elected South Dakota's US Representative in 2002, but was convicted of second-degree manslaughter for his involvement in a fatal accident with a motorcyclist. In 2004, Democrat Stephanie Herseth won election to represent the state in the US House of Representatives.

Democrat Thomas Daschle won a third term in the Senate in 1998, but was narrowly defeated in his bid for a fourth term by Republican John Thune in 2004. In 1996, South Dakota's US rep-

South Dakota Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	S. DAKOTA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	Dewey (R)	117,653	129,651
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	90,426	203,857
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	122,288	171,569
1960	4	Nixon (R)	128,070	178,417
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	163,010	130,108
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	118,023	149,841
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	139,945	166,476
1976	4	Ford (R)	147,068	151,505
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	103,855	198,343
1984	3	*Reagan (R)	116,113	200,267
1988	3	*Bush (R)	145,560	165,415
1992**	3	Bush (R)	124,888	136,718
1996**	3	Dole (R)	139,333	150,543
2000	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	118,804	190,700
2004	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	149,244	232,584

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 73,295 votes in 1992 and 31,250 votes in 1996.

representative, Democrat Tim Johnson, won the US Senate seat of Larry Pressler, who was seeking a fourth term; Johnson won reelection in 2002. There were 25 Republicans and 10 Democrats in the state Senate, and 46 Republicans and 19 Democrats in the state House in mid-2005.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, South Dakota had 66 counties, 308 municipal governments, 176 public school districts, and 376 special districts, most of them concerned with agricultural issues such as soil conservation. Typical county officials include a treasurer, auditor, state's attorney, sheriff, register of deeds, and clerk of courts. In 2002, there were 940 townships.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 30,149 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in South Dakota operates under the authority of the governor; a homeland security director is appointed to oversee the state's homeland security activities.

The Department of Education oversees all elementary, secondary, and vocational education programs. The Board of Regents oversees the higher education system.

The Department of Social Services administers a variety of welfare programs, the Department of Labor aids the unemployed and underemployed, and the Department of Human Services serves disabled South Dakotans. Special agencies within the executive branch include the Office of Tribal Government Relations, the Office of Economic Development, and the State Energy Office.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

South Dakota has a supreme court with five justices, and eight circuit courts with 167 judges. All are elected on a nonpartisan ballot with staggered eight-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 3,095 prisoners were held in South Dakota's state and federal prisons, an increase from 3,026 of 2.3% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 292 inmates were female, up from 269 or 8.6% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), South Dakota had an incarceration rate of 399 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, South Dakota in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 171.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 1,322 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 14,905 reported incidents or 1,933.5 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Although South Dakota has a death penalty, in which lethal injection is the sole method of execution, the state has not carried out an execution since 1930, when only one inmate was executed. As of 1 January 2006, South Dakota had four inmates on death row.

In 2003, South Dakota spent \$19,976,389 on homeland security, an average of \$25 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 3,698 active duty military personnel and 1,161 civilian personnel stationed in South Dakota, almost all of whom were at Ellsworth Air Force Base, near Rapid City, the state's only defense installation. South Dakota firms received more than \$236 million in federal defense contracts in 2004. Defense Department payroll outlays totaled \$396 million.

In 2003, 73,400 veterans were living in the state, including 9,765 from World War II; 9,865 from the Korean conflict; 21,938 from the Vietnam era; and 11,678 from the Persian Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$299 million in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the South Dakota Highway Patrol employed 150 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Since the 1930s, more people have left South Dakota than have settled in the state. Between 1940 and 1990, the net loss from migration amounted to almost 340,000. In 1980, the urban population stood at 46.4%, but had grown to equal the rural population (at 50%) by 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, South Dakota had net gains of 6,000 in domestic migration and 4,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 356 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 6.1%. In the period 2000-05, net international migration was 3,957 and net internal migration was -735, for a net gain of 3,222 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

South Dakota participates in the Belle Fourche River Compact (with Wyoming), the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, among other organizations; there are, in addition, boundary compacts with Minnesota and Nebraska. In fiscal year 2005, South Dakota received \$1.010 billion in federal grants, an estimated \$1.101 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$1.097 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Agriculture has traditionally dominated South Dakota's economy. Grains and livestock have been the main farm products, and processed foods and farm equipment the leading manufactured items. However, since 1970, forty four of South Dakota's 67 counties have lost population, and for five these counties, the rate of depopulation accelerated during the 1990s. The prolonged drought affecting many western states helped to reduce the state's corn production by 10% and soybean production 6% in 2002, disrupted cattle production, and worsened the winter of 2002-2003. The historically important mining sector was contributing less than 1% of total state product in 2001. South Dakota's tax free environment was designed in part to attract high-technology, financial, and manufacturing investments during the 1990s. Manufacturing output grew at a substantial 16.9% from 1997 to 2000, but then plummeted 10% in the recession year of 2001, reducing manufacturing's share of gross state product from about 13% to 11.3%. The strongest growth in output has been in various services sectors. Coming into the 21st century (1997 to 2001), output from fi-

nancial services increased 42.6%, while government services rose 29.4%, general services by 28.7% and wholesale and retail trade by 21.4%.

In 2004, South Dakota's gross state product (GSP) was \$29.386 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$3.181 billion or 10.8% of GSP, followed by health care and social assistance at \$2.501 billion (8.5% of GSP), and the real estate sector at \$2.237 billion (7.6% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 72,949 small businesses in South Dakota. Of the 23,713 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 22,958 or 96.8% were small companies. An estimated 1,691 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 26.4% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 2,251, up 18.5% from 2003. There were 108 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 1.8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 360 filings per 100,000 people, ranking South Dakota 43rd in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 South Dakota had a gross state product (GSP) of \$31 billion which accounted for 0.3% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 47 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 South Dakota had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$30,209. This ranked 32nd in the United States and was 91% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. South Dakota had a total personal income (TPI) of \$23,279,500,000, which ranked 47th in the United States and reflected an increase of 4.6% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.1%. Earnings of persons employed in South Dakota increased from \$16,303,502,000 in 2003 to \$17,156,459,000 in 2004, an increase of 5.2%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$40,518 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 12.5% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in South Dakota 432,500, with approximately 13,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 398,700. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in South Dakota was 5.9% in October 1982. The historical low was 2.4% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10.4% in manufacturing; 19.9% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 7.3% in financial activities; 14.7% in education and health services; 10.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 18.9% in government. Data were unavailable for professional and business services.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 21,000 of South Dakota's 350,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 5.9% of those so employed, down slightly from 6% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 29,000 workers (8.2%) in South Dakota were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. South Dakota is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, South Dakota had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 48% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

South Dakota ranked 19th among the 50 states in 2005 in agricultural income, with receipts of \$4.8 billion. In 2004 there were an estimated 31,600 farms and ranches in the state, covering about 43.8 million acres (17.7 million hectares).

Leading crops and their values during 2004 were hay, 6.87 million tons, \$421.2 million; wheat, 128.6 million bushels, \$416.9 million; corn for grain, 539.5 million bushels, \$890.2 million; soybeans, 140.1 million bushels, \$693.4 million; oats, 13.9 million bushels, \$18.8 million; and barley, 3.1 million bushels, \$6.3 million. In 2004, South Dakota ranked fifth among states in hay production, sixth in corn for grain as well as wheat, and seventh in grain sorghum.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The livestock industry is of great importance in South Dakota, particularly in the High Plains. In 2005 the state had an estimated 3.7 million cattle and calves, valued at around \$3.8 billion. During 2004, there were 1.3 million hogs and pigs, valued at \$146.3 million. In 2003 the state produced 30.1 million lb (13.7 million kg) of sheep and lambs, 152.7 million lb (69.4 million kg) of turkeys, 761 million eggs, and 1.7 million lb (0.8 million kg) of chickens. Dairy farmers produced nearly 1.33 billion lb (0.6 billion kg) of milk from around 82,000 milk cows in the same year.

2⁵ FISHING

Virtually all fishing is recreational. The state manages the maintenance of 5 million angler days of recreation per year. In 2004, South Dakota issued 206,349 sport fishing licenses. The D.C. Booth Historic National Fish Hatchery, established in 1896 (formerly Spearfish National Fish Hatchery), is one of the oldest operating hatcheries in the country. The facility primarily produces trout to stock the Black Hills region of the state. The Gavins Point National Fish Hatchery raises endangered pallid sturgeon and paddlefish. There are four state hatcheries.

2⁶ FORESTRY

In terms of geography and forests, east meets west in South Dakota in a rather dramatic way. The Prairie Plains in the east gradually give way to the grasslands of the Great Plains in the west as elevation increases by some 1,500 ft (450 m) between the Minnesota border and Rapid City.

The forests in the Plains regions are primarily associated with water-reservoirs, lakes, and the dominating Missouri River and its major tributaries such as the Cheyenne, Big White, Moreau,

Grand, and Bad rivers. Collectively these forests make up only 10% of the total forestland in the state and consist primarily of tree species associated with the eastern hardwood forests—elm, ash, basswood, and so forth. In the far western portion of the state and spilling over into northeastern Wyoming are the Black Hills. The forests in the Black Hills and at higher elevations west of the 103rd meridian to the southeast and north of the “Hills” are typically “western,” consisting principally of ponderosa pine. About 90% of the forestland in South Dakota occurs west of the 103rd meridian, and most of it is in the Black Hills. Three counties, Pennington, Lawrence, and Custer, account for most of the State’s forest area, which totals roughly 1,620,000 acres (656,000 million hectares).

The public sector owns 66% of South Dakota’s forestland. The Black Hills and Custer National Forests administer about 90% of the public forestland. The rest is under the jurisdiction of the State and the US Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management (BLM). Most of the state-owned land is in the Custer State Park. East of Rapid City the 226,300 acres (91,500 hectares) of forestland is primarily privately owned.

Nonreserved timberland is the primary component of the state’s forestland and occupies 1,511,000 acres (612,000 hectares). Woodland covers an additional 23,000 acres (9,300 hectares). Of the forestland, 1% contained primarily in national parks is reserved from harvesting wood products. Ponderosa pine is the state’s predominant species. The second most predominant species is the bottomland hardwood group (elm/ash).

Sawtimber stands occupy 964,700 acres (390,400 hectares), which is more than half the total forested area; 675,000 acres (273,000 hectares) of this area is found in national forests. Pole-timber stands account for a fifth of the timberland base, and sapling and seedling stands account for an additional 118,700 acres (48,000 hectares) of timberland.

South Dakota’s timberland is not very productive when compared to other western states. Less than one-fifth of the state’s timberland has the potential to produce greater than 50 cu ft (1.42 cu m) per acre per year. However, this is not to say that the state’s timberland, and in particular the Black Hills area, has not been a good timber producer. The Black Hills have, for nearly a century, been successfully producing and supplying sawlogs, fuelwood, pulpwood, posts, and poles.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by South Dakota in 2003 was \$206 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 4.5%.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, by descending order of value, portland cement, construction sand and gravel, crushed stone, granite dimension stone, gypsum and common clays were the state’s top nonfuel minerals. Collectively, these six commodity sectors accounted for around 81% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. By volume, South Dakota in 2003, was the nation’s second leading producer of granite dimension stone. The state also ranked fourth in mica, seventh in gold and feldspar, and 10th in dimension stone.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed that construction sand and gravel production totaled 13 million metric tons, with a value of

\$52.6 million, while crushed stone output that year, came to 6.7 million metric tons, with a value of \$33.5 million.

Milbank Granite, a dark- to medium-red granite found in the northeastern part of the state, has been quarried continuously since 1907 and is the major source of dimension stone in the state.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, South Dakota had 72 electrical power service providers, of which 35 were publicly owned and 30 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, six were investor owned, and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 400,234 retail customers. Of that total, 212,384 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 132,379 customers, while publicly owned providers had 55,453 customers. There were 18 federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state’s electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 2.690 million kW, with total production that same year at 7.943 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 99.5% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 4.276 billion kWh (53.8%), came from hydroelectric plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 3.431 billion kWh (43.2%) and natural gas fueled plants in third at 176.024 billion kWh (2.2%). Other renewable power sources and petroleum fired plants accounted for the remaining generation.

South Dakota has very modest fossil-fuel resources. As of 2004, the state had proven crude oil reserves of under 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 4,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 25th (24th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 South Dakota had 148 producing oil wells and accounted for less than 1% of all US production. The state has no oil refineries.

In 2004, South Dakota had 61 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In 2003 (the latest year for which data was available), marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1.103 billion cu ft (.031 billion cu m). There was no data on the state’s proven reserves of natural gas.

South Dakota also has lignite reserves of 366,100,000 tons.

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau’s Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, South Dakota’s manufacturing sector covered some 11 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$12.083 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic equipment product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$3.556 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$2.708 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$1.239 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$1.104 billion; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$607.207 million.

In 2004, a total of 37,469 people in South Dakota were employed in the state’s manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 28,628 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the food manufacturing industry accounted for

the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 7,257, with 6,136 actual production workers. It was followed by miscellaneous manufacturing at 4,778 employees (3,158 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 4,698 employees (3,369 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 3,537 employees (2,676 actual production workers); and computer and electronic product manufacturing with 3,262 employees (2,594 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that South Dakota's manufacturing sector paid \$1.222 billion in wages. Of that amount, the food manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$211.705 million. It was followed by machinery manufacturing at \$176.672 million; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$146.375 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$127.931 million; and computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$107.559 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, South Dakota's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$7.8 billion from 1,329 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 690 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 565 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 74 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$2.5 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$3.5 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$1.7 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, South Dakota was listed as having 4,249 retail establishments with sales of \$9.6 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (678); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers tied with building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (523 each); miscellaneous store retailers (522); and food and beverage stores (484). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$2.3 billion, followed by nonstore retailers at \$1.29 billion; general merchandise stores at \$1.26 billion; and gasoline stations at \$1.1 billion. A total of 49,152 people were employed by the retail sector in South Dakota that year.

South Dakota's foreign exports in 2005 totaled \$941.4 million, ranking the state 48th in the nation.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Division of Consumer Protection of the Office of the Attorney General enforces South Dakota's Deceptive Trade Practices Act, prosecutes cases of fraud and other illegal activities, and registers Charitable Solicitation organizations and Buying Clubs. Disputes are mediated between consumers and businesses. The Division also distributes consumer education materials, aids in the preparation of consumer related legislation, takes part in multi-jurisdictional actions with other state or federal law enforcement agencies, and advises consumers of complaints that are on file against specific companies.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on

behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the state's Attorney General's Office cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of Division of Consumer Affairs are located in Pierre.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, South Dakota had 91 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, and 55 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Sioux Falls market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institution deposits in 2004, at \$32.171 billion and ranked second in the number of financial institutions, at 32. The Sioux City market area, which includes portions of Nebraska and Iowa, ranked first in the number of financial institutions with 34, and second in deposits, at \$2.051 billion. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for only 0.4% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$1.525 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 99.6% or \$433.470 billion in assets held.

Regulation of South Dakota's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the state's Division of Banking.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004 there were 514,000 individual life insurance policies worth over \$43.8 billion were in force in South Dakota; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$59.3 billion. The average coverage amount is \$85,300 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$160.8 million.

As of 2003, there were 20 property and casualty and one life and health insurance company domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$1.4 billion. That year, there were 2,997 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$364 million.

In 2004, 52% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 9% held individual policies, and 25% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 12% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 23% for single coverage and 27% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 627,527 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$20,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$25,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$563.18, which ranked as the second-lowest average in the nation (before North Dakota).

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in South Dakota. In 2005, there were 110 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 360 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 12 publicly traded companies within the state, with over four NASDAQ companies (including Daktronics and HF Financial Corp), two NYSE listings (Black Hills Corp. and North Western Corp.), and one AMEX listing (The Credit Store).

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The governor must submit the annual budget to the state legislature by 1 December. The fiscal year begins the following 1 July. The legislature may amend the budget at will, but the governor has a line item veto.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$1.0 billion for resources and \$1.0 billion for expenditures. In 2004, federal government grants to South Dakota were \$1.6 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, South Dakota was slated to receive \$9.7 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds (a 23% increase over 2006) to help provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. The state was also to receive \$4.6 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help South Dakota fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people; this was a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006. An addition \$32 million was earmarked toward completion of the Mni Wiconi Rural Water Project, designed to provide a clean, reliable water supply to rural areas of South Dakota, including some of the poorest Native American communities in the country; and another \$21 million (a \$4 million increase over fiscal year 2006) for ongoing construction of the Lewis and Clark Regional Water System, which will bring high quality water to rural areas of South Dakota, as well as to the city of Sioux Falls.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, South Dakota collected \$1,110 million in tax revenues or \$1,430 per capita, which placed it 50th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 56.0% of the total; selective sales taxes, 25.4%; corporate income taxes, 4.4%; and other taxes, 14.1%.

As of 1 January 2006, South Dakota had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Wyoming, Washington, Nevada, Florida, Texas and Alaska.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$705,183,000, or \$915 per capita. South Dakota has no state level property taxes. The per capita amount ranks the state 32nd nationally.

South Dakota taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable, although an income tax credit is allowed to offset sales tax on food. The tax on cigarettes is 53 cents per pack, which ranks 37th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. South Dakota taxes gasoline at 22 cents per

gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, South Dakota citizens received \$1.49 in federal spending, which ranks the state 10th nationally.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Efforts to attract industry to South Dakota and to broaden the state's economic base are under the jurisdiction of the Governor's

South Dakota—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	3,863,621	5,011.18
General revenue	2,906,921	3,770.33
Intergovernmental revenue	1,239,324	1,607.42
Taxes	1,062,722	1,378.37
General sales	586,389	760.56
Selective sales	278,873	361.70
License taxes	138,877	180.13
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	47,108	61.10
Other taxes	11,475	14.88
Current charges	209,524	271.76
Miscellaneous general revenue	395,351	512.78
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	956,700	1,240.86
Total expenditure	2,989,366	3,877.26
Intergovernmental expenditure	576,215	747.36
Direct expenditure	2,413,151	3,129.90
Current operation	1,602,276	2,078.18
Capital outlay	410,762	532.77
Insurance benefits and repayments	257,703	334.25
Assistance and subsidies	43,768	56.77
Interest on debt	98,642	127.94
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	488,804	633.99
Total expenditure	2,989,366	3,877.26
General expenditure	2,731,663	3,543.01
Intergovernmental expenditure	576,215	747.36
Direct expenditure	2,155,448	2,795.65
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	875,238	1,135.20
Public welfare	694,152	900.33
Hospitals	42,655	55.32
Health	93,611	121.42
Highways	417,467	541.46
Police protection	24,407	31.66
Correction	61,675	79.99
Natural resources	98,706	128.02
Parks and recreation	27,075	35.12
Government administration	110,392	143.18
Interest on general debt	98,642	127.94
Other and unallocable	187,643	243.38
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	257,703	334.25
Debt at end of fiscal year	2,613,067	3,389.19
Cash and security holdings	9,467,630	12,279.68

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Office of Economic Development. Among the advantages noted by the agency are the absence of corporate or personal income taxes, the low level of property taxes, the availability of community development corporations to finance construction of new facilities, various property tax relief measures, inventory tax exemptions, personal property tax exemptions, and a favorable labor climate in which work stoppages are few and union activity is limited by a right-to-work law. South Dakota is one of the few states to have enacted a statute of limitations on product liability—in this case, six years—a measure cited as further proof of the state's attempt to create an atmosphere conducive to manufacturing.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.3 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 14.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 5.5 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 78.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 86% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.3 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 254.5; cancer, 205.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 68.1; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 50.3; and diabetes, 25.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was unavailable that year. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 1.6 per 100,000 population, which was one of the lowest in the country. In 2002, about 58.2% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.3% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, South Dakota had 50 community hospitals with about 4,400 beds. There were about 103,000 patient admissions that year and 1.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,700 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$747. Also in 2003, there were about 113 certified nursing facilities in the state with 7,364 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 92.4%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 72.1% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. South Dakota had 217 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 1,165 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 345 dentists in the state.

About 16% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 16% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 12% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$772,000.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 10,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$205. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 56,095 persons (22,483 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$91.33 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$61.4 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reautho-

rized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the state TANF program had 6,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$19 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 139,770 South Dakota residents. This number included 90,220 retired workers, 15,560 widows and widowers, 13,960 disabled workers, 9,820 spouses, and 10,210 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18% of the total state population and 96.5% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$878; widows and widowers, \$859; disabled workers, \$835; and spouses, \$441. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$421 per month; children of deceased workers, \$567; and children of disabled workers, \$254. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 12,469 South Dakota residents, averaging \$353 a month. An additional \$190,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 3,641 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 342,620 housing units, of which 300,629 were occupied; 69.1% were owner-occupied. About 65.7% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Utility gas was the most common energy source for heating. It was estimated that 12,506 units lacked telephone service, 1,386 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 1,550 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.47 members.

In 2004, 5,800 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$95,523. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$952. Renters paid a median of \$493 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of 680,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$6.6 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

As of 2004, 87.5% of South Dakotans 25 years of age or older were high school graduates, and 25.5% had four or more years of college.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in South Dakota's public schools stood at 128,000. Of these, 87,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 41,000 attended high school. Approximately 84.9% of the students were white, 1.5% were black, 1.8% were Hispanic, 1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 10.7% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 126,000 in fall 2003 but expected to be 123,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 3.6% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1 billion. There were 10,817 students enrolled in 95 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005,

eighth graders in South Dakota scored 287 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 47,751 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 10.2% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 South Dakota had 26 degree-granting institutions. There are eight state-supported colleges and universities, of which the largest are the University of South Dakota and South Dakota State University. The South Dakota School of the Deaf as well as the South Dakota School for the Blind and Visually Impaired are also state-supported. In addition, the state has 12 private institutions of higher education.

42 ARTS

The South Dakota Arts Council, located at Pierre, and the South Dakota Humanities Council, at Brookings, aid and coordinate arts and humanities activities throughout the state. In 2005, the South Dakota Arts Council and other South Dakota arts organizations received six grants totaling \$665,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$507,560 for four state projects. The state and various private sources also provided funding for the council's activities.

Artworks and handicrafts are displayed at the Dacotah Prairie Museum (Aberdeen), South Dakota Art Museum (Brookings), Sioux Indian Museum (Rapid City), Cultural Heritage Center (Pierre), and W. H. Over Museum (Vermillion). The state has nine tribal governments that present annual cultural arts events or powwows.

Symphony orchestras include the South Dakota Symphony in Sioux Falls and the Black Hills Symphony Orchestra in Rapid City. The Sioux Falls Jazz and Blues Society sponsors an annual festival, JazzFest. The annual Laura Ingalls Wilder Pageant in DeSmet includes outdoor performances as well as activities to recreate pioneer history.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, South Dakota had 126 public library systems, with a total of 145 libraries, of which there were 19 branches. For that same year, the systems had a combined total of 2,835,000 volumes of book and serial publications, and a total circulation of 4,773,000. The system also had 77,000 audio and 71,000 video items, 5,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and seven bookmobiles. Leading collections, each with more than 100,000 volumes, were those of South Dakota State University (Brookings), Northern State College and Alexander Mitchell Library (Aberdeen), Augustana College (Sioux Falls), the University of South Dakota (Vermillion), the South Dakota State Library (Pierre), and the Sioux Falls and Rapid City public libraries. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$14,988,000 and included \$167,000 from federal sources, and \$13,825,000 from local sources.

South Dakota has 81 museums and historic sites, including the Cultural Heritage Museum (Pierre), Siouxland Heritage Museums and Delbridge Museum of Natural History (Sioux Falls), and the Shrine to Music Museum (Vermillion). Badlands National Park and Wind Cave National Park also display interesting exhibits.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 93.6% of South Dakota's occupied housing units had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 382,906 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 62.1% of South Dakota households had a computer and 53.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 61,856 high-speed lines in South Dakota, 51,283 residential and 10,573 for business. There were 65 major radio stations (21 AM, 44 FM) and 16 major television stations in 2005. Some 8,919 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2002, South Dakota had six morning newspapers, five evening papers, and four Sunday papers. Leading newspapers included the *Rapid City Journal*, mornings 29,696, Sundays 34,222; and the *Sioux Falls Argus Leader*, mornings 53,395, Sundays 75,014.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,345 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 828 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. There are several organizations focusing on the local and national interests of Native Americans. These include the Association of Community Tribal Schools, the Association on American Indian Affairs, and the Lakota Student Alliance. The South Dakota State Historical Society and the South Dakota Arts Council are located in Pierre. There are a number of municipal and county historical societies and art councils as well. The USA Deaf Sports Federation is based in Sioux Falls. Environmental groups include the Keep South Dakota Green Association and the South Dakota Wildlife Federation. The Evangelical Lutheran Good Samaritan Society, a nationwide service organization, is based in Sioux Falls.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Tourism is the state's largest industry. Travelers spent an estimated \$809 million in South Dakota in 2005, a 7.6% increase over 2004. The travel industry accounted for an estimated 33,100 jobs across the state that year.

Most of the state's tourist attractions lie west of the Missouri River, especially in the Black Hills region. Mt. Rushmore National Memorial consists of the heads of four US presidents—George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt—carved in granite in the mountainside. Wind Cave National Park and Jewel Cave National Monument are also in the Black Hills region. Just to the east is Badlands National Monument, consisting of fossil beds and eroded cliffs almost bare of vegetation. Visitors can also tour the childhood home of Laura Ingalls Wilder, author of the popular *Little House on the Prairie* series, dig for dinosaurs in the Oligocene fossil beds, follow the Lewis and Clark trail, and visit more than 100 museums and cultural centers.

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in South Dakota. However, the Sioux Falls Canaries are a minor league baseball club that plays in the American Association. Sioux Falls also is home to a minor league hockey team. The University of South Dakota

Coyotes and the Jackrabbits of South Dakota State both compete in the North Central Conference. Skiing and hiking are popular in the Black Hills. Other annual sporting events include the Black Hills Motorcycle Classic in Sturgis and many rodeos, including the Days of '76 in Deadwood. Former Olympic gold medalist Billy Mills and Football Hall of Famer Norm van Brocklin are among those athletes born in South Dakota.

49 FAMOUS SOUTH DAKOTANS

The only South Dakotan to win high elective office was Hubert H. Humphrey (1911–78), a native of Wallace who, after rising to power in Minnesota Democratic politics, served as US senator for 16 years before becoming vice president under Lyndon Johnson (1965–69).

Other outstanding federal officeholders from South Dakota were Newton Edmunds (1819–1908), second governor of the Dakota Territory; Charles Henry Burke (b.New York, 1861–1944), who as commissioner of Indian affairs improved education and health care for Native Americans; and Vermillion-born Peter Norbeck (1870–1936), a Progressive Republican leader, first while governor (1917–21) and then as US senator until his death. The son of a German-American father and a Brulé Indian mother, Benjamin Reifel (1906–1990) was the first American Indian elected to Congress from South Dakota; he later served as the last US commissioner of Indian affairs. George McGovern (b.1922) served in the US Senate from 1963 through 1980; an early opponent of the war in Viet Nam, he ran unsuccessfully as the Democratic presidential nominee in 1972.

Associated with South Dakota are several distinguished Indian leaders. Among them were Red Cloud (b.Nebraska 1822–1909), an Oglala warrior; Spotted Tail (b.Wyoming, 1833?–1881), the Brulé chief who was a commanding figure on the Rosebud Reservation; Sitting Bull (1834–90), a Hunkpapa Sioux most famous as the main leader of the Indian army that crushed George Custer's Seventh US Cavalry at the Battle of the Little Big Horn (1876) in Montana; and Crazy Horse (1849?–1877), an Oglala chief who also fought at Little Big Horn.

Ernest Orlando Lawrence (1901–58), the state's only Nobel Prize winner, received the physics award in 1939 for the invention of the cyclotron. The business leader with the greatest personal influence on South Dakota's history was Pierre Chouteau Jr. (b.Missouri, 1789–1865), a fur trader after whom the state capital is named.

South Dakota artists include George Catlin (b.Pennsylvania, 1796–1872), Karl Bodmer (1809–93), Harvey Dunn (1884–1952),

and Oscar Howe (1915–83). Gutzon Borglum (b.Idaho, 1871–1941) carved the faces on Mt. Rushmore. The state's two leading writers are Ole Edvart Rølvaag (b.Norway, 1876–1931), author of *Giants in the Earth* and other novels, and Frederick Manfred (b.Iowa, 1912–94), a Minnesota resident who served as writer-in-residence at the University of South Dakota and has used the state as a setting for many of his novels.

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TENNESSEE

State of Tennessee



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Probably derived from Indian name *Tenase*, which was the principal village of the Cherokee. **NICKNAME:** The Volunteer State. **CAPITAL:** Nashville. **ENTERED UNION:** 1 June 1796 (16th). **SONG:** “When It’s Iris Time in Tennessee;” “The Tennessee Waltz;” “My Homeland, Tennessee;” “Rocky Top;” “My Tennessee;” “Tennessee;” The Pride of Tennessee.” **MOTTO:** Agriculture and Commerce. **FLAG:** On a crimson field separated by a white border from a blue bar at the fly, three white stars on a blue circle edged in white represent the state’s three main general divisions—East, Middle, and West Tennessee. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The upper half consists of the word “Agriculture,” a plow, a sheaf of wheat, a cotton plant, and the roman numeral XVI, signifying the order of entry into the Union. The lower half comprises the word “Commerce” and a boat. The words “The Great Seal of the State of Tennessee 1796” surround the whole. The date commemorates the passage of the state constitution. **BIRD:** Mockingbird. **FLOWER:** Iris (cultivated); Passion flower (wild flower). **TREE:** Tulip poplar. **GEM:** Freshwater pearl. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October (sometimes observed the day after Thanksgiving at the governor’s discretion); Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT; 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the eastern south-central United States, Tennessee ranks 34th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of the state is 42,144 sq mi (109,152 sq km), of which land occupies 41,155 sq mi (106,591 sq km) and inland water 989 sq mi (2,561 sq km). Tennessee extends about 430 mi (690 km) E–W and 110 mi (180 km) N–S.

Tennessee is bordered on the N by Kentucky and Virginia; on the E by North Carolina; on the S by Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi; and on the W by Arkansas and Missouri (with the line formed by the Mississippi River). The boundary length of Tennessee totals 1,306 mi (2,102 km). The state’s geographic center lies in Rutherford County, 5 mi (8 km) NE of Murfreesboro.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Long, narrow, and rhomboidal, Tennessee is divided topographically into six major physical regions: the Unaka Mountains, the Great Valley of East Tennessee, the Cumberland Plateau, the Highland Rim, the Central Basin, and the Gulf Coastal Plain. In addition, there are two minor physical regions: the Western Valley of the Tennessee River and the Mississippi Flood Plains.

The easternmost region is the Unaka Mountains, part of the Appalachian chain. The Unakas actually include several ranges, the most notable of which is the Great Smoky Mountains. The region constitutes the highest and most rugged surface in the state and covers an area of about 2,600 sq mi (6,700 sq km). Several peaks reach a height of 6,000 ft (1,800 m) or more: the tallest is Clingmans Dome in the Great Smokies, which rises to 6,643 ft (2,026 m) and is the highest point in the state. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 900 ft (275 m).

Lying due west of the Unakas is the Great Valley of East Tennessee. Extending from southwestern Virginia into northern Georgia, the Great Valley is a segment of the Ridge and Valley province of the Appalachian Highlands, which reach from New York into Alabama. This region, consisting of long, narrow ridges with broad valleys between them, covers more than 9,000 sq mi (23,000 sq km) of Tennessee. Since the coming of the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) in 1933, the area has been dotted with artificial lakes and dams, which supply electric power and aid in flood control.

The Cumberland Plateau, which extends in its entirety from southern Kentucky into central Alabama, has an area of about 5,400 sq mi (14,000 sq km) in Middle Tennessee. The plateau is a region of contrasts, including both the Cumberland Mountains, which rise to a height of 3,500 ft (1,100 m), and the Sequatchie Valley, the floor of which lies about 1,000 ft (300 m) below the surface of the adjoining plateau.

The Highland Rim, also in Middle Tennessee, is the state’s largest natural region, consisting of more than 12,500 sq mi (32,400 sq km) and encircling the Central Basin. The eastern section is a gently rolling plain some 1,000 ft (300 m) lower than the Cumberland Plateau. The western part has an even lower elevation and sinks gently toward the Tennessee River.

The Central Basin, an oval depression with a gently rolling surface, has been compared to the bottom of an oval dish, of which the Highland Rim forms the broad, flat brim. With its rich soil, the region has attracted people from the earliest days of European settlement and is more densely populated than any other area in the state.

The westernmost of the major regions is the Gulf Coastal Plain. It embraces practically all of West Tennessee and covers an area of 9,000 sq mi (23,000 sq km). It is a broad plain, sloping gradually westward until it ends abruptly at the bluffs overlooking the Mississippi Flood Plains. In the northwest corner is Reelfoot Lake, the only natural lake of significance in the state, formed by a series of earthquakes in 1811 and 1812. The state's lowest point, 178 ft (54 m) above sea level, is on the banks of the Mississippi in the southwest.

Most of the state is drained by the Mississippi River system. Waters from the two longest rivers—the Tennessee, with a total length of 652 mi (1,049 km), and the Cumberland, which is 687 mi (1,106 km) long—flow into the Ohio River in Kentucky and join the Mississippi at Cairo, Illinois. Formed a few miles north of Knoxville by the confluence of the Holston and French Broad rivers, the Tennessee flows southwestward through the Great Valley into northern Alabama, then curves back into the state and flows northward into Kentucky. Other tributaries of the Tennessee are the Clinch, Duck, Elk, Hiwassee, and Sequatchie rivers. The Cumberland River rises in southeastern Kentucky, flows across central Tennessee, and then turns northward back into Kentucky; its principal tributaries are the Harpeth, Red, Obey, Caney Fork, and Stones rivers and Yellow Creek. In the western part of the state, the Forked Deer and Wolf rivers are among those flowing into the Mississippi, which forms the western border with Missouri and Arkansas.

3 CLIMATE

Generally, Tennessee has a temperate climate, with warm summers and mild winters. However, the state's varied topography leads to a wide range of climatic conditions.

The warmest parts of the state, with the longest growing season, are the Gulf Coastal Plain, the Central Basin, and the Sequatchie Valley. In the Memphis area in the southwest, the average date of the last killing frost is 20 March, and the growing season is about 235 days. Memphis has an annual average temperature of 62°F (17°C), 40°F (4°C) in January, and 83°F (28°C) in July. In the Nashville area, the growing season lasts about 225 days. Nashville has an annual average of 60°F (15°C), ranging from 38°F (3°C) in January to 80°F (26°C) in July. The Knoxville area has a growing season of 220 days. The city's annual average temperature is 59°F (15°C), with averages of 38°F (3°C) in January and 78°F (25°C) in July. In some parts of the mountainous east, where the temperatures are considerably lower, the growing season is as short as 130 days. The record high temperature for the state is 113°F (45°C), set at Perryville on 9 August 1930; the record low, -32°F (-36°C), was registered at Mountain City on 30 December 1917.

Severe storms occur infrequently. The greatest rainfall occurs in the winter and early spring, especially March; the early fall months, particularly September and October, are the driest. Average annual precipitation is about 52.4 in (133 cm) in Memphis and 48 in (122 cm) in Nashville. Snowfall varies and is more prevalent in East Tennessee than in the western section; Nashville gets about 10 in (25.4 cm) a year, Memphis only 5 in (12.7 cm).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

With its varied terrain and soils, Tennessee has an abundance of flora, including at least 150 kinds of native trees. Tulip poplar (the

state tree), shortleaf pine, and chestnut, black, and red oaks are commonly found in the eastern part of the state while the Highland Rim abounds in several varieties of oak, hickory, ash, and pine. Gum maple, black walnut, sycamore, and cottonwood grow in the west, and cypress is plentiful in the Reelfoot Lake area. In East Tennessee, rhododendron, mountain laurel, and wild azalea blossoms create a blaze of color in the mountains. More than 300 native Tennessee plants, including digitalis and ginseng have been utilized for medicinal purposes. In 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 19 plant species as threatened or endangered in Tennessee, including the Blue Ridge goldenrod, Cumberland rosemary, Cumberland sandwort, Roan Mountain bluet, and Tennessee purple coneflower.

Tennessee mammals include the raccoon (the state animal), white-tailed deer, black bear, bobcat, muskrat, woodchuck, opossum, and red and gray foxes; the European wild boar was introduced by sportsmen in 1912. More than 250 bird species reside in Tennessee. Bobwhite quail, ruffed grouse, mourning dove, and mallard duck are the most common game birds. The state's 56 amphibian species include numerous frogs, salamanders, and newts; 58 reptile species include three types of rattlesnake. Of the 186 fish species in Tennessee's lakes and streams, catfish, bream, bass, crappie, pike, and trout are the leading game fish.

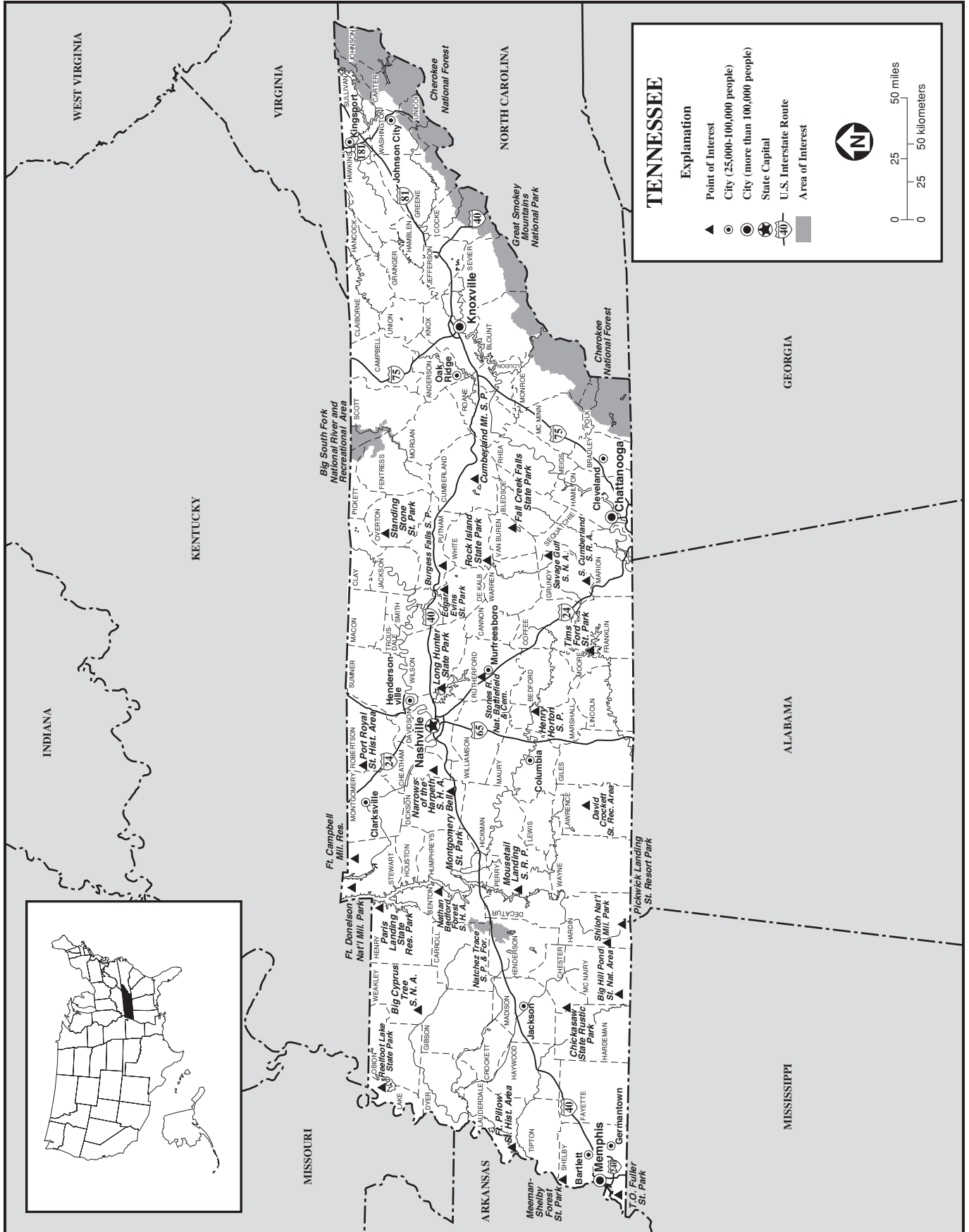
Tennessee's Wildlife Resources Agency conducts an endangered and threatened species protection program. Sixty-one animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as endangered or threatened as of April 2006, including the seven species of darter, gray and Indiana bats, pallid sturgeon, bald eagle, Carolina northern flying squirrel, least tern, and white wartyback pearly mussel. The snail darter, cited by opponents of the Tellico Dam following the passage of the Endangered Species Act in 1973, is probably Tennessee's most famous threatened species.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Tennessee is historically an agricultural state but is geological-ly varied with mountains in the east, rolling hills in the central part of the state, and the wide floodplain of the Mississippi in the west.

The Great Smoky Mountains in east Tennessee are sensitive to changes in air quality. In 1997 the state forged an agreement with the US National Park Service and the US Forest Service to ensure that the process for issuing permits for new industries in the area take into account both business and environmental concerns. In 2003, 142.5 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

The first conservationists were agricultural reformers who, even before the Civil War, recommended terracing to conserve the soil and curtail erosion. Such conservation techniques as crop rotation and contour plowing were discussed at county fairs and other places where farmers gathered. In 1854, the legislature established the State Agricultural Bureau, which sought primarily to protect farmlands from floods. The streams of west Tennessee were extensively channelized for flood control beginning in the late 1800s, with a negative impact on both habitat and cropland. As of 2003, the state was working with local citizens and the US Army Corps of Engineers to reverse this process by restoring the natural meandering flow to the tributaries of the Mississippi.



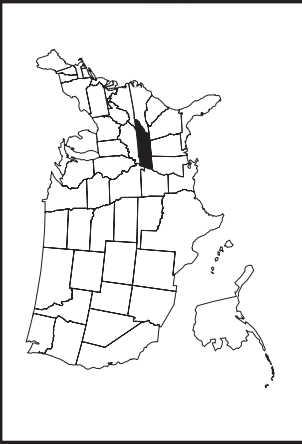
TENNESSEE

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (25,000-100,000 people)
- City (more than 100,000 people)
- ⊙ State Capital
- ⊖ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest

0 25 50 miles
0 25 50 kilometers

N



The Department of Environment and Conservation is responsible for air, land, and water protection in Tennessee. The department also manages the state park system and state natural areas. In 1996, Tennessee had approximately one million acres of wetlands. The Tennessee Wetland Act of 1986 authorized the acquisition of wetlands through the use of real estate taxes. In 1997, the state created four new natural areas.

When many of the first environmental laws were written in the 1970s, pollution of the air and water was widespread and severe. The early laws focused on tough enforcement tools and strict compliance measures to address this problem. In 1993, the Division of Pollution Prevention Assistance was established to provide information and support to industries attempting to reduce their pollution and waste. In 2003, Tennessee had 245 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 13 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Milan Army Ammunition Plant. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$2.1 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8.3 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$15.7 million for loans on projects involving the waste water infrastructure.

6 POPULATION

Tennessee ranked 16th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 5,962,959 in 2005, an increase of 4.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Tennessee's population grew from 4,877,185 to 5,689,283, an increase of 16.7%. The population is projected to reach 6.5 million by 2015 and 7 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 143.2 persons per sq mi. In 2004 the median age was 37. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 23.6% of the population while 12.5% was age 65 or older.

The first permanent white settlements in the state were established in the 1760s, when people from North Carolina and Virginia crossed the Unaka Mountains and settled in the fertile valleys. Between 1790 and 1800, the population increased threefold, from 35,690 to 105,600, and it doubled during each of the next two decades. After the Civil War, the population continued to increase, though at a slower rate, tripling between 1870 and 1970.

A pronounced urban trend became apparent after World War II. In 1960, for the first time in the state's history, census figures showed slightly more people living in urban than in rural areas. In the 1990s, approximately 70% of all Tennesseans lived in metropolitan areas. Memphis is the state's largest city; in 2004, it had an estimated population of 671,929. Nashville-Davidson had a population of 546,719, followed by Knoxville, 178,118, and Chattanooga, 154,853. The Memphis metropolitan area, including parts of Arkansas and Mississippi, had an estimated 1,250,293 residents in 2004, while metropolitan Nashville had 1,395,879.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

For nearly a century after the earliest white settlements, Tennessee was inhabited by three ethno-racial populations: whites of English and Scotch-Irish descent, Cherokee Indians, and black Americans. Settlers crossing the Appalachians met Indian resistance as early as the late 1700s. Eventually, however, nearly all the Cherokee were forced to leave; in 2000 there were an estimated 15,152 American Indians in Tennessee, up from 10,000, the number re-

corded by the 1990 census. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was American Indian.

Blacks, originally brought into the state as slaves to work in the cotton fields of West Tennessee, made up about 10% of the population in 1790. White Tennesseans were divided on the issue of slavery. The small farmers of the eastern region were against it, and in the late 1820s and 1830s there were more antislavery societies in Tennessee than in any other southern state except North Carolina. The planters and merchants of southwest Tennessee, however, linked their sentiments and interests with those of the proslavery planters of the Mississippi Valley. The introduction of the cotton gin gave impetus to the acquisition of more slaves; by 1840, blacks accounted for 26% of the population, and Memphis had become a major market for the shipment of black slaves to large plantations farther south.

Immediately after the Civil War, many blacks, now free, migrated from Virginia and North Carolina to East Tennessee to become farmers, artisans, and owners of small businesses. After 1880, however, the black proportion of the population declined steadily. In 2000, the estimated black population was 932,809 (16% of the state total), up from 778,000 in 1990. In 2004, 16.8% of the population was black. In 2000, there were an estimated 56,662 Asians residing in the state; 12,835 Asian Indians constituted the largest group. Pacific Islanders numbered 2,205. In 2004, the Asian population in the state was 1.2% of the state's total population.

Descendants of European immigrants make up about half the population of Tennessee, the largest groups being of English and German descent. In 2000, 159,004 residents—2.8% of the population—were foreign-born, more than twice the 1990 total of 59,114 (1.2%). In 2000, there were 123,838 Hispanics and Latinos, representing 2.2% of the total population, up from 62,000 (1.1%) in 1990. In 2004, 2.8% of the state's population was Hispanic or Latino. That year, 0.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

White settlers found Tennessee inhabited by Cherokee Indians in the eastern mountains, Shawnee in most of the eastern and central region, and Chickasaw in the west—all of them speakers of Hoka-Siouan languages. Subsequently removed to Indian Territory, they left behind such place-names as Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Chilhowee, as well as Tennessee itself.

Tennessee English represents a mixture of North Midland and South Midland features brought into the northeastern and north-central areas, of South Midland and Southern features introduced by settlers from Virginia and the Carolinas, and of a few additional Southern terms in the extreme western fringe, to which they were carried from Mississippi and Louisiana. Certain pronunciations exhibit a declining frequency from the Appalachians to the Mississippi River, such as /r/ after a vowel in the same syllable, as in *form* and *short*, and a rounded /aw/ before /r/ in *arm* and *barbed*. Others occur statewide, such as the /ah/ vowel in *forest* and *foreign*, *coop* and *Cooper* with the vowel of *book*, and simplification of the long /i/ vowel, so that *lice* sounds like *lass*. Common are such non-Northern terms as *wait on* (wait for), *pully-bone* (along with Northern wishbone), *nicker* (neigh), *light bread* (white bread), and *snake feeder* (dragonfly), as well as *Jew's harp*, *juice harp*, and *French harp* (all for harmonica). In eastern Tennes-

see are found *goobers* (peanuts), *tote* (carry), *plum peach* (clingstone peach), *ash cake* (a kind of cornbread), *fireboard* (mantel), *redworm* (earthworm), *branch* (stream), and *peckerwood* (woodpecker). Appearing in western Tennessee are *loaf bread*, *cold drink* (soft drink), and *burlap bag*. In Memphis, a large, long sandwich is a *poorboy*.

In 2000, 5,059,404 Tennesseans five years old and over—95.2% of the population in that age group—spoke only English at home, down from 97% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category “Other Indo-European languages” includes Albanian, Gaelic, Lithuanian, and Rumanian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	5,315,920	100.0
Speak only English	5,059,404	95.2
Speak a language other than English	256,516	4.8
Speak a language other than English	256,516	4.8
Spanish or Spanish Creole	133,931	2.5
German	20,267	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	17,557	0.3
Chinese	7,492	0.1
Vietnamese	6,625	0.1
Korean	6,550	0.1
Arabic	6,482	0.1
Laotian	4,496	0.1
African languages	4,480	0.1
Japanese	4,423	0.1
Other Indo-European languages	4,250	0.1
Tagalog	3,386	0.1
Italian	3,134	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

Baptist and Presbyterian churches were organized on the frontier soon after permanent settlements were made. Many divisions have occurred in both groups. The Cumberland Presbyterian Church, which spread into other states, was organized near Nashville in 1810 because of differences within the parent church. Both the Baptists and the Presbyterians divided over slavery. Methodist circuit riders arrived with the early settlers, and they quickly succeeded in attracting many followers. Controversies over slavery and other sectional issues also developed within the Methodist Church and, as with the Baptists and Presbyterians, divisions emerged during the 1840s. The Methodists, however, were able to resolve their differences and regroup. The United Presbyterian Church and the Presbyterian Church in the United States finally ended their 122-year separation in 1983, reuniting to form the Presbyterian Church (USA).

Two other Protestant groups with large followings in the state had their origin on the Tennessee frontier in the first half of the 19th century: the Disciples of Christ and the Church of Christ. Both groups began with the followers of Thomas and Alexander Campbell and Barton W. Stone, among others, who deplored formal creeds and denominations and sought to return to the purity of early Christianity. As their numbers grew, these followers divided into Progressives, who supported missionary societies and instrumental music in church, and Conservatives, who did not. In 1906, a federal census of religions listed the Conservatives for the first time as the Church of Christ and the Progressives as the Dis-

ciples of Christ. The latter, now the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) had 28,108 known adherents in 2000. The Church of God (Cleveland, Tennessee) was established in the state in 1886 as a result of the greater Pentecostal movement.

Tennessee has long been considered part of the Bible Belt because of the influence of fundamentalist Protestant groups that believe in the literal accuracy of the Bible. Evangelical Protestants still account for a majority of the religiously active population.

In 2000, the largest single religious group in the state was the Southern Baptist Convention with 1,414,199 adherents; there were 27,055 new baptized members reported in 2002. Other Evangelical groups in 2000 were the Churches of Christ, 216,648; the Church of God (Cleveland, Tennessee), 66,136; Independent, Non-Charismatic Churches, 50,003; and Assemblies of God, 40,430. The major Mainline Protestant denominations (with 2000 figures) were the United Methodist Church, 393,994; the Presbyterian Church USA, 67,800; and the Episcopal Church, 35,037. In 2004, there were about 185,486 Roman Catholics in the state. In 2000, there were 18,464 Muslims and an estimated 18,250 Jews in the state. About 2.7 million people (48.9% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization that year.

The Gideons International, an organization known for its free distribution of Bibles, is based in Nashville. The World Convention of Churches of Christ is also based in Nashville.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Memphis, Nashville, Knoxville, and Chattanooga are the focal points for rail, highway, water, and air transportation. All are located on important rivers and interstate highways, and all have airports served by the major airlines.

Railroad building began in Tennessee as early as the 1820s. During the 1850s, the basis for 20th-century rail transportation was laid: the Louisville and Nashville Railroad linked Tennessee to the northern states, and the Memphis and Charleston line established ties with the East Coast. In 2003, Tennessee had 2,821 rail mi (4,541 km) of track, of which 2,097 mi (3,376 km) were Class I track. As of 2006, Amtrak provided north–south passenger train service to Memphis and Newbern, Tennessee via its Chicago to New Orleans City of New Orleans train.

The first roads, such as the Natchez Trace, which connected Nashville with the southwestern part of the state, often followed Indian trails. Many roads in the early 1800s were constructed by private individuals or chartered turnpike companies. The introduction of the automobile shortly after the beginning of the 20th century brought the development of modern roads and highways. After 1916, the federal government began to share the high cost of highway construction, and the 1920s were a decade of extensive road building.

In 2004, Tennessee had 88,988 mi (143,270 km) of roads. The major interstate highway is I-40, crossing east–west from Knoxville to Nashville and Memphis. In that same year, some 5.049 million motor vehicles were registered in the state, while 4,247,884 Tennesseans held drivers' licenses.

The principal means of transportation during Tennessee's early history was water, and all the early settlements were built on or near streams. The introduction of steamboats on the Cumberland River in the early 19th century helped make Nashville the state's largest city and its foremost trading center. By mid-century, how-

ever, Memphis, on the Mississippi River, had surpassed Nashville in population and trade, largely because of cotton. Tennessee in 2004 had 946 mi (1,523 km) of navigable inland waterways. The completion in 1985 of the 234-mi (377-km) Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway gave Tennessee shippers a direct north-south route for all vessels between the Tennessee River and the Gulf of Mexico via the Black Warrior River in Alabama. Although none of the waterway runs through Tennessee, the northern terminus is on the Tennessee River near the common borders of Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi. In 2004, the ports of Memphis and Nashville handled 17.520 million tons and 3.941 million tons of freight, respectively. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 27.811 million tons.

In 2005, Tennessee had a total of 305 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 195 airports, 100 heliports, 8 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 2 seaplane bases. As of 2004, Memphis International Airport was among the world's busiest cargo-handling facilities and was also the state's major air terminal in terms of passenger traffic, with 5,295,062 passengers enplaned, making it the 36th busiest airport in the United States. Nashville International in that same year was the state's second busiest, with 4,298,703 passengers enplaned, making it the 44th busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

The lower Tennessee Valley was heavily populated with hunter-gatherers some 10,000 years ago. Their descendants, called Paleo-Indians, were succeeded by other native cultures, including the Archaic Indians, Woodland Indians, and Early Mississippians. When the first Spanish arrived in the early 16th century, Creek Indians were living in what is now East Tennessee, along with the Yuchi. About 200 years later, the powerful Cherokee—the largest single tribe south of the Ohio River, occupying parts of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and East Tennessee—drove the Creek and Yuchi out of the area and established themselves as the dominant tribe. Their settlements, varying in size from a dozen families to more than 200, were known as the Upper or Overhill Towns. The Cherokee retained their tribal dominance until they were forced out by the federal government in the 1830s. In West Tennessee, the Chickasaw were the major group. They lived principally in northern Mississippi but used Tennessee lands as a hunting ground. Shawnee occupied the Cumberland Valley in Middle Tennessee until driven north of the Ohio River by the Cherokee and Chickasaw.

Explorers and traders from continental Europe and the British Isles were in Tennessee for well over 200 years before permanent settlements were established in the 1760s. Hernando de Soto, a Spaniard, came from Florida to explore the area as early as 1540. He was followed during the 17th century by the French explorers Jacques Marquette, Louis Jolliet, and Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle. Englishmen were not far behind: by the mid-1700s, hundreds—perhaps thousands—had crossed the Appalachian barrier and explored the transmontane country beyond, which was claimed first by the colony of Virginia and later assigned to North Carolina. They came in search of pelts, furs, and whatever else of value they might find. A fiercely independent breed, they were accustomed to hardship and unwilling to settle in a civilized com-

munity. Perhaps the best known was Daniel Boone, who by 1760 had found his way into present-day Washington County.

With the conclusion of the French and Indian War in 1763, many people from North Carolina and Virginia began to cross the Alleghenies. Elisha Walden was among those who first led groups of “long hunters” into the wilderness. By 1770, small pockets of white settlement were developing in the valley between the Unaka and Cumberland mountains. In the two decades that followed, more than 35,000 people settled on soil soon to become the State of Tennessee.

Two major areas of settlement developed. The larger one—in the northeast along the Holston, Nolichucky, and Watauga rivers—was organized as the Watauga Association in 1791. The second major area was in the Cumberland Basin, where James Robertson, under the sponsorship of the Transylvania Company (formed by eastern land speculators), established a settlement he called Nashborough (now Nashville) in 1779. There more than 250 adult males signed the Cumberland Compact, which established a government. They pledged to abide by the will of the majority and expressed their allegiance to North Carolina.

The Revolutionary War did not reach as far west as Tennessee, but many of the frontiersmen fought in the Carolinas and Virginia. The most famous battle involving these early Tennesseans was that of Kings Mountain, in South Carolina, where Colonel John Sevier and others defeated a superior force of British soldiers and captured more than 1,000 prisoners. Hardly was the Revolution over when Tennesseans began to think about statehood for themselves. As early as 1784, leaders in three mountain counties—Greene, Sullivan, and Washington—established the Free State of Franklin. John Sevier was chosen as governor, and an assembly was formed. Only after border warfare developed and factionalism weakened their cause did Franklin's leaders abandon their plans and return their allegiance to North Carolina. But the spirit of independence—indeed, defiance—persisted.

In 1790, less than two years after Franklin collapsed, North Carolina ceded its western lands to the United States. Tennessee became known as the Southwest Territory, with William Blount, a prominent North Carolina speculator and politician, as its governor. During his six-year tenure, a government was organized and a capital established at Knoxville. The population doubled to more than 70,000 in 1795, and steps were taken to convert the territory into a state. When the territorial legislature presented Congress with a petition for statehood, a lively debate ensued in the US Senate between Jeffersonian Democratic-Republicans, who urged immediate admission, and Federalists, who opposed it. The Jeffersonians triumphed, and on 1 June 1796, President George Washington signed a bill admitting Tennessee as the 16th state. Sevier became governor of the new state, Blount was elected to the US Senate, and Andrew Jackson became the state's first US representative.

Sevier dominated state politics for the first two decades of statehood, and he had little difficulty in thwarting the ambitions of Andrew Jackson and others who sought to challenge his leadership. Tennessee's population, about 85,000 when Sevier became governor, was more than 250,000 when he left the statehouse in 1809. Under Sevier's governorship, Nashville, Knoxville, and other early settlements became thriving frontier towns. Churches and schools

were established, industry and agriculture developed, and Tennessee became a leading iron producer.

Andrew Jackson's rise to prominence came as a result of the Battle of New Orleans, fought at the conclusion of the War of 1812. Jackson, who had little difficulty raising troops in a state where volunteers for military service have always been abundant, lost only about a half dozen of his men, while British casualties exceeded 2,000. He returned to Nashville a hero, built a fine house that he named The Hermitage, received thousands of congratulatory messages, and conferred with friends about his political and military future. In 1823, Jackson was elected to the US Senate. Defeated the following year in a four-man race for the presidency, he ran again, this time successfully, in 1828, serving in that office for eight years.

Jackson alienated himself from many people in the state after 1835, when he announced his support of Martin Van Buren for president instead of Knoxvilleian Hugh Lawson White, an avowed candidate. A majority of Tennesseans joined the new Whig Party, which arose in opposition to Jackson's Democratic Party, and voted in the 1836 presidential election for White instead of for Van Buren. The Whigs won every presidential election in Tennessee from 1836 to 1852, including the election of 1844, which sent Tennessean James Knox Polk, a Democrat, to the White House. Polk's term (1845–49) brought another war, this one with Mexico. Although Tennessee's quota was only 2,800, more than 25,000 men volunteered for service. Among the heroes of that war were William Trousdale and William B. Campbell, both of whom later were elected governor.

Social reform and cultural growth characterized the first half of the 19th century. A penitentiary was built, and the penal code made somewhat more humane. Temperance newspapers were published, temperance societies formed, and laws passed to curtail the consumption of alcoholic beverages. In 1834, a few women, embracing the feminist cause, were influential in giving the courts, rather than the legislature, the right to grant divorces. Many important schools were established, including the Nashville Female Academy, the University of Nashville, and more than two dozen colleges.

More than most other southern states, antebellum Tennessee was divided over the issue of slavery. Slaves had accompanied their owners into Tennessee in the 18th century, and by 1850, they constituted about one-fourth of the state's population. Although slaveholders lived in all sections of the state, they predominated in the west, where cotton was grown profitably, as well as in Middle Tennessee. In East Tennessee, where blacks made up less than 10% of the population, antislavery sentiment thrived. Most of those who supported emancipation urged that it be accomplished peacefully, gradually, and with compensation to the slave owners. Frances Wright, the Scottish reformer, founded the colony of Nashoba near Memphis in the 1820s as a place where freed blacks could learn self-reliance. After a few years the colony failed, however, and Wright took her colonists to Haiti. At the constitutional convention of 1834, hundreds of petitions were presented asking that the legislature be empowered to free the slaves. But while the convention endorsed several measures to democratize the constitution of 1796—abolishing property qualifications as a condition for holding office, for example—it decided against emancipation.

Considerable economic growth took place during this period. West Tennessee became a major cotton-growing area immediately after it was purchased from the Chickasaw in 1818, and Memphis, established in 1821, became the principal cotton-marketing center. The Volunteer State's annual cotton crop grew from less than 3,000 bales in 1810 to nearly 200,000 bales by midcentury. The counties of the Highland Rim produced tobacco in such abundance that, by 1840, Tennessee ranked just behind Kentucky and Virginia in total production. East Tennessee farmers practiced greater crop diversification, growing a variety of fruits and vegetables for market. Silk cultivation flourished briefly in the 1830s and 1840s.

Tennessee became a major battleground during the Civil War, as armies from both North and South crossed the state several times. Most Tennesseans favored secession. But the eastern counties remained staunchly Unionist, and many East Tennesseans crossed over into Kentucky to enlist in the Union Army. General Albert Sidney Johnston, the Confederate commander of the western theater, set up lines of defense across the northern border of the state and built forts on both the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers. In February 1862, Ft. Donelson and Ft. Henry were taken by General Ulysses S. Grant and naval Captain Andrew H. Foote, thereby opening the state to Union armies. Within two weeks Nashville was in the hands of the enemy. Northern troops pushed farther south and west, taking key positions on the Mississippi River. Less than two months later, on 6 April, Union forces near the Mississippi state line engaged Johnston's army in the Battle of Shiloh. Both sides suffered tremendous losses, including Johnston himself, who bled to death after sustaining a thigh wound. In the meantime President Abraham Lincoln had established a military government for the conquered state and appointed Andrew Johnson to head it. Johnson, who had served two terms as governor a decade earlier, had been elected to the US Senate in 1858; he remained there in 1861, the only southern senator to do so, refusing to follow his state into the Confederacy. In 1864, he was elected vice president under Lincoln.

Johnson's governorship did not mean the end of Confederate activities in Tennessee. Late in December 1862, Confederate forces made the first of two vigorous attempts to rid the state of the invader. General Braxton Bragg, who replaced Johnston as Confederate commander, established himself at Murfreesboro, 30 mi (48 km) southwest of Nashville, and threatened to retake the capital city. But at the Battle of Stones River, Union troops under General William S. Rosecrans forced Bragg to retreat to the south-east. Fighting did not resume until 19–20 September 1863, when the Confederates drove Union troops back to Chattanooga in the Battle of Chickamauga, one of the bloodiest engagements of the war. The second major Confederate drive occurred in November and December 1864, when General John B. Hood, commanding the Confederate Army of Tennessee, came out of Georgia and attacked the Union forces at Franklin and Nashville. Hood's army was destroyed, and these battles were the last major engagements in the state.

Returning to the Union in 1866, Tennessee was the only former Confederate state not to have a military government during Reconstruction. Economic readjustment was not as difficult as elsewhere in the South, and within a few years agricultural production exceeded antebellum levels. Extensive coal and iron deposits in

East Tennessee attracted northern capital, and by the early 1880s, flour, woolen, and paper mills were established in all the urban areas. By the late 1890s, Memphis was a leading cotton market and the nation's foremost producer of cottonseed oil. Politically, the Democratic Party became firmly entrenched, and would remain so until the 1950s.

As the 20th century dawned, the major issue in Tennessee was the crusade against alcohol, a movement with deep roots in the 19th century. Though the major cities still were "wet," earlier legislation had dried up the rural areas and small towns, and the Tennessee Anti-Saloon League and Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) kept the matter in the public eye. In 1908, with "wet" forces controlling the state government, Edward Ward Carmack—a rabid prohibitionist, powerful politician, newspaper editor, and former US senator—was shot and killed in the street of Nashville. His assailants were convicted but pardoned immediately by the governor. In the following year, with Carmack as a martyr to their cause, "dry" forces enacted legislation that, in effect, imposed prohibition on the entire state. The dominant Democratic Party was divided and demoralized to such an extent that a Republican governor was elected—only the second since Reconstruction. The prohibition movement helped promote the cause of women's suffrage. A proposed state constitutional amendment giving women the right to vote failed in 1915, but in 1919, they were granted the franchise in municipal elections. One year later, Tennessee became the 36th state to ratify the 19th Amendment to the US Constitution, thereby granting women the right to vote nationwide.

The 1920s brought a resurgence of religious fundamentalism. When, in 1925, the legislature enacted a measure that prohibited the teaching of the theory of evolution in the public schools, a high school teacher named John T. Scopes decided to challenge the law. Three-time presidential candidate and fundamentalist spokesman William Jennings Bryan arrived in the tiny town of Dayton to aid in Scopes's prosecution, while the great civil liberties lawyer Clarence Darrow came from Chicago to lead the defense. The Scopes trial gave the Volunteer State unwanted notoriety throughout the civilized world. Scopes was convicted, and it was not until 1967 that the law was repealed.

The 1930s brought depression, but they also brought the Tennessee Valley Authority. Before TVA, residents of the Tennessee River Valley could boast of the beauty of the landscape, but of little else. The soil was so thin that little other than subsistence agriculture was possible, and many people lived on cash incomes of less than \$100 a year. There were some senators, such as George Norris of Nebraska and Tennessee's own Kenneth D. McKellar, who saw great possibilities in valley development. Harnessing the Tennessee River with dams could not only generate electricity inexpensively but also greatly improve navigation; aid flood control, soil conservation, and reforestation; and produce nitrate fertilizer. Efforts to establish such a program failed, however, until Franklin D. Roosevelt included it in his New Deal. The law establishing the TVA was passed a few weeks after Roosevelt's inauguration in 1933, and dam construction began almost immediately. Before TVA, people in the valley consumed only 1.5 billion kWh of electricity annually; but consumption increased to 11.5 billion kWh by 1945 and to 57.5 billion kWh by 1960. Fewer than 2% of rural families in Tennessee had electricity in 1933; but by the late

1930s, power lines were being strung into remote areas, bringing to practically everyone the advantages that hitherto only urban residents had enjoyed. Inexpensive power became a magnet for industry, and industrial employment in the region nearly doubled in two decades. The building of a plant for the production of nuclear weapons at Oak Ridge in 1942 was due in large measure to the availability of TVA power.

The TVA notwithstanding, the depression caused many manufacturers to close or curtail operations, and farm prices declined drastically. Cotton, which had earlier brought farmers more than 30 cents a pound, declined to 5.7 cents, and the prices of corn, tobacco, and other crops fell proportionately. The state still was in the grip of financial depression when World War II began. Thousands of men volunteered for service before conscription was introduced; when the United States entered the war in 1941, several training posts were established in Tennessee. Tennessee firms manufacturing war materiel received contracts amounting to \$1.25 billion and employed more than 200,000 people during the war. Industrial growth continued during the postwar period, while agriculture recovered and diversified. The chemical industry, spurred by high demand during and after World War II, became a leading sector, along with textiles, apparel, and food processing. Cotton and tobacco continued to be major crops, but by the early 1970s, soybeans had taken the lead, accounting for 22% of estimated farm income in 1980. Beef and dairy production also flourished.

Democratic boss Edward H. Crump, who ran an efficient political machine in Memphis, dominated state politics for most of the period between 1910 and the early 1950s, an era that saw the elevation of many Tennessee Democrats to national prominence. Considerable progress was made toward ending racial discrimination during the postwar years, although the desegregation of public schools was accomplished only after outbursts of violence at Clinton, Nashville, and Memphis. The killing of civil rights leader Martin Luther King Jr., in Memphis in 1968 resulted in rioting by blacks in that city, and in urban centers nationwide. The most notable political development during the 1970s was the resurgence of the Republican Party, making Tennessee one of the few true two-party states in the South.

The early 1980s saw the exposure of corruption in high places: former governor Ray Blanton and several aides were convicted for conspiracy to sell liquor licenses, and banker and former gubernatorial candidate Jacob F. "Jake" Butcher was convicted for fraud in the aftermath of the collapse of his banking empire. On the brighter side, there was a successful World's Fair in 1982, the Knoxville International Energy Exposition, and a fairly resilient state economy, bolstered by the much-heralded openings of the Nissan truck-assembly plant in Smyrna in 1983 and the General Motors Saturn plant in Spring Hill in 1990.

Manufacturing in Tennessee continued to grow throughout the 1980s, aided by the completion of the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway in 1985. The state gained nearly 45,000 manufacturing jobs between 1982 and 1992, many of them in the automotive and other transport-related industries. Tennessee's unemployment rate fell to a 16-year low of 4.7% in 1994.

The state legislature passed school reform laws in 1992 and, in 1993, a health-care package mandating the creation of TennCare,

an insurance program designed to replace Medicaid coverage for 1.5 million uninsured residents of the state.

Democratic governor Phil Bredesen, elected in 2002, served two terms as Nashville mayor and hoped in 2003, despite the state's budget problems, to repeat statewide the significant economic growth he spearheaded in Nashville. The state was a leader in the nation in attempting to collect Internet and mail-order sales taxes. Tennessee officials estimated the state could lose up to \$300 million in uncollected Internet and mail-order sales taxes in 2003.

Bredesen by 2005 had issued executive orders establishing tough ethics rules in the executive branch; managed the state through its fiscal crisis without raising taxes or cutting funds for education; raised teachers' pay to levels above the Southeastern average; expanded Tennessee's pre-kindergarten program; reformed the state's workers' compensation program and invested in retraining programs to help out-of-work employees develop new skills in the growing, competitive economy; launched a war on methamphetamine; and reformed TennCare, the state health-insurance program.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Tennessee's first constitution was adopted in 1796, just before the state was admitted to the Union. It vested executive authority in a governor, elected for two years, who had to be at least 25 years old and own at least 500 acres (202 hectares) of land. The governor could approve or veto bills adopted by the legislature, as commander-in-chief of the militia, and could grant pardons and reprieves, among other powers. Legislative power was placed in a General Assembly, consisting of a house and Senate, whose members served terms of two years. Candidates for the legislature were required to fulfill residence and age requirements and to own at least 200 acres (81 hectares). Property qualifications were not required for voting, and all freemen—including free blacks—could vote.

The basic governmental structure established in 1796 remains the fundamental law today. The constitution has been amended 36 times as of January 2005, however. The spirit of Jacksonian democracy prompted delegates at the constitutional convention of 1834 to remove property qualifications as a requirement for public office, reapportion representation, transfer the right to select county officials from justices of the peace to the voters, and reorganize the court system. At the same time, though, free blacks were disfranchised. In 1870, another constitutional convention confirmed the abolition of slavery and the enfranchisement of black men but imposed a poll tax as a requirement for voting. Membership of the House was fixed at 99 and the Senate at 33-numbers, these numbers are retained today. Assembling each January, regular sessions are limited to 90 legislative days. Special sessions, limited to 30 legislative days, may be called by petition of two-thirds of each house. All legislators must be US citizens, qualified voters in their districts, citizens of the state, and must have lived in the state for at least 3 years and in the district for one year. Further, senators are required to be at least 30 years old and representatives 21. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$16,500, unchanged from 1999.

In the constitutional convention held in 1953, delegates increased the gubernatorial term from two to four years, gave the governor item-veto, eliminated the poll tax, authorized home rule for cities, and provided for the consolidation of county and city

functions. Later conventions extended the term of state senators from two to four years, sought to improve and streamline county government, and placed a constitutional limit on state spending. A limited convention in 1965 required the apportionment of the legislature according to population. This change greatly increased the weight of urban, and particularly black, votes.

The governor, the only executive elected statewide, appoints a cabinet of 21 members. The speaker of the state Senate automatically becomes lieutenant governor; the secretary of state, treasurer, and comptroller of the treasury are chosen by the legislature. The governor is limited to serving two consecutive terms. A candidate for governor must be at least 30 years old, a US citizen, and must have been a state citizen for at least seven years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$85,000, unchanged from 1999.

Legislation is enacted after bills are read and approved three times in each house and signed by the governor. If the governor vetoes a measure, the legislature may override the veto by majority vote of the elected members of each house. If the governor does not act on a bill, it becomes law after 10 days. Not more often than once every six years the legislature may submit to the voters the question of calling a convention to amend the constitution. If the vote is favorable, delegates are chosen. Changes proposed by the convention must be approved by a majority vote in a subsequent election. To amend the constitution, a majority of the members elected to both houses must first approve the proposed change. A second (two-thirds) vote by the legislature is required before the measure is put before the state's voters for majority approval.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and state residents. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The major political groups are the Democratic and Republican parties. Minor parties have seldom affected the outcome of an election in Tennessee.

When Tennessee entered the Union in 1796, it was strongly loyal to the Democratic-Republican Party. The Jacksonian era brought a change in political affiliations, and for more than 20 years, Tennessee had a vibrant two-party system. Jackson's followers formed the Democratic Party, which prevailed for a decade over the National Republican Party led by John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay. But by 1835, Tennesseans had become disillusioned with Jackson, and they joined the new Whig Party in large numbers. A Whig governor was elected in that year, and Whig presidential nominees consistently garnered Tennessee's electoral votes until the party foundered over the slavery issue in the 1850s.

After the Civil War and Reconstruction, Tennessee was part of the solid Democratic South for nearly a century. Only three Republican governors were elected during that period, and only then because bitter factionalism had divided the dominant party. East Tennessee remained a Republican stronghold. However, the 2nd Congressional district, which includes Knoxville, was the only district in the country to elect a Republican continuously from 1860 on. Republicans Warren G. Harding and Herbert Hoover carried the state in the presidential elections of 1920 and 1928. But whereas the 1920s saw a tendency away from one-party domination, Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal brought the Vol-

unter State decisively back into the Democratic fold. Tennesseans voted overwhelmingly Democratic in the four elections that Roosevelt won (1932–44).

After World War II, the one-party system in Tennessee was shaken anew. Dwight D. Eisenhower narrowly won the state in 1952 and 1956, although Tennessee Senator Estes Kefauver was the Democratic vice-presidential nominee in the latter year. Tennesseans chose Richard Nixon all three times he ran for president. In fact, between 1948 and 1976, the only Democratic nominees to carry the state came from the South (Lyndon Johnson and Jimmy Carter) or from a border state (Harry Truman).

In state elections, the Republicans made deep inroads into Democratic power during the 1960s and 1970s. In 1966, Howard Baker became the first popularly elected Republican US senator in the state history. In 1970, voters elected Winfield Dunn as the first Republican governor in more than 50 years, and in the same year, they sent Republican Bill Brock to join Baker in the Senate. The Democrats regained the governorship in 1974 and Brock's seat in 1976, but Republicans again won the governorship in 1978 when Lamar Alexander defeated Jacob F. "Jake" Butcher. In 1982, Alexander became the first Tennessee governor to be elected to two successive four-year terms. Ned McWherter, a Democrat, was elected governor in 1990. Republican Don Sundquist became governor in 1994 and was reelected in 1998. Democrat Phil Bredesen was elected governor in 2002.

In 1994, Bill Frist, a heart surgeon, was elected to the US Senate on the Republican ticket, defeating Democrat James Sasser. He was reelected in 2000, and elected Senate Majority Leader in December 2002 after former Majority Leader Trent Lott aroused controversy by praising the 1948 presidential candidacy of segregationist Strom Thurmond. Democrat Harlan Matthews was appointed to

fill the seat vacated by Al Gore in 1992 when Gore became vice president. In 1994, Republican Fred Thompson defeated Jim Cooper for the remaining two years of Gore's term. Thompson was elected to his first full term in 1996, but retired in 2002. That November, former Governor Lamar Alexander was elected US Senator from Tennessee. US representatives included four Republicans and five Democrats after the November 2004 elections. There were 16 Democrats and 17 Republicans in the state Senate and 53 Democrats and 46 Republicans in the state House in mid-2005.

Tennessee voters, who gave Republican George Bush 57.4% of the vote in 1988, chose Bill Clinton in 1992 and 1996. In 2000, Republican George W. Bush received 51% of the vote to Democrat Al Gore's 48%. In 2004, support for incumbent President Bush had increased to 56.8% to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 42.5%. In 2004 there were 3,532,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had 11 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, local government in Tennessee was exercised by 95 counties and 349 municipalities. The county, a direct descendant of the Anglo-Saxon shire, has remained remarkably unaltered in Tennessee since it was brought from Virginia and North Carolina in frontier days. The constitution specifies that county officials must include at least a register, trustee (the custodian of county funds), sheriff, and county clerk, all of whom hold office for four years. Other officials have been added by legislative enactment: county commissioners, county executives (known for many years as county judges or county chairmen), tax assessors, county court clerks, and superintendents of public schools.

Tennessee Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	TENNESSEE WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	SOCIALIST	PROGRESSIVE	PROHIBITION
1948	11	*Truman (D)	270,402	202,914	73,815	1,288	1,864	—
					CONSTITUTION	—	—	—
1952	11	*Eisenhower (R)	443,710	446,147	379	—	887	1,432
1956	11	*Eisenhower (R)	456,507	462,288	19,820	—	—	789
					NAT'L STATES' RIGHTS	—	—	—
1960	11	Nixon (R)	481,453	556,577	11,298	—	—	2,450
1964	11	*Johnson (D)	635,047	508,965	—	—	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.	—	—	—
1968	11	*Nixon (R)	351,233	472,592	424,792	—	—	—
					—	—	AMERICAN	—
1972	10	*Nixon (R)	357,293	813,147	—	—	30,373	—
					—	—	—	LIBERTARIAN
1976	10	*Carter (D)	825,897	633,969	2,303	—	5,769	1,375
					NAT'L STATESMAN	—	CITIZENS	—
1980	10	*Reagan (R)	783,051	787,761	5,021	—	1,112	7,116
1984	11	*Reagan (R)	711,714	990,212	—	—	978	3,072
1988	11	*Bush (R)	679,794	947,233	—	—	1,334	2,041
					IND. (Perot)	—	—	—
1992	11	*Clinton (D)	933,521	841,300	199,968	1,356	727	1,847
1996	11	*Clinton (D)	909,146	863,530	105,918	—	—	5,020
					IND. (nader)	—	IND. (Buchanan)	—
2000	11	*Bush, G. W. (R)	981,720	1,061,949	19,781	—	4,250	4,284
					—	WRITE-IN (Cobb)	IND. (Peroutka)	IND. (Badnarik)
2004	11	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,036,477	1,384,375	8,992	33	2,570	4,866

*Won US presidential election.

City government is of more recent origin than county government. There are three forms of municipal government: mayor-council (or mayor-alderman), council-manager, and commission. The mayor-council system is the oldest and by far the most widely employed. There were 138 school districts and 475 special districts in 2005.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 239,168 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Tennessee operates under executive order; a homeland security director oversees the state's homeland security activities.

The commissioner of education oversees the public schools as well as special and vocational-technical education; the higher education commission oversees higher education. Highways, aeronautics, mass transit, and waterways are the responsibility of the Department of Transportation. The Department of Safety and the State Highway Patrol are charged with enforcing the safety laws on all state roads and interstate highways. Public protection services are provided by the Military Department, which includes the Army and Air National Guard. The Department of Correction maintains prisons for adult offenders, a work-release program, and correctional and rehabilitation centers for juveniles. The Department of Environment and Conservation concerns itself with the environment.

The Department of Health licenses medical facilities, provides medical care for the indigent, operates tuberculosis treatment centers, and administers pollution control programs. The Department of Mental Health and Developmental Disabilities supervises mental hospitals, mental health clinics, and homes for the developmentally disabled. The Department of Human Services administers aid to the blind, aged, disabled, and families with dependent children, and determines eligibility for families receiving food stamps. The Department of Employment Security administers unemployment insurance and provides job training and placement services. State laws governing workers' compensation, occupational and mine safety, child labor, and wage standards are enforced by the Department of Labor and Workforce Development.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Tennessee Supreme Court is the highest court in the state. It consists of five justices, not more than two of whom may reside in any one grand division of the state—East, Middle, or West Tennessee. The justices are elected by popular vote for terms of eight years and must be at least 35 years of age. The court has appellate jurisdiction only, holding sessions in Nashville, Knoxville, and Jackson. The position of chief justice rotates every 19 months.

Immediately below the Supreme Court are two appellate courts (each sitting in three divisions), established by the legislature to relieve the crowded high court docket. The Court of Appeals has appellate jurisdiction in most civil cases. The Court of Criminal Appeals hears cases from the lower courts involving criminal matters. Judges on both appellate courts are elected for eight-year terms.

Circuit courts have original jurisdiction in both civil and criminal cases. Tennessee still has chancery courts, vestiges of the Eng-

lish courts designed to hear cases where there was no adequate remedy at law. They administer cases involving receiverships of corporations, settle disputes regarding property ownership, hear divorce cases, and adjudicate on a variety of other matters. In some districts, judges of the circuit and chancery courts, all of whom are elected for eight-year terms, have concurrent jurisdiction.

At the bottom of the judicial structure are general sessions courts. A comprehensive juvenile court system was set up in 1911. Other courts created for specific services include domestic relations courts and probate courts.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 25,884 prisoners were held in Tennessee's state and federal prisons, an increase from 25,403 of 1.9% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,905 inmates were female, up from 1,826 or 4.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Tennessee had an incarceration rate of 437 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Tennessee in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 695.2 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 41,024 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 254,123 reported incidents or 4,306.5 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Tennessee has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution for those sentenced after 1 January 1999. Those sentenced prior to that date can select electrocution over lethal injection. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out only one execution, in April 2000. As of 1 January 2006, Tennessee had 108 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Tennessee spent \$186,916,752 on homeland security, an average of \$31 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

Tennessee supplied so many soldiers for the War of 1812 and the Mexican War that it became known as the Volunteer State. During the Civil War, more than 100,000 Tennesseans fought for the Confederacy and about half that number for the Union. In World War I, some 91,000 men served in the armed forces, and in World War II, 316,000 Tennesseans saw active duty.

In 2004, there were 2,430 active-duty military personnel and 5,390 civilian personnel stationed in Tennessee, most of whom were at Millington Naval Air Station near Memphis. Tennessee firms were awarded defense contracts totaling more than \$2.1 billion in 2004. In addition, there was another \$1.6 billion in payroll outlays by the Department of Defense.

On 2003, 540,778 veterans were living in Tennessee, of whom 62,502 served in World War II; 55,605 in the Korean conflict; 169,911 during the Vietnam era; and 87,253 during the Persian Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$1.4 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Tennessee Department of Public Safety employed 935 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The first white settlers in Tennessee, who came across the mountains from North Carolina and Virginia, were almost entirely of English extraction. They were followed by an influx of Scotch-

Irish, mainly from Pennsylvania. About 3,800 German and Irish migrants arrived during the 1830s and 1840s. In the next century, Tennessee's population remained relatively stable, except for an influx of blacks immediately following the Civil War. There was a steady out-migration of blacks to industrial centers in the North during the 20th century. The state suffered a net loss through migration of 462,000 between 1940 and 1970 but gained over 465,000 between 1970 and 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, Tennessee had net gains of 338,000 in domestic migration and 27,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,806 foreign immigrants arrived in the state, the greatest concentrations coming from Mexico (300) and India (291). Tennessee's overall population increased 11.3% between 1990 and 1998.

The major in-state migration has been away from rural areas and into towns and cities. Blacks, especially, have tended to cluster in large urban centers. The population of metropolitan Memphis, for example, was more than 42% black in 1997. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 49,973 and net internal migration was 109,707, for a net gain of 159,680 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Tennessee participates in such interstate agreements as the Appalachian Regional Commission, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern Regional Education Board, Southern Growth Policies Board, and the Southern States Energy Board. There are boundary accords with Arkansas, Kentucky, and Virginia, and an agreement with Alabama, Kentucky, and Mississippi governing development of the Tennessee-Tombigbee waterway. Federal grants to Tennessee amounted to \$8.086 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$7.890 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$8.114 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Tennessee's economy is based primarily on industry. Since the 1930s, the number of people employed in industry has grown at a rapid rate, while the number of farmers has declined proportionately. The principal manufacturing areas are Memphis, Nashville, Chattanooga, Knoxville, and Kingsport-Bristol. With the construction in the 1980s of a Nissan automobile and truck plant and a General Motors automobile facility, both in the area southeast of Nashville, Tennessee has become an important producer of transportation equipment. Since 1995, however, employment in Tennessee's manufacturing sector has fallen, and since 1999, total output from the sector has fallen 3.2% between 1999 and 2001. The pace of job loss in manufacturing accelerated in the 2001 national recession and slowdown, with 36,000 jobs lost during the year, 42% higher than any previous year. Manufacturing as a share of the state gross product fell from 21.5% in 1997 to 18.7% in 2001. The influx of new residents, from which Tennessee's economy benefited throughout the 1990s, fell to an eleven-year low with the fall in job growth in 2001. As of 2002, manufacturing jobs made up 17% of total employment in Tennessee, still above the national average of 13%. Income from agricultural products currently comes more from dairy and beef cattle, and soybeans than from traditional crops, tobacco, cotton, and corn. Coming into the 21st century (1997 to 2001) the strongest growth in terms of contributions to state gross product has been in the various services sec-

tors. Output from general services increased 27.4%, with financial services rising 29.5%, transportation and utilities sector up by 27.4%, government up by 22.8%, and trade up by 17.8%.

In 2004, Tennessee's gross state product (GSP) was \$217.626 billion, of which manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$38.142 or 17.5% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$23.219 (10.6% of GSP), and health care and social assistance at \$17.985 billion (8.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 471,316 small businesses in Tennessee. Of the 109,853 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 106,729 or 97.2% were small companies. An estimated 17,415 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 1.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 16,520, up 1.3% from 2003. There were 548 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 8.2% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 1,117 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Tennessee as first in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Tennessee had a gross state product (GSP) of \$227 billion which accounted for 1.8% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 18 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Tennessee had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$29,844. This ranked 35th in the United States and was 90% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.0%. Tennessee had a total personal income (TPI) of \$175,880,336,000, which ranked 19th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.9% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.2%. Earnings of persons employed in Tennessee increased from \$133,081,409,000 in 2003 to \$141,576,558,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.4%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$38,550 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 14.9% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Tennessee 2,960,500, with approximately 161,200 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.4%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,780,300. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Tennessee was 12.4% in December 1982. The historical low was 3.8% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.5% of the labor force was employed in construction; 14.6% in manufacturing; 21.9% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.2% in financial activities; 11.3% in professional and business services; 12% in education and health services; 9.7% in leisure and hospitality services; and 15% in government.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 128,000 of Tennessee's 2,368,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal mem-

bers of a union. This represented 5.4% of those so employed, down from 6.7% in 2004, and well below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 156,000 workers (6.6%) in Tennessee were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Tennessee is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Tennessee did not have a state-mandated minimum wage law. Employees in that state however, were covered under federal minimum wage statutes. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Tennessee ranked 32d among the 50 states in 2005 with farm receipts of over \$2.5 billion. There were 85,000 farms in 2004.

From the antebellum period to the 1950s, cotton was the leading crop, followed by corn and tobacco. But during the early 1960s, soybeans surpassed cotton as the principal source of income. In 2004, 48.4 million bushels of soybeans, valued at \$251.6 million, were harvested. Tobacco production in 2004 was 67.9 million lb. The main types of tobacco are burley, a fine leaf used primarily for cigarettes, and eastern and western dark-fired, which are used primarily for cigars, pipe tobacco, and snuff. The corn harvest in 2004 was about 86.1 million bushels, valued at \$180.8 million. In 2004, cotton production was 990,000 bales, valued at \$225.1.9 million. In 2004, soybeans, greenhouse/nursery products, and cotton together accounted for 30% of state farm receipts.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Cattle are raised throughout the state, but principally in middle and east Tennessee. In 1930, fewer than a million cattle and calves were raised on Tennessee farms; by 2005, there were an estimated 2.17 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.67 billion. During 2004, hogs and pigs numbered around 215,000 and were valued at \$18.9 million. In 2003, Tennessee poultry farmers produced 948 million lb (431 million kg) of broilers, worth \$322.3 million, and 290 million eggs, valued at \$31.9 million. Tennessee dairy farmers produced 1.2 billion lb (0.5 billion kg) of milk from some 79,000 milk cows.

25 FISHING

Fishing is a major attraction for sport but plays a relatively small role in the economic life of Tennessee. There are 17 TVA lakes and 7 other lakes, all maintained by the Army Corps of Engineers; 10 of these lakes span an area of 10,000 acres (4,000 hectares) or more, and there are thousands of miles of creeks and mountain streams, all of which attract anglers. Tennessee has no closed season, except on trout.

In the 1970s, pollution from industrial waste dumping killed millions of fish and seriously endangered sport fishing. By the 1980s, however, industrial establishments in the state were complying more fully with the 1974 Water Pollution Act. In 2004, the state issued 1,028,386 sport fishing licenses. In 2004, Tennessee had 14 trout farms, selling 54,000 lb (24,500 kg). There are two national fish hatcheries in the state (Dale Hollow and Erwin), which together stock more than 1.9 million fish and produce more than 12 million trout eggs annually to support fishery mitigation efforts.

26 FORESTRY

Forests covered 14,404,000 acres (5,827,000 hectares) in 2004, or more than 50% of the state's total land area. Commercial timberlands in 2004 totaled 12,396,000 acres (5,017,000 hectares). In 2004, 86% of the forested area was privately owned, 10% federally owned, 3% state-owned, and 1% municipally owned. The counties of the Cumberland Plateau and Highland Rim are the major sources of timber products, and in Lewis, Perry, Polk, Scott, Sequatchie, Unicoi, and Wayne counties, more than 75% of the total area is commercial forest.

About 96% of Tennessee's timber is in hardwoods, and nearly one-half of that is in white and red oak. Of the softwoods, pine—shortleaf, loblolly, Virginia, pitch, and white—accounts for 80%. Red cedar accounts for about 5% of the softwood supply. Total lumber production in 2004 was 891 million board ft.

Wood products manufacturing is among the state's largest basic industries. The wood products industry in Tennessee falls into three main categories: paper and similar products, lumber and similar products, and furniture. Manufacturing uses only about a third of the wood grown by forests in Tennessee each year. The remaining two-thirds continues to accumulate on aging trees or is lost through decomposition of diseased and dead trees. The most common method of cutting timber in Tennessee has long been "high-grading," that is, cutting only the most valuable trees and leaving those of inferior quality and value. Clearcutting, patch cutting, and group selection are silviculturally preferable, but, with the exception of clearcutting on industry lands, are rarely practiced.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Tennessee in 2003 was \$606 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 6.5%. The USGS data ranked Tennessee as 23rd among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1.5% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003 crushed stone was the state's top nonfuel mineral commodity, accounting for over 50% of all nonfuel minerals produced, by value. In second place was cement (portland and masonry), followed by construction sand and gravel, zinc and ball clay. By volume, Tennessee in 2003, was the nation's leading producer of ball clay and gemstones. The state also ranked third in zinc and was ninth in the production of industrial stone and gravel.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed production of crushed stone to total 53.5 million metric tons, with a value of \$321 million, while construction sand and gravel output that year totaled 9.7 million metric tons, valued at \$54.8 million. Ball clay production in 2003 totaled 660,000 metric tons, with a value of \$28.1 million, with industrial sand and gravel output at 1.04 million metric tons, valued at \$22.5 million. In 2003, gemstone production consisted largely of cultured freshwater pearls and mother-of-pearl derived from freshwater mussel shells. The state was home to the nation's only freshwater pearl farm.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

The Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) is the principal supplier of power in the state, providing electricity to more than 100 cities and 50 rural cooperatives. As of 2003, Tennessee had 94 electrical power service providers, of which 62 were publicly owned and 25 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were investor owned, one was federally operated and three were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,923,615 retail customers. Of that total, 45,628 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 848,844 customers, while publicly owned providers had 2,029,100 customers. There were 40 federal customers and three were independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 20.893 million kW, with total production that same year at 92.221 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 96.2% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 54.921 billion kWh (59.6%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear plants in second place at 24.152 billion kWh (26.2%) and hydroelectric plants in third at 12.003 billion kWh (13%). Other renewable power sources, natural gas, pumped storage and petroleum fired plants accounted for the remaining output.

As of 2006, Tennessee had two operating nuclear power plants: the Sequoyah plant near Chattanooga and the Watts Bar plant between Chattanooga and Knoxville. Both plants are operated by the Tennessee Valley Authority.

Tennessee in 2004, had 32 producing coal mines, 20 of which were surface operations and 12 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 2,887,000 short tons, up from 2,564,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, surface mines accounted for 2,061,000 short tons. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 26 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons). Surface mine operators are now required to reclaim mined land. Most of the coal mined in the state is used for producing electricity, although some is used for home heating.

As of 2004, Tennessee had proven crude oil reserves of under 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 1,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 28th (27th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Tennessee had 400 producing oil wells and accounted for less than 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state had one refinery with a crude oil distillation capacity of 180,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Tennessee had 280 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In 2003 (the latest year for which data was available), marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1.803 billion cu ft (.051 billion cu m). There was no data available on the state's proven reserves of natural gas.

29 INDUSTRY

On the eve of the Civil War, only 1% of Tennessee's population was employed in manufacturing, mostly in the iron, cotton, lumber, and flour-milling industries. Rapid industrial growth took place

during the 20th century, however, and by 1981, Tennessee ranked third among the southeastern states and 15th in the United States in value of shipments. Tennessee's four major metropolitan areas, Memphis, Nashville, Knoxville, and Chattanooga, and collectively employ the largest share of all the state's industrial workers.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Tennessee's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$125.530 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$26.256 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic equipment manufacturing at \$14.584 billion; food manufacturing at \$13.293 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$12.858 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$8.926 billion.

In 2004, a total of 384,152 people in Tennessee were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 286,806 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 58,023, with 45,837 actual production workers. It was followed by food manufacturing at 36,361 employees (25,980 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing at 31,118 employees (24,628 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 30,169 employees (22,892 actual production workers); and chemical manufacturing with 25,918 employees (13,339 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Tennessee's manufacturing sector paid \$14.808 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.698 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$1.489 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.248 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.217 billion; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$1.159 billion.

30 COMMERCE

Tennessee has been an important inland commercial center for some 60 years. According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Tennessee's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$97.7 billion from 7,566 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 4,886 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,166 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 514 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$44.2 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$42.4 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$11.07 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Tennessee was listed as having 24,029 retail establishments with sales of \$60.1 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (3,339); clothing and clothing accessories stores (3,017); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,974); miscellaneous store retailers (2,783); and food and beverage stores (2,676). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$16.2 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$10.2 billion; food and beverage stores at \$7.4 billion; and gasoline stations at \$5.5 billion. A total of 304,652 people were employed by the retail sector in Tennessee that year.

Exporters located in Tennessee exported \$19.06 billion in merchandise during 2005. Major exports included transportation equipment, chemicals, and non-electric machinery.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Tennessee Division of Consumer Affairs is a division of the state's Department of Commerce and Insurance. Its mission is to serve and protect consumers from deceptive business practices. The Division's activities include consumer complaint mediation, litigation for violations of the Tennessee Consumer Protection Act, consumer education, investigation, registration of health clubs, and advise the legislature on legislation.

Because the Division of Consumer Affairs is under the state's Department of Commerce, the Tennessee Attorney General's Office has limited authority in regards to consumer affairs, although the office does have a Consumer Advocate and Protection Division. While the Attorney General's Office can initiate civil proceedings, its ability to initiate criminal proceedings is limited and must be done in conjunction with a local district attorney. In addition, the Office's ability to represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies is also limited, and it has no authority to administer consumer protection and education programs, or to handle formal consumer complaints. However, the Office can exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office cannot act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own, but is authorized to: initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the Division of Consumer Affairs and the Consumer Advocate and Protection Division of the Office of the Attorney general are located in Nashville.

32 BANKING

The first bank in Tennessee was the Bank of Nashville, chartered in 1807. Four years later, the Bank of the State of Tennessee was chartered at Knoxville. Branches were established at Nashville, Jonesboro, Clarksville, and Columbia. In 1817, nearly a dozen more banks were chartered in various frontier towns. The Civil War curtailed banking operations, but the industry began again immediately after cessation of hostilities.

As of June 2005, Tennessee had 202 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 121 state-chartered and 85 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Memphis market area, which includes portions of Mississippi and Arkansas accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 52 institutions and \$26.946 billion in deposits, followed by the Nashville-Davidson-Murfreesboro market area, with 49 institutions and \$25.208 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 11.9 of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$10.877 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 88.1% or \$80.600 billion in assets held.

The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans stood at 1.71% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 1.77% in 2004 and 2.43% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the high-

er rates charged on loans) for insured institutions stood at 4.24% as of fourth quarter 2005, up from 4.23% in 2004 and 4.19% in 2003.

Regulation of Tennessee's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the state's Department of Financial Institutions.

33 INSURANCE

In 2000, 34 property and casualty and 20 life insurance companies had home offices in Tennessee. Some 4.4 million individual life insurance policies worth over \$245.8 billion were in force in 2004; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$421 billion. The average coverage amount is \$55,400 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled at over \$1.2 billion.

As of 2003, there were 17 property and casualty and 15 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$7.9 billion. That year, there were 17,623 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$2.45 billion.

In 2004, 50% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 6% held individual policies, and 28% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 21% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state offers a three-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.8 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Insurance is not required, but motorists are expected to hold financial responsibility in the event of an accident. Liability limits in the state include bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$649.71.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Tennessee. In 2005, there were 870 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 2,650 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 106 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 38 NASDAQ companies, 39 NYSE listings, and 5 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had seven Fortune 500 companies; Caremark Rx (based in Nashville) ranked first in the state and 60th in the nation with revenues of over \$32.9 billion, followed by FedEx (Memphis), HCA-The Healthcare Company (Nashville), UnumProvident (Chattanooga), and Dollar General (Goodlettsville). All five of these top companies are listed on the NYSE.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The state budget is prepared annually by the Budget Division of the Tennessee Department of Finance and Administration and

submitted by the governor to the legislature every January. The fiscal year (FY) lasts from July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$10.2 billion for resources and \$9.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Tennessee were \$9.8 billion.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Tennessee collected \$10,007 million in tax revenues or \$1,678 per capita, which placed it 45th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 61.1% of the total; selective sales taxes, 15.3%; individual income taxes, 1.6%; corporate income taxes, 8.1%; and other taxes, 14.0%.

As of 1 January 2006, Tennessee state income tax was limited to dividends and interest income only. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.5%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$3,585,440,000 or \$608 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 41st highest nationally. Tennessee has no state level property taxes.

Tennessee taxes retail sales at a rate of 7%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2.75%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 9.75%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable, but at a lower rate. The tax on cigarettes is 20 cents per pack, which ranks 48th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Tennessee taxes gasoline at 21.4 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Tennessee citizens received \$1.30 in federal spending.

3⁷ ECONOMIC POLICY

Since World War II, Tennessee has aggressively sought new business and industry. The Department of Economic and Community Development (ECD) helps prospective firms locate industrial sites in communities throughout the state, and its representatives work with firms in Canada, Europe, and the Far East, as well as with domestic businesses. The department also administers special Appalachian regional programs in 50 counties and directs the state Office of Diversity Business Enterprise.

Tennessee's right-to-work law and relatively weak labor movement constitute important industrial incentives, as well as a low state tax burden. The counties and municipalities, moreover, offer tax exemptions on land, capital improvements, equipment, and machinery.

3⁸ HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.7 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 15.2 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 83.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 82% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.8 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 279.9; cancer, 215.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 68.7; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 51.9; and diabetes, 30.2. The mortality rate from HIV in-

Tennessee—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	23,920,818	4,059.19
General revenue	20,901,310	3,546.80
Intergovernmental revenue	9,016,698	1,530.07
Taxes	9,529,171	1,617.03
General sales	5,845,206	991.89
Selective sales	1,499,456	254.45
License taxes	1,045,665	177.44
Individual income tax	139,991	23.76
Corporate income tax	694,798	117.90
Other taxes	304,055	51.60
Current charges	1,537,571	260.91
Miscellaneous general revenue	817,870	138.79
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	3,019,508	512.39
Total expenditure	22,164,577	3,761.17
Intergovernmental expenditure	5,301,665	899.65
Direct expenditure	16,862,912	2,861.52
Current operation	13,268,720	2,251.61
Capital outlay	1,297,615	220.20
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,566,111	265.76
Assistance and subsidies	548,261	93.04
Interest on debt	182,205	30.92
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,979,900	505.67
Total expenditure	22,164,577	3,761.17
General expenditure	20,593,636	3,494.59
Intergovernmental expenditure	5,301,665	899.65
Direct expenditure	15,291,971	2,594.94
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	6,477,758	1,099.23
Public welfare	8,357,217	1,418.16
Hospitals	342,944	58.20
Health	962,310	163.30
Highways	1,545,491	262.26
Police protection	142,127	24.12
Correction	596,095	101.15
Natural resources	224,643	38.12
Parks and recreation	119,821	20.33
Government administration	495,428	84.07
Interest on general debt	182,205	30.92
Other and unallocable	1,147,597	194.74
Utility expenditure	4,830	.82
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	1,566,111	265.76
Debt at end of fiscal year	3,580,940	607.66
Cash and security holdings	31,003,166	5,261.02

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

fection was 6 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 13.1 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 59% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 26.1% of state residents were smokers, representing the third-highest percentage in the nation (following Kentucky and West Virginia).

In 2003, Tennessee had 125 community hospitals with about 20,300 beds. There were about 813,000 patient admissions that year and 10 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 12,400 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,187. Also in 2003, there were about 337 cer-

tified nursing facilities in the state with 37,958 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 88.3%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 71.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Tennessee had 262 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 874 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 3,027 dentists in the state.

Tennessee has four medical schools: two in Nashville (Vanderbilt University and Meharry Medical School), one at Johnson City (East Tennessee State University), and one at Memphis (University of Tennessee). The St. Jude Children's Research Hospital is well-known for its ongoing work in developing new treatments for genetic and terminal diseases among children.

With 28% of residents enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2004, Tennessee ranked with California and the District of Columbia as having the second highest percentage of residents on Medicaid (following Maine). About 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$8 million.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 168,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$209. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 849,703 persons (374,011 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$92.35 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$941.6 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Tennessee's TANF program is called Families First. In 2004, the state program had 190,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$165 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,069,600 Tennessee residents. This number included 627,080 retired workers, 112,330 widows and widowers, 171,850 disabled workers, 55,900 spouses, and 102,440 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 18% of the total state population and 94.2% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$929; widows and widowers, \$843; disabled workers, \$862; and spouses, \$459. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$472 per month; children of deceased workers, \$593; and children of disabled workers, \$255. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 160,521 Tennessee residents, averaging \$377 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 2,595,060 housing units in the state, 2,314,688 of which were occupied; 70% were owner-occupied. About 68.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Electricity and utility gas were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 111,374 units lacked telephone

service, 11,294 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 10,036 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.48 members.

In 2004, 44,800 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$110,198. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$954. Renters paid a median of \$564 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of over \$1.6 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$26.9 million in community development block grants.

4¹ EDUCATION

The state assumed responsibility for education in 1873, when the legislature established a permanent school fund and made schools free to all persons between the ages of 6 and 21. In 1917, an eight-year elementary and four-year secondary school system was set up. Thirty years later, enactment of the state sales and use tax enabled state authorities to increase teachers' salaries by about 100% and to provide capital funds for a variety of expanded educational programs. In the early 1980s, Tennessee further improved its educational system by offering incentive pay to its teachers.

The 21st Century Schools Program adopted by the Tennessee General Assembly in 1992 provided K-12 public schools with nearly \$1 billion in new state dollars—an increase of 90%. The program repealed 3,700 state rules and regulations, gave communities wide discretion over education decision-making, made local school systems more accountable for results, and funded 5,450 high-tech classrooms in Tennessee's public schools. In 1996/97, Tennessee pioneered a statewide network connecting every public school to museums, libraries, and databases available on the World Wide Web. Tennessee's Literacy 2000 initiative (begun in 1987) improved the adult literacy rate by 24% in its first four years.

In 2004, 82.9% of Tennessee residents age 25 and older were high school graduates; 24.3% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher. The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Tennessee's public schools stood at 928,000. Of these, 674,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 254,000 attended high school. Approximately 70.7% of the students were white, 25% were black, 2.8% were Hispanic, 1.3% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 925,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 929,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 0.1% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$6.7 billion, or \$6,504 per student, the seventh-lowest among the 50 states. There were 87,055 students enrolled in 551 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Tennessee scored 271 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 261,899 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 21.4% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Tennessee had 95 degree-granting institutions. The University of Tennessee system has principal campuses at Knoxville, Memphis, Martin, and Chattanooga. Components of the State University and Community College System of Tennessee include Memphis State University (the

largest), Tennessee Technological University at Cookeville, East Tennessee State University at Johnson City, Austin Peay State University at Clarksville, Tennessee State University at Nashville, and Middle Tennessee State University at Murfreesboro, along with 13 two-year community colleges located throughout the state. Well-known private colleges are Vanderbilt University at Nashville, the University of the South at Sewanee, and Rhodes College at Memphis. Vanderbilt has schools of medicine, law, divinity, nursing, business, and education, as well as an undergraduate program. Loan and grant programs are administered by the Tennessee Student Assistance Corporation.

42 ARTS

The Tennessee Arts Commission was created in 1967 and offers several grant opportunities for programs including Arts Education, the Individual Artist Fellowship, and Arts Build Communities. As of 2005, the Greater Memphis Arts Council was the eighth-largest United Arts Fund. Active in promoting the cultural and economic growth of the city, members help to encourage new businesses to relocate in Memphis based on the city's cultural advantages. In 2005, the Tennessee Arts Commission and other Tennessee arts organizations received 19 grants totaling \$822,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts.

Humanities Tennessee, founded in 1973, sponsors a number of annual programs. As of 2005, annual programs included the Southern Festival of Books, the Tennessee Young Writers' Workshop, the Tennessee Community History Program, and Letters About Literature. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,461,572 for 25 state programs.

Each of Tennessee's major cities has a symphony orchestra. The best known are the Memphis Symphony and the Nashville Symphony, the latter of which makes its home in the Tennessee Performing Arts Center. The Nashville Symphony began in 1920 as The Symphony Society—a group of amateur and professional musical artists. In 2005, the symphony's Principal Conductor Kenneth Schermerhorn passed away; he had conducted the symphony for over 20 years. Other buildings included in the Tennessee Performing Arts Center are three performing arts theaters and the State Museum. As of 2005, the Tennessee State museum was considered to be one of the largest state museums in the United States. The museum houses permanent collections highlighting the state's history, as well hosts special exhibits such as the 2006 *Old Glory: An American Treasure Comes Home*, an exhibition celebrating the return of the Civil War Old Glory flag to Tennessee after more than 100 years. The major operatic troupes are Nashville Opera, Knoxville Opera, and Opera Memphis. Opera Memphis celebrated 50 years of performing in 2006.

Nashville is known as "Music City, USA," the Grand Ole Opry, Country Music Hall of Fame, Ryman Auditorium, and numerous recording studios are located there. Among the leading art galleries are the Dixon Gallery and Gardens, the Cheekwood Botanical Gardens and Museum of Art in Nashville, the Knoxville Museum of Art, the Hunter Museum of American Art in Chattanooga, and the Brooks Museum of Art in Memphis founded in 1916—the oldest and largest fine arts museum in the state. The Brooks Museum's permanent collection highlights a variety of genres and eras including the Italian Renaissance and Baroque, French Impressionists, and a number of 20th century artists.

There are several state and local festivals reflecting the music and arts of the state. Elvis Week, in August, is celebrated each year in Memphis. Graceland is the site of the annual Elvis Presley Birthday Celebration (January) and Christmas at Graceland. The Dollywood theme park in Pigeon Forge, created by singer Dolly Parton, presents several festivals and musical events each year. The Tennessee Association of Craft Artists presents three annual fairs. The Memphis in May International Festival includes the following programs: the Beale Street Music Festival, International Week, the World Championship Barbecue Cooking Contest, and Sunset Symphony (featuring the Memphis Symphony).

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Tennessee had 184 public library systems, with a total of 285 libraries, of which 101 were branches. In that same year, the state's public libraries had 10,080,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 21,227,000. The system also had 335,000 audio and 299,000 video items, 9,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and two bookmobiles. Libraries and library associations were formed soon after Tennessee became a state. The Dickson Library at Charlotte was founded in 1811, and the Nashville Library Company in 1813. Not until 1854, however, was the first state-maintained library established. Andrew Johnson, the governor, requested a library appropriation of \$5,000, telling legislators that he wanted other Tennesseans to have the opportunities that had been denied him.

Today, the institution he founded, the State Library at Nashville, with more than 637,371 volumes, has a renowned collection of state materials and is the repository for state records. In all, there are 16 public library systems in Tennessee. Their combined book stock exceeds 9.6 million volumes, and their total circulation is over 21 million. The largest libraries are the Vanderbilt University Library at Nashville (2,512,072 volumes), Memphis-Shelby County Library (1,938,685), Memphis State University Libraries (1,067,624), University of Tennessee at Knoxville Library (2,013,273), Knoxville-Knox County Library (865,088), and Chattanooga-Hamilton County Library (806,285). In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$75,791,000 and included \$438,000 in federal funds and \$1,483,000 in state funds.

Tennessee has more than 127 museums and historic sites. The Tennessee State Museum in Nashville displays exhibits on pioneer life, military traditions, evangelical religion, and presidential lore. The Museum of Appalachia, near Norris, attempts an authentic replica of early Appalachian life, with more than 20,000 pioneer relics on display in several log cabins. Displays of solar, nuclear, and other energy technologies are featured at the American Museum of Science and Energy, at Oak Ridge. There are floral collections at the Goldsmith Civic Garden Center in Memphis, and the Tennessee Botanical Gardens and Fine Arts Center in Nashville.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

The first postal service across the state, by stagecoach, began operations in the early 1790s.

As of 2004, 92.8% of Tennessee's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 2,337,367 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 54.9% of Tennessee households had a computer and 45.6% had Internet

access. By June 2005, there were 464,917 high-speed lines in Tennessee, 414,608 residential and 50,309 for business.

Tennessee had 30 major AM stations and 80 major FM stations in 2005. There were 31 television stations in operation in 2005. In 1999, the Nashville area had 826,090 television households, 63% of which received cable. The Memphis area had 623,110 television homes, 64% of which ordered cable.

About 81,858 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005, there were 14 morning newspapers, 12 evening dailies, and 18 Sunday papers.

The following table lists leading Tennessee newspapers with their approximate daily circulation in 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Chattanooga	<i>Times Free Press</i> (m,S)	86,968	99,775
Knoxville	<i>News-Sentinel</i> (m,S)	113,994	153,278
Memphis	<i>Commercial Appeal</i> (m,S)	179,468	235,889
Nashville	<i>Tennessean</i> (m,S)	170,361	238,126

Several dozen trade publications, such as *Southern Lumberman*, appear in Nashville, the state's major publishing center, where there is also a thriving religious publishing industry.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 4,525 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 3,275 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Nashville is a center for Tennessee cultural and educational organizations. Among them are the American Association for State and Local History, the International Bluegrass Music Association, the Western Music Association, the Country Music Association, the Tennessee Historical Commission, and the Gospel Music Association. The Center for Southern Folklore is based in Memphis. The Tennessee Folklore Society is in Murfreesboro.

Professional and business associations include the American Board of Veterinary Practitioners, the Southern Cotton Association, National Cotton Council of America, the Tennessee Walking Horse Trainers' Association, and National Hardwood Lumber Manufacturing Association.

Several Christian denominations and organizations have their headquarters or major departmental offices in Tennessee. These include AMG International, Church of God World Missions, Gideons International, the National Association of Free Will Baptists, the National Baptist Convention-USA, the Presbyterian Evangelistic Fellowship, the United Methodist Youth Organization, and the World Convention of Churches of Christ.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

The natural beauty of Tennessee, combined with the activities of the Department of Tourist Development, has made tourism a major industry in the state. Tennessee was the first state to create a government department devoted solely to the promotion of tourism. In 2003, Tennessee employed 141,200 people in tourism related jobs.

Leading tourist attractions include Fort Loudoun, built by the British in 1757; the American Museum of Science and Energy at Oak Ridge; the William Blount Mansion at Knoxville; the Beale

Street Historic District in Memphis, home of W. C. Handy, the "father of the blues"; Graceland, the Memphis estate of Elvis Presley, the Sun Music Co. which produced Elvis' records, the National Civil Rights Museum; and Opryland USA and the Grand Ole Opry at Nashville. There are three presidential homes—Andrew Johnson's at Greeneville, Andrew Jackson's Hermitage near Nashville, and James K. Polk's at Columbia. Pinson Mounds, near Jackson, offers outstanding archaeological treasures and the remains of an Indian city. Reservoirs and lakes attract thousands of anglers and water sports enthusiasts. The top attractions in 1998 included (with annual attendance records): Dollywood (2,200,000), Tennessee Aquarium (1,150,148), Bristol Motor Sports (1,050,000), Ober Gatlinburg (1,004,659), and Casey Jones Village (840,000). Memphis hosts the Memphis in May Festival which features jazz, barbecue, art and entertainment throughout the month. The Memphis Zoo is one of three zoos in the United States to feature pandas. Memphis is also home to Federal Express.

There are 33 state parks, almost all of which have camping facilities. Altogether, they cover 88,160 acres (35,678 hectares). Among the most visited state parks are the Meeman-Shelby Forest in Shelby County, Montgomery Bell in Dickson County, Cedars of Lebanon in Wilson County, and Natchez Trace in Henderson and Carroll counties. Cherokee National Park is the most visited national park in Tennessee (10,500,000). Extending into North Carolina, the Great Smoky Mountains National Park covers 241,207 acres (97,613 hectares) in Tennessee and receives approximately nine million visitors annually. Dollywood Amusement Park is in Pigeon Forge in the Great Smoky Mountains. Other popular national parks include the TVA's Land Between the Lakes National Historic Park (2,081,053), Cumberland Gap National Historic Park (1,500,000), and Chickamauga-Chattanooga National Military Park (1,022,500).

48 SPORTS

Tennessee has three major professional sports teams, the Titans of the National Football League, who relocated to Nashville from Houston before the 1997 season; the Nashville Predators of the National Hockey League, who began play in 1999; and the Memphis Grizzlies, who relocated to Memphis from Vancouver in 2001. Minor league baseball teams play throughout the state including cities such as Chattanooga, Memphis, Elizabethton, Johnson City, Jackson, Kingsport, Knoxville, Greeneville, and Nashville.

Tennessee's colleges and universities provide the major fall and winter sports. The University of Tennessee Volunteers and Vanderbilt University Commodores, in the Southeastern Conference, compete nationally in football, basketball, and baseball. Austin Peay and Tennessee Technological universities belong to the Ohio Valley Conference. The University of Tennessee won the Sugar Bowl in 1943, 1971, 1986, and 1991, the Fiesta Bowl in 1999, and the Florida Citrus Bowl in 1996 and 1997. The Volunteers were named national champions in 1951 and then again in 1999. The University of Tennessee's women's basketball team, the Lady Vols, won National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) titles in 1987, 1989, 1991, 1996, 1997, and 1998. They have won more games than any other NCAA basketball team in the country. Other annual sporting events include the Iroquois steeplechase in Nashville in May and two NASCAR races at the Bristol Motor Speedway, one in March and one in August. Basketball Hall of

Fame member Oscar Robertson and track and field legend Wilma Rudolph were both born and raised in Tennessee.

49 FAMOUS TENNESSEANS

Andrew Jackson (b.South Carolina, 1767–1845), the seventh president, moved to Tennessee as a young man. He won renown in the War of 1812 and became the first Democratic president in 1828. Jackson's close friend and associate, James Knox Polk (b.North Carolina, 1795–1849), came to Tennessee at the age of 10. He was elected the nation's 11th president in 1844 and served one term. Andrew Johnson (b.North Carolina, 1808–75) also a Democrat, remained loyal to the Union during the Civil War and was elected vice president with Abraham Lincoln in 1864. He became president upon Lincoln's assassination in 1865 and served out his predecessor's second term. Impeached because of a dispute over Reconstruction policies and presidential power, Johnson escaped conviction by one vote in 1868. Albert Gore Jr. (b.Washington, DC, 1948), was elected vice president in 1992 and 1996 on the Democratic ticket with Bill Clinton; Gore, whose father was a prominent US senator from Tennessee, had previously served in the Senate as well.

Supreme Court justices from Tennessee include John Catron (b.Pennsylvania, 1786–1865), Howell Jackson (1832–95), James C. McReynolds (b.Kentucky, 1862–1946), and Edward T. Sanford (1865–1930). Tennesseans who became cabinet officials include Secretary of State Cordell Hull (1871–1955), secretaries of war John Eaton (1790–1856) and John Bell (1797–1869), Secretary of the Treasury George Campbell (b.Scotland, 1769–1848), and attorneys general Felix Grundy (b.Virginia, 1777–1840) and James C. McReynolds.

Other nationally prominent political figures from Tennessee are Cary Estes Kefauver (1903–63), two-term US senator who ran unsuccessfully for vice president in 1956 on the Democratic ticket; Albert Gore Sr. (1907–98), three-term member of the US Senate; and Howard Baker (b.1925), who in 1966 became the first popularly elected Republican senator in Tennessee history. Three Tennesseans have been speaker of the US House of Representatives: James K. Polk, John Bell, and Joseph W. Byrns (1869–1936). Nancy Ward (1738–1822) was an outstanding Cherokee leader, and Sue Shelton White (1887–1943) played a major role in the campaign for women's suffrage.

Tennessee history features several military leaders and combat heroes. John Sevier (b.Virginia, 1745–1815), the first governor of the state, defeated British troops at Kings Mountain in the Revolution. David "Davy" Crockett (1786–1836) was a frontiersman who fought the British with Jackson in the War of 1812. Sam Houston (b.Virginia, 1793–1863) also fought in the War of 1812 and was governor of Tennessee before migrating to Texas. Nathan Bedford Forrest (1821–77) and Sam Davis (1842–63) were heroes of the Civil War. Sergeant Alvin C. York (1887–1964) won the Medal of Honor for his bravery in World War I.

Cordell Hull was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1945 for his work on behalf of the United Nations. In 1971, Earl W. Sutherland Jr. (b.Kansas 1915–75), a biomedical scientist at Vanderbilt University, won a Nobel Prize for his discoveries concerning the mechanisms of hormones. Outstanding educators include Philip Lindsey (1786–1855), a Presbyterian minister and first president of the University of Nashville, and Alexander Heard (b.Georgia,

1917), nationally known political scientist and chancellor of Vanderbilt University.

Famous Tennessee writers are Mary Noailles Murfree (1850–1922), who used the pseudonym Charles Egbert Craddock; influential poet and critic John Crowe Ransom (1888–1974); author and critic James Agee (1909–55), posthumously awarded a Pulitzer Prize for his novel *A Death in the Family*; poet Randall Jarrell (1914–65), winner of two National Book Awards; and Wilma Dykeman (b.1920), novelist and historian. Peter Taylor (Trenton, Tenn., 1917–94) won a Pulitzer in 1987 for *A Summons to Memphis*. Sportswriter Grantland Rice (1880–1954) was born in Murfreesboro.

Tennessee has long been a center of popular music. Musician and songwriter William C. Handy (1873–1958) wrote "St Louis Blues" and "Memphis Blues," among other classics. Bessie Smith (1898?–1937) was a leading blues singer. Elvis Presley (b.Mississippi, 1935–77) fused rhythm-and-blues with country-and-western styles to become one of the most popular entertainers in US history. Other Tennessee-born singers are Dinah Shore (1917–1994), Aretha Franklin (b.1942), and Dolly Parton (b.1946). Morgan Freeman, star of movies including *Driving Miss Daisy*, was born in Memphis in 1937.

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TEXAS

State of Texas



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Caddo word *tavshas*, meaning “allies” or “friends.” **NICK-NAME:** The Lone Star State. **CAPITAL:** Austin. **ENTERED UNION:** 29 December 1845 (28th). **SONG:** “Texas, Our Texas;” “The Eyes of Texas.” **MOTTO:** Friendship. **FLAG:** At the hoist is a vertical bar of blue with a single white five-pointed star; two horizontal bars of white and red cover the remainder of the flag. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A five-pointed star is encircled by olive and live oak branches, surrounded with the words “The State of Texas.” **BIRD:** Mockingbird. **FISH:** Guadalupe bass. **FLOWER:** Bluebonnet; prickly pear cactus (plant). **TREE:** Pecan. **GEM:** Topaz. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Confederate Heroes Day, 19 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Texas Independence Day, 2 March; Cesar Chavez Day, 31 March (optional); Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April (optional); San Jacinto Day, 21 April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Emancipation Day, 19 June; Independence Day, 4 July; Lyndon B. Johnson’s Birthday, 27 August; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Rosh Hashanah and Yom Kippur, September or October (optional); Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the day following; Christmas, 24, 25, and 26 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the west south-central United States, Texas is the largest of the 48 conterminous states. Texas’s US rank slipped to second when Alaska entered the Union in 1959.

The total area of Texas is 266,807 sq mi (691,030 sq km), of which land comprises 262,017 sq mi (678,624 sq km) and inland water 4,790 sq mi (12,406 sq km). The state’s land area represents 8.8% of the US mainland and 7.4% of the nation as a whole. The state’s maximum E–W extension is 801 mi (1,289 km); its extreme N–S distance is 773 mi (1,244 km).

Texas is bordered on the N by Oklahoma and Arkansas (with part of the line formed by the Red River); on the E by Arkansas and Louisiana (with part of the Louisiana line defined by the Sabine River); on the SE by the Gulf of Mexico; on the SW by the Mexican states of Tamaulipas, Nuevo León, Coahuila, and Chihuahua (with the line formed by the Rio Grande); and on the W by New Mexico. The state’s geographic center is in McCulloch County, 15 mi (24 km) NE of Brady.

Large islands in the Gulf of Mexico belonging to Texas are Galveston, Matagorda, and Padre. The boundary length of the state totals 3,029 mi (4,875 km), including a general Gulf of Mexico coastline of 367 mi (591 km); the tidal shoreline is 3,359 mi (5,406 km).

²TOPOGRAPHY

Texas’s major physiographic divisions are the Gulf Coastal Plain in the east and southeast; the North Central Plains, covering most of central Texas; the Great Plains, extending from west-central Texas up into the panhandle; and the mountainous trans-Pecos area in the extreme west.

Within the Gulf Coastal Plain are the Piney Woods, an extension of western Louisiana that introduces into East Texas for about 125 mi (200 km), and the Post Oak Belt, a flat region of mixed

soil that gives way to the rolling prairie of the Blackland Belt, the state’s most densely populated region. The Balcones Escarpment (so-called by the Spanish because its sharp profile suggests a balcony), a geological fault line running from the Rio Grande near Del Rio across central Texas, separates the Gulf Coastal Plain and Rio Grande Plain from the North Central Plains and south-central Hill Country, and in so doing, divides East Texas from West Texas, watered Texas from dry Texas, and (culturally speaking) the Old South from the burgeoning West. Sea level at the Gulf of Mexico is the lowest elevation of the state.

The North Central Plains extend from the Blackland Belt to the Cap Rock Escarpment, a natural boundary carved by erosion to heights of nearly 1,000 ft (300 m) in some places. Much of this plains region is rolling prairie, but the dude ranches of the Hill Country and the mineral-rich Burnet-Llano Basin are also found here. West of the Cap Rock Escarpment are the Great Plains, stretching north–south from the Panhandle Plains to the Edwards Plateau, just north of the Balcones Escarpment. Along the western edge of the panhandle and extending into New Mexico is the Llano Estacado (Staked Plains), an extension of the High Plains lying east of the base of the Rocky Mountains.

The trans-Pecos region, between the Pecos River and the Rio Grande, contains the highest point in the state: Guadalupe Peak, with an altitude of 8,749 ft (2,668 m), part of the Guadalupe Range extending southward from New Mexico into western Texas for about 20 mi (32 km). Also in the trans-Pecos region is the Diablo Plateau, which has no runoff to the sea and holds its scant water in lakes that often evaporate entirely. Farther south are the Davis Mountains, with a number of peaks rising above 7,000 ft (2,100 m), and Big Bend country (surrounded on three sides by the Rio Grande), whose canyons sometimes reach depths of nearly 2,000 ft (600 m). The Chisos Mountains, also exceeding 7,000 ft (2,100

m) at some points stand just north and west of the Rio Grande. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,700 ft (519 m).

For its vast expanse, Texas boasts few natural lakes. Caddo Lake, which lies in Texas and Louisiana, is the state's largest natural lake, though its present length of 20 mi (32 km) includes waters added by dam construction in Louisiana. Two artificial reservoirs—Amistad (shared with Mexico), near Del Rio, and Toledo Bend (shared with Louisiana) on the Sabine River—have respective storage capacities exceeding 3 million and 4 million acre-ft, and the Sam Rayburn Reservoir (covering 179 sq mi/464 sq km) has a capacity of 2.9 million acre-ft. All together, the state contains close to 200 major reservoirs, eight of which can store more than 1 million acre-ft of water. From the air, Texas looks as well watered as Minnesota, but the lakes are artificial, and much of the soil is dry.

One reason Texas has so many reservoirs is that it is blessed with a number of major river systems, although none is navigable for more than 50 mi (80 km) inland. Starting from the west, the Rio Grande, a majestic stream in some places but a trickling trough in others, imparts life to the Texas desert and serves as the international boundary with Mexico. Its total length of 1,896 mi (3,051 km), including segments in Colorado and New Mexico, makes the Rio Grande the nation's second-longest river, exceeded only by the Missouri-Mississippi river system. The Colorado River is the longest river wholly within the state, extending about 600 mi (970 km) on its journey across central and southeastern Texas to the Gulf of Mexico. Other important rivers include the Nueces, in whose brushy valley the range cattle industry began; the San Antonio, which stems from springs within the present city limits and flows, like most Texas rivers, to the Gulf of Mexico; the Brazos, which rises in New Mexico and stretches diagonally for about 840 mi (1,350 km) across Texas; the Trinity, which serves Fort Worth and Dallas; the San Jacinto, a short river but one of the most heavily trafficked in North America, overlapping the Houston Ship Channel, which connects the Port of Houston with the Gulf; the Neches, which makes an ocean port out of Beaumont; the Sabine, which has the largest water discharge (6,800,000 acre-ft) at its mouth of any Texas river; the Red, forming part of the northern boundary; and the Canadian, which crosses the Texas panhandle from New Mexico to Oklahoma, bringing moisture to the cattle raisers and wheat growers of that region. In all, Texas has about 3,700 identifiable streams, many of which dry up in the summer and flood during periods of rainfall.

Because of its extensive outcroppings of limestone, extending westward from the Balcones Escarpment, Texas contains a maze of caverns. Among the better-known caves are Longhorn Cavern in Burnet County; Wonder Cave, near San Marcos; the Caverns of Sonora, at Sonora; and Jack Pit Cave, in Menard County, which, with 19,000 ft (5,800 m) of passages, is the most extensive cave yet mapped in the state.

About 1 billion years ago, shallow seas covered much of Texas. After the seas receded, the land dropped gradually over millions of years, leaving a thick sediment that was then compressed into a long mountain range called the Ouachita Fold Belt. The sea was eventually restricted to a zone in West Texas called the Permian Basin, a giant evaporation pan holding gypsum and salt deposits hundreds of feet deep. As the mountain chain across central Texas eroded and the land continued to subside, the Rocky Mountains

were uplifted, leaving deep cuts in Big Bend country and creating the Llano Estacado. The Gulf of Mexico subsided rapidly, depositing sediment accumulations several thousand feet deep, while salt domes formed over vast petroleum and sulfur deposits. All this geologic activity also deposited quicksilver in the Terlingua section of the Big Bend, built up the Horseshoe Atoll (a buried reef in west-central Texas that is the largest limestone reservoir in the nation), created uranium deposits in southern Texas, and preserved the oil-bearing Jurassic rocks of the northeast.

3 CLIMATE

Texas's great size and topographic variety make climatic description difficult. Brownsville, at the mouth of the Rio Grande, has had no measurable snowfall during all the years that records have been kept, but Vega, in the panhandle, averages 23 in (58 cm) of snowfall per year. Near the Louisiana border, rainfall exceeds 56 in (142 cm) annually, while in parts of extreme West Texas, rainfall averages less than 8 in (20 cm). Average annual precipitation in Dallas is about 33.3 in (84 cm); in El Paso, 8.6 in (21 cm); and in Houston, 47.8 in (121.4 cm).

Generally, a maritime climate prevails along the Gulf coast, with continental conditions inland; the Balcones Escarpment is the main dividing line between the two zones, but they are not completely isolated from each other's influence. Texas has two basic seasons—a hot summer that may last from April through October, and a winter that starts in November and usually lasts until March. When summer ends, the state is too dry for autumn foliage, except in East Texas. Temperatures in El Paso, in the southwest, range from an average January minimum of 31°F (0°C) to an average July maximum of 95°F (35°C); at Amarillo, in the panhandle, from 22°F (-5°C) in January to 91°F (32°C) in July; and at Galveston, on the Gulf, from 48°F (9°C) in January to 88°F (31°C) in August. Perhaps the most startling contrast is in relative humidity, averaging 59% in the morning in El Paso, 73% in Amarillo, and 83% in Galveston. In the Texas panhandle, the average date of the first freeze is 1 November; in the lower Rio Grande Valley, 16 December. The last freeze arrives in the panhandle on 15 April, and in the lower Rio Grande Valley on 30 January. The valley thus falls only six weeks short of having a 12-month growing season while the panhandle approximates the growing season of the upper Midwest.

Record temperatures range from -23°F (-31°C) at Seminole, on 8 February 1933, to 120°F (49°C) at Seymour in north-central Texas on 12 August 1936. The greatest annual rainfall was 109 in (277 cm), measured in 1873 at Clarksville, just below the Red River in northeast Texas; the least annual rainfall, 1.786 in (4.47 cm), was recorded at Wink, near the New Mexico line, in 1956. Thrall, in central Texas, received 38.2 in (97 cm) of rain in 24 hours on 9–10 September 1921. Alvin, in Brazoria County on the Gulf Coast, had 43 in (109 cm) of rain on 25–26 July 1979, a national record for the most rainfall during a 24-hour period. Romero, on the New Mexico border, received a record 65 in (165 cm) of snow in the winter of 1923–24, and Hale Center, near Lubbock, measured 33 in (84 cm) during one storm in February 1956. The highest sustained wind velocity in Texas history, 145 mph (233 km/hr), occurred when Hurricane Carla hit Matagorda and Port Lavaca along the Gulf coast on 11 September 1961.

Hurricanes strike the Gulf coast about once every decade, usually in September or October. A hurricane on 19–20 August 1886 leveled the port of Indianola; the town (near present-day Port Lavaca) was never rebuilt. Galveston was the site of the most destructive storm in US history: on 8–9 September 1900, a hurricane blew across the island of 38,000 residents, leaving at least 6,000 dead (the exact total has never been ascertained) and leveling most of the city. A storm of equal intensity hit Galveston in mid-August 1915, but this time, the city was prepared; its new seawall held the toll to 275 deaths and \$50 million worth of property damage. Because of well-planned damage-prevention and evacuation procedures, Hurricane Carla—at least as powerful as any previous hurricane—claimed no more than 34 lives.

Texas was not left unscathed by the hurricane season of 2005, which devastated much of the Gulf Coast region, particularly in Louisiana, Mississippi, and Florida. Hurricane Katrina, which made landfall at Buras, Louisiana on 29 August 2005, caused damage to Texas-operated oil production sites in the Gulf of Mexico. This led to the reduction of oil production by 95% during the immediate aftermath of the storm. Thousands of residents from New Orleans were evacuated to locations in Texas as 80% of their city was flooded by the storm and resulting levee damage. A month later, Hurricane Rita made landfall near the Texas–Louisiana border on 24 September 2005 as a Category 3 storm. Two oil refineries in Port Arthur were damaged and extensive flooding occurred in the region. As of early 2006, the estimated cost of damage for Hurricane Rita was about \$10 billion in total losses.

Texas also lies in the path of “Tornado Alley,” stretching across the Great Plains to Canada. The worst tornado in recent decades struck downtown Waco on 11 May 1953, killing 114 persons, injuring another 597, and destroying or damaging some 1,050 homes and 685 buildings. At least 115 tornadoes—the greatest concentration on record—occurred with Hurricane Beulah during 19–23 September 1967; the 67 tornadoes on 20 September set a record for the largest number of tornadoes on one day in the state.

Floods and droughts have also taken their toll in Texas. The worst flood occurred on 26–28 June 1954, when Hurricane Alice moved inland up the Rio Grande for several hundred miles, dropping 27 in (69 cm) of rain on Pandale above Del Rio. The Rio Grande rose 50 to 60 ft (15–18 m) within 48 hours, as a wall of water 86 ft (26 m) high in the Pecos River canyon fed it from the north. A Pecos River bridge built with a 50-ft (15-m) clearance was washed out, as was the international bridge linking Laredo with Mexico. Periodic droughts afflicted Texas in the 1930s and 1950s.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

More than 500 species of grasses covered Texas when the Spanish and Anglo-Americans arrived. Although plowing and lack of soil conservation destroyed a considerable portion of this rich heritage, grassy pastureland still covers about two-thirds of the state. Bermuda grass is a favorite ground cover, especially an improved type called Coastal Bermuda, introduced after World War II. The prickly pear cactus is a mixed blessing: like the cedar and mesquite, it saps moisture and inhibits grass growth, but it does retain moisture in periods of drought and will survive the worst dry spells, so (with the spines burned off) it can be of great value to ranchers as cattle feed in difficult times. The bean of the mesquite

also provides food for horses and cattle when they have little else to eat, and its wood is a favorite in barbecues and fireplaces.

Texas has more than 20 native trees, of which the catclaw, flowering mimosa, huisache, black persimmon, huajillo, and weeping juniper (unique to the Big Bend) are common only in Texas. Cottonwood grows along streams in almost every part of the state, while cypress inhabits the swamps. The flowering dogwood in East Texas draws tourists to that region every spring, and the largest bois d’arc trees in the United States are grown in the Red River Valley. Probably the most popular shade tree is the American (white) elm, which, like the gum tree, has considerable commercial importance. The magnolia is treasured for its grace and beauty; no home of substance in southeastern Texas would have a lawn without one. Of the principal hardwoods, the white oak is the most commercially valuable, the post oak the most common, and the live oak the most desirable for shade; the pecan is the state tree. Pines grow in two areas about 600 mi (970 km) apart—deep East Texas and the trans-Pecos region. In southeast Texas stands the Big Thicket, a unique area originally covering more than 3 million acres (1.2 million hectares) but now reduced to about one-tenth of that by lumbering. Gonzales County, in south-central Texas, is the home of palmettos, orchids, and other semitropical plants not found anywhere else in the state. Texas wild rice and several cactus species are classified as endangered throughout the state.

Possibly the rarest mammal in Texas is the red wolf, which inhabits the marshland between Houston and Beaumont, one of the most thickly settled areas of the state; owing to human encroachment and possible hybridization with coyotes, the red wolf is steadily disappearing despite efforts by naturalists throughout the United States to save it. On the other hand, Texans claim to have the largest number of white-tailed deer of any state in the Union, an estimated 3 million. Although the Hill Country is the white-tailed deer’s natural habitat, the species has been transplanted successfully throughout the state.

Perhaps the most unusual mammal in Texas is the nine-banded armadillo. Originally confined to the Rio Grande border, the armadillo has gradually spread northward and eastward, crossing the Red River into Oklahoma and the Mississippi River into the Deep South. It accomplished these feats of transport by sucking in air until it becomes buoyant and then swimming across the water. The armadillo is likewise notable for always having its young in litters of identical quadruplets. The chief mammalian predators are the coyote, bobcat, and mountain lion.

Texas attracts more than 825 different kinds of birds, with bird life most abundant in the lower Rio Grande Valley and coastal plains. Argument continues as to whether Texas is the last home of the ivory-billed woodpecker, which lives in inaccessible swamps, preferably in cutover timber. Somewhat less rare is the pileated woodpecker, which also inhabits the forested lowlands. Other characteristic birds include the yellow-trimmed hooded warbler, which frequents the canebrakes and produces one of the most melodious songs of any Texas bird; the scissor-tailed flycatcher, known popularly as the scissor-tail; Attwater’s greater prairie chicken, now declining because of inadequate protection from hunters and urbanization; the mockingbird, the state bird; and the roadrunner, also known as paisano and chaparral. Rare birds include the Mexican jacana, with a flesh comb and bright yellow-green wings; the white-throated swift, one of the world’s fastest

flyers; the Texas canyon wren, with a musical range of more than an octave; and the Colima warbler, which breeds only in the Chisos Mountains. In the Arkansas National Wildlife Refuge, along the central Gulf coast, lives the whooping crane, which has long been on the endangered list. Controversy surrounds the golden eagle, protected by federal law but despised by ranchers for allegedly preying on lambs and other young livestock.

Texas has its fair share of reptiles, including more than 100 species of snake, 16 of them poisonous, notably the deadly Texas coral snake. There are 10 kinds of rattlesnake, and some parts of West Texas hold annual rattlesnake roundups. Disappearing with the onset of urbanization are the horned toad, a small iguana-like lizard; the vinegarroon, a stinging scorpion; and the tarantula, a large, black, hairy spider that is scary to behold but basically harmless.

Caddo Lake, a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance, is considered to be the site of the most diverse, native freshwater fish communities in the state. These include the American paddlefish and the American eel. The area contains what is considered to be one of the best examples of a mature bald cypress swamp-land in the southern states. Inventories of the species found in the wetland include 189 species of trees and shrubs, 75 grasses, 42 woody vines, and 802 herbaceous plants. Animal life includes 216 species of bird, 47 mammal species, and 90 types of reptiles and amphibians.

In addition to providing protection for the animals on federal lists of threatened and endangered species, the state has its own wildlife protection programs. Among the animals classified as non-game (not hunted) and therefore given special consideration are the lesser yellow bat, spotted dolphin, reddish egret, white-tailed hawk, wood stork, Big Bend gecko, rock rattlesnake, Louisiana pine snake, white-lipped frog, giant toad, toothless blindcat, and blue sucker. In April 2006, The US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 28 Texas plant species as threatened or endangered, including ashy dogweed, black lace cactus, large-fruited sand-verbena, South Texas ambrosia, Terlingua creek cats-eye, Texas snowbells, Texas trailing phlox, and Texas wild-rice. In the same report, 62 animal species were listed as threatened or endangered in Texas (up from 43 in 1997), including the Mexican long-nosed bat, Louisiana black bear, bald eagle, ocelot, Mexican spotted owl, Texas blind salamander, Houston toad, black-capped vireo, two species of whale, and five species of turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Conservation in Texas officially began with the creation of a State Department of Forestry in 1915; 11 years later, this body was reorganized as the Texas Forest Service, the name it retains today. The state's Soil Conservation Service was created in 1935.

The scarcity of water is the one environmental crisis every Texan must live with. Much of the state has absorbent soils, a high evaporation rate, vast areas without trees to hold moisture, and a rolling terrain susceptible to rapid runoff. The Texas Water Commission and Water Development Board direct the state's water supply and conservation programs. Various county and regional water authorities have been constituted, as have several water commissions for river systems. Probably the most complete system is that of the three Colorado River authorities—lower, central, and upper. The oldest of these is the Lower Colorado River Authority, created in

1934 by the Texas legislature to “control, store, preserve, and distribute” the waters of the Colorado River and its feeder streams. The authority exercises control over a 10-county area stretching from above Austin to the Gulf coast, overseeing flood control, municipal and industrial water supplies, irrigation, hydroelectric power generation, soil conservation, and recreation.

There are about 7.6 million acres (3 million hectares) of wetlands in the state, accounting for about 4.4% of the total land area. Caddo Lake, in Harrison and Marion Counties, was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1993. Management for the site is under the Texas Parks and Wildlife Department.

The most powerful conservation agency in Texas is the Railroad Commission. Originally established to regulate railroads, the commission extended its power to regulate oil and natural gas by virtue of its jurisdiction over the transportation of those products by rail and pipeline. In 1917, the state legislature empowered the commission to prevent the waste of oil and gas. The key step in conservation arrived with the discovery of oil in East Texas in 1930. With a national depression in full swing and the price of oil dropping to \$1 a barrel, the commission agreed to halt ruinous overproduction, issuing the first proration order in April 1931. In a field composed of hundreds of small owners, however, control was difficult to establish; oil was bootlegged, the commission's authority broke down, Governor Ross S. Sterling declared martial law, and the state's conservation edicts were not heeded until the federal government stepped in to enforce them. As of 2003, the Railroad Commission is comprised of four divisions that oversee the state's oil and gas industry, gas utilities, pipeline and rail safety, safety in the liquefied petroleum gas industry, and coal and uranium mining.

As in other states, hazardous wastes have become an environmental concern in Texas. In 1984, for example, a suit was brought against eight oil and chemical companies, including both Exxon and Shell Oil, alleging that they had dumped hazardous wastes at four sites in Harris County. The agency that oversees compliance with hazardous-waste statutes is the Hazardous and Solid Waste Division of the Texas Water Commission. In 2003, some 261.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. That year, Texas ranked third of all the states in the nation for the highest levels of toxic chemicals released (following Alaska and Nevada). In 2003, Texas had 298 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 43 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Crystal City Airport and two Army ammunition plants (in Texarkana and Karnack). In 2005, the EPA spent over \$11.5 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$49.2 million to provide loans for wastewater system improvements to municipalities and interstate agencies.

The state has lost about one-half of its original wetlands, which reportedly covered about 5% of the state's total land area in 2003. The three agencies that define wetlands disagree on the total wetlands are in the state, with estimates ranging from about 6 million acres (2.4 million hectares) to 8 million acres (3.2 million hectares).

6 POPULATION

In 1998 Texas overtook New York as the nation's second most populous state. Between 1990 and 2000 Texas's population grew from 16,986,510 to 20,851,820, a gain of 22.8%, and the second-largest increase for the decade among the 50 states. The state had placed fourth in the 1970 census, with a population of 11,196,730, but had surpassed Pennsylvania in 1974. The estimated population as of 2005 was 22,859,968, an increase of 9.6% since 2000. The population is projected to reach 26.5 million by 2015 and 30.8 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 86 persons per sq mi.

At the first decennial census of 1850, less than five years after Texas had become a state, the population totaled 212,592. It reached 1,600,000 by the early 1880s (when the state ranked eleventh), passed 4,000,000 during World War I, and jumped to 7,700,000 in 1950. The slowest period of growth occurred during the Depression decade (1930–40) when the population rose only 10%, and the state was surpassed by California. The growth rate ranged between 17% and 27% for each decade from the 1940s through the 1970s; it was 19.4% between 1980 and 1990.

In 1870, only one out of 68 Texans was 65 years of age or older; by 1990, the proportion was one out of 10. In 2004, the median age for Texans was 32.9. In the same year, 27.9% of the populace were under age 18 while 9.9% was age 65 or older.

The largest metropolitan area in 2004 was Dallas–Fort Worth–Arlington with an estimated 5,700,256 people. Close behind was the Houston–Sugar Land–Baytown area, with 5,180,443 residents. Houston, the largest city proper in Texas and fourth-largest city in the United States, had an estimated 2004 population of 2,012,626. San Antonio proper, the eighth-largest city in the United States, had an estimated population of 1,236,249. Next was Dallas (ninth in the nation), with 1,210,393; followed by Austin, 681,804; Fort Worth, 603,337; El Paso, 592,099; Arlington, 359,467; and Corpus Christi, 281,196. With the exception of El Paso, in the far western corner of the trans-Peco region, most of the larger cities are situated along the Gulf coast or on or near an axis that extends north–south from Wichita Falls to Corpus Christi, in the heart of the Blackland Belt.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

As white settlers pushed toward Texas during the 19th century, many Indian groups moved west and south into the region. The most notable tribes were the Comanche, Wichita, Kiowa, Apache, Choctaw, and Cherokee. Also entering in significant numbers were the Kickapoo and Potawatomi from Illinois, the Delaware and Shawnee from Missouri, the Quapaw from Arkansas, and the Creek from Alabama and Georgia. One of the few Texas tribes that has survived to the present time as an identifiable group is the Alabama-Coushatta, who inhabit a 4,351-acre (1,761-hectare) reservation in Polk County, 90 mi (145 km) northeast of Houston. The Tigua, living in Texas since the 1680s, were recognized by a federal law in 1968 that transferred all responsibility for them to the state of Texas. The two Indian reservations number about 500 persons each. Overall, at the 2000 census, there were 118,362

American Indians living in Texas. In 2004, 0.7% of the state's population was American Indian.

Blacks have been integral to the history of Texas ever since a black Moor named Estevanico was shipwrecked near present-day Galveston in 1528. By 1860, Texas had 182,921 blacks, or 30% of the total population, of whom only 355 were free. Once emancipated, blacks made effective use of the franchise, electing two of their number to the state Senate and nine to the House in 1868. After the return of the Democratic Party to political dominance, however, the power of blacks steadily diminished. Since then, their numbers have grown, but their proportion of the total population has dwindled, although Houston and Dallas were, respectively, about 25% and 26% black at the 2000 census. In 2000, 2,404,566 blacks lived in the state, which ranked second behind New York in the size of its black population. In 2004, 11.7% of the state's population was black.

Hispanics and Latinos, the largest minority in Texas, numbered 6,669,666 in 2000, representing 32% of the population, an increase over 1990, when Texans of Hispanic origin represented 25.5% of the total. In 2004, 34.6% of the population was Hispanic or Latino. Mostly of Mexican ancestry, they are nevertheless a heterogeneous group, divided by history, geography, and economic circumstances. Hispanics have been elected to the state legislature and to the US Congress. In 1980, the Houston independent school district, the state's largest, reported more Hispanic students than Anglos for the first time in its history.

Altogether, Texas has nearly 30 identifiable ethnic groups. Certain areas of central Texas are heavily Germanic and Czech. The first permanent Polish colony in the United States was established at Panna Maria, near San Antonio, in 1854. Texas has one of the largest colonies of Wends in the world, principally at Serbin in central Texas. Significant numbers of Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians have also settled in Texas.

As of 2000, foreign-born Texans numbered 2,899,642 (13.9% of the total population). In the same year, Asians numbered 562,319 (the third-largest Asian population among the 50 states). The 2000 census counted 105,829 Chinese (nearly double the 1990 total of 55,023), 58,340 Filipinos, 129,365 Asian Indians (more than triple the 1990 figure of 40,506), 45,571 Koreans, 17,120 Japanese, and 10,114 Laotians. Of the 134,961 Vietnamese (up from 60,649 in 1990), many were refugees who resettled in Texas beginning in 1975. Pacific Islanders numbered 14,434 in 2000. In 2004, 3.2% of the population was Asian, and 0.1% Pacific Islander. In 2004, 1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

The term "Anglos" denotes all whites except Spanish-surnamed or Spanish-speaking individuals.

8 LANGUAGES

The Indians of Texas are mostly descendants of the Alabama-Coushatta who came to Texas in the 19th century. The few Indian place-names include Texas itself, Pecos, Waco, and Toyah.

Most of the regional features in Texas English derive from the influx of South Midland and Southern speakers, with a noticeable Spanish flavor from older as well as more recent loans. Settlers from the Gulf Coast states brought such terms as *snap beans* (green beans), the widespread *pail* (here probably of Southern rather the Northern origin), and *carry* (escort), with a 47% frequency in north Texas and 22% in the south. Louisiana *praline*

Texas—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Anderson	Palestine	1,077	56,408	Edwards	Rocksprings	2,120	1,987
Andrews	Andrews	1,501	12,748	Ellis	Waxahachie	939	133,474
Angelina	Lufkin	807	81,557	El Paso	El Paso	1,014	721,598
Aransas	Rockport	280	24,640	Erath	Stephenville	1,080	34,076
Archer	Archer City	907	9,095	Falls	Marlin	770	17,646
Armstrong	Claude	910	2,173	Fannin	Bonham	895	33,142
Atascosa	Jourdanton	1,218	43,226	Fayette	La Grange	950	22,537
Austin	Bellville	656	26,123	Fisher	Roby	897	4,089
Bailey	Muleshoe	827	6,726	Floyd	Floydada	992	7,174
Bandera	Bandera	793	19,988	Foard	Crowell	703	1,518
Bastrop	Bastrop	895	69,932	Fort Bend	Richmond	876	463,650
Baylor	Seymour	862	3,843	Franklin	Mt. Vernon	294	10,200
Bee	Beeville	880	32,873	Freestone	Fairfield	888	18,800
Bell	Belton	1,055	256,057	Frio	Pearsall	1,133	16,387
Bexar	San Antonio	1,248	1,518,370	Gaines	Seminole	1,504	14,712
Blanco	Johnson City	714	9,110	Galveston	Galveston	399	277,563
Borden	Gail	900	648	Garza	Post	895	5,002
Bosque	Meridian	989	18,053	Gillespie	Fredericksburg	1,061	23,088
Bowie	Boston	891	90,643	Glasscock	Garden City	900	1,327
Brazoria	Angleton	1,407	278,484	Goliad	Goliad	859	7,102
Brazos	Bryan	588	156,305	Gonzales	Gonzales	1,068	19,587
Brewster	Alpine	6,169	9,079	Gray	Pampa	921	21,479
Briscoe	Silverton	887	1,644	Grayson	Sherman	934	116,834
Brooks	Falfurrias	942	7,687	Gregg	Longview	273	115,649
Brown	Brownwood	936	38,664	Grimes	Anderson	799	25,192
Burleson	Caldwell	668	17,238	Guadalupe	Seguin	713	103,032
Burnet	Burnet	994	41,676	Hale	Plainview	1,005	36,233
Caldwell	Lockhart	546	36,523	Hall	Memphis	876	3,700
Calhoun	Port Lavaca	540	20,606	Hamilton	Hamilton	836	8,105
Callahan	Baird	899	13,516	Hansford	Spearman	921	5,230
Cameron	Brownsville	905	378,311	Hardeman	Quanah	688	4,291
Camp	Pittsburg	203	12,238	Hardin	Kountze	898	50,976
Carson	Panhandle	924	6,586	Harris	Houston	1,734	3,693,050
Cass	Linden	937	30,155	Harrison	Marshall	908	63,459
Castro	Dimmitt	899	7,640	Hartley	Channing	1,462	5,450
Chambers	Anahuac	616	28,411	Haskell	Haskell	901	5,541
Cherokee	Rusk	1,052	48,464	Hays	San Marcos	678	124,432
Childress	Childress	707	7,676	Hemphill	Canadian	903	3,422
Clay	Henrietta	1,085	11,287	Henderson	Athens	888	80,017
Cochran	Morton	775	3,289	Hidalgo	Edinburg	1,569	678,275
Coke	Robert Lee	908	3,612	Hill	Hillsboro	968	35,424
Coleman	Coleman	1,277	8,665	Hockley	Levelland	908	22,787
Collin	McKenney	851	659,457	Hood	Granbury	425	47,930
Collingsworth	Wellington	909	2,968	Hopkins	Sulphur Springs	789	33,381
Colorado	Columbus	964	20,736	Houston	Crockett	1,234	23,218
Comal	New Braunfels	555	96,018	Howard	Big Spring	901	32,522
Comanche	Comanche	930	13,709	Hudspeth	Sierra Blanca	4,566	3,295
Concho	Paint Rock	992	3,735	Hunt	Greenville	840	82,543
Cooke	Gainesville	893	38,847	Hutchinson	Stinnett	871	22,484
Coryell	Gatesville	1,057	75,802	Irion	Mertzon	1,052	1,756
Cottle	Paducah	895	1,746	Jack	Jacksboro	920	9,064
Crane	Crane	782	3,837	Jackson	Edna	844	14,339
Crockett	Ozona	2,806	3,934	Jasper	Jasper	921	35,587
Crosby	Crosbyton	898	6,686	Jeff Davis	Ft. Davis	2,258	2,306
Culberson	Van Horn	3,815	2,627	Jefferson	Beaumont	937	247,571
Dallam	Dalhart	1,505	6,174	Jim Hogg	Hebbronville	1,136	5,029
Dallas	Dallas	880	2,305,454	Jim Wells	Alice	867	40,951
Dawson	Lamesa	903	14,256	Johnson	Cleburne	731	146,376
Deaf Smith	Hereford	1,497	18,538	Jones	Anson	931	19,736
Delta	Cooper	278	5,480	Karnes	Karnes City	753	15,351
Denton	Denton	911	554,642	Kaufman	Kaufman	788	89,129
DeWitt	Cuero	910	20,507	Kendall	Boerne	663	28,607
Dickens	Dickens	907	2,646	Kenedy	Sarita	1,389	417
Dimmit	Carrizo Springs	1,307	10,395	Kent	Jayton	878	782
Donley	Clarendon	929	3,889	Kerr	Kerville	1,107	46,496
Duval	San Diego	1,795	12,578	Kimble	Junction	1,250	4,591
Eastland	Eastland	924	18,393	King	Guthrie	914	307
Ector	Odessa	903	125,339	Kinney	Brackettville	1,359	3,327

Texas—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations (cont.)

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Kleberg	Kingsville	853	30,757	Roberts	Miami	915	820
Knox	Benjamin	845	3,781	Robertson	Franklin	864	16,192
Lamar	Paris	919	49,644	Rockwall	Rockwall	128	62,944
Lamb	Littlefield	1,013	14,467	Runnels	Ballinger	1,056	10,974
Lampasas	Lampasas	714	19,669	Rusk	Henderson	932	47,971
La Salle	Cotulla	1,517	6,016	Sabine	Hemphill	486	10,416
Lavaca	Hallettsville	971	18,925	San Augustine	San Augustine	524	8,907
Lee	Giddings	631	16,526	San Jacinto	Coldspring	572	24,801
Leon	Centerville	1,078	16,344	San Patricio	Sinton	693	69,209
Liberty	Liberty	1,174	75,141	San Saba	San Saba	1,136	6,076
Limestone	Groesbeck	931	22,763	Schleicher	Eldorado	1,309	2,742
Lipscomb	Lipscomb	933	3,101	Scurry	Snyder	900	16,217
Live Oak	George West	1,057	11,717	Shackelford	Albany	915	3,167
Llano	Llano	939	18,236	Shelby	Center	791	26,346
Loving	Mentone	671	62	Sherman	Stratford	923	3,002
Lubbock	Lubbock	900	252,284	Smith	Tyler	932	190,594
Lynn	Tahoka	888	6,237	Somervell	Glen Rose	188	7,578
McCulloch	Brady	1,071	7,956	Starr	Rio Grande City	1,226	60,941
McLennan	Waco	1,031	224,668	Stephens	Breckenridge	894	9,561
McMullen	Tilden	1,163	883	Sterling	Sterling City	923	1,303
Madison	Madisonville	473	13,167	Stonewall	Aspermont	925	1,372
Marion	Jefferson	385	10,952	Sutton	Sonora	1,455	4,212
Martin	Stanton	914	4,391	Swisher	Tulia	902	7,828
Mason	Mason	934	3,880	Tarrant	Ft. Worth	868	1,620,479
Matagorda	Bay City	1,127	37,849	Taylor	Abilene	917	125,039
Maverick	Eagle Pass	1,287	51,181	Terrell	Sanderson	2,357	996
Medina	Hondo	1,331	43,027	Terry	Brownfield	886	12,419
Menard	Menard	902	2,201	Throckmorton	Throckmorton	912	1,618
Midland	Midland	902	121,371	Titus	Mt. Pleasant	412	29,445
Milam	Cameron	1,019	25,354	Tom Green	San Angelo	1,515	103,611
Mills	Goldthwaite	748	5,237	Travis	Austin	989	888,185
Mitchell	Colorado City	912	9,413	Trinity	Groveton	692	14,363
Montague	Montague	928	19,677	Tyler	Woodville	922	20,617
Montgomery	Conroe	1,047	378,033	Upshur	Gilmer	587	37,881
Moore	Dumas	905	20,348	Upton	Rankin	1,243	3,056
Morris	Daingerfield	256	12,936	Uvalde	Uvalde	1,564	26,955
Motley	Matador	959	1,299	Val Verde	Del Rio	3,150	47,596
Nacogdoches	Nacogdoches	939	60,468	Van Zandt	Canton	855	52,491
Navarro	Corsicana	1,068	48,687	Victoria	Victoria	887	85,648
Newton	Newton	935	14,309	Walker	Huntsville	786	62,735
Nolan	Sweetwater	915	14,878	Waller	Hempstead	514	34,821
Nueces	Corpus Christi	847	319,704	Ward	Monahans	836	10,237
Ochiltree	Perryton	919	9,385	Washington	Brenham	610	31,521
Oldham	Vega	1,485	2,118	Webb	Laredo	3,363	224,695
Orange	Orange	362	84,983	Wharton	Wharton	1,086	41,554
Palo Pinto	Palo Pinto	949	27,478	Wheeler	Wheeler	905	4,799
Panola	Carthage	812	22,997	Wichita	Wichita Falls	606	125,894
Parker	Weatherford	902	102,801	Wilbarger	Vernon	947	13,896
Parmer	Farwell	885	9,754	Willacy	Raymondville	589	20,382
Pecos	Ft. Stockton	4,776	15,859	Williamson	Georgetown	1,137	333,457
Polk	Livingston	1,061	46,640	Wilson	Floresville	807	37,529
Potter	Amarillo	902	119,852	Winkler	Kermit	840	6,690
Presidio	Marfa	3,857	7,722	Wise	Decatur	902	56,696
Rains	Emory	243	11,305	Wood	Quitman	689	40,855
Randall	Canyon	917	110,053	Yoakum	Plains	800	7,408
Reagan	Big Lake	1,173	2,995	Young	Graham	919	18,000
Real	Leakey	697	3,031	Zapata	Zapata	999	13,373
Red River	Clarksville	1,054	13,575	Zavala	Crystal City	1,298	11,796
Reeves	Pecos	2,626	11,638	TOTALS		262,015	22,859,968
Refugio	Refugio	771	7,639				

(pecan patty) is now widespread, but *banquette* (sidewalk) appears only in the extreme southeast corner.

Southern and South Midland terms were largely introduced by settlers from Arkansas, Missouri, and Tennessee; their use ranges from northeast to west, but with declining frequency in the trans-

Pecos area. Examples are *clabber cheese* (cottage cheese), *mosquito hawk* (dragonfly), *croker sack* (burlap bag), *mouth harp* (harmonica), *branch* (stream), and *dog irons* (andirons). A dialect survey showed *pallet* (bed on the floor) with a 90% overall frequency; *light bread* (white bread) and *pullybone* (wishbone), each 78%; and

you-all, more than 80%. General Midland terms also widespread in the state are *sook!* (call to calves), *blinds* (roller shades), *piece* (a certain distance), and *quarter till five* (4:45).

Some terms exhibit uneven distribution. Examples include *mott* (clump of trees) in the south and southwest, *sugan* (a wool-filled comforter for a cowboy's bedroll) in the west, Midland *draw* (dry streambed) in the west and southwest, South Midland *peckerwood* (woodpecker) in most of the state except west of the Pecos, *poke* (paper bag) in the central and northern areas, and *surlly* (euphemism for bull) in the west. A curious result of dialect mixture is the appearance of a number of hybrids combining two different dialects, such as *freeseed peach* from *freestone* and *clearseed*, *fire mantel* and *mantel board* from *fireboard* and *mantel*, *flapcakes* from *flapjacks* and *pancakes*, and *horse doctor* from *horsefly* and *snake doctor*. The large sandwich is known as a *torpedo* in San Antonio and a *poorboy* in Houston.

In 2000, 13,230,765 Texans—68.8% of the population five years old or older—spoke only English at home, down from 74.6% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category “Other Asian languages” includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish. The category “Other Indic languages” includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The category “Other Slavic languages” includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	19,241,518	100.0
Speak only English	13,230,765	68.8
Speak a language other than English	6,010,753	31.2
Speak a language other than English	6,010,753	31.2
Spanish or Spanish Creole	5,195,182	27.0
Vietnamese	122,517	0.6
Chinese	91,500	0.5
German	82,117	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	62,274	0.3
Tagalog	39,988	0.2
Korean	38,451	0.2
African languages	36,087	0.2
Urdu	32,978	0.2
Arabic	32,909	0.2
Other Asian languages	32,780	0.2
Other Indic languages	24,454	0.1
Hindi	20,919	0.1
Gujarathi	19,140	0.1
Persian	17,558	0.1
Other Slavic languages	15,448	0.1
Japanese	14,701	0.1
Russian	11,574	0.1
Italian	11,158	0.1
Laotian	10,378	0.1

Texas pronunciation is largely South Midland, with such characteristic forms as /caow/, and /naow/ for *cow* and *now* and /dyoo/ for *due*, although /doo/ is now more common in urban areas. In the German settlement around New Braunfels are heard a few loanwords such as *smearcase* (cottage cheese), *krebbel* (doughnut), *clook* (setting hen), and *oma* and *opa* for grandmother and grandfather.

Spanish has been the major foreign-language influence. In areas like Laredo and Brownsville, along the Rio Grande, as many as 90% of the people may be bilingual; in northeast Texas, however,

Spanish is as foreign as French. In the days of the early Spanish ranchers, standard English adopted *hacienda*, *ranch*, *burro*, *canyon*, and *lariat*; in the southwestern cattle country are heard *la reata* (lasso), *remuda* (group of horses), and *resaca* (pond), along with the *acequia* (irrigation ditch), *pilon* (something extra, as a trip), and *olla* (water jar). The presence of the large Spanish-speaking population was a major factor in the passage of the state's bilingual education law, as a result of which numerous school programs in both English and Spanish are now offered; in a ruling issued in January 1981, US District Judge William Wayne Justice ruled that by 1987, the state must expand such programs to cover all Spanish-speaking students. Legislation enacted in 1995 established a requirement for schools with a certain number of students with limited English proficiency to be required to have bilingual and/or English as a second language programs. About one-sixth of all Texas counties—and a great many cities—are named for Mexicans or Spaniards or after place-names in Spain or Mexico.

⁹RELIGIONS

Because of its Spanish heritage, Texas originally was entirely Roman Catholic except for unconverted Indians. Consequently, the early history of Texas is almost identical with that of the Roman Catholic Church in the area. Under the Mexican Republic, the Catholic Church continued as the sole recognized religious body. In order to receive the generous land grants given by the Mexicans, Anglo-American immigrants had to sign a paper saying that they followed the Catholic religion. With an average grant of 4,605 acres (1,864 hectares) as bait, many early Protestants and atheists must have felt little hesitancy about becoming instant Catholics.

The Mexican government was careless about enforcing adherence to the Catholic faith in Texas, however, and many Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians drifted in from the east. The Methodist practice of having itinerant ministers range over frontier areas was particularly well suited to the Texas scene and, in 1837, the church hierarchy sent three preachers to the new republic. The first presbytery had been formed by that date and Baptists had organized in Houston by 1840. Swedish and German immigrants brought their Lutheranism with them; the first German Lutheran synod was organized in Houston in 1851.

Geographically, Texas tends to be heavily Protestant in the north and east and Catholic in the south and southwest. In 2004, there were about 6,050,986 Roman Catholics in the state. Leading Protestant denominations and their known adherents in 2000 (unless otherwise indicated) were the Southern Baptist Convention, 3,519,459; the United Methodist Church, 796,306 (in 2004); Churches of Christ, 377,264; the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 243,957 (in 2006); Assemblies of God, 228,098; the Presbyterian Church USA, 180,315; the Episcopal Church, 177,910; Independent Charismatic Churches, 159,449; the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 155,019; Independent Non-Charismatic Churches, 145,249; and the Lutheran Church–Missouri Synod, 140,106. There were an estimated 128,000 Jews, 114,999 Muslims, and about 10,777 adherents to the Baha'i faith. There were about 9.2 million people (44.5% of the population) who were not counted as members of any religious organization.

The Roman Catholic Church has an archdiocese in San Antonio. The Latter-day Saints dedicated a new temple at San Antonio in 2005; there are three other temples in the state.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Texas ranks first among the 50 states in total railroad mileage, highway mileage, and number of airports, and second only to California in motor vehicle registrations and in number of general aviation aircraft.

Transportation has been a severe problem for Texas because of the state's extraordinary size and sometimes difficult terrain; one of the more unusual experiments in US transport history was the use of camels in southwestern Texas during the mid-1800s. The Republic of Texas authorized railroad construction as early as 1836, but the financial panic of 1837 helped kill that attempt. Not until 1853 did the state's first railroad—from Harrisburg (now incorporated into Houston) to Stafford's Point, 20 mi (32 km) to the west—come into service. At the outbreak of the Civil War, 10 railroads were operating, all but two connected with seaports. Although the state legislature in 1852 had offered railroad companies eight sections (5,120 acres/2,072 hectares) of land per mile of road construction and doubled that offer two years later, Texas lacked sufficient capital to satisfy its railroad-building needs until the war was over. The state generally held to the 10,240-acre (4,144-hectare) figure until all grants ceased in 1882. In all, Texas granted more than 50,000 sq mi (130,000 sq km) to railroad companies.

In 1870, Texas had fewer than 600 mi (970 km) of track. Ten years later, it had 3,026 mi (4,870 km). By 1920, there was 16,049 mi (25,828 km) of track in the state. In 1932, railroad trackage peaked with 17,078 mi (27,484 km) of track. By 2003 however, railroad track mileage had dwindled to 14,049 rail mi (22,618 km), with 11,432 mi (18,405 km) of the total being Class I railroad right-of-way. Still, total rail mileage in Texas still ranks higher than in any other state. The state in 2003, was served by 44 railroads, of which there were three Class I carriers: the Burlington Northern Santa Fe; the Kansas City Southern; and the Union Pacific. As of 2006, Amtrak provided passenger train service in Texas via its Sunset Limited (New Orleans–Los Angeles) train from Beaumont through Houston and San Antonio to El Paso, the Texas Eagle (Chicago–San Antonio) train, and its Heartland Flyer (Oklahoma City to Fort Worth) train.

In mid-1983, Dallas-area voters approved the creation of the Dallas Area Rapid Transit system (DART) to serve the city and 13 suburbs. Surface rail routes, running 160 mi (257 km), were to be constructed and bus service doubled at an expense of some \$8.9 billion over a 26-year period. As of March 2006, DART operated 45 miles (72.5 km) of surface light rail line. In addition, DART and the Ft. Worth Transportation Authority jointly operated the Trinity Railway Express (TRE), a 35 mile (56 km) light rail line that connects the cities of Dallas and Ft Worth with the Dallas-Ft Worth Regional Airport. Ft. Worth also has the state's only true subway, a one-mi (1.6-km) line from a parking lot to a downtown shipping and office center.

Texas has by far the most road mileage of any state. In 2004, Texas had 303,176 mi (488,113 km) of public roadway. The leading interstate highways are I-10 and I-20, respectively linking Houston and the Dallas–Ft. Worth Areas with El Paso in the west, and I-35 and I-45, connecting Dallas–Ft. Worth with, respectively, San Antonio (via Austin) and Galveston (via Houston). There were 14,543,528 licensed drivers in 2004. Registered motor vehicles in 2004 included some 8.621 million automobiles, about 7.851 mil-

lion trucks of all types, around 284,000 motorcycles, and some 18,000 buses.

River transport did not become commercially successful until the end of the 19th century, when the Houston Ship Channel was dredged along the San Jacinto River and Buffalo Bayou for more than 50 mi (80 km), and another channel was dredged down the Neches River to make a seaport out of Beaumont. With 13 major seaports and many shallow-water ports, Texas has been a major factor in waterborne commerce since the early 1950s. As of 2004, the state of Texas had four ports that ranked among the top 10 busiest ports in the United States. The Port of Houston was the nation's second most active harbor, with 202.047 million tons of cargo handled in 2004. In that same year, the ports of Beaumont, Corpus Christie and Texas City were ranked as the fourth, sixth, and ninth busiest ports, respectively, handling a respective 91.697 million tons, 78.924 million tons and 68.282 million tons of cargo. The Gulf Intracoastal Waterway begins in Brownsville, at the mouth of the Rio Grande, and extends across Texas for 423 mi (681 km) on its way to Florida and its connections with a similar waterway on the Atlantic. In 2004, Texas had 834 mi (1,342 km) of navigable inland waterways. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 473.941 million tons.

After American entry into World War I, Texas began to build airfields for training grounds. When the war ended, many US fliers returned to Texas and became civilian commercial pilots, carrying air mail (from 1926), dusting crops, and mapping potential oil fields. In 2005, Texas had a total of 1,913 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 1,435 airports, 470 heliports, and 8 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing). Dallas–Ft. Worth International Airport was the state's leading air terminal, with 28,063,035 passengers enplaned in 2004, followed by George Bush Intercontinental/Houston Airport with 17,322,065 enplanements that same year, making them the fourth- and tenth-busiest airports in the United States, respectively. Other major airports in the state in 2004 were: Houston–William P Hobby Airport (3,960,890 enplanements); Austin–Bergstrom International (3,446,564 enplanements); and San Antonio International (3,376,750 enplanements), making them the 46th-, 47th-, and 48th-busiest airports in the United States, respectively.

¹¹HISTORY

Although a site near Lewisville, in Denton County, contains artifacts that might be more than 37,000 years old, the generally accepted date for the earliest human presence in the region now known as Texas is the Llano civilization, dating from 12,000 years ago. Prehistoric Indians in Texas failed to develop as complex technologies as their neighbors to the west and east. When the first Europeans arrived in the 16th century, the Indians had developed little in the way of pottery or basketry, and had shown little interest in agriculture except in the extreme east and northeast, and possibly west of the Pecos. They were still largely hunter-gatherers on whom the more technologically complex cultures of Mexico and the southeastern United States had little effect.

Along the Gulf coast and overlapping into northeastern Mexico were the Coahuiltecan and Karankawa peoples. They lived in a hostile environment, consuming berries in season, animal dung, spiders, and an occasional deer, bison, or jabalina. In central Texas lived the Tonkawa, who hunted buffalo, slept in tepees,

used dogs for hauling, and had a communal structure akin to that of the Plains Indians. Unlike the Karankawa, who were tall, the Tonkawa were of average height, tattooed, and dressed in breechcloths—long for men, short for women. They proved extremely susceptible to European diseases and evidently died out, whereas the Karankawa migrated to northern Mexico.

About two dozen tribes of Caddo in eastern and northeastern Texas were at the time of European penetration the most technologically complex Indians living within the state's present borders. Having developed agriculture, the Caddo were relatively sedentary and village oriented. Those belonging to the Hasinai Confederation called each other *tayshas*, a term that translates as "allies" or "friends." When the Hasinai told Spanish explorers that they were *tayshas*, the Spaniards wrote the word as *Tejas*, which in time became Texas. The Caddo lived in the gentle portion of Texas, where woods, wild fruits, and berries abound, and where game was plentiful until the advent of European civilization. Life was so good, in fact, that several members of an expedition under Robert Cavalier, Sieur de la Salle, reaching Matagorda Bay on 15 February 1685, chose to desert to the Caddo rather than remain with their fellow Frenchmen. Henri de Tonti, who entered the region somewhat later, reported that one Caddo tribe had a woman as chief. The Caddo were also unusual in their belief that three women had created the world.

In trans-Pecos Texas, to the west, lived a fourth Indian group, the Jumano, probably descendants of the Pueblo cultures. Some of the Jumano were nomadic hunters in the Davis and Chisos mountains. Others became farmers along the Rio Grande and the lower Rio Conchos, making and using some pottery and raising good crops of corn, beans, squash, and possibly cotton. Probably the successive droughts so common to the region began to thin out their ranks, and the coming of the Spanish removed them from the historical picture altogether.

The first European to enter Texas was Spanish explorer Alonso Alvarez de Pineda, who sailed into the mouth of the Rio Grande in 1519. Basically, the Spanish left the Texas Indians alone for more than 150 years. Sometimes an accident placed Spaniards in Texas, or sometimes they entered by design, but generally, the Spanish looked on Texas as too remote from Florida and the Mexico highlands—where most of their colonizing occurred—for successful settlement. A remarkable episode of this period involves the survivors of the Pánfilo de Narváez expedition, which had been commissioned to occupy the Gulf of Mexico coast from Mexico to Florida. Four shipwrecked men, led by Álvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca, were washed ashore on a Texas sandbar on 6 November 1528: three were Spaniards, and one was the Moor Estevanico. For eight years, they wandered virtually naked among the Texas Indians, sometimes as slaves and sometimes as free men, alternately blistered by the summer sun and freezing under winter ice storms. Using a deer bone as a needle, Cabeza removed an arrowhead from deep in an Indian's chest—a bit of surgical magic that earned him treatment as a demigod, for a time. Finally, the four Europeans reached the west coast of Mexico, from where Cabeza de Vaca returned home a hero. The other two Spaniards remained in Mexico, but Estevanico joined the Fray Marcos de Niza expedition as a guide, dying at the hands of Pueblo Indians in New Mexico in 1539. The trail he helped blaze through the High Plains of West Texas served as the route for the expedition a year later by

Francisco Vásquez de Coronado. The first Texas towns and missions were begun by Spaniards in West Texas, outside present-day El Paso. Ysleta del Sur was founded in 1682, almost a decade before the earliest East Texas missions. But Ysleta was 500 mi (800 km) from anything else resembling a settlement in Texas, and the Spanish considered it a part of New Mexico.

What changed the Spaniards' attitude toward the colonization of Texas was the establishment of Ft. St. Louis by La Salle on the Gulf coast in 1685. Four years later, Capt. Alonso de León, governor of Coahuila, sent out an expedition to expel the French. Father Damien Massanet, a Coahuilan priest, accompanied the León expedition and was charged with establishing a mission near wherever the captain built a fort. During the next several decades these two men and their successors established a string of mission-forts across Texas. After fear of the French presence eased, Spain tended to neglect these establishments. But when the French entered Louisiana in force during the early 18th century, Spanish fears of French expansion were re-ignited. In 1718, the Spanish began to build a mission, San Antonio de Valero, and a fort, San Antonio de Bexar, at the site of the present city of San Antonio. As a halfway post between Mexico and the Louisiana border, San Antonio grew to be Texas's most important city during the Spanish period.

Until the 19th century, the United States showed little interest in Texas. But the purchase of Louisiana Territory from the French by the US government in 1803 made Texas a next-door neighbor, and "filibusters" (military adventurers) began to filter across the border into Spanish territory. The best known is Philip Nolan, an Irish-born intriguer who started spending time in Texas as early as 1790. Ostensibly, he was trading horses with the Indians, but the Spanish associated him with Aaron Burr's schemes to excise the Spanish southwest from its owners. In the summer of 1800, the Spanish governor of Texas, Juan Bautista Elguetzábal, ordered that Nolan should be arrested if he returned. In December of that year, Nolan returned with a small force of 20 men and built a fort near Nacogdoches; he was killed fighting the Spanish on 4 March 1801. Nolan is remembered for having drafted the first Anglo-American map of Texas.

In 1810–11, the Mexicans launched their revolution against Spain, and though only an outpost, Texas as a Spanish-Mexican colony was naturally involved. In 1813, Texas formally declared its independence of Spain and its intention of becoming a Mexican state, with its capital at San Antonio. Various Anglo-Americans entered the new state to serve on behalf of Mexico. Pirates also aided the Mexican cause: on Galveston Island, Luis Aury preyed on Spanish shipping, and after 1816, his place was taken by Jean Laffite, who privateered against both Spanish and US shipping until the US Navy drove him out.

The Spanish finally gave up on Mexico in 1821, leaving Texas as a Mexican province with a non-Indian population of about 7,000. The only towns of significant size were Goliad, San Antonio (commonly called Bexar), and Nacogdoches. A year earlier, Moses Austin of Missouri had received permission from Spanish authorities to introduce Anglo-American colonists into Texas, presumably as a barrier against aggression by the United States. When Spanish rule ended, his son, Stephen F. Austin, succeeded his late father as head of the colonization movement, securing permission from the new Mexican government to settle 300 families in the area between the lower Colorado and Brazos rivers. After Austin had set-

tled his “Old Three Hundred” in 1821, he received permission to settle more, and within a decade, his colonists numbered more than 5,000. The Mexicans invested Austin with the responsibilities and privileges of an empresario: authority to run commerce, maintain militia, administer justice, and hand out land titles. Other empresarios made similar arrangements. Green DeWitt, also of Missouri, settled several hundred families farther west and founded the town of Gonzales in 1825. Hayden Edwards received a grant to settle 800 families near Nacogdoches. Mexicans were also permitted to organize colonies. Texas thus began a pattern of growth from the outside that has continued to the present day.

Between 1821 and 1835, the population of non-Indian Texas expanded to between 35,000 and 50,000. Most new settlers were Anglo-Americans who often brought their prejudices against Mexico with them, whether they were from the North or the South. They disliked Mexican culture, Mexican folkways, Mexican justice—and the Protestants among them resented the omnipresence of the Roman Catholic Church. All of these Anglo-American settlers had ties to the United States, and many undoubtedly longed for the time when they would live under the American flag again. The ineptitude of the Mexican government made the situation even worse. In 1826, Hayden Edwards organized the Republic of Fredonia and tried to drive the Mexicans from East Texas, but in the end, he had to flee the province himself. Troubled by the rising spirit of rebellion, the Mexican Congress enacted the Law of 1830, which forbade most immigration and imposed duties on all imports. Anglo-Americans in Texas responded with the same anger that New Englanders had once shown when Britain imposed tax restrictions on the original American colonies.

At first, the Anglo-Texans insisted they were opposing Mexican political excesses, not the Mexican nation. Their hope lay with Gen. Antonio López de Santa Anna, who was leading a liberal revolution against President Anastasio Bustamante. Skirmishes between the Anglo-Texans and Mexican officials remained sporadic and localized until 1833 when Santa Anna became president of Mexico and almost immediately dropped his liberal stance. Texans sent Austin to Mexico City to petition Santa Anna to rescind the Law of 1830, to allow the use of English in public business, and to make Texas (then an appendage of Coahuila) a separate state. After several months in Mexico City, Austin was arrested on his way back to Texas and was imprisoned for a year. When Santa Anna tried to enforce customs collections, colonists at Anahuac, led by William Barret Travis, drove the Mexican officials out of town. Santa Anna’s answer was to place Texas under military jurisdiction. When the Mexican military commander, Col. Domingo de Ugartechea, sent his soldiers to Gonzales to take a cannon there from the colonists, the Anglo-Texan civilians drove them off on 2 October 1835, in a battle that is generally considered to mark the start of the Texas Revolution.

On 3 November, a provisional government was formed. It called not for independence but for a return to the liberal Mexican constitution of 1824. Three commissioners, one of them Austin, were sent to Washington, DC, to request aid from the United States. Sam Houston, who only six years earlier had resigned the governorship of Tennessee (when his wife left him) and had come to Texas after stays in Oklahoma and Arkansas, was named commander in chief of the upstart Texas army. Hostilities remained at a standstill until February 1836, when Santa Anna led an army

across the Rio Grande. The Mexicans concentrated outside San Antonio at a mission-fort called the Alamo, where 187 or so Texans, commanded by Col. William Barret Travis, had holed up in defense. The Mexicans besieged the Alamo until 6 March, when Santa Anna’s forces, now numbering more than 4,000, stormed the fortress. When the battle ended, all the Alamo’s defenders, including several native Mexicans, were dead. Among those killed were Travis and two Americans who became legends—James Bowie and Davy Crockett.

Four days before the battle of the Alamo, other Texans gathered at Washington-on-the-Brazos and issued a declaration of independence. As so often happens, a fight that had started on principle—in this case, a constitutional issue—grew into a fight for independence. The men who died at the Alamo believed they were fighting for restoration of the constitution of 1824. But three weeks after the Alamo fell, on 27 March 1836, the Mexicans killed 342 Texans who had surrendered at Goliad, thinking they would be treated as prisoners of war. Coming on the heels of the Alamo tragedy, the “Goliad massacre” persuaded Texans that only total victory or total defeat would solve their problems with Santa Anna. The Texas army under Sam Houston retreated before Santa Anna’s oncoming forces, which held a numerical advantage over Houston’s of about 1,600 to 800. On 21 April 1836, however, the Texans surprised the Mexicans during their siesta period at San Jacinto (east of present-day Houston). Mexican losses were 630 killed, 280 wounded, and 730 taken prisoner, while the Texans had only 9 killed and 30 wounded. This decisive battle-fought to the cry of “Remember the Alamo, remember Goliad!” freed Texas from Mexico once and for all.

For 10 years, Texas existed as an independent republic, recognized by the United States, Belgium, France, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and several German states. Sam Houston, the victorious commander at San Jacinto, became the republic’s first nationally elected president. Although Texans are proud of their once-independent status, the fact is that the republic limped along like any new nation, strife-torn and short of cash. It was unable to reach agreement with Mexico on a treaty to clarify the border. Moreover, its original \$1-million public debt increased eightfold in a decade, and its paper money depreciated alarmingly. Consequently, when Texas joined the Union on 29 December 1845, the date of the US congressional resolution recognizing the new state (the Lone Star flag, the republic’s official banner, was not actually lowered and a governor inaugurated until 19 February 1846), its citizens looked on the action as a rescue. The annexation in great measure provoked the Mexican War, which in turn led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo on 2 February 1848. Under the treaty, Mexico dropped its claim to the territory between the Rio Grande and the Nueces River. Later, in accordance with the Compromise of 1850, Texas relinquished, for \$10 million, its claim on lands stretching into New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, Oklahoma, and Kansas.

With the coming of the Civil War, Texas followed its proslavery southern neighbors out of the Union into the Confederacy; Governor Houston, who opposed secession, was ousted from office. The state saw little fighting, and Texas thus suffered from the war far less than most of the South. The last battle of the war was fought on Texas soil at Palmito Ranch, near Brownsville, on 13

May 1865—more than a month after Gen. Robert E. Lee's surrender at Appomattox Court House in Virginia.

During Reconstruction, Texas was governed briefly by a military occupation force and then by a Republican regime; the so-called carpetbag constitution of 1869, passed during this period, gave the franchise to blacks, a right that the Ku Klux Klan actively sought to deny them. Texas was allowed to rejoin the Union on 30 March 1870. Three years later, Republican Governor Edmund J. Davis was defeated at the polls by Richard Coke, and a Democratic legislature wrote a new constitution, which was approved by the voters in 1876.

While most southern states were economically prostrate, the Texas economy flourished because of the rapid development of the cattle industry. Millions of Texas cattle walked the trails to northern markets, where they were sold for hard cash, providing a bonanza for the state. The widespread use of barbed wire to fence cattle ranches in the 1880s ended the open range and encouraged scientific cattle breeding. By 1900, Texas began to transform its predominantly agricultural economy into an industrial one. This process was accelerated by the discovery of the Spindletop oil field—the state's first gusher—near Beaumont in 1901, and by the subsequent development of the petroleum and petrochemical industries. World War I saw the emergence of Texas as a military training center. The rapid growth of the aircraft industry and other high-technology fields contributed to the continuing industrialization of Texas during and after World War II.

Texas politics remained solidly Democratic during most of the modern era, and the significant political conflict in the state was between the liberal and conservative wings of the Democratic Party. Populist-style reforms were enacted slowly during the governorships of James E. Ferguson—impeached and removed from office during his second term in 1917—and of his wife, Miriam A. “Ma” Ferguson (1925–27, 1933–35), and more rapidly during the two administrations of James V. Allred (1935–39). During the 1960s and 1970s, the Republican Party gathered strength in the state, electing John G. Tower as US senator in 1961 and William P. Clements Jr., as governor in 1978—the first Republicans to hold those offices since Reconstruction. In general, the state's recent political leaders, Democrats as well as Republicans, have represented property interests and taken a conservative line.

On the national level, Texans have been influential since the 1930s, notably through such congressional leaders as US House Speaker Sam Rayburn and Senate Majority Leader Lyndon B. Johnson. Johnson, elected vice president under John F. Kennedy, was riding in the motorcade with the president when Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas on 22 November 1963. The city attained further national notoriety when Kennedy's alleged killer, Lee Harvey Oswald, was shot to death by Jack Ruby, a Dallas nightclub operator, two days later. Johnson served out the remainder of Kennedy's term, was elected to the presidency by a landslide in 1964, and presided over one of the stormiest periods in US history before retiring to his LBJ ranch in 1969. Memorials to him include the Lyndon B. Johnson Library at Austin and Johnson Space Center, headquarters for the US manned spaceflight program, near Houston.

The most prominent Texans on the national scene since Johnson have been Republican George H.W. Bush and his son, George W. Bush. After failing in his bid for the Republican presidential nomi-

nation in 1980, George Bush Sr. became Ronald Reagan's running mate; Reagan and Bush won in 1980 and were reelected in 1984. Bush ran for and won the presidency in 1988, but was defeated in his 1992 bid for re-election by Bill Clinton. Bush's son, George W. Bush, was elected governor of Texas in 1994, succeeding Democrat Ann Richards, the second woman governor in Texas history. In 2000, George W. Bush was elected president in a contested election against then-Vice President Al Gore. He was reelected in 2004, defeating Democrat John Kerry.

Texas benefited from a booming oil industry in the 1970s. The economy grew at an average of 6% a year, more than twice the national average. The boom collapsed in the early 1980s as overproduction caused world oil prices to plummet. The state's annual rate of population growth, 60% of which came from migration, dropped from 4% in 1982 to 1.3% in 1985. By 1986, the state had become a net exporter of population. Scrambling to make up the \$100 million in revenues that the government estimated it lost for every \$1 dollar decline in the price of a barrel of oil, the government in 1985 imposed or raised fees on everything from vanity license plates to day-care centers. The state also took steps to encourage economic diversification by wooing service, electronics, and high-technology companies to Texas. In the late 1980s, a number of Texas's financial institutions collapsed, brought down by the slump in the oil industry and by unsound real estate loans.

After 1986, oil prices increased, and the state reaped the benefits of diversification efforts spurred by the oil price collapse earlier in the decade. Although the petroleum industry was still the state's leading economic sector in the mid-1990s, high-technology and service sector jobs had played a major role in rebuilding the Texas economy and reversing the population decline of the previous decade. High-tech companies were concentrated in the “Silicon Hills” area surrounding Austin.

In the early 2000s, Texas had the second-largest population of any state, behind California. The high rate of migration into Texas, which accompanied the oil boom, had a profound effect on the state's population distribution and political profile. Newcomers to the state have tended to share the fiscally conservative values of native Texans but take more liberal positions on issues such as abortion, civil rights, and homosexuality. According to the 2000 census, 32% of the Texas population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. By 2004, 34.6% of the population was Hispanic.

On 19 April 1993, the 51-day confrontation between the FBI and the Branch Davidian cult near Waco ended tragically when the group's compound burned to the ground, killing at least 72 persons.

In early 2003, 51 Democratic state representatives fled Texas for Oklahoma to prevent the Republican-dominated state House of Representatives from passing a controversial redistricting plan that would favor Republicans. The tactic worked when the House failed to reach quorum and the redistricting bill died. Eleven state Democratic senators later also fled the state (for New Mexico) in July 2003 to break quorum and thus block a redistricting bill. Republican Governor Rick Perry called special legislative sessions to take up the redistricting measures. In August, the absent senators filed suit in Laredo in *Barrientos v. State of Texas* alleging Republican officials violated the Voting Rights Act by failing to obtain necessary Department of Justice preclearance before changing redistricting practices and procedures and by abandoning the “two-

thirds rule” in the Senate: the “two-thirds rule” is regarded as a Senate tradition, which ensure that at least two-thirds of the membership have an interest in debating a measure before it comes to the floor. In September, a three-judge panel in Laredo dismissed all plaintiffs’ claims in *Barrientos v. State of Texas*. In October, the Texas legislature passed the mid-decade redistricting plan in favor of the Republicans. Senate Democrats, in *Session v. Perry*, challenged the legality of the plan and filed a motion with the US Supreme Court to stay elections. The Supreme Court in April 2004 reaffirmed the lower court ruling in *Barrientos v. State of Texas*.

On 24 September 2005, Hurricane Rita made landfall as a strong Category 3 storm just east of Sabine Pass, Texas. Some areas received up to 20 inches of rain. This hurricane followed on the heels of Hurricane Katrina, which on 29 August devastated New Orleans, Louisiana, when levees there broke. Damages from Hurricane Rita were estimated at \$8 billion. The death toll rose to over 100, but most of the victims died before the hurricane struck, either while preparing for the storm or fleeing from it.

¹²STATE GOVERNMENT

Texas has been governed directly under eight constitutions: the Mexican national constitution of 1824, the Coahuila-Texas state constitution of 1827, the independent Republic of Texas constitution of 1836, and the five US state constitutions of 1845, 1861, 1866, 1869, and 1876. This last document, with 432 amendments (through 2005), is the foundation of the state government today. An attempt to replace it with eight propositions that in effect would have given Texas a new constitution was defeated at the polls in November 1975.

The state legislature consists of a Senate of 31 members elected to four-year terms, and a House of Representatives of 150 members elected to two-year terms. The legislature meets on the second Tuesday in January of odd-numbered years for sessions of as many as 140 calendar days; the governor may also call special sessions, each limited to 30 calendar days. Senators and representatives receive the same pay, pursuant to a constitutional amendment of 1975: \$7,200 per year (as of 2004, unchanged from 1999) and \$124 per diem living expenses (as of 2004) while the legislature is in session. All legislators must be US citizens, qualified voters, and residents of their districts for at least one year. Further, senators are required to be at least 26 years old and to have lived in the state for a minimum of five years. Representatives must be at least 21 and must have lived in the state for at least two years before election.

The state’s chief executives are the governor and lieutenant governor, separately elected to four-year terms. Other elected executives, also serving four-year terms, include the attorney general, comptroller, commissioner of agriculture, and commissioner of the general land office. The remaining cabinet members are appointed by the governor, who also appoints members of the many executive boards and commissions. The governor, whose salary was \$115,345 as of December 2004 (unchanged from 1999), must be a US citizen, at least 30 years old, and must have resided in the state for at least five years prior to election. A uniquely important executive agency is the Railroad Commission of Texas (RRC). Established in 1891 and consisting of three members elected for six-year terms, the commission regulates the state’s railroads, oil and gas production, coal and uranium mining, and trucking industry.

The RRC thus wields extraordinary economic power, and the alleged influence by the regulated industries over the commission has been a major source of political controversy in the state.

To become law, a bill must be approved by a majority of members present and voting in each house, with a quorum of two-thirds of the membership present, and either signed by the governor or left unsigned for 10 days while the legislature is in session or 20 days after it has adjourned. A gubernatorial veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the elected members. Overrides have been rare: the vote in April 1979 by state legislators to override the new Republican governor’s veto of a minor wildlife regulation measure affecting only one county was the first successful attempt in 38 years. A constitutional amendment requires a two-thirds vote of the membership of each house and ratification by the voters at the next election.

In order to vote in Texas one must be a US citizen, at least 18 years old, and a resident in the county of registration. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

¹³POLITICAL PARTIES

Until recent years, the Democratic Party had dominated politics in Texas. William P. Clements Jr., elected governor in 1978, was the first Republican since Reconstruction to hold that office. No Republican carried Texas in a presidential election until 1928, when Herbert Hoover defeated Democrat Al Smith, a Roman Catholic at a severe disadvantage in a Protestant fundamentalist state. Another Roman Catholic, Democratic presidential candidate John Kennedy, carried the state in 1960 largely because he had a Texan, Lyndon Johnson, on his ticket.

Prior to the Civil War, many candidates for statewide office ran as independents. After a period of Republican rule during Reconstruction, Democrats won control of the statehouse and state legislature in 1873. The major challenge to Democratic rule during the late 19th century came not from Republicans but from the People’s Party, whose candidates placed second in the gubernatorial races of 1894, 1896, and 1898, aided by the collapse of the cotton market; imposition of a poll tax in 1902 helped disfranchise the poor white farmers and laborers who were the base of Populist support. The Populists and the Farmers’ Alliance probably exercised their greatest influence through a Democratic reformer, Governor James S. Hogg (1891–95), who fought the railroad magnates, secured lower freight rates for farmers and shippers, and curbed the power of large landholding companies. Another Democratic governor, James E. “Farmer Jim” Ferguson, was elected on an agrarian reform platform in 1914 and reelected in 1916, but was impeached and convicted the following year for irregular financial dealings. Barred from holding state office, he promoted the candidacy of his wife, Miriam “Ma” Ferguson, whose first term as governor (1925–27) marked her as a formidable opponent of the Ku Klux Klan. During her second term (1933–35), the state’s first New Deal reforms were enacted, and prohibition was repealed. The Fergusons came to represent the more liberal wing of the Democratic Party in a state where liberals have long been in the minority. After the progressive administration of Governor James V. Allred, during which the state’s first old-age assistance program was enacted, conservative Democrats, sometimes called “Texas Tories,” controlled the state until the late 1970s.

In the November 1994 elections, George W. Bush (son of former President George H. W. Bush), upset Ann Richards to become governor. Bush was reelected in 1998, shortly before announcing his run for the US presidency. In 2000 following his election as president, Bush turned the governor's office over to Republican Rick Perry. Perry was elected in his own right in 2002. Texas is represented in the US Senate by Republican Kay Bailey Hutchison, who was first elected in 1993 to fill the Senate seat vacated by Democrat Lloyd Bentsen, who resigned to become secretary of the treasury in the Clinton administration. In 1994, Hutchinson won reelection to a full term, and she was reelected once again in 2000. Republican John Cornyn was elected to the Senate in 2002. Following the 2002 elections, Texas Democrats held 11 seats in the US House of Representatives and the Republicans 21. As of mid-2005, the Republicans continued to control the state House by a margin of 87 to 63, and they had a majority of 19–12 over the Democrats in the state Senate.

Republican and native son George H.W. Bush captured 56% of the vote in the 1988 presidential election and 41% in the 1992 election. In 2000, his son, George W. Bush, took 59% of the presidential popular vote to Democrat Al Gore's 38%, and Bush went on to become president. In 2004, as an incumbent Bush won 61.2% of the vote to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 38.3%. As of 2004 there were 13,098,000 registered voters in the state; there is no voter registration by party in Texas. The state had 34 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, an increase of 2 votes over 2000.

Aside from the Populists, third parties have played a minor role in Texas politics. The Native American (Know-Nothing) Party helped elect Sam Houston governor in 1859. In 1968, George Wallace of the American Independent Party won 19% of the Texas

popular vote and in 1992 native son Ross Perot picked up 22% of the vote.

Following passage of the federal Voting Rights Act of 1965, registration of black voters increased to about 11.5% of the total population of voters. Between 1895 and 1967, no black person served as a state legislator. By 1993, however, there were 472 blacks holding elective office. At about the same time, Hispanic elected officials numbered 2,215. Democrat Henry Cisneros, former mayor of San Antonio, served as Secretary of Housing and Urban Development in the Clinton Administration.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The Texas constitution grants considerable autonomy to local governments. As of 2005, Texas had 254 counties, a number that has remained constant since 1931. Also in 2005, there were 1,196 municipal governments, 1,040 public school districts (down from 8,600 in 1910), and 2,245 special districts.

Each county is governed by a commissioners' court, consisting of commissioners elected by precinct and a county judge or administrator elected at large. Other elected officials generally include a county clerk, attorney, treasurer, assessor-collector, and sheriff.

At the municipal level, cities with populations greater than 5,000 can adopt home rule.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 1,016,476 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Texas operates under executive order and state statute; a

Texas Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004							
YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	TEXAS WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROGRESSIVE	PROHIBITION
1948	23	*Truman (D)	750,700	282,240	106,909	3,764	2,758
					CONSTITUTION		
1952	24	*Eisenhower (R)	969,227	1,102,818	1,563	—	1,983
1956	24	*Eisenhower (R)	859,958	1,080,619	14,591	—	—
1960	24	*Kennedy (D)	1,167,935	1,121,693	18,170	—	3,868
1964	25	*Johnson (D)	1,663,185	958,566	5,060	—	—
					AMERICAN IND.		
1968	25	Humphrey (D)	1,266,804	1,227,844	584,269	—	—
					AMERICAN	SOC. WORKERS	
1972	26	*Nixon (R)	1,154,289	2,298,896	6,039	8,664	—
1976	26	*Carter (D)	2,082,319	1,953,300	11,442	1,723	—
					LIBERTARIAN		
1980	26	*Reagan (R)	1,881,147	2,510,705	37,643	—	—
1984	29	*Reagan (R)	1,949,276	3,433,428	—	—	—
						NEW ALLIANCE	
1988	29	*Bush (R)	2,352,748	3,036,829	30,355	7,208	—
						POPULIST/AMERICA FIRST	IND. (Perot)
1992	32	Bush (R)	2,281,815	2,496,071	19,699	505	1,354,781
1996	32	Dole (R)	2,549,683	2,736,167	20,256	—	378,537
						GREEN	IND.
2000	32	*Bush, G. W. (R)	2,433,746	3,799,639	23,160	137,994	(Buchanan) 12,394
						WRITE-IN	WRITE-IN
2004	34	*Bush, G. W. (R)	2,832,704	4,526,917	38,787	(Nader) 9,159	(Peroutka) 1,636

*Won US presidential election.

homeland security director oversees the state's homeland security activities.

The Texas Commission on Environmental Quality is responsible for environmental protection. The Department of Housing and Community Affairs helps to provide shelter for all citizens. The Ethics Commission promotes individual participation and confidence in governmental processes by enforcing and administering applicable laws and by providing public official conduct information.

Educational services in the public schools are administered by the Texas Education Agency, which is run by a commissioner of education appointed by an elected State Board of Education. The Higher Education Coordinating Board, consisting of appointed members, oversees public higher education. Transportation facilities are regulated by the Department of Transportation and the Texas Railroad Commission.

Health and welfare services are offered by the Department of Family and Protective Services, the Department of Aging and Disability Services, the Council for Developmental Disabilities, Texas Health and Human Services, the Health and Human Services Commission, and the Department of State Health Services. Public protection is the responsibility of the National Guard, Texas Department of Criminal Justice, and Texas Youth Commission, which maintains institutions for juvenile offenders. Labor services are provided by the Texas Workforce Investment Council and the Department of Licensing and Regulation. Other departments deal with public safety, banking, and agriculture.

¹⁶JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Texas judiciary is comprised of a supreme court, a state court of criminal appeals, 14 courts of appeals, and more than 380 district courts.

The highest court is the Supreme Court, consisting of a chief justice and eight justices, who are popularly elected to staggered six-year terms. The Court of Criminal Appeals, which has final jurisdiction in most criminal cases, consists of a presiding judge and eight judges, who are also elected to staggered six-year terms.

Justices of the courts of appeals, numbering 80 in 1999, are elected to six-year terms and sit in 14 judicial districts; each court has a chief justice and at least two associate justices. There were 27 district court judges in 1999, each elected to a four-year term. County, justice of the peace, and municipal courts handle local matters.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 168,105 prisoners (the highest in the United States) were held in Texas's state and federal prisons, an increase from 166,911 of 0.7% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 13,958 inmates were female, up from 13,487 or 3.5% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Texas had an incarceration rate of 694 per 100,000 population in 2004 (the second-highest in the United States, below Louisiana).

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Texas in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 540.5 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 121,554 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 1,010,702 reported incidents or 4,494 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Texas

has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 363 executions (highest in the United States); 19 inmates were executed in 2005 and 8 in 2006 (as of 5 May). As of 1 January 2006, Texas had 409 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Texas spent \$2,164,257,669 on homeland security, an average of \$101 per state resident.

¹⁷ARMED FORCES

In few states do US military forces and defense-related industries play such a large role as in Texas, which as of 2004 had 109,760 active-duty military personnel and 39,385 civilian personnel employed at major US military bases, second to California in defense personnel. Also in 2004, Texas received prime defense contract awards worth more than \$21 billion, third-largest awards in the United States after California and Virginia, first and second, respectively. Texas was also third in that nation in defense payroll outlays of \$11.08 billion, after Virginia, first with \$15.9 billion, and California, second with \$15.0 billion.

Ft. Sam Houston, at San Antonio, is headquarters of the US 5th Army Recruiting Brigade and home to the 4th Infantry Division, the most lethal, modern, and deployable heavy division in the world. It is also the headquarters of the US Army Health Services Command and the site of the Academy of Health Sciences, the largest US military medical school, enrolling more than 25,000 officers and enlisted personnel. Ft. Bliss, at El Paso, is the home of the US Army Air Defense Artillery Center. Ft. Hood, near Killeen, is headquarters of the 3rd Army Corps and other military units. It is the state's single largest defense installation and Ft. Hood is the only post in the United States capable of stationing and training two Armored Divisions.

Four principal Air Force bases are located near San Antonio: Brooks, Kelly, Lackland, and Randolph. Other major air bases are Dyess (Abilene); Goodfellow (San Angelo); Laughlin (Del Rio); and Sheppard (Wichita Falls). All US-manned space flights are controlled from the Lyndon B. Johnson Space Center, operated by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Naval air training stations are located at Corpus Christi, Dallas, and Kingsville. The Inactive Ships Maintenance Facility, at Orange, was home port for some of the US Navy's "mothball fleet" from 1945 to 1975 when it was closed.

Texas was a major military training center during World War II, when about one out of every 10 soldiers was trained there. Some 750,000 Texans served in the US armed forces during that war; the state's war dead numbered 23,022. Military veterans living in the state in 2003 totaled 1,681,748, including 194,173 who served in World War II; 154,449 during the Korean conflict; 517,031 during the Vietnam era; and 322,909 during the Gulf War. Expenditures on Texas veterans totaled nearly \$5.0 billion in 2004.

The Texas Army National Guard has dual status as a federal and state military force. The Texas State Guard is an all-volunteer force available either to back up National Guard units or to respond to local emergencies.

The famous Texas Rangers, a state police force first employed in 1823 (though not formally organized until 1835) to protect the early settlers, served as scouts for the US Army during the Mexican War. Many individual rangers fought with the Confederacy in the Civil War; during Reconstruction, however, the rangers were

used to enforce unpopular carpetbagger laws. Later, the rangers put down banditry on the Rio Grande. The force was reorganized in 1935 as a unit of the Department of Public Safety and is now called on in major criminal cases, helps control mob violence in emergencies, and sometimes assists local police officers. The Texas Rangers have been romanticized in fiction and films, but one of their less glamorous tasks has been to intervene in labor disputes on the side of management. In 2004, the Texas Department of Public Safety employed 3,407 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Estimates of the number of Indians living in Texas when the first Europeans arrived range from 30,000 to 130,000. Eventually, they all were killed, fled southward or westward, or were removed to reservations. The first great wave of white settlers, beginning in 1821, came from nearby southern states, particularly Tennessee, Alabama, Arkansas, and Mississippi; some of these newcomers brought their black slaves to work in the cotton fields. During the 1840s, a second wave of immigrants arrived directly from Germany, France, and eastern Europe.

Interstate migration during the second half of the 19th century was accelerated by the Homestead Act of 1862 and the westward march of the railroads. Particularly notable since 1900 has been the intrastate movement from rural areas to the cities; this trend was especially pronounced from the end of World War II, when about half the state's population was rural, to the late 1970s, when nearly four out of every five Texans made their homes in metropolitan areas.

Texas's net gain from migration between 1940 and 1980 was 1,821,000, 81% of that during the 1970–80 period. A significant proportion of postwar immigrants were seasonal laborers from Mexico, remaining in the United States either legally or illegally. By 1990, Texas had a foreign-born population of 1,524,436, representing 9% of the total. During 1980–83, Texas had the highest net migration gain—922,000—in the nation. From 1985 to 1990, the net gain from migration was 36,700. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 541,000 in domestic migration and 656,000 in international migration. In 1996, the state's foreign-born population was 2,081,000, or 11% of the total population. In 1998, 44,428 foreign immigrants arrived in Texas, the fourth-highest total among the states. Of that total, the greatest number of immigrants (22,956) came from Mexico. Between 1990 and 1998, Texas's overall population increased 16.3%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 663,161 and net internal migration was 218,722, for a net gain of 881,883 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Texas Commission on Interstate Cooperation represents Texas before the Council of State Governments. Texas is a member of the Interstate Mining Compact Commission and Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission. The state also belongs to the Gulf States Marine Fisheries Commission, South Central Interstate Forest Fire Protection Compact, Southern States Energy Board, and Southern Regional Education Board, and to accords apportioning the waters of the Canadian, Pecos, Red River, Pecos, and Sabine rivers and the Rio Grande. During fiscal year 2005, Texas received \$22.347 billion in federal grants (third largest after California and New York). In fiscal year 2006, Texas received an esti-

mated \$23.000 billion in federal grants, and an estimated \$23.782 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Traditionally, the Texas economy has been dependent on the production of cotton, cattle, timber, and petroleum. In recent years, cotton has declined in importance, cattle ranchers have suffered financial difficulties because of increased production costs, and lumber production has remained relatively stable. In the 1970s, as a result of rising world petroleum prices, oil and natural gas emerged as by far the state's most important resource. The decades since World War II have also witnessed a boom in the electronics, computer, transport equipment, aerospace, and communications industries, which has placed Texas second only to California in manufacturing among all the states of the Sunbelt region. Between 1972 and 1982, the Texas economy grew 6% a year, twice the national average, led by a booming oil industry. Other factors that contributed to the Lone Star State's robust economy in the early 1980s were a plentiful labor market, high worker productivity, diversification of new industries, and less restrictive regulation of business activities than in most other states. The result was a steady increase in industrial production, construction values, retail sales, and personal income, coupled with a relatively low rate of unemployment. In 1982, however, Texas began to be affected by the worldwide recession. Lower energy demand, worldwide overproduction of oil, and the resulting fall in prices, caused a steep decline in the state's petroleum industry. Unemployment in Texas jumped from 6.9% in 1982 to 8% in 1983, a period during which the national rate fell 0.1%. Much of this unemployment was among persons who came to Texas seeking jobs, particularly from northern industrial states. The rise and fall of the oil industry's fortunes affected other industries as well. Thousands of banks that had speculated in real estate in the early eighties, saw many of their investments become worthless, and numerous banks were declared insolvent.

In the wake of the oil-centered recession, Texas began attempts to diversify. The state government has successfully wooed high-tech industries to locate in Texas. The percentage of economic activity contributed by the oil and gas extraction industry dropped from about 20% to 6% between 1980 and 2000. Electronics, telecommunications, food processing, services and retail trade, on the other hand, saw substantial growth in the 1990s. While output from oil and gas extraction increased 7.4% between 1997 and 2001, output from general services rose 35.4%, while output from financial services rose 32.5%; with retail and wholesale trade rising 30.7%, transportation and public utilities by 26.4%, and from government by 24%. In the recession and slowdown of 2001 and 2002, employment growth in Texas followed the national trends, remaining negative through the end of 2002. Shortfalls in state revenues flowing, particularly from the collapse of capital gains income, faced the state government with a serious budget deficit. However, higher oil prices following a Venezuelan oil strike, the US-led invasion of Iraq and rising tensions with Iran have benefited the Texas economy.

In 2004, Texas's gross state product (GSP) was \$884.136 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$106.749 billion or 12% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$90.670 billion (10.2% of GSP),

and mining at \$56.971 billion (6.4% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 1,787,607 small businesses in Texas. Of the 404,683 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 399,323 or 98.7% were small companies. An estimated 54,098 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 2.7% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 55,792, up 0.6% from 2003. There were 3,094 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 1.9% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 407 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Texas as the 37th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Texas had a gross state product (GSP) of \$982 billion which accounted for 7.9% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 2 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Texas had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$30,732. This ranked 29th in the United States and was 93% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.3%. Texas had a total personal income (TPI) of \$690,587,968,000, which ranked third in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.1% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 6.3%. Earnings of persons employed in Texas increased from \$536,483,781,000 in 2003 to \$571,564,011,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$41,275 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 16.4% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Texas 11,390,900, with approximately 578,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 9,928,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Texas was 9.3% in October 1986. The historical low was 4.3% in January 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.9% of the labor force was employed in construction; 9.1% in manufacturing; 20.4% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6.3% in financial activities; 12.1% in professional and business services; 12.2% in education and health services; 9.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.1% in government.

Organized labor has never been able to establish a strong base in Texas, and a state right-to-work law continues to make unionization difficult. The earliest national union, the Knights of Labor, declined in Texas after failing to win a strike against the railroads in 1886 when the Texas Rangers served as strike breakers. That same year, the American Federation of Labor (AFL) began to organize workers along craft lines. One of the more protracted and violent disputes in Texas labor history occurred in 1935 when longshoremen struck Gulf coast ports for 62 days. The Congress of

Industrial Organizations (CIO) succeeded in organizing oil-field and maritime workers during the 1930s.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 506,000 of the state's 9,485,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 5.3% of those so employed, up from 5% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 590,000 workers (6.2%) in Texas were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation.

As of 1 March 2006, Texas had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 44.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Texas ranked second among the 50 states in agricultural production in 2005, with farm marketings totaling nearly \$16.9 billion (7.2% of US total); crops accounted for 33% of the total. Texas leads the nation in output of cotton, grain sorghum, hay, watermelons, cabbages, and spinach.

Since 1880, Texas has been the leading producer of cotton (producing both Upland and American-Pima), which accounted for 33% of total US production and 9.4% of the state's farm marketings in 2004. After 1900, Texas farmers developed bumper crops of wheat, corn, and other grains by irrigating dry land and transformed the "great Sahara" of West Texas into one of the nation's foremost grain-growing regions. Texans also grow practically every vegetable suited to a temperate or semitropical climate. Since World War II, farms have become fewer and larger, more specialized in raising certain crops and meat animals, more expensive to operate, and far more productive.

About 130 million acres (52.6 million hectares) are devoted to farms and ranches, representing more than three-fourths of the state's total area. The number of farms declined from 420,000 in 1940 to fewer than 185,000 in 1978, but rose to 229,000 in 2004. The average farm was valued at \$855 per acre in 2004.

Productive farmland is located throughout the state. Grains are grown mainly in the temperate north and west, and vegetables and citrus fruits in the subtropical south. Cotton has been grown in all sections, but in recent years, it has been extensively cultivated in the High Plains of the west and the upper Rio Grande Valley. Grain sorghum, wheat, corn, hay, and other forage crops are raised in the north-central and western plains regions. Rice is cultivated along the Gulf coast, and soybeans are raised mainly in the High Plains and Red River Valley.

Major crops in 2004 included: upland cotton, 5.35 million acres produced 7.5 million bales (valued at \$1.53 billion); wheat, 3.5 million acres produced 108.5 million bushels (valued at \$363.5 million); hay, 5.35 million acres produced 12.3 million (valued at \$833.6 million); sorghum, grain, 2.1 million acres produced 127.1 million bushels (valued at \$288.3 million); corn, 1.7 million acres produced 233.5 million bushels (valued at \$595.5 million); rice, 218,000 acres produced 14,690 hundred weight (valued at \$120.5 million); vegetables, fresh, 93,500 acres produced 1,010,460 tons (valued at \$366.2 million); soybeans, 290,000 acres produced 86 million bushels (valued at \$50.5 million).

The major vegetables and fruits, in terms of value, are onions, cabbages, watermelons, carrots, potatoes, cantaloupes, green peppers, honeydew melons, spinach, cucumbers, and lettuce. Cot-

tonseed, barley, oats, peanuts, pecans, sugar beets, sugarcane, and sunflowers are also produced in commercial quantities.

The total value of farmland and buildings alone was estimated at \$111.1 billion in 2004, higher than any other state.

About 11.8% of cropland was irrigated in 2002, primarily in the High Plains; other areas dependent on irrigation included the lower Rio Grande Valley and the trans-Pecos region. Approximately 80% of the irrigated land is supplied with water pumped from wells. Because more than half of the state's irrigation pumps are fueled by natural gas, the cost of irrigation increased significantly as gas prices rose during the 1970s.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

About two-thirds of cattle fattened for market are kept in feedlots located in the Texas panhandle and northwestern plains. In 2005, Texas ranked first in number of cattle and calves with an estimated 13.8 million, valued at \$10.8 billion. During 2004, Texas farms had around 980,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$86.2 million. In 2003, Texas's production of sheep and lambs was second after California at 61.9 million lb (28.1 million kg), valued at \$50.7 million; shorn wool production was an estimated 5.6 million lb (2.5 million kg) in 2004.

About 90% of the dairy industry is located in eastern Texas. In 2003, milk production was around 5.6 billion lb (2.5 billion kg) from 319,000 milk cows. Poultry production included 2.95 billion lb (1.4 billion kg) of broilers, valued at around \$1.03 billion, and 4.8 billion eggs were produced, valued at \$310 million.

Breeding of Palominos, Arabians, Appaloosas, Thoroughbreds, and quarter horses is a major industry in Texas. The animals are most abundant in the most heavily populated areas, and it is not unusual for residential subdivisions of metropolitan areas to include facilities for keeping and riding horses.

25 FISHING

In 2004, the commercial catch was about 85.6 million lb (38.9 million kg), valued at \$166.2 million. Brownsville-Port Isabel ranked 14th in the nation in ports bringing in the most valuable catches, with receipts of \$40.3 million. Other high value ports included Port Arthur (16th), Galveston (20th), and Palacios (25th).

The most important catch was shrimp. In 2004, Texas had the second largest shrimp catch in the nation with 70.1 million lb (31.9 million kg). Other commercial shellfish include blue crabs and oysters. Species of saltwater fish with the greatest commercial value are yellowfin tuna, red snapper, swordfish, and flounder. Texas had 93 fish processing and wholesale plants employing 2,262 people in 2003.

Early in 1980, the US government banned shrimp fishing for 45 days, effective in the summer of 1981, in order to conserve shrimp supplies. Texas has since continued to close the Gulf to shrimping from about 1 June to 15 July.

In 2005, Texas had 62 catfish farms covering 1,030 acres (417 hectares) with sales of \$3.5 million, and a 2006 inventory of 10.1 million fingerlings and 2.1 million stocker-sized fish. The state manages fish stocks and habitats to maintain 40.4 million freshwater and 14.5 million marine angler days per year. There are three national fish hatcheries in the state (Uvalde, Inks Dam, and San Marcos). In 2004, Texas issued 1,632,016 sport fishing licenses, more than any other state. Among the most sought-after native

freshwater fish are large-mouth and white bass, crappie, sunfish, and catfish.

26 FORESTRY

Texas forestland in 2003 covered 17,149,000 acres (6,940,000 hectares), representing 2.3% of the US total and over 10% of the state's land area. Commercial timberland comprised 11,774,000 acres (4,765,000 hectares), of which about 90% was privately owned. Timberlands managed by the federal government covered 794,000 acres (321,000 hectares). Most forested land, including practically all commercial timberland, is located in the Piney Woods region of east Texas.

In 2004, Texas timberlands yielded 1.79 billion board ft of lumber (88% softwood), tenth in the United States. Primary forest products manufactured include plywood, waferboard, and pulpwood. Texas wood-treating plants process utility poles, crossties, lumber, and fence posts.

The Texas Forest Service, a member of the Texas A&M University System, provides direct, professional forestry assistance to private landowners, manages several state and federal reforestation and forest stewardship incentives programs, coordinates pest control activities, and assists in protecting against wildfires statewide. In addition, the state agency has an urban and community forestry program, forest products laboratory, two tree nurseries, and a genetics laboratory.

As of 2005 there were four national forests in Texas—Angelina, Davy Crockett, Sabine, and Sam Houston—with a total area of 641,574 acres (259,645 hectares). Texas also has five state forests: the E. O. Sieck, W. Goodrich Jones, I. D. Fairchild, John Henry Kirby, and Paul N. Masterson Memorial State Forests.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Texas in 2003 was valued at around \$2 billion, a decrease from 2002 of about 3%. The USGS data ranked Texas as fourth among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 5% of total US output.

In descending order of value, according to preliminary data for 2003, cement (portland and masonry), crushed stone, construction sand and gravel, lime and salt were the state's top nonfuel minerals. Collectively, these five commodities accounted for around 93% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value, with cement alone accounting for almost 39% of all nonfuel mineral production by the state. Nationally, in descending order of value, Texas in 2003 was the nation's leading producer of crushed stone, second in the production of portland cement, construction sand and gravel, salt, common clays, gypsum, talc, and zeolites. The state was also second (out of two states) in the production of crude helium, ball clay (out of four), and second in the production of brucite (out of two).

The preliminary data for 2003 showed production of portland cement at 10.6 million metric tons, with an estimated value of \$753 million, while crushed stone output, that same year, totaled 104 million metric tons, and was valued at \$504 million. Construction sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 78 million metric tons and was valued at \$394 million, while lime output totaled 1.58 million metric tons, with a value of \$104 million. Salt

output in 2003 was put at 8.47 million metric tons, and was valued at \$99.3 million.

In 2003, Texas also produced fuller's earth, kaolin, and dimension stone.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Texas is an energy-rich state. Its vast deposits of petroleum and natural gas liquids account for nearly 30% of US proved liquid hydrocarbon reserves. Texas is also the largest producer and exporter of oil and natural gas to other states, and it leads the United States in electric power production.

As of 2003, Texas had 210 electrical power service providers, of which 72 were publicly owned and 68 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, 53 were investor owned, and 17 were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 10,114,100 retail customers. Of that total, 7,046,095 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 1,568,284 customers, while publicly owned providers had 1,499,968 customers. There were 23 independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 99,593 million kW, with total production that same year at 379.199 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 22.9% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 77.1% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 184.911 billion kWh (48.8%), came from natural gas fired plants, with coal-fired plants in second place at 146.989 billion kWh (38.8%) and nuclear fueled plants in third at 33.437 billion kWh (8.8%). Other renewable power sources, plants using other types of gases, petroleum fired plants, hydroelectric facilities and "other" types of generating plants accounted for the remaining output.

As of 2006, the state had four nuclear reactors in operation: two at the Comanche Peak plant in Somervell County; and two at the South Texas plant (the largest commercial reactors in the United States) near Bay City.

The state's first oil well was drilled in 1866 at Melrose in East Texas, and the first major oil discovery was made in 1894 at Corsicana, northwest of Melrose, in Navarro County. The famous Spindletop gusher, near Beaumont, was tapped on 10 January 1901. Another great oil deposit was discovered in the panhandle in 1921, and the largest of all, the East Texas field, in Rusk County, was opened in 1930. Subsequent major oil discoveries were made in West Texas, starting in Scurry County in 1948. Thirty years later, the state's crude-oil production exceeded 1 billion barrels. In 1983, production was 908.2 million barrels, averaging 2.5 million barrels per day. Production in 1999 was 449.2 million barrels (including over 1 million barrels from offshore wells), averaging 1.23 million barrels per day.

As of 2004, Texas had proven crude oil reserves of 4,613 million barrels, or 22% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 1,073,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked second (first excluding federal offshore) in both proven reserves and production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Texas had 151,653 producing oil wells and accounted for 20% of all US production. As of 2005, the

state's 26 refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 4,627,611 barrels per day.

In 2004, Texas had 72,237 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 5,067.315 billion cu ft (143.91 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 49,955 billion cu ft (1,418.7 billion cu m).

Texas in 2004, had 13 producing coal mines, all of which were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 45,863,000 short tons, down from 47,517,000 short tons in 2003. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 546 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Before 1900, Texas had an agricultural economy based, in the common phrase, on "cotton, cows, and corn." When the first US Census of Manufactures was taken in Texas in 1849, there were only 309 industrial establishments, with 1,066 wage earners; payrolls totaled \$322,368, and the value added by manufacture was a mere \$773,896. The number of establishments increased tenfold by 1899, when the state had 38,604 wage earners and a total value added of \$38,506,130. During World War II, the value added passed the \$1-billion mark, and by 1982, the total was \$53.4 billion.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, the state's manufacturing sector covered some 21 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$385.534 billion. Of that total, petroleum and coal products manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$91.303 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$90.169 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$41.537 billion; food manufacturing at \$31.430 billion; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$24.747 billion.

In 2004, a total of 773,506 people in Texas were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 525,332 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the fabricated metal product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees with 98,407 (74,214 actual production workers). It was followed by food manufacturing, with 82,594 (62,350 actual production workers); computer and electronic product manufacturing, with 72,604 (33,125 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing, with 70,968 (42,913 actual production workers); and transportation equipment manufacturing, with 70,871 (40,627 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Texas's manufacturing sector paid \$33.559 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$4.435 billion. It was followed by chemical manufacturing at \$4.062 billion; transport equipment manufacturing at \$3.888 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$3.639 billion; and machinery manufacturing at \$3.143 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Texas's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$397.4 billion from 31,832 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 20,192 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 9,493 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 2,147 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$183.4 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$177.9 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$36.06 billion.

Texas ranked second among the 50 states in wholesale trade in 2002. The leading wholesaling centers are the Houston, Dallas-Ft. Worth, San Antonio, El Paso, Lubbock, Midland, Amarillo, Austin, and Corpus Christi metropolitan areas.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Texas was listed as having 75,703 retail establishments with sales of \$228.6 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (10,610); clothing and clothing accessories stores (10,275); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (9,319); food and beverage stores (8,903); and miscellaneous store retailers (8,216). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$67.4 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$35.6 billion; food and beverage stores at \$32.3 billion; gasoline stations at \$20.3 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$16.2 billion. A total of 1,026,326 people were employed by the retail sector in Texas that year. The state also ranked second behind California in retail sales in 2002.

Foreign exports through Texas during 2005 totaled \$128.7 billion. The leading items shipped through Texas ports to foreign countries were grains, chemicals, fertilizers, and petroleum refinery products; principal imports included crude petroleum, minerals and metals (especially aluminum ores), liquefied gases, motor vehicles, bananas, sugar, and molasses. Texas ranked first among the 50 states in 2005 as an exporter of goods produced in the state.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Attorney General's Consumer Protection Division protects consumers and the legitimate business community by filing civil lawsuits under the Deceptive Trade Practices Act (DTPA) and other related statutes. The division is best known for its work in traditional areas of consumer protection litigation such as false and deceptive advertising, defective merchandise, and home or appliance repair scams, for example.

The attorney general's litigation activities are supplemented by a highly effective mediation program that is available to Texas consumers who have complaints amenable to informal resolution. The Consumer Protection Division also disseminates a wide range of public information materials to educate consumers about their rights, alert them to trends in deceptive or unfair business practices, and prevent losses due to fraud before they occur. Over the years, the division has succeeded in winning funds for consumer education as part of the settlement of consumer protection litigation.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil proceedings but can only initiate criminal proceedings under specific statutes for specific crimes. The office can represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies, administer consumer protection and education programs, and handle formal consumer complaints. However its exercise of subpoena powers is limited. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law, but the Office has no power to initiate criminal proceedings in an antitrust case.

The state's Office of the Attorney General has regional offices in Austin, Dallas, El Paso, Houston, Lubbock, McAllen, San Antonio. There is a county government consumer affairs office under the District Attorney's Office in Houston, and the city of Dallas also has its own consumer affairs office located within the city's Department of Environmental and Health services.

32 BANKING

Texas has the second highest number of banks in the nation, behind Illinois. As of June 2005, Texas had 677 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 231 state-chartered and 407 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Dallas-Fort Worth market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 176 institutions and \$113.409 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 18% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$49.146 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 72% or \$224.280 billion in assets held.

Banking was illegal in the Texas Republic and under the first state constitution, reflecting the widespread fear of financial speculation like that which had caused the panic of 1837. Because both the independent republic and the new state government found it difficult to raise funds or obtain credit without a banking system, they were forced to borrow money from merchants, thus permitting banking functions and privileges despite the constitutional ban. A formal banking system was legalized during the latter part of the 19th century.

The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans stood at 1.51% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 1.77% in 2004 and 2.04% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered savers and the higher rates charged to loans) for the state's insured institutions stood at 4.50% in fourth quarter 2005, up from 4.22% in 2004 and 4.21% in 2003.

Regulation of Texas's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Finance Commission of Texas's Department of Banking, Savings and Loan Department, and the Office of Consumer Credit.

33 INSURANCE

The industry's most recent state-by-state comparison (year-end 2003) showed Texas ranked second (behind Arizona) in number of domestic life and health insurance companies with 165, and first in the number of domestic property and casualty companies

with 238. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$32.2 billion. That year, there were 459,522 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$84 billion. There were 113,443 beach and windstorm plans in force with a value of about \$30 billion. About \$22.7 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, there were 10.8 million individual life insurance policies in force in Texas with a total value of \$839.3 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$1.4 trillion. The average coverage amount is \$77,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$3.69 billion.

In 2004, 48% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 4% held individual policies, and 21% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 25% of residents were uninsured. Texas has the highest percentage of uninsured residents of all the fifty states; the national average is 16%. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 27% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

Motorists are required to maintain auto insurance coverage that includes a minimum of bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was about \$837.40.

The insurance industry is regulated by the Texas Department of Insurance. TDI is headed by the commissioner of insurance, who is appointed by the governor and confirmed by the state Senate for two-year terms beginning 1 February of odd-numbered years.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Texas. In 2005, there were 5,060 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 14,170 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 729 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 213 NASDAQ companies, 211 NYSE listings, and 56 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had 56 Fortune 500 companies, including 8 in the Fortune 100; Exxon Mobil (based in Irving), ranked first in the state and the nation with revenues of over \$339.9 billion, followed by ConocoPhillips (Houston, sixth in the nation), Valero Energy (San Antonio, 15th in the nation), Marathon Oil (Houston, 23rd in the nation), and Dell Computers (Round Rock, 25th in the nation). Dell is listed on NASDAQ; the other top four companies are listed on the NYSE. A total of 102 companies are listed on the Fortune 1,000.

The State Securities Board, established in 1957, oversees the issuance and sale of stocks and bonds in Texas.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The Texas budget operates on a "pay as you go" basis in that expenditures cannot exceed revenues during the budget cycle. The state's budget period runs on a biennial basis from 1 September of

each odd-numbered year to 31 August of the following odd-numbered year.

The state legislature meets from approximately January to May every odd-numbered year and writes a budget for the next two years. The appropriations committee in the House, and the finance committee in the Senate are responsible for budget development. The primary legislative entity responsible for oversight of the budget when the legislature is not in session is the 10-member legislative budget board. Chaired by the lieutenant governor, the board prepares the initial budget that will be considered by the legislature.

Texas—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	90,570,423	4,030.37
General revenue	71,567,893	3,184.76
Intergovernmental revenue	25,639,654	1,140.96
Taxes	30,751,860	1,368.45
General sales	15,460,221	687.98
Selective sales	9,160,557	407.64
License taxes	4,083,148	181.70
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	—	—
Other taxes	2,047,934	91.13
Current charges	7,027,396	312.72
Miscellaneous general revenue	8,148,983	362.63
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	19,002,530	845.61
Total expenditure	77,338,118	3,441.53
Intergovernmental expenditure	17,032,016	757.92
Direct expenditure	60,306,102	2,683.61
Current operation	40,686,513	1,810.54
Capital outlay	7,429,464	330.61
Insurance benefits and repayments	9,667,420	430.20
Assistance and subsidies	1,481,676	65.93
Interest on debt	1,041,029	46.33
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	11,861,335	527.83
Total expenditure	77,338,118	3,441.53
General expenditure	67,660,579	3,010.88
Intergovernmental expenditure	17,032,016	757.92
Direct expenditure	50,628,563	2,252.96
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	27,312,446	1,215.40
Public welfare	18,613,103	828.28
Hospitals	2,929,885	130.38
Health	1,302,365	57.96
Highways	5,828,707	259.38
Police protection	465,109	20.70
Correction	2,972,593	132.28
Natural resources	893,598	39.76
Parks and recreation	120,673	5.37
Government administration	1,572,677	69.98
Interest on general debt	1,041,029	46.33
Other and unallocable	4,608,394	205.07
Utility expenditure	10,119	.45
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	9,667,420	430.20
Debt at end of fiscal year	22,925,515	1,020.18
Cash and security holdings	197,828,786	8,803.35

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

The governor's office of budget and planning also prepares a budget for the Legislature's consideration. The governor has line-item veto authority over the budget and must sign the appropriations bill before it becomes law. The comptroller of public accounts must also sign the bill certifying that sufficient revenue will be available to fund the budget.

After running large budget surpluses in the early 1980s, the state experienced several years of budget shortfalls in the wake of falling oil prices. As the state's economy has diversified, the budget has shown greater ability to withstand minor economic fluctuations.

Fiscal year (FY) 2006 general funds were estimated at \$35.7 billion for resources and \$32.2 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Texas were \$27.7 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Texas was slated to receive \$22 million (a \$4 million increase over fiscal year 2006) for the Army Corps of Engineers' urban flood damage reduction project in Sims Bayou; \$20 million for the upgrade and expansion of the Ysleta Border Station in El Paso; \$13 million to expand the national cemetery in Dallas/Fort Worth; and \$7.5 million for additional design and construction funds for a new border station at the proposed international bridge in McAllen.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Texas collected \$32,785 million in tax revenues or \$1,434 per capita, which placed it 49th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 49.9% of the total; selective sales taxes, 29.0%; and other taxes, 21.2%.

As of 1 January 2006, Texas had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Wyoming, Washington, Nevada, Florida, Alaska, and South Dakota.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$28,176,329,000 or \$1,254 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 13th highest nationally. Texas has no state level property taxes.

Texas taxes retail sales at a rate of 6.25%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8.25%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 41 cents per pack, which ranks 40th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Texas taxes gasoline at 20 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Texas citizens received \$0.94 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Texas state government has historically been pro business: regulation is less restrictive than in many states, and there is no corporate income tax. The state government actively encourages outside capital investment in Texas industries, and the state's industrial productivity has produced a generally high return on investment.

Texas Economic Development (TXED) (formerly the Texas Industrial Commission) helps businesses locate or expand their operations in the state. Its stated mission is to market Texas and assist communities to maximize their economic development opportunities. The main divisions within TXED are Business Development

and Tourism. A private organization, the Texas Industrial Development Council, in Bryan, also assists new and developing industries.

Texas announced in 2004 it would put more focus on courting businesses within the technology sector through the establishment of the Texas Emerging Technology Fund (TETF), an outgrowth of the Texas Enterprise Fund (TEF) program. Targeted industries range from nanotechnology to environmental sciences.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 17.2 per 1,000 population, the second-highest rate in the country for that year (following Utah). The abortion rate stood at 18.8 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 80.9% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 73% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 199.5; cancer, 156.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 48.4; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 35.4; and diabetes, 26. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 4.9 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 14.7 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 58.8% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.4% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Texas had 414 community hospitals with about 57,300 beds, the highest numbers in the nation. There were about 2.5 million patient admissions that year and 32.3 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 36,400 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,482. Also in 2003, there were about 1,143 certified nursing facilities in the state with 121,548 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 72%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 61.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Texas had 219 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 656 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 10,559 dentists in the state.

There are 8 medical schools, 2 dental colleges, and 64 schools of nursing in the state. The University of Texas has medical colleges at Dallas, Houston, Galveston, San Antonio, and Tyler. The University of Texas Cancer Center at Houston is one of the nation's major facilities for cancer research. Houston is also noted as a center for cardiovascular surgery. On 3 May 1968, Houston surgeon Denton Cooley performed the first human heart transplant in the United States.

In 2005, University of Texas, M.D. Anderson Cancer Center in Houston ranked as the second best hospital in the nation for cancer care by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, the Texas Heart Institute at St. Luke's Episcopal Hospital in Houston was ranked eight in the nation for best care in heart disease and heart surgery. Texas Children's Hospital in Houston ranked fourth for best reputation in pediatric care.

About 17% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 11% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 25% of the state population was uninsured in 2004;

this was the highest percentage of uninsured residents in the nation. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$25.3 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 422,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$259. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 2,451,197 persons (943,506 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$90.41 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was over \$2.6 billion, the highest total in the nation.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Texas's TANF cash assistance program, run by the Department of Human Services, is called Texas Works; the work program, run by the Texas Workforce Commission, is called Choices. In 2004, the state program had 250,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$405 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 2,864,870 Texans. This number included 1,714,830 retired workers, 334,150 widows and widowers, 347,010 disabled workers, 203,650 spouses, and 265,130 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 12.7% of the total state population and 89.7% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$930; widows and widowers, \$870; disabled workers, \$884; and spouses, \$452. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$424 per month; children of deceased workers, \$604; and children of disabled workers, \$253. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 472,347 Texas residents, averaging \$362 a month. An additional \$51,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 10,371 residents.

40 HOUSING

The variety of Texas architectural styles reflects the diversity of the state's topography and climate. In the early settlement period, Spanish-style adobe houses were built in southern Texas. During the 1840s, Anglo-American settlers in the east erected primitive log cabins. These were later replaced by "dog-run" houses, consisting of two rooms linked by an open passageway covered by a gabled roof, so-called because pet dogs slept in the open, roofed shelter, as did occasional overnight guests. During the late 19th century, southern-style mansions were built in East Texas, and the familiar ranch house, constructed of stone and usually stuccoed or whitewashed, with a shingle roof and a long porch, proliferated throughout the state; the modern ranch house in southwestern Texas shows a distinct Mexican-Spanish influence. Climate affects such modern amenities as air conditioning: a new house in the humid eastern region is likely to have a refrigeration-style cooler,

while in the dry west and south, an evaporating "swamp cooler" is the more common means of making hot weather bearable.

In 2004, Texas had an estimated 8,846,728 housing units, of which 7,790,853 were occupied; 65.1% were owner-occupied. That year, Texas had the second-highest number of housing units in the nation (following California). About 64.5% of all units were single-family, detached homes. About 63% of all units were built between 1950 and 1989. Electricity and utility gas were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 492,782 units lacked telephone service, 36,697 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 47,643 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.81 members.

In 2004, 188,800 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$99,858. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,166. Renters paid a median of \$648 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of over \$2.4 million from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$73.2 million in community development block grants (CDBG). Dallas was also awarded about \$18.4 million in CDBG monies, Houston was awarded over \$30.7 million, and San Antonio was awarded over \$14.8 million. Also in 2006, HUD offered an additional \$74.5 million to the state in emergency funds to rebuild housing that was destroyed by Hurricanes Katrina, Rita, and Wilma in late 2005.

41 EDUCATION

Although public instruction began in Texas as early as 1746, education was slow to develop during the period of Spanish and Mexican rule. The legislative foundation for a public school system was laid by the government of the Republic of Texas during the late 1830s, but funding was slow in coming. After annexation, in 1846, Galveston began to support free public schools, and San Antonio had at least four free schools by the time a statewide system of public education was established in 1854. Free segregated schooling was provided for black children beginning in the 1870s, but their schools were ill-maintained and underfinanced. School desegregation was accomplished during the 1960s, nonviolently for the most part.

In 2004, 78.3% of the population 25 years old and over had completed four years of high school, significantly lower than the national average of 84%. Some 24.5% had four or more years of college. The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Texas public schools stood at 4,260,000. Of these, 3,080,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 1,180,000 attended high school. Approximately 38.7% of the students were white, 14.3% were black, 43.8% were Hispanic, 2.9% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.3% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 4,277,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 4,923,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 15.6% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$38 billion. In fall 2003 there were 220,206 students enrolled in 1,282 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Texas scored 281 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 1,152,369 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 41.3% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Texas had 208 degree-granting institutions. Institutions of higher education include 42 public four-year colleges and universities, 69 public two-year college campuses, and 51 nonprofit, private four-year schools. The leading public universities are Texas A&M (College Station), which opened in 1876, and the University of Texas (Austin), founded in 1883. Each institution is now the center of its own university system, including campuses in several other cities. Oil was discovered on lands owned by the University of Texas in 1923, and beginning in 1924, the university and Texas A&M shared more than \$1 billion in oil-related rentals and royalties. Other state-supported institutions include the University of Houston and Texas Tech University (Lubbock).

The first private college in Texas was Rutgersville, established by a Methodist minister in Fayette County in 1840. The oldest private institution still active in the state is Baylor University (1845), at Waco. Other major private universities include Hardin-Simmons (Abilene), Rice (Houston), Southern Methodist or SMU (Dallas), and Texas Christian, or TCU (Ft. Worth). Well-known black-oriented institutions of higher learning include Texas Southern University in Houston and Prairie View A&M University.

Tuition charges to Texas colleges are among the lowest in the nation. The Texas Guaranteed Student Loan Corporation administers a guaranteed-loan program and tuition equalization grants for students in need.

42 ARTS

In 2005, the Texas Commission on the Arts (TCA) and other Texas arts organizations received 91 grants totaling \$2,751,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA); in 2006 TCA celebrated its 40th anniversary. Humanities Texas, formerly the Texas Council for the Humanities was established in 1965. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$3,677,357 for 47 state programs. The state and private sources also provide funding to the Commission and other arts organizations. Both the Texas Museums Association and Texas Responds—a grant program for Texas library services and programs—provided aid for hurricane victims affected by hurricanes Katrina and Rita in 2005.

Although Texas has never been regarded as a leading cultural center, the arts have a long history in the state. The cities of Houston and Matagorda each had a theater before they established churches, and the state's first theater was active in Houston as early as 1838. Stark Young founded the Curtain Club acting group at the University of Texas in Austin in 1909 and the little-theater movement began in that city in 1921. As of 2005, the arts flourished at Houston's Theater District, Jones Hall for the Performing Arts, and Alley Theater, as well as at the Dallas Theater Center, and Theater Three. The Dallas theater company, run by the groundbreaking artist, Margo Jones had a national reputation. After her death in 1955 other companies were founded such as the Texas Repertory Theater Company in Houston. During the late 1970s, Texas also emerged as a center for motion picture production. The city of Austin has since become the host for the Austin Film Festival and the South by Southwest (SXSW) Film festival and SXSW Music and Media Conference and Festival.

Texas has five major symphony orchestras—the Dallas Symphony (performing in the Myerson Symphony Center since 1989), Houston Symphony, San Antonio Symphony, Austin Symphony, and Fort Worth Symphony—and 25 orchestras in other cities. The Houston Grand Opera performs at Jones Hall, and in 1999 received a National Endowment for the Arts Access grant to provide free outdoor performances and artist residencies.

Several cities have resident dance companies, including Abilene, Amarillo, Denton, Galveston, Garland, Longview, Lubbock, Midland-Odessa, and Pampa. The ballet groups in Fort Worth, Austin, and Corpus Christi are notable. As of 2005, the Houston Ballet, founded in 1955, was the fifth-largest ballet company in the United States.

Popular music in Texas stems from early Spanish and Mexican folk songs, Negro spirituals, cowboy ballads, and German-language songfests. Texans pioneered a kind of country and western music that is more outspoken and direct than Nashville's commercial product, and a colony of country-rock songwriters and musicians were active in the Austin area during the 1970s. Texans of Mexican ancestry have also fashioned a Latin-flavored music ("Tejano") that is as distinctly "Tex-Mex" as the state's famous chili. The Texas Talent Musicians Association (TTMA) holds the annual Tejano Music Awards in San Antonio.

There are a number of groups for writers and storytellers, including the Writers' League of Texas and the Tejas Storytelling Association. In 2005 the Texas Storytelling Association celebrated the 20th anniversary of the Texas Storytelling Festival and in 2006 the Writers' League of Texas celebrated its 25th anniversary. In 2000, the National Center for Children's Illustrated Literature (chartered in 1997) opened in Abilene. Besides sponsoring its own museum of illustrated works, the Center provides educational programs and exhibits for teachers and other display venues.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Texas had 540 public library systems, with a total of 825 libraries, of which there were 285 branches. In that same year, the Texas public library system had 35,725,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 81,505,000. The system also had 1,350,000 audio and 1,139,000 video items, 100,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 15 bookmobiles. Funding for public libraries in Texas comes from local cities, counties, school districts, and state and federal sources, with additional funding from donations, gifts, and corporate and foundation grants. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$319,354,000 and included \$3,129,000 in federal grants, and \$1,672,000 in state grants.

The largest municipal libraries in Texas include the Houston Public Library with 4,573,356 volumes, and the Dallas Public Library with 2,568,852 volumes. The University of Texas at Austin, noted for outstanding collections in the humanities and in Latin American studies, had over seven million volumes in 1998. The Lyndon B. Johnson Presidential Library is also located in Austin, as is the Lorenzo de Zavala State Archives and Library Building. Other notable academic libraries include those of Texas A&M University, with over two million volumes, and the University of Houston, Rice University, Southern Methodist University, and

Texas Tech University, all with collections of over one million volumes.

Among the state's 389 museums are Austin's Texas Memorial Museum; the Dallas Museum of Fine Arts and the Dallas Museum of Art; and the Amon Carter Museum of Western Art, the Ft. Worth Art Museums, and Kimbell Art Museum, all in Ft. Worth. Houston has the Museum of Fine Arts, Contemporary Arts Museum, and at least 30 galleries. Both Dallas-Ft. Worth and Houston have become major centers of art sales.

National historic sites in Texas are Ft. Davis (Jeff Davis County), President Johnson's boyhood home and Texas White House (Blanco and Gillespie counties), and the San Jose Mission (San Antonio). Other historic places include the Alamo, Dwight D. Eisenhower's birthplace at Denison, the Sam Rayburn home in Bonham, and the John F. Kennedy memorials in Dallas. A noteworthy prehistoric Indian site is the Alibates Flint Quarries National Monument, located in Potter County and accessible by guided tour.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 91.8% of the occupied housing units in Texas had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 12,091,134 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 59.0% of Texas households had a computer and 51.8% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 2,989,919 high-speed lines in Texas, 2,737,826 residential and 252,093 for business.

Dallas was one of Western Union's first US communications satellite stations, and it leads the state as a center for data communications. The state has not always been in the communications vanguard, however. Texas passed up a chance to make a handsome profit from the invention of the telegraph when, in 1838, inventor Samuel F. B. Morse offered his newfangled device to the republic as a gift. When the Texas government neglected to respond, Morse withdrew the offer.

Texas had 298 major radio stations (73 AM, 225 FM) in 2005 and 87 major television stations. The state's first radio station, WRR, was established by the city of Dallas in 1920. The first television station, WBAP, began broadcasting in Ft. Worth in 1948. In 1999, the Dallas-Fort Worth area has 2,018,120 television households, only 51% receiving cable; the Houston area has 1,712,060 television households, 58% with cable; and the San Antonio area has 684,730 television homes, 66% with cable.

Approximately 439,135 Internet domain names were registered with the state in the year 2000; the third most of any state.

45 PRESS

The first newspaper in Texas was a revolutionary Spanish-language sheet published in May 1813 at Nacogdoches. Six years later, the *Texas Republican* was published by Dr. James Long in the same city. In 1835, the *Telegraph and Texas Register* became the official newspaper of the Texas Republic and it continued to publish until 1877. The first modern newspaper was the *Galveston News* (1842), a forerunner of the *Dallas Morning News* (1885).

In 2005, Texas had 49 morning dailies, 36 evening dailies, and 78 Sunday papers. Texas had the second-largest number of daily newspapers in the country in 2005 (second to California). In 2004, the Houston *Chronicle* and the Dallas *Morning News* were ranked as the ninth- and tenth-largest daily newspapers nationwide.

The newspapers with the largest daily circulations (2005 est.) were as follows:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Austin	<i>American-Statesman</i> (m,S)	177,926	226,766
Dallas	<i>Morning News</i> (m,S)	519,014	755,912
Fort Worth	<i>Star-Telegram</i> (m,S)	258,489	326,803
Houston	<i>Chronicle</i> (m,S)	554,783	737,580
San Antonio	<i>Express-News</i> (m,S)	270,067	356,680

In 2005, there were 491 weekly newspapers with a total circulation of 2,545,596. Of these, the paid weekly *Park City News* of Highland Park ranked seventh in the United States with a circulation of 51,000. Two free weeklies, the McAllen Valley *Town Crier* and the San Antonio *North Side Recorder-Times*, ranked ninth (104,037) and fourteenth (83,700), respectively, by circulation in the United States. The *Texas Almanac*, a comprehensive guide to the state, has been issued at regular intervals since 1857 by the A.H. Belo Corp., publishers of the *Dallas Morning News*. Leading magazines include the *Texas Monthly* and *Texas Observer*, both published in Austin.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 14,665 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 10,292 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Irving is the home of one of the nation's largest organizations, the Boy Scouts of America.

Important medical groups are the American Heart Association, the National Association for Retarded Citizens, the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners, the American Pediatric Society, the American Organ Transplant Association, the American Board of Obstetrics and Gynecology, and the American Board of Otolaryngology. The National Temperance and Prohibition Council is in Richardson.

Other professional associations include the American Engineering Association, the Working Ranch Cowboys Association, and the National Athletic Trainers' Association. The Association of Space Explorers., based in Houston, is an international professional organization for astronauts who have made at least one orbit around the Earth.

Among the many organizations devoted to horse breeding are the American Quarter Horse Association, Amarillo, the National Cutting Horse Association, and American Paint Association. Ft. Worth is the home of the Texas Longhorn Breeders Association of America.

The scholarly organization American Mensa is based in Arlington. National and state arts and cultural organizations include the American Association of Community Theatre, the American Cowboy Culture Association, the American Indian Arts Council, the Texas Folklore Society, the Texas International Theatrical Arts Society, the Texas Historical Foundation, and the Writers' League of Texas. National sports organizations based in Texas include the United States Professional Tennis Association and the United States Youth Soccer Association.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the state hosted over 180 million visitors with direct travel spending at \$44.4 billion, an all-time high. The industry supported 500,000 jobs with \$13 million in payroll. Marketing for tourism

and travel to Texas is the responsibility of Texas Economic Development Market Texas Tourism. Dallas-Ft. Worth, San Antonio, and Austin are the cities most frequently visited.

Each of the state's seven major tourist regions offers outstanding attractions. East Texas has one of the state's oldest cities, Nacogdoches, with the nation's oldest public thoroughfare and a reconstruction of the Old Stone Fort, a Spanish trading post dating from 1779. Jefferson, an important 19th-century inland port, has many old homes, including Excelsior House. Tyler, which bills itself as the "rose capital of the world," features a 28-acre (11-hectare) municipal rose garden and puts on a Rose Festival each October. The Gulf Coast region of southeastern Texas offers the Lyndon B. Johnson Space Center, the Astrodome sports stadium, and adjacent Astroworld amusement park, and a profusion of museums, galleries, and shops, all in metropolitan Houston; Spindletop Park, in Beaumont, commemorates the state's first great oil gusher; Galveston's sandy beaches, deep-sea fishing, and Sea-Arama Marineworld; and the Padre Island National Seashore.

To the north, the Dallas-Ft. Worth metropolitan area (including Arlington) has numerous cultural and entertainment attractions, including the Six Flags Over Texas amusement park and the state fair held in Dallas each October. Old Abilene Town amusement park, with its strong western flavor, is also popular with visitors. The Hill Country of south-central Texas encompasses many tourist sites, including the state capitol in Austin, Waco's Texas Ranger Museum (Ft. Fisher), the Lyndon B. Johnson National Historic Site, and frontier relics in Bastrop and Bandera. The Lyndon Baines Johnson Presidential Library is in Austin and the George H.W. Bush Presidential Library is in College Station.

South Texas has the state's most famous historic site—the Alamo, in San Antonio. The Rio Grande Valley Museum, at Harlingen, is popular with visitors, as is the King Ranch headquarters in Kleberg County. The Great Plains region of the Texas panhandle offers Palo Duro Canyon—Texas's largest state park covering 16,402 acres (6,638 hectares) in Armstrong and Randall counties; the Prairie Dog Town at Lubbock; Old West exhibits at Matador; and the cultural and entertainment resources of Amarillo. In the extreme northwestern corner of the panhandle is the XIT Museum, recalling the famous XIT Ranch, at one time the world's largest fenced ranch, which formerly covered more than 3 million acres (1.2 million hectares). Outstanding tourist sites in the far west are the Big Bend and Guadalupe Mountains national parks, the Jersey Lilly Saloon and Judge Roy Bean visitor center in Langtry, and metropolitan El Paso. Texas also has the Great Texas Coastal Birding Trail with 624 mi (1,040 km) of coastline viewing.

Texas's park system includes Palo Duro Canyon, Big Creek (Ft. Bend County), Brazos Island (Cameron County), Caddo Lake (Harrison County), Dinosaur Valley (Somervell County), Eisenhower (Grayson County), Galveston Island, and Longhorn Cavern (Burnet County). State historical parks include San Jacinto Battleground (east Harris County), Texas State Railroad (Anderson and Cherokee counties), and Washington-on-the-Brazos (Washington County). Hunting and fishing are extremely popular in Texas. White-tailed deer are hunted as a way of cutting the wildlife population; thousands of jabalina and wild turkeys are shot annually.

48 SPORTS

Texas has 11 major professional sports teams: the Texas Rangers and Houston Astros of Major League Baseball; the Dallas Cowboys and Houston Texans of the National Football League; the Dallas Stars of the National Hockey League; the Houston Rockets, San Antonio Spurs, and Dallas Mavericks of the National Basketball Association; the Houston Comets and San Antonio Silver Stars of the Women's National Basketball Association, and the FC Dallas, formerly the Dallas Burn, of Major League Soccer. The Cowboys are, by far, the most consistently successful of Texas's teams. They have won the Super Bowl five times—in 1972, 1978, 1993, 1994, and 1996. They have appeared in it and lost an additional three times. The Houston Rockets won consecutive NBA Championships in 1994 and 1995. Houston lost the Oilers of the NFL, who moved to Tennessee after the 1996 season. However, an expansion team, the Texans, replaced them and began NFL play in 2002. Texas is also home to many minor league baseball and hockey teams.

Pari-mutuel betting on horse races was legalized in Texas in the early 1990s, and thoroughbred tracks are open near Houston and Dallas. Quarter-horse racing is also popular and rodeo is a leading spectator sport. Participant sports popular with Texans include hunting, fishing, horseback riding, boating, swimming, tennis, and golf. State professional and amateur golf tournaments are held annually, as are numerous rodeos. The Texas Sports Hall of Fame was organized in 1951; new members are selected each year by a special committee of the Texas Sports Writers Association.

There are a plethora of colleges and universities in Texas, with many elite teams in football, basketball, and baseball. The University of Texas Longhorns are traditionally strong in football, having captured four national championships (1963, 1969, 1970, 2005) and made over 40 bowl game appearances. They also have a very solid baseball program. Texas A&M University in College Station also has an elite football program. Their team earned a national championship in 1939 and won 18 conference titles in the now-defunct Southwestern Conference. In 1998 the Aggies won the Big Twelve Conference title. Texas Tech's women's basketball team has been consistently ranked as a top team in the national polls. Baylor and Rice Universities, of the Big Twelve Conference and Western Athletic Conference, respectively, both field outstanding baseball teams. The teams are traditionally ranked high in the national polls. The Rice Owls won the 2003 College World Series.

Two NASCAR Nextel Cup races, the Samsung/Radio Shack 500 and the Dickies 500, and two NASCAR Busch Grand National series races, the O'Reilly 300 and the O'Reilly Challenge, are held each year at the Texas Motor Speedway in Fort Worth.

49 FAMOUS TEXANS

Two native sons of Texas have served as president of the United States. Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), the 34th president, was born in Denison, but his family moved to Kansas when he was two years old. Lyndon Baines Johnson (1908–73), the 36th president, was the only lifelong resident of the state to serve in that office. Born near Stonewall, he occupied center stage in state and national politics for a third of a century as US representative, Democratic majority leader of the US Senate, and vice president under John F. Kennedy, before succeeding to the presidency af-

ter Kennedy's assassination. Reelected by a landslide, Johnson accomplished much of his Great Society program of social reform but saw his power and popularity wane because of the war in Viet Nam. His wife, Claudia Alta Taylor "Lady Bird" Johnson (b.1912), was influential in environmental causes as First Lady.

Texas's other native vice president was John Nance Garner (1868–1967), former speaker of the US House of Representatives. George Bush (b.Massachusetts, 1924), who founded his own oil development company and has served in numerous federal posts, was elected vice president in 1980 on the Republican ticket and reelected in 1984, then elected to the presidency in 1988. Tom C. Clark (1899–1977) served as an associate justice on the US Supreme Court from 1949 to 1967; he stepped down when his son Ramsey (b.1927) was appointed US attorney general, a post the elder Clark had also held.

Another prominent federal officeholder from Texas was Jesse H. Jones (1874–1956), who served as chairman of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and secretary of commerce under Franklin D. Roosevelt. Oveta Culp Hobby (1905–95), publisher of the *Houston Post*, became the first director of the Women's Army Corps (WAC) during World War II and the first secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under President Eisenhower. John Connally (1917–1993), a protégé of Lyndon Johnson's, served as secretary of the US Navy under Kennedy and, as governor of Texas, was wounded in the same attack that killed the president; subsequently, he switched political allegiance, was secretary of the treasury under Richard Nixon, and had been active in Republican Party politics. Other federal officials from Texas include "Colonel" Edward M. House (1858–1938), principal advisor to President Wilson, and Leon Jaworski (1905–82), the Watergate special prosecutor whose investigations led to President Nixon's resignation. Lloyd Bentsen, a senator and a secretary of the treasury, was born 11 February 1921 in Mission, Texas.

The state's most famous legislative leader was Sam Rayburn (1882–1961), who served the longest tenure in the nation's history as speaker of the US House of Representatives—17 years in three periods between 1940 and 1961. James Wright (b.1922) was Democratic majority leader of the House in the 1970s and early 1980s, and Barbara C. Jordan (1936–96) won national attention as a forceful member of the House Judiciary Committee during its impeachment deliberations in 1974.

Famous figures in early Texas history include Moses Austin (b.Connecticut, 1761–1821) and his son, Stephen F. Austin (b.Virginia, 1793–1836), often called the "father of Texas." Samuel "Sam" Houston (b.Virginia, 1793–1863), adopted as a youth by the Cherokee, won enduring fame as commander in chief of the Texas revolutionary army, as president of the Texas Republic, and as the new state's first US senator; earlier in his career, he had been governor of Tennessee. Mirabeau Bonaparte Lamar (b.Georgia, 1798–1859), the second president of the republic, founded the present state capital (now called Austin) in 1839. Anson Jones (b.Massachusetts, 1798–1858) was the last president of the republic.

Noteworthy state leaders include John H. Reagan (b.Tennessee, 1818–1905), postmaster general for the Confederacy; he dominated Texas politics from the Civil War to the 1890s, helping to write the state constitutions of 1866 and 1875, and eventually becoming chairman of the newly created Texas Railroad Commission.

The most able Texas governor was probably James Stephen Hogg (1851–1906), the first native-born Texan to hold that office. Another administration with a progressive record was that of Governor James V. Allred (1899–1959), who served during the 1930s. In 1924 Miriam A. "Ma" Ferguson (1875–1961) became the first woman to be elected governor of a state, and she was elected again in 1932. With her husband, Governor James E. Ferguson (1871–1944), she was active in Texas politics for nearly 30 years. Texas military heroes include Audie Murphy (1924–71), the most decorated soldier of World War II (and later a film actor), and Admiral of the Fleet Chester W. Nimitz (1885–1966).

Figures of history and legend include James Bowie (b.Kentucky, 1796?–1836), who had a reputation as a brawling fighter and wheeler-dealer until he died at the Alamo: he is popularly credited with the invention of the bowie knife. David "Davy" Crockett (b.Tennessee, 1786–1836) served three terms as a US representative from Tennessee before departing for Texas; he, too, lost his life at the Alamo. Among the more notorious Texans was Roy Bean (b.Kentucky, 1825–1903), a judge who proclaimed himself "the law west of the Pecos." Gambler, gunman, and desperado John Wesley Hardin (1853–95) boasted that he "never killed a man who didn't deserve it." Bonnie Parker (1910–34) and Clyde Barrow (1909–34), second-rate bank robbers and murderers who were shot to death by Texas lawmen, achieved posthumous notoriety through the movie *Bonnie and Clyde* (1967).

Many Texas businessmen have profoundly influenced the state's politics and lifestyle. Clint Murchison (1895–1969) and Sid Richardson (1891–1959) made great fortunes as independent oil operators and spread their wealth into other enterprises: Murchison became owner-operator of the successful Dallas Cowboys professional football franchise, and Richardson, through the Sid Richardson Foundation, aided educational institutions throughout the Southwest. Oilman H(aroldson) L(afayette) Hunt (b.Illinois, 1889–1974), reputedly the wealthiest man in the United States, was an avid supporter of right-wing causes. Howard Hughes (1905–79), an industrialist, aviation pioneer, film producer, and casino owner, became a fabulously wealthy eccentric recluse in his later years. Stanley Marcus (1905–2002), head of the famous specialty store Neiman-Marcus, became an arbiter of taste for the world's wealthy and fashionable men and women. Rancher Richard King (b.New York, 1825–85) put together the famed King Ranch, the largest in the United States at his death. Charles Goodnight (b.Illinois, 1836–1929) was an outstanding cattleman. H. Ross Perot, billionaire computer software developer and independent presidential candidate in 1992 and 1996, was born 27 June 1930 in Dallas.

Influential Texas historians include folklorist John A. Lomax (b.Mississippi, 1867–1948); Walter Prescott Webb (1888–1963), whose books *The Great Plains* and *The Great Frontier* helped shape American thought; and J. Frank Dobie (1888–1964), well-known University of Texas educator and compiler of Texas folklore. Dan Rather (b.1931) has earned a nationwide reputation as a television reporter and anchorman. Frank Buck (1884–1950), a successful film producer, narrated and appeared in documentaries showing his exploits among animals.

William Sydney Porter (b.North Carolina, 1862–1910) apparently embezzled funds from an Austin bank, escaped to Honduras, but returned to serve a three-year jail term—during which time he began writing short stories, later published under the pen name

O. Henry. Katherine Anne Porter (1890–1980) also won fame as a short-story writer. Fred Gipson (1908–73) wrote *Hound Dog Man* and *Old Yeller*, praised by critics as a remarkable evocation of a frontier boy's viewpoint. Two novels by Larry McMurtry (b.1936), *Horsemen, Pass By* (film title, *Hud*) and *The Last Picture Show*, became significant motion pictures. Robert Rauschenberg (b.1925) is a leading contemporary painter. Elisabet Ney (b.Germany, 1833–1907), a sculptor, came to Texas with a European reputation and became the state's first determined feminist; she wore pants in public, and seldom passed up an opportunity to transgress Texans' Victorian mores. E. Donnell Thomas, 1990 co-recipient of the Nobel Prize in medicine, was born 15 March 1920 in Mart, Texas.

Prominent Texans in the entertainment field include Mary Martin (1913–1990), who reigned over the New York musical comedy world for two decades; her son, Larry Hagman (b.1931), star of the *Dallas* television series; actress Debbie Reynolds (b.1931); movie director King Vidor (1894–1982); and Joshua Logan (1903–1988), director of Broadway plays and Hollywood movies. Texans who achieved national reputations with local repertory companies were Margo Jones (1912–55) and Nina Vance (1914–80), who founded and directed theater groups in Dallas and Houston, respectively; and Preston Jones (1936–79), author of *A Texas Trilogy* and other plays.

Among Texas-born musicians, Tina Turner (b.1941) is a leading rock singer, as was Janis Joplin (1943–70). Willie Nelson (b.1933) wedded progressive rock with country music to start a new school of progressive "outlaw" music. Bob Wills (b.Oklahoma, 1905–75) was the acknowledged king of western swing. Musicians Trini Lopez (b.1937), Freddy Fender (Baldemar Huerta, b.1937), and Johnny Rodriguez (b.1951) have earned popular followings based on their Mexican-American music. Charlie Pride (b.Mississippi, 1938) became the first black country-western star. Other country-western stars born in Texas are Waylon Jennings (1937–2002) and Kenny Rogers (b.1938). In the jazz field, pianist Teddy Wilson (1912–86) was a member of the famed Benny Goodman trio in the 1930s. Trombonist Jack Teagarden (1905–64) and trumpeter Harry James (1916–83) have also been influential.

The imposing list of Texas athletes is headed by Mildred "Babe" Didrikson Zaharias (1913–56), who gained fame as an All-American basketball player in 1930, won two gold medals in track and field in the 1932 Olympics, and was the leading woman golfer during the 1940s and early 1950s. Another Texan, John Arthur "Jack" Johnson (1878–1946), was boxing's first black heavyweight champion. Texans who won fame in football include quarterbacks Sammy Baugh (b.1914), Don Meredith (b.1938), and Roger Staubach (b.Ohio, 1942); running back Earl Campbell (b.1955); and coaches Dana X. Bible (1892–1980). Darrell Royal (b.Oklahoma, 1924), and

Thomas Wade "Tom" Landry (1924–2000). Tim Brown (b.Dallas, Texas 1966), a wide receiver in the NFL, won the Heisman Trophy in 1987 as a member of the Fighting Irish of Notre Dame. Among other Texas sports greats are baseball Hall of Famers Tris Speaker (1888–1958) and Rogers Hornsby (1896–1963); golfers Ben Hogan (1912–97), Byron Nelson (b.1912), and Lee Trevino (b.1939); auto racing driver Anthony J. Foyt (b.1935); and jockey William Lee "Willie" Shoemaker (1931–2003). Nolan Ryan, pitching giant, was born 31 January 1947 in Refugio, Texas.

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UTAH

State of Utah



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for the Ute Indians. **NICKNAME:** The Beehive State. **CAPITAL:** Salt Lake City. **ENTERED UNION:** 4 January 1896 (45th). **SONG:** “Utah, We Love Thee;” “Utah, This is the Place.” **MOTTO:** Industry. **COAT OF ARMS:** In the center, a shield flanked by American flags shows a beehive with the state motto and six arrows above, sego lilies on either side, and the numerals “1847” (the year the Mormons settled in Utah) below. Perched atop the shield is an American eagle. **FLAG:** Inside a thin gold circle, the coat of arms and the year of statehood are centered on a blue field, fringed with gold. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The coat of arms with the words “The Great Seal of the State of Utah 1896” surrounding it. **BIRD:** California sea gull. **FISH:** Bonneville cutthroat trout. **FLOWER:** Sego lily. **TREE:** Blue spruce. **GEM:** Topaz. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington and Lincoln Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Pioneer Day, 24 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the Rocky Mountain region of the western United States, Utah ranks 11th in size among the 50 states.

The area of Utah totals 84,899 sq mi (219,899 sq km), of which land comprises 82,073 sq mi (212,569 sq km) and inland water 2,826 sq mi (7,320 sq km). Utah extends 275 mi (443 km) E–W and 345 mi (555 km) N–S.

Utah is bordered on the N by Idaho; on the NE by Wyoming; on the E by Colorado; and on the S by Arizona (with the two borders joined at Four Corners); and on the W by Nevada. The total boundary length of Utah is 1,226 mi (1,973 km). The state’s geographic center is in Sanpete County, 3 mi (5 km) N of Manti.

²TOPOGRAPHY

The eastern and southern two-thirds of Utah belong to the Colorado Plateau, a region characterized by deep river canyons; erosion has carved much of the plateau into buttes and mesas. The Rocky Mountains are represented by the Bear River, Wasatch, and Uinta ranges in the north and northeast. These ranges, rising well above 10,000 ft (3,000 m), hold the highest point in Utah—Kings Peak in the Uintas—at an altitude of 13,528 ft (4,126 m). The mean elevation of the state is approximately 6,100 ft (1,861 m).

The arid, sparsely populated Great Basin dominates the western third of the state. Drainage in this region does not reach the sea, and streams often disappear in the dry season. To the north are the Great Salt Lake, a body of hypersaline water, and the Great Salt Lake Desert (containing the Bonneville Salt Flats), both remnants of a vast prehistoric lake that covered the region during the last Ice Age. The lowest point in Utah—2,000 ft (610 m) above sea level—occurs at Beaverdam Creek in Washington County, in the southwest corner of the state.

The western edge of the Wasatch Range, or Wasatch Front, holds most of Utah’s major cities. It also attracts the greatest rain-

fall and snowfall, particularly in the north. Two regions rich in fossil fuels are the Kaiparowits Plateau, in southern Utah, and the Overthrust Belt, a geologic structural zone underlying the north-central part of the state.

The largest lake is the Great Salt Lake, which at the end of 1984 covered 2,250 sq mi (5,827 sq km) and was 34% larger than in 1976. In 1984, as a result of increased precipitation, the lake rose to 4,209.25 ft (1,283 m) above sea level, its highest level since 1877; the lake has been rising steadily since 1963, causing severe flooding, and its waters, diluted by runoff, have lost some salinity. Other major bodies of water are Utah Lake, Bear Lake (shared with Idaho), and Lake Powell, formed by the Glen Canyon Dam on the Colorado River. Other important rivers include the Green, flowing into the Colorado; the Sevier, which drains central and southern Utah; and the Bear, which flows into the Great Salt Lake.

³CLIMATE

The climate of Utah is generally semiarid to arid. Temperatures are favorable along the Wasatch Front, where there are relatively mild winters. At Salt Lake City, the normal daily average temperature is 52°F (11°C), ranging from 28°F (-2°C) in January to 78°F (26°C) in July. The record high temperature, 117°F (47°C), was set at St. George on 5 July 1985; the record low temperature, -69°F (-56°C), in Peter’s Sink, on 1 February 1985. The average annual precipitation varies from less than 5 in (12.7 cm) in the west to over 40 in (102 cm) in the mountains, with Salt Lake City receiving about 15.6 in (39 cm) per year. The annual snowfall for the state is about 59 in (150 cm) and remains on the higher mountains until late summer.

⁴FLORA AND FAUNA

Botanists have recognized more than 4,000 floral species in Utah’s six major life zones. Common trees and shrubs include four spe-

cies of pine and three of juniper; aspen, cottonwood, maple, hawthorn, and chokecherry also flourish, along with the Utah oak, Joshua tree, and blue spruce (the state tree). Among Utah's wildflowers are sweet William and Indian paintbrush; the sego lily is the state flower. In April 2006, 24 of Utah's plant species were classified as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including five species (San Rafael, Siler pincushion, Wright fishhook, Uinta Basin hookless, and Winkler) of cactus, dwarf bear-poppy, five species (Shivwitz, Deseret, Holmgren, heliotrope, and Welsh's) of milk-vetch, and autumn buttercup.

Mule deer are the most common of Utah's large mammals; other mammals include pronghorn antelope, Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep, lynx, grizzly and black bears, and white- and black-tailed jackrabbits. Among native bird species are the great horned owl, plain titmouse, and water ouzel; the golden eagle and great white pelican are rare species; and the sea gull (the state bird) is a spring and summer visitor from the California coast. The pygmy rattler is found in southwest Utah, and the Mormon cricket is unique to the state.

In April 2006, 16 animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in Utah. Among them were the bald eagle, Utah prairie dog, three species (bonytail, humpback, and Virgin River) of chub, two species of sucker, southwestern willow flycatcher, and woundfin. Many birds and fish have been killed or imperiled by the inundation of freshwater marshes with salt water from the flooding Great Salt Lake.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Divisions of the Department of Natural Resources oversee water and mineral resources, parks and recreation, state lands and forests, and wildlife. The Department of Agriculture is concerned with soil conservation and pesticide control. The Department of Environmental Quality has separate divisions dealing with air quality, drinking water systems, water quality, and regulation of water pollution, radioactive, hazardous, and solid wastes.

Air pollution is a serious problem along the Wasatch Front where 70% of the state's population resides. Automobiles are a major contributor to the high levels of ozone and carbon monoxide impacting the communities in the Salt Lake, Weber, and Utah counties. Also of considerable concern is the quality of drinking water. Other environmental issues of concern in the state are transportation safety of hazardous materials, chemical warfare agent storage and disposal, a proposed nuclear fuel storage site in the western part of the state (which, as of March 2003 had been approved despite widespread protests against it, but had not yet built), and interstate transportation of hazardous waste for disposal. In 2003, 242 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

Another environmental problem is the pollution of Great Salt Lake by industrial waste. In 1996, the lake and its surrounding wetlands were designated a Hemispheric Reserve in the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network. The move was taken in recognition of the area's importance to migratory waterfowl and shorebirds.

In 2003, Utah had 197 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 14 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including Hill Air Force Base. As of 2003, Utah's Carbon County was home to the second-

largest landfill in the United States. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$33.9 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8.2 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$5.6 million for the clean water revolving fund. Other grants included \$1.3 million for implementation of the Utah Nonpoint Source Water Pollution Control Program.

6 POPULATION

Utah ranked 34th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 2,469,585 in 2005, an increase of 10.6% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Utah's population grew from 1,722,850 to 2,233,169, an increase of 29.6%, the fourth-highest percentage gain in the decade among the 50 states. The population is projected to reach 2.78 million by 2015 and 3.2 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 29.1 persons per sq mi (11.2 persons per sq km).

Because of the state's consistently high birthrate, Utahans tend to be much younger than the US population as a whole. In 2004, the median age was 28 (compared with the US average of 36.2). In the same year, about 9.7% of state residents were under 5 years of age, and about 31% were younger than 18 years of age (compared with the national average of 25%); only 8.7% of the populace was age 65 or older.

Nearly 90% of all Utahans live in cities and towns, mostly along the Wasatch Front. Salt Lake City is Utah's most populous urban center, with an estimated 2004 population of 178,605 in the city proper and an estimated 1,018,826 in its metropolitan region. Other major cities with large populations include Provo, Ogden, and Orem. The Ogden-Clearfield metropolitan area had an estimated population of 477,455 in 2004 and the Provo-Orem metropolitan area had an estimated population of 412,361.

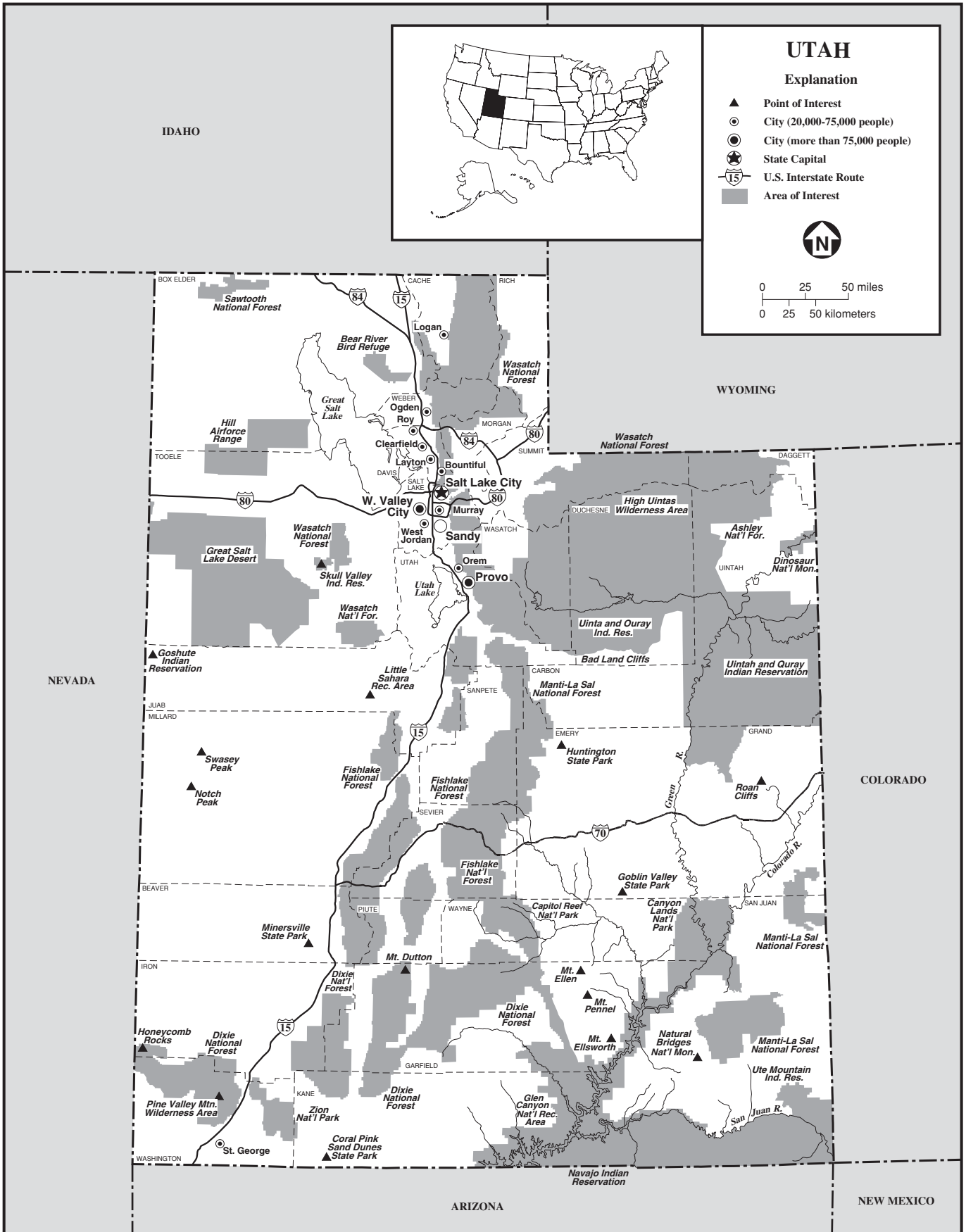
7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Hispanics and Latinos constitute the largest ethnic minority in Utah, with an estimated 2000 population of 201,559 or 9% of the total, up from 6.8% in 1990. That percentage had increased to 10.6% by 2004.

American Indians are the third-largest minority group in Utah, numbering an estimated 29,684 in 2000, up from 24,000 in 1990. In 2004, American Indians accounted for 1.3% of the population. Indian lands covered 2,331,000 acres (943,000 hectares) in 1982, all but 35 acres (14 hectares) of which were tribal landholdings. The Uintah and Ouray Indian reservation, in the northeast (2000 population 19,182), and the Navaho Indian reservation, in the southeast, are the largest. Far smaller are the Skull Valley and Goshute reservations, in the west.

About 37,108 Asians resided in the state as of 2000, including 8,045 Chinese, 6,186 Japanese, and 5,968 Vietnamese. Pacific Islanders numbered 15,145. In 2004, Asians accounted for 1.9% of the population, and Pacific Islanders 0.7%. Utah also had an estimated black population of 17,657 as of 2000, up from 12,000 in 1990. In 2004, blacks accounted for 0.9% of the state's population. Until 1978, blacks were denied full church membership as Mormons. In 2004, 1.3% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

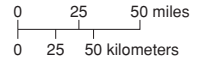
Utah had 158,664 residents who were foreign born, or 7.1% of the population, up from 58,600 in 1990. Among persons report-



UTAH

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (20,000-75,000 people)
- City (more than 75,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- Ⓜ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



IDAHO

WYOMING

NEVADA

COLORADO

ARIZONA

NEW MEXICO

ing at least one specific ancestry in 2000, 647,987 persons claimed English descent, 258,496 German, 163,048 Danish, 144,713 Irish, and 94,911 Swedish.

⁸LANGUAGES

Forebears of the Ute, Goshute, and Paiute contributed to English only a few place-names, such as Utah itself, Uinta (and Uintah), Wasatch, and Tavaputs.

Utah English is primarily that merger of Northern and Midland carried west by the Mormons, whose original New York dialect later incorporated features from southern Ohio and central Illinois. Conspicuous in Mormon speech in the central valley, although less frequent now in Salt Lake City, is a reversal of vowels, so that *farm* and *barn* sound like *form* and *born* and, conversely, *form* and *born* sound like *farm* and *barn*.

In 2000, 87.5% of all state residents five years of age or older spoke only English at home; this was a decrease from 92.2% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Pacific Island languages" includes Chamorro, Hawaiian, Ilocano, Indonesian, and Samoan.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	2,023,875	100.0
Speak only English	1,770,626	87.5
Speak a language other than English	253,249	12.5
Speak a language other than English	253,249	12.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	150,244	7.4
German	12,095	0.6
Navajo	9,373	0.5
Other Pacific Island languages	8,998	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	7,905	0.4
Chinese	7,093	0.4
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	5,715	0.3
Vietnamese	5,202	0.3
Japanese	5,032	0.2

⁹RELIGIONS

The dominant religious group in Utah, accounting for 66% of the entire state population in 2000, was the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, popularly known as the Mormons. The church was founded by Joseph Smith Jr., in 1830, the same year he published the Book of Mormon, the group's sacred text. The Mormon's arrival in Utah climaxed a long pilgrimage that began in New York State and led westward to Missouri, then back to Illinois (where Smith was lynched), and finally across Iowa, Nebraska, and Wyoming to Salt Lake City in 1847.

The Mormon Church and its leadership continue to play a central role in the state's political, economic, and cultural institutions. Among other assets in the state, the church owns Zion Cooperative Mercantile Institute (the largest department store in Salt Lake City), one of the leading newspapers, one television station, and holdings in banks, insurance companies, and real estate. The Salt Lake City Temple on Temple Square has nearly 5 million visitors each year; as of 2006, there were 10 other temples throughout the state. Brigham Young University, named for the second president of the Mormon Church, was established by the church in Provo in 1875.

In 2006, the Church of Latter-day Saints reported a statewide membership of 1,720,434 in 4,307 congregations. The next largest

Christian groups include Roman Catholics, with 150,000 members in 2004 and Southern Baptists, with 13,258 members in 2000. In 2000, there were an estimated 4,500 Jews and 3,645 Muslims in the state. About 25.3% of the population did not specify a religious affiliation.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Utah, where the golden spike was driven in 1869 to mark the completion of the first transcontinental railroad, had 2,067 rail mi (3,327 km) of track in 2003. The state is served by six railroads, of which two are Class I railroads: the Burlington Northern Santa Fe; and the Union Pacific. As of 2006, Amtrak provided east–west passenger service via its California Zephyr train to Salt Lake City, Provo, Helper, and Green River.

The Utah Transit Authority, created in 1970, provides bus service for Salt Lake City, Provo, and Ogden. In 2004, Utah had 42,710 mi (68,763 km) of public roads and streets. In that same year, there were 2.100 million registered motor vehicles in the state and 1,582,599 licensed drivers. The main east–west and north–south routes (I-80 and I-15, respectively) intersect at Salt Lake City.

In 2005, Utah had a total of 143 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 99 airports and 44 heliports. By far the busiest was Salt Lake City International Airport, with 8,884,880 passengers enplaned in 2004.

¹¹HISTORY

Utah's historic Indian groups are primarily Shoshonean: the Ute in the eastern two-thirds of the state, the Goshute of the western desert, and the Southern Paiute of southwestern Utah. The Athapaskan-speaking Navaho of southeastern Utah migrated from western Canada, arriving not long before the Spaniards. The differing lifestyles of each group remained essentially unchanged until the introduction of the horse by the Spanish sometime after 1600. White settlement from 1847 led to two wars between whites and Indians—the Walker War of 1853–54 and the even more costly Black Hawk War of 1865–68—resulting finally in the removal of many Indians to reservations.

Mexicans and Spaniards are the first non-Indians known to have entered Utah, with Juan María Antonio Rivera reportedly arriving near present-day Moab as early as 1765. In July 1776, a party led by two Franciscan priests, Francisco Atanasio Domínguez and Silvestre Vélez de Escalante, entered Utah from the east, traversed the Uinta basin, crossed the Wasatch Mountains, and visited the Ute encampment at Utah Lake. Trade between Santa Fe, the capital of the Spanish province of New Mexico, and the Indians of Utah was fairly well established by the early 1800s.

Until 1848, the 1,200-mi (1,900-km) Spanish Trail, the longest segment of which lies in Utah, was the main route through the Southwest. Following this trail, mountain men competing for fur explored vast areas of the American West, including most of Utah's rivers and valleys. In the 1840s, Utah was traversed by California-bound settlers and explorers, the most notable being John C. Frémont.

When Joseph Smith Jr., founder of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons), was lynched at Carthage, Ill., in June 1844, Brigham Young and other Mormon leaders decided to move west. By April 1847, the pioneer company of Mormons, including three blacks, was on its way to Utah, the reports of Frémont hav-

ing influenced their choice of the Great Basin as a refuge. Advance scouts entered the Salt Lake Valley on 22 July, and the rest of the company two days later. Planting and irrigation were begun immediately. Natural resources were regarded as community property, and the church organization served as the first government.

After the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (1848) gave the US title to much of the Southwest, the Mormons established the provisional state of Deseret. Congress refused to admit Deseret to the Union, choosing instead to create Utah Territory “with or without slavery.” The territory encompassed, in addition to present-day Utah, most of Nevada and parts of Wyoming and Colorado; land cessions during the 1860s left Utah with its present boundaries.

The territorial period lasted for 46 years, marked by immigration, growth, and conflict. Reports that Utahns were in rebellion against federal authority led President James Buchanan to send an expeditionary force under Albert Sidney Johnston to Utah in 1857. On 11 September, Mormon militiamen and their Indian allies, caught up in an atmosphere of war hysteria, massacred some 120 California-bound migrants at Mountain Meadows—the darkest event in Utah history and the only major disaster of the so-called Utah War. Peace was attained in June 1858, and Alfred Cumming assumed civil authority, replacing Brigham Young as territorial governor. Cumming’s appointment signaled the beginning of prolonged hostility between Mormon leaders and federal authorities.

Almost 98% of Utah’s total population was Mormon until after 1870, and the Mormon way of life dominated politics, economics, and social and cultural activities. As church president, Brigham Young remained the principal figure in the territory until his death in 1877. He contracted in 1868 with the Union Pacific to lay part of the track for the transcontinental railroad in Utah, and on 10 May 1869, the Central (now Southern) Pacific and Union Pacific were joined at Promontory. During the 1870s, new rail lines connected many settlements with the capital, Salt Lake City, spurring commerce and mining. Young had discouraged mining until agriculture and manufacturing were firmly established. Not until 1863, with the rediscovery of silver-bearing ore in Bingham Canyon, did the boom in precious metals begin. Those connected with mining, mostly non-Mormons, began to exert influence in the territory’s business, politics, and social life.

Several factors made the non-Mormon minority fearful of Mormon domination: communitarian economic practices, lack of free public schools, encouragement of immigration of Mormon converts, church authoritarianism, and the mingling of church and state. But the most sensational reason was the Mormon practice of polygamy. Congress passed the Anti-Bigamy Act in 1862, but it was generally not enforced. After the Edmunds Act of 1882 was upheld by the US Supreme Court, arrests for polygamy greatly increased. Finally, in 1887, the Edmunds-Tucker Act dissolved the Mormon Church as a corporate entity, thereby threatening the survival of all Mormon institutions.

In fall 1890, Mormon president Wilford Woodruff issued a manifesto renouncing the practice of polygamy. The following year, the Republican and Democratic parties were organized in Utah, effectively ending political division along religious lines. A constitutional convention was held in 1895, and statehood became a reality on 4 January 1896. The new state constitution provided for an elected governor and a bicameral legislature, and restored the

franchise to women, a privilege they had enjoyed from 1870 until 1887, when the Edmunds-Tucker Act had disfranchised Utah women and polygamous men.

The early 20th century saw further growth of the mineral industry. Many of those who came to mine copper and coal were foreign immigrants. Militant union activity had begun slowly during the 1890s, until an explosion that killed 200 miners at Scofield on 1 May 1900 dramatized the plight of the miners and galvanized radical organizers in the state. It was in Utah in 1915 that a Swedish miner and songwriter named Joe Hill, associated with the Industrial Workers of the World (“Wobblies”), was executed for the murder of a Salt Lake City grocer and his son, a case that continues to generate controversy because of the circumstantial quality of the evidence against him.

Gradually, modern cities emerged, along with power plants, interurban railroads, and highways. By 1920, nearly half the population lived along the Wasatch Front. The influx of various ethnic groups diversified the state’s social and cultural life, and the proportion of Mormons in the total population declined to about 68% in 1920.

Utah businesses enjoyed the postwar prosperity of the 1920s. On the other hand, mining and agriculture were depressed throughout the 1920s and 1930s, decades marked by increased union activity, particularly in the coal and copper industries. The depression of the 1930s hit Utah especially hard. Severe droughts hurt farmers in 1931 and 1934, and high freight rates limited the expansion of manufacturing. With the coming of World War II, increased demand for food revived Utah’s agriculture, and important military installations and war-related industries brought new jobs to the state.

In the years after World War II, the state’s population more than doubled, while per capita income declined relative to the national average—both trends indicative of a very high birthrate. Politics generally reflect prevailing Mormon attitudes and tend to be conservative. The state successfully opposed plans for storing nerve gas bombs in Utah and for the location in the western desert of an MX missile racetrack system. In 1967 work began on the Central Utah Project, a dam and irrigation program still under way in the early 2000s and intended to assure an adequate water supply for the state through the year 2020.

Utah had one of the nation’s fastest growing economies in the 1990s and one of its lowest rates of unemployment. The state’s leading industry was the manufacture of transport equipment, including aircraft parts and parts for missiles and rockets. At the beginning of the 21st century, Utahns were divided over the issue of protecting the state’s natural areas from residential and commercial development.

Salt Lake City was the site of the 2002 Winter Olympic Games. The selection of Salt Lake City as the site for the games was controversial and mired in a scandal that broke in 1998, as bid leaders for Salt Lake City’s selection were charged with bribing International Olympic Committee officials in exchange for their support of Salt Lake City’s bid. Ten International Olympic Committee members either resigned or were expelled as a result of the scandal. The 2002 Winter Olympics generated \$56 million in profits.

Governor Michael O. Leavitt became the second Utah governor to be elected to a third term in 2000. He was responsible for cutting income and property taxes, and pledged to balance Utah’s

budget without raising taxes. Leavitt maintained economic prosperity would be achieved through reforming Utah's education system, including adopting a competency standard for high school graduation. In August 2003, President George W. Bush nominated Leavitt to become administrator of the Environmental Protection Agency; he took office that October. Bush then chose Leavitt in December 2004 to become Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services; he was inaugurated in January 2005.

Wildfires and serious drought conditions plagued Utah in the early 2000s. By 2005, however, the Utah Center for Climate and Weather had declared Utah's six-year drought to be over.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The state legislature, as established in the constitution of 1896, consists of a 29-member Senate and a 75-seat House of Representatives; senators serve for four years, representatives for two. Annual sessions begin in January and are limited to 45 calendar days. Legislators must be at least 25 years old, US citizens, state residents for at least three years, district residents for at least six months, and qualified voters in their districts. In 2004 legislators received a per diem salary of \$120 during regular sessions.

The chief executive officers, all elected for four-year terms, include the governor, lieutenant governor (who also serves as secretary of state), attorney general, treasurer, and auditor. The governor must be at least 30 years old, a qualified voter, and must have been a state resident and citizen for at least five years. The governor and lieutenant governor are jointly. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$101,600.

A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned by the governor for 60 days after it has adjourned, or if passed over the governor's veto by two-thirds of the elected members of each house.

Amending the constitution requires a two-thirds vote of the legislature and ratification by majority vote at the next general election. The Utah Constitutional Revision Commission has been a permanent commission since 1977, recommending and drafting proposed constitutional changes. In 2002 voters approved the Commission's recommended constitution changes regarding taxation and state revenue. In 1994 Utah's voters approved constitutional amendment dealings with the rights of crime victims. The state's constitution had been amended 106 times by January 2005.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and have been residents of the state 30 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court as mentally incompetent to vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republican and Democratic parties are the state's leading political groups. Though there is no party registration in the state, Utah's voting record shows its voters to be heavily Republican. In the elections of 2000, Orrin Hatch was reelected to a fifth term in the US Senate. Utah's other US senator, Republican Robert F. Bennett, was last reelected in 2004. In the 2004 elections, voters sent two Republicans and one Democrat to Washington as their delegation in the US House. At the state level, Republicans continued to dominate the Assembly, with 56 members to the Democrats' 19; while the state Senate had 21 Republicans and 8 Democrats. Republican governor Michael O. Leavitt was first elected in 1992

Utah Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	UTAH WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	4	*Truman (D)	149,151	124,402
1952	4	*Eisenhower (R)	135,364	194,190
1956	4	*Eisenhower (R)	118,364	215,631
1960	4	Nixon (R)	169,248	205,361
1964	4	*Johnson (D)	219,628	181,785
1968	4	*Nixon (R)	156,665	238,728
1972	4	*Nixon (R)	126,284	323,643
1976	4	Ford (R)	182,110	337,908
1980	4	*Reagan (R)	124,266	439,687
1984	5	*Reagan (R)	155,369	469,105
1988	5	*Bush (R)	207,343	428,442
1992**	5	Bush (R)	183,429	322,632
1996**	5	Dole (R)	221,633	361,911
2000	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	203,053	515,096
2004	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	241,199	663,742

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 203,400 votes in 1992 and 66,461 votes in 1996.

and secured a third term in the 2000 election. In November 2003, he resigned to become the head of the Environmental Protection Agency, and Lt. Gov. Olene Walker became governor. Jon Huntsman, Jr. was elected governor in 2004.

In November 2000, true to form, Utahns cast 67% of their presidential votes for Republican George W. Bush; 26% for Democrat Al Gore; and 5% for Green Party candidate Ralph Nader. In 2004, incumbent President Bush won even greater support, at 71% of the vote to Democratic challenger John Kerry's 26.4%. In 2004 there were 1,278,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had five electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Utah has 29 counties, governed by elected commissioners. Other elected county officials include clerk-auditor, sheriff, assessor, recorder, treasurer, county attorney, and surveyor. Counties are the most powerful form of local government, having administrative, judicial, and financial authority. They also are responsible for law enforcement, education, and welfare.

There were 236 municipal governments in 2005. Larger cities were run by an elected mayor and two commissioners while smaller communities were governed by mayor and city council. Nevertheless, the state's largest municipality, Salt Lake City, adopted the mayor-council system. Additionally, the state had 40 public school districts and 300 special districts in 2005.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 78,549 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Utah operates under state statute; the public safety director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Office of Education is responsible for public instruction, and the Utah State Board of Regents oversees the state college and

university system. Highways and airports are the responsibility of the Department of Transportation.

The Department of Commerce supports economic and technological development programs in the state. Agencies dealing with the elderly, disabled, family services, mental health, assistance payments, and youth corrections are under the Department of Human Services. The Department of Health oversees public health and health care for the indigent. Other state departments deal with natural resources, business, labor, agriculture, corrections, and public safety.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Utah's highest court is the Supreme Court, consisting of a chief justice and four other justices, each serving a 10-year term. As of 1999 there were 37 district court judges, each one serving a 6-year term. Supreme court justices and district court judges are appointed by the governor with the consent of the state Senate. Appointments must be ratified by the voters at the next general election. In 1984, to ease the supreme court's caseload, residents approved a constitutional amendment allowing the legislature to create an intermediate court.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 5,989 prisoners were held in Utah's state and federal prisons, an increase from 5,763 of 2.5% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 510 inmates were female, up from 427 or 19.4% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Utah had an incarceration rate of 246 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Utah in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 236 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 5,639 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 97,607 reported incidents or 4,085.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Utah has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. However, those inmates sentenced to death prior to the passage of legislation banning the firing squad may still opt for that method of execution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state carried out six executions, the last of which was in October 1999. As of 1 January 2006, Utah had nine inmates on death row.

In 2003, Utah spent \$47,120,361 on homeland security, an average of \$20 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 5,756 active-duty military personnel and 14,715 civilian personnel stationed in Utah, the majority of whom were at Hill Air Force Base near Ogden and, in the Great Salt Lake Desert, Tooele Army Depot. Dugway Proving Ground—where nerve gas tests have been conducted—and the USAF Utah Test and Training Range are near the Nevada line. State firms were awarded more than \$1.87 billion in federal contracts during the same year. In addition, there was another \$1.54 billion in payroll outlays by the Department of Defense in the state.

In 2003, there were 151,129 veterans living in Utah, of whom 21,934 were veterans of World War II, 17,133 of the Korean conflict, 44,416 of the Vietnam era, and 25,822 of the Persian Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than

\$369 million in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Utah Highway Patrol employed 387 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

After the initial exodus of Latter-day Saints from the eastern United States to Utah, Mormon missionaries attracted other immigrants to the state, and some 90,000 foreign converts arrived between 1850 and 1905. Many non-Mormons were recruited from overseas to work in the mines, especially during the early 20th century. Utah had a net gain from migration of 176,000 between 1940 and 1985. From 1985 to 1990, there was a net loss from migration of 10,500. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 86,000 in domestic migration and 27,000 in international migration. In 1998, some 3,360 foreign immigrants arrived in Utah; of these, 1,035 came from Mexico. The state's population increased 21.9% between 1990 and 1998, making it the fourth-fastest growing state in the nation. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 49,995 and net internal migration was -33,822, for a net gain of 16,173 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Utah participates in several regional agreements, including the Bear River Compact (with Idaho and Wyoming), Colorado River Compact, and the Upper Colorado River Basin Compact. The state is also a signatory to the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, Western Interstate Corrections Compact, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, and Western Interstate Energy Compact. Federal grants in fiscal year 2005 amounted to \$2.107 billion, an estimated \$2.144 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$2.252 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Trade replaced government as the leading employer in Utah in 1980. Nearly 14% of personal income in the state was derived from government sources in 1995, a proportion that increased to 14.7% by 1997. With more than 70% of Utah's land under US control and some 37,750 civilian workers on federal payrolls—and others employed by defense industries or the military—the federal presence in Utah is both a major economic force and a controversial political issue. On one hand, elected officials have sought federal funds for mammoth reclamation and power projects. On the other hand, they resent many federal programs concerned with social welfare, land use, or environmental protection. Employment in the 1990s shifted away from agriculture, mining, transportation, and communications toward government, trade, and service occupations, and to a much lesser extent, manufacturing. Utah suffered disproportionately from cuts in the federal military budget in the early nineties, but from 1997 to 2001, output from the government sector increased 27%, including a 30.7% increase from federal operations, civilian and military. Even stronger growth was shown in other service sectors, with financial services up 55%, and general services up 33.8%. Output from Utah's manufacturing sector increased 18% between 1997 and 2000, increasing its share in the gross state product from 14.1% to 15.6%. However, it plummeted 11.7% in the national recession and slowdown of 2001, reducing its share in total state output to 11.5%. In

2002, Utah ranked seventh in the nation in job losses. Construction jobs were down 7%, in part because of the end of work for the 2002 Winter Olympics that were held in Utah. Manufacturing jobs in December 2002 were down 3.2% year-on-year, and the loss of high-paying jobs in high-tech and venture capital fields was seriously impacting personal income in the state. As of September 2002, personal bankruptcy filings had increased 15% over the year before, as Utah continued to have among the highest foreclosure and bankruptcy rates in the country.

In 2004, Utah's gross state product (GSP) was \$82.611 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$10.101 billion or 12.2% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$8.567 billion (10.3% of GSP), and professional and technical services at \$4.917 billion (5.9% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 203,468 small businesses in Utah. Of the 61,118 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 59,025 or 96.6% were small companies. An estimated 11,357 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 6.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 11,579, up 11.9% from 2003. There were 440 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 15.2% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 931 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Utah as the fourth-highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Utah had a gross state product (GSP) of \$90 billion which accounted for 0.7% of the nation's gross domestic product and ranked the state 33rd among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Utah had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$26,603. This ranked 47th in the United States and was 80% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.2%. Utah had a total personal income (TPI) of \$64,398,905,000, which ranked 35th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 6.5%. Earnings of persons employed in Utah increased from \$49,557,449,000 in 2003 to \$53,256,554,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.5%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$50,614 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.6% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Utah 1,314,200, with approximately 46,200 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.5%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 1,185,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Utah was 9.7% in March 1983. The historical low was 3% in April 1997. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 7.5% of the labor force was employed in construction; 10.1% in manufacturing; 19.5% in

trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.8% in financial activities; 13% in professional and business services; 11.2% in education and health services; 8.9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.3% in government.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 51,000 of Utah's 1,035,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 4.9% of those so employed, down from 5.8% in 2004, and well below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 63,000 workers (6.1%) in Utah were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Utah is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Utah had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 44.5% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Despite a dry climate and unpromising terrain, Utah ranked 37th in the United States in value of farm marketings in 2005, with \$1.25 billion. Crops accounted for \$292 million; livestock and livestock products for \$961 million. The first pioneers in Utah settled in fertile valleys near streams, which were diverted for irrigation. Modern Utah farmers and ranchers practice comprehensive soil and water conservation projects to help maximize crop yields and protect the natural resources. A farmland preservation movement is under way to protect valuable food-producing land from urban sprawl. In 2004 there were some 15,300 farms and ranches, covering 11,600,000 acres (4,700,000 hectares). The chief crops in 2004 were hay, 2.5 million tons; wheat, 5.8 million bushels; and tart cherries, 22 tons.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Livestock and livestock products accounted for 77% of Utah's agricultural income in 2004. In 2005, there were an estimated 860,000 cattle and calves, valued at nearly \$808.4 million, on Utah farms and ranches. During 2004, hogs and pigs numbered 690,000 and were valued at around \$75.9 million. Utah farms produced 20.4 million lb of sheep and lambs in 2003, and an estimated 2.25 million lb (1 million kg) of shorn wool in 2004. Dairy farms had around 91,000 milk cows, which produced 1.62 billion lb (0.74 billion kg) of milk.

2⁵ FISHING

Fishing in Utah is for recreation only. The state maintains egg-taking facilities at Bear Lake, Swan Creek, St. Charles, and Big Spring Creek to support 5.2 million angler days annually. There are two national fish hatcheries in the state (Ouray and Jones Hole). Fish restoration projects seek to recover razorback sucker and cutthroat trout. In 2004, Utah issued 373,834 sport fishing licenses.

2⁶ FORESTRY

In 2004, Utah had 15,173,000 acres (6,141,000 hectares) of forestland. In 2004, 8,189,000 acres (3,314,000 hectares) were in the state's six national forests—Ashley, Dixie, Fishlake, Manti-La Sal, Uinta, and Wasatch-Cache. Only 2,746,000 acres (1,111,000 hectares) were private commercial timberland in 2004. In the same year, lumber production was 57 million board feet.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Utah in 2003 was \$1.26 billion, an increase from 2002 of about 2%. The USGS data ranked Utah as ninth among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 3% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, the production of metals were the state's top nonfuel minerals sector, accounting for some 59% of all nonfuel minerals output, of which copper accounted for over 60% of all metals produced. By descending order of value, magnesium metal was the state's top nonfuel mineral, followed by beryllium concentrates. Nationally, Utah was second in the production of copper, magnesium compounds and potash, third in the production of gold and molybdenum concentrates, fourth in phosphate rock and silver, and sixth in the output of salt. The state also ranked third in perlite.

Preliminary data for 2003, showed salt production totaling 2.2 million metric tons, with a value of \$112 million, while the output of construction sand and gravel, that same year, totaled 26.5 million metric tons, with a value of \$101 million. Crushed stone production in 2003 stood at 8 million metric tons, and was worth \$40 million. Utah in 2003 produced 2.5 million metric tons of beryllium contrates, which were valued at \$ million.

Utah was also the only US source of mined beryllium during the year. The largest operating beryllium mine in the world is in Juab County, located at Spor Mountain. Utah was also a producer of portland cement and lime.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Utah had 52 electrical power service providers, of which 41 were publicly owned and nine were cooperatives. Of the remainder, one was investor owned, and one was federally operated. As of that same year there were 929,903 retail customers. Of that total, 699,483 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 33,957 customers, while publicly owned providers had 196,459 customers. There were four federal customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 5.798 million kW, with total production that same year at 38.023 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 98.7% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 35.978 billion kWh (94.6%), came from coal-fired plants, with natural gas fueled plants in second place at 1.385 billion kWh (3.6%) and hydroelectric plants in third at 421.339 million kWh (1.1%). Other renewable power sources and petroleum fired plants accounted for the remaining production.

As of 2004, Utah had proven crude oil reserves of 215 million barrels, or 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 40,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 13th (12th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 14th (13th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Utah had 2,143 producing oil wells and accounted for 1% of all US

production. As of 2005, the state's five refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 167,350 barrels per day.

In 2004, Utah had 3,657 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 277.969 billion cu ft (7.89 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 3,866 billion cu ft (109.79 billion cu m).

Utah is the only coal-producing state whose entire production comes from underground mines. In 2004, there were 13 producing coal mines in the state. Coal production that year totaled 21,746,000 short tons, down from 23,044,000 short tons in 2003. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 317 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Utah's diversified manufacturing is concentrated geographically in Salt Lake City, Weber, Utah, and Cache counties.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Utah's manufacturing sector covered some 16 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$29.588 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$4.369 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$3.210 billion; miscellaneous manufacturing at \$3.123 billion; computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$2.704 billion; and primary metal manufacturing at \$2.540 billion.

In 2004, a total of 107,362 people in Utah were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 72,810 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the miscellaneous manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees with 16,401 (10,632 actual production workers). It was followed by food manufacturing, with 14,440 (10,624 actual production workers); computer and electronic product manufacturing, with 11,804 (5,674 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing, with 10,773 (7,204 actual production workers); and fabricated metal product manufacturing, with 10,016 (7,282 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Utah's manufacturing sector paid \$4.202 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$627.344 million. It was followed by miscellaneous manufacturing at \$569.037 million; transport equipment manufacturing at \$514.227 million; food manufacturing at \$437.197 million; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$410.073 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Utah's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$22.9 billion from 3,369 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 2,111 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 988 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 270 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$10.07 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw

sales of \$9.2 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$3.5 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Utah was listed as having 8,135 retail establishments with sales of \$23.6 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,110); clothing and clothing accessories stores (1,038); miscellaneous store retailers (902); and gasoline stations (884). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$6.4 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$3.8 billion; food and beverage stores at \$3.2 billion; and gasoline stations at \$2.1 billion. A total of 121,745 people were employed by the retail sector in Utah that year.

Foreign exports of Utah's manufactured goods totaled \$6.05 billion in 2005.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues in Utah are primarily handled by the Division of Consumer Protection and the Committee of Consumer Services, both of which are under the state's Department of Commerce, although the Office of the Attorney General does have limited consumer protection responsibilities through its Commercial Enforcement Division.

The Consumer Protection Division investigates and mediates complaints and allegations of unfair, deceptive, or fraudulent business practices. It also conducts ongoing consumer education programs to teach consumers how to recognize consumer fraud and how to avoid becoming a victim. The right's division supplies attorneys for subsequent legal action. The Committee of Consumer Services is the state's consumer advocate regarding utility matters, representing the state's residential, small commercial and agricultural users of electricity, natural gas, and telephone services before the Utah Public Service Commission.

The Commercial Enforcement Division of the Office of the Attorney General is charged with protecting Utah's consumers, specifically in the areas of enforcing federal and state antitrust laws, handling cybercrime, enforcing laws to protect consumers from fraud, identity fraud, and ensuring against Medicaid fraud, as well as consumer related issues associated with the national tobacco settlement, access to government records and with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office has exclusive authority to file civil proceedings and to represent the state before regulatory agencies. The office can also file criminal proceedings, but has no authority to administer consumer education programs. In addition, the Attorney General's Office can only handle legal issues regarding the administration of formal consumer complaints, and has only limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can only offer legal opinions regarding the state's ability to act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own, and on the representation of counties, cities and other governmental entities in the recovering of civil damages under state or federal law. However, the office can initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts and initiate criminal proceedings.

The offices of the Division of Consumer Protection are located in Salt Lake City.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Utah had 68 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 66 state-chartered and 50 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Salt Lake City market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 58 institutions and \$101.616 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 4.5% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$9.792 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 95.5% or \$207.630 billion in assets held.

The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered savers and the higher rates charged on loans) was 6.09% as of fourth quarter 2005, up from 5.13% in 2004 and 5.26% in 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans was 1.45% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 2.17% in 2004 and 2.82% in 2003.

Regulation of Utah's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Utah department of Financial Institutions.

3³ INSURANCE

Utahans held some 797,000 individual life insurance policies in 2004 with a total value of about \$106 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$144.9 billion. The average coverage amount is \$133,200 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$381.2 million.

As of 2003, there were 7 property and casualty and 17 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$2.89 billion. That year, there were 2,862 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$452 million.

In 2004, 62% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 7% held individual policies, and 17% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 13% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage and 28% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.5 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$15,000. Personal injury protection is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$732.35.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Utah. In 2005, there were 800 personal financial advisers employed in the state. In 2004, there were over 127 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 33 NASDAQ companies, 7 NYSE listings, and 2 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had two Fortune 500 companies; Hunts-

man Corp. ranked first in the state and 172nd in the nation with revenues of over \$12.9 billion, followed by Autoliv at 351st in the nation with revenues of \$6.2 billion. Both companies were listed on the NYSE. Questar, Zions Bancorp, and SkyWest are listed on the Fortune 1,000.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The annual budget is prepared by the State Budget Office and submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$4.4 billion for resources and \$4.4 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Utah were \$2.9 billion

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Utah was slated to receive: \$39.8 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$10 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Utah fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is a 12% increase over fiscal year 2006.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Utah collected \$4,686 million in tax revenues or \$1,897 per capita, which placed it 38th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Sales taxes accounted for 36.5% of the total, selective sales taxes 13.2%, individual income taxes 41.1%, corporate income taxes 4.0%, and other taxes 5.1%.

As of 1 January 2006, Utah had six individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.30% to 7.0%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 5.0%.

In 2004, local property taxes amounted to \$1,668,988,000 or \$689 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 39th nationally. Utah has no state level property taxes.

Utah taxes retail sales at a rate of 4.75%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2.25%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 69.5 cents per pack, which ranks 29th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Utah taxes gasoline at 24.5 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Utah citizens received \$1.14 in federal spending.

3⁷ ECONOMIC POLICY

The economic development of Utah has been dominated by two major forces: the relatively closed system of the original Mormon settlers and the more wide-open, speculative ventures of the state's later immigrants. The Mormons developed agriculture, industry, and a cooperative exchange system that excluded non-Mormons. The church actively opposed mining, and it was mostly with non-

Mormon capital, by non-Mormon foreign immigrants, that the state's mineral industry was developed.

In the 1990s, these conflicts were supplanted by a widespread fiscal conservatism that supports business activities and opposes expansion of government social programs at all levels. One Utah politician, J. Bracken Lee, who served as governor from 1949 to 1957, and as mayor of Salt Lake City from 1960–72, became nationally famous for his call to repeal the federal income tax.

Until 2005, Department of Community and Economic Development was the state agency responsible for the expansion of tourism and industry. Effective 1 July 2005, the Division of Busi-

Utah—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	13,167,850	5,439.01
General revenue	9,560,033	3,948.80
Intergovernmental revenue	2,877,849	1,188.70
Taxes	4,195,962	1,733.15
General sales	1,560,902	644.73
Selective sales	581,338	240.12
License taxes	156,999	64.85
Individual income tax	1,692,035	698.90
Corporate income tax	145,005	59.89
Other taxes	59,683	24.65
Current charges	1,853,528	765.60
Miscellaneous general revenue	632,694	261.34
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	141,859	58.60
Insurance trust revenue	3,465,958	1,431.62
Total expenditure	10,794,264	4,458.60
Intergovernmental expenditure	2,112,921	872.75
Direct expenditure	8,681,343	3,585.85
Current operation	6,224,862	2,571.19
Capital outlay	1,001,804	413.80
Insurance benefits and repayments	937,202	387.11
Assistance and subsidies	331,187	136.80
Interest on debt	186,288	76.95
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	2,029,544	838.31
Total expenditure	10,794,264	4,458.60
General expenditure	9,752,869	4,028.45
Intergovernmental expenditure	2,112,921	872.75
Direct expenditure	7,639,948	3,155.70
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	4,335,952	1,790.98
Public welfare	1,992,986	823.21
Hospitals	505,963	208.99
Health	304,254	125.67
Highways	817,113	337.51
Police protection	114,615	47.34
Correction	275,912	113.97
Natural resources	172,767	71.36
Parks and recreation	41,745	17.24
Government administration	571,909	236.23
Interest on general debt	186,288	76.95
Other and unallocable	433,365	179.00
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	104,193	43.04
Insurance trust expenditure	937,202	387.11
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,962,141	2,049.62
Cash and security holdings	19,472,625	8,043.22

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

ness and Economic Development (DBED) and the Division of Travel Development became part of the new Governor's Office of Economic Development. Programs that are part of the governor's economic include tourism, corporate site selection, rural development, film, science and technology, and international business development. Also created in 2005 was the Department of Community and Culture, which administers programs for volunteers, the Division of Housing and Community Development, the Division of Indian Affairs, the Martin Luther King Jr. Commission, the Office of Museum Services, the Utah Office of Ethnic Affairs, the Utah Arts Council, the Utah Citizens Corps, the Division of Utah State History, and the Utah State Library.

38 HEALTH

Health conditions in Utah are exceptionally good. The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 4.4 per 1,000 live births, the lowest rate in the country for that year. The birth rate in 2003 was the highest in the nation at 21.2 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 6.6 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 80.3% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 71% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three; this was the second-lowest rate in the nation for immunizations (above Nevada).

The crude death rate in 2003 was 5.7 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 128.5; cancer, 102.6; cerebrovascular diseases, 39; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 26; and diabetes, 22. The mortality rate from HIV infection was unavailable that year. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 3.3 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 52.1% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 10.5% of state residents were smokers, the lowest percentage of the 50 states.

In 2003, Utah had 42 community hospitals with about 4,400 beds. There were about 215,000 patient admissions that year and 4.5 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,500 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,654. Also in 2003, there were about 90 certified nursing facilities in the state with 7,438 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 71.3%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 72.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Utah had 215 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 630 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 1,573 dentists in the state.

About 12% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 9% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 13% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$1.5 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 45,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$266. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 133,263 persons (53,162 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.31 per person.

That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$141.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Utah's TANF program is called the Family Employment Program (FEP). In 2004, the state program had 23,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$56 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 262,330 Utah residents. This number included 171,520 retired workers, 22,770 widows and widowers, 27,120 disabled workers, 17,420 spouses, and 23,500 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 11% of the total state population and 91.5% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$959; widows and widowers, \$954; disabled workers, \$886; and spouses, \$498. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$494 per month; children of deceased workers, \$642; and children of disabled workers, \$267. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 21,646 Utah residents, averaging \$394 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 848,737 housing units in Utah, of which 780,029 were occupied; 69.7% were owner-occupied. About 67.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Utility gas was the most common energy source for heating. It was estimated that 20,431 units lacked telephone services, 2,612 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 3,489 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 3.01 members, the highest average in the nation.

In 2004, 24,300 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$157,275. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,164. Renters paid a median of \$662 per month. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$550,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$6.5 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 91% of Utah residents had graduated from high school, significantly higher than the national average of 84%. Some 30.8% had four or more years of college, surpassing the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Utah's public schools stood at 489,000. Of these, 343,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 147,000 attended high school. Approximately 83.4% of the students were white, 1.1% were black, 11% were Hispanic, 2.9% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 489,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 562,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 14.9% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$3 billion or \$5,008 per student, the lowest among the 50 states. There were

15,907 students enrolled in 108 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Utah scored 279 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 178,932 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 8% of total post-secondary enrollment. In 2005 Utah had 28 degree-granting institutions. Major public institutions include the University of Utah; Utah State University; and Weber State College. Brigham Young University (Provo), founded in 1875 and affiliated with the Latter-day Saints, is the main private institution.

42 ARTS

The Utah Arts Council (UAC) was founded in 1899 as the Utah Art Institute, only three years after it achieved statehood. UAC sponsors exhibitions, artists in the schools, rural arts and folk arts programs, and statewide arts competitions in cooperation with arts organizations throughout the state. In addition, the partially state-funded Utah Arts Festival has been held each year, since 1984, in Salt Lake City. In 2006, the Utah Arts Festival celebrated its 30th anniversary.

In 2005, the Utah Arts Council and other Utah arts organizations received 20 grants totaling \$1,071,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Utah Humanities Council was established in 1975 and promotes several literacy and history-related programs and exhibits. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,109,314 for eight state programs. In addition, the state and private sources provide substantial contributions to the arts.

Music has a central role in Utah's cultural life. The Mormon Tabernacle Choir has won world renown, and Ballet West is ranked among the nation's leading dance companies. The Utah Symphony (Salt Lake City), founded in 1940, has also gained a national reputation. The Utah Symphony works with the Utah State Office of Education to bring concerts to schools throughout the state; as of 2006 the symphony performed for over 80,000 students each year. Opera buffs enjoy the Utah Opera Company, founded in 1976.

Kenneth Brewer was named Utah's poet laureate in 2003; he later died in March 2006. His books include *The Place In Between* (1998), *Lake's Edge* (1997), *Hoping for All, Dreading Nothing* (1994), and his final title, *Whale Song: A Poet's Journey Into Cancer* (2006)—it includes poems that were written after he was diagnosed with cancer.

Utah has several art museums and galleries, including Utah State University's Nora Eccles Harrison Museum in Logan and the LDS Church Museum of Art and History in Salt Lake City. Other major facilities are the Brigham Young University Art Museum Collection, Provo and the Springville Art Museum. The Museum of Fine Arts of the University of Utah (Salt Lake City) houses a diverse permanent collection that includes but is not limited to, African Art, German Art, American Art, Flemish Art, Japanese Art and Scottish Art.

Living Traditions: A Celebration of Salt Lake's Folk and Ethnic Arts is an annual festival that takes place on the weekend before Memorial Day. As of 2005, the three-day event attracted over 45,000 people with continuous music and dance on two stages, as

well as crafts demonstrations and sales that incorporate the cultural traditions of the state. The Sundance Institute, founded by Robert Redford in 1981, presents the annual Sundance Film Festival, which is widely regarded as one of the nation's most influential gatherings for independent filmmakers. The Sundance Institute celebrated its 25th anniversary in 2006 and the 22nd annual Sundance Film Festival.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In December 2001, Utah had 70 public library systems, with a total of 107 libraries, of which there were 56 branches. For that same year, the systems had a combined 6,064,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 24,592,000. The system also had 371,000 audio and 253,000 video items, 25,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 25 bookmobiles. The Salt Lake County library system had 1,765,295 volumes (not including Salt Lake City, whose system has 704,123 volumes). The Weber County system (including Ogden) has 382,024. The leading academic libraries are the University of Utah (Salt Lake City), 2,350,297, and Brigham Young University (Provo), 2,500,849. Other collections are the Latter-day Saints' Library-Archives and the Utah State Historical Society Library, both in Salt Lake City.

During 2000, Utah had at least 60 museums, notably the Utah Museum of Natural History and Utah Museum of Fine Arts, Salt Lake City; Hill Aerospace Museum near Ogden; College of Eastern Utah Prehistoric Museum, Price; and Museum of Peoples and Cultures, Provo. Some homes are maintained as museums, including Beehive House and Wheeler Historic Farm, Salt Lake City, and Brigham Young's Winter Home, St. George. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$56,915,000 and included \$354,000 in federal funds, and \$908,000 in state funds.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 96.3% of Utah's occupied houses had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 1,229,029 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 74.1% of Utah households had a computer and 62.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 261,135 high-speed lines in Utah, 231,418 residential and 29,717 for business.

A total of 45 major radio stations broadcast in Utah in 2005; 14 were AM stations, 31 FM. There were 8 major television stations in 2005. The Salt Lake City area had 720,860 television households, 53% ordering cable in 1999. In the year 2000, Utah had registered 64,217 Internet domain names.

45 PRESS

In 2005, Utah had six daily newspapers and six Sunday papers. The following table shows leading daily newspapers as of 2005:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Ogden	<i>Standard-Examiner</i> (m,S)	60,844	63,649
Provo	<i>Daily Herald</i> (m,S)	42,744	34,324
Salt Lake City	<i>Desert News</i> *(m,S)	72,008	73,601
	<i>Tribune</i> *(m,S)	133,025	152,859

*operated by Newspaper Agency Corp.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,140 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 817 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Salt Lake City is the world headquarters of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon). The city is also home to the Mental Retardation Association of America, the National Energy Foundation, and Executive Women International.

The Utah Arts Council and the Utah State Historical Society are primary organizations for promoting arts and culture in the state. The organization Artists of Utah was founded in 2001. Offices for the Sundance Institute, a resource center for independent filmmakers, are in Salt Lake City. The national office of the US Ski and Snowboarding Association is in Park City. The Southern Utah Wilderness Alliance and Ride With respect are state environmental and conservation associations.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2003, some 16.9 million visitors traveled to Utah, down 1.3% over the 17.5 million visitors spending a total of approximately \$4.15 billion in 2002, the year Salt Lake City hosted the Olympic Games. In 2003, 83% of all trips were made by residents within the state and by those traveling from California, Idaho, Nevada, Colorado, Texas, Wyoming, and Washington. International visitors accounted for 3.1% of all travel to the state. The top international markets were Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom, and France. Also in 2002, nearly 5.8 million visitors came to state parks and 5.2 million came to national parks. Skier visits totaled 3 million. In 2003, The industry supported some 130,000 jobs.

The top five tourist attractions in 2002 (by attendance) were Temple Square (5–7 million), Zion National Park (2.6 million), Glen Canyon National Recreation Center (2.1 million), Wasatch Mountain State Park (1.2 million), and Lagoon Amusement Park (1.1 million). Pioneer Trail State Park and Hogle Zoological Gardens are leading attractions of Salt Lake City, about 11 mi (18 km) east of the Great Salt Lake. At the Bonneville Salt Flats, experimental automobiles have set world land-speed records. Utah considers itself the ice cream capital of the world; the state's well-known Blue Bunny ice cream parlor is in St. George.

Utah has 41 state parks, 5 national parks (Zion, Bryce, Arches, Canyonlands, and Capitol Reef), and 8 national monuments. Mountain and rock climbing, skiing, fishing, and hunting are major forms of recreation.

48 SPORTS

Utah has two major professional sports teams, both located in Salt Lake City: the Utah Jazz of the National Basketball Association (NBA), which moved from New Orleans at the close of the 1979 season, and Real Salt Lake of Major League Soccer. The Jazz, led by John Stockton and Karl Malone, advanced to the NBA Finals for the first time in 1997, but lost to the Chicago Bulls. The Jazz again advanced to the Finals in 1998, but were again defeated by the Chicago Bulls in Michael Jordan's last game. Utah hosted the Starzz of the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) until the team's relocation to San Antonio prior to the 2003 season. Basketball is also popular at the college level. The University of Utah's Running Utes have had great success in the recent past

and won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championship back in 1944 and the National Invitation Tournament in 1947, while the Cougars of Brigham Young won National Invitational Tournament titles in 1951 and 1966, and were named college football's national champions in 1984. Salt Lake City is also home to minor league baseball and hockey teams.

Other annual sporting events include the Easter Jeep Sandhill Climb in Moab, the Ute Stampede (a rodeo) in Nephi in July, and various skiing events at Utah's world-class resort in Park City. Salt Lake City hosted the Winter Olympics in 2002.

49 FAMOUS UTAHNS

George Sutherland (b.England, 1862–1942) capped a long career in Utah Republican politics by serving as an associate justice of the US Supreme Court (1922–38). Other important federal officeholders from Utah include George Dern (b.Nebraska, 1872–1936), President Franklin D. Roosevelt's secretary of war from 1933 to 1936; Ezra Taft Benson (Idaho, 1899–1994), a high official of the Mormon Church and President Dwight Eisenhower's secretary of agriculture; and Ivy Baker Priest (1905–75), US treasurer during 1953–61. Prominent in the US Senate for 30 years was Republican tariff expert Reed Smoot (1862–1941), also a Mormon Church official. The most colorful politician in state history. J(oseph) Bracken Lee (1899–1996), was mayor of Price for 12 years before serving as governor during 1949–57 and mayor of Salt Lake City during 1960–72. Jacob "Jake" Garn (b.1932), first elected to the US Senate in 1974, was launched into space aboard the space shuttle in 1985.

The dominant figure in Utah history is undoubtedly Brigham Young (b.Vermont, 1801–77), the great western colonizer. As leader of the Mormons for more than 30 years, he initiated white settlement of Utah in 1847 and, until his death, exerted almost complete control over life in the territory. Other major historical figures include Eliza R. Snow (b.Massachusetts, 1804–87), Mormon women's leader; Wakara, anglicized Walker (c.1808–55), the foremost Ute leader of the early settlement period; Colonel Patrick Edward Conner (b.Ireland, 1820–91), founder of Camp Douglas and father of Utah mining; George Q. Cannon (b.England, 1827–1901), editor, businessman, political leader, and a power in the Mormon Church for more than 40 years; and Lawrence Scanlan (b.Ireland, 1843–1915), first Roman Catholic bishop of Salt Lake City, founder of schools and a hospital.

Utah's most important scientist is John A. Widtsoe (b.Norway, 1872–1952), whose pioneering research in dryland farming revolutionized agricultural practices. Noted inventors are gunsmith John M. Browning (1855–1926) and television innovator Philo T. Farnsworth (1906–71). Of note in business are mining entrepreneurs David Keith (b.Canada, 1847–1918), Samuel Newhouse (b.New York, 1853–1930), Susanna Emery-Holmes (b.Missouri, 1859–1942), Thomas Kearns (b.Canada, 1862–1918), and Daniel C. Jackling (b.Missouri, 1869–1956). Labor leaders include William Dudley "Big Bill" Haywood (1869–1928), radical Industrial Workers of the World organizer, and Frank Bonacci (b.Italy, 1884–1954), United Mine Workers of America organizer.

Utah's artists and writers include sculptors Cyrus E. Dallin (1861–1944) and Mahonri M. Young (1877–1957), painter Henry L. A. Culmer (b.England, 1854–1914), author-critic Bernard A. DeVoto (1897–1955), poet-critic Brewster Ghiselin (b.Missouri,

1903), folklorist Austin E. Fife (b. Idaho, 1909–86), and novelists Maurine Whipple (1904–92), Virginia Sorensen (b. 1912–91), and Edward Abbey (b. 1927–1989).

Actors from Utah are Maude Adams (1872–1953), Robert Walker (1918–1951), Loretta Young (1913–2000), Laraine Day (b. 1920). Donald “Donny” Osmond (b. 1957) and his sister Marie (b. 1959) are Utah’s best-known popular singers. Emma Lucy Gates Bowen (1880–1951), an opera singer, founded her own traveling opera company, and William F. Christensen (1902–2001) founded Ballet West. Maurice Abravanel (b. Greece, 1903–1993) conducted the Utah Symphony for many years. Other musicians of note include jazz trumpeter Ernest Loring “Red” Nichols (1905–1965).

Sports figures include former world middleweight boxing champion Gene Fullmer (b. 1931), former Los Angeles Rams tackle Merlin Olsen (b. 1940), and NFL quarterback Steve Young (b. 1961) of the San Francisco 49ers.

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VERMONT

State of Vermont

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the French words *vert* (green) and *mont* (mountain). **NICKNAME:** The Green Mountain State. **CAPITAL:** Montpelier. **ENTERED UNION:** 4 March 1791 (14th). **SONG:** “Hail Vermont.” **MOTTO:** Freedom and Unity. **COAT OF ARMS:** Rural Vermont is represented by a pine tree in the center, three sheaves of grain on the left, and a cow on the right, with a background of fields and mountains. A deer crests the shield. Below are crossed pine branches and the state name and motto. **FLAG:** The coat of arms on a field of dark blue. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Bisecting Vermont’s golden seal is a row of wooded hills above the state name. The upper half has a spearhead, pine tree, cow, and two sheaves of wheat, while two more sheaves and the state motto fill the lower half. **BIRD:** Hermit thrush. **FISH:** Brook trout (cold water) and walleye pike (warm water). **FLOWER:** Red clover. **TREE:** Sugar maple. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Town Meeting Day, 1st Tuesday in March; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Bennington Battle Day, 16 August; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the day following; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated in the northeastern United States, Vermont is the second-largest of the six New England states, and ranks 43rd in size among the 50 states.

Vermont’s total area of 9,614 sq mi (24,900 sq km) consists of 9,249 sq mi (23,955 sq km) of land and 365 sq mi (945 sq km) of inland water. Vermont’s maximum E–W extension is 90 mi (145 km); its maximum N–S extension is 158 mi (254 km). The state resembles a wedge, wide and flat at the top and narrower at the bottom.

Vermont is bordered on the N by the Canadian province of Quebec; on the E by New Hampshire (separated by the Connecticut River); on the S by Massachusetts; and on the W by New York (with part of the line passing through Lake Champlain and the Poultney River).

The state’s territory includes several islands and the lower part of a peninsula jutting south into Lake Champlain from the Canadian border, collectively called Grand Isle County. Vermont’s total boundary length is 561 mi (903 km). Its geographic center is in Washington County, 3 mi (5 km) E of Roxbury.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The Green Mountains are the most prominent topographic region in Vermont. Extending north–south from the Canadian border to the Massachusetts state line, the Green Mountains contain the state’s highest peaks, including Mansfield, 4,393 ft (1,340 m), the highest point in Vermont; Killington, 4,235 ft (1,293 m); and Elbow Mountain (Warren), 4,135 ft (1,260 m). A much lower range, the Taconic Mountains, straddles the New York–Vermont border for about 80 mi (129 km). To their north is the narrow Valley of Vermont; farther north is the Champlain Valley, a lowland about 20 mi (32 km) wide between Lake Champlain—site of the state’s lowest point, 95 ft (29 m) above sea level—and the Green Moun-

tains. The Vermont piedmont is a narrow corridor of hills and valleys stretching about 100 mi (161 km) to the east of the Green Mountains. The Northeast Highlands consist of an isolated series of peaks near the New Hampshire border. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,000 ft (305 m).

Vermont’s major inland rivers are the Missisquoi, Lamoille, and Winooski. The state includes about 66% of Lake Champlain on its western border and about 25% of Lake Memphremagog on the northern border.

³ CLIMATE

Burlington’s normal daily average temperature is 45°F (7°C), ranging from 18°F (-7°C) in January to 70°F (21°C) in July. Winters are generally colder and summer nights cooler in the higher elevations of the Green Mountains. The record high temperature for the state is 105°F (41°C), registered at Vernon on 4 July 1911; the record low, -50°F (-46°C), at Bloomfield, 30 December 1933. Burlington’s average annual precipitation of about 34 in (86 cm) is less than the statewide average of about 40 in (102 cm). Annual snowfall in Burlington is 76.9 in (195 cm); elsewhere in the state snowfall ranges from 55 to 65 in (140–165 cm) in the lower regions, and from 100 to 125 in (254–318 cm) in the mountain areas.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Common trees of Vermont are the commercially important sugar maple (the state tree), the butternut, white pine, and yellow birch. Other recognized flora include 15 types of conifer, 130 grasses, and 192 sedges. Two plant species, Jesup’s milk-vetch and Northeastern bulrush, were endangered in 2006.

Native mammalian species include white-tailed deer, coyote, red fox, and snowshoe hare. Several species of trout are prolific. Characteristic birds include the raven (*Corvus corax*), gray or Canada jay, and saw-whet owl. In 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife

Service listed six animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) as threatened or endangered in Vermont, including the Indiana bat, dwarf wedgemussel, and bald eagle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

All natural resource regulation, planning, and operation are coordinated by the Department of Environmental Conservation. The state is divided into 14 soil and water conservation districts operated by local landowners with the assistance of the state Natural Resources Conservation Council. Several dams on the Winooski and Connecticut river's drainage basins help control flooding.

Legislation enacted in 1972 bans the use of throwaway beverage containers in Vermont, in an effort to reduce roadside litter. Billboards were banned in 1968. In the 1980s and early 1990s, the effects of acid rain became a source of concern in Vermont, as in the rest of the Northeast. In 2003, 0.3 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. That year, Vermont ranked as having the least amount of toxic chemical releases of all 50 states.

By some estimates as much as 35% of Vermont's wetlands have been lost since colonization. As of 2002, about 4% of the state was designated as wetlands, and the government has established the Vermont Wetlands Conservation Strategy.

In 2003, Vermont had 56 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 11 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Pine Street Canal in Burlington and the Ely Copper Mine. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$4.4 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$6.4 million for the clean water state revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Vermont ranked 49th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 623,050 in 2005, an increase of 2.3% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Vermont's population grew from 562,758 to 608,827, an increase of 8.2%. The population is projected to reach 673,169 by 2015 and 703,288 by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 67.2 persons per sq mi.

In 2004, the median age for Vermont residents was 40.4. In the same year, 21.7% of the populace were under age 18 while 13% was age 65 or older. The rural population increased 12% between 1970 and 1980; in the 1990s, Vermont had the highest percentage of rural dwellers in all states.

Vermont cities with the largest populations, all under 100,000, include Burlington, Rutland, and Montpelier. The Burlington–South Burlington metropolitan area had an estimated population of 204,485 in 2004.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

There were 53,835 residents reporting French Canadian ancestry in 2000. These Vermonters are congregated chiefly in the northern counties and in such urban centers as Burlington, St. Albans, and Montpelier. Italians make up 6.4% of the population reporting at least one specific ancestry group. The foreign born numbered 23,245—3.8% of the population—in 2000. In 2000, Hispanics and

Latinos numbered 5,504, just under 1% of the total. That percentage remained roughly the same in 2004.

The 1990 census counted few non-Caucasians. There were 5,217 Asians, 3,063 blacks, and 2,420 American Indians. In 2004, 1% of the population was Asian, 0.6% black, 0.4% American Indian, and 1.1% reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

A few place-names and very few Indian-language speakers remain as evidence of the early Vermont presence of the Algonkian Mohawk tribe and of some Iroquois in the north. Vermont English, although typical of the Northern dialect, differs from that of New Hampshire in several respects, including retention of the final /r/ and use of *eavestrough* in place of eavespout.

In 2000, 540,767 Vermonters—94.1% of the population age five and over—spoke only English at home. The percent of the population who spoke only English at home remained constant from 1990 to 2000.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “Scandinavian languages” includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	574,842	100.0
Speak only English	540,767	94.1
Speak a language other than English	34,075	5.9
Speak a language other than English	34,075	5.9
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	14,624	2.5
Spanish or Spanish Creole	5,791	1.0
German	2,612	0.5
Serbo-Croatian	1,600	0.3
Italian	1,198	0.2
Polish	977	0.2
Vietnamese	812	0.1
Chinese	782	0.1
Russian	554	0.1
Scandinavian languages	415	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

From the early days of settlement to the present, Congregationalists (now called the United Church of Christ) have played a dominant role in the state. They were the largest Protestant denomination in the state in 2000, with 21,597 known adherents. Other major Protestant groups include the United Methodists, 19,000; Episcopalians, 9,163; and American Baptists, 8,352. The largest single religious organization in Vermont is the Roman Catholic Church, with 149,154 members in 2004. There is a small Jewish population (estimated at 5,810 in 2000), most of whom live in Burlington. Over 370,000 people (about 60.9% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

Vermont was the birthplace of both Joseph Smith and Brigham Young, founders of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. The state had 4,150 Mormons in 2006.

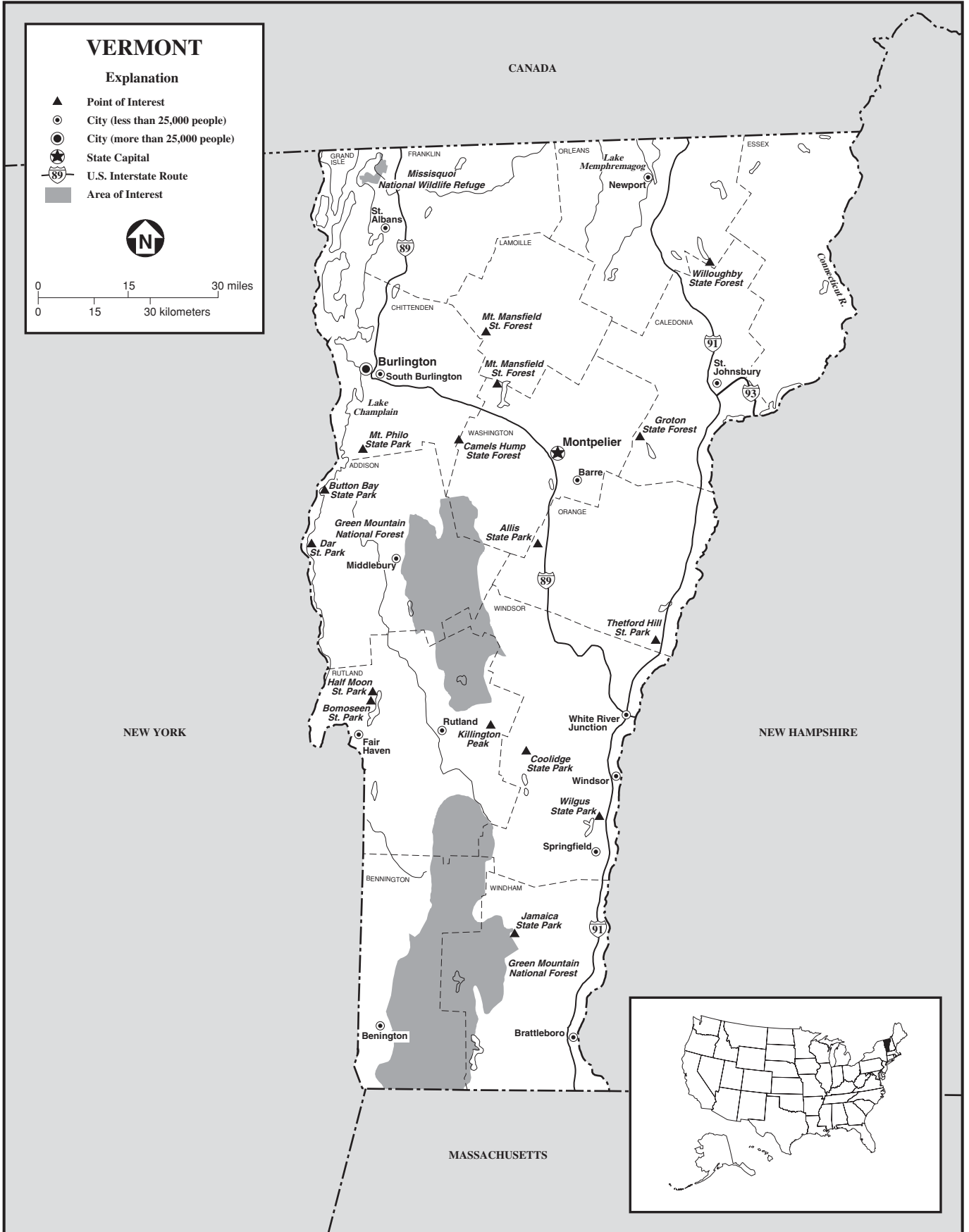
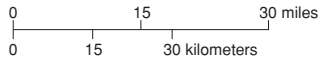
10 TRANSPORTATION

Vermont's first railroad, completed in 1849, served more as a link to Boston than as an intrastate line. It soon went into receivership, as did many other early state lines. From a high of nearly 1,100 mi (1,770 km) of track in 1910, trackage shrank to 562 rail mi (904 km) in 2003, none of it Class I line. As of that year, eight railroads

VERMONT

Explanation

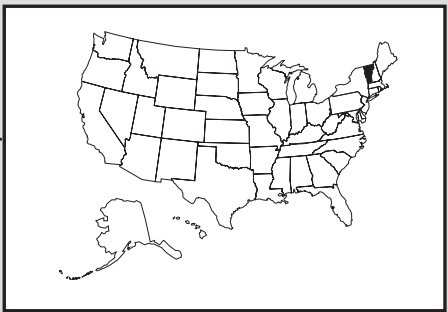
- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (less than 25,000 people)
- City (more than 25,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- 89 U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



NEW YORK

NEW HAMPSHIRE

MASSACHUSETTS



were operating within the state. Glass and stone products were the top commodities shipped by rail that originated within the state, while lumber and wood products were the top commodities shipped by rail that terminated within Vermont that same year. In 2006, Amtrak provided passenger service to 11 stations in the state via its Ethan Allen (Rutland to New York City) train and its Vermonter (St. Albans to New York City to Washington DC) train.

There were 14,368 mi (23,132 km) of public streets, roads, and highways in 2004. In that same year, there were some 540,000 motor vehicles registered in the state, while there were 550,462 licensed drivers.

In 2005, Vermont had a total of 87 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 61 airports, 20 heliports, 3 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 3 seaplane bases. Burlington International Airport is the state's major air terminal. In 2004 the airport handled 627,423 enplanements.

11 HISTORY

Vermont has been inhabited continuously since about 10,000 BC. Archaeological finds suggest the presence of a pre-Algonkian group along the Otter River. Algonkian-speaking Abnaki settled along Lake Champlain and in the Connecticut Valley, and Mahican settled in the southern counties between AD 1200 and 1790. In 1609, Samuel de Champlain crossed the lake that now bears his name, becoming the first European explorer of Vermont. From the 1650s to the 1760s, French, Iroquois Indians from New York, Dutch, and English passed through the state over trails connecting Montreal with Massachusetts and New York. However, few settled there. In 1666 the French built and briefly occupied Ft. Ste. Anne on Isle La Motte, and in 1690 there was a short-lived settlement at Chimney Point. Ft. Dummer, built in 1724 near present-day Brattleboro, was the first permanent settlement.

Governor Benning Wentworth of New Hampshire, claiming that his colony extended as far west as did Massachusetts and Connecticut, had granted 131 town charters in the territory by 1764. In that year, the crown declared that New York's northeastern boundary was the Connecticut River. Owners of New Hampshire titles, fearful of losing their land, prevented New York from enforcing its jurisdiction. The Green Mountain Boys, organized by Ethan Allen in 1770–71, scared off the defenseless settlers under New York title and flouted New York courts.

Shortly after the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, Ethan Allen's men helped capture Ft. Ticonderoga, and for two years frontiersmen fought in the northern theater. On 16 August 1777, after a skirmish at Hubbardton, a Vermont contingent routed German detachments sent by British General Burgoyne toward Bennington—a battle that contributed to the general's surrender at Saratoga, New York. There were several British raids on Vermont towns during the war.

Vermont declared itself an independent republic with the name "New Connecticut" in 1777, promulgated a constitution abolishing slavery and providing universal manhood suffrage, adopted the laws of Connecticut, and confiscated Tory lands. Most Vermonters preferred to join the United States, but the dominant Allen faction, with large holdings in the northwest, needed free trade with Canada, even at the price of returning to the British Empire. Political defeat of the Allen faction in 1789 led to negotiations that

settled New York's claims and secured Vermont's admission to the Union on 4 March 1791.

With 30,000 people in 1781 and nearly 220,000 in 1810, Vermont was a state of newcomers spread evenly over the hills in self-sufficient homesteads. Second-generation Vermonters developed towns and villages with water-powered mills, charcoal-fired furnaces, general stores, newspapers, craft shops, churches, and schools. Those who ran these local institutions tended to be Congregationalist in religion and successively Federalist, Whig, and Republican in party politics. Dissidents in the early 1800s included minority Protestants suffering legal and social discrimination, hardscrabble farmers, and Jacksonian Democrats.

Northwestern Vermonters smuggled to avoid the US foreign trade embargo of 1808, and widespread trade continued with Canada during the War of 1812. In September 1814, however, Vermont soldiers fought in the Battle of Plattsburgh, New York, won by Thomas Macdonough's fleet built at Vergennes the previous winter. The Mexican War (1846–48) was unpopular in the state, but Vermont, which had strongly opposed slavery, was an enthusiastic supporter of the Union during the Civil War.

The opening of the Champlain-Hudson Canal in 1823, and the building of the early railroad lines in 1846–53, made Vermont more vulnerable to western competition, caused the demise of many small farms and businesses, and stimulated emigration. The remaining farmers' purchasing power steadily increased as they held temporary advantages in wool, then in butter and cheese-making, and finally in milk production. The immigration of the Irish and French Canadians stabilized the population, and the expansion of light industry bolstered the economy.

During the 20th century, and especially after World War II, autos, buses, trucks, and planes took over most passengers and much freight from the railroads. Manufacturing, especially light industry, prospered in valley villages. Vermont's picturesque landscape began to attract city buyers of second homes. Still rural in population distribution, Vermont became increasingly suburban in outlook, as new highways made the cities and hills mutually accessible, and the state absorbed an influx of young professionals from New York and Massachusetts. Tourism thrived, especially in the Green Mountains and other ski resort areas. Longtime Vermonters, accustomed to their state's pristine beauty, were confronted in the 1980s with the question of how much development was necessary for the state's economic health. The newcomers changed the political landscape as well. Whereas Vermont had long been dominated by the Republican Party, by the mid-1980s fully a third of the electorate voted Democratic. The Democratic presidential candidate carried Vermont in the 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004 elections. In 1990, Vermont elected as its sole Congressional representative a democratic socialist, Bernie Sanders, who called for reduced limits on campaign spending, a sharply progressive income tax, national health care, and 50% cuts in military spending over five years. Sanders was reelected in 2004.

In the early 1990s Vermont had the nation's highest percentage of women in its state legislature. With two-thirds of its population living in towns of 2,500 or fewer, it was the nation's most rural state. In 1993 Vermont passed legislation barring smoking in all public buildings, including most restaurants and hotels.

Governor James H. Douglas, a Republican elected in 2002, pledged to create jobs and provide economic security to the state.

He also emphasized higher education, and transportation spending. Douglas announced a substance abuse and interdiction program for Vermont's correctional facilities that would include random drug testing, including for those inmates out on furlough. Douglas was reelected to a second two-year term in 2004. In April 2005, Senator Jim Jeffords of Vermont, an independent who caucuses with the Democrats, announced he would not seek reelection in 2006. Speculation was raised as to whether or not Douglas would vie with Congressman Bernie Sanders for Jeffords's seat, but Douglas later debunked this notion and declared he would seek reelection as governor in 2006.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

A constitution establishing Vermont as an independent republic was adopted in 1777. The constitution that governs the state today became effective on 9 July 1793. By January 2005, that document had been amended 53 times.

The General Assembly consists of a 150-member House of Representatives and a 30-member Senate. All legislators are elected to two-year terms. Regular sessions begin in January and are not formally limited in length. Legislators must be US citizens, at least 18 years old and residents of the state for at least two years and of their districts for at least one year. In 2003 the legislative salary was \$589 per week during session.

State elected officials are the governor and lieutenant governor (elected separately), treasurer, secretary of state, auditor of accounts, and attorney general, all of whom serve two-year terms. A governor must be at least 18 years of age and have been a state citizen for one year and a state resident for at least four years prior to election. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$133,162.

All bills require a majority vote in each house for passage. Bills can be vetoed by the governor, and vetoes can be overridden by a two-thirds vote of those present in each legislative house. If the governor neither vetoes nor signs a bill within five days of receiving it, it becomes law. If the legislature has adjourned, an unsigned bill dies after three days. A constitutional amendment must first be passed by a two-thirds vote in the Senate, followed by a majority in the House during the same legislative session. It must then receive majority votes in both houses before it can be submitted to the voters for approval. Amendments may only be submitted every four years.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and state residents.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republican Party, which originally drew strength from powerful abolitionist sentiment, gained control of Vermont state offices in 1856 and for more than 100 years dominated state politics. No Democrat was elected governor from 1853 until 1962.

In 1984, Democrat Madeleine M. Kunin was elected as Vermont's first woman governor and only the third Democratic governor in the state's history. Kunin served as governor for three terms, followed in 1990 by Republican Richard Snelling. When Snelling died in office in August 1991, Lieutenant Governor Howard Dean, a Democrat, became governor. Dean was elected to full two-year terms in November 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998, and 2000. (The state has no term limit for the office of governor.) Dean an-

Vermont Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	VERMONT WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	3	Dewey (R)	45,557	75,926
1952	3	*Eisenhower (R)	43,355	109,717
1956	3	*Eisenhower (R)	42,549	110,390
1960	3	Nixon (R)	69,186	98,131
1964	3	*Johnson (D)	108,127	54,942
1968	3	*Nixon (R)	70,255	85,142
1972	3	*Nixon (R)	68,174	117,149
1976	3	Ford (R)	77,798	100,387
1980	3	*Reagan (R)	81,891	94,598
1984	3	*Reagan (R)	95,730	135,865
1988	3	*Bush (R)	115,775	124,331
1992**	3	*Clinton (D)	133,592	88,122
1996**	3	*Clinton (D)	137,894	80,352
2000	3	Gore (D)	149,022	119,775
2004	3	Kerry (D)	184,067	121,180

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 65,991 votes in 1992 and 31,024 votes in 1996.

nounced in 2001 that he would not seek reelection in 2002, and in May 2002, became the first candidate to enter the race for the Democratic nomination for president in 2004. Republican James Douglas was elected governor of Vermont in 2002.

Vermont's delegation to the US House of Representatives consists of one Independent. In mid-2005, Democrats controlled the state Senate, with 21 seats out of 30. In the state House of Representatives, the Democrats held 83 seats; the Republicans had 60; and Independents had 7. Following the 2004 election, Vermont had one Independent US senator, James Jeffords, elected in 1988 as a Republican and reelected in 2000 (he switched party affiliation from the Republican Party to independent status in 2001), and one Democratic senator, Patrick Leahy, who was elected to his sixth term in 2004.

Vermont has often shown its independence in national political elections. In 1832, it was the only state to cast a plurality vote for the Anti-Masonic presidential candidate, William Wirt; in 1912, the only state besides Utah to vote for William Howard Taft; and in 1936, the only state besides Maine to prefer Alf Landon to Franklin D. Roosevelt. In 2000, Vermonters gave 51% of their presidential vote to Democratic candidate Al Gore; 41% to Republican George W. Bush; and 7% to Green Party candidate Ralph Nader. In 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 59% to Bush's 39%. In 2004, there were 419,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, there were 14 counties, 47 municipal governments, 288 public school districts, and 152 special districts. In 2002, there were 237 townships. County officers, operating out of shire towns (county seats), include the probate courts judge, assistant judges of the county court, county clerk, state's attorney, high bailiff, treasurer, and sheriff. All cities have mayor-council systems. Towns are governed by selectmen, who serve staggered terms. Larger towns also have town managers. The town meeting remains an important part of government in the state: citizens gather on the

first Tuesday in March each year to discuss municipal issues and elect local officials.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 25,068 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Vermont operates under executive order; the public safety director/secretary is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Vermont's Department of Education oversees public elementary, secondary, higher education, and adult education programs. The Agency of Transportation includes the Department of Motor Vehicles, Transportation Board, and Hazardous Materials Committee. The Agency of Human Services coordinates programs for nursing homes, veterans' affairs, social welfare, employment and training, health, corrections, and parole. The Department of Housing and Community Affairs and the Agency of Commerce and Community Development administer federal housing programs and offers aid to localities. Other departments specialize in the areas of: personnel, natural resources, aging, agriculture, labor and industry, libraries, and liquor control.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Vermont's highest court is the Supreme Court, which consists of a chief justice and four associate justices. Other courts include the superior, district, family, and environmental courts, with a total of 497 judges. All judges are appointed by the governor to six-year terms, subject to Senate confirmation, from a list of qualified candidates prepared by the Judicial Nominating Board, which includes representatives of the governor, the legislature, and the Vermont bar. There are also 318 associate judges and 50 permissive associate judges.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 1,968 prisoners were held in Vermont's state and federal prisons, an increase from 1,944 of 1.2% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 143 inmates were female, up from 135 or 5.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Vermont had an incarceration rate of 233 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Vermont in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 112 reported incidents per 100,000 population (the third-lowest in the United States), or a total of 696 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 14,343 reported incidents or 2,308.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Vermont has no death penalty. The state's last execution took place in 1954.

In 2003, Vermont spent \$60,914,924 on homeland security, an average of \$95 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 60 active-duty military personnel and 613 civilian personnel stationed in Vermont. Also in 2004, the government awarded almost \$452 million in defense contracts to Ver-

mont firms, and defense payroll outlays were \$140 million, the lowest in the nation.

In 2003, there were 57,802 veterans living in Vermont, of which 7,823 served in World War II; 6,808 in the Korean conflict; 18,371 during the Vietnam era; and 6,589 during the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$159 million in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

In 2004, the Vermont State Police employed 302 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The earliest Vermont settlers were farmers from southern New England and New York; most were of English descent although some Dutch settlers moved to Vermont from New York. French Canadians came beginning in the 1830s; by 1850, several thousand had moved into Vermont. As milling, quarrying, and mining grew during the 19th century, other Europeans arrived—small groups of Italians and Scots in Barre, and Poles, Swedes, Czechs, Russians, and Austrians in the Rutland quarry areas. Irish immigrants built the railroads in the mid-19th century. Steady out-migrations during the 19th and early 20th centuries kept population increases down, and in the decades 1910–20 and 1930–40, the population dropped. During the 1960s, the population of blacks more than doubled, though they still accounted for only 0.34% of the population in 1990. Between 1970 and 1983, 45,000 migrants settled in Vermont. From 1985 to 1990, Vermont had a net gain from migration of nearly 21,400. Falling from 33.8% in 1980, Vermont's urban population in 1990 was the lowest among the states at 32.2% and fell further to 27.7% in 1996. Between 1990 and 1998, the state had net gains of 5,000 in domestic migration and 4,000 in international migration. In 1998, Vermont admitted 513 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, Vermont's overall population increased 5%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 4,359 and net internal migration was 3,530, for a net gain of 7,889 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Vermont participates in New England compacts on corrections, higher education, water pollution control, police, and radiological health protection. The state also takes part in the Connecticut River Valley Flood Control Compact, Connecticut River Atlantic Salmon Compact, Interstate Pest Control Compact, and Northeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact. The state has several agreements with New Hampshire regarding schools, and sewage and waste disposal. Federal grants to Vermont amounted to \$1.019 billion in fiscal year 2005, fifth-lowest of all the states (Wyoming received the least amount of federal aid). In fiscal year 2006, Vermont received an estimated \$1.053 billion in federal grants, and an estimated \$1.080 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

During its early years of statehood, Vermont was overwhelmingly agricultural, with beef cattle, sheep, and dairying contributing greatly to the state's income. After World War II, agriculture was replaced by manufacturing and tourism as the backbone of the economy. Durable goods manufacturing (primarily electronics and machine parts), construction, wholesale and retail trade, and other service industries have shown the largest growth in employ-

ment during the 1990s. Vermont's economy was little impacted by the national recession in 2001, as the growth rate of its gross state product, which had accelerated from 5.1% in 1998 to 5.3% in 1999, to 5.6% in 2000, actually improved to 5.7% in 2001. The main negative effect was an unexpected shortfall in tax revenues that followed the abrupt collapse in capital gains income, presenting Vermont, as with most states, with a state budget crisis. Payroll employment did decline, but the trough was reached by April 2002, and despite layoffs by IBM in late 2002, the state economy registered net job gains in fall 2002. Per capita income grew in the first half of 2002, and Vermont's bankruptcy rate was the lowest in New England.

In 2004, Vermont's gross state product (GSP) was \$21.921 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$2.954 billion or 13.4% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$2.760 billion (12.5% of GSP), and healthcare and social assistance at \$2.025 billion (9.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 74,957 small businesses in Vermont. Of the 21,335 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 20,649 or 96.8% were small companies. An estimated 2,322 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 9.4% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 2,578, down 0.2% from 2003. There were 85 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 9% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 296 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Vermont as the 49th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Vermont had a gross state product (GSP) of \$23 billion which accounted for 0.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 51 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Vermont had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$31,780. This ranked 24th in the United States and was 96% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.6%. Vermont had a total personal income (TPI) of \$19,742,824,000, which ranked 49th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.8% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.3%. Earnings of persons employed in Vermont increased from \$13,759,886,000 in 2003 to \$14,628,555,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$45,692 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 8.8% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Vermont 360,300, with approximately 12,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 307,100. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate re-

corded in Vermont was 9% in June 1976. The historical low was 2.2% in March 2000. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.5% of the labor force was employed in construction; 11.9% in manufacturing; 19.5% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4.2% in financial activities; 7.2% in professional and business services; 17.9% in education and health services; 10.6% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.3% in government.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 31,000 of Vermont's 287,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 10.8% of those so employed, up from 9.8% in 2004, but still below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 37,000 workers (13%) in Vermont were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Vermont is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Vermont had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$7.25 per hour, which applied to employers with two or more employees. Beginning 1 January 2007, Vermont's state minimum wage rate was scheduled to be adjusted annually by either 5%, the percent increase of the Consumer Price Index, or the city average. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.9% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Although Vermont is one of the nation's most rural states, its agricultural income was only \$561 million in 2005, 41st among the 50 states. More than 85% of that came from livestock and livestock products, especially dairy products. The leading crops in 2004 were corn for silage, 1,755,000 tons; hay, 384,000 tons; and apples, 44.5 million lb.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The merino sheep and the Morgan horse (a breed developed in Vermont) were common sights on pastures more than a century ago, but today they have been for the most part replaced by dairy cattle. In 2003, Vermont dairy farms had around 149,000 milk cows that produced 2.64 billion lb (1.2 billion kg) of milk. In 2005, the state had an estimated 275,000 cattle and calves, valued at \$357.5 million.

25 FISHING

Sport fishermen can find ample species of trout, perch, walleye pike, bass, and pickerel in Vermont's waters, many of which are stocked by the Department of Fish and Game. There are two national fish hatcheries in the state (Pittsford and White River). In 2004, the state issued 121,701 sport fishing licenses. There is very little commercial fishing.

26 FORESTRY

The Green Mountain State is covered by 4,628,000 acres (1,873,000 hectares) of forestland—78% of the state's total land area—much of it owned or leased by lumber companies. In 2004, lumber production totaled 183 million board ft.

The largest forest reserve in Vermont is the Green Mountain National Forest, with 391,862 acres (158,587 hectares) in 2005, managed by the US Forest Service.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Vermont in 2003 was \$73 million, an increase from 2002 of over 3%.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, dimension stone was the state's top nonfuel minerals by value, accounting for around 40% of the state's publishable nonfuel mineral output, by value. Nationally by volume, Vermont ranked third in the production of talc and fourth in the production of dimension stone.

Preliminary data in 2003 showed that Vermont produced 98,000 metric tons of dimension stone, which was valued at \$29 million. In that same year, the state produced 4.6 million metric tons of crushed stone, valued at \$22.8 million, and 4.7 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel, valued at \$21.2 million. Granite is quarried near Barre, and slate is found in the Southwest. The West Rutland-Proctor area has the world's largest marble reserve, the Danby quarry.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Because of the state's lack of fossil fuel resources, utility bills are higher in Vermont than in most states. As of 2003, Vermont had 22 electrical power service providers, of which 15 were publicly owned and two were cooperatives. Of the remainder, four were investor owned, and one was the owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 317,126 retail customers. Of that total, 238,957 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 26,265 customers, while publicly owned providers had 51,903 customers. There was only one independent generator or "facility" customer.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 997 MW, with total production that same year at 6.027 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 10.4% came from electric utilities, with the remaining 89.6% coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 4.444 billion kWh (73.7%), came from nuclear power plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 1.154 billion kWh (19.1%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 6.7% of all power generated, with petroleum fired plants accounting for the remainder.

As of 2006, the Vermont Yankee nuclear power plant in Windham County was the state's sole operating nuclear power station.

Vermont has no proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. There are no refineries in the state.

29 INDUSTRY

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Vermont's manufacturing sector covered some 13 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$9.911 billion. Of that total, computer and electronic product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$3.943 billion. It was followed by food manufacturing at \$1.579 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$775.845 million; machinery manufacturing at

\$477.558 million; and wood product manufacturing at \$416.521 million.

In 2004, a total of 38,341 people in Vermont were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 24,379 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the computer and electronic product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 8,799, with 3,441 actual production workers. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at 4,407 employees (2,778 actual production workers); food manufacturing at 3,790 employees (2,462 actual production workers); machinery manufacturing at 3,097 employees (1,983 actual production workers); and furniture and related product manufacturing with 2,396 employees (1,896 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Vermont's manufacturing sector paid \$1.687 billion in wages. Of that amount, the computer and electronic product manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$513.080 million. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$228.640 million; machinery manufacturing at \$143.549 million; and food manufacturing at \$123.967 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Vermont's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$1.6 billion from 869 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 519 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 303 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 47 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$1.6 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$3.1 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$328.6 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Vermont was listed as having 3,946 retail establishments with sales of \$7.6 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (595); gasoline stations (479); miscellaneous store retailers (451); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (435); and clothing and clothing accessories stores (388). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$1.9 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$1.3 billion; gasoline stations at \$797.6 million; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$757.3 million. A total of 40,105 people were employed by the retail sector in Vermont that year.

Foreign exports of Vermont manufacturers were estimated at \$4.2 billion for 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Consumer Protection Division of the Attorney General's Office handles most consumer complaints, while the Vermont Public Service Department's Consumer Affairs Division monitors utility rates, and the Agency of Human Services' Department of Aging and Disabilities protects the rights of the state's senior citizens and adults with physical disabilities.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle

formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and initiate criminal proceedings. However, the office cannot represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Office of the Attorney General's Consumer Assistance Program has offices in Burlington and Montpelier.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Vermont had 19 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, plus 26 state-chartered and eight federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Burlington-South Burlington market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 10 institutions and \$3.511 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 17.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$1.660 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 82.7% or \$7.960 billion in assets held.

The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans was 1.08% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 1.46% in 2004 and 2.01% in 2003. Regulation of Vermont's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Banking Division of the Department of Banking, Insurance, Securities and Healthcare Administration.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 324,000 individual life insurance policies in force in Vermont with a total value of about \$24.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$38.5 billion. The average coverage amount is \$76,400 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$112.8 million.

In 2003, there were 16 property and casualty and 2 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2003, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$1 billion. That year, there were 2,969 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$379 million.

In 2004, 52% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 31% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 10% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 18% for single coverage and 21% for family coverage. The state offers a six-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 460,571 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Uninsured and underinsured motorist coverage are also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$683.07.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no stock or commodity exchanges in Vermont. In 2005, there were 250 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 360 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. The state is home to 14 NASDAQ companies, and has incorporated 4 NYSE-listed companies: Bluegreen Corp., Central Vermont Public Services Corp., Chittenden Corp., and Green Mountain Power Company.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

The budgets for two fiscal years are submitted by the governor to the General Assembly for approval during its biennial session. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July to 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$1.1 billion for resources and \$1.0 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Vermont were \$1.4 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Vermont was slated to receive: \$5.9 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$4.5 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Vermont fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is an 11% increase over fiscal year 2006.

On 5 January 2006 the federal government released \$100 million in emergency contingency funds targeted to the areas with the greatest need, including \$680,000 for Vermont.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Vermont collected \$2,243 million in tax revenues or \$3,600 per capita, which placed it first among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 33.2% of the total, sales taxes 13.9%, selective sales taxes 20.8%, individual income taxes 22.3%, corporate income taxes 3.1%, and other taxes 6.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, Vermont had five individual income tax brackets ranging from 3.6% to 9.5%. The state taxes corporations at rates ranging from 7.0 to 8.9% depending on tax bracket.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$950,456,000 or \$1,531 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state eighth-highest nationally. Local governments collected \$502,253,000 of the total and the state government \$448,203,000.

Vermont taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 7%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 119 cents per pack, which ranks 15th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Vermont taxes gasoline at 20 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Vermont citizens received \$1.12 in federal spending.

Vermont—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	4,302,590	6,928.49
General revenue	3,794,824	6,110.83
Intergovernmental revenue	1,314,916	2,117.42
Taxes	1,766,719	2,844.96
General sales	256,958	413.78
Selective sales	430,637	693.46
License taxes	98,758	159.03
Individual income tax	429,817	692.14
Corporate income tax	62,228	100.21
Other taxes	488,321	786.35
Current charges	365,920	589.24
Miscellaneous general revenue	347,269	559.21
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	35,279	56.81
Insurance trust revenue	472,487	760.85
Total expenditure	3,913,616	6,302.12
Intergovernmental expenditure	981,307	1,580.20
Direct expenditure	2,932,309	4,721.91
Current operation	2,313,956	3,726.18
Capital outlay	155,818	250.91
Insurance benefits and repayments	199,843	321.81
Assistance and subsidies	123,631	199.08
Interest on debt	139,061	223.93
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	623,120	1,003.41
Total expenditure	3,913,616	6,302.12
General expenditure	3,676,138	5,919.71
Intergovernmental expenditure	981,307	1,580.20
Direct expenditure	2,694,831	4,339.50
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,482,438	2,387.18
Public welfare	1,015,398	1,635.10
Hospitals	14,579	23.48
Health	92,467	148.90
Highways	253,779	408.66
Police protection	69,078	111.24
Correction	93,827	151.09
Natural resources	84,449	135.99
Parks and recreation	12,714	20.47
Government administration	135,824	218.72
Interest on general debt	139,061	223.93
Other and unallocable	282,524	454.95
Utility expenditure	2,753	4.43
Liquor store expenditure	34,882	56.17
Insurance trust expenditure	199,843	321.81
Debt at end of fiscal year	2,537,139	4,085.57
Cash and security holdings	5,237,854	8,434.55

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Incentives for industrial expansion include state and municipally financed industrial sites; state employment development and training funds; revenue bond financing; tax credits for investment in research and development and in capital equipment; loans and loan guarantees for construction and equipment; and financial incentives for locating plants in areas of high unemployment. There are also exemptions from inventory taxes and sales tax on new equipment and raw materials. Major economic development initiatives by the state include streamlining the environmental per-

mit process, funding for workforce development, an aggressive business recruitment campaign, infrastructural improvements, increased financial incentives for business, and a phase out of the corporate income tax. In the mid-2000s, Vermont posted one of the lowest unemployment rates in the country, and was engaged in creating a number of programs to help maintain and create new job opportunities for residents. One such program that has proven successful is the Vermont Department of Economic Development's Vermont Training Program (VEP), which encourages expansion among industrial companies by providing training through individually tailored programs: the state covers as much as 50% of the training costs.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.3 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 10.6 per 1,000 population, the lowest rate in the country. The abortion rate stood at 12.7 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 90.6% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 85% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.3 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 222.2; cancer, 198.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 54.3; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 44.8; and diabetes, 28.2. The mortality rate from HIV infection was unavailable that year. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 2.7 per 100,000 population, one of the lowest rates in the nation. In 2002, about 52.1% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.9% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Vermont had 14 community hospitals with about 1,500 beds. There were about 52,000 patient admissions that year and 2.2 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,148. Also in 2003, there were about 43 certified nursing facilities in the state with 3,582 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 92.7%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 74.3% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Vermont had 363 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 892 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 348 dentists in the state.

About 26% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 10% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$847,000.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 23,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$256. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 45,218 persons (22,355 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$82.93 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$44.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reautho-

alized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Vermont's TANF cash assistance program is called Aid to Needy Families with Children (ANFC); the work program is called Reach Up. In 2004, the state program had 12,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$42 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 110,180 Vermont residents. This number included 70,220 retired workers, 10,040 widows and widowers, 15,210 disabled workers, 5,710 spouses, and 9,000 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.7% of the total state population and 95.9% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$945; widows and widowers, \$897; disabled workers, \$848; and spouses, \$452. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$455 per month; children of deceased workers, \$640; and children of disabled workers, \$243. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 12,915 Vermont residents, averaging \$387 a month.

40 HOUSING

As rustic farmhouses gradually disappear, modern units (many of them vacation homes for Vermonters and out-of-staters) are being built to replace them. In 2004, there were an estimated 304,291 housing units in Vermont (one of the lowest housing stocks in the country), 249,590 of which were occupied; 73.3% were owner-occupied. About 66.3% of all units were single-family, detached homes. About 30% of all housing was built in 1939 or earlier. Fuel oil was the most common energy source for heating. It was estimated that 6,112 units lacked telephone service, 1,634 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 1,495 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.41 members.

In 2004, 3,600 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$154,318. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,174. Renters paid a median of \$674 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$7.4 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD)

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 90.8% of Vermont residents age 25 and older were high school graduates. Some 34.2% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, surpassing the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Vermont's public schools stood at 100,000. Of these, 68,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 32,000 attended high school. Approximately 95.9% of the students were white, 1.2% were black, 0.8% were Hispanic, 1.5% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.6% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 98,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 85,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 15.2% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1.19 billion or \$11,128 per student, the fourth-highest among the 50 states. There were 12,218 students enrolled in 123 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in

Vermont scored 287 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 36,537 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 6.2% of total post-secondary enrollment. In 2005 Vermont had 27 degree-granting institutions. The state college system includes colleges at Castleton, Johnson, and Lyndonville, a technical college at Randolph Center, and the Community College of Vermont system with 12 branch campuses. The University of Vermont (Burlington) is a state-supported institution combining features of both a private and a state facility. Founded in 1791, it is the oldest higher educational institution in the state.

Notable private institutions include Bennington College, Champlain College (Burlington), Landmark College (Putney) serving students with ADHD and learning disabilities, Marlboro College (Marlboro), and Norwich University (Northfield), the oldest private military college in the United States. The School for International Training (Brattleboro) is the academic branch of the Experiment in International Living, a student exchange program. Other notable institutions include St. Michael's College (Winooski) and Trinity College (Burlington).

The Vermont Student Assistance Corporation offers scholarships, incentive grants, and guaranteed loans for eligible Vermont students.

42 ARTS

The Vermont Arts Council was founded in 1964. In 2005, the Arts Council and other Vermont arts organizations received 15 grants totaling \$873,800 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Vermont Humanities Council (VHC), founded in 1974, supports a number of literacy and history-related programs, as well as sponsors annual Humanities Camps at schools throughout the state. As of 2005 VHC offered literacy programs that included "Connections," a program geared towards teen parents and new adult readers and "Never Too Early," a program designed to teach childcare providers and parents techniques to stimulate reading. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,180,125 for 15 state programs.

The Vermont State Crafts Centers at Frog Hollow (Middlebury), Burlington, and Manchester display the works of Vermont artisans. The Vermont Symphony Orchestra, in Burlington, makes extensive statewide tours including visits to several schools to promote music education. During the 2004/05 season the orchestra reached approximately 27,000 students within 193 schools. Marlboro College is the home of the summer Marlboro Music Festival, co-founded by famed pianist Rudolf Serkin, who directed the festival from 1952 to 1992. Among the summer theaters in the state are those at Dorset and Weston and the University of Vermont Shakespeare Festival. The Middlebury College Bread Loaf Writers' Conference, founded in 1926, meets each August in Ripton. The conference expected to host over 200 writers in 2006.

The Flynn Center for the Performing Arts in Burlington serves as a major performance center for the area. It is home to the Lyric Theater Company, the Vermont Symphony Orchestra, the Vermont Stage Company, and the Burlington Discover Jazz Festival. In 2005, the Flynn Center celebrated 75 years of history and 25 years of performance. Other musical performance and education venues include the Vermont Jazz Center in Brattleboro and the

Vergennes Opera House, which presents concerts, films, dance, and theater presentations, and various literary readings, as well as operas.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In June 2001, Vermont had 188 public library systems, with a total of 190 libraries, of which there were three branches. For that same year, the state's public libraries held 2,731,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and had a combined circulation of 3,842,000. The system also had 78,000 audio and 655,000 video items, 3,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and eight bookmobiles. The largest academic library was at the University of Vermont, with a book stock of 1,112,121, and 4,808 periodical subscriptions. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$13,408,000 and included \$9,323,000 from local sources and \$40,000 from state sources. Operating expenditures that year came to \$13,921,000 of which 64.8% was spent on staff, and 13.9% on the collection.

Vermont has 89 museums and more than 65 historic sites. Among them are the Bennington Museum, with its collection of Early American glass, pottery, furniture, and Grandma Moses paintings, and the Art Gallery—St. Johnsbury Athenaeum, featuring 19th-century American artists. The Shelburne Museum, housed in restored Early American buildings, contains collections of American primitives and Indian artifacts. The Vermont Museum, in Montpelier, features historical exhibits concerning Indians, the Revolutionary War, rural life, and railroads and industry. Old Constitution House in Windsor offers exhibits on Vermont history.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, about 95.9% of all occupied homes had telephones. In 2003, 65.5% of Vermont households had a computer and 58.1% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 82,259 high-speed lines in Vermont, 76,895 residential and 5,364 for business. There were 5 major AM and 19 major FM radio stations and seven television stations in operation in 2005.

45 PRESS

In 2005, there were eight daily papers and three Sunday papers. A leading daily in 2005 was the *Burlington Free Press* (48,524 mornings, 56,850 Sundays). *Vermont Life* magazine founded in 1946 is published quarterly. The paid circulation in 2005 was 57,244. *Vermont Life* is considered one of America's leading regional magazines, winning over 95 national and international magazine awards since 1990.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 1,590 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,179 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Associations headquartered in Vermont largely reflect the state's agricultural interests. Among these are the National Association for Gardening, the American Chestnut Foundation, the Holstein Association USA, the Composting Association of Vermont, and the Vermont Maple Industry Council, and the International Maple Syrup Institute. Professional associations are available for many fields. The Vermont Arts Council is located in Montpelier.

There are several local arts organizations and historical societies as well. The Bread Loaf Writers Conference, based at Middlebury College, sponsors educational programs that attract writers from across the country.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

With the building of the first ski slopes in the 1930s (Woodstock claims the first ski area in the United States) and the development of modern highways, tourism became a major industry in Vermont. In 2001, direct spending from 13.9 million visitors totaled \$2.84 billion, or 13% of the entire Vermont economy. Over 30% of all trips were day trips. The tourism and travel industry supports 63,279 jobs (21% of all jobs in the state).

Summer and fall are the most popular seasons for visitors. Fall foliage trips account for 28% of all travel. In the winter, the state's ski areas offer some of the finest skiing in the East. About 11,000 Vermonters work at a Vermont ski area. There are 52 state parks and over 100 campgrounds in the state. Historical sites, including several Revolutionary War battlefields, are popular attractions and shopping, particularly for Vermont-made products such as maple syrup, is a major activity for all visitors. Vermont has tours of the maple syrup industry. Bennington is the site of the Bennington Battle Monument and President Calvin Coolidge's homestead in Plymouth. Vermont hosts an annual Mozart Festival from mid-July to mid-August.

48 SPORTS

Vermont has no major professional sports teams. A single-A minor league baseball team, the Vermont Lake Monsters, plays in Burlington. Skiing is, perhaps, the most popular participation sport, and Vermont ski areas have hosted national and international ski competitions in both Alpine and Nordic events. World Cup races have been run at Stratton Mountain, and the national cross-country championships have been held near Putney. Famous skiers Billy Kidd and Andrea Mead Lawrence, both Olympic medalists, grew up in Vermont and trained in the state.

49 FAMOUS VERMONTERS

Two US presidents, both of whom assumed office upon the death of their predecessors, were born in Vermont. Chester Alan Arthur (1829–86) became the 21st president after James A. Garfield's assassination in 1881 and finished his term. A machine politician, Arthur became a civil-service reformer in the White House. Calvin Coolidge (1872–1933), 28th president, was born in Plymouth Notch but pursued a political career in Massachusetts. Elected vice president in 1920, he became president on the death of Warren G. Harding in 1923 and was elected to a full term in 1924.

Other federal officeholders have included Matthew Lyon (1750–1822), a US representative imprisoned under the Sedition Act and reelected from a Vergennes jail; Jacob Collamer (1791–1865), who, after serving three terms in the US House, was US postmaster general and then a US senator; Justin Smith Morrill (1810–98), US representative and senator who sponsored the Morrill tariff in 1861 and the Land Grant College Act in 1862; Levi Parsons Morton (1824–1920), Benjamin Harrison's vice president from 1889 to 1893; George Franklin Edmunds (1828–1919), a US senator who helped draft the Sherman Antitrust Act; Redfield Proctor (1831–1908), secretary of war, US senator, state governor, and the found-

er of a marble company; John Garibaldi Sargent (1860–1939), Coolidge's attorney general; Warren Robinson Austin (1877–1963), US senator and head of the US delegation to the UN; and George David Aiken (1892–1984), US senator from 1941 to 1977.

Important state leaders were Thomas Chittenden (1730–97), leader of the Vermont republic and the state's first governor; Ethan Allen (1738–89), a frontier folk hero, leader of the Green Mountain Boys, and presenter of Vermont's claim to independence to the US Congress in 1778; Ira Allen (1751–1814), the brother of Ethan, who led the fight for statehood; Cornelius Peter Van Ness (b. New York, 1782–1852), who served first as Vermont chief justice and then as governor; and Erastus Fairbanks (1792–1864), a governor and railroad promoter.

Vermont's many businessmen and inventors include Thaddeus Fairbanks (1796–1886), inventor of the platform scale; Thomas Davenport (1802–51), inventor of the electric motor; plow and tractor manufacturer John Deere (1804–86); Elisha G. Otis (1811–61), inventor of a steam elevator and elevator safety devices; and Horace Wells (1815–48), inventor of laughing gas. Educator John Dewey (1859–1952) was born in Burlington. Donald James Cram (1919–2001), a professor of chemistry at the University of California at Los Angeles, was awarded a Nobel Prize in chemistry in 1987.

Robert Frost (b. California, 1874–1963) maintained a summer home near Ripton, where he helped found Middlebury College's Bread Loaf Writers' Conference. He was named poet laureate of Vermont in 1961. In 1992, Louise Gluck became the first Vermont woman to win a Pulitzer Prize for poetry. A famous Vermont per-

former is crooner and orchestra leader Rudy Vallee (Hubert Prior Rudy Vallee, 1901–1986).

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VIRGINIA

Commonwealth of Virginia

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for Queen Elizabeth I of England, the “Virgin Queen.” **NICKNAME:** The Old Dominion. **CAPITAL:** Richmond. **ENTERED UNION:** 25 June 1788 (10th). **SONG:** “Carry Me Back to Old Virginia” was formally retired from use in 1997 but has not yet been replaced. **MOTTO:** *Sic semper tyrannis* (Thus ever to tyrants). **FLAG:** On a blue field, the state seal is centered on a white circle. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** **OBVERSE:** the Roman goddess Virtus, dressed as an Amazon and holding a sheathed sword in one hand and a spear in the other, stands over the body of Tyranny, who is pictured with a broken chain in his hand and a fallen crown nearby. The state motto appears below, the word “Virginia” above, and a border of Virginia creeper encircles the whole. **REVERSE:** the Roman goddesses of Liberty, Eternity, and Fruitfulness, with the word “Perseverando” (by persevering) above. **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FLOWER:** Dogwood. **TREE:** Dogwood. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Lee-Jackson Day, 13 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington’s Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the day following; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated on the eastern seaboard of the United States, Virginia is the fourth-largest of the South Atlantic states and ranks 36th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Virginia is 40,767 sq mi (105,586 sq km), of which land occupies 39,704 sq mi (102,833 sq km) and inland water 1,063 sq mi (2,753 sq km). Virginia extends approximately 440 mi (710 km) E–W, but the maximum point-to-point distance from the state’s noncontiguous Eastern Shore to the western extremity is 470 mi (756 km). The maximum N–S extension is about 200 mi (320 km).

Virginia is bordered on the NW by West Virginia; on the NE by Maryland and the District of Columbia (with the line passing through the Potomac River and Chesapeake Bay); on the E by the Atlantic Ocean; on the S by North Carolina and Tennessee; and on the W by Kentucky. The state’s geographic center is in Buckingham County, 5 mi (8 km) SW of the town of Buckingham.

Virginia’s offshore islands in the Atlantic include Chincoteague, Wallops, Cedar, Parramore, Hog, Cobb, and Smith. The boundaries of Virginia, including the Eastern Shore at the tip of the Delmarva Peninsula, total 1,356 mi (2,182 km), of which 112 mi (180 km) is general coastline; the tidal shoreline extends 3,315 mi (5,335 km).

²TOPOGRAPHY

Virginia consists of three principal physiographic areas: the Atlantic Coastal Plain, or Tidewater; the Piedmont Plateau, in the central section; and the Blue Ridge and Allegheny Mountains of the Appalachian chain, in the west and northwest.

The long, narrow Blue Ridge rises sharply from the piedmont, reaching a maximum elevation of 5,729 ft (1,747 m) at Mt. Rogers, the state’s highest point. Between the Blue Ridge and the Allegheny Mountains of the Appalachian chain in the northwest lies the

Valley of Virginia, consisting of transverse ridges and six separate valleys. The floors of these valleys ascend in altitude from about 300 ft (90 m) in the northern Shenandoah Valley to 2,400 ft (730 m) in the Powell Valley. The Alleghenies average 3,000 ft (900 m) in height. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 950 ft (290 m).

The Piedmont, shaped roughly like a triangle, varies in width from 40 mi (64 km) in the far north to 180 mi (290 km) in the extreme south. Altitudes in this region range from about 300 ft (90 m) at the fall line in the east to a maximum of about 1,000 ft (300 m) at the base of the Blue Ridge in the southwest. The Tidewater, which declines gently from the fall line to sea level (the lowest point of the state), is divided by four long peninsulas cut by the state’s four principal rivers—the Potomac, Rappahannock, York, and James—and the Chesapeake Bay. On the opposite side of the bay is Virginia’s low-lying Eastern Shore, the southern tip of the Delmarva Peninsula. The Tidewater has many excellent harbors, notably the deep Hampton Roads estuary. Also in the southeast lies the Dismal Swamp, a drainage basin that includes Lake Drummond, about 7 mi (11 km) long and 5 mi (8 km) wide near the North Carolina border. Other major lakes in Virginia are Smith Mountain—at 31 sq mi (80 sq km) the largest lake wholly within the state—Claytor, and South Holston. The John H. Kerr Reservoir, covering 76 sq mi (197 sq km), straddles the Virginia–North Carolina line.

³CLIMATE

A mild, humid coastal climate is characteristic of Virginia. Temperatures, most equable in the Tidewater, become increasingly cooler with the rising altitudes as one moves westward. The normal daily average temperature at Richmond is about 58°F (14°C), ranging from 38°F (3°C) in January to 78°F (25°C) in July. The record high, 110°F (43°C), was registered at Balcony Falls (near

Glasgow) on 15 July 1954; the record low, -30°F (-34°C), was set at Mountain Lake on 22 January 1985. The frost-free growing season ranges from about 140 days in the mountains of the extreme west to over 250 in the Norfolk area.

Annual precipitation at Richmond averages about 42.7 in (108 cm); at Norfolk, annual precipitation averages 44.8.7 in (113 cm) per year. The average annual snowfall amounts to nearly 13.9 in (35 cm) at Richmond but only 7.4 in (18 cm) at Norfolk.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Native to Virginia are 12 varieties of oak, 5 of pine, and 2 each of walnut, locust, gum, and poplar. Pines predominate in the coastal areas, with numerous hardwoods on slopes and ridges inland; isolated stands of persimmon, ash, cedar, and basswood can also be found. Characteristic wild flowers include trailing arbutus, mountain laurel, and diverse azaleas and rhododendrons. In 2006, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 14 plant species as threatened or endangered in Virginia, including the Virginia round-leaf birch, Virginia sneezeweed, Northeastern bulrush, and small whorled pogonia.

Among indigenous mammalian species are white-tailed (Virginia) deer, elk, black bear, bobcat, woodchuck, raccoon, opossum, nutria, red and gray foxes, and spotted and striped skunks, along with several species each of moles, shrews, bats, squirrels, deermice, rats, and rabbits; the beaver, mink, and river otter, once thought to be endangered, have returned in recent decades. Principal game birds include the ruffed grouse (commonly called pheasant in Virginia), wild turkey, bobwhite quail, mourning dove, woodcock, and Wilson's snipe. Tidal waters abound with croaker, hogfish, gray and spotted trout, and flounder; bass, bream, bluegill, sunfish, perch, carp, catfish, and crappie live in freshwater ponds and streams. Native reptiles include such poisonous snakes as the northern copperhead, eastern cottonmouth, and timber rattler.

In April 2006, 47 animal species were listed as threatened or endangered in Virginia, including the puma; Indiana, gray, and Virginia big-eared bats; bald eagle; red-cockaded woodpecker; Virginia fringed mountain snail; Lee County cave isopod; four species of pearly mussel; three species of pigtoe; tan riffleshell; and three species of whale. At least one-fourth of the rare or endangered species in the state are found in the Dismal Swamp.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Virginia Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ), established in 1993, is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of Natural Resources. The mission of the DEQ is to protect the environment of Virginia in order to promote the health and well-being of the citizens of the Commonwealth. The DEQ administers state and federal environmental programs; issues environmental permits and ensures compliance with regulations; and coordinates planning among Virginia's environmental programs. The DEQ provides staff support to assist the State Water Control Board in administering the federal Clean Water Act and enforcing state laws to improve the quality of surface water and groundwater for aquatic life and human health; the State Air Pollution Control Board in administering the federal Clean Air Act and enforcing state laws and regulations to improve air quality; and the Waste Management Board in administering waste management programs creat-

ed by legislation such as the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act and the Virginia Waste Management Act.

In 2002, Virginia waste treatment facilities received about 12% less total solid waste (municipal solid waste, construction and demolition debris, sludge and other types of waste), or about 824,000 tons less than they received in 2001.

The Commission of Game and Inland Fisheries manages land wildlife and freshwater fish resources, while the Marine Resources Commission manages the wetlands, commercial fishery resources, and the use of the marine environment in the Tidewater area. About 1 million acres (404,685 hectares) of wetlands are found in the state. These areas are generally regulated by the Virginia Water Protection Permit. The Chesapeake Bay Estuarine Complex, the largest estuary and most important wetland in the United States, was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1987.

Virginia has implemented programs to improve air quality in the Northern Virginia, Richmond, and Hampton Roads regions; to enhance water quality monitoring for streams and lakes statewide; to continue restoration efforts for the Chesapeake Bay; and to promote voluntary cleanups of contaminated industrial sites.

In 2003, Virginia had 250 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 29 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Langley Air Force Base and NASA Langley Research Center, The Marine Corps Combat Development Command in Quantico, the Naval Surface Warfare Center, Norfolk Naval Shipyards. Also in 2003, 74.2 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$3.4 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$22 million for the wastewater revolving loan fund and \$11.4 million for the drinking water revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Virginia ranked 12th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 7,567,465 in 2005, an increase of 6.9% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Virginia's population grew from 6,187,358 to 7,078,515, an increase of 14.4%. The population is projected to reach 8.4 million by 2015 and 9.3 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 188.5 persons per sq mi. In 2004 the median age was 36.9. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 24.2% of the population while 11.4% was age 65 or older.

From the outset, Virginia was the most populous of the English colonies, with a population that doubled every 25 years and totaled more than 100,000 by 1727. By 1790, the time of the first US census, Virginia's population of 821,287 was about 21% of the US total and almost twice that of second-ranked Pennsylvania. Although surpassed by New York State at the 1820 census, Virginia continued to enjoy slow but steady growth until the Civil War. During the 1860s, the loss of its western counties (which became the new state of West Virginia) and wartime devastation caused a decline of 23%. The population passed the 2 million mark in 1910, and the number of Virginians doubled between 1920 and 1970. The population growth rates for the five decades following 1940 were 23.9%, 19.5%, 17.2%, 15%, and 15.7%, in each case above the US average.

Virginia—Counties, County Seats, and County Areas and Populations

COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)	COUNTY	COUNTY SEAT	LAND AREA (SQ MI)	POPULATION (2005 EST.)
Accomack	Accomac	476	39,424	King William	King William	278	14,732
Albemarle	Charlottesville	725	90,717	Lancaster	Lancaster	133	11,593
Alleghany	Covington	446	16,715	Lee	Jonesville	437	23,686
Amelia	Amelia	357	12,273	Loudoun	Leesburg	521	255,518
Amherst	Amherst	478	32,134	Louisa	Louisa	497	30,020
Appomattox	Appomattox	336	13,967	Lunenburg	Lunenburg	432	13,194
Arlington	Arlington	26	195,965	Madison	Madison	322	13,398
Augusta	Staunton	989	69,725	Mathews	Mathews	87	9,194
Bath	Warm Springs	537	4,937	Mecklenburg	Boydton	616	32,529
Bedford	Bedford	747	65,286	Middlesex	Saluda	134	10,493
Bland	Bland	359	6,943	Montgomery	Christiansburg	390	84,303
Botetourt	Fincastle	545	32,027	Nelson	Lovingston	475	15,101
Brunswick	Lawrenceville	563	17,920	New Kent	New Kent	213	16,107
Buchanan	Grundy	504	24,755	Northampton	Eastville	226	13,548
Buckingham	Buckingham	583	16,058	Northumberland	Heathsville	185	12,874
Campbell	Rustburg	505	52,339	Nottoway	Nottoway	317	15,560
Caroline	Bowling Green	536	25,563	Orange	Orange	342	30,246
Carroll	Hillsville	478	29,438	Page	Luray	313	23,831
Charles City	Charles City	181	7,119	Patrick	Stuart	481	19,209
Charlotte	Charlotte	476	12,404	Pittsylvania	Chatham	995	61,854
Chesterfield	Chesterfield	434	288,876	Powhatan	Powhatan	261	26,598
Clarke	Berryville	178	14,205	Prince Edward	Farmville	354	20,455
Craig	New Castle	330	5,154	Prince George	Prince George	266	36,725
Culpeper	Culpeper	382	42,530	Prince William	Manassas	3,392	348,588
Cumberland	Cumberland	300	9,378	Pulaski	Pulaski	318	35,081
Dickenson	Clintwood	331	16,243	Rappahannock	Washington	267	7,271
Dinwiddie	Dinwiddie	507	25,391	Richmond	Warsaw	193	9,114
Essex	Tappahannock	263	10,492	Roanoke	Salem	251	88,172
Fairfax	Fairfax	393	1,006,529	Rockbridge	Lexington	603	21,242
Fauquier	Warrenton	651	64,997	Rockingham	Harrisonburg	865	71,251
Floyd	Floyd	381	14,649	Russell	Lebanon	479	28,949
Fluvanna	Palmyra	290	24,751	Scott	Gate City	536	22,962
Franklin	Rock Mount	683	50,345	Shenandoah	Woodstock	512	39,184
Frederick	Winchester	415	69,123	Smyth	Marion	452	32,640
Giles	Pearisburg	362	17,098	Southampton	Courtland	603	17,585
Gloucester	Gloucester	225	37,787	Spotsylvania	Spotsylvania	404	116,549
Goochland	Goochland	281	19,360	Stafford	Stafford	271	117,874
Grayson	Independence	446	16,366	Surry	Surry	281	7,013
Greene	Standardsville	157	17,418	Sussex	Sussex	496	12,071
Greensville	Emporia	300	11,088	Tazewell	Tazewell	522	44,795
Halifax	Halifax	816	36,284	Warren	Front Royal	219	35,556
Hanover	Hanover	468	97,426	Washington	Abingdon	578	52,085
Henrico	Richmond	238	280,581	Westmoreland	Montross	250	17,227
Henry	Martinsville	283	56,501	Wise	Wise	405	41,997
Highland	Monterey	416	2,475	Wythe	Wytheville	460	28,421
Isle of Wight	Isle of Wight	319	33,417	York	Yorktown	122	61,758
James City	Williamsburg	153	57,525	Independent Cities		1,605	2,400,181
King and Queen	King and Queen	317	6,796	TOTALS		42,705	7,567,465
King George	King George	180	20,637				

In the 1990s, approximately three-fourths of all Virginians lived in metropolitan areas, the largest of which in 2004 was the Norfolk–Virginia Beach–Newport News area, with an estimated 1,644,250 people; the Richmond metropolitan area had 1,154,317 people. Virginia's most populous cities proper with their estimated 2004 populations are Virginia Beach, 440,098; Norfolk, 237,835; Chesapeake, 214,725; Richmond, 192,494; Arlington, 186,117; Newport News, 181,913; Hampton, 145,951; and Alexandria, 128,206.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

When the first federal census was taken in 1790, more than 306,000 blacks—of whom only 12,000 were free—made up more than one-third of Virginia's total population. After emancipation,

blacks continued to be heavily represented, accounting in 1870 for 512,841 (42%) of the 1,225,163 Virginians. Blacks numbered 1,390,293 in 2000, and their proportion of the total estimated population was 19.6%. That percentage had increased slightly, to 19.9%, by 2004.

In 2000, Virginia had 329,540 Hispanic and Latino residents, chiefly Mexicans and Salvadorans. In 2004, 5.7% of the population was Hispanic or Latino. The 2000 census counted some 261,025 Asians, including 47,609 Filipinos, 45,279 Koreans, 36,966 Chinese, 37,309 Vietnamese, 48,815 Asian Indians, and 9,080 Japanese. In 2000, Pacific Islanders numbered 3,946. In 2004, 4.4% of the population was Asian and 0.1% Pacific Islander. Equal to the national average, 1.5% reported origin of more than one race. An estimated 570,279 Virginians—8.1% of all state residents—were of

foreign birth in 2000, compared with 177,000 in 1980. The Native American population, including Eskimos and Aleuts, numbered 21,172 in 2000. In 2004, 0.3% of the population was American Indian or Alaskan Native.

8 LANGUAGES

English settlers encountered members of the Powhatan Indian confederacy, speakers of an Algonkian language, whose legacy includes such place-names as Roanoke and Rappahannock.

Although the expanding suburban area south of the District of Columbia has become dialectically heterogeneous, the rest of the state has retained its essentially Southern speech features. Many dialect markers occur statewide, but subregional contrasts distinguish the South Midland of the Appalachians from the Southern of the piedmont and Tidewater. General are *batter bread* (a soft corn cake), *batter cake* (pancake), *comfort* (tied and filled bed cover), and *polecats* (skunk). Widespread pronunciation features include *greasy* with a /z/ sound; *yeast* and *east* as sound-alikes, *creek* rhyming with *peek*, and *can't* with *paint*; *coop* and *bulge* with the vowel of *book*; and *forest* with an /ah/ sound.

The Tidewater is set off by *creek* meaning a saltwater inlet, *fish-ing worm* for earthworm, and *fog* as /fahg/. Appalachian South Midland has *redworm* for earthworm, *fog* as /fawg/, *wash* as /wawsh/, *Mary* and *merry* as sound-alikes, and *poor* with the vowel of *book*. The Richmond area is noted also for having two variants of the long /i/ and /ow/ diphthongs as they occur before voiceless and voiced consonants, so that the vowel in the noun *house* is quite different from the vowel in the verb *house*, and the vowel in *advice* differs from that in *advise*. The Tidewater exhibits similar features.

In 2000, Virginia residents five years of age and over who spoke only English at home numbered 5,884,075, or 88.9% of the total population, down from 92.7% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category "Other Indic languages" includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The category "Other Asian languages" includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	6,619,266	100.0
Speak only English	5,884,075	88.9
Speak a language other than English	735,191	11.1
Speak a language other than English	735,191	11.1
Spanish or Spanish Creole	316,274	4.8
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	40,117	0.6
Korean	39,636	0.6
Tagalog	33,598	0.5
German	32,736	0.5
Vietnamese	31,918	0.5
Chinese	29,837	0.5
Arabic	25,984	0.4
African languages	21,164	0.3
Persian	19,199	0.3
Urdu	15,250	0.2
Other Indic languages	13,767	0.2
Other Asian languages	12,115	0.2
Hindi	11,947	0.2
Italian	10,099	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

The Anglican Church (later the Episcopal Church), whose members founded and populated Virginia Colony in the early days, was the established church during the colonial period. The first dissenters to arrive were Scotch-Irish Presbyterians in the late 17th century; they were followed by large numbers of German Lutherans, Welsh Baptists, and English Quakers, who settled in the Valley of Virginia in the early 18th century. The General Assembly's adoption in 1785 of the Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom, drafted by Thomas Jefferson, disestablished the Episcopal Church and made religious toleration the norm in Virginia. Although the Episcopal and Presbyterian churches retained the allegiance of the landed gentry during the 19th century, the Methodists and Baptists became the largest church groups in the state.

Protestant denominations combined had the greatest number of known adherents in 2000. That year, the leading group was the Southern Baptist Convention, with 774,673 adherents. The United Methodist Church is considered to be the second-largest denomination in the state, with 343,580 members reported in 2003. Other major denominations in 2000 included the Presbyterian Church USA, 135,435 members, and the Episcopal Church, 126,874. In 2004, there were about 603,190 Roman Catholics in the state. The Jewish population in 2000 was estimated at 76,140 and there were an estimated 51,021 Muslims. Over 4.1 million people (about 58.4% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

Headquarters for the Baptist World Alliance are located in Falls Church.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Virginia has one of the nation's most extensive highway systems, one of the leading ports—Hampton Roads—and two of the nation's busiest air terminals.

Virginia was a leader in early railroad development. Rail lines were completed between Richmond and Fredericksburg in 1836, from Portsmouth to Roanoke in 1837, and from Richmond to Washington, DC, in 1872. Virginia's 1,290 mi (2,076 km) of track formed a strategic supply link for both the Confederate and Union armies during the Civil War. Railroads remained the primary system of transportation until the rise of the automobile in the 1920s. As of 2003, there were nine railroads operating in the state, with a combined track mileage of 3,428 mi (5,519 km). Of these, two were Class I railways with a combined trackage of 3,184 rail mi (5,126 km). The two Class I railroads were CSX, and Norfolk Southern. As of 2006, Amtrak passenger trains served 18 communities in Virginia providing north-south and east-west services.

Virginia's road network, at first built mainly for hauling tobacco to market, had expanded across the Blue Ridge by 1782, to the Cumberland Gap by 1795, and into the Shenandoah Valley by means of the Valley Turnpike in 1840. As of 2004, Virginia had 71,534 mi (115,169 km) of public roads, some 6.486 million registered vehicles, and 5,112,523 licensed drivers. Major interstate highways are I-95 extending north-south from Washington, DC, via Richmond to the North Carolina border (and, eventually, to Florida); I-81, connecting northern Virginia with the southwest; and I-64, linking the Hampton Roads area with West Virginia via Clifton Forge and Covington in the west. The 18-mi (29-km)

Chesapeake Bay Bridge-Tunnel, completed in 1964, connects the Eastern Shore with the southeastern mainland. Popular scenic highways include the Blue Ridge Parkway, Colonial National Historical Parkway, and George Washington Memorial Parkway.

Virginia's District of Columbia suburbs are linked to the nation's capital by the Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Authority's bus and rail systems. Norfolk, Newport News-Hampton, and Richmond have extensive bus systems.

Virginia's Hampton Roads has one of the largest and strongest commercial port complexes in the world. Three state-owned general cargo marine terminals: Newport News Marine Terminal; Norfolk International Terminals; and Portsmouth Marine Terminal, share the harbor with more than 20 privately owned bulk terminals. The Hampton Roads harbor has the greatest volume of total tonnage on the US east coast and leads the world in coal exports. In 2004, the Port of Hampton Roads handled 48.446 million tons of cargo, making it the 15th-busiest port in the United States. Located on a naturally deep, ice-free harbor, 18 mi (29 km) from the open sea, Virginia's ports have the largest landside intermodal facilities on the US east coast. Each general cargo terminal in the port has on-site rail connections that offer single and double-stack train service from the docks. Virginia's mid-Atlantic location and transportation infrastructure offer users of the port access to two-thirds of the US population within 24 hours. In addition to the marine terminals, the Virginia Inland Port (VIP) terminal, just west of Washington, DC, in Front Royal, Virginia, offers daily rail service to the marine terminals in Hampton Roads and allows direct access to the international trade routes of the 75 international shipping lines calling at the ports. In addition to the movement of international export and import cargo, the VIP is a full-service domestic rail ramp for Norfolk Southern's domestic service. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 50.033 million tons. As of 2004, Virginia had 674 mi (1,085 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, Virginia had a total of 429 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 291 airports, 130 heliports, 3 STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 4 seaplane bases. Dulles International Airport located in the Washington, DC, suburb of Chantilly is the state's main airport, with 10,961,614 passengers enplaned in 2004, followed by Ronald Reagan Washington National in Arlington with 7,661,532 enplanements in that same year, making these two airports the 21st- and 30th-busiest airports in the United States, respectively. Other major airports in the state were Norfolk International, with 1,895,472 enplanements and Richmond International with 1,251,406 enplanements in 2004.

11 HISTORY

Distinctively fluted stone points found at Flint Run in Front Royal and at the Williamson Site in Dinwiddie County testify to the presence in what is now the Commonwealth of Virginia of nomadic Paleo-Indians after 8000 BC. Climatic changes and the arrival of other Indian groups about 3500 BC produced the Archaic Culture, which lasted until about AD 500. These Indians apparently were great eaters of oysters, and shell accumulations along riverbanks mark their settlement sites. The Woodland Period (AD 500–1600) marked the Indians' development of the bow and arrow and sophisticated pottery. At the time of English contact, early in

the 17th century, Tidewater Virginia was occupied principally by Algonkian-speakers, planters as well as hunters and fishers, who lived in pole-framed dwellings forming small, palisaded towns. The piedmont area was the home of the Manahoac, Monacan, and Tutelo, all of Siouan stock. Cherokee lived in Virginia's far southwestern triangle.

The first permanent English settlement in America was established at Jamestown on 13 May 1607 in the new land named Virginia in honor of Elizabeth I, the "Virgin Queen." The successful settlement was sponsored by the London Company (also known as the Virginia Company), a joint-stock venture chartered by King James I in 1606. The charter defined Virginia as all of the North American coast between 30° and 45°N and extending inland for 50 mi (80 km). A new royal charter in 1609 placed Virginia's northern and southern boundaries at points 200 mi (320 km) north and south of Point Comfort, at the mouth of the James River, and extended its territory westward to the Pacific; a third charter issued in 1612 pushed Virginia eastward to embrace the Bermuda Islands. Thus, Virginia at one time stretched from southern Maine to California and encompassed all or part of 42 of the present 50 states, as well as Bermuda and part of the Canadian province of Ontario.

Upon landing at Jamestown, the 100 or more male colonists elected from among 12 royally approved councillors a governor and captain general, Edward Maria Wingfield. Much internal strife, conflict with the Indians, and a "starving time" that reduced the settlers to eating their horses caused them to vote to leave the colony in 1610, but just as they were leaving, three supply ships arrived; with them came Thomas West, Baron De La Warr (Lord Delaware), who stayed to govern the Virginia Colony until 1611. Finally, however, it was the energy, resourcefulness, and military skill of Captain John Smith that saved the colony from both starvation and destruction by the Indians. He also charted the coast and wrote the first American book, *A True Relation*, which effectively publicized English colonization of the New World.

Smith's chief Algonkian adversary was Powhatan, emperor of a confederacy in eastern Virginia that bore his name. Although Smith was taken prisoner by Powhatan, he was able to work out a tenuous peace later cemented by the marriage in 1614 of the emperor's favorite daughter, Pocahontas, to John Rolfe, a Jamestown settler who founded the colonial tobacco industry.

Three events marked 1619 as a red-letter year in Virginia history. First, women were sent to the colony in large numbers. Any man marrying one of a shipment of 90 "young maids" had to pay 120 lb of tobacco for the cost of her transportation. The women were carefully screened for respectability, and none had to marry if she did not find a man to her liking. The second key event was the arrival in Jamestown of the first blacks, probably as indentured servants, a condition from which slavery in the colony evolved (the first legally recognized slaveholder, in the 1630s, was Anthony Johnson, himself black). The third and most celebrated event of 1619 was the convening in Jamestown of the first representative assembly in the New World, consisting of a council chosen by the London Company and a House of Burgesses elected by the colonists. Thus, self-government through locally elected representatives became a reality in America and an important precedent for the English colonies.

King James I, for whom the colonial capital was named, was at first content with colonization under the London Company's direction. But in 1624, he charged the company with mismanagement and revoked its charter. Virginia remained a royal colony until 1776, although royal governors such as Sir Francis Wyatt and Sir George Yeardley continued to convoke the General Assembly without the Crown's assent. A serious challenge to self-government came in 1629–35 with Governor John Harvey's "executive offenses"—including the knocking out of a councillor's teeth and the detaining of a petition of protest to the king—which sparked a rebellion led by Dr. John Pott. Harvey was bloodlessly deposed by the council, which turned, significantly, to the House of Burgesses for confirmation of the action the council had taken.

Despite serious setbacks because of Indian massacres in 1622 and 1644, the colony's population expanded rapidly along the James, York, Rappahannock, and Potomac rivers, and along the Eastern Shore. In 1653, the General Assembly attempted to collect taxes from the Eastern Shore although that area had no legislative representation. At a mass meeting, Colonel Thomas Johnson urged resistance to taxation without representation. The resulting Northampton Declaration embodied this principle, which would provide the rallying cry for the American Revolution; the immediate result was the granting of representation to the Eastern Shore.

Virginia earned the designation Old Dominion through its loyalty to the Stuarts during England's Civil War, but the superior military and naval forces of Oliver Cromwell compelled submission to parliamentary commissioners in 1652. In the eight years that followed, the House of Burgesses played an increasingly prominent role. Colonial governors, while at least nominally Puritan, usually conducted affairs with an easy tolerance that did not mar Virginia's general hospitality to refugee Cavaliers from the mother country.

With the restoration of the royal family in 1660, Sir William Berkeley, an ardent royalist who had served as governor before the colony's surrender to the Commonwealth, was returned to that office. In his first administration, his benign policies and appealing personality had earned him great popularity, but during his second term, his dictatorial and vindictive support of royal prerogatives made him the most hated man in the colony. When he seemed unable to defend the people against Indian incursions in 1676, they sought a general of their own. They found him in young Nathaniel Bacon, a charismatic planter of great daring and eloquence, whose leadership attracted many small planters impatient by this time with the privileged oligarchy directing the colony. Bacon's war against the Indians became a populist-style revolt against the governor, who fled to the Eastern Shore, and reform legislation was pushed by the burgesses. Berkeley regained control of the capital briefly, only to be defeated by Bacon's forces; but Jamestown was burned by the retreating Bacon, who died of fever shortly afterward. Berkeley's subsequent return to power was marked by so many hangings of offenders that the governor was summoned to the court of Charles II to answer for his actions. Bacon's Rebellion was cited as a precedent when the colonies waged war against George III a century later.

The 17th century closed on a note of material and cultural progress with the gubernatorial administration of Francis Nicholson. The College of William and Mary, the second institution of higher learning in America, was chartered in 1693, and Middle Planta-

tion (renamed Williamsburg in 1722), the site of the college, became the seat of government when the capital was moved from Jamestown in 1699. The new capital remained small, although it was crowded when the legislature was in session. A new era of cultural and economic progress dawned with the administration of Alexander Spotswood (1710–22), sometimes considered the greatest of Virginia's colonial governors. He discouraged the colony's excessively heavy dependence on a single crop, tobacco; promoted industry, especially ironwork; took a humane interest in blacks and Indians' strengthened fortification; ended the depredations of the notorious pirate Edward Teach, better known as Blackbeard; and, by leading his "Knights of the Golden Horseshoe" across the Blue Ridge, dramatized the opening of the transmontane region.

In the decades that followed, eastern Virginians moving into the Valley of Virginia were joined by Scotch-Irish and Germans moving southward from Maryland and Pennsylvania. Virginians caught up in western settlement lost much of their awe of the mother country during the French and Indian War (1756–63). A young Virginia militiaman, Colonel George Washington, gave wise but unheeded advice to Britain's Major General Edward Braddock before the Battle of Monongahela, and afterward emerged as the hero of that action.

Virginia, acting independently and with other colonies, repeatedly challenged agents of the Crown. In 1765, the House of Burgesses, swept by the eloquence of Patrick Henry, adopted five resolutions opposing the Stamp Act, through which the English Parliament had sought to tax the colonists for their own defense. In 1768, Virginia joined Massachusetts in issuing an appeal to all the colonies for concerted action. The following year, Virginia initiated a boycott of British goods in answer to the taxation provisions of the hated Townshend Acts. In 1773, the Old Dominion became the first colony to establish an intercolonial Committee of Correspondence. And it joined the other colonies at the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia in 1774 and elected Virginia's Peyton Randolph president.

Virginia was the first colony to instruct its delegates to move for independence at the Continental Congress of 1776. The congressional resolution was introduced by one native son, Richard Henry Lee, and the Declaration of Independence was written by another, Thomas Jefferson. In the same year, Virginians proclaimed their government a commonwealth and adopted a constitution and declaration of rights, prepared by George Mason. The declaration became the basis for the Bill of Rights in the US Constitution. Virginians were equally active in the Revolutionary War. George Washington was commander in chief of the Continental Army, and other outstanding Virginia officers were George Rogers Clark, Hugh Mercer, Henry "Light Horse Harry" Lee, William Campbell, Isaac Shelby, and an adopted son, Daniel Morgan. In addition, the greatest American naval hero was a Scottish-born Virginian, John Paul Jones. Virginia itself was a major battlefield, and it was on Virginia soil, at Yorktown on 19 October 1781, that British General Charles Cornwallis surrendered to Washington, effectively ending the war.

During the early federal period, Virginia's leadership was as notable as it had been during the American Revolution. James Madison is honored as the "father of the Constitution," and Washington, who was president of the constitutional convention, became

the first US president in 1789. Indeed, Virginians occupied the presidency for all but four of the nation's first 28 years. Far more influential than most presidents was another Virginian, John Marshall, who served as US chief justice for 34 years, beginning in 1801.

During the first half of the 19th century, Virginians became increasingly concerned with the problem of slavery. From the early 1700s, the General Assembly had repeatedly prohibited the importation of slaves, only to be overruled by the Crown, protecting the interests of British slave traders. In 1778, no longer subject to royal veto, the legislature provided that any slave brought into the state would automatically be freed upon arrival. (There was no immediate legal termination of the bondage of those already enslaved, or of their offspring.) The number of free blacks grew tenfold by 1810, and though some became self-supporting farmers and artisans, many could find no employment. Fearing that unhappy free blacks might incite those who were still slaves to rebellion, the General Assembly in 1806 decreed that each slave emancipated in due course must then leave Virginia within a year or after reaching the age of 21. Nat Turner's slave revolt—which took the lives of at least 55 white men, women, and children in Southampton County in 1831—increased white fears of black emancipation. Nevertheless, legislation to end slavery in Virginia failed adoption by only seven votes the following year.

The slavery controversy did not consume all Virginians' energies in the first half of the 19th century, an era that saw the state become a leading center of scientific, artistic, and educational advancement. But this era ended with the coming of the Civil War, a conflict about which many Virginians had grave misgivings. Governor John Letcher was a Union man, and most of the state's top political leaders hoped to retain the federal tie. Even after the formation at Montgomery, Alabama, of the Confederate States of America, Virginia initiated a national peace convention in Washington, DC, headed by a native son and former US president, John Tyler. A statewide convention, assembled in Richmond in April 1861, adopted an ordinance of secession only after President Abraham Lincoln sought to send troops across Virginia to punish the states that had already seceded and called upon the commonwealth to furnish soldiers for that task. Virginia adopted secession with some regret and apprehension but with no agonizing over constitutional principles, for in ratifying the Constitution the state had reserved the right to secede. Shortly afterward, Richmond, the capital of Virginia since 1780, became the capital of the Confederacy. It was also the home of the Tredegar Ironworks, the South's most important manufacturer of heavy weaponry.

Robert E. Lee, offered field command of the Union armies, instead resigned his US commission in order to serve his native state as commander of the Army of Northern Virginia and eventually as chief of the Confederate armies. Other outstanding Virginian generals included Thomas Jonathan "Stonewall" Jackson, J. E. B. "Jeb" Stuart, Joseph E. Johnston, and A. P. Hill. Besides furnishing a greater number of outstanding Confederate generals than any other state, the Old Dominion supplied some of the Union's military leaders, George H. Thomas, the "Rock of Chickamauga," among them. More than 30 Virginians held the rank of brigadier general or major general in the federal forces.

Virginia became the principal battlefield of the Civil War, the scene of brilliant victories won by General Lee's army at Bull Run

(about 30 mi/48 km southwest of Washington, DC), Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville (Spotsylvania County). But the overwhelming numbers and industrial and naval might of the Union compelled Lee's surrender at Appomattox on 9 April 1865. Virginia waters were the scene of one of the most celebrated naval engagements in world history, the first battle of the ironclads, when the USS Monitor and CSS Virginia (Merrimac), rebuilt in the Portsmouth Shipyard, met at Hampton Roads. The war cost Virginia one-third of its territory when West Virginia was admitted to the Union as a separate state on 20 June 1863. Richmond was left in ruins, and agriculture and industry throughout the commonwealth were destroyed. Union General Philip H. Sheridan's systematic campaign of demolition in the Shenandoah Valley almost made good his boast that a crow flying over the valley would have to carry its own rations.

In 1867, Virginia was placed under US military rule. A constitutional convention held in Richmond under the leadership of carpetbaggers and scalawags drafted a constitution that disqualified the overwhelming majority of white Virginians from holding office and deprived about 95% of them of the right to vote. In this crisis, a compromise was negotiated under which white Virginians would accept Negro suffrage if they themselves were permitted to vote and hold office. The amended constitution, providing for universal manhood suffrage, was adopted in 1869, and Virginia was readmitted to the Union on 26 January 1870.

Although the bankrupt state was saddled with a debt of more than \$45 million, the Conservative Democrats undertook repayment of the entire debt, including approximately one-third estimated to be West Virginia's share. Other Democrats, who came to be known as Readjusters, argued that the commonwealth could not provide education and other essential services to its citizens unless it disclaimed one-third of the debt and reached a compromise with creditors concerning the remainder. William Mahone, a railroad president and former Confederate major general, engineered victory for the Readjusters in 1880 with the aid of the Republicans. His election to the US Senate that year represented another success for the Readjuster-Republican coalition, which was attentive to the needs of both blacks and underprivileged whites.

Throughout the 1880s and 1890s, life in public places in Virginia continued in an unsegregated fashion that sometimes amazed visitors from northern cities. As the 19th century neared an end, however, Virginia moved toward legal separation of the races. In 1900, the General Assembly by a one-vote majority enacted segregation on railroad cars. The rule became applicable the following year to streetcars and steamboats. In 1902, the Virginia constitutional convention enacted a literacy test and poll tax that effectively reduced the black vote to negligible size.

Two decades later, just when the Old Dominion seemed permanently set in the grooves of conservatism, two liberals, each with impeccable old-line backgrounds, found themselves battling for the governorship in a Democratic primary campaign that changed the course of Virginia's political history. Harry F. Byrd defeated G. Walter Mapp in the election of 1925 and immediately after taking office launched the state on an era of reform. In a whirlwind 60 days, the General Assembly revised the tax system, revised balloting procedures, and adopted measures to lure industry to Virginia. The Anti-Lynch Act of 1927 made anyone present at the scene of a lynching who did not intervene guilty of murder; there has

not been a lynching in Virginia since its passage. Byrd also reorganized the state government, consolidating nearly 100 agencies into 14 departments. Later, as US Senator, Byrd became so renowned as a conservative that many people forgot his earlier career as a fighting liberal.

Following the depression of the 1930s, Virginia became one of the most prosperous states of the Southeast. It profited partly from national defense contracts and military and naval expansion, but also from increased manufacturing and from what became one of the nation's leading tourist industries. Few states made so great a contribution as Virginia to the US effort in World War II. More than 300,000 Virginians served in the armed forces; 9,000 lost their lives, and 10 were awarded the Medal of Honor. Virginians were proud of the fact that General George C. Marshall was a Virginia resident and a graduate of Virginia Military Institute, and even delighted in the knowledge that both General Dwight D. Eisenhower, commander in the European theater, and General Douglas MacArthur, commander in the Pacific, were sons of Virginia mothers.

The postwar period brought many changes in the commonwealth's public life. During the first administration of Governor Mills E. Godwin Jr. (1966–70), the state abandoned its strict pay-as-you-go fiscal policy, secured an \$81-million bond issue, and enacted a sales tax. Much of the increased revenue benefited the public school system; funding for the four-year colleges was greatly expanded, and a system of low-tuition community colleges was instituted.

In 1970, A. Linwood Holton Jr., became the first Republican governor of Virginia since 1874. Pledging to “make today's Virginia a model in race relations,” Holton increased black representation on state boards and in the higher echelons of government. He reversed the policies of his immediate predecessors, who had generally met the US Supreme Court's desegregation ruling in 1954 with a program of massive resistance, eschewing violence but adopting every legal expedient to frustrate integration. By the mid-1970s, public school integration in Virginia had been achieved to a degree not yet accomplished in many northern states.

The northeast and Virginia Beach/Norfolk area of Virginia boomed in the early 1980s, spurred by an expansion of federal jobs and a national military build-up. The population in Virginia Beach grew by 50% between 1980 and 1990. Non-agricultural employment rose by 29% between 1980 and 1988. The economies of rural parts of the state to the west and south, however, remained stagnant.

In the late 1980s, Virginia was hit by a recession. Douglas Wilder, the nation's first black governor and a moderate Democrat, responded to a significant shortfall in state revenues by refusing to raise taxes and by insisting on maintaining a \$200 million reserve fund. Instead, Wilder reduced the budgets and staff of state services and of the state's college and university system. Wilder's cuts created particular hardship for the less affluent counties that relied heavily on state aid for their funding of schools, libraries, and road maintenance. Wilder, limited by law to one term in office, was succeeded in 1993 by conservative Republican Richard Allen. In 1994, nationwide attention was focused on the US Senate race in which the Democratic incumbent, Charles S. Robb, defeated Republican challenger Oliver North, known for his role in the Iran-contra affair of the 1980s.

In the mid-1990s Virginia's economy was strong, thanks to its diversified base of agriculture, manufacturing, and service industries (the latter dominated by federal government employment). Pollution from industry and agricultural chemicals remained a significant concern, and the state was investing in cleanup efforts in the Chesapeake Bay.

In 1994, the Walt Disney Company abandoned its much-publicized plan to build a history theme park, “Disney's America,” in Virginia, following strong opposition from residents, environmentalists, and historians.

Virginia was in the midst of its worst state revenue performance in 40 years in 2003. To help it overcome massive budget deficits, the state cut funding for higher education by more than 25% over the previous two years. Nearly all state universities raised tuition in response. Despite this fact, the State Council of Higher Education said Virginia needed to come up with an additional \$350 million per year to maintain the quality of its public higher education system.

In November 2005, Democratic Lt. Governor Tim Kaine defeated Republican nominee Jerry Kilgore to become governor of Virginia. Whether justified or not, the vote—along with Senator Jon Corzine's defeat of Republican nominee Doug Forrester for governor of New Jersey—was seen to be a referendum on President George W. Bush's stewardship of the nation.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Since 1776, Virginia has had six constitutions, all of which have expanded the power of the executive branch. The last constitution, framed in 1970 and effective 1 July 1971, governs the state today. As of January 2005, this document had been amended 40 times.

The General Assembly consists of a 40-member Senate, elected to four-year terms, and a 100-member house of delegates, serving for two-year terms. Senators and delegates must be US citizens, at least 21 years old, state residents for at least one year, district residents, and qualified voters. The assembly convenes annually on the second Wednesday in January for 60-day sessions in even-numbered years and 30-day sessions in odd-numbered years, with an option to extend the annual session for a maximum of 30 days or declare a special session by two-thirds vote of each house. In 2004 legislative salaries were \$18,000 for state senators and \$17,640 for delegates, unchanged from 1999.

The governor and lieutenant governor (elected separately), and attorney general, all serving four-year terms, are the only officials elected statewide. Elections for these offices are held in odd-numbered years, following presidential elections. The governor, who must be at least 30 years old, a US citizen, and a state resident and qualified voter for five years, may not serve two successive terms. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$124,855. Most state officials—including the secretaries of administration and finance, commerce and resources, education, human resources, public safety, and transportation—are appointed by the governor but must be confirmed by both houses of the legislature.

Bills become law when signed by the governor or left unsigned for seven days (including Sundays) while the legislature is in session; a bill dies if left unsigned for 30 days after the legislature has adjourned. A two-thirds majority of those present in each house is needed to override a gubernatorial veto. The constitution may be amended by constitutional convention or by a majority vote of

two sessions of the General Assembly; ratification by the electorate is required.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and residents of their voting precinct. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Virginia has exercised a unique role in US politics as the birthplace not only of representative government but also of one of America's two major parties. The modern Democratic Party traces its origins to the original Republican Party (usually referred to as the Democratic-Republican Party, or the Jeffersonian Democrats), led by two native sons of Virginia, Thomas Jefferson and James Madison. Virginians have also been remarkably influential in the political life of other states: a survey published in 1949 showed that 319 Virginia natives had represented 31 other states in the US Senate and House of Representatives.

From the end of Reconstruction through the 1960s, conservative Democrats dominated state politics, with few exceptions. Harry F. Byrd was the state's Democratic political leader for 40 years, first as a reform governor (1926–30) and then as a conservative senator (1933–95). During the 1970s, Virginians, still staunchly conservative, turned increasingly to the Republican Party, whose presidential nominees carried the state in every election from 1952 through 1984, except for 1964. Linwood Holton, the first Republican governor since Reconstruction, was elected in 1969. His Republican successor, Mills E. Godwin Jr., the first governor since the Civil War to serve more than one term, had earlier

won election as a Democrat. The election in 1977 of another Republican, John N. Dalton, finally proved that Virginia had become a two-party state. In 1981, however, the governorship was won by Democrat Charles S. Robb, who appointed a record number of blacks and women to state offices. Robb, prohibited by law from seeking a consecutive second term, was succeeded by Democrat Gerald L. Baliles in 1985 when Virginians also elected L. Douglas Wilder as lieutenant governor and Mary Sue Terry as attorney general. Wilder became the highest-ranking black state official in the United States, and Terry was the first woman to win a statewide office in Virginia. Wilder was elected governor in 1989, followed by Republican George Allen in 1993. Another Republican, James S. Gilmore III, was elected to the office in the 1997 election. Democrats Mark Warner and Tim Kaine were elected governor in 2001 and 2005, respectively.

Former governor Robb won election to the US Senate in 1988 and reelection in 1994 when he was opposed by Republican Oliver North, a former Marine and Reagan White House aide who gained fame for his role in the Iran-contra affair. Republican George F. Allen won the seat in 2000. Senior Senator John Warner, a Republican, was elected to a fifth term in 2002.

After the 2004 elections, Virginia's delegation to the US House of Representatives consisted of three Democrats and eight Republicans. As of the 2005 state legislative elections, control of the state Senate and house was in the hands of the Republicans. Republicans controlled the state House, 58–39, with 3 independents; the state Senate was split 24–16, Republicans to Democrats.

Virginia Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	VIRGINIA WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	STATES' RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	SOCIALIST LABOR
1948	11	*Truman (D)	200,786	172,070	43,393	2,047	726	234
1952	12	*Eisenhower (R)	268,677	349,037	—	—	504	1,160
					CONSTITUTION			
1956	12	*Eisenhower (R)	267,760	386,459	42,964	—	444	351
					VA. CONSERVATIVE			
1960	12	Nixon (R)	362,327	404,521	4,204	—	—	397
1964	12	*Johnson (D)	558,038	481,334	—	—	—	2,895
					AMERICAN IND.		PEACE AND FREEDOM	
1968	12	*Nixon (R)	442,387	590,319	320,272	—	1,680	4,671
					AMERICAN			
1972	12	*Nixon (R)	438,887	988,493	19,721	—	—	9,918
						LIBERTARIAN	US LABOR	SOC. WORKERS
1976	12	Ford (R)	813,896	836,554	16,686	4,648	7,508	17,802
							CITIZENS	
1980	12	*Reagan (R)	752,174	989,609	—	12,821	**14,024	1,9861
1984	12	*Reagan (R)	796,250	1,337,078	—	—	—	—
					NEW ALLIANCE			
1988	12	*Bush (R)	859,799	1,309,162	14,312	8,336	—	—
							IND. (Perot)	IND. (laRouche)
1992	13	Bush (R)	1,038,650	1,150,517	3,192	5,730	348,639	11,937
1996	13	Dole (R)	1,091,060	1,138,350	—	9,174	159,861	—
					GREEN			
2000	13	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,217,290	1,437,490	59,398	15,198	—	—
					WRITE-IN (Nader)		CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)	WRITE-IN (Cobb)
2004	13	*Bush, G. W. (R)	1,454,742	1,716,959	2,393	11,032	10,161	104

*Won US presidential election.

**Candidates of the nationwide Citizens and Socialist Workers parties were listed as independents on the Virginia ballot; another independent, John Anderson, won 95,418 votes.

In 2000, Republican George W. Bush won 52% of the presidential vote; Democrat Al Gore received 45%; and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader garnered 2%. In 2004, incumbent Bush won 54% over Democratic challenger John Kerry's 45%. In 2004 there were 4,528,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had 13 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Virginia had 125 counties and 229 municipal governments, as well as 196 special districts and 135 school districts.

During the colonial period, most Virginians lived on plantations and were reluctant to form towns. In 1705, the General Assembly approved the formation of 16 "free boroughs." Although only Jamestown, Williamsburg, and Norfolk chose at that time to avail themselves of the option and become independent municipalities, their decision laid the foundation for the independence of Virginia's present-day cities from county government. In 1842, Richmond became the commonwealth's first charter city. Cities elect their own officials (typically including council members and city managers), levy their own taxes, and are unencumbered by county obligations. Incorporated towns, on the other hand, remain part of the counties.

In general, counties are governed by elected boards of supervisors, with a county administrator or executive handling day-to-day affairs; other typical county officials are the clerk of the circuit court (chief administrator of the court), the county treasurer, the commissioner of the revenue, the commonwealth's attorney, and the sheriff. Incorporated towns have elected mayors and councils.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 298,240 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Virginia operates under executive order and state statute; a special assistant to the governor is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

Under the jurisdiction of the secretary of education are the Department of Education, which administers the public school system, and the State Council of Higher Education, which coordinates the programs of the state-controlled colleges and universities. The secretary of transportation oversees the Department of Transportation, Department of Rail and Public Transportation, Department of Aviation, Virginia Port Authority, Department of Motor Vehicles, the Motor Vehicle Dealer Board. The Virginia National Guard falls under the authority of the Department of Military Affairs.

Within the purview of the secretary of health and human resources are the Department of Health; Department of Mental Health, Mental Retardation, and Substance Abuse Services; Department of Health Professions, Department of Social Services, and Department of Rehabilitative Services, as well as special offices dealing with problems that affect women, children, the elderly, and the disabled. The departments of State Police, Corrections, Criminal Justice Services, Fire Programs, and Alcoholic Beverage Control are under the aegis of the secretary of public safety.

The secretary of commerce and trade oversees the departments of Housing and Community Development, Labor and Industry, Business Assistance, the Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, and the Tourism Corporation, as well as a profusion of boards, councils, offices, divisions, and commissions. The secretary of administration exercises jurisdiction over budgeting, telecommunications, accounting, computer services, taxation, the state treasury, records, and personnel, as well as over the State Board of Elections. Regulatory functions are concentrated in the quasi-independent State Corporation Commission, consisting of three commissioners elected by the legislature to staggered six-year terms. The commission regulates all public utilities; licenses banks, savings and loan associations, credit unions, and small loan companies; enforces motor carrier and certain aviation laws and sets railroad rates; supervises the activities of insurance companies; and enforces laws governing securities and retail franchising. Natural resources are protected by the Department of Environmental Quality, the Department of Forestry, and the Department of Game and Inland Fisheries.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The highest judicial body in the commonwealth is the Supreme Court, consisting of a chief justice and six other justices elected to 12-year terms by the General Assembly. The court of appeals has ten judges serving 8-year terms. The state is divided into 31 judicial circuits/districts. Each city and county has a circuit court, a general district court, and a juvenile and domestic relations district court. Circuit court judges are elected by the legislature for eight-year terms. General district courts hear all misdemeanors, including civil cases involving \$1,000 or less, and have concurrent jurisdiction with the circuit courts in claims involving \$1,000 to \$15,000. General district courts also hold preliminary hearings concerning felony cases. Each of the 31 judicial districts has a juvenile and a domestic relations court, with judges elected by the General Assembly to six-year terms. Each city or county has at least one local magistrate.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 35,564 prisoners were held in Virginia's state and federal prisons, an increase from 35,067 of 1.4% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 2,706 inmates were female, up from 2,681 or 0.9% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Virginia had an incarceration rate of 473 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Virginia in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 275.6 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 20,559 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 199,668 reported incidents or 2,676.6 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Virginia has a death penalty which allows prisoners to choose either lethal injection or electrocution. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out 95 executions (the second-highest in the United States, after Texas), of which the most recent execution took place in 2006 (prior to May 5). There were no executions in 2005. As of 1 January 2006, Virginia had 22 inmates on death row.

In 2003, Virginia spent \$1,958,536,955 on homeland security, an average of \$267 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 90,088 active-duty military personnel and 78,792 civilian personnel stationed in Virginia. The Hampton Roads area, one of the nation's major concentrations of military facilities, includes Langley Air Force Base in Hampton, the Norfolk naval air station and shipyard, the naval air station at Virginia Beach, the Marine Corps air facility and command and staff college at Quantico, and Forts Eustis, Belvoir, and Lee. Langley hosts the 1st Fighter Wing which operates and maintains one of the largest fighter bases in Air Combat Command. The wing flies the F-15 Eagle. Norfolk is the home base of the Atlantic Fleet, and several major army and air commands are in Virginia. Virginia's major defense establishments also include an army base at Arlington. Also, located there is Arlington National Cemetery established by Brig. Gen. Montgomery C. Meigs for use as a military cemetery on June 15, 1864.

In 2004, Virginia firms received more than \$23.5 billion in defense contracts, second to California. In addition, Virginia had the highest defense payroll outlays in the United States, \$15.99 billion, highest in both civilian pay and military active duty pay.

In 2003, there were 750,950 veterans of US military service living in Virginia. Of these, 70,802 saw service in World War II; 60,921 during the Korean conflict; 216,388 during the Vietnam era; and 168,444 during the Persian Gulf War. Veterans' benefits allocated to Virginia totaled more than \$1.7 billion in 2004.

As of 31 October 2004, the Virginia State Police employed 1,840 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Virginia's earliest European immigrants were English—only a few hundred at first, but 4,000 between 1619 and 1624, of whom fewer than 1,200 survived epidemics and Indian attacks. Despite such setbacks, Virginia's population increased, mostly by means of immigration, from about 5,000 in 1634 to more than 15,000 in 1642, including 300 blacks. Within 30 years, the population had risen to more than 40,000, including 2,000 blacks. In the late 17th and early 18th centuries, immigrants came not only from England but also from Scotland, Wales, Ireland, Germany, France, the Netherlands, and Poland. In 1701, about 500 French Huguenots fled Catholic France to settle near the present site of Richmond, and beginning in 1714, many Germans and Scotch-Irish moved from Pennsylvania into the Valley of Virginia.

By the early 19th century, Virginians were moving westward into Kentucky, Ohio, and other states; the 1850 census showed that 388,000 former Virginians (not including the many thousands of slaves sold to other states) were living elsewhere. Some of those who left—Henry Clay, Sam Houston, Stephen Austin—were among the most able men of their time. The Civil War era saw the movement of thousands of blacks to northern states, a trend that accelerated after Reconstruction and again after World War I. Since 1900, the dominant migratory trend has been intra-state, from farm to city. Urbanization has been most noticeable since World War II in the Richmond and Hampton Roads areas. At the same time, the movement of middle-income Virginians to the suburbs and increasing concentrations of blacks in the central cities have been evident in Virginia as in other states. During the

1980s, the urban population grew from 66% to 69.4% of the total population; during the 1990s it reached 77.9%.

Between 1940 and 1970, Virginia enjoyed a net gain from migration of 325,000. In the 1970s, the net gain was 239,000, and during 1985–90, 377,000 (fourth highest among the states for that period). Between 1990 and 1998, Virginia had net gains of 68,000 in domestic migration and 131,000 in international migration. In 1996, 372,000, or about 6%, of the state's population was foreign-born. In 1998, 15,686 foreign immigrants arrived in Virginia, the ninth-highest total of any state. Of that total, 1,509 came from El Salvador, 921 from the Philippines, and 910 from India. Between 1990 and 1998, Virginia's overall population increased 9.7%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 139,977 and net internal migration was 103,521, for a net gain of 243,498 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Regional bodies in which Virginia participates include the Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission, Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation Commission, Southern Growth Policies Board, Southern States Energy Board, Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact, Ohio River Basin Commission, Mid-Atlantic Fishery Management Council, Southern Regional Education Board, Appalachian Regional Commission, Potomac River Fisheries Commission (with Maryland) and Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Authority. The Delmarva Advisory Council, representing Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, works with local organizations on the Delmarva Peninsula to develop and implement economic improvement programs. The state also has a number of border compacts, including ones with Maryland, West Virginia, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, North Carolina, and Tennessee. In fiscal year 2005, Virginia received federal grants worth \$5.269 billion, an estimated \$5.495 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$5.744 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Early settlements in Virginia depended on subsistence farming of native crops such as corn and potatoes. Tobacco, the leading export crop during the colonial era, was joined by cotton during the early statehood period. Although cotton was never "king" in Virginia, as it was in many other southern states, the sale of slaves to Deep South plantations was an important source of income for Virginians, especially during the 1830s, when some 118,000 slaves were exported for profit. Eventually, a diversified agriculture developed in the piedmont and the Shenandoah Valley. Manufacturing became significant during the 19th century, with a proliferation of cotton mills, tobacco-processing plants, ironworks, paper mills, and shipyards.

Services, trade, and government are important economic sectors today. Because of Virginia's extensive military installations and the large number of Virginia residents working for the federal government in the Washington DC metropolitan area, the federal government plays a larger role in the state's economy than in any other except Hawaii. The industries that experienced the most growth in the 1990s were printing, transportation equipment, electronic and other electrical equipment. Between 1992 and 2000, job growth in Virginia averaged 2.7% a year, and in northern Virginia, the rate was 4% a year. The state's economy as a whole grew briskly, averaging 7.13% a year from 1998 to 2000. However, the high con-

centration of high-technology industries in Virginia, the two largest being computer and data processing services, and electronic equipment, meant that the collapse of the dot.com bubble in the national recession of 2001 would have negative impacts, despite counter-cyclical increases in government spending. The growth rate moderated to 4.7% in 2001, employment contracted, and for 2000/01 tax revenues, growth fell by more than half. By November 2002 employment was still 1.5% below the peak reached in March 2001. Tax revenues in 2001/02 declined 4%, facing the state with a billion dollar deficit after successive years of budget surpluses.

In 2004, Virginia's gross state product (GSP) was \$329.332 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$40.274 billion or 12.2% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$38.345 billion (11.6% of GSP) and professional and technical services at \$33.911 billion (10.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 567,830 small businesses in Virginia. Of the 172,785 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 169,053 or 97.8% were small companies. An estimated 24,134 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 9.4% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 19,919, down 3% from 2003. There were 750 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 21.5% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 583 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Virginia 22nd in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Virginia had a gross state product (GSP) of \$353 billion which accounted for 2.8% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 11 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Virginia had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$36,160. This ranked ninth in the United States and was 109% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.5%. Virginia had a total personal income (TPI) of \$270,521,697,000, which ranked 10th in the United States and reflected an increase of 7.7% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.8%. Earnings of persons employed in Virginia increased from \$196,522,936,000 in 2003 to \$213,341,529,000 in 2004, an increase of 8.6%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$53,275 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.8% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Virginia 4,013,400, with approximately 134,100 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.3%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 3,724,800. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Virginia was 7.8% in January 1983. The historical low was 2.2% in January 2001. Preliminary nonfarm employment data

by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 7.9% in manufacturing; 17.8% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.2% in financial activities; 8.9% in professional and business services; 10.7% in education and health services; 8.9% in leisure and hospitality services; and 17.9% in government.

Although the state has no equal-employment statute, an equal-pay law does prohibit employers from wage discrimination on the basis of sex, and the Virginia Employment Contracting Act established as state policy the elimination of racial, religious, ethnic, and sexual bias in the employment practices of government agencies and contractors. The labor movement has grown slowly, partly because of past practices of racial segregation that prevented workers from acting in concert.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 165,000 of Virginia's 3,406,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 4.8% of those so employed, down from 5.3% in 2004, and well below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 211,000 workers (6.2%) in Virginia were covered by a union or employee association contract, which included those workers who reported no union affiliation. Virginia is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Virginia had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.4% of the employed civilian labor force.

23 AGRICULTURE

Virginia ranked 31st among the 50 states in 2005 with farm marketings of more than \$2.6 billion. The commonwealth is an important producer of tobacco, soybeans, peanuts, cotton, tomatoes, potatoes, and peaches. There were an estimated 47,500 farms in 2004, covering 8.6 million acres (3.5 million hectares).

The Tidewater is an important farming region, as it has been since the early 17th century. Crops grown include corn, wheat, tobacco, cotton, peanuts and truck crops. Truck crops and soybeans are cultivated on the Eastern Shore. The piedmont is known for its apples and other fruits, while the Shenandoah Valley is one of the nation's main apple growing regions. In 2004, Virginia ranked fourth among states in tobacco, seventh in peanuts, and sixth in apples. In 2004, greenhouse/nursery products accounted for 8.7% of farm receipts.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Virginia farms and ranches had 1.6 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.26 billion. During 2004, the state had around 375,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$32.6 million. The state produced 3.5 million lb (1.6 million kg) of sheep and lambs in 2003, and an estimated 226,000 lb of shorn wool in 2004.

Dairy farmers produced 1.73 billion lb (0.79 billion kg) of milk from 113,000 milk cows in 2003. That same year, poultry farmers produced 744 million eggs, worth around \$73.2 million; 492.2 million lb (223.7 million kg) of turkey, worth almost \$177.2 million; 1.3 billion lb (590 million kg) of broilers, valued at \$441.7 million; and 21.7 million lb (9.9 million kg) of chicken sold for over \$1.5 million.

25 FISHING

The relative importance of Chesapeake Bay and Atlantic fisheries to Virginia's economy has lessened considerably in recent decades, although the state continues to place high in national rankings. In 2004, Virginia's commercial fish landings totaled 481.6 million lb (218.9 million kg), ranking the state third in the nation for volume of landings. The catch was worth \$160.3 million. Landings at the Reedville port totaled over 400.5 million lb (182 million kg), the second highest volume of all US ports. The port at Hampton Road Area ranked third in the nation in catch value with \$100.6 million. The bulk of the catch consists of shellfish such as crabs, scallops, and clams, and finfish such as flounder and menhaden. The sea scallop catch in 2004 was at 19.6 million lb (8.9 million kg), the second largest in the nation (after Massachusetts).

In 2003, there were 28 processing and 57 wholesale plants in the state, with about 1,801 employees. In 2001, the commercial fishing fleet had 261 vessels.

Both saltwater and freshwater fish are avidly sought by sport fishermen. A threat to Virginia fisheries has been the chemical and oil pollution of the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries. In 2004, the state issued 619,853 fishing licenses. The Harrison Lake National Fish Hatchery is located in Charles City.

26 FORESTRY

As of 2004, Virginia had 15,844,000 acres (6,412,000 hectares) of forestland, representing more than 63% of the state's land area and 2.1% of all US forests. Virtually every county has some commercial forestland and supports a wood products industry. In 2004, 1,474 million board feet of lumber were produced.

Reforestation programs initiated by the Division of Forestry in 1971 have paid landowners to plant pine seedlings, and state-funded tree nurseries produce 60–70 million seedlings annually. The Division of Forestry's tree seed orchards have developed improved strains of loblolly, shortleaf, white, and Virginia pine for planting in cutover timberland.

For recreational purposes, there were 2.7 million acres (1.1 million hectares) of forested public lands in 2004, including Shenandoah National Park, Washington and Jefferson National Forests, 24 state parks, and eight state forests.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Virginia in 2003 was \$727 million, an increase from 2002 of about 5%. The USGS data ranked Virginia as 19th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for almost 2% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, crushed stone was the state's top raw nonfuel mineral, by value, accounting for around 59% of Virginia's total nonfuel mineral output, and was followed by cement (portland and masonry), construction sand and gravel, and lime. Collectively, these four commodities accounted for around 86% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. Virginia in 2003 was the only state to mine kyanite, while it ranked (by value) second in the production of feldspar, zirconium concentrates, and titanium. Virginia was also second (out of two states) in the pro-

duction of vermiculite and was fourth in the output of iron oxide pigments.

The preliminary data for 2003 showed crushed stone output at 63 million metric tons, with a value of \$428 million, with construction sand and gravel production that same year as totaling 11.1 million metric tons, with a value of \$63.8 million. Kyanite production in 2003 was estimated at 90,000 metric tons, with a value of \$13.4 million.

Virginia in 2003 also produced dimension stone and common clays.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Virginia had 39 electrical power service providers, of which 16 were publicly owned and 13 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, five were investor owned, one was federally operated, one was the owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers, one was an energy-only supplier and two were delivery-only providers. As of that same year there were 3,301,904 retail customers. Of that total, 2,728,215 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 411,861 customers, while publicly owned providers had 159,588 customers. There was only one federal customer, one independent generator or "facility" customer, and 2,238 energy-only supplier customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 21.257 million kW, with total production that same year at 75.309 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 82.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 37.093 billion kWh (49.3%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear generating plants in second place at 24.816 billion kWh (33%) and petroleum fueled plants in third at 5.780 billion kWh (7.7%). Other renewable power sources, natural gas fueled plants, hydroelectric and pumped storage facilities accounting for the remaining generation.

As of 2006, Virginia had two nuclear power plants: the North Anna plant in Louisa County; and the Surry plant near Williamsburg.

As of 2004, Virginia had proven crude oil reserves of less than 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 52 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 32nd (31st excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Virginia had 10 producing oil wells and accounted for under 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's single crude oil refinery at Yorktown had a distillation capacity of 58,600 barrels per day.

The state is supplied with natural gas by three major interstate pipeline companies. Liquefied natural gas plants operate in Chesapeake, Roanoke, and Lynchburg, and a synthetic gas plant is in service at Chesapeake. There is underground natural gas storage facilities in Scott and Washington Counties and in Saltville.

In 2004, Virginia had 3,870 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, the production of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 152.495 billion cu ft (4.33 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry natural gas totaled 1,742 billion cu ft (49.47 billion cu m).

Virginia in 2004 had 123 producing coal mines, 46 of which were surface operations and 77 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 31,420,000 short tons, down from 31,596,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, underground mines accounted for 20,437,000 short tons. All of the coal produced was bituminous. Recoverable coal reserves in 2004 totaled 250 million short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Beginning with the establishment of a glass factory at Jamestown in 1608, manufacturing grew slowly during the colonial era to include flour mills and, by 1715, an iron foundry. During the 19th century, the shipbuilding industry flourished, and many cotton mills, tanneries, and ironworks were built. Light industries producing a wide variety of consumer goods developed later.

Richmond is a principal industrial area for tobacco processing, paper and printing, clothing, and food products. Nearby Hopewell is a locus of the chemical industry. Newport News, Hampton, and Norfolk are centers for shipbuilding and the manufacture of other transportation equipment. In the western part of the state, Lynchburg is a center for electrical machinery, metals, clothing, and printing, and Roanoke for food, clothing, and textiles. In the south, Martinsville has a concentration of furniture and textile-manufacturing plants, and textiles are also dominant in Danville.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Virginia's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$87.842 billion. Of that total, beverage and tobacco product manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$12.856 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$12.211 billion; food manufacturing at \$10.007 billion; chemical manufacturing at \$7.864 billion; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$4.864 billion.

In 2004, a total of 284,076 people in Virginia were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 206,060 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees, with 38,533 (27,606 actual production workers). It was followed by food manufacturing, with 30,982 (23,946 actual production workers); plastics and rubber products manufacturing, with 20,032 (15,772 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing, with 18,753 (14,802 actual production workers); and furniture and related product manufacturing, with 17,633 (14,738 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Virginia's manufacturing sector paid \$11.915 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$1.836 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$1.222 billion; food manufacturing at \$936.758 million; chemical manufacturing at \$920.204 million; and plastics and rubber products manufacturing at \$804.629 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Virginia's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$69.2 billion from 7,712 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods ac-

counted for 4,990 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,182 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 540 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$33.8 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$27.06 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$8.3 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Virginia was listed as having 28,914 retail establishments with sales of \$80.5 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: clothing and clothing accessories stores (3,924); gasoline stations (3,623); food and beverage stores (3,383); and miscellaneous store retailers (3,313). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$20.1 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$12.5 billion; food and beverage stores at \$11.8 billion; and gasoline stations at \$7.8 billion. A total of 401,921 people were employed by the retail sector in Virginia that year.

Virginia is a major container shipping center, with almost all shipments handled through the Hampton Roads estuary. Coal is the leading exported commodity and residual fuel oil the principal import. Exports of goods originating within Virginia totaled \$12.2 billion in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues are generally the responsibility of the state's Office of Consumer Affairs, which is under the Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, although the Office of the Attorney General does have limited authority to act on consumer protection issues. The Department of Agriculture and Consumer Affairs regulates food processors and handlers, product labeling, the use of pesticides, and product safety, and through its Office of Consumer Affairs is also responsible for the enforcement of consumer protection laws as well as acting as the central clearinghouse for consumer complaints in Virginia.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil proceedings and to a limited extent, criminal proceedings. The office can represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies, but can only offer legal opinions regarding the administration of consumer protection and education programs and in the handling of formal consumer complaints. In consumer matters the Attorney General's Office has limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The offices of the state's Office of Consumer Affairs, and the Antitrust and Consumer Litigation Section of the Attorney General's Office are located in Richmond. County government consumer affairs offices are located in the cities of Arlington and Fairfax. City government consumer protection offices are located in Alexandria and Virginia Beach.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Virginia had 140 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 61 state-chartered and 161

federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Washington-Arlington-Alexandria market area, which includes portions of Maryland, West Virginia and the District of Columbia, accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 103 institutions and \$130.985 billion in deposits, followed by the Richmond market area with 36 institutions and \$33.475 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 16.1% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$48.182 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 83.9% or \$250.480 billion in assets held.

The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) as of fourth quarter 2005 stood at 4.25%, up from 3.94% in 2004 and 3.95% in 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans in fourth quarter 2005 stood at 0.99%, down from 1% in 2004 and 1.52% in 2003.

Regulation of Virginia's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the State Corporation Commission's Bureau of Financial Institutions.

3³ INSURANCE

Virginians held over 4.5 million individual life insurance policies worth over \$338.8 billion in 2004; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$597 billion. The average coverage amount is \$73,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$1.6 billion.

As of 2003, there were 19 property and casualty and 14 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$9.8 billion. That year, there were 84,492 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$14.2 billion. About \$3.6 billion of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, 59% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 7% held individual policies, and 19% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage. The employee contribution rate of 30% for family coverage is one of the highest averages among the fifty states. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 5.6 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$20,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$657.37.

3⁴ SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Virginia. In 2005, there were 3,130 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 5,060 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In

2004, there were over 215 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 83 NASDAQ companies, 47 NYSE listings, and 10 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state 18 Fortune 500 companies; Sprint Nextel (based in Reston) ranked first in the state and 59th in the nation with revenues of over \$34.6 billion, followed by General Dynamics (Falls Church), Dominion Resources (Richmond), Capital One Financial (McLean), and Smithfield Foods (Smithfield). All of these top five companies are listed on the NYSE.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Virginia's resources are divided equally into two portions: the general fund (which comes from general state taxes), and the non-general fund (which is used for set purposes). Total general funds for fiscal year 2002 were over \$12 billion, 64% from individual income taxes, 20% from sales taxes, and 4% from corporate taxes. The governor's fiscal year 2000-02 budget emphasized a property tax phase-out.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$15.8 billion for resources and \$15.2 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Virginia were \$7.9 billion.

3⁶ TAXATION

In 2005, Virginia collected \$15,919 million in tax revenues or \$2,104 per capita, which placed it 26th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total, sales taxes 19.4%, selective sales taxes 15.0%, individual income taxes 52.5%, corporate income taxes 3.8%, and other taxes 9.2%.

As of 1 January 2006, Virginia had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 2.0% to 5.75%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 6.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$7.8 billion or \$1,031 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 21st nationally. Local governments collected \$7,694,442,000 of the total and the state government \$20,778,000.

Virginia taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 1%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 5%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable, but at a lower rate. The tax on cigarettes is 30 cents per pack, which ranks 45th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Virginia taxes gasoline at 17.5 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Virginia citizens received \$1.66 in federal spending, which ranks the state seventh nationally.

3⁷ ECONOMIC POLICY

The state government actively promotes a pro-business climate. Conservative traditions, low tax rates, low wage rates, a weak labor movement, and excellent access to eastern and overseas markets are the general incentives for companies to relocate into Virginia. Five duty-free foreign trade zones have been established in Virginia.

The Virginia Economic Development Partnership extends low-interest loans to creditworthy companies to purchase land, buildings, and machinery if conventional financing is not available. The state also issues revenue bonds to finance industrial projects—a

Virginia—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	35,739,829	4,777.41
General revenue	27,971,743	3,739.04
Intergovernmental revenue	6,237,933	833.84
Taxes	14,233,065	1,902.56
General sales	2,977,401	398.00
Selective sales	2,234,662	298.71
License taxes	613,910	82.06
Individual income tax	7,422,071	992.12
Corporate income tax	422,119	56.43
Other taxes	562,902	75.24
Current charges	4,472,170	597.80
Miscellaneous general revenue	3,028,575	404.84
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	407,574	54.48
Insurance trust revenue	7,360,512	983.89
Total expenditure	30,370,027	4,059.62
Intergovernmental expenditure	8,819,067	1,178.86
Direct expenditure	21,550,960	2,880.76
Current operation	15,602,380	2,085.60
Capital outlay	1,772,815	236.98
Insurance benefits and repayments	2,383,042	318.55
Assistance and subsidies	1,070,788	143.13
Interest on debt	721,935	96.50
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	6,831,680	913.20
Total expenditure	30,370,027	4,059.62
General expenditure	27,618,308	3,691.79
Intergovernmental expenditure	8,819,067	1,178.86
Direct expenditure	18,799,241	2,512.93
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	10,308,063	1,377.90
Public welfare	5,618,854	751.08
Hospitals	1,966,021	262.80
Health	724,350	96.83
Highways	2,477,512	331.17
Police protection	549,489	73.45
Correction	1,215,898	162.53
Natural resources	181,365	24.24
Parks and recreation	77,446	10.35
Government administration	1,005,575	134.42
Interest on general debt	721,935	96.50
Other and unallocable	2,771,800	370.51
Utility expenditure	18,759	2.51
Liquor store expenditure	349,918	46.77
Insurance trust expenditure	2,383,042	318.55
Debt at end of fiscal year	15,314,018	2,047.05
Cash and security holdings	57,642,635	7,705.20

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

popular method of financing because the return to investors is tax-free. The bonds are issued for small as well as large companies and may be used to finance the installation of pollution control equipment. Localities allow total or partial tax exemptions for such equipment and for certified solar energy devices. The Virginia Small Business Financing Authority's loan guarantee program helps small companies obtain working capital by guaranteeing up to \$150,000 of a bank loan.

Counties, cities, and incorporated towns may form local industrial development authorities to finance industrial projects and various other facilities, and may issue their own revenue bonds to

cover the cost of land, buildings, machinery, and equipment. The authority's lease of the property normally includes an option to buy at a nominal price on the expiration of the lease. In addition, some 110 local development corporations have been organized. The Virginia Department of Housing and Community Development offers grants for projects which will generate employment in economically depressed areas, and the Virginia Coalfield Economic Development Authority extends loans to new or growing companies in southwestern Virginia. For minority-owned entrepreneurs, Virginia maintains the Office of Minority Business Enterprise to give advice on special problems. With Delaware, Maryland, and Washington, DC, Virginia has been recognized as part of an international life sciences hub, dubbed the BioCapital hub. Virginia companies and agencies have participated in bioscience "hotbed" campaigns, concerted efforts by groups made up of government development agencies, pharmaceutical and bioscience companies, research institutes, universities, and nonprofits to attract capital, personnel and resources to develop a life sciences cluster.

In 2006, the US Chamber of Commerce ranked all 50 states on legal fairness towards business. The chamber found Virginia to be one of five states with the best legal environment for business. The other four were Iowa, Nebraska, Connecticut, and Delaware.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 7.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.7 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 18.1 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 85.3% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 81% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.9 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 205; cancer, 186.5; cerebrovascular diseases, 54.3; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 37.7; and diabetes, 21.4. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 3.6 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 10.7 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 56.4% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 20.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Virginia had 84 community hospitals with about 17,200 beds. There were about 758,000 patient admissions that year and 11.2 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 12,000 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,277. Also in 2003, there were about 278 certified nursing facilities in the state with 31,472 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 87.7%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 73.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Virginia had 264 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 712 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there were a total of 4,395 dentists in the state.

About 10% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 13% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5.4million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 126,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$240. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 488,481 persons (215,817 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$85.25 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$499.7 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Virginia's TANF program is called VIEW (Virginia Initiative for Employment, Not Welfare). In 2004, the state program had 27,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$129 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 1,114,210 Virginians. This number included 693,350 retired workers, 111,370 widows and widowers, 155,830 disabled workers, 58,240 spouses, and 95,420 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 14.9% of the total state population and 91.1% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$940; widows and widowers, \$860; disabled workers, \$898; and spouses, \$474. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$492 per month; children of deceased workers, \$645; and children of disabled workers, \$273. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 134,531 Virginia residents, averaging \$375 a month. An additional \$1.7 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 6,301 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, Virginia had an estimated 3,116,827 housing units, 2,846,417 of them occupied; 69.2% were owner-occupied. About 62.7% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Electricity and utility gas were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 118,489 units lacked telephone service, 8,701 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 8,175 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.54 members.

In 2004, 63,200 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$179,191. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,323. Renters paid a median of \$757 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$19.5 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

41 EDUCATION

Although Virginia was the first English colony to found a free school (1634), the state's public school system developed very slowly. Thomas Jefferson proposed a system of free public schools as early as 1779, but it was not until 1851 that such a system was established—for whites only. Free schools for blacks were founded after the Civil War, but they were poorly funded. Opposition by white Virginians to the US Supreme Court's desegregation order in 1954 was marked in certain communities by public school closings and the establishment of all-white private schools. In Prince

Edward County, the most extreme case, the school board abandoned public education and left black children without schools from 1959 to 1963. By the 1970s, however, school integration was an accomplished fact throughout the commonwealth.

In 2004, 88.4% of all state residents 25 years of age or older were high school graduates, and 33.1% had four or more years of college.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Virginia's public schools stood at 1,177,000. Of these, 832,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 346,000 attended high school. Approximately 61.3% of the students were white, 26.8% were black, 6.6% were Hispanic, 4.7% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,186,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 1,202,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 2.1% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$11.25 billion. There were 104,304 students enrolled in 604 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Virginia scored 284 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 404,966 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 27.6% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Virginia had 104 degree-granting institutions including, 15 public four-year schools, 24 public two-year schools, and 32 nonprofit, private four-year schools. Virginia has had a distinguished record in higher education since the College of William and Mary was founded at Williamsburg (then called Middle Plantation) in 1693, especially after Thomas Jefferson established the University of Virginia at Charlottesville in 1819. In addition to the University of Virginia and the College of William and Mary, public state-supported institutions include Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg; Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond; Virginia Military Institute, Lexington; Old Dominion University, Norfolk; and George Mason University, Fairfax. Well-known private institutions include the Hampton Institute, Hampton; Randolph-Macon College, Ashland; University of Richmond; Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar; and Washington and Lee University, Lexington. Tuition assistance grants and scholarships are provided through the State Council of Higher Education, while the Virginia Student Assistance Authority provides guaranteed student loans.

42 ARTS

The Virginia Commission for the Arts was founded in 1968 and is comprised of 13 commissioners appointed by the governor for five-year terms. In 2005, the Virginia Commission for the Arts and other Virginia arts organizations received 32 grants totaling \$1,197,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Virginia Foundation for the Humanities (VFH) was established in 1974; as of 2005 VFH had sponsored over 40,000 humanities programs. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$4,267,066 for 46 state programs.

Richmond, Norfolk, and the northern Virginia metropolitan area are the principal centers for the creative and the performing arts in Virginia, although the arts flourish throughout the state. Richmond's Landmark Theater (formerly known as The Mosque) has been the scene of concerts by internationally famous orches-

tras and soloists for generations. As of 2005, Richmond's Landmark Theater had the largest proscenium stage on the East Coast. The Barksdale Theatre and its repertory company presents a variety of performances at both Willow Lawn and Hanover Tavern. The 2005/06 season performances included *The Syringa Tree*, *The Full Monty*, and *Barefoot in the Park*.

In Norfolk, the performing arts are strikingly housed in Scope, a large auditorium designed by Pier Luigi Nervi; Chrysler Hall, an elegant structure with gleaming crystal; and the Wells Theatre, an ornate building that has hosted such diverse performers as John Philip Sousa, Will Rogers, and Fred Astaire. The internationally recognized Virginia Opera Association is housed in the Harrison Opera House. As of 2004, the Virginia Opera's Education and Outreach program reached more than 200,000 students and community members annually.

The Wolf Trap Foundation, in northern Virginia, provides theatrical, operatic, and musical performances featuring internationally celebrated performers. The College of William and Mary's Phi Beta Kappa Hall in Williamsburg is the site of the Virginia Shakespeare Festival, an annual summer event inaugurated in 1979. Abingdon is the home of the Barter Theatre (1933), the first state-supported theatre in the United States, whose alumni include Ernest Borgnine and Gregory Peck. This repertory company has performed widely in the United States and at selected sites abroad. The 2006 season included performances of *Romeo and Juliet*, *Thoroughly Modern Millie*, *Robin Hood*, and *The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe*.

There are orchestras in Alexandria, Arlington, Fairfax, Lynchburg, Petersburg, and Roanoke. Richmond is home to the Richmond Ballet, Richmond Choral Society, Richmond Jazz Society, Richmond Philharmonic, and the Richmond Symphony. The Virginia Symphony, founded in 1920, has been recognized as one of the nation's leading regional symphony orchestras. The symphony provides an education and outreach program; as of 2005 it offered programs such as "The Peanut Butter and Jam Family Series," "Young People's Concerts," and "Beethoven Play-Along."

The annual Virginia Arts Festival has drawn national attention since its inception in 1997. In 2004, the festival presented 134 performances of music, theater, and dance in 32 days and more than 22,000 students and 1,546 artists participated. The annual Shenandoah Valley Music Festival, established in 1963, is held in Orkney Springs and features arts and crafts presentations as well as musical performances.

In 2004 former US Poet Laureate (1993–1995), Rita Dove, was named Poet Laureate of the Commonwealth of Virginia. Her books of poetry include *American Smooth* (2004), *On the Bus with Rosa Parks* (1999), *Mother Love* (1995), Pulitzer Prize-winning *Thomas and Beulah* (1986), and *The Yellow House on the Corner* (1980). She has also published a book of short stories, *Fifth Sunday* (1985) and a novel, *Through the Ivory Gate* (1992).

4³ LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

For the fiscal year ending in June 2001, Virginia had 90 public library systems, with a total of 338 libraries, of which 259 were branches. In that same year, they had a combined 18,659,000 volumes of books and serial publications on their shelves, and had a combined circulation of 63,075,000. The system also had 810,000 audio and 448,000 video items, 13,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 35 bookmobiles. The

Virginia State Library in Richmond and the libraries of the University of Virginia (Charlottesville) and the College of William and Mary (Williamsburg) have the personal papers of such notables as Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Robert E. Lee, William H. McGuffey, and William Faulkner. The University of Virginia also has an impressive collection of medieval illuminated manuscripts, and the library of colonial Williamsburg has extensive microfilms of British records. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$199,658,000 and included \$1,384,000 in federal funds and \$21,181,000 in state funding.

There were 260 museums in 1996–97. In Richmond, the Virginia Museum of Fine Arts, the first state museum of art in the United States, has a collection that ranges from ancient Egyptian artifacts to mobile jewelry by Salvador Dali. The Science Museum of Virginia has a 280-seat planetarium that features a simulated excursion to outer space. Other museums in Richmond are Wilton, the Randolphs' handsome 18th-century mansion, and the Maymont and Wickham-Valentine houses, elaborate 19th-century residences; Agecroft Hall and Virginia House, Tudor manor houses that were moved from England, are also open to the public. Norfolk has the Chrysler Museum, with its famous glassware collection; Myers House, an early Federal period home with handsome art and furnishings; and the Hermitage Foundation Museum, noted for its Oriental art. The Mariners Museum in Newport News has a superb maritime collection, and the much smaller but quite select exhibits of the Portsmouth Naval Shipyard Museum are also notable. Perhaps the most extensive "museum" in the United States is Williamsburg's mile-long Duke of Gloucester Street, with such remarkable restorations as the Christopher Wren Building of the College of William and Mary, Bruton Parish Church, the Governor's Palace, and the colonial capital.

More historic sites are maintained as museums in Virginia than in any other state. These include Washington's home at Mt. Vernon (Fairfax County), Jefferson's residence at Monticello (Charlottesville), and James River plantation houses such as Berkeley, Shirley, Westover, Sherwood Forest, and Carter's Grove. The National Park Service operates a visitors' center at Jamestown.

4⁴ COMMUNICATIONS

The state's communications network has expanded steadily since the first postal routes were established in 1738. Airmail service from Richmond to New York and Atlanta began in 1928.

In 2004, 94.0% of Virginia's occupied housing units had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 4,392,319 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 66.8% of Virginia households had a computer and 60.3% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,134,059 high-speed lines in Virginia, 1,022,318 residential and 111,741 for business.

In 2005, broadcasters operated 23 major AM radio stations and 82 major FM stations. In the same year, Virginia had 26 major television stations. The Norfolk-Portsmouth-Newport News area had 629,100 television households, 76% of which ordered cable in 1999. Approximately 187,445 Internet domain names were registered with the state in the year 2000.

4⁵ PRESS

Although the Crown forbade the establishment of a printing press in Virginia Colony, William Parks was publishing the *Virginia Gazette* at Williamsburg in 1736. Three newspapers were published

regularly during the Revolutionary period, and in 1780 the General Assembly declared that the press was “indispensable for the right information of the people and for the public service.” The oldest continuously published Virginia daily, tracing its origins to 1784, is the *Alexandria Gazette*. The first Negro newspaper, *The True Southerner*, was started by a white man in 1865; several weeklies published and edited by blacks began soon after. By 1900 there were 180 newspapers in the state, but the number has declined drastically since then because of fierce competition, mergers, and rising costs.

USA Today, the nation’s largest daily newspaper in 2004 with a circulation of 2,220,863, is based in Arlington, Virginia. In 2002, the *Arlington Journal* and the *Fairfax Journal* merged to form the *Northern Virginia Journal*. In 2005, Virginia had 21 morning dailies, 4 evening, and 17 Sunday papers.

Leading dailies and their approximate circulation rates in 2005 were:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Alexandria	<i>Northern Virginia Journal</i> (m,S)	62,910	386,000
Arlington	<i>USA Today</i> (m)	2,665,815	
Newport News	<i>Daily Press</i> (m,S)	91,307	112,955
Norfolk	<i>Virginian-Pilot</i> (m,S)	200,055	234,508
Richmond	<i>Times-Dispatch</i> (m,S)*	184,950	225,293
Roanoke	<i>Times</i> (m,S)	96,687	108,564

*Absorbed Richmond’s *News Leader* in 1992.

The newspaper group, Gannett Co, Inc, is based in Virginia. This group owns about 90 daily newspapers nationwide, including *USA Today*, as well as over 1,000 non-daily papers and shoppers bulletins. Gannett’s UK subsidiary, Newsquest plc, publishes 17 daily newspapers and more than 300 non-daily publications.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 8,990 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 6.072 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Service and educational groups headquartered in the state include the United Way of America, American Astronautical Society, American Society for Horticultural Science, and American Geological Institute, all located in Alexandria; and the National Honor Society, Music Educators National Conference, and National Art Education Association, located in Reston. Art and cultural organizations include Army Historical Foundation, the Association for the protection of Virginia Antiquities, the Chesapeake and Ohio Historical Society, the Folk Art Society of America, and the Virginia Historical Society.

Veterans’ organizations include the Veterans of World War I of the USA and the Retired Officers Association, Alexandria, and the Military Order of the Purple Heart, Springfield. The United Daughters of the Confederacy has national offices in Richmond. Among the business and professional groups based in Virginia are the American Academy of Audiology, the American Physical Therapy Association, and the American Chiropractic Association.

Sports societies headquartered in the state include the American Canoe Association, the United States Parachute Association, and the Boat Owners Association of the United States. The headquarters of the National Rifle Association are in Fairfax. Environmental and conservation associations include, Nature Conservancy, the American Bird Conservancy, and the American Seed Tree Association.

Other groups operating out of Virginia include the National Sojourners, National Alliance of Senior Citizens, and the Association of Former Intelligence Officers.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, travelers spent over \$15 billion in Virginia on day trips and overnight stays. The tourism and travel industry is the state’s third-largest employer, supporting over 203,000 jobs. Attractions in the coastal region alone include the Jamestown (the first permanent English settlement in America) and Yorktown historic sites (Jamestown will celebrate its 400 anniversary in 2006–07), the Williamsburg restoration, and the homes of George Washington and Robert E. Lee. Also featured are the National Aeronautics and Space Administration’s Langley Research Center, Assateague Island National Seashore, and the resort pleasures of Virginia Beach.

The interior offers numerous Civil War Sites, including Appomattox; Thomas Jefferson’s Monticello as well as The University of Virginia, founded by Jefferson; Booker T. Washington’s birthplace near Smith Mountain Lake; and the historic cities of Richmond, Petersburg, and Fredericksburg. Visitors can also tour nearby Civil War battlefields and cemeteries. In the west, the Blue Ridge Parkway and Shenandoah National Park, traversed by the breathtaking Skyline Drive, are favorite tourist destinations, as are Cumberland Gap and, in the Lexington area, the Natural Bridge, the home of Confederate General Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson, the George C. Marshall Library and Museum, and the Virginia Military Institute. A number of historic sites in Arlington and Alexandria attract many visitors to the Washington, D.C., area. The colonial city of Williamsburg attracts visitors to its historic pre-Revolutionary sites. Nearby are the James River Plantation homes.

The state’s many recreation areas include state parks, national forests, a major national park, scenic parkways, and thousands of miles of hiking trails and shoreline. Some of the most-visited sites are Mt. Rogers National Recreational Area, Prince William Forest Park, Chincoteague National Wildlife Refuge (where wild ponies are rounded up each year), and the Kerr Reservoir. Part of the famous Appalachian Trail winds through Virginia’s Blue Ridge and Appalachian mountains. Virginia has more than 1,500 mi (2,400 km) of well-stocked trout streams.

48 SPORTS

Although Virginia has no major professional sports teams, it does support two Triple-A baseball teams: the Richmond Braves and Norfolk Tides. Other minor league baseball teams play in Bristol, Danville, Lynchburg, Pulaski, Salem, Martinsville, and Woodbridge. There is also minor league hockey in Richmond and Norfolk.

In collegiate sports, the University of Virginia belongs to the Atlantic Coast Conference, and the Virginia Military Institute competes in the Southern Conference. Virginia won college basketball’s National Invitational Tournament (NIT) in 1980 and 1992; Virginia Tech won the NIT in 1973 and has appeared in thirteen consecutive postseason college football bowl games.

Stock car racing is also popular in the state. The Richmond International Raceway and Martinsville Speedway host four NASCAR Nextel Cup races each year.

Participant sports popular with Virginians include tennis, golf, swimming, skiing, boating, and water skiing. The state has at least 180 public and private golf courses.

Among the many notable persons that call Virginia their home, several are legendary athletes—tennis great Arthur Ashe, football's Fran Tarkenton, and golf's Sam Snead all were born and raised in the state.

49 FAMOUS VIRGINIANS

Virginia is the birthplace of eight US presidents and many famous statesmen, noted scientists, influential educators, distinguished writers, and popular entertainers.

The first president of the United States, George Washington (1732–99), also led his country's armies in the Revolutionary War and presided over the convention that framed its Constitution. Washington—who was unanimously elected president in 1789 and served two four-year terms, declining a third—was not, as has sometimes been assumed, a newcomer to politics: his political career began at the age of 27 with his election to the House of Burgesses.

Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826), the nation's third president, offered this as his epitaph: “author of the Declaration of Independence and the Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom, and father of the University of Virginia.” After serving as secretary of state under Washington and vice president under John Adams, he was elected president of the United States in 1800 and reelected in 1804. Honored now as a statesman and political thinker, Jefferson was also a musician and one of the foremost architects of his time, and he has been called the first American archaeologist.

Jefferson's successor, James Madison (1751–1836), actually made his most important contributions before becoming chief executive. As a skillful and persistent negotiator throughout the Constitutional Convention of 1787, he earned the designation “father of the Constitution”; then, as coauthor of the Federalist papers, he helped produce a classic of American political philosophy. He was more responsible than any other statesman for Virginia's crucial ratification vote. Secretary of State during Jefferson's two terms, Madison occupied the presidency from 1809 to 1817.

Madison was succeeded as president in 1817 by James Monroe (1758–1831), who was reelected to a second term starting in 1821. Monroe—who had served as governor, US senator, minister to France, and secretary of state—is best known for the Monroe Doctrine, which has been US policy since his administration. William Henry Harrison (1773–1841) became the ninth president in 1841 but died of pneumonia one month after his inauguration; he had been a governor of Indiana Territory, a major general in the War of 1812, and a US representative and senator from Indiana. Harrison was succeeded by Vice President John Tyler (1790–1862), a native and resident of Virginia, who established the precedent that, upon the death of the president, the vice president inherits the title as well as the duties of the office.

Another native of Virginia, Zachary Taylor (1784–1850), renowned chiefly as a military leader, became the 12th US president in 1849 but died midway through his term. The eighth Virginia-born president, (Thomas) Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924), became the 28th president of the United States in 1913 after serving as governor of New Jersey.

John Marshall (1755–1835) was the third confirmed chief justice of the United States and is generally regarded by historians

as the first great American jurist, partly because of his establishment of the principle of judicial review. Five other Virginians—John Blair (1732–1800), Bushrod Washington (1762–1829), Philip P. Barbour (1783–1841), Peter V. Daniel (1784–1860), and Lewis F. Powell Jr. (1907–98)—have served as associate justices.

George Washington's cabinet included two Virginians, Secretary of State Jefferson and Attorney General Edmund Randolph (1753–1813), who, as governor of Virginia, had introduced the Virginia Plan—drafted by Madison and calling for a House of Representatives elected by the people and a Senate elected by the House—at the Constitutional Convention of 1787. Among other distinguished Virginians who have served in the cabinet are James Barbour (1775–1842), secretary of war; John Y. Mason (1799–1859), secretary of the Navy and attorney general; Carter Glass (1858–1946), secretary of the treasury, author of the Federal Reserve System, and US senator for 26 years; and Claude Augustus Swanson (1862–1939), secretary of the Navy and earlier, state governor and US senator.

Other prominent US senators from Virginia include Richard Henry Lee (1732–94), former president of the Continental Congress; James M. Mason (b.District of Columbia, 1798–1871), who later was commissioner of the Confederacy to the United Kingdom and France; John W. Daniel (1842–1910), a legal scholar and powerful Democratic Party leader; Thomas S. Martin (1847–1919), US Senate majority leader; Harry F. Byrd (1887–1966), governor of Virginia from 1926 to 1930 and US senator from 1933 to 1965; and Harry F. Byrd Jr. (b.1914), senator from 1965 to 1982. In 1985, Virginia was represented in the Senate by Republican John W. Warner (b.District of Columbia, 1927), former secretary of the Navy, and Republican Paul S. Trible Jr. (b.Maryland, 1946), a US representative from 1976 to 1982.

Some native-born Virginians have become famous as leaders in other nations. Joseph Jenkins Roberts (1809–76) was the first president of the Republic of Liberia, and Nancy Langhorne Astor (1879–1964) was the first woman to serve in the British House of Commons.

Virginia's important colonial governors included Captain John Smith (b.England, 1580?–1631), Sir George Yeardley (b.England, 1587?–1627), Sir William Berkeley (b.England, 1606–77), Alexander Spotswood (b.Tangier, 1676–1740), Sir William Gooch (b.England, 1681–1751), and Robert Dinwiddie (b.Scotland, 1693–1770).

Virginia signers of the Declaration of Independence, besides Jefferson and Richard Henry Lee, were Carter Braxton (1736–97); Benjamin Harrison (1726?–1791), father of President William Henry Harrison; Francis Lightfoot Lee (1734–97); Thomas Nelson Jr. (1738–89); and George Wythe (1726–1806). Wythe is also famous as the first US law professor and the teacher, in their student days, of Presidents Jefferson, Monroe, and Tyler, and Chief Justice Marshall. Virginia furnished both the first president of the Continental Congress, Peyton Randolph (1721–75), and the last, Cyrus Griffin (1748–1810).

Other notable Virginia governors include Patrick Henry (1736–99), the first governor of the commonwealth, though best remembered as a Revolutionary orator; Westmoreland Davis (1859–1942); Andrew Jackson Montague (1862–1937); and Mills E. Goodwin Jr. (b.1914). A major historical figure who defies classification is Robert “King” Carter (1663–1732), greatest of the Vir-

ginia land barons, who also served as acting governor of Virginia and rector of the College of William and Mary.

Chief among Virginia's great military and naval leaders besides Washington and Taylor are John Paul Jones (b.Scotland, 1747–92); George Rogers Clark (1752–1818); Winfield Scott (1786–1866); Robert E. Lee (1807–70), the Confederate commander who earlier served in the Mexican War and as superintendent of West Point; Joseph E. Johnston (1807–91); George H. Thomas (1816–70); Thomas Jonathan “Stonewall” Jackson (1824–63); James Ewell Brown “Jeb” Stuart (1833–64); and George C. Marshall (b.Pennsylvania, 1880–1959). Virginians' names are also written high in the history of exploration. Daniel Boone (b.Pennsylvania, 1734–1820), who pioneered in Kentucky and Missouri, was once a member of the Virginia General Assembly. Meriwether Lewis (1774–1809) and William Clark (1770–1838), both native Virginians, led the most famous expedition in US history, from St. Louis to the Pacific coast (1804–6). Richard E. Byrd (1888–1957) was both an explorer of Antarctica and a pioneer aviator.

Woodrow Wilson and George C. Marshall both received the Nobel Peace Prize, in 1919 and 1953, respectively. Distinguished Virginia-born scientists and inventors include Matthew Fontaine Maury (1806–73), founder of the science of oceanography; Cyrus H. McCormick (1809–84), who perfected the mechanical reaper; and Dr. Walter Reed (1851–1902) who proved that yellow fever was transmitted by a mosquito. Among educators associated with the state are William H. McGuffey (b.Pennsylvania, 1800–1873), a University of Virginia professor who designed and edited the most famous series of school readers in American history; and Booker T. Washington (1856–1915), the nation's foremost black educator.

William Byrd II (1674–1744) is widely acknowledged to have been the most graceful writer in English America in his day, and Jefferson was a leading prose stylist of the Revolutionary period. Edgar Allen Poe (b.Massachusetts, 1809–49), who was taken to Richmond at the age of three and later educated at the University of Virginia, was the father of the detective story and one of America's great poets and short-story writers. Virginia is the setting of historical romances by three natives: John Esten Cooke (1830–86), Thomas Nelson Page (1853–1922), and Mary Johnston (1870–1936). Notable 20th-century novelists born in Virginia include Willa Cather (1873–1947), Ellen Glasgow (1874–1945), and James Branch Cabell (1879–1958). Willard Huntington Wright (1888–1939), better known as S. S. Van Dine, wrote many detective thrillers. Twice winner of the Pulitzer Prize for biography and often regarded as the greatest American master of that genre was Douglas Southall Freeman (1886–1953). Other important historians were Lyon Gardiner Tyler (1853–1935), son of President Tyler and also an eminent educator; Philip A. Bruce (1856–1933); William Cabell Bruce (1860–1946); Virginius Dabney (1901–95); and Alf J. Mapp Jr. (b.1925). Some contemporary Virginia authors are poet Guy Carleton Drewry (1901–91); television writer-producer Earl Hamner (b.1923); novelist William Styron (b.1925); and journalists Virginia Moore (1903–1993) and Tom Wolfe (Thomas Kennerly Wolfe Jr., b. 1931).

Celebrated Virginia artists include sculptors Edward V. Valentine (1838–1930) and Moses Ezekiel (1844–1917), and painters George Caleb Bingham (1811–79) and Jerome Myers (1867–1940). A protégé of Jefferson's, Robert Mills (b.South Carolina, 1781–1855), designed the Washington Monument.

The roster of Virginians prominent in the entertainment world includes Bill “Bojangles” Robinson (1878–1949), Francis X. Bushman (1883–1966), Freeman Gosden (1899–1982), Randolph Scott (1903–1987), Joseph Cotten (1905–94), Margaret Sullavan (1911–60), John Payne (1912–1989), George C. Scott (1927–99), Shirley MacLaine (b.1934), and Warren Beatty (b.1938).

Outstanding musical performers include John Powell (1882–1963), whose fame as a pianist once equaled his prominence as a composer. Virginia's most eminent contemporary composer is Thea Musgrave (b.Scotland, 1928). Popular musical stars include Kathryn Elizabeth “Kate” Smith (1907–1986), Pearl Bailey (1918–1990), Ella Fitzgerald (1918–1996), June Carter (1929–2003), Roy Clark (b.1933), and Wayne Newton (b.1942).

The Old Dominion's sports champions include golfers Bobby Cruickshank (1896–1975), Sam Snead (1912–2002), and Chandler Harper (1914–2004); tennis star Arthur Ashe (1943–1993); football players Clarence “Ace” Parker (b.1912), Bill Dudley (b.1921), and Francis “Fran” Tarkenton (b.1940); and baseball pitcher Eppa Rixey (1891–1963). At age 15, Olympic swimming champion Melissa Belote (b.1957) won three gold medals. Helen Chenery “Penny” Tweedy (b.1922) is a famous breeder and racer of horses from whose stables have come Secretariat and other champions. Equestrienne Jean McLean Davis (b.1929) won 65 world championships.

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WASHINGTON

State of Washington



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Named for George Washington. **NICKNAME:** The Evergreen State. **CAPITAL:** Olympia. **ENTERED UNION:** 11 November 1889 (42nd). **SONG:** “Washington, My Home.” **MOTTO:** *Alki* (Chinook for “By and by”). **FLAG:** The state seal centered on a dark green field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Portrait of George Washington surrounded by the words “The Seal of the State of Washington 1889.” **BIRD:** Willow goldfinch. **FISH:** Steelhead trout. **FLOWER:** Coast rhododendron. **TREE:** Western hemlock. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 2nd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the day following; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 4 AM PST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located on the Pacific coast of the northwestern United States, Washington ranks 20th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Washington is 66,582 sq mi (176,477 sq km), of which land takes up 66,511 sq mi (172,263 sq km) and inland water 1,627 sq mi (4,214 sq km). The state extends about 360 mi (580 km) E–W and 240 mi (390 km) N–S.

Washington is bounded on the N by the Canadian province of British Columbia (with the northwestern line passing through the Juan de Fuca Strait and the Haro and Georgia straits); on the E by Idaho (with the line in the southwest passing through the Snake River); on the S by Oregon (with most of the line defined by the Columbia River); and on the W by the Pacific Ocean.

Islands of the San Juan group, lying between the Haro and Rosario straits, include Orcas, San Juan, and Lopez; Whidbey is a large island in the upper Puget Sound. The state’s boundary length totals 1,099 mi (1,769 km), including 157 mi (253 km) of general coastline; the tidal shoreline extends 3,026 mi (4,870 km). Washington’s geographic center is in Chelan County, 10 mi (16 km) WSW of Wenatchee.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Much of Washington is mountainous. Along the Pacific coast are the Coast Ranges extending northward from Oregon and California. This chain forms two groups: the Olympic Mountains in the northwest, mainly on the Olympic Peninsula between the Pacific Ocean and Puget Sound, and the Willapa Hills in the southwest. The highest of the Olympic group is Mt. Olympus, at 7,965 ft (2,428 m). About 100 mi (160 km) inward from the Pacific coast is the Cascade Range, extending northward from the Sierra Nevada in California. This chain, 50–100 mi (80–100 km) wide, has peaks generally ranging up to 10,000 ft (3,000 m), except for such volcanic cones as Mt. Adams, Mt. Baker, Glacier Peak, Mt. St. Helen’s,

and Mt. Rainier, which at 14,410 ft (4,395 m) is the highest peak in the state. The mean elevation of the state is approximately 1,700 ft (519 m). Sea level at the Pacific Coast is the lowest elevation.

Between the Coast and Cascade ranges lies a long, troughlike depression—the Western Corridor—where most of Washington’s major cities are concentrated. The northern section of this lowland is carved by Puget Sound, a complex, narrow arm of the Pacific wending southward for about 80 mi (130 km) and covering an area of 561 sq mi (1,453 sq km). Of all the state’s other major regions, only south-central Washington, forming part of the Columbia Plateau, is generally flat.

The Cascade volcanoes were dormant, for the most part, during the second half of the 19th century and most of the 20th. Early in 1980, however, Mt. St. Helen’s began to show ominous signs of activity. On 18 May, the volcano exploded, blasting more than 1,300 ft (400 m) off a mountain crest that had been 9,677 ft (2,950 m) high. Tremendous plumes of steam and ash were thrust into the stratosphere, where prevailing winds carried volcanic dust thousands of miles eastward. The areas immediately surrounding Mt. St. Helen’s were deluged with ash and mudflows, choking local streams and lakes, particularly Spirit Lake. About 150 sq mi (388 sq km) of trees and brush were destroyed; the ash fall also damaged crops in neighboring agricultural areas and made highway travel extremely hazardous. The eruption left 57 people dead or missing. Eruptions of lesser severity followed the main outburst; the mountain continued to pose a serious danger to life in the area as the estimated cost of the damage to property, crops, and livestock approached \$3 billion. Another minor eruption, on 14 May 1984, shot ash 4 mi (6 km) high and caused a small mudflow down the mountain’s flanks, but no injuries or other damage occurred. East of the Cascade Range, much of Washington is a plateau underlain by ancient basalt lava flows. In the northeast are the Okanogan Highlands; in the southeast, the Blue Mountains

and the Palouse Hills. All these uplands form extensions of the Rocky Mountain system.

Among Washington's numerous rivers, the longest and most powerful is the Columbia, entering Washington from Canada in the northeast corner and flowing for more than 1,200 mi (1,900 km) across the heart of the state and then along the Oregon border to the Pacific. In average discharge, the Columbia ranks second only to the Mississippi, with 262,000 cu ft (7,400 cu m) per second. Washington's other major river, the Snake, enters the state from Idaho in the southeast and flows generally westward, meeting the Columbia River near Pasco.

Washington has numerous lakes, of which the largest is the artificial Franklin D. Roosevelt Lake, covering 123 sq mi (319 sq km). Washington has some 90 dams, providing water storage, flood control, and hydroelectric power. One of the largest and most famous dams in the United States is Grand Coulee on the upper Columbia River, measuring 550 ft (168 m) high and 4,173 ft (1,272 m) long, with a storage capacity of more than 9.7 million acre-ft (11,960 cu m).

3 CLIMATE

The Cascade Mountains divide Washington not only topographically but also climatically. Despite its northerly location, western Washington is as mild as the middle and southeastern Atlantic coast; it is also one of the rainiest regions in the world. Eastern Washington, on the other hand, has a much more continental climate, characterized by cold winters, hot summers, and sparse rainfall. Since the prevailing winds are from the west, the windward (western) slopes of the state's major mountains intercept most of the atmospheric moisture and precipitate it as rain or snow. Certain coastal areas, receiving more than 200 in (500 cm) of rain a year, support dense stands of timber in a temperate rain forest. But in the dry southeastern quadrant, there are sagebrush deserts.

Average January temperatures in western Washington range from a minimum of 20°F (-7°C) on the western slope of the Cascades to a maximum of 48°F (9°C) along the Pacific coast; July temperatures range from a minimum of 44°F (7°C) on the western slope of the Cascades to a maximum of 80°F (27°C) in the foothills. In the east the temperature ranges are much more extreme: in January, from 8°F (-13°C) in the northeastern Cascades to 40°F (4°C) on the southeastern plateau; in July, from 48°F (9°C) on the eastern slope of the Cascades to 92°F (33°C) in the south-central portion of the state. The normal daily average temperature in Seattle is 53°F (11°C), ranging from 41°F (5°C) in January to 65°F (18°C) in July; Spokane averages 48°F (8°C), ranging from 26°F (-3°C) in January to 69°F (20°C) in July. The lowest temperature ever recorded in the state is -48°F (-44°C), set at Mazama and Winthrop on 30 December 1968; the highest, at Ice Harbor Dam on 5 August 1961, was 118°F (48°C).

In Seattle average annual precipitation is about 34 in (86 cm), falling most heavily from October through March; in the same period, Spokane receives an average of only 16.9 in (42 cm) annually, more than half of that from November through February. Snowfall in Seattle averages 7.1 in (18 cm) annually; in Spokane, 50.4 in (128 cm). Paradise Ranger Station holds the North American record for the most snowfall in one season, when 1,122 in (2,850 cm) of snow fell during the winter of 1971–72. High mountain

peaks, such as Mt. Adams, Mt. Baker, and Mt. Rainier, have permanent snowcaps or snowfields of up to 100 ft (30 m) deep.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

More than 1,300 plant species have been identified in Washington. Sand strawberries and beach peas are found among the dunes while fennel and spurry grow in salt marshes; greasewood and sagebrush predominate in the desert regions of the Columbia Plateau. Conifers include Sitka spruce, Douglas fir, western hemlock, and Alaska cedar; big-leaf maple, red alder, black cottonwood, and western yew are among the characteristic deciduous trees. Wild flowers include the deerhead orchid and wake-robin; the western rhododendron is the state flower. In April 2006, nine plant species were listed as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including golden paintbrush, Nelson's checker-mallow, Kincaid's lupine, Spalding's catchfly, Ute ladies' tresses, water howelia, Bradshaw's desert-parsley, showy stickseed, Wenatchee and Mountains checkermallow.

Forest and mountain regions support Columbia black-tailed and mule deer, elk, and black bear; the Roosevelt elk, named after President Theodore Roosevelt, is indigenous to the Olympic Mountains. Other native mammals are the Canadian lynx, red fox, and red western bobcat. Smaller native mammals—western fisher, raccoon, muskrat, porcupine, marten, and mink—are plentiful. The whistler (hoary) marmot is the largest rodent. Game birds include the ruffed grouse, bobwhite quail, and ring-necked pheasant. Sixteen varieties of owl have been identified; other birds of prey include the prairie falcon, sparrow hawk, and golden eagle. The bald eagle is more numerous in Washington than in any other state except Alaska. Washington is also a haven for marsh, shore, and water birds.

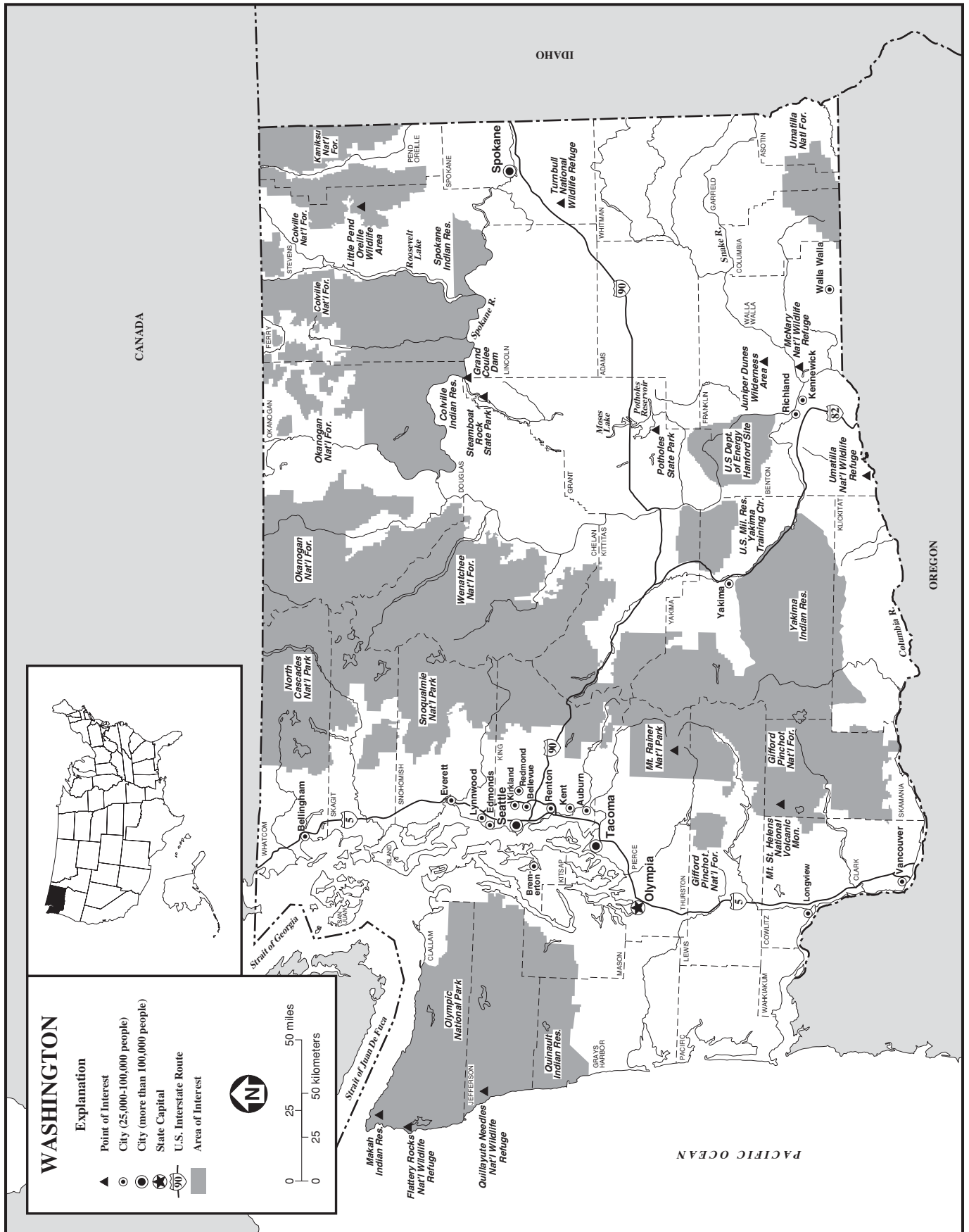
Various salmon species thrive in coastal waters and along the Columbia River, and the octopus, hair seal, and sea lion inhabit Puget Sound. Many of the state's wetlands (covering about 2% of the land area) serve as nurseries and feeding sites for steelhead trout as well as salmon.

Animals driven away from the slopes of Mt. St. Helen's by the volcanic eruption in 1980 have largely returned; more than 25 species of mammals and over 100 species of birds have been observed inhabiting the mountain again. The number of elk and deer in the vicinity was roughly the same as prior to the eruption although the mountain goat population reportedly had been killed off. Earlier, on 17 August 1982, the Mt. St. Helen's National Volcanic Monument was created by an act of Congress; it includes about 110,000 acres (44,500 hectares) of the area that had been devastated by the original eruption.

In April 2006, 27 animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in Washington, including the Columbian white-tailed deer, woodland caribou, short-tailed albatross, brown pelican, pygmy rabbit, humpback whale, eight species of salmon, and two species (green and leatherback) of sea turtle.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The mission of the Department of Ecology (established in 1970) is to protect, preserve, and enhance Washington's environment and promote the wise management of its air, land, and water for the benefit of current and future generations. To fulfill this mission,



the Department of Ecology: administers permit and authorization programs which ensure that pollutant discharges, waste management and cleanup, and resource uses are properly controlled; provides technical assistance on pollution control or resource development issues; and provides financial assistance through grant and loan programs to local governments for waste water and solid waste facilities. The Department of Ecology also reviews federal and state actions and plans for consistency with state laws and regulations for natural resource protection, maintains an ongoing program to monitor the quality of air and water resources, hazardous waste management, and toxic and nuclear cleanup actions; and reviews local government-permitting actions relating to the state's shorelands and to solid waste facilities. Furthermore, the Department of Ecology directly administers an automobile inspection program for the Seattle, Vancouver (Washington), and Spokane areas, an Estuarine Sanctuary program at Padilla Bay, the Conservation Corps employment program, and the Youth Corps litter control program.

Among other state agencies with environmental responsibilities are the State Conservation Commission, Environmental Hearings Office, State Parks and Recreation Commission, Department of Health, Department of Fish and Wildlife, and Department of Natural Resources.

Principal air pollutants in the state are particulate emissions, carbon monoxide, hydrocarbons, lead, and dioxides of nitrogen. Fuel combustion and industrial processes are responsible for most of the first two pollutants, transportation (especially the automobile) for most of the last four. Significant progress has been made since 1988 in reducing the amount of pollutants released to the air. In 1988, the total number of days air quality did not meet health standards was 25. In 1994, the total number of days was 15, and by 1999, the total had been reduced to seven days. In 1990, more than two million people were exposed to air that violated federal standards, but by 1999, the number had been reduced to 112,000.

More than 6,500 sites in Washington are suspected or confirmed to be contaminated with toxic chemicals. At the Hanford Nuclear Site alone, contamination includes 1,500 places where radioactive and chemical wastes were disposed to the soil. From 1990–2002, cleanup was completed (or nearly completed) at a majority of the high-priority sites. In 2003, 22.9 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

Washington state has one of the highest overall recycling rates in the United States. In the mid-1980s, Bellingham began the state's first curbside recycling collection program. Seattle soon started its own program after being forced to close a municipal landfill and facing fierce opposition to construction of a garbage incinerator. In 1989, the state legislature passed the Waste-Not Washington Act, which defined a clear solid-waste management strategy and set a recycling goal of 50%; while this had not been achieved as of 2003, the rate of 40% was reported in 1995, with 37% reported for 2001. (The national average is 30%.) In 2003, Washington had 236 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 46 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Bangor Naval Submarine Base, Fairchild Air Force Base, and the Seattle Municipal Landfill. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$4.8 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included

\$18.7 million for the clean water state revolving fund. A grant of \$208,400 was awarded for assessment and response to the problem of declining oxygen levels in the Hood Canal.

6 POPULATION

Washington ranked 14th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 6,287,759 in 2005, an increase of 6.7% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Washington's population grew from 4,866,692 to 5,894,121, an increase of 21.1%, making it one of the nation's 10 fastest-growing states. The population is projected to reach 6.9 million by 2015 and 7.9 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 93.2 persons per sq mi. In 2004 the median age was 36.4. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 24% of the population while 11.3% was age 65 or older.

Most Washingtonians live in the Western Corridor, a broad strip in western Washington running north–south between the Coast and Cascade ranges. The leading city in the Western Corridor is Seattle, with an estimated 2004 population of 571,480. Other leading cities with their 2004 population estimates are Spokane, 196,721; Tacoma, 196,094; Vancouver, 155,053; and Bellevue, 116,914. The Seattle-Tacoma-Bellevue metropolitan area had an estimated 2004 population of 3,166,828.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Washington is ethnically and racially heterogeneous. As of 2000, foreign-born Washingtonians made up 10.4% of the state's population (614,457), up from 6.6% in 1990. The largest minority group consists of Hispanics and Latinos, numbering 441,509, or 7.5% of the state population, according to the 2000 census, more than double the 1990 figure of 215,000. In 2004, 8.5% of the total population was Hispanic or Latino. Most of the state's Spanish-speaking residents have arrived since World War II. Black Americans numbered 190,267 in 2000. In 2004, 3.5% of the population was black. Black immigration dates largely from World War II and postwar recruitment for defense-related industries.

Japanese-Americans have been farmers and small merchants in Washington throughout the 20th century. During World War II, the Nisei (Japanese Americans) of Washington were deported to internment camps. Chinese-Americans, imported as laborers in the mid-1800s, endured a wave of mob violence during the 1880s. As of 2000, the Asian population was estimated at 322,335, up from 281,000 in 1996. According to the 1990 census, there were 65,373 Filipinos, 35,985 Japanese, 59,914 Chinese, 46,880 Koreans, and 46,149 Vietnamese, up from 17,004 in 1990. Pacific Islanders numbered 23,953 in 2000, including 8,049 Samoans and 4,883 native Hawaiians. Immigration from Southeast Asia was an important demographic factor during the late 1970s and early 1980s. In 2004, 6.3% of the population was Asian, and 0.5% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander.

There were 93,301 American Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts living in Washington in 2000, the eighth-highest total in the nation. In 2004, 1.6% of the population was American Indian or Alaskan Native. Indian lands in the state cover some 2.5 million acres (1 million hectares). The Yakama reservation had a population of 31,799 in 2000. A dispute developed in the 1970s over Indian fishing rights in the Puget Sound area; a decision in 1974 by US District Judge George Boldt that two 120-year-old treaties guaranteed

the Indians 50% of the salmon catch in certain rivers was essentially upheld by the US Supreme Court in 1979.

In 2004, 2.9% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

8 LANGUAGES

Early settlers took from Chinook jargon some words like *potlatch* (gift-dispensing feast), *skookum* (strong), and *tillicum* (friend). Other language influences came from the many Indian tribes inhabiting Washington, especially such place-names as Chehalis, Walla Walla, Puyallup, Humptulips, and Spokane. Northern and Midland dialects dominate, with Midland strongest in eastern Washington and the Bellingham area, Northern elsewhere. In the urban areas, minor eastern variants have been lost; in rural sections, however, older people have preserved such terms as *johnnycake* (corn bread) and *mouth organ* (harmonica). One survey showed Northern *quarter* to dominant in the state with 81%, with Midland *quarter till* having only a 5% response; Northern *angleworm* (earthworm) had 63%, but Midland *fishworm* and *fishing worm* only 17%. The north coast of the Olympic Peninsula, settled by New Englanders who sailed around Cape Horn, retains New England /ah/ in *glass* and *aunt*. In Seattle, *fog* and *frog* are Midland /fawg/ and /frawg/, but *on* is Northern /ahn/; *cot* and *caught* sound alike, as in Midland; but the final /y/, as in *city* and *pretty*, has the Northern /ee/ sound rather than the Midland short /i/ as in pit.

In 2000, English was the language spoken at home by 86% of Washington residents five years old and older, down from 91% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “Other Pacific Island languages” includes Chamorro, Hawaiian, Ilocano, Indonesian, and Samoan. The category “Other Slavic languages” includes Czech, Slovak, and Ukrainian. The category “African languages” includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali. The category “Scandinavian languages” includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	5,501,398	100.0
Speak only English	4,730,512	86.0
Speak a language other than English	770,886	14.0
Speak a language other than English	770,886	14.0
Spanish or Spanish Creole	321,490	5.8
Chinese	48,459	0.9
Tagalog	41,674	0.8
Vietnamese	39,829	0.7
German	39,702	0.7
Korean	39,522	0.7
Russian	31,339	0.6
Japanese	24,055	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	22,385	0.4
Other Pacific Island languages	16,199	0.3
Other Slavic languages	15,596	0.3
Mon-Khmer, Cambodian	14,559	0.3
African languages	12,420	0.2
Scandinavian languages	10,695	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

First settled by Protestant missionaries, Protestant denominations were only slightly predominant among the religiously active population in 2000. The leading denominations that year were the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon), 178,000;

Assemblies of God, 105,692; the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 127,854; the United Methodist Church, 76,648; and the Presbyterian Church USA, 74,338. In 2004, there were 705,732 Roman Catholics in the state, with about 550,450 belonging to the archdiocese of Seattle. In 2000, there were an estimated 43,500 Jews, and about 15,550 Muslims. Over 3.9 million people (about 67% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

Aglow International, a Christian women’s organization, has its worldwide headquarters in Edmonds. The US office of the World Evangelical Alliance is located in Seattle.

10 TRANSPORTATION

As of 2003, the state of Washington had 3,576 rail mi (5,757 km) of railroad lines. In that same year, farm products were the top commodities carried by rail that terminated in the state, while mixed freight was the top commodity carried by rail that originated in the state. Washington is served by a total of 19 railroads, of which two are Class I lines. As of 2006, Amtrak provided service from Seattle down the coast to Los Angeles, and eastward via Spokane to St. Paul, Minnesota, and Chicago.

As of 2004, Washington had 81,216 mi (130,757 km) of public highways, roads, and streets. Principal interstate highways include I-90, connecting Spokane and Seattle, and I-5, proceeding north–south from Vancouver in British Columbia through Seattle and Tacoma to Vancouver, Washington, and Portland, Oregon. In 2004, the state had 4,504,581 licensed drivers and some 5.623 million registered motor vehicles, including around 3.013 million automobiles.

Washington’s principal ports include Seattle, Tacoma, and Anacortes, all part of the Puget Sound area and belonging to the Seattle Customs District. The Ports of Longview, Kalama, and Vancouver, along the Columbia River, are considered part of the Portland (Oregon) Customs District. In 2004, the Port of Seattle handled 23.501 million tons of cargo, while Tacoma handled 26.282 million tons, making them the 37th- and the 30th-busiest ports in the United States, respectively. State-operated ferry systems transported more than 13 million passengers and over 10 million vehicles across Puget Sound annually in the mid-1990s. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 106.489 million tons. In 2004, the state of Washington had 1,057 mi (1,701 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, the state of Washington had a total of 493 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 336 airports, 138 heliports, three STOLports (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 16 seaplane bases. Seattle-Tacoma (SEATAC) International Airport is by far the busiest in the state, with 14,092,285 passengers enplaned in 2004, making it the 16th busiest airport in the United States.

11 HISTORY

The region now known as the State of Washington has been inhabited for at least 9,000 years, the first Americans having crossed the Bering Strait from Asia and entered North America via the Pacific Northwest. Their earliest known remains in Washington—burned bison bones and a human skeleton—date from approximately

7000 BC. Clovis points, a type of arrowhead, have been unearthed and determined to be approximately 30,000 years old.

The Cascades impeded communications between coastal Indians and those of the eastern plateau, and their material cultures evolved somewhat differently. Coastal Indians—belonging mainly to the Nootkin and Salishan language families—lived in a land of plenty, with ample fish, shellfish, roots, and berries. Timber was abundant for the construction of dugout canoes, villages with wooden dwellings, and some stationary wooden furniture. Warfare between villages was fairly common, with the acquisition of slaves the primary objective. The coastal Indians also emphasized rank based on wealth, through such institutions as the potlatch, a gigantic feast with extravagant exchanges of gifts. The plateau (or “horse”) Indians, on the other hand, paid little attention to class distinctions. Social organization was simpler and intertribal warfare less frequent than on the coast. After the horse reached Washington around 1730, the plateau tribes (mainly of the Shahaptian language group) became largely nomadic, traveling long distances in search of food. Housing was portable, often taking the form of skin or mat teepees. In winter, circular pit houses were dug for protection from the wind and snow.

The first Europeans known to have sailed along the Washington coast were 18th-century Spaniards; stories of earlier voyages to the area by Sir Francis Drake in 1579 and Juan de Fuca in 1592 are largely undocumented. In 1774, Juan Pérez explored the northwestern coastline to the southern tip of Alaska; an expedition led by Bruno Heceta and his assistant, Juan Francisco de la Bodega y Quadra, arrived a year later. Men from this expedition made the first known landing on Washington soil, at the mouth of the Hoh River, but the venture ended in tragedy when the Indians seized the landing boat and killed the Spaniards.

English captain James Cook, on his third voyage of exploration, arrived in the Pacific Northwest in 1778 while searching for a northwest passage across America. He was the first of numerous British explorers and traders to be attracted by the luxuriant fur of the sea otter. Cook was followed in 1792 by another Englishman, George Vancouver, who mapped the Pacific coast and the Puget Sound area. In the same year, an American fur trader and explorer, Captain Robert Gray, discovered the mouth of the Columbia River. As the maritime fur trade began to prosper, overland traders moved toward the Northwest, the most active organizations being the British Hudson's Bay Company and the Canadian North West Company.

American interest in the area also increased. Several US maritime explorers had already visited the Northwest when President Thomas Jefferson commissioned an overland expedition to inspect the territory acquired from France through the Louisiana Purchase (1803). That expedition, led by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, first sighted the Pacific Ocean in early November 1805 from the north bank of the Columbia River in what is now Pacific County. In time, as reports of the trip became known, a host of British and American fur traders followed portions of their route to the Pacific coast, and the interest of missionaries was excited. In 1831, a delegation visited Clark in St. Louis, Missouri, where he was then superintendent of Indian affairs, to persuade him to send teachers who could instruct the Indians in the Christian religion. When news of the visit became known, there was an immediate response from the churches.

The first missionaries to settle in Washington were Marcus and Narcissa Whitman, representing the Protestant American Board of Missions; their settlement, at Waiilatpu in southeastern Washington (near present-day Walla Walla), was established in 1836. Although the early Protestant missions had scant success in converting the Indians, the publicity surrounding their activities encouraged other Americans to journey to the Pacific Northwest, and the first immigrant wagons arrived at Waiilatpu in 1840. The Indian population became increasingly hostile to the missionaries, however, and on 29 November 1847, Marcus and Narcissa Whitman and 12 other Americans were massacred.

As early as 1843, an American provisional government had been established, embracing the entire Oregon country and extending far into the area that is now British Columbia, Canada. Three years later, after considerable military and diplomatic maneuvering, a US-Canada boundary along the 49th parallel was established by agreement with the British. Oregon Territory, including the present state of Washington, was organized in 1848. In the early 1850s, residents north of the Columbia River petitioned Congress to create a separate “Columbia Territory.” The new territorial status was granted in 1853, but at the last minute the name of the territory (which embraced part of present-day Idaho) was changed to Washington.

President Franklin Pierce appointed Isaac I. Stevens as the first territorial governor. Stevens, who served at the same time as a US superintendent of Indian affairs, negotiated a series of treaties with the Northwest Indian tribes, establishing a system of reservations. Although the Indian situation had long been tense, it worsened after the treaties were concluded, and bloody uprisings by the Yakima, Nisqualli, and Cayuse were not suppressed until the late 1850s. Court battles over fishing rights spelled out in those treaties were not substantially resolved until 1980.

On the economic front, discoveries of gold in the Walla Walla area, in British Columbia, and in Idaho brought prosperity to the entire region. The completion in 1883 of the Northern Pacific Railroad line from the eastern United States to Puget Sound encouraged immigration, and Washington's population, only 23,955 in 1870, swelled to 357,232 by 1890. In the political sphere, Washington was an early champion of women's suffrage. The territorial legislature granted women the vote in 1883; however, the suffrage acts were pronounced unconstitutional in 1887.

Cattle and sheep raising, farming, and lumbering were all established by the time Washington became the 42d state in 1889. The Populist movement of the 1890s found fertile soil in Washington, and the financial panic of 1893 further stimulated radical labor and Granger activity. In 1896, the Fusionists—a coalition of Populists, Democrats, and Silver Republicans—swept the state. The discovery of gold in the Klondike, for which Seattle was the primary departure point, helped dim the Fusionists' prospects, and for the next three decades the Republican Party dominated state politics.

In 1909 Seattle staged the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition, celebrating the Alaska gold rush and Seattle's new position as a major seaport. World War I brought the state several major new military installations, and the Puget Sound area thrived as a shipbuilding center. The war years also saw the emergence of radical labor activities, especially in the shipbuilding and logging industries. Seattle was the national headquarters of the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) and became, in 1919, the scene of the first general

strike in the United States, involving about 60,000 workers. The towns of Centralia and Everett were the sites of violent conflict between the IWW and conservative groups.

Washington's economy was in dire straits during the depression of the 1930s, when the market for forest products and field crops tumbled. The New Deal era brought numerous federally funded public works projects, notably the Bonneville and Grand Coulee dams on the Columbia River, providing hydroelectric power for industry and water for the irrigation of desert lands. Eventually, more than one million acres (400,000 hectares) were reclaimed for agricultural production. During World War II, Boeing led the way in establishing the aerospace industry as Washington's primary employer. Also during the war, the federal government built the Hanford Reservation nuclear research center; the Hanford plant was one of the major contractors in the construction of the first atomic bomb and later became a pioneer producer of atomic-powered electricity.

In 1962, "Century 21," the Seattle World's Fair, again promoted the area as the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition had a half-century earlier. The exhibition left Seattle a number of buildings—including the Space Needle and Coliseum—that have since been converted into a civic and performing arts center. The 1960s and 1970s, a period of rapid population growth (with Seattle and the Puget Sound area leading the way), also witnessed an effort by government and industry to reconcile the needs of an expanding economy with an increasing public concern for protection of the state's unique natural heritage. An unforeseen environmental hazard emerged in May 1980 with the eruption of Mt. St. Helens and the resultant widespread destruction.

Washington experienced a deep recession in 1979. The industries of logging and lumber, which lost market share to mills in the Southeast and in Canada, were particularly hard hit. Employment in wood products dropped 30% between 1978 and 1982. Nuclear waste also became an issue with the publication of a study in 1985 claiming that plutonium produced at the Hanford bomb fuel facility had leaked into the nearby Columbia River. This claim was confirmed in 1990 by the federal government, which, together with the state, started a cleanup program. The state's economy, strengthened by the expansion of Microsoft Corporation, Boeing, and Weyerhaeuser Paper in the 1980s, was still hampered by falling agricultural prices and weakness in the timber industry.

Speaker of the House Tom Foley, a Democrat and 30-year Congressional veteran, lost his House seat in the 1994 mid-term elections in which Republicans prevailed in seven of the state's nine Congressional districts.

Washingtonian Gary Locke, a Democrat, was elected the nation's first governor of Chinese heritage in 1996; he won reelection in 2000. Under his administration, the state raised education spending by \$1 billion. Locke also signed a welfare reform bill that reduced the number of recipients by one-third. Locke chose not to run for a third term. Christine Gregoire, former Washington attorney general, was elected governor in 2004. In 2005, Gregoire announced Washington's six regional salmon recovery plans were submitted to the federal government. The first listings of salmon in Washington under the federal Endangered Species Act were made in 1991, and within eight years more than 75% of the state had salmon populations listed.

¹² STATE GOVERNMENT

Washington's constitution of 1889, as amended (95 times as of January 2005), continues to govern the state today. The legislative branch consists of a Senate of 49 members elected to four-year terms, and a House of Representatives with 98 members serving two-year terms. Legislators assemble annually in January, meeting for a maximum of 105 calendar days in odd-numbered years and 60 calendar days in even-numbered years. Special sessions, which are limited to 30 calendar days, may be called by a two-thirds vote of the members in each house. Legislators must be US citizens at least 18 years old and qualified voters in their districts. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$34,227.

Executives elected statewide are the governor and lieutenant governor (who run separately), secretary of state, treasurer, attorney general, auditor, superintendent of public education, and officers of insurance and public land. The governor and lieutenant governor and serve four-year terms. Candidates for these offices must be US citizens, qualified voters, state residents, and at least 18 years old. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$139,087.

A bill becomes law if passed by a majority of the elected members of each house and then signed by the governor or left unsigned for five days while the legislature is in session or 20 days after it has adjourned. A two-thirds vote of members present in each house is sufficient to override a gubernatorial veto. Constitutional amendments require a two-thirds vote of the legislature and ratification by the voters at the next general election.

Voters in Washington must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and residents of the state, their county, and their precinct for at least 30 days prior to election day. Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court as mentally incompetent to vote.

¹³ POLITICAL PARTIES

Washington never went for a full-fledged Democrat in a presidential election until 1932, when Franklin D. Roosevelt won the first of four successive victories in the state. Until then, Washington had generally voted Republican, the lone exceptions being 1896, when the state's Populist voters carried Washington for William Jennings Bryan, and 1912, when a plurality of the voters chose Theodore Roosevelt on the Progressive ticket.

The rise of the Democratic Party after World War II was linked to the careers of two US senators—Henry Jackson, who held his seat from 1953 until his death in 1983, and Warren Magnuson, defeated in 1980 after serving since 1945.

During the 1970s and 1980s the state tended to favor Republicans in presidential elections, but Democrats more than held their own in other contests. Washingtonians elected a Democratic governor, Dixy Lee Ray, in 1976, but in 1980 they chose a Republican, John Spellman; in 1984, they returned to the Democratic column, electing Booth Gardner. Mike Lowry, also a Democrat, was elected governor in 1992. He was succeeded, in 1997, by fellow Democrat Gary Locke. Locke was reelected in 2000, but in 2003, announced he would not seek reelection in 2004. Democrat Christine Gregoire won the office in 2004.

In November 2000, Democrat Maria Cantwell was elected to the US Senate. Washington's other senator, Democrat Patty Mur-

ray, was elected to a third term in 2004. A stunning Republican victory in the 1994 mid-term elections saw, for the first time since 1860, a sitting Speaker of the US House of Representatives, Thomas S. Foley, lose his seat in the House. The winner was a little-known Republican, George Nethercutt, who called for change and received support from conservative national talk show hosts and former presidential candidate Ross Perot. Nethercutt was reelected in 1996, 1998, 2000, and 2002. Following the 2004 elections, three of Washington's nine US Representatives were Republicans; the other six were Democrats. There were 23 Republicans and 26 Democrats serving in the state Senate, and 55 Democrats and 43 Republicans in the state House in mid-2005.

Democratic candidate Al Gore received 50% of Washington's popular vote in the 2000 presidential election; Republican George W. Bush received 45%, and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader garnered 4%. In 2004, Democrat John Kerry won 53% of the vote to 46% for the incumbent Bush. In 2004 there were 2,884,000 registered voters; there is no party registration in the state. The state had 11 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, Washington had 39 counties, 279 municipal governments, 296 public school districts, and 1,173 special districts, including public utility, library, port, water, hospital, cemetery, and sewer districts.

Counties may establish their own institutions of government by charter; otherwise, the chief governing body is an elected board of commissioners. Other elected officials generally include the sheriff, prosecuting attorney, coroner, auditor, treasurer, and clerk. Cities and towns are governed under the mayor-council or coun-

cil-manager systems. Larger cities, Seattle among them, generally have their own charters and elected mayors.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 212,591 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Washington operates under the authority of the governor; the adjutant general is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Public Disclosure Commission, consisting of five members appointed by the governor and confirmed by the Senate, provides disclosure of financial data in connection with political campaigns, lobbyists' activities, and the holdings of elected officials and candidates for public office. Each house of the legislature has its own board of ethics.

Public education in Washington is governed by a Board of Education and superintendent of public instruction; the Higher Education Coordinating Board coordinates the state's higher educational institutions. The Department of Transportation oversees the construction and maintenance of highways, bridges, and ferries and assists locally owned airports.

The Department of Social and Health Services, the main human resources agency, oversees programs for adult corrections, juvenile rehabilitation, public and mental health, Medicaid, nursing homes, income maintenance, and vocational rehabilitation. Also involved in human resources activities are the Human Rights Commission, Department of Labor and Industries, Employment Security Department, and the Department of Veterans Affairs.

Washington Presidential Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	WASHINGTON WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	PROHIBITION	SOC. LABOR	CONSTITUTION
1948	8	*Truman (D)	476,165	386,315	31,692	3,534	6,117	1,113	—
1952	9	*Eisenhower (R)	492,845	599,107	2,460	—	—	633	7,290
1956	9	*Eisenhower (R)	523,002	620,430	—	—	—	7,457	—
1960	9	Nixon (R)	599,298	629,273	—	—	—	10,895	1,401
1964	9	*Johnson (D)	779,699	470,366	—	—	—	7,772	—
					PEACE AND FREEDOM		AMERICAN IND.		
1968	9	Humphrey (D)	616,037	588,510	1,669	—	96,900	491	—
					PEOPLE'S	LIBERTARIAN			AMERICAN
1972	9	*Nixon (R)	568,334	837,135	2,644	1,537	—	1,102	58,906
1976	9	Ford (R)	717,323	777,732	1,124	5,042	8,585	—	5,046
					CITIZENS			SOC. WORKERS	
1980	9	*Reagan (R)	650,193	865,244	9,403	29,213	—	1,137	—
1984	9	*Reagan (R)	807,352	1,051,670	1,891	8,844	—	—	—
					NEW ALLIANCE		WORKER'S		
1988	9	Dukakis (D)	933,516	903,835	3,520	17,240	1,440	1,290	—
					IND. (Perot)		TAXPAYERS	NATURAL LAW	POPULIST
1992	11	*Clinton (D)	993,037	731,234	541,780	7,533	2,354	2,456	4,854
							IND. (Nader)		
1996	11	*Clinton (D)	1,123,323	840,712	201,003	12,522	60,322	—	—
					FREEDOM (Buchanan)		GREEN (Nader)		
2000	11	Gore (D)	1,247,652	1,108,864	7,171	13,135	103,002	2,927	—
					CONSTITUTION (Peroutka)		IND. (Nader)	GREEN (Cobb)	WORKERS (Parker)
2004	11	Kerry (D)	1,510,201	1,304,894	3,922	11,955	23,283	2,974	1,077

*Won US presidential election.

Public protection services are provided by the Washington State Patrol, the Division of Emergency Management (civil defense), and the Military Department (Army and Air National Guard).

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The state's highest court, the Supreme Court, consists of nine justices serving six-year terms. Three justices are elected by nonpartisan ballot in each even-numbered year. The Chief Justice is elected to a four-year term by members of the court. The courts' senior judge holds the title of associate chief justice. Appeals of superior court decisions are usually heard in the court of appeals, whose 21 judges are elected to staggered six-year terms. The superior courts are the state's felony trial courts. There are 176 district and municipal courts; they hear traffic and misdemeanor matters.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 16,614 prisoners were held in the state of Washington's state and federal prisons, an increase from 16,148 of 2.9% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,330 inmates were female, up from 1,288 or 3.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), the state of Washington had an incarceration rate of 264 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Washington state in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 343.8 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 21,330 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 300,837 reported incidents or 4,849.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Washington has a death penalty which allows the condemned the option of lethal injection or hanging. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out four executions, the most recent taking place in August 2001. As of 1 January 2006, Washington had 10 inmates on death row.

In 2003, the state of Washington spent \$381,988,278 on homeland security, an average of \$61 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 37,906 active-duty military personnel and 23,433 civilian personnel stationed in Washington, nearly half of whom were at Fort Lewis near Tacoma. Other chief facilities in Washington include a Trident nuclear submarine base at Bangor, Whidbey Island Naval Air Station, McChord Air Force Base (Tacoma), and Fairchild Air Force Base (Airway Heights). In 2004, federal defense contract awards totaled more than \$3.3 billion, and defense payroll outlays were \$5.3 billion.

In 2003, there were 632,929 veterans living in Washington, of whom 69,756 saw service during World War II; 55,166 in the Korean conflict; 205,783 during the Vietnam era; and 109,183 in the Persian Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$1.6 billion in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

In 2004, the Washington State Patrol employed 1,054 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

The first overseas immigrants to reach Washington were Chinese laborers, imported during the 1860s; Chinese continued to arrive into the 1880s, when mob attacks on Chinese homes forced the

territorial government to put Seattle under martial law and call in federal troops to restore order. The 1870s and 1880s brought an influx of immigrants from western Europe—especially Germany, Scandinavia, and the Netherlands—and from Russia and Japan.

In recent decades, Washington has benefited from a second migratory wave even more massive than the first. From 1970 to 1980, the state ranked seventh among the states in net migration with a gain of 719,000. From 1985 to 1990, the net migration gain was 317,832 (sixth among the states). Many of those new residents were drawn from other states by Washington's defense- and trade-related industries. In addition, many immigrants from Southeast Asia arrived during the late 1970s. Between 1990 and 1998, Washington had net gains of 374,000 in domestic migration and 121,000 in international migration. In 1996, the foreign-born population totaled 386,000, or 7% of the state's total population. In 1998, 16,920 immigrants from foreign countries entered Washington, the seventh-highest total of any state for that year. Of that total, 4,129 came from Mexico, 1,159 from the Philippines, and 940 from Vietnam. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 134,242 and net internal migration was 80,974, for a net gain of 215,216 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Washington participates in the Columbia River Gorge Compact (with Oregon), Pacific States Marine Fisheries Commission, Western Interstate Corrections Compact, Western Interstate Energy Compact, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Northwest Power and Conservation Council (with Idaho, Montana, and Oregon), Interstate Compact for the Supervision of Parolees and Probationers, Agreement on Qualification of Educational Personnel, Interstate Compact on Placement of Children, Multistate Tax Compact, and Driver License Compact, among other interstate bodies. The state has one boundary compact with Oregon. Federal grants in fiscal year 2001 totaled over \$6.7 billion. Mirroring a national trend, that figure declined to \$6.213 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$6.232 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$6.414 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

The mainstays of Washington's economy are services, financial institutions, manufacturing (especially aerospace equipment, shipbuilding, food processing, and wood products), agriculture, lumbering, and tourism. Between 1971 and 1984, employment increased in such sectors as lumber and wood products, metals and machinery, food processing, trade, services, and government, while decreasing in aerospace, which remains, nevertheless, the state's single leading industry. The eruption of Mt. St. Helens in 1980 had an immediate negative impact on the forestry industry, already clouded by a slowdown in housing construction, crop growing, and the tourist trade. Foreign trade, especially with Canada and Japan, was an important growth sector during the 1990s. Leading manufacturers have been the Boeing Aerospace Co. and Microsoft, Inc, although Boeing moved its headquarters to Chicago in 2001. In the 1990s, state economic growth was robust, with annual rates soaring to 9.6% in 1998 and 8.6% in 1999, before moderating to 4.6% in 2000. However, the driving forces in Washington's economy, the high-tech computer and aerospace sectors, became the main source of its troubles after the collapse of the

dot.com bubble on the stock market in 2001 and after the terrorist attacks on the United States on 11 September 2001. Growth fell to 2.2% in 2001, and by the end of 2002, all sectors except government and financial services (including insurance and real estate) had lost jobs. In December 2002, Washington's unemployment rate of 6.8% was higher than all states except its neighbor, Oregon, and Alaska. Already having problems before 9/11, Boeing cut its workforce 18% in 2002, announcing plans to cut more jobs and/or relocate its operations out of Washington. In addition, Spokane continued to suffer the adverse effects of the bankruptcy of Kaiser Aluminum. But it was the job losses in the high-paid dot.com, high-tech, and aerospace sectors that had disproportionate impacts on personal income in Washington.

In 2004, Washington's gross state product (GSP) was \$261.546 billion, of which the real estate sector accounted for the largest share at \$38.797 billion or 14.8% of GSP, followed by manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) at \$22.955 billion (8.7% of GSP), and health care and social assistance at \$17.182 billion (6.5% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 529,863 small businesses in the state of Washington. Of the 198,635 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 194,951 or 98.1% were small companies. An estimated 31,955 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 11.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 47,141, up 33.4% from 2003. There were 665 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 9.8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 656 filings per 100,000 people, ranking the state of Washington as the 16th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Washington had a gross state product (GSP) of \$269 billion which accounted for 2.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 14 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Washington had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$35,041. This ranked 13th in the United States and was 106% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.3%. Washington had a total personal income (TPI) of \$217,503,197,000, which ranked 15th in the United States and reflected an increase of 7.9% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.8%. Earnings of persons employed in Washington increased from \$157,846,074,000 in 2003 to \$167,346,671,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.0%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$48,688 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 11.7% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Washington 3,346,700, with approximately 157,700 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.7%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed

nonfarm employment at 2,859,000. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Washington was 12.2% in November 1982. The historical low was 4.6% in March 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 6.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 9.9% in manufacturing; 19% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.5% in financial activities; 11.6% in professional and business services; 11.8% in education and health services; 9.5% in leisure and hospitality services; and 18.4% in government.

Although state and federal authorities suppressed radical labor activities in the mines around the turn of the century, in the logging camps during World War I, and in Seattle in 1919, the impulse to unionize remained strong in Washington. The state's labor force is still one of the most organized in the United States although (in line with national trends) the unions' share of the non-farm work force declined from 45% in 1970 to 34% in 1980.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 523,000 of Washington's 2,746,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 19.1% of those so employed, down slightly from 19.3% in 2004, but still well above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 559,000 workers (20.4%) in Washington were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Washington is one of 28 states that do not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Washington had a state-mandated minimum wage of \$7.63 per hour. As of 1 January 2001, the state's minimum wage rate is required to be annually adjusted for inflation based upon the consumer price index for urban and clerical wage earners for the previous year. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Orchard and field crops dominate Washington's agricultural economy, which yielded nearly \$5.7 billion in farm marketings in 2005, 13th among the 50 states. Fruits and vegetables are raised in the humid and irrigated areas of the state while wheat and other grains grow in the drier central and eastern regions.

Washington is the nation's leading producer of apples. The estimated 2004 crop, representing 58% of the US total, totaled 5.9 million tons. Among leading varieties, delicious apples ranked first, followed by golden delicious and winesap. The state also ranked first in production of hops, red raspberries, pears, and cherries; and second in grapes and apricots. Other preliminary crop figures for 2004 included wheat, 143.5 million bushels, valued at \$518.6 million; potatoes, 93,810,000 hundredweight, \$453.3 million; barley, 17.2 million bushels, \$33.4 million; and corn for grain, 21 million bushels, \$60.9 million. Sugar beets, peaches, and various seed crops are also grown in Washington.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, Washington's farms and ranches had 1.08 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.2 billion. During 2004, the state had approximately 26,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$3.1 million. The state

produced 4.6 million lb (2.1 million kg) of sheep and lambs in 2003, which brought in \$4.7 million in gross income.

Washington dairy farmers had 245,000 milk cows that produced 5.58 billion lb (2.5 billion kg) of milk in 2003. Poultry farmers sold 8.2 million lb (3.7 million kg) of chicken, and produced 1.31 billion eggs, valued at \$70.4 million.

25 FISHING

In 2004, Washington's commercial fish catch was 454.7 million lb (206.7 million kg) valued at approximately \$175 million, representing the fourth largest catch in quantity and the fifth highest in value nationwide. Oyster landings in 2004 amounted to over 9.5 million lb (4.3 million kg), 82% of the Pacific region's total. Most production of farm-raised oysters occurs in Washington although there are some smaller operations in the other Pacific coastal states. The dungeness crab catch reached 14.9 million lb (6.8 million kg), the largest in the nation. The salmon catch was marked as the second largest in the nation with 26.9 million lb (12.3 million kg) valued at \$16.6 million.

Westport, Ilwaco-Chinook, and Bellingham are the major ports. In 2003, there were 67 processing and 146 wholesale plants in the state, with about 4,537 employees. In 2002, the commercial fishing fleet had 329 boats and 695 vessels.

In 2004, 59 trout farms sold 4 million lb (1.8 million kg), valued at nearly \$4 million. In 2004, Washington issued 691,191 fishing licenses. There are ten national fish hatcheries in the state.

26 FORESTRY

Washington's forests, covering 21,300,000 acres (8,620,000 hectares), are an important commercial and recreational resource. Some 17,347,000 acres (7,020,000 hectares) are classified as commercial forestland. The largest federal forests are Wenatchee, Mt. Baker-Snoqualmie, and Okanogan.

Forest production is one of Washington's major manufacturing industries. In 2004, lumber production totaled 5.23 billion board ft (second in the United States), 10.6% of national production.

Restrictions on federal timberlands to protect the Northern spotted owl, which became effective in late 1990, reflect diverse public demands on forest values. The regulations impact Washington's forest industry and forest-based employment due to the sharp decline of federal timber supply. However, this scarcity of timber created by forest preservation practices will enhance the value of the state's timber resource. This will spur the trend toward more efficient wood use and higher value-added products.

Public ownership accounts for about 56% of Washington's forest, with the remaining 44% owned by the forest industry and other private owners. Lumber and plywood, logs for export, various chip products, pulp logs, and shakes and shingles are leading forest commodities. The largest forest industry company is Weyerhaeuser, with headquarters in Tacoma.

Since 1975, more acres have been planted or seeded than have been cut down. Washington's forest-fire control program covers some 12.5 million acres (5.1 million hectares). Leading causes of forest fires in lands under the jurisdiction of the Department of Natural Resources are (in order of frequency) burning debris, lightning, recreation, children, smokers, incendiary logging, and railroad operations.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Washington in 2003 was \$430 million, a decrease from 2002 of about 1.5%. The USGS data ranked the state of Washington as 31st among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, construction sand and gravel, portland cement, crushed stone and diatomite were the state's top nonfuel minerals by value. Collectively, these four commodities accounted for around 95% of all nonfuel mineral output, followed by lime and industrial sand and gravel. Nationally by volume, Washington in 2003, was second (among two states) in the production of olivine, fourth (among four) in diatomite, and seventh in the output of construction sand and gravel.

Preliminary figures for 2003 showed that 42 million metric tons of construction sand and gravel valued at \$218 million were produced, with crushed stone output at 13.4 million metric tons, and with a value of \$79.1 million.

The 2003 data showed no output of gold and silver.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, the state of Washington had 68 electrical power service providers, of which 41 were publicly owned and 18 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, three were investor owned, one was federally operated, one was the owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers, three were energy-only suppliers and one was a delivery-only provider. As of that same year there were 2,895,063 retail customers. Of that total, 1,302,818 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 145,935 customers, while publicly owned providers had 1,446,284 customers. There were nine federal customers, one independent generator or "facility" customer, and 16 energy-only supplier customers. There was no data on the number of delivery-only providers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 27.689 million kW, with total production that same year at 100.094 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 82.1% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 71.756 billion kWh (71.7%), came from hydroelectric facilities, with coal-fired plants in second place at 11.089 billion kWh (11.1%) and nuclear fueled plants in third at 7.614 billion kWh (7.6%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.2% of all power generated, with natural gas fired plants at 7.1%. Petroleum fueled plants and generating facilities using other types of gasses accounted for the remaining output.

As of 2006, Washington had one operating nuclear plant, the single-unit Columbia Generating Station in Benton County.

Washington in 2004, had only one producing coal mine, a surface mining operation. Coal production that year totaled 5,653,000 short tons, down from 6,232,000 short tons in 2003. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons). Almost all of the coal mined in the state was burned to generate electricity.

As of 2005, Washington had five petroleum refineries with combined production of 616,150 barrels per day. However, the state

has no proven reserves or production of crude oil and natural gas.

Washington is one of the beneficiaries of the hydropower system owned by various federal entities and marketed by Bonneville Power Administration. While this results in both low power costs and the lowest power-related air emissions per capita of any state, there are associated responsibilities to ensure protection and preservation of fish.

2⁹ INDUSTRY

The 1990s were Washington's busiest years in terms of technology company start-ups. Software and computer-related businesses accounted for most of the activity but more traditional manufacturing companies were also emerging. Computers, software, and related activities make up the largest single portion of Washington's technology companies although manufacturing of all types is strong in the state.

Washington technology companies cross borders and many are world leaders. Boeing's commercial airplane unit is one of the nation's leading exporters. Microsoft has offices around the world and its products are in use on every continent. However, even small firms benefit from foreign trade and over half of Washington's technology companies are in overseas markets. Aerospace/transportation equipment is the largest industry in Washington state, dominated primarily by Boeing.

The state's biotechnology firms are growing at a phenomenal rate, but many are still in the research and development stage. More than two-thirds are developing products for human health care. Most of the firms not focused on medical treatment are developing products and processes for the state's natural resource sectors: agriculture, food processing, forestry, veterinary medicine, marine industries, and environmental waste cleanup and management.

Washington state is one of the leading film-production states in the United States. Film and video have grown to represent at least a \$100-million-a-year industry. Washington state has thousands of film and video businesses which provide jobs for thousands of state residents. Washington film companies make feature films, television movies, TV series or episodes, TV commercials, documentaries, industrial films, and music videos. Out-of-state producers shoot over 100 film and video projects in Washington annually.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Washington's manufacturing sector covered some 19 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$77.664 billion. Of that total, transportation equipment manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$22.700 billion. It was followed by petroleum and coal products manufacturing at \$9.751 billion; food manufacturing at \$9.539 billion; and computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$7.760 billion.

In 2004, a total of 242,483 people in Washington were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 153,825 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees, with 48,967 (22,164 actual production workers). It

was followed by food manufacturing, with 35,817 (27,614 actual production workers); computer and electronic product manufacturing, with 28,726 (9,116 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing, with 19,101 (14,053 actual production workers); and wood product manufacturing, with 18,796 (15,898 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Washington's manufacturing sector paid \$11.179 billion in wages. Of that amount, the transportation equipment manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.899 billion. It was followed by computer and electronic product manufacturing at \$1.814 billion; food manufacturing at \$1.123 billion; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$743.488 million; and wood product manufacturing at \$691.973 million.

3⁰ COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Washington's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$84.6 billion from 9,670 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 5,731 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 3,080 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 859 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$36.2 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$38.3 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$10.1 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Washington was listed as having 22,564 retail establishments with sales of \$65.2 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (3,091); food and beverage stores (2,982); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,712); clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,434); and gasoline stations (2,104). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$15.5 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$11.1 billion; general merchandise stores at \$10.4 billion; and nonstore retailers at \$5.4 billion. A total of 296,507 people were employed by the retail sector in Washington that year.

In 2005, exports of goods originating from the state had a value of \$37.9 billion, fourth in the United States. The leading exports were aircraft and aircraft parts, machinery, lumber and logs, fish and fish products, grains, motor vehicles and parts, fruits and vegetables, wood pulp, and paper products.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection issues in the state of Washington are primarily the responsibility of the Office of the Attorney General, which enforces the state's 1961 Consumer Protection Act through its Consumer Protection Division. The division investigates consumer complaints and, when necessary, seeks court action in connection with retail sales abuses, unfair automobile sales techniques, false advertising, and other fraudulent or deceptive practices, which can involve the recovery of refunds, costs and penalties. The division also seeks to resolve consumer issues through the notification of businesses of written complaints and through mediation. It also provides information to the public on consumer rights, as well as on fraudulent and predatory business activi-

ties, and issues alerts when illegal or fraudulent practices target consumers.

Consumer protection is also handled by the state's Department of Agriculture which involves food inspection and labeling, sanitary food handling and storage, and accurate weights and measures.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil but not criminal proceedings. The office, through its Public Counsel Unit, appears and represents the public before the state's Utilities and Transportation Commission. The Attorney General's Office also administers consumer protection and education programs, handles formal consumer complaints, and can exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Attorney General's Office has its main location in Olympia, with regional offices in Bellingham, Kennewick, Seattle, Spokane, Tacoma, and Vancouver

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, the state of Washington had 100 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 79 state-chartered and 59 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Seattle-Tacoma-Bellevue market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 78 institutions and \$58.440 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 27.3% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$20.562 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 72.7% or \$54.890 billion in assets held.

The state in 2001/02 was experiencing its worst recession since 1980/81. The weak economy caused demand for commercial property to weaken: office and industrial vacancy rates rose sharply from 2000 to 2003, particularly in the Seattle area. However, low interest rates caused a rise in housing prices. But loan delinquency ratios for commercial real estate (CRE) increased in 2002.

The median return on assets (ROA—the measure of earnings in relation to all resources) among insured banks headquartered in Washington improved in the fourth quarter of 2005 to 1.13% up from 1.05% in 2004 and 1.06% in 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) as of fourth quarter 2005 stood at 4.98%, up from 4.68% in 2004 and 4.59% in 2003.

Regulation of state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions in the state of Washington is the responsibility of the Department of Financial Institutions.

3³ INSURANCE

Washingtonians held over 1.9 million individual life insurance policies with a total face value of about \$235 billion in 2001. Total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$409.8 billion. The average coverage amount is

\$119,000 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$912 million.

As of 2003, there were 26 property and casualty and 12 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$8.3 billion. That year, there were 29,043 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$4.6 billion. About \$44.4 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

The Office of the Insurance Commissioner and State Fire Marshal regulates insurance company operations, reviews insurance policies and rates, and examines and licenses agents, and brokers. It also conducts fire safety inspections in hospitals, nursing homes, and other facilities, investigates fires of suspicious origin, and regulates the manufacture, sale, and public display of fireworks.

In 2004, 54% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 24% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 11% for single coverage and 22% for family coverage. The state does not offer a health benefits expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 4 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$824.46.

3⁴ SECURITIES

The Spokane Stock Exchange (founded 1897), which specialized in mining stocks, ceased operations in 1991. In 2005, there were 2,440 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 4,780 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 194 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 95 NASDAQ companies, 18 NYSE listings, and 3 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had nine Fortune 500 companies; Costco Wholesale in Issaquah (NASDAQ) ranked first in the state and 28th in the nation with revenues of over \$52.9 billion, followed by Microsoft in Redmond (NASDAQ), Weyerhaeuser in Federal Way (NYSE), Washington Mutual in Seattle (NYSE), Paccar in Bellevue (NASDAQ), and Amazon.com in Seattle (NASDAQ).

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Washington's biennial budget is prepared by the Office of Financial Management and submitted by the governor to the legislature for amendment and approval. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$13.8 billion for resources and \$12.7 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Washington were \$9.0 billion

Washington—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	35,085,947	5,652.64
General revenue	25,201,752	4,060.21
Intergovernmental revenue	6,953,519	1,120.27
Taxes	13,895,346	2,238.66
General sales	8,423,160	1,357.04
Selective sales	2,441,440	393.34
License taxes	686,564	110.61
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	—	—
Other taxes	2,344,182	377.67
Current charges	2,887,154	465.14
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,465,733	236.14
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	418,142	67.37
Insurance trust revenue	9,466,053	1,525.06
Total expenditure	32,510,057	5,237.64
Intergovernmental expenditure	6,911,826	1,113.55
Direct expenditure	25,598,231	4,124.09
Current operation	16,051,105	2,585.97
Capital outlay	2,577,797	415.30
Insurance benefits and repayments	5,124,437	825.59
Assistance and subsidies	1,091,294	175.82
Interest on debt	753,598	121.41
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	5,405,207	870.82
Total expenditure	32,510,057	5,237.64
General expenditure	27,010,041	4,351.55
Intergovernmental expenditure	6,911,826	1,113.55
Direct expenditure	20,098,215	3,237.99
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	11,211,187	1,806.22
Public welfare	6,422,900	1,034.78
Hospitals	1,376,974	221.84
Health	1,349,741	217.45
Highways	2,000,672	322.33
Police protection	243,188	39.18
Correction	796,810	128.37
Natural resources	608,622	98.05
Parks and recreation	105,935	17.07
Government administration	617,982	99.56
Interest on general debt	753,598	121.41
Other and unallocable	1,522,432	245.28
Utility expenditure	25,072	4.04
Liquor store expenditure	350,507	56.47
Insurance trust expenditure	5,124,437	825.59
Debt at end of fiscal year	15,773,698	2,541.28
Cash and security holdings	66,903,572	10,778.73

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Washington was slated to receive: \$38.2 million for seismic corrections and improvements to a veterans nursing home facility in American Lake; and \$15 million to deepen the Columbia River Channel.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Washington collected \$14,840 million in tax revenues or \$2,360 per capita, which placed it 17th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 10.7% of the total, sales taxes 61.6%,

selective sales taxes 16.8%, and other taxes 10.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, Washington had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Wyoming, Alaska, Nevada, Florida, Alaska, and South Dakota.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$6.4 billion or \$1,029 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 22nd highest nationally. Local governments collected \$4,859,729,000 of the total and the state government \$1,526,617,000.

Washington taxes retail sales at a rate of 6.50%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2.40%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 8.90%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 202.5 cents per pack, which ranks third among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Washington taxes gasoline at 31 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Washington citizens received \$0.88 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Department of Community, Trade, and Economic Development seeks to promote a healthy state economy and to expand markets for Washington's products. The state has no corporate or personal income tax and no tax on interest, dividends, or capital gains. The department offers a tax credit program for companies that expand or locate in high unemployment areas and issues industrial development bonds with federal tax-exempt status for new capital construction. It extends loans to projects in distressed and timber-dependent areas and offers low interest loans to small and medium-sized Washington State forest products companies. The state helps communities finance infrastructure improvements to retain existing businesses or to attract new companies and provides special services for small and minority-owned enterprises. In an effort to encourage international trade, Washington has created nine foreign trade zones. Washington has foreign offices in China (Guangzhou and Shanghai), Germany, Japan, Mexico, South Korea, and Taiwan. Other initiatives include workshops sponsored by the Small Business Development Center on starting and expanding small businesses in the state.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.1 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 20.3 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 74% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 78% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 7.5 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 183.6; cancer, 178.9; cerebrovascular diseases, 61.8; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 44.8; and diabetes, 24.6. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 2 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 7.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 56.7% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 19.1% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Washington had 85 community hospitals with about 11,200 beds. There were about 516,000 patient admissions that year and 10.3 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 6,800 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,827. Also in 2003, there were about 260 certified nursing facilities in the state with 23,713 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 84.2%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 71% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Washington had 266 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 762 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 4,255 dentists in the state.

In 2005, University of Washington Medical Center in Seattle ranked ninth on the Honor Roll of Best Hospitals 2005 by *U.S. News & World Report*. In the same report, the Children's Hospital and regional Medical Center in Seattle ranked among the top 20 for best pediatric care.

About 19% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 13% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 14% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$7.7 million.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 208,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$310. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 508,472 persons (250,788 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.34 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$539 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Washington's TANF program is called WorkFirst. In 2004, the state program had 137,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$269 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 913,040 Washington residents. This number included 599,710 retired workers, 82,920 widows and widowers, 114,140 disabled workers, 52,750 spouses, and 63,520 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 14.7% of the total state population and 93.2% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$993; widows and widowers, \$964; disabled workers, \$906; and spouses, \$505. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$518 per month; children of deceased workers, \$679; and children of disabled workers, \$288. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 111,895 Washington residents, averaging \$423 a month. An additional \$10,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 20 residents.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 2,606,623 housing units in Washington, 2,416,301 of which were occupied; 64.1% were owner-occupied. About 62.1% of all units were single-family, detached

homes. Electricity was the most common energy source for heating. It was estimated that 84,890 units lacked telephone service, 10,663 lacked complete plumbing, and 15,987 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.51 members.

In 2004, 50,100 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$204,719. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,389. Renters paid a median of \$727 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$15.5 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

4¹ EDUCATION

As of 2004, 89.7% of Washingtonians 25 years of age or older were high school graduates, and 29.9% had four or more years of college.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Washington's public schools stood at 1,015,000. Of these, 697,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 318,000 attended high school. Approximately 71.5% of the students were white, 5.7% were black, 12.3% were Hispanic, 7.9% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 2.7% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 1,011,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 1,057,000 by fall 2014, an increase of 4.1% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$8.98 billion. In fall 2003, there were 78,746 students enrolled in 556 private schools. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Washington scored 285 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 338,820 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 20.1% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Washington had 81 degree-granting institutions including 11 public 4-year institutions, 35 public 2-year institutions, and 21 nonprofit private 4-year institutions. The largest institutions are the University of Washington (Seattle), founded in 1861, and Washington State University (Pullman). Other public institutions include the following: Eastern Washington University (Cheney); Central Washington University (Ellensburg); Western Washington University (Bellingham); and Evergreen State College (Olympia). Private institutions include Gonzaga University (Spokane); Pacific Lutheran University (Tacoma); Seattle University; Seattle Pacific College; University of Puget Sound (Tacoma); Walla Walla College; and Whitworth College (Spokane).

4² ARTS

The Washington State Arts Commission (WSAC) was established in 1961 and is governed by 19 citizens appointed by the governor and 4 legislators. In 2005, WSAC and other Washington arts organizations received 66 grants totaling \$2,077,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts. Humanities Washington was founded in 1973. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$1,194,718 for 17 state programs. Contributions to the arts also come from state and private sources.

The focus of professional performance activities in Washington is Seattle Center, home of the Seattle Children's Theater, Pacific Northwest Ballet Company, and Seattle Repertory Theater.

The Seattle Opera Association (founded 1964), which also performs there throughout the year, is one of the nation's leading opera companies, offering five operas each season and presenting Richard Wagner's "Ring" cycle. Tacoma and Spokane have notable local orchestras.

The Seattle Cherry Blossom and Japanese Cultural Festival has been a popular community event since its inception in 1975. The annual Diwali Festival, also in Seattle, is sponsored in part by the regional Society for the Confluence of Festivals in India (SCFI) and the Washington State Arts Commission. It includes performances of traditional dance, music, and drama, as does the Hmong New Year Celebration, another popular cultural event in Seattle.

Among Washington's many museums, universities, and other organizations exhibiting works of art on a permanent or periodic basis are the Seattle Art Museum, with its Modern Art Pavilion, and the Henry Art Gallery of the University of Washington at Seattle. The Seattle Art Museum was scheduled to unveil its Olympic Sculpture Park—a nine-acre site adjoining the city's Myrtle Edwards Park and designated to showcase sculptures, video projections, temporary installations, and loaned artwork—in fall 2006. The museum was also expected to complete an expansion project for their downtown center in 2007. Others include the Washington State University Museum of Art at Pullman; the Whatcom Museum of History and Art (Bellingham); the Tacoma Art Museum; the State Capital Museum (Olympia); and the Cheney Cowles Memorial Museum of the Eastern Washington State Historical Society (Spokane).

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, the state of Washington had 65 public library systems, with a total of 320 libraries, of which 265 were branches. In that same year, the systems held a combined 17,003,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and had a combined circulation of 56,298,000. The system also had 923,000 audio and 671,000 video items, 30,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 19 bookmobiles. Of Washington's 39 counties, 27 were served by the state's 21 county and multi-county libraries. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$233,162,000 and included \$220,927 from local sources and \$1,489,000 from state sources.

The leading public library system is the Seattle Public Library, with 25 branches and 1,892,067 volumes in 1998. The principal academic libraries are at the University of Washington (Seattle) and Washington State University (Pullman), with 5,820,230 and 1,966,516 volumes, respectively. Olympia is the home of the Washington State Library, with a collection of 339,194 books and more than one million documents.

Washington has 160 museums and historic sites. The Washington State Historical Society Museum (Tacoma) features Native American and other pioneer artifacts; the State Capitol Museum (Olympia) and Cheney Cowles Memorial Museum (Spokane) also have important historical exhibits, as do the Thomas Burke Memorial Washington State Museum (Seattle) and the Pacific Northwest Indian Center (Spokane). Mt. Rainier National Park displays zoological, botanical, geological, and historical collections. The Pacific Science Center (Seattle) concentrates on aerospace technology; the Seattle Aquarium is a leading attraction of Waterfront

Park. Also in Seattle is Woodland Park Zoological Gardens, while Tacoma has the Point Defiance Zoo and Aquarium.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

As of 2004, 95.5% of Washington's households had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 3,567,896 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 71.4% of Washington households had a computer and 62.3% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 1,000,634 high-speed lines in Washington, 900,741 residential and 99,893 for business. During 2005, Washington had 146 major radio stations—51 AM, 95 FM—and 19 major television stations. In 1999, the Seattle-Tacoma area had 1,591,100 television households, 74% of which ordered cable. About 206,961 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005, Washington had 15 morning newspapers, 8 evening dailies, and 17 Sunday papers.

The following table shows the leading newspapers with their approximate 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Seattle	<i>Post-Intelligencer</i> (m,S)	145,964	462,920*
	<i>Times</i> (m,S)	231,051	462,920*
Spokane	<i>Spokesman-Review</i> (m,S)	120,785	129,607
Tacoma	<i>News Tribune</i> (m,S)	127,928	142,876

*Sunday edition is a combination of *Post-Intelligencer* and *Times*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 5,550 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 3,902 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

Professional and business associations with headquarters in Washington include the APA-The Engineered Wood Association, the Center for the Defense of Free Enterprise, the Northwest Mining Association, Northwest Fisheries Association, the Northwest Horticultural Council, and Hop Growers of America. There are several local art, cultural, and historical societies.

The Citizens Committee for the Right to Keep and Bear Arms is based in Bellevue. The International Association for the Study of Pain is based in Seattle. The national offices of the Freedom Socialist Party are based in Seattle.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Seattle Center—featuring the 605-ft (184-m) Space Needle tower, Opera House, and Pacific Science Center—helps make Washington's largest city one of the most exciting on the West Coast. Nevertheless, scenic beauty and opportunities for outdoor recreation are Washington's principal attractions for tourists from out of the state. Although Washington state was only settled in the mid-19th century, there are over 11,000 documented archaeological sites. There are caves, petroglyphs and the burial site of the 9,300 year old Kennewick Man.

Mt. Rainier National Park, covering 235,404 acres (95,265 hectares), encompasses not only the state's highest peak but also the most extensive glacial system in the conterminous United States. Glaciers, lakes, and mountain peaks are also featured at North Cascades National Park (504,780 acres/204,278 hectares), while

Olympic National Park (908,720 acres/367,747 hectares) is famous as the site of Mt. Olympus and for its dense rain forest and rare elk herds. Deception Pass is another popular park. Washington also offers two national historic parks (San Juan Island and part of Klondike Gold Rush), two national historic sites (Fort Vancouver and the Whitman Mission), and three national recreation areas (Coulee Dam, Lake Chelan, and Ross Lake). Washington state has areas of high desert, rain forests, mountains, and rivers. There are over 120 state parks.

Tourism is the fourth-largest industry in Washington state, after aerospace/transportation equipment, agriculture, and timber. Travelers pumped more than \$11.2 billion into the economy in 2003 on overnight and day trips in Washington. The industry supplies over 126,800 jobs in the state annually. Washington has been consistently ranked among the nation's top 10 tourist destination states and attracts a significant proportion of the nation's international visitors.

48 SPORTS

Washington is home to four major professional sports teams, all of which play in Seattle. The Mariners of Major League Baseball (MLB); the Seahawks of the National Football League (NFL); the Storm of the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA); and the Supersonics of the National Basketball Association (NBA). The Supersonics won the NBA Championship in 1979. The Storm won the WNBA Championship in 2004. The Mariners reached the American League Championship Series in 1995. In collegiate sports, the Huskies of the University of Washington won the Rose Bowl in 1960, 1961, 1978, 1982, and 1992. Skiing, boating, and hiking are popular participant sports.

Other annual sporting events include outboard hydroplane races in Electric City in June and the Ellensburg Rodeo in September.

49 FAMOUS WASHINGTONIANS

Washington's most distinguished public figure was US Supreme Court Justice William O. Douglas (b.Minnesota, 1898–1980), who grew up in Yakima and attended Whitman College in Walla Walla. In addition to his 37-year tenure on the Court, an all-time high, Douglas was the author of numerous legal casebooks as well as 27 other volumes on various subjects. Other federal officeholders from Washington include Lewis B. Schwellenbach (b.Wisconsin, 1894–1948), secretary of labor under Harry Truman, and Brockman Adams (b.Georgia, 1927–2004), secretary of transportation under Jimmy Carter. Serving in the US Senate from 1945 to 1981), Warren G. Magnuson (Minnesota, 1905–89) held the chairmanship of the powerful Appropriations Committee. A fellow Democrat, Henry M. "Scoop" Jackson (1912–83) was first elected to the House in 1940 and to the Senate in 1952. Influential on the Armed Services Committee, Jackson ran unsuccessfully for his party's presidential nomination in 1976. William E. Boeing (b.Michigan, 1881–1956) pioneered Washington's largest single industry, aerospace technology.

Notable governors include Isaac I. Stevens (b.Massachusetts, 1818–62), Washington's first territorial governor; after serving as Washington's territorial representative to Congress, he died in the Civil War. Elisha P. Ferry (b.Michigan, 1825–95), territorial governor from 1872 to 1880, was elected as Washington's first state governor in 1889. John R. Rogers (b.Maine, 1838–1901), Washington's

only Populist governor, was also the first to be elected for a second term. Clarence D. Martin (1886–1955) was governor during the critical New Deal period. Daniel J. Evans (b.1925) is the youngest man ever elected governor of Washington and also is the only one to have served three consecutive terms (1965–77).

Dixy Lee Ray (1914–93), governor from 1977 to 1981 and the only woman governor in the state's history, was a former head of the federal Atomic Energy Commission and a staunch advocate of nuclear power. Other notable women were Emma Smith DeVoe (b.New Jersey, 1848–1927), a leading proponent of equal suffrage, and Bertha Knight Landes (b.Massachusetts, 1868–1943), elected mayor of Seattle in 1926; Landes, the first woman to be elected mayor of a large US city, was also an outspoken advocate of moral reform in municipal government.

Thomas Stephen Foley, former Speaker of the House, was born on 6 March 1929 in Spokane.

Several Washington Indians attained national prominence. Seattle (1786–1866) was the first signer of the Treaty of Point Elliott, which established two Indian reservations; the city of Seattle is named for him. Kamiakin (b.Idaho, c.1800–80) was the leader of the Yakima tribe during the Indian Wars of 1855, and Leschi (d.1858) was chief of the Nisqualli Indians and commanded the forces west of the Cascades during the 1855 uprising; Leschi was executed by the territorial government after the uprising was suppressed.

Washington authors have made substantial contributions to American literature. Mary McCarthy (1912–1989) was born in Seattle, and one of her books, *Memories of a Catholic Girlhood* (1957), describes her early life there. University of Washington professor Vernon Louis Parrington (b.Illinois, 1871–1929) was the first Washingtonian to win a Pulitzer Prize (1928), for his monumental *Main Currents in American Thought*. Another University of Washington faculty member, Theodore Roethke (b.Michigan, 1908–63), won the Pulitzer Prize for poetry in 1953. Seattle-born Audrey May Wurdemann (1911–60) was awarded a Pulitzer Prize for poetry in 1934 for *Bright Ambush*. Max Brand (Frederick Schiller Faust, 1892–1944) wrote hundreds of Western novels. Norman Ramsey (b.Washington, 1915) 1989 Nobel Prize recipient for physics. Hans Georg Dehmelt (b.Germany, 1922) was a recipient of the 1989 Nobel Prize for physics as a member at the University of Washington. George Herbert Hitchings, Nobel Prize winner in medicine 1988, was born April 18, 1905 in Hoquiam, Washington.

Singer-actor Harry Lillis "Bing" Crosby (1904–77), born in Tacoma, remained a loyal alumnus of Spokane's Gonzaga University. Modern dance choreographers Merce Cunningham (b.1919) and Robert Joffrey (1930–88) are both Washington natives. Photographer Edward S. Curtis (b.Wisconsin, 1868–1952) did most of the work on the North American Indian series while residing in Seattle. Modern artists Mark Tobey (b.Wisconsin, 1890–1976) spent much of his productive life in Seattle, and Robert Motherwell (1915–91) was born in Aberdeen. Washington's major contribution to popular music is rock guitarist Jimi Hendrix (1943–70).

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WEST VIRGINIA

State of West Virginia

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: The state was originally the western part of Virginia. **NICKNAME:** The Mountain State. **CAPITAL:** Charleston. **ENTERED UNION:** 20 June 1863 (35th). **SONG:** “The West Virginia Hills;” “West Virginia, My Home Sweet Home;” “This Is My West Virginia.” **MOTTO:** *Montani semper liberi* (Mountaineers are always free). **COAT OF ARMS:** A farmer stands to the right and a miner to the left of a large ivy-draped rock bearing the date of the state’s admission to the Union. In front of the rock are two hunters’ rifles upon which rests a Cap of Liberty. The state motto is beneath and the words “State of West Virginia” above. **FLAG:** The flag has a white field bordered by a strip of blue, with the coat of arms in the center, wreathed by rhododendron leaves; across the top of the coat of arms are the words “State of West Virginia.” **OFFICIAL SEAL:** The same as the coat of arms. **BIRD:** Cardinal. **FISH:** Brook trout. **FLOWER:** Rhododendron. **TREE:** Sugar maple. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; West Virginia Day, 20 June; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November and the day following; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern United States, in the South Atlantic region, West Virginia ranks 41st in size among the 50 states.

The area of West Virginia totals 24,231 sq mi (62,758 sq km), including 24,119 sq mi (62,468 sq km) of land and 112 sq mi (290 sq km) of inland water. The state extends 265 mi (426 km) E–W; its maximum N–S extension is 237 mi (381 km). West Virginia is one of the most irregularly shaped states in the United States, with two panhandles of land—the northern, narrower one separating parts of Ohio and Pennsylvania, and the eastern panhandle separating parts of Maryland and Virginia.

West Virginia is bordered on the N by Ohio (with the line formed by the Ohio River), Pennsylvania, and Maryland (with most of the line defined by the Potomac River); on the E and S by Virginia; and on the W by Kentucky and Ohio (with the line following the Ohio, Big Sandy, and Tug Fork rivers).

The total boundary length of West Virginia is 1,180 mi (1,899 km). The geographical center of the state is in the Elk River Public Hunting Area in Braxton County, 4 mi (6 km) E of Sutton.

² TOPOGRAPHY

West Virginia lies within two divisions of the Appalachian Highlands. Most of the eastern panhandle, which is crossed by the Allegheny Mountains, is in the Ridge and Valley region. The remainder, or more than two-thirds of the state, is part of the Allegheny Plateau, to the west of a bold escarpment known as the Allegheny Front, and tilts toward the Ohio River.

The mean elevation of West Virginia is 1,500 ft (458 m), higher than any other state east of the Mississippi River. Its highest point, Spruce Knob, towers 4,861 ft (1,483 m) above sea level. Major lowlands lie along the rivers, especially the Potomac, Ohio, and

Kanawha. A point on the Potomac River near Harpers Ferry has the lowest elevation, only 240 ft (73 m) above sea level. West Virginia has no natural lakes.

Most of the eastern panhandle drains into the Potomac River. The Ohio and its tributaries—the Monongahela, Little Kanawha, Kanawha, Guyandotte, and Big Sandy—drain most of the Allegheny Plateau section. Subterranean streams have carved out numerous caverns—including Seneca Caverns, Smoke Hole Caverns, and Organ Cave—from limestone beds.

During the Paleozoic era, when West Virginia was under water, a 30,000-ft (9,000-m) layer of rock streaked with rich coal deposits was laid down over much of the state. Alternately worn down and uplifted during succeeding eras, most of West Virginia is thus a plateau where rivers have carved deep valleys and gorges and given the land a rugged character.

³ CLIMATE

West Virginia has a humid continental climate, with hot summers and cool to cold winters. The climate of the eastern panhandle is influenced by its proximity to the Atlantic slope and is similar to that of nearby coastal areas. Mean annual temperatures vary from 56°F (13°C) in the southwest to 48°F (9°C) at higher elevations. The yearly average is 53°F (12°C). The highest recorded temperature, 112°F (44°C), was at Martinsburg on 10 July 1936; the lowest, -37°F (-38°C), at Lewisburg on 30 December 1917.

Prevailing winds are from the south and west, and seldom reach hurricane or tornado force. In Charleston, average annual precipitation is about 42.9 in (108 cm) and is slightly heavier on the western slopes of the Alleghenies. Accumulations of snow may vary from about 20 in (51 cm) in the western sections to more than 50 in (127 cm) in the higher mountains.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

With its varied topography and climate, West Virginia provides a natural habitat for more than 3,200 species of plants in three life zones: Canadian, Alleghenian, and Carolinian. Oak, maple, poplar, walnut, hickory, birch, and such softwoods as hemlock, pine, and spruce are the common forest trees. Rhododendron, laurel, dogwood, redbud, and pussy willow are among the more than 200 flowering trees and shrubs. Rare plant species include the box huckleberry, Guyandotte beauty, and Kate's mountain clover. The Cranberry Glades, an ancient lake bed similar to a glacial bog, contains the bog rosemary and other plant species common in more northern climates. In April 2006, six plant species were listed as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including shale barren rock-cress, harperella, northeastern bulrush, running buffalo clover, Virginia spirea, and small whorled pogonia.

West Virginia fauna includes at least 56 species and subspecies of mammals and more than 300 types of birds. The gray wolf, puma, elk, and bison of early times have disappeared. The white-tailed (Virginia) deer and the black bear (both protected by the state) as well as the wildcat are still found in the deep timber of the Allegheny ridges; raccoons, skunks, woodchucks, opossums, gray and red foxes, squirrels, and cottontail rabbits remain numerous. Common birds include the cardinal, tufted titmouse, brown thrasher, scarlet tanager, catbird, and a diversity of sparrows, woodpeckers, swallows, and warblers. Major game birds are the wild turkey, bobwhite quail, and ruffed grouse; hawks and owls are the most common birds of prey. Notable among more than 100 species of fish are smallmouth bass, rainbow trout, and brook trout (the state fish). The copperhead and rattlesnake are both numerous and poisonous. In April 2006, 13 animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered in West Virginia, including the bald eagle, three species (gray, Indiana, and Virginia big-eared) of bat, fanshell, flat-spined three-toothed snail, and the Cheat Mountain salamander.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Major responsibility for environmental protection in West Virginia rests with the Division of Environmental Protection (DEP). The DEP was established in October 1991 and became West Virginia's leading environmental agency in July 1992, with the consolidation of the state's major environmental regulatory programs. Today, the DEP is responsible for the oversight of the state's Abandoned Mine Lands, Air Quality, Mining and Reclamation, Oil and Gas, Waste Management, and Water Resources programs. A new DEP program is the Office of Environmental Advocate. The office was created to improve public access and input into DEP functioning.

Environmental issues confronting the state of West Virginia include the restoration of about 2,000 mi (3,218 km) of streams that are being impacted by acid mine damage. To combat the problem, the state has created a Stream Restoration program, which is using a variety of treatment methods, including limestone drum technology, to improve water quality. The first treatment station is under construction in the Blackwater River watershed, with plans to construct a second station in the Middlefork River watershed. The state is in the midst of an initiative that focuses on better planning

and management of West Virginia's five major watersheds. In 1996, less than 1% of West Virginia's land was designated wetlands.

The proper disposal of solid waste had been addressed through requirements for landfills to meet environmental safety standards by the end of 1994 or face closure. West Virginia also mandates that cities with populations of 10,000 or more develop recycling programs. In 2003, 102.2 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, West Virginia had 154 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, nine of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Allegheny Ballistics Laboratory of the US Navy. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$1.3 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$2 million for projects involving water quality protection and control through nonpoint source program management.

6 POPULATION

West Virginia ranked 37th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 1,816,856 in 2005, an increase of 0.5% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, West Virginia's population grew from 1,793,477 to 1,808,344, an increase of 0.8%. The population is projected to decline to 1.76 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 75.4 persons per sq mi.

In 2004 the median age was 40.3, compared to the US average of 36.2. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 21.2% of the population (the national average was 25%) while 15.3% was age 65 or older (national average 12.4%).

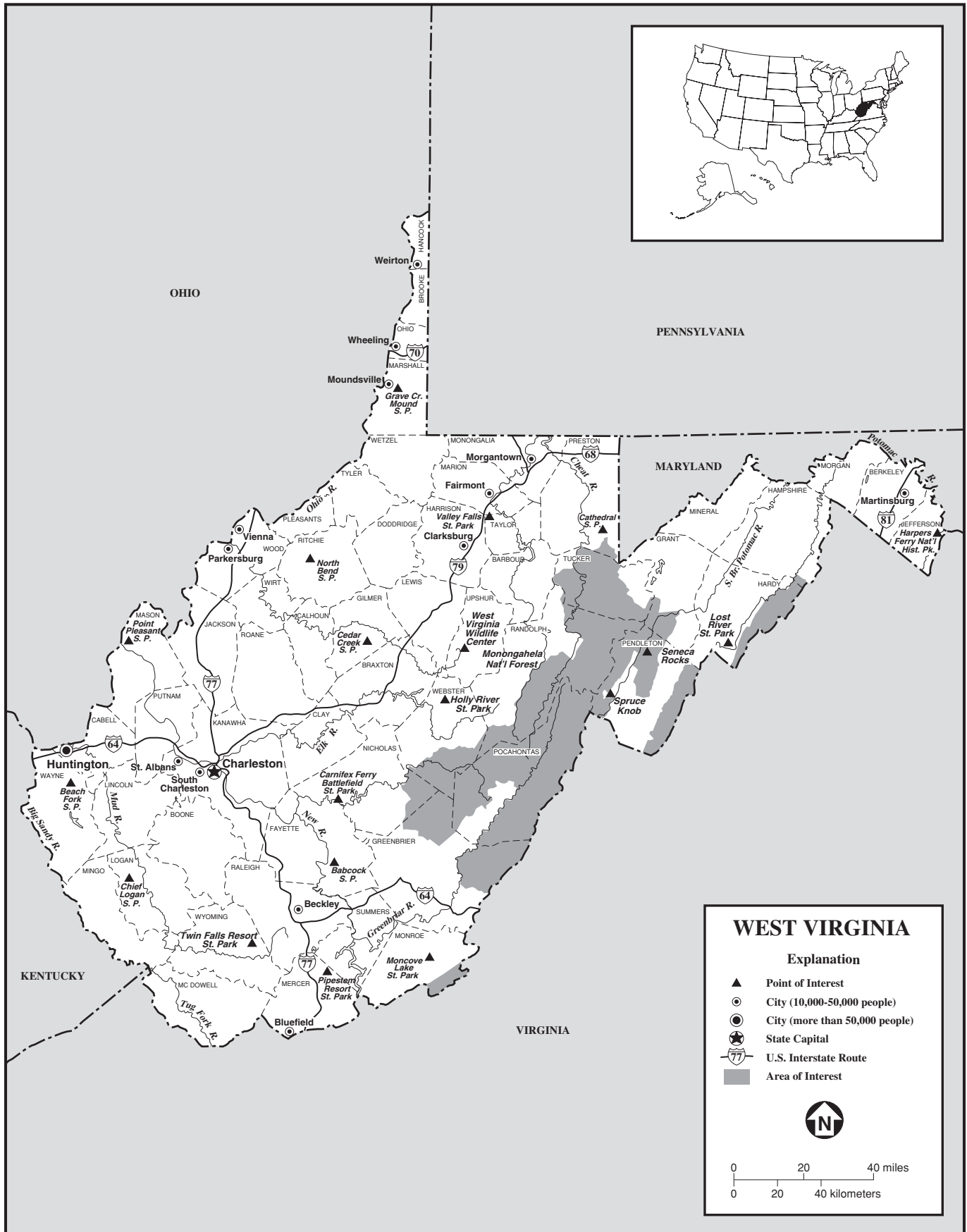
The state's population grew rapidly in the 1880s and 1890s, as coal mining, lumbering, and railroads expanded to meet the needs of nearby industrial centers, but the pace of expansion slowed in the early 20th century. The population peaked at 2,005,552 in 1950; then mass unemployment, particularly in the coal industry, caused thousands of families to migrate to Midwestern cities. An upswing began in the 1970s.

West Virginia's major cities all have populations of less than 100,000. However, the Charleston metropolitan area had an estimated 2004 population of 307,763. The Huntington-Ashland metropolitan region, which includes parts of eastern Kentucky and southern Ohio, had an estimated population of 287,038 the same year.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Nearly all Indian inhabitants had left the state before the arrival of European settlers. In the 2000 census, about 3,606 Indians were counted. In 2004, 0.2% of the population was American Indian.

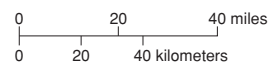
The 57,232 blacks in the state in 2000 constituted about 3.2% of the population. That percentage remained unchanged in 2004. The majority lived in industrial centers and coal-mining areas. Only 19,390 West Virginians, or 1.1% of the population, were foreign born in 2000. In 2000, there were 12,279 Hispanics and Latinos, representing 0.7% of the total population. In 2004, Hispanics or Latinos accounted for 0.8% of the total population. In 2000, there were 9,434 persons of Asian origin. In 2004, 0.6% of the population was Asian. In 2004, 0.8% of the population reported origin of two or more races. Persons reporting at least one specific an-



WEST VIRGINIA

Explanation

- ▲ Point of Interest
- City (10,000-50,000 people)
- City (more than 50,000 people)
- ★ State Capital
- ⦿ U.S. Interstate Route
- Area of Interest



cestry group in 2000 included 176,297 English, 253,388 Germans, 198,473 Irish, and 37,837 Dutch.

8 LANGUAGES

With little foreign immigration and with no effect from the original Iroquois and Cherokee Indians, West Virginia maintains Midland speech. There is a secondary contrast between the northern half and the southern half, with the former influenced by Pennsylvania and the latter by western Virginia.

The basic Midland speech sounds the /r/ after a vowel as in *far* and *short*, and has /kag/ for *keg*, /greezy/ for *greasy*, *sofy* instead of *sofa*, and *nicker* in place of *neigh*. The northern part has /yelk/ for *yolk*, /loom/ for *loam*, an /ai/ diphthong so stretched that *sat* and *sight* sound very much alike, *run* for *creek*, and *teeter*(*totter*) for *seesaw*. The southern half pronounces *here* and *hear* as /hyeer/, *aunt* and *can't* as /aint/ and /kaint/, and uses *branch* for *creek*, and *tinter* for *teeter*.

In 2000, 1,661,036 West Virginians—97.3% of the population five years of age or over (virtually unchanged since 1990)—spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category “Other Indic languages” includes Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, and Romany. The category “Other Asian languages” includes Dravidian languages, Malayalam, Telugu, Tamil, and Turkish.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	1,706,931	100.0
Speak only English	1,661,036	97.3
Speak a language other than English	45,895	2.7
Speak a language other than English	45,895	2.7
Spanish or Spanish Creole	17,652	1.0
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	5,693	0.3
German	5,040	0.3
Italian	2,815	0.2
Chinese	1,634	0.1
Arabic	1,563	0.1
Japanese	1,135	0.1
Tagalog	970	0.1
Greek	912	0.1
Other Indic languages	806	0.0
Other Asian languages	784	0.0
Polish	763	0.0
Korean	581	0.0

9 RELIGIONS

Throughout its history, the religiously active population in West Virginia has been overwhelmingly Protestant. Most settlers before the American Revolution were Anglicans, Presbyterians, Quakers, or members of German sects, such as Lutherans, German Reformed, Dunkers, and Mennonites. The Great Awakening had a profound effect on these settlers and they avidly embraced its evangelism, emotionalism, and emphasis on personal religious experience. Catholics were mostly immigrants from Ireland and southern and eastern Europe.

The major Protestant denominations and the number of their adherents (in 2000 except as indicated) include the American Baptist Churches USA, 108,087; the United Methodist Church, 105,879 (in 2004); the Southern Baptist Convention, 43,606; and the Presbyterian Church USA, 28,467. In 2002, the Southern Bap-

tist Convention reported 967 newly baptized members in the state. Other fundamentalist denominations included the Churches of Christ, 24,143; the Church of God (Cleveland, Tennessee), 21,657; and the Church of the Nazarene, 21,389. In 2004, there were about 100,648 Roman Catholics in the state. In 2000, there were an estimated 2,400 Jews and 1,528 Muslims. Over 1.1 million people (about 64% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

10 TRANSPORTATION

West Virginia has long been plagued by inadequate transportation. The first major pre-Civil War railroad line was the Baltimore and Ohio (B&O), completed to Wheeling in 1852. Later railroads, mostly built between 1880 and 1917 to tap rich coal and timber resources, also helped open up interior regions to settlement. Today, the railroads still play an important part in coal transportation. In 2003, CSX and Norfolk Southern were the state's Class I operators. In the same year, total rail mileage was 2,489 mi (4,007 km). Coal was the top commodity carried by rail that terminated and originated within the state that year. As of 2006, Amtrak provided east-west passenger service (Washington DC to Chicago) to 10 communities in the state.

In 2004, there were 37,011 mi (59,587 km) of public roads under the state system. The West Virginia Turnpike was completed from Charleston to Princeton in 1955. There were some 1.3 million registered motor vehicles in the state in 2003 and 1,292,036 licensed drivers in 2004.

Major navigable inland rivers are the Ohio, Kanawha, and Monongahela. Each has locks and dams. West Virginia is home to the Port of Huntington-Tristate, the largest inland river port in the United States. Located on the Ohio River, the port handled 77.307 million tons of cargo in 2004, making it the eighth-busiest port in the United States. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 73.326 million tons. In 2004, West Virginia had 682 mi (1,098 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, West Virginia had a total of 126 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 75 airports, 40 heliports, 1 STOLport (Short Take-Off and Landing), and 10 seaplane bases. Yeager Airport in Charleston is the state's main air terminal. In 2004, the airport had 292,054 passenger enplanements.

11 HISTORY

Paleo-Indian cultures in what is now West Virginia existed some 15,000 years ago, when hunters pursued buffalo and other large game. About 7000 BC, they were supplanted by Archaic cultures, marked by pursuit of smaller game. Woodland (Adena) cultures, characterized by mound-building and agriculture, prevailed after about 1000 BC.

By the 1640s, the principal Indian claimants, the Iroquois and Cherokee, had driven out older inhabitants and made the region a vast buffer land. When European settlers arrived only a few Shawnee, Tuscarora, and Delaware Indian villages remained, but the area was still actively used as hunting and warring grounds, and European possession was hotly contested.

The fur trade stimulated early exploration. In 1671, Thomas Batts and Robert Fallam explored New River and gave England a claim to the Ohio Valley, to which most of West Virginia belongs.

France also claimed the Ohio Valley by virtue of an alleged visit by Robert Cavalier, Sieur de la Salle, in 1669. England eventually prevailed as a result of the French and Indian War.

Unsubstantiated tradition credits Morgan Morgan, who moved to Bunker Hill in 1731, with the first settlement in the state. By 1750, several thousand settlers were living in the eastern panhandle. In 1769, following treaties with the Iroquois and Cherokee, settlers began to occupy the Greenbrier, Monongahela, and upper Ohio valleys, and movement into other interior sections continued into the Revolutionary War, although wars with Indians occurred sporadically until the 1790s. The area that is now West Virginia was part of Virginia at the time of that state's entry into the Union, 25 June 1788.

Serious differences between eastern and western Virginia developed after the War of 1812. Eastern Virginia was dominated by a slaveholding aristocracy, while small diversified farms and infant industries predominated in western Virginia. Westerners bristled under property qualifications for voting, inadequate representation in the Virginia legislature, and undemocratic county governments, as well as poor transportation, inadequate schools, inequitable taxes, and economic retardation. A constitutional convention in 1829–30 failed to effect changes, leaving the westerners embittered. Another convention in 1850–51 met the west's political demands but exacerbated economic differences.

When Virginia seceded from the Union in 1861, western counties remaining loyal to the Union set up the Reorganized Government and consented to the separation of present-day West Virginia from Virginia. After approval by Congress and President Lincoln, West Virginia entered the Union on 20 June 1863 as the 35th state. West Virginia won control over Jefferson and Berkeley counties in the eastern panhandle in 1871, giving it a greater share of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad lines in the state.

Both Bourbon Democratic and Republican governors after the Civil War sought to improve transportation, foster immigration, and provide tax structures attractive to business. Industrialists such as Democrats Henry Gassaway Davis and Johnson N. Camden, who amassed fortunes in coal, oil, railroads, and timber, sat in the US Senate and dominated party affairs in West Virginia. Similarly, industrialists Nathan Goff Jr., and Stephen B. Elkins—Davis's son-in-law—wielded preponderant influence in the Republican Party from the 1870s until 1911. Native industrialists often collaborated with eastern interests to give the state a colonial economy dominated by absentee owners. Although Republican governors of the early 20th century were dominated by Elkins, they were attuned to Progressive ideas and were instrumental in the adoption of the direct primary, safety legislation for the coal mines, revision of corporate tax laws, and improvements in highways and education.

The Great Depression of the 1930s, from which West Virginia suffered acutely, ushered in a Democratic era. West Virginians embraced the New Deal and Fair Deal philosophies of presidents Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman.

World Wars I and II produced significant changes in West Virginia, particularly through stimulation of chemical, steel, and textile industries in the Kanawha and Ohio valleys and the eastern panhandle. These industries lessened the state's dependence on extractive industries, historically the backbone of its economy, and gave cities and towns a more cosmopolitan character.

Overshadowing the economic diversification was the plight of the coal-mining areas, where, after World War II, mechanization and strip-mining displaced thousands of miners and resulted in a large exodus to other states. By 1960, West Virginia was considered one of the most economically depressed areas of the country, primarily because of conditions in the mining regions. The anti-poverty programs of the Kennedy and Johnson administrations provided some relief, but much of it was temporary, as was a brief upsurge in coal mining during the late 1970s.

Over the last several decades, West Virginia's manufacturing and mining sectors have shrunk dramatically. Automation, foreign competition, and the recession of the early 1980s caused employment in steel, glass, and chemical manufacturing and in coal mining to drop by a third between 1979 and 1985, when the state had the highest rate of unemployment in the nation.

West Virginia's economy improved in the 1990s. Coal and timber production expanded, and trade and tourism were boosted by the completion of Interstate Highway 64 in 1988. The state won a number of federal projects (including the FBI's fingerprint identification division), aided by the tenure of Democrat Robert C. Byrd as chairman of the US Senate Appropriations Committee from 1988 to 1995 and from 2001 to 2003. Byrd remained ranking member on the committee as of 2005.

In 2003, Democratic governor Bob Wise called for a special session of the legislature to prevent the state Workers' Compensation Fund from going bankrupt. The system provides medical care and cash benefits for workers injured on the job. Democrat Joe Manchin III was elected the state's governor in November 2004 after Wise decided not to run for reelection. Manchin's election marked the first time two persons of the same political party have followed one another in the governor's office since 1964.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Since becoming a state, West Virginia has had two constitutions. The first, adopted in 1863, served until 1872, when the present constitution was adopted. As of January 2005, 71 amendments to this constitution had become law.

The legislature consists of a Senate with 34 members and a house of delegates with 100 members. Senators and delegates must be at least 25 and 18 years old, respectively. All legislators must be qualified voters, state citizens, and residents of their districts for at least one year before taking their seats. In addition, delegates must have been US citizens for at least one year, and a one-year resident of the state. Senators must be US citizens for at least five years, and five-year residents of their state. Senators are elected to staggered four-year terms, and delegates serve for two years. The legislature meets annually in 60-day sessions, beginning in January. Special sessions may be called by a petition signed by three-fifths of the members of each house. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$15,000, unchanged from 1999.

Elected officials of the executive branch of government are the governor, secretary of state, auditor, attorney general, commissioner of agriculture, and treasurer, all elected for four-year terms. The governor, who may serve no more than two terms in succession, must be at least 30 years old, a registered voter, a citizen of the state for at least five years, and a resident for at least one. His

successor is the president of the Senate (there is no lieutenant governor). As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$90,000.

Bills passed by the legislature become law when signed by the governor or left unsigned for five days when the legislature is in session (or 15 days after it has adjourned). Bills vetoed by the governor become law if passed again by a majority of the elected members of each house. Either house may propose an amendment to the state constitution. If both houses approve it by a two-thirds majority, it is submitted to the voters at the next regular election or at a special election for adoption by majority vote.

Voters in West Virginia must live in the state, be US citizens, and at least 18 years old. Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court as mentally incompetent to vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republican Party presided over the birth of West Virginia, but the Democrats have generally been in power for the past five decades. In 1940, a strong New Deal faction, headed by Matthew M. Neely and supported by organized labor, formed the "state-house machine," which became a dominant factor in state politics. Only two Republicans, Cecil H. Underwood (1957–61, 1997–2001) and Arch Moore Jr. (1969–77, 1985–89), have been governor since 1933. Underwood was elected in 1996, having vacated the office 35 years earlier. Democrat Bob Wise unseated Underwood in 2000. Underwood did not seek a second term; in 2004 Democrat Joe Manchin III was elected.

Democratic senator Robert C. Byrd, first elected in 1958, was reelected to his eighth term in 2000. Democratic senator John D. "Jay" Rockefeller IV, first elected in 1984, was reelected to his fourth term in 2002. Following the 2004 elections, West Virginia sent two Democrats and one Republican to the US House of Representatives. As of mid-2005, Democrats controlled both the state House and state Senate. There were 21 Democrats and 13 Republicans in the state Senate, and 68 Democrats and 32 Republicans in the state House.

Republican presidential candidates carried West Virginia in 1956, 1972, 1984, 2000, and 2004. In 2000, Republican George W. Bush received 52% of the popular vote to Democrat Al Gore's 46%; Green Party candidate Ralph Nader garnered 2% of the vote. In 2004, Bush again won the state, with 56% of the vote to Democrat John Kerry's 43%. In 2004 there were 1,169,000 registered voters. In 1998, 63% of registered voters were Democratic, 29% Republican, and 8% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had five electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

As of 2005, West Virginia had 55 counties, 234 municipal governments, 55 school districts, and 342 special districts. The chief county officials are the three commissioners, elected for six-year terms, who serve on the county court; the sheriff, assessor, county clerk, and prosecuting attorney, elected for four-year terms; and the five-member board of education, elected for six-year terms. The sheriff is the principal peace officer but also collects taxes and disburses funds of the county court and board of education. The cities, towns, and villages are divided into classes according to population. They are run by mayor and council or by council and city manager.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 60,712 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in West Virginia operates under the authority of the governor; the public safety director/secretary was designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Department of Education determines policy for public elementary and secondary schools, and the West Virginia Higher Education Policy Commission governs the state's colleges and universities. The Department of Transportation is responsible for construction and operation of state roads. Services of the Department of Health and Human Resources center around treatment of alcoholism and drug abuse, mental health, environmental health services, maternal and child care, family planning, and control of communicable diseases, along with a variety of economic, medical, and social services.

In the area of public protection, the Department of Public Safety enforces criminal and traffic laws, the Division of Homeland Security and Emergency Management oversees civil defense and other emergency activities, and the Department of Corrections oversees prisons and other such facilities. The Public Service Commission regulates utilities. The Housing Development Fund concentrates on housing for low- and middle-income families and the elderly. The Department of Environmental Protection has the major responsibility for protection of forests, wildlife, water, and other resources, for reclamation projects, and for operation of state parks and recreational facilities.

Responsibility in labor matters is shared by the Division of Labor, Bureau of Employment Programs, Office of Miners' Health, Safety, and Training, and BrickStreet (workers' compensation plan).

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	W. VA. WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	8	*Truman (D)	429,188	316,251
1952	8	Stevenson (D)	453,578	419,970
1956	8	*Eisenhower (R)	381,534	449,297
1960	8	*Kennedy (D)	441,786	395,995
1964	7	*Johnson (D)	538,087	253,953
1968	7	Humphrey (D)	374,091	307,555
1972	6	*Nixon (R)	277,435	484,964
1976	6	*Carter (D)	435,914	314,760
1980	6	Carter (D)	367,462	334,206
1984	6	*Reagan (R)	328,125	405,483
1988	6	Dukakis (D)	341,016	310,065
1992**	5	*Clinton (D)	331,001	241,974
1996**	5	*Clinton (D)	327,812	233,946
2000	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	295,497	336,475
2004	5	*Bush, G. W. (R)	326,541	423,778

*Won US presidential election.
 **IND. candidate Ross Perot received 108,829 votes in 1992 and 71,639 in 1996.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The highest court in West Virginia, the Supreme Court of Appeals, has five justices, including the chief justice, elected for 12-year terms. The court has broad discretionary appellate jurisdiction in both civil and criminal cases, and original jurisdiction in certain other cases.

West Virginia's general trial court is the circuit court, with 156 judges in 1999. Each circuit serves from one to four counties and has jurisdiction over civil cases in amounts that exceed \$300 and criminal cases. Circuit courts also have jurisdiction over juveniles, domestic relations, and certain administrative appeals. Family law specialists conduct most domestic relations hearings.

Local courts include the county magistrate and municipal courts. Magistrate courts have original jurisdiction in criminal matters but may not convict or sentence in felony cases. All judges down to the magistrate level are popularly elected by partisan ballot. Municipal, police, or mayor's courts have authority to enforce municipal ordinances. Unlike other courts, these are not part of the unified court system. Appeals from municipal and magistrate courts are to circuit courts, and from circuit courts are to the supreme court.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 5,067 prisoners were held in West Virginia's state and federal prisons, an increase from 4,758 of 2.5% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 4,589 inmates were female, up from 405 or 13.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), West Virginia had an incarceration rate of 277 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, West Virginia in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 271.2 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 4,924 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 45,497 reported incidents or 2,506.2 reported incidents per 100,000 people. West Virginia abolished its death penalty in 1965.

In 2003, West Virginia spent \$76,290,914 on homeland security, an average of \$41 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 503 active duty military personnel and 1,810 civilian personnel stationed in West Virginia. The state has no military bases, academies, or training facilities. The Naval Telecommunications Station, Sugar Grove, operated by the National Security Agency is the main receiving facility for the Navy's global high-frequency radio communications and for point-to-point circuits destined for Washington, DC, and has been mentioned as a site that intercepts all international communications entering the Eastern United States.

In 2004, defense contracts awarded West Virginia totaled about \$279 million, and defense payroll outlays were \$410 million.

In 2003, there were 188,101 veteran living in West Virginia, of whom 27,900 served in World War II; 23,322 in the Korean conflict; 59,857 in the Vietnam era; and 24,626 in the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$747 million in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the West Virginia State Police employed 649 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

West Virginia has considerable national and ethnic diversity. Settlers before the Civil War consisted principally of English, German, Scotch-Irish, and Welsh immigrants, many of whom came by way of Pennsylvania. A second wave of immigration from the 1880s to the 1920s brought thousands of Italians, Poles, Austrians, and Hungarians to the coal mines and industrial towns, which also attracted many blacks from the South. In 1980, 79% of the residents of the state were born in West Virginia (fourth highest among states).

Between 1950 and 1970, West Virginia suffered a 13% loss in population, chiefly from the coal-mining areas; but between 1970 and 1980, population rose by almost 12%. According to federal estimates, the state had a net migration gain of 71,000 in the 1970s and a net migration loss of about 81,000 in the 1980s. Between 1990 and 1998, West Virginia had net gains of 8,000 in domestic migration and 3,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 375 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased by 1%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 3,691 and net internal migration was 10,518, for a net gain of 14,209 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The West Virginia Commission on Interstate Cooperation participates in the Council of State Governments. West Virginia is a member of some 30 regional compacts, including the Ohio River Valley Water Sanitation and Potomac River Basin compacts, Interstate Mining Compact Commission, Wheeling Creek Watershed Protection and Flood Prevention Commission, Ohio River Basin Commission, Appalachian Regional Commission, Jennings Randolph Lake Project Compact, Southern Regional Education Board, Southern States Energy Board, and Southern Governors' Association. In fiscal year 2005, federal grants to West Virginia totaled \$2.960 billion, an estimated \$2.861 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$3.045 billion in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

Agriculture was the backbone of West Virginia's economy until the 1890s, when extractive industries (including coal, oil, natural gas, and timber) began to play a major role. World War I stimulated important secondary industries, such as chemicals, steel, glass, and textiles. The beauty of West Virginia's mountains and forests attracted an increasing number of tourists in the 1990s, but the state's rugged topography and relative isolation from major markets continued to hamper its economic development. West Virginia did not participate substantially in the high-tech boom of the 1990s, and the long-term decline of its critical coal mining sector continued. From 1997 to 2000, output from the general services and retail trade sectors grew 19% and 13.6%, respectively, while coal mining declined 17.6%, trends that meant the loss of coal mining jobs paying more than \$53,000 a year and the increase in service jobs paying \$14,000 to \$24,000 annually. Output from the manufacturing sector fell at the same rate as mining output

(17.6%) from 1997 to 2000, although from a high base (\$6.5 billion in 1997 vs. \$2.4 billion from coal mining). Overall growth was sluggish in the late 1990s, reaching 3.8% in 1999 (up from 1.9% in 1998), but falling to 0.1% in 2000. In 2001, growth actually improved to 3.5%, including a 13.8% jump in output from coal mining. However, by 2002, the national economic slowdown had begun to impact West Virginia's employment, and by October 2002, there was a year-on-year losses in jobs in every state economic sector except services and government (a sector that grew 24.5% 1997 to 2001). The overall decline in employment was 0.7%, ahead of the national average of 0.4%.

In 2004, West Virginia's gross state product (GSP) was \$49.454 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) accounted for the largest share at \$5.469 billion or 11% of GSP, followed by health care and social assistance at \$4.757 billion (9.6% of GSP), and the real estate sector at \$4.598 billion (9.2% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 119,806 small businesses in West Virginia. Of the 36,830 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 35,621 or 96.7% were small companies. An estimated 3,937 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, down 4.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 5,136, down 7.5% from 2003. There were 247 business bankruptcies in 2004, down 14.8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 600 filings per 100,000 people, ranking West Virginia 20th in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 West Virginia had a gross state product (GSP) of \$54 billion which accounted for 0.4% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 41 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 West Virginia had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$25,792. This ranked 50th in the United States and was 78% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.1%. West Virginia had a total personal income (TPI) of \$46,749,648,000, which ranked 39th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.3% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.1%. Earnings of persons employed in West Virginia increased from \$29,740,318,000 in 2003 to \$31,612,176,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.3%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$32,589 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 16.1% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in West Virginia 813,700, with approximately 33,600 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.1%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 754,200. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment

rate recorded in West Virginia was 18.2% in March 1983. The historical low was 3.8% in January 2006. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 5.1% of the labor force was employed in construction; 8.1% in manufacturing; 18.6% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 4% in financial activities; 7.8% in professional and business services; 15.3% in education and health services; 9.3% in leisure and hospitality services; and 19% in government.

Important milestones in the growth of unionism were the organization of the state as District 17 of the United Mine Workers of America (UMWA) in 1890 and the formation of the State Federation of Labor in 1903. The coal miners fought to gain union recognition by coal companies, and instances of violence were not uncommon in the early 1900s. Wages, working conditions, and benefits for miners improved rapidly after World War II. Membership in unions in 1980 was 222,000, or 34% of the work force, compared to 47% in 1970, an indication of the UMWA's waning strength.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 99,000 of West Virginia's 688,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 14.4% of those so employed, up from 14.2% in 2004, and above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 107,000 workers (15.5%) in West Virginia were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. West Virginia is one of 28 states that does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, West Virginia had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour, which was applied to those employers with six or more employees at any one location. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.7% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

With estimated farm marketings of \$429 million (\$348 million from livestock and poultry), West Virginia ranked 46th among the 50 states in 2005. Poultry, meat animals, and dairy dominate the farm economy in the Mountain State.

Until about 1890 small, diversified farms were dominant, but, as in other states, farms have grown larger and the farm population has dropped. In 2004, the state had 3,600,000 acres (1,457,000 hectares), or 23% of its land, devoted to farming. Its 20,800 farms averaged 173 acres (70 hectares) in size. Major farm sections are the eastern panhandle, a tier of counties along the Virginia border, the upper Monongahela Valley, and the Ohio Valley. Leading crops produced in 2004 were hay, 1,062,000 tons; corn for grain, 3,799,000 bushels; corn for silage, 306,000 tons; commercial apples, 86,000,000 lb; and tobacco, 1,690,000 lb.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2005, there were an estimated 405,000 cattle and calves, valued at \$315.9 million. During 2004, the state had 10,000 hogs and pigs, valued at around \$1.1 million. During 2003, poultry farmers produced 357 million lb (162 million kg) of broilers valued at \$121.5 million, and 92 million lb of turkey, valued at \$33.1 million. The dairy industry yielded 222 million lb (101 million kg) of milk and 270 million eggs.

25 FISHING

West Virginia fishing has little commercial importance. In 2004, there were 34 trout farms, selling 378,000 lb (172,000 kg) of fish. In 2004, the state issued 269,727 sport fishing licenses. The White Sulphur Springs National Fish Hatchery is located within the state. There are two state hatcheries.

26 FORESTRY

In 2004, West Virginia had four-fifths, or 12.1 million acres (4.9 million hectares), of its land area in forestland and, of this, 11.9 million acres (4.8 million hectares) are classified as timberland.

Despite increasing production of wood and paper products, West Virginia's total softwood and hardwood inventory has more than doubled since 1953. Sawtimber volumes average 6,500 board feet per acre. About 92% of West Virginia forest species are hardwoods, with approximately 77% of the timberland being of the oak-hickory forest type. In all, West Virginia's forests contain more than 100 species of trees.

During the early 1900s, West Virginia became a lumbering giant. From 1908 to 1911, some 1,500 mills produced up to 1.5 billion board ft of lumber annually to feed the nation's needs. By 1920, the state was first in the production of cherry and chestnut lumber and 13th in total production. After the extensive logging and resulting debris came forest fires which devastated the remaining forest resource and caused extensive soil erosion. In the early 1930s, a cooperative fire prevention program was initiated in the state and later in the early 1950s, an educational and forestry technical assistance program was created to help forest landowners manage and protect their forests. The maturing forests of West Virginia languished in their contribution to the state's economy until the 1980s when annual production, which had averaged around 350 to 450 million board ft per year, began to increase significantly.

Production increased to 600 million board ft in 1988, and 701 million board ft by 2004, with over 300 mills and manufacturing facilities. Employment in the forest industry is second only to the chemical and primary metal manufacturing industries. However, it is estimated that growth still exceeded removals by a ratio of 1.34 to 1.

The state is encouraging the professional management of its forests so they will continue to produce a sustained array of benefits, such as wood products, jobs, clean water, oxygen, scenery, and diverse recreational opportunities like hunting, hiking, and tourism.

27 MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by West Virginia in 2003 was \$168 million, which was only a marginal increase over 2002.

According to preliminary USGS data for 2003, crushed stone was the state's top nonfuel mineral by value, accounting for about 39% of all nonfuel mineral output, and was followed by cement (portland and masonry), industrial sand and gravel, lime and salt. Collectively, these five commodities accounted for around 95% of

all nonfuel mineral output, by value. By volume, West Virginia in 2003 was the nation's ninth leading producer of salt.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed crushed stone production as totaling 14.8 million metric tons, with a value of \$65.9 million, while construction sand and gravel that year at 1.6 million metric tons, with a value of \$8 million.

All of West Virginia's mines in 2003 produced either coal or industrial minerals. No metals were mined in the state. Although raw steel and primary aluminum were produced in that year, materials were acquired from other states or foreign sources. West Virginia ranked 11th out of 12 primary aluminum producing states.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

West Virginia has long been an important supplier of energy in the form of electric power and fossil fuels. As of 2003, West Virginia had 17 electrical power service providers, of which two were publicly owned and three were cooperatives. Of the remainder, 11 were investor owned, and one was the owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 974,510 retail customers. Of that total, 961,675 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 9,318 customers, while publicly owned providers had 3,516 customers. There was only one independent generator or "facility" customer.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 16.124 million kW, with total production that same year at 94.711 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 67.6% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 92.468 billion kWh (97.6%), came from coal-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 1.356 billion kWh (1.4%). Other renewable power sources, petroleum and natural gas fired plants, and plants using other types of gases accounted for the remaining output.

Major coal-mining regions lie within a north-south belt some 60 mi (97 km) wide through the central part of the state and include the Fairmount, New River-Kanawha, Pocahontas, and Logan-Mingo fields. West Virginia in 2004, had 261 producing coal mines, 109 of which were surface mines and 152 were underground. Coal production that year totaled 147,993,000 short tons, up from 139,711,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, underground mines accounted for the largest share of production at 90,932,000 short tons. In 2004, West Virginia's output of coal was exceeded only by Wyoming. Recoverable coal reserves that year totaled 1.51 billion short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

As of 2004, West Virginia had proven crude oil reserves of 11 million barrels, or under 1% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 4,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked 25th (24th excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and 26th (25th excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 West Virginia had 6,037 producing oil wells and accounted for less than 1% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's sole

refinery had a crude oil distillation capacity of 19,400 barrels per day.

In 2004, West Virginia had 47,117 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 187.723 billion cu ft (5.33 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven reserves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 3,306 billion cu ft (93.89 billion cu m).

29 INDUSTRY

Major industrial areas are the Kanawha, Ohio, and Monongahela valleys and the eastern panhandle. The largest industrial corporations with headquarters in West Virginia are Weirton Steel and Wheeling-Pittsburgh. Other major industrial companies with operations in West Virginia include E. I. du Pont de Nemours, Union Carbide, Ravenswood Aluminum, and Rhone Poulenc.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, West Virginia's manufacturing sector covered some 14 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$20.578 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$6.325 billion. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing at \$3.379 billion; transportation equipment manufacturing at \$2.538 billion; wood product manufacturing at \$1.795 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$1.662 billion.

In 2004, a total of 63,094 people in West Virginia were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 47,549 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the chemical manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees at 10,101, with 6,121 actual production workers. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing at 9,081 employees (7,110 actual production workers); wood product manufacturing at 8,782 employees (7,692 actual production workers); fabricated metal product manufacturing at 6,520 employees (5,157 actual production workers); and food manufacturing with 4,433 employees (3,105 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that West Virginia's manufacturing sector paid \$2.651 billion in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$648.063 million. It was followed by primary metal manufacturing at \$535.129 million; wood product manufacturing at \$251.845 million; fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$226.838 million; and transportation equipment manufacturing at \$203.334 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, West Virginia's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$10.9 billion from 1,699 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 1,162 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 486 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 50 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$5.1 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods

saw sales of \$5.3 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$426.5 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, West Virginia was listed as having 7,454 retail establishments with sales of \$16.7 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: gasoline stations (1,212); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (1,010); food and beverage stores (873); miscellaneous store retailers (863); and clothing and clothing accessories stores (646). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$4.2 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$3.1 billion; food and beverage stores at \$2.1 billion; and gasoline stations at \$2.06 billion. A total of 89,340 people were employed by the retail sector in West Virginia that year.

In 2005, exports of goods originating from the state had a value of \$3.1 billion.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The state Attorney General Office's, Division of Consumer Protection and Antitrust, is empowered to investigate, arbitrate, and litigate complaints by consumers alleging unfair and deceptive trade practices, and violations of the West Virginia Consumer Credit and Protection Act, the West Virginia Antitrust Act, and the Preneed Funeral Contracts Act. There are five assistant attorneys general assigned to defend these laws.

The Public Service Commission, consisting of three members, regulates rates, charges, and services of utilities and common carriers. Since 1977, it has included one member who is supposed to represent the "average" wage earner.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil but not criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; and represent counties, cities and other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law. However, the Office cannot initiate criminal proceedings over antitrust actions.

The office of the Consumer Protection Division of the Office of the Attorney General is located in Charleston.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, West Virginia had 71 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 7 state-chartered and 110 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, as of 2004, the Charleston market area ranked first for its portion of financial institution deposits in the state with \$4.404 billion and second in the number of financial institutions. The Huntington-Ashland market area in that same year was first in the number of financial institutions at 25, and was second by the volume of deposits at \$3.566 billion. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 9.8% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$2.234 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks col-

lectively accounted for the remaining 90.2% or \$20.560 billion in assets held.

The state's insured banks median return on assets (ROA) ratio (the measure of earnings in relation to all resources) was unchanged in 2005 compared to 2004, at 0.96%, but up from 0.92% for 2003. The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) stood at 4.30% in fourth quarter 2005, up from 4.23% for all of 2004 and 4.12% for all of 2003.

West Virginia—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	11,633,343	6,416.63
General revenue	9,638,139	5,316.13
Intergovernmental revenue	3,306,193	1,823.60
Taxes	3,749,013	2,067.85
General sales	1,021,365	563.36
Selective sales	1,071,888	591.22
License taxes	179,107	98.79
Individual income tax	1,068,212	589.20
Corporate income tax	181,515	100.12
Other taxes	226,926	125.17
Current charges	1,343,207	740.88
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,239,726	683.80
Utility revenue	330	.18
Liquor store revenue	59,803	32.99
Insurance trust revenue	1,935,071	1,067.33
Total expenditure	9,879,217	5,449.10
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,942,069	1,071.19
Direct expenditure	7,937,148	4,377.91
Current operation	5,574,720	3,074.86
Capital outlay	746,595	411.80
Insurance benefits and repayments	1,257,883	693.81
Assistance and subsidies	167,482	92.38
Interest on debt	190,468	105.06
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	1,343,106	740.82
Total expenditure	9,879,217	5,449.10
General expenditure	8,555,271	4,718.85
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,942,069	1,071.19
Direct expenditure	6,613,202	3,647.66
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	2,939,679	1,621.44
Public welfare	2,294,466	1,265.56
Hospitals	72,782	40.14
Health	287,709	158.69
Highways	948,901	523.39
Police protection	58,552	32.30
Correction	182,906	100.89
Natural resources	185,025	102.05
Parks and recreation	56,547	31.19
Government administration	444,431	245.14
Interest on general debt	190,468	105.06
Other and unallocable	893,805	493.00
Utility expenditure	14,800	8.16
Liquor store expenditure	51,263	28.28
Insurance trust expenditure	1,257,883	693.81
Debt at end of fiscal year	4,745,387	2,617.42
Cash and security holdings	12,389,391	6,833.64

Abbreviations and symbols: – zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Regulation of West Virginia's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the West Virginia Division of Banking.

33 INSURANCE

As of 2003, there were four property and casualty companies and one life and health insurance company domiciled in the state. In 2003, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$2.3 billion. That year, there were 21,424 flood insurance policies in force in the state, at a total value of \$1.8 billion. About \$47 million of coverage was held through FAIR plans, which are designed to offer coverage for some natural circumstances, such as wind and hail, in high risk areas.

In 2004, there were about 1.1 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of \$43.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was \$80.3 billion. The average coverage amount is \$39,600 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$308.2 million.

In 2004, 47% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 3% held individual policies, and 32% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 17% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 14% for single coverage and 17% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 1.2 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$20,000 per individual and \$40,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000 and uninsured motorist coverage. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$841.95.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in West Virginia. In 2005, there were 220 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 390 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 21 publicly traded companies within the state, with over eight NASDAQ companies and three AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had one Fortune 1,000 company; Wheeling Pittsburgh, based in Wheeling and listed on NASDAQ, ranked 943rd in the nation with revenues of over \$1.5 billion.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The state constitution requires the governor to submit to the legislature within 10 days after the opening of a regular legislative session a budget for the ensuing fiscal year (FY) which runs 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$3.9 billion for resources and \$3.8 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to West Virginia were \$3.7 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, West Virginia was slated to receive \$35 million to build a Department of Veterans Affairs data center in Martinsburg.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, West Virginia collected \$4,301 million in tax revenues or \$2,367 per capita, which placed it 16th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.1% of the total, sales taxes 25.5%, selective sales taxes 24.6%, individual income taxes 27.2%, corporate income taxes 10.8%, and other taxes 11.8%.

As of 1 January 2006, West Virginia had five individual income tax brackets ranging from 3.0% to 6.5%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 9.0%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$979,034,000 or \$540 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 44th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$975,664,000 of the total and the state government \$3,370,000.

West Virginia taxes retail sales at a rate of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable. The tax on cigarettes is 55 cents per pack, which ranks 35th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. West Virginia taxes gasoline at 27 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, West Virginia citizens received \$1.83 in federal spending, which ranks West Virginia third-highest nationally.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The West Virginia Development Office supports business and industry in the state and assists new companies with site location and employee training programs as well as with the construction of plants and access roads and the provision of essential services. The West Virginia Economic Development Authority may make loans of up to 45% of the costs of land, buildings, and equipment at low interest rates for a normal term of 15 years. Tax incentives include a credit of 10% on industrial expansion and revitalization, applicable to the business and occupations tax over a 10-year period. The Development Office helps small business by investing in venture capital companies and by offering loans for venture capital purposes. In 2006, West Virginia has trade offices in Munich, Germany and Nagoya, Japan. Workforce development has been one important focus for economic development in the state.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 8.2 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 11.5 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 6.8 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 85.8% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 87% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 of 11.8 deaths per 1,000 population was the highest rate in the nation. West Virginia also had the highest mortality rates in the nation for heart disease, cancer, chronic lower respiratory diseases and diabetes. As of 2002, the

death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 343.5; cancer, 258.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 69.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 68.2; and diabetes, 47. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.1 per 100,000 population, the second-lowest rate in the nation after Iowa. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 5.1 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 61.2% of the population was considered overweight or obese, representing the highest percentage in the nation. As of 2004, about 26.9% of state residents were smokers, representing the second-highest percentage in the nation, after Kentucky.

In 2003, West Virginia had 57 community hospitals with about 7,800 beds. There were about 296,000 patient admissions that year and 5.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 4,800 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$993. Also in 2003, there were about 136 certified nursing facilities in the state with 11,152 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 89.3%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 62.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. West Virginia had 254 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 861 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 844 dentists in the state.

Medical education is provided by medical schools at West Virginia University and Marshall University and at the West Virginia School of Osteopathic Medicine.

About 20% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003. In 2004, 19% were enrolled in Medicare programs; this percentage was the highest in the nation. Approximately 17% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$2.2 million.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Although rich in natural resources, West Virginia is a generally poor state. In 2004, about 44,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$219. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 262,442 persons (114,038 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$81.94 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$258 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. West Virginia's TANF program is called West Virginia Works. In 2004, the state program had 36,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$88 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 407,460 West Virginians. This number included 205,770 retired workers, 54,610 widows and widowers, 76,340 disabled workers, 31,890 spouses, and 38,850 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 22.6% of the total state population and 92.2% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$943; widows and widowers, \$858; disabled

workers, \$936; and spouses, \$443. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$447 per month; children of deceased workers, \$616; and children of disabled workers, \$268. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 75,982 West Virginia residents, averaging \$401 a month.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, West Virginia had an estimated 866,944 housing units, 736,954 of which were occupied; 74% were owner-occupied (the third-highest percentage of owner-occupied units in the nation, following Minnesota and Michigan). About 70.2% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 16% were mobile homes. Utility gas and electricity were the most common energy sources for heating. It was estimated that 44,343 units lacked telephone service, 3,995 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 4,267 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.40 members.

In 2004, 5,700 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$81,826, one of the lowest in the country. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$769, representing the lowest rate in the country. Renters paid a median of \$461 per month, which was also the lowest rate in the nation. In September 2005, the state received grants of \$400,000 from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) for rural housing and economic development programs. For 2006, HUD allocated to the state over \$17 million in community development block grants.

41 EDUCATION

In 2004, 80.9% of adult West Virginians were high school graduates, below the national average of 84%. Only 15.3% had completed four or more years of college, also well below the national average of 26%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in West Virginia's public schools stood at 282,000. Of these, 197,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 82,000 attended high school. Approximately 94.1% of the students were white, 4.6% were black, 0.5% were Hispanic, 0.6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.1% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 279,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 255,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 9.8% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$2.6 billion. There were 14,397 students enrolled in 166 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in West Virginia scored 269 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 93,723 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 7.2% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 West Virginia had 40 degree-granting institutions including 12 public 4-year schools, 6 public 2-year schools and 10 nonprofit private 4-year schools. The state supports West Virginia University, Marshall University, and the West Virginia College of Graduate Studies (all offering graduate work), as well as three medical schools.

42 ARTS

The West Virginia Commission on the Arts was established in 1967 and is part of the West Virginia Division of Culture and History. In 2005, the commission and other West Virginia arts organizations received eight grants totaling \$637,900 from the National Endowment for the Arts. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$578,176 for six state programs. Contributions to the arts also come from state and private sources.

West Virginia is known for the quilts, pottery, and woodwork of its mountain artisans. The Huntington Museum of Art, the Avampato Discovery Museum at the Clay Center (formerly the Sunrise Museum), and Oglebay Park in Wheeling are major art centers. The Avampato Discovery Museum was initially accredited by the American Association of Museums (AAM) in 1976 and has maintained that status as of 2003. The museum features both art and science exhibits and, since their relocation in July 2004 to the Clay Center, the museum has hosted almost 300,000 guests.

Other musical attractions include the West Virginia Symphony Orchestra in Charleston, the Charleston Ballet, Charleston Light Opera Guild, the Wheeling Symphony, and a country music program at Wheeling. The Charleston Stage Company and the Children's Theater of Charleston are also popular. As of 2005, the Charleston Light Opera Guild (founded in 1949) has produced over 150 musical theater shows. The Mountain State Art and Craft Fair is held each summer at Ripley. FestivALL Charleston began in 2005 and was designed to become an annual celebration of the arts.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, West Virginia had 97 public library systems, with a total of 177 libraries, of which there were 80 branches. In that same year, the systems had a combined 4,920,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a combined circulation of 7,868,000. The system also had 151,000 audio and 126,000 video items, 11,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and seven bookmobiles. The largest was the Kanawha County Public Library system at Charleston, with 628,308 volumes. Of college and university libraries, the largest collection was at West Virginia University. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$26,844,000 and included \$336,000 from federal sources and \$8,302,000 from state sources.

There were 51 museums in 2000, including the State Museum and the Sunrise Museum in Charleston, and Oglebay Institute-Mansion Museum in Wheeling. Point Pleasant marks the site of a battle between colonists and Indians, and Harpers Ferry is the site of John Brown's raid. Wheeling is the location of the Oglebay's Good Children's Zoo.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 93.2% of West Virginian homes had telephones. Additionally, by June of that same year there were 713,657 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 55.0% of West Virginia households had a computer and 47.6% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 178,242 high-speed lines in West Virginia, 166,454 residential and 11,788 for business. In 2005, broadcasting facilities included 9 major AM and 46 major FM radio stations,

and 13 major television stations. Approximately 13,062 Internet domain names were registered in the state as of 2000.

45 PRESS

In 2005 West Virginia had 20 daily newspapers and 12 Sunday newspapers.

The following table shows leading West Virginia newspapers with their approximate 2002 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Charleston	<i>Gazette</i> (m,S)	68,975	84,676*
	<i>Daily Mail</i> (e,S)	68,975	84,676*
Huntington	<i>Herald-Dispatch</i> (m,S)	29,323	35,492
Wheeling	<i>Intelligencer/News Register</i> (m,e,S)	33,644	39,696

*The Sunday edition is a combination of the *Gazette* and the *Daily Mail*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 2,300 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 1,421 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

The West Virginia Coal Association is one of several statewide labor, business, and professional associations. The Black Lung Association promotes safe working conditions in coalmines and benefits for disabled miners. The Appalachian Studies Association is based in Huntington. The Hereditary Order of the Families of the Presidents and First Ladies of America, based in Sutton, was established in 2003. There are city and county historical societies throughout the state. Some counties also sponsor arts councils. The Cacapon Institute and the Ohio Valley Environmental Coalition are regional environmental conservation organizations. The headquarters of the Appalachian Trail Conference is in Harpers Ferry and the American Association of Zoological Parks and Aquariums is in Oglebay.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, tourists spent \$3.4 billion on visits to the state; in 2002, almost 23.9 million travelers visited West Virginia, representing an increase of 8.5% from 2000, with some 14.19 million visitors making day trips. Travel spending has increased every year since 2000. Tourism supports an estimated 41,000 jobs and generates \$766 million in state taxes. About 250,000 whitewater rafting enthusiasts raft West Virginia waters each year, and more than 750,000 skiers venture down the slopes of the Appalachian Mountains.

Major attractions are Harpers Ferry National Historical Park, New River Gorge National River, the Naval Telecommunications Station at Sugar Grove, and White Sulphur Springs, a popular mountain golfing resort. Mountaineer casinos, with over 3,200 slot machines, attract many visitors also.

Nearly 80% of the state is covered by forest. Among the 37 state parks and state forests are Cass Scenic Railroad, which includes a restoration of an old logging line, and Prickett's Fort, with recreations of pioneer life.

48 SPORTS

No major professional teams are based in West Virginia, but there are minor league baseball teams in Charleston, Bluefield, and Princeton, and there is minor league hockey in Wheeling. West

Virginia University's basketball team won a National Invitation Tournament championship in 1942 and was National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I runner-up in 1959. In football, West Virginia produced a string of national contenders in the late 1980s and early 1990s. West Virginia won the Peach Bowl in 1981 and played for the national championship in the 1989 Fiesta Bowl, which they lost to Notre Dame. Marshall University has also risen to the elite among college football teams, having secured a string of several Mid-American Conference champions and having won five straight bowl game appearances from 1998 to 2002.

Horse-racing tracks operate in Chester and Charles Town. Greyhound races are run in Wheeling and Charleston. Other popular sports are skiing and white-water rafting.

Professional athletes born in West Virginia include George Brett, Mary Lou Retton, and Jerry West.

49 FAMOUS WEST VIRGINIANS

Among West Virginians who have served in presidential cabinets are Nathan Goff Jr. (1843–1920), navy secretary; William L. Wilson (1843–1900), postmaster general; John Barton Payne (1855–1935), interior secretary; and Newton D. Baker (1871–1937), secretary of war during World War I. Lewis L. Strauss (1896–1974) was commerce secretary and chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission, and Cyrus R. Vance (1917–2002) served as secretary of state. John W. Davis (1873–1955), an ambassador to Great Britain, ran as the Democratic presidential nominee in 1924. Prominent members of the US Senate have included Matthew M. Neely (1874–1958), who was also governor, Harley M. Kilgore (1893–1956), and Robert C. Byrd (b.1917).

Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson (1824–63) was a leading Confederate general during the Civil War. Brigadier General Charles E. "Chuck" Yeager (b.1923), a World War II ace, became the first person to fly faster than the speed of sound.

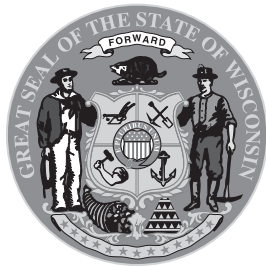
Major state political leaders, all governors (though some have held federal offices), have been E. Willis Wilson (1844–1905), Henry D. Hatfield (1875–1962), Arch A. Moore Jr. (b.1923), and John D. "Jay" Rockefeller IV (b.New York, 1937).

The state's only Nobel Prize winner has been Pearl S. Buck (Pearl Sydenstricker, 1893–1973), who won the Nobel Prize for literature for her novels concerning China. Alexander Campbell (b.Ireland, 1788–1866), with his father, founded the Disciples of Christ Church and was president of Bethany College in West Virginia. Major labor leaders have included Walter Reuther (1907–70), president of the United Automobile Workers, and Arnold Miller (1923–85), president of the United Mine Workers.

Musicians include George Crumb (b.1929), a Pulitzer Prize-winning composer, and opera singers Eleanor Steber (1916–90) and Phyllis Curtin (b.1922). Melville Davisson Post (1871–1930) was a leading writer of mystery stories. Important writers of the modern period include Mary Lee Settle (1918–2005) and John Knowles (1926–2001). Jerry West (b.1938) was a collegiate and professional basketball star, and a pro coach after his playing days ended; Rod Hundley (b.1934) and Hal Greer (b.1936) also starred in the National Basketball Association. Mary Lou Retton (b.1968) won a gold medal in gymnastics at the 1984 Olympics. Another West Virginian of note is Anna Jarvis (1864–1948), founder of Mother's Day.

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WISCONSIN

State of Wisconsin



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Probably from the Ojibwa word *wishkonsing*, meaning “place of the beaver.”
NICKNAME: The Badger State. **CAPITAL:** Madison. **ENTERED UNION:** 29 May 1848 (30th). **SONG:** “On, Wisconsin!” **MOTTO:** Forward. **COAT OF ARMS:** Surrounding the US shield is the shield of Wisconsin, which is divided into four parts symbolizing agriculture, mining, navigation, and manufacturing. Flanking the shield are a sailor, representing labor on water; and a yeoman or miner, representing labor on land. Above is a badger and the state motto; below, a horn of plenty and a pyramid of pig lead. **FLAG:** A dark-blue field, fringed in yellow on three sides, surrounds the state coat of arms on each side, with “Wisconsin” in white letters above the coat of arms and ‘1848’ below. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Coat of arms surrounded by the words “Great Seal of the State of Wisconsin” and 13 stars below. **BIRD:** Robin. **FISH:** Muskellunge. **FLOWER:** Wood violet. **TREE:** Sugar maple. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Primary Day, 2nd Tuesday in September in even-numbered years; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, 2nd Tuesday in November in even-numbered years; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 6 AM CST = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the eastern north-central United States, Wisconsin ranks 26th in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Wisconsin is 56,153 sq mi (145,436 sq km), of which 54,426 sq mi (140,963 sq km) is land and 1,727 sq mi is (4,473 sq km) inland water. The state extends 295 mi (475 km) E–W and 320 mi (515 km) N–S.

Wisconsin is bordered on the N by Lake Superior and the state of Michigan (with the northeastern boundary formed by the Menominee River); on the E by Lake Michigan; on the S by Illinois; and on the W by Iowa and Minnesota (with the line defined mainly by the Mississippi and St. Croix rivers).

Important islands belonging to Wisconsin are the Apostle Islands in Lake Superior, and Washington Island in Lake Michigan. The state’s boundaries have a total length of 1,379 mi (2,219 km). Wisconsin’s geographic center is in Wood County, 9 mi (14 km) SE of Marshfield.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Wisconsin can be divided into four main geographical regions, each covering roughly one-quarter of the state’s land area. The most highly elevated of these is the Superior Upland, below Lake Superior and the border with Michigan. It has heavily forested rolling hills but no high mountains. Elevations range from about 700 ft (200 m) to slightly under 2,000 ft (600 m). A second upland region, called the Driftless Area, has a more rugged terrain, having been largely untouched by the glacial drifts that smoothed out topographical features in other parts of the state. Elevations here reach more than 1,200 ft (400 m). The third region is a large, crescent-shaped plain in central Wisconsin; its unglaciated portion is a sandstone plain, broken by rock formations that from a distance appear similar to the buttes and mesas of Colorado. Finally, in the

east and southeast along Lake Michigan lies a large, glaciated lowland plain, fairly smooth in the Green Bay-Winnebago area but more irregular on the Door Peninsula and in the south.

Wisconsin’s mean altitude is 1,050 ft (320 m), with elevations generally higher in the north. The Gogebic Range, extending westward from Michigan’s Upper Peninsula into northern Wisconsin, was an important center of iron mining in the early days of statehood. Timms Hill, in north-central Wisconsin, is the state’s highest point, at 1,951 ft (595 m). The lowest elevation is 579 ft (177 m), along the Lake Michigan shoreline.

There are well over 8,000 lakes in Wisconsin. Lakes Michigan and Superior form part of the northern and eastern borders; the Wisconsin mainland has at least 575 mi (925 km) of lakeshore and holds jurisdiction over 10,062 sq mi (26,061 sq km) of lake waters. By far, the largest inland lake is Lake Winnebago, in eastern Wisconsin, covering an area of 215 sq mi (557 sq km).

The Mississippi River, which forms part of the border with Minnesota and the entire border with Iowa, is the main navigable river. The major river flowing through the state is the Wisconsin, which follows a south-southwest course for 430 mi (692 km) before meeting the Mississippi at the Iowa border. Other tributaries of the Mississippi are the St. Croix River, also part of the Minnesota border, and the Chippewa and Black rivers. Located on the Black River are Big Manitou Falls, at 165 ft (50 m) the highest of the state’s many waterfalls. Waters from the Fox River and its major tributary, the Wolf, flow into Green Bay and then into Lake Michigan, as does the Menominee, which is part of the Michigan state line.

Except in the Driftless Area, glaciation smoothed out many surface features, gouged out new ones, and left deposits of rock and soil creating distinctively shaped hills and ridges. Oval mounds, called drumlins, are still scattered over the southeast; and moraines, formed by deposits left at the edges of glaciers, are a prom-

inent feature of eastern, central, and northwestern Wisconsin. In one section, called the Dells, the Wisconsin River has cut a gorge through 8 mi (13 km) of sandstone, creating caves and interesting rock formations.

3 CLIMATE

Wisconsin has a continental climate. Summers are warm and winters very cold, especially in the upper northeast and north-central lowlands, where the freeze-free (growing) season is around 80 days. The average annual temperature ranges from 39°F (4°C) in the north to about 50°F (10°C) in the south. At Danbury, in the northwest, the average January daily temperature is about 8°F (-13°C), and the average July daily temperature 68.6°F (20°C); at Racine, in the southeast, these figures are 19.4°F (-7°C) and 71°F (21°C), respectively. Milwaukee has average daily temperatures ranging from 13°F (-10°C) to 27°F (-2°C) in January and from 62°F (16°C) to 79°F (26°C) in July. The lowest temperature ever recorded in Wisconsin was -55°F (-48.3°C), at Couderay on 4 February 1996; the highest, 114°F (46°C), at Wisconsin Dells on 13 July 1936.

Annual precipitation in the state ranges from about 34 in (86 cm) for parts of the northwest to about 28 in (71 cm) in the south-central region and the areas bordering Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. In Milwaukee average annual precipitation is about 32.2 in (81 cm); March, April, and May are the rainiest months in Milwaukee. Milwaukee's annual snowfall averages 47 in (118 cm); the average wind speed is 12 mph (19 km/hr).

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

Common trees of Wisconsin include four oaks—bur, black, white, and red—along with black cherry and hickory. Jack, red, and white pine, yellow birch, eastern hemlock, mountain maple, moosewood, and leatherwood grow in the north, with black spruce, black ash, balsam fir, and tamarack concentrated in the northern lowlands. Characteristic of southern Wisconsin's climax forests are sugar maple (the state tree), white elm, basswood, and ironwood, with silver maple, black willow, silver birch, and cottonwood on low, moist land. Prairies are thick with grasses; bogs and marshes are home to white and jack pines and jack oak. Forty-five varieties of orchid have been identified, as well as 20 types of violet, including the wood violet (the state flower). In April 2006, six plant species were listed as threatened by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including the eastern prairie fringed orchid, prairie bush-clover, dwarf lake iris, Pitcher's thistle, Fassett's locoweed, and northern wild monkshood.

White-tailed deer, black bear, woodchuck, snowshoe hare, chipmunk, and porcupine are mammals typical of forestlands. The striped skunk, red and gray foxes, and various mice are characteristic of upland fields while wetlands harbor such mammals as the muskrat, mink, river otter, and water shrew. The badger, dwelling in grasslands and semi-open areas, is rarely seen today. Game birds include the ring-necked pheasant, bobwhite quail, Hungarian partridge, and ruffed grouse; among 336 bird species native to Wisconsin are 42 kinds of waterfowl and 6 types of shorebird that are also hunted. Reptiles include 23 varieties of snake, 13 types of turtle, and 4 kinds of lizard. Muskellunge (the state fish), northern pike, walleye, and brook trout are native to Wisconsin waterways.

In 2006, eight animal species were listed as threatened or endangered in Wisconsin, including the bald eagle, Karner blue butterfly, Hine's emerald dragonfly, Higgins eye pearly mussel, piping plover, and Canadian lynx. The Bureau of Endangered Resources in the Department of Natural Resources develops programs designed to aid the recovery of threatened or endangered flora and fauna.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

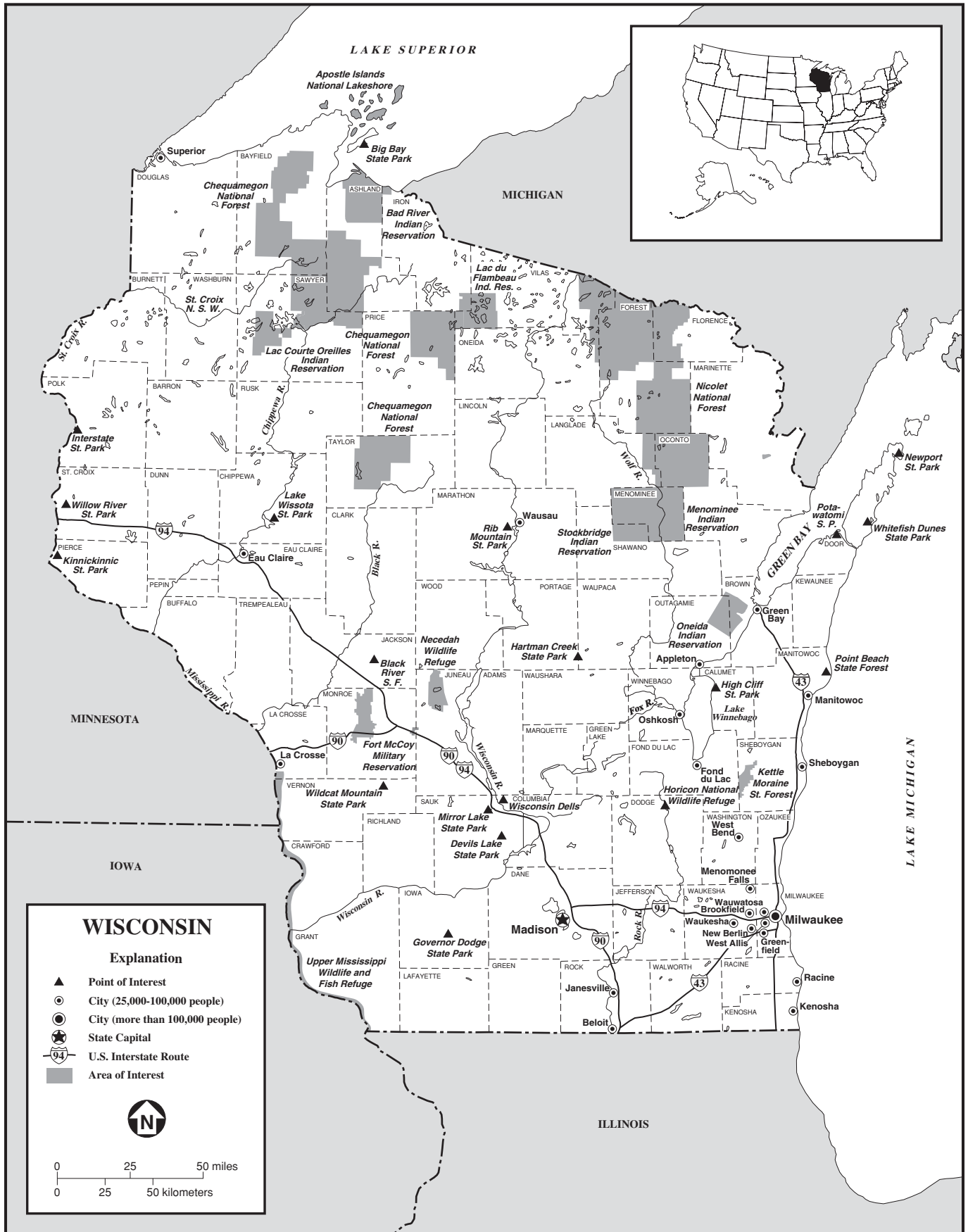
Conservation has been a concern in Wisconsin for more than a century. In 1867, a legislative commission reported that depletion of the northern forests by wasteful timber industry practices and frequent forest fires had become an urgent problem, partly because it increased the hazards of flooding. In 1897, a forestry warden was appointed and a system of fire detection and control was set up. A reforestation program was instituted in 1911; at about the same time, the state university began planting rows of trees in plains areas to protect soil from wind erosion, a method that was widely copied in other states. Fish and game wardens were appointed in the 1880s. In 1927, the state began a program to clean its waters of industrial wastes, caused especially by pulp and paper mills and canneries. The legislature enacted a comprehensive anti-pollution program in 1966.

The present Department of Natural Resources (DNR), organized in 1967, brings together conservation and environmental protection responsibilities. The department supervises air, water, and solid-waste pollution control programs and deals with the protection of forest, fish, and wildlife resources.

Southeastern Wisconsin has experienced serious air quality problems since the 1970s. Reductions in industrial emissions have been offset by increases in emissions from transportation sources and consumer products. In 2002, the US Environmental Protection Agency implemented new requirements for reporting air quality, and the DNR developed procedures to help corporations comply.

Since water pollution became a serious problem in the 1920s, pulp and paper mills, cheese factories, and canneries have taken major steps to control and prevent harmful water pollution. Communities built new or upgraded existing sewage treatment plants to reduce the flow of sewage into rivers and streams. Pulp and paper mills spent millions of dollars to reduce suspended solids and other pollutants in their industrial effluent. Water quality and fisheries visibly improved, but problems caused by persistent toxic chemicals, such as PCBs (polychlorinated biphenyls) and mercury, arose that had to be addressed next. In the 1980s, the state identified five Areas of Concern on Lakes Michigan and Superior where toxic pollutants harmed fish or wildlife or impaired human use of the waterways. Efforts are underway to identify sources of contamination and cleanup options at these sites and inland areas suffering similar problems. Regulations controlling the discharge of toxic substances from both water and air were passed in the late 1980s, and water quality improved significantly by 2000. In 2003, 50.8 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state.

Contaminated stormwater and run-off from agriculture, development, and other sources remain the most serious threats to Wisconsin's lakes, rivers, and streams. The state adopted rules to limit stormwater contamination in large municipalities, construc-



tion sites over five acres, and 10,000 industrial facilities. The DNR also formed a citizen advisory committee in 1994 to overhaul the state's animal waste regulations; new rules to control polluted runoff from agricultural, non-agricultural, and transportation sources went into effect 1 October 2002.

Wetland protection regulations were upgraded in the late 1980s, and in 1991 the state became the first in the nation to legislate wetlands protection. Wisconsin has a Wetlands Restoration program administered by the US Department of Agriculture Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS) and the US Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS) with assistance from DNR. Between 1992 and 1998, approximately 11,312 acres (4,578 hectares) of wetlands were restored, bringing the total amount of wetland area to about 5 million acres (2 million hectares), or 15% of the total land area. Horicon Marsh was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1990. It is considered to be one of the largest intact freshwater wetlands in the nation and among the largest cattail marshes in the world. The site is primarily managed through the National Wildlife Refuge program.

Wisconsin passed a comprehensive groundwater protection law in 1984 to safeguard underground water supplies that serve two-thirds of the state's population. The law requires identification and cleanup of groundwater-damaging contamination sources, such as abandoned, leaking landfills; underground gasoline storage tanks; and illegal, hazardous waste dumps. The law also requires the state to establish groundwater protection and enforcement standards for various substances. Wisconsin has identified over 16,000 contamination sites that must be cleaned up to prevent environmental contamination and safety hazards. Over one-third of these sites have been cleaned up and no further action is deemed necessary.

In 1996, Wisconsin began administering a new program whereby owners of contaminated property could petition the state for cleanup waivers if they were able to demonstrate that contamination was being cleaned up by natural processes. Property owners would then be able to redevelop within strict guidelines and monitoring. By mid-1997, 51 properties had applied for such liability releases, 30 of which were approved.

Bacterial contamination of Wisconsin drinking water supplies did not pose much of a problem in the state until 1993 when 400,000 Milwaukee residents became ill from inadequately treated water drawn from Lake Michigan. The water was found to contain the protozoan *Cryptosporidium*. Water treatment procedures were changed immediately at 21 community drinking water treatment plants that drew water from the Great Lakes. The state also began a two-year *Cryptosporidium* monitoring effort to determine the presence and distribution of this protozoan in state waterways.

In the 1980s, more than 800 landfills in the state closed because they could not meet new federal environmental protection requirements. To ease the burden on the state's remaining landfills, Wisconsin passed a comprehensive waste reduction and recycling law, 1989 Wisconsin Act 335. The law required local units of government to set up effective programs to recycle more than 11 different items by 1995. State grants collected from a tax on businesses were awarded to local governments to aid in setting up local recycling programs. The legislature is expected to decide a permanent funding mechanism in a future legislative session.

In 2003, Wisconsin had 163 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, 37 of which were on the National Priorities List as of 2006, including the Eau Claire Municipal Well Field. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$2.2 million through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. In 2004, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$16 million to provide assistance to the improvement of public water systems and \$29.1 million to offer loan assistance for water pollution control projects. One of the largest EPA grants awarded to the state in 2005 was \$2.5 million for nonpoint source implementation programs.

6 POPULATION

Wisconsin ranked 20th in population in the United States with an estimated total of 5,536,201 in 2005, an increase of 3.2% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Wisconsin's population grew from 4,891,769 to 5,363,675, an increase of 9.6%. The population is projected to reach 5.8 million by 2015 and 6.08 million by 2025. The population density in 2004 was 101.5 persons per sq mi.

During the 18th and early 19th centuries, the area that is now Wisconsin was very sparsely settled by perhaps 20,000 Indians and a few hundred white settlers, most of them engaged in the fur trade. With the development of lead mining, the population began to expand, reaching a total of 30,945 (excluding Indians) by 1840. During the next two decades, the population increased rapidly to 775,881, as large numbers of settlers from the East and German, British, and Scandinavian immigrants arrived. Subsequent growth has been steady, if slower. In the late 19th century, industry expanded and, by 1930, the population became predominantly urban.

In 2004, the median age for Wisconsinites was 37.5. In the same year, 23.7% of the State's residents were under age 18 while 13% were age 65 or older.

The majority of Wisconsinites live in urban areas, most of them in the heavily urbanized southeastern region. Milwaukee, the largest city in Wisconsin and the 22nd largest in the United States, had a population of 583,624 in 2004. Other large cities, with their 2004 population estimates, were Madison, 220,332, and Green Bay, 101,100. The Milwaukee-Waukesha-West Allis metropolitan area had an estimated population of 1,515,738 in 2004. The Madison metropolitan area had 531,766 residents and the Green Bay metropolitan area had 295,473. The Racine metropolitan area had 194,188 residents.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

As early as 1839, Wisconsin attracted immigrants from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland, soon to be followed by large numbers of Germans and Irish. In 1850, the greatest number of foreign-born persons were English-speaking, but within a decade, the Germans had eclipsed them. Industrial development brought Belgians, Greeks, Hungarians, Lithuanians, Italians, and especially Poles, who continued to come steadily until the restriction of immigration in the early 1920s; in the 1930 census, Poles were the largest foreign-born group. In 2000, foreign-born residents numbered 193,751 (3.6% of the total).

Black Americans were in the region as early as 1822. Before World War I, however, there were no more than 3,000 blacks. Mi-

gration during and after that war brought the number to 10,739 by 1930; by 1990, blacks were the largest racial minority in the state, numbering 245,000 (5% of Wisconsin's population). As of 2000, the black population was 304,460, or 5.7% of the state total. That percentage increased to 5.9% in 2004. Most black Wisconsinites live in Milwaukee, which was 37% black in 2000.

The Asian population in 2000 was 88,763. In that year Wisconsin had 33,791 Hmong (the nation's third-largest Hmong community), 11,184 Chinese, 6,800 Koreans, 5,158 Filipinos, and 4,469 Laotians. Pacific Islanders numbered 1,630. In 2004, 1.9% of the population was Asian. As of 2000, there were 192,921 Hispanics and Latinos (3.6% of the total population), of whom 126,719 were of Mexican ancestry and 30,267 of Puerto Rican descent. In 2004, 4.3% of the population was Hispanic or Latino. That year, 1% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

Wisconsin had an estimated 47,228 American Indians in 2000, up from 39,000 American Indians in 1990. In 2004, 0.9% of the population was American Indian or Alaskan Native. The principal tribes are Oneida, Menominee, Ojibwa (Chippewa), and Winnebago. There were 11 reservations, the largest being that of the Menominee, which comprised Menominee County (345 sq mi, 896 sq km) and had a population of 3,225 in 2000. Indian reservations covered 634 sq mi (1,642 sq km).

8 LANGUAGES

Early French and English fur traders found in what is now Wisconsin several Indian tribes of the Algonkian family: Ojibwa along Lake Superior, Sauk in the northeast, Winnebago and Fox south of them, and Kickapoo in the southwest. Numerous Indian place-names include Antigo, Kaukauna, Kewaunee, Menomonie, Oshkosh, Wausau, and Winnebago.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other West Germanic languages" includes Dutch, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Afrikaans. The category "Scandinavian languages" includes Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	5,022,073	100.0
Speak only English	4,653,361	92.7
Speak a language other than English	368,712	7.3
Speak a language other than English	368,712	7.3
Spanish or Spanish Creole	168,778	3.4
German	48,409	1.0
Miao, Hmong	30,569	0.6
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	14,970	0.3
Polish	12,097	0.2
Chinese	7,951	0.2
Italian	6,774	0.1
Other West Germanic languages	5,870	0.1
Scandinavian languages	5,651	0.1
Russian	5,362	0.1
Serbo-Croatian	4,988	0.1
Other Native North American languages	4,210	0.1
Arabic	4,088	0.1
Korean	4,075	0.1

In 2000, 92.7% (down from 94.2% in 1990) of the state population five years old and older spoke only English in the home.

Wisconsin English is almost entirely Northern, like that of the areas that provided Wisconsin's first settlers—Michigan, northern Ohio, New York State, and western New England. Common are the Northern *pail*, *comforter* (tied and filled bed cover), *sick to the stomach*, *angleworm* (earthworm), *skip school* (play truant), and *dove* as the past of *dive*. Pronunciation features are *fog*, *frog*, and *on* with the vowel sound /ah/; and *orange*, *forest*, and *foreign* with the /aw/ vowel sound. Northern *fried cakes* is now yielding to *doughnuts*, and *johnnycake* is giving way to *corn bread*. Milwaukee has *sick in the stomach* and is known for the localism *bubbler* (drinking fountain). A small exception to Northern homogeneity is the cluster of South Midland terms brought by Kentucky miners to the southwestern lead-mining district, such as *dressing* (sweet sauce for a pudding), *eaves spout* as a blend of *eavestrough* and Midland *spouting*, *branch* for stream, and *fishworm* for earthworm.

9 RELIGIONS

The first Catholics to arrive were Jesuit missionaries seeking to convert the Huron Indians in the 17th century. Protestant settlers and missionaries of different sects, including large numbers of German Lutherans, came during the 19th century, along with Protestants from the east. Jews settled primarily in the cities.

These groups often had conflicting aims. Evangelical sects favored strict blue laws and temperance legislation, which was enacted in many communities. The use of Protestant prayers and the King James Bible in public schools was another source of public discord until these practices were declared unconstitutional by the state supreme court in 1890. A constitutional amendment allowing parochial school students to ride in public school buses was defeated in 1946, amid great controversy; 19 years later, however, it was enacted with little opposition. By that time, religious conflicts appeared to be on the decline.

In 2004, there were 1,658,478 Roman Catholics in Wisconsin; with about 731,516 members belonging to the archdiocese of Milwaukee. As of 2000, Lutherans make up the largest Protestant group, though they are divided in denominations: the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 463,432 in 2000; the Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod, 241,306; and the Wisconsin Evangelical Lutheran Synod, 241,306. Other leading Protestant groups include the United Methodists, with 95,589 members in 2004, and the United Church of Christ, with 62,521 members in 2005. There were an estimated 28,230 Jews in 2000, primarily in the Milwaukee area. The Muslim population had about 7,796 members. Though still relatively small in total membership, the Salvation Army reported growth from 2,574 members in 1990 to 12,951 members in 2000, a difference of 403%. In a 2000 report, over 2.1 million people (about 39% of the population) were not counted as members of any religious organization.

The US office of the Catholic Apostleship of Prayer is located in Milwaukee. The headquarters of the InterVarsity Christian Fellowship/USA, an evangelical Christian program directed toward college students, is based in Madison. The offices of the National Association of Congregational Christian Churches are based in Oak Creek. The Seventh Day Baptist General Conference of the United States and Canada is based in Janesville.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Wisconsin's first rail line was built across the state, from Milwaukee to Prairie du Chien, in the 1850s. Communities soon began vying with one another to be included on proposed railroad routes. Several thousand farmers mortgaged property to buy railroad stock; the state had to rescue them from ruin when companies went bankrupt. By the late 1860s, two railroads, the Chicago and North Western, and the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul, had become dominant in the state. However, Chicago emerged as the major rail center of the Midwest because of its proximity to eastern markets. In 1920, there were 35 railroads operating on 11,615 mi (18,700 km) of track. By 2003, there were just 10 railroads operating on 4,167 rail mi (6,708 km) of track, of which 3,462 mi (5,573 km) was operated by Class I lines. Nonmetallic minerals were the top commodities carried by rail that originated within the state in 2003, while coal was the top commodity carried by rail that terminated within Wisconsin. As of 2006, Amtrak provided passenger rail service to 10 stations in Wisconsin via its north-south Hiawatha (Milwaukee to Chicago) train and east-west service via its Empire Builder (Chicago to Seattle/Portland) train.

As of 2004, Wisconsin had 113,699 mi (183,055 km) of public roadway. The private passenger vehicle continues to be the dominant mode of travel. In that same year, Wisconsin had 3,910,188 licensed drivers and some 4.868 million registered vehicles (2.575 million automobiles and 2.051 million trucks of all types).

Public transit includes large bus systems in Milwaukee and Madison. In the mid-1990s, Milwaukee County Transit System transported more than 60 million passengers annually, and Madison Metro annually transported more than 9.9 million passengers.

The opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway in 1959 allowed ocean-going vessels access to Wisconsin via the Great Lakes but failed to stimulate traffic to the extent anticipated. Overall, the state has 15 cargo-handling ports. The port of Superior (shared with Duluth, Minnesota) on Lake Superior is the busiest of all US Great Lakes ports. Its chief commodities are iron ore and coal. In 2004, the Port of Duluth/Superior handled 45.392 million tons of cargo, making it the 19th-busiest port in the United States. Other important Wisconsin ports, all on Lake Michigan, are Milwaukee, Green Bay, Port Washington, Oak Creek, Manitowoc, and Sturgeon Bay. Coal is the chief commodity. The Port of Milwaukee in 2004, handled 3.155 million tons of cargo. On the Mississippi River, Prairie du Chien and La Crosse are the main ports. Ferry service across Lake Michigan is offered from Manitowoc to Ludington, Michigan. In 2003, waterborne shipments totaled 33.546 million tons. In 2004, Wisconsin had 231 mi (371 km) of navigable inland waterways.

In 2005, Wisconsin had a total of 565 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 459 airports, 89 heliports, and 17 seaplane bases. Milwaukee's General Mitchell International Airport is the state's main air terminal, with 3,302,604 enplanements in 2004.

11 HISTORY

The region that is now Wisconsin has probably been inhabited since the end of the glacial period, 10,000 years ago. Some of the earliest inhabitants were ancestors of the Menominee; these early

immigrants from the north built burial mounds, conical ones at first, then large effigy mounds shaped like different animals. Other peoples arrived from the south and east, including ancestors of the Winnebago Indians (about AD 1400) and a tribe that built flat-top earthen pyramids. During the 17th century, the Ojibwa, Sauk, Fox, Potawatomi, Kickapoo, and other tribes came to Wisconsin. These tribes engaged in agriculture, hunting, and fishing, but with the arrival of Europeans, they became increasingly dependent on the fur trade—a dependence that had serious economic consequences when the fur trade declined in the early 19th century.

The first European believed to have reached Wisconsin was Jean Nicolet, who in 1634 landed on the shores of Green Bay while in the service of Samuel de Champlain. Two decades later, Médard Chouart des Groseilliers and Pierre Esprit Radisson, both fur traders, explored northern Wisconsin; in 1673, the Jesuit priest Jacques Marquette and the explorer Louis Jolliet crossed the whole area that is now Wisconsin, via the Fox and Wisconsin rivers, on their way to the Mississippi. Other Jesuits established missions, and French fur traders opened up posts. The French were succeeded by the British after the French and Indian War (the British ruled Wisconsin as part of Quebec Province from 1774 to 1783). Although ceded to the United States in 1783, it remained British in all but name until 1816, when the United States built forts at Prairie du Chien and Green Bay.

Under the Ordinance of 1787, Wisconsin became part of the Northwest Territory; it was subsequently included in the Indiana Territory, the Territory of Illinois, and then the Michigan Territory. In the early 1820s, lead mining brought an influx of white settlers called "Badgers." Indian resistance to white expansion collapsed after the 1832 Black Hawk War, in which Sauk and Fox Indians fleeing from Illinois were defeated and massacred by white militia near the site of present-day La Crosse, at the Battle of Bad Axe. Subsequently, the Winnebago and other tribes were removed to reservations outside the state, while the Ojibwa, Menominee, and some eastern tribes were among those resettled in reservations inside Wisconsin.

The Wisconsin Territory was formed in 1836. Initially it included all of Iowa and Minnesota, along with a portion of the Dakotas, but in 1838, these areas became part of a newly organized Iowa Territory. The 1830s also saw the beginning of a land boom, fueled by migration of Yankees from New England and southerners who moved to the lead-mining region of southwestern Wisconsin. The population and economy began to expand rapidly. Wisconsin voters endorsed statehood in 1846, and Congress passed enabling legislation that year. After a first constitution was rejected by the voters, a revised document was adopted on 13 March 1848, and on 29 May, President James K. Polk signed the bill that made Wisconsin the 30th state.

Transportation and industry did not develop as rapidly as proponents of statehood had expected. A canal was opened at the portage between the Fox and Wisconsin rivers in 1851, but the waterway was not heavily used. Railroads encountered difficulties in gaining financing, then suffered setbacks in the panic of 1857.

Wisconsinites took a generally abolitionist stand, and it was in Wisconsin—at Ripon, on 28 February 1854—that the Republican Party was formally established in the state. The new party developed an efficient political machine and later used much of its influence to benefit the railroads and lumber industry, both of

which grew in importance in the decade following the Civil War. In that war, 96,000 Wisconsin men fought on the Union side, and 12,216 died. During the late 19th century, Wisconsin was generally prosperous; dairying, food processing, and lumbering emerged as major industries, and Milwaukee grew into an important industrial center.

Wisconsin took a new political turn in the early 20th century with the inauguration of Republican Robert "Fighting Bob" La Follette as governor and the dawning of the Progressive Era. An ardent reformer, La Follette fought against conservatives within his own party. In 1903, the legislature, under his prodding, passed a law providing for the nation's first direct statewide primary; other measures that he championed during his tenure as governor (1901–06) provided for increased taxation of railroads, regulation of lobbyists, creation of a civil service, and establishment of a railroad commission to regulate intrastate rates.

La Follette was also a conspicuous exponent of what came to be called the "Wisconsin idea": governmental reform guided by academic experts and supported by an enlightened electorate. Around the time he was governor, the philosophy of reform was energetically promoted at the University of Wisconsin (which had opened at Madison, the state capital, in 1849), and many professors were drafted to serve on government commissions and boards. In 1901, Wisconsin became the first state to establish a legislative reference bureau, intended to help lawmakers shape effective, forward-looking measures.

After La Follette left the governor's office to become a US senator, his progressivism was carried on by Republican governors James O. Davidson (1906–11) and especially by Francis E. McGovern (1911–15). During one session in 1911, legislators enacted the first state income tax in the United States and one of the first workers' compensation programs. Other legislation passed during the same year sought to regulate the insurance business and the use of water power, create forest reserves, encourage farmer cooperatives, limit and require disclosure of political campaign expenditures, and establish a board of public affairs to recommend efficiency measures for state and local governments. This outburst of activity attracted national attention, and many states followed in Wisconsin's footsteps.

While serving as US Senator (1906–25), La Follette opposed involvement in World War I and was one of only six Senators to vote against US entry into the war; as a result, he was censured by the state legislature and the faculty of the University of Wisconsin, and there was a move to expel him from the Senate. His renomination and reelection in 1922 served to vindicate him, however, and he carried Wisconsin when he ran in 1924 for president on the national League for Progressive Political Action ticket.

After his death in 1925, the reform tradition continued in Wisconsin. A pioneering old-age pension act was passed in 1925; seven years later, Wisconsin enacted the nation's first unemployment compensation act, with the encouragement of La Follette's son Philip, then serving his first term as governor. When Wisconsin went Democratic in November 1932, turning Philip out of office, he and his brother, Robert Jr., a US Senator, temporarily left the state Republican organization and in 1934 formed a separate Progressive Party; that party, with the support of President Franklin Roosevelt and the Socialists, swept the 1934 elections and returned both brothers to office. During his second and

third terms as governor, Philip La Follette successfully pressed for the creation of state agencies to develop electric power, arbitrate labor disputes, and set rules for fair business competition; his so-called Little New Deal corresponded to the New Deal policies of the Roosevelt administration.

After World War II, the state continued a trend toward increased urbanization, and its industries prospered. The major figure on the national scene in the postwar era was Senator Joseph R. McCarthy, who served 10 years in the Senate, launching unsubstantiated attacks in the early 1950s on alleged communists and other subversives in the federal government. After McCarthy's censure by the US Senate in 1954 and death in 1957, the Progressive tradition began to recover strength, and the liberal Democratic Party grew increasingly influential in state politics. There was student unrest at the University of Wisconsin during the 1960s and early 1970s, and growing discontent among Milwaukee's black population. A major controversy in the 1970s concerned a court-ordered busing plan, implemented in 1979, aimed at decreasing racial imbalances in Milwaukee's public schools. In 1984, the Milwaukee school board filed suit in federal court, charging that the policies of the state and suburban schools had resulted in an unconstitutionally segregated school system that restricted blacks to city schools. Two years later, the city school board and nine suburban districts agreed on a plan by which minority students from the city would transfer voluntarily to the nine suburbs, and suburban students would attend Milwaukee schools.

Wisconsin's economy, with its strong manufacturing and agricultural sectors, remained sound throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s. The dairy industry, traditionally a mainstay of the economy, was linked to two different environmental issues. The first was the 1993 contamination of Milwaukee's drinking water with harmful bacteria that made thousands of people sick and killed some of them. Some claimed that the organisms had come from agricultural runoff containing animal wastes. The second issue was the use of bovine growth hormone to bolster milk production.

Flooding of the Mississippi River in 1993 caused massive damage in Wisconsin. Forty-seven counties were declared federal disaster areas; four people were killed; and financial losses totaled \$900 million.

In 2003, Wisconsin faced a \$3.2 billion two-year budget deficit, the largest deficit in Wisconsin's history. Governor Jim Doyle, elected in 2002, became the first Democratic governor to be elected in Wisconsin in 16 years. Doyle, who advocated abortion rights, gun control, and environmental protection, was at odds with the Republican-controlled state legislature over issues of state spending on health care and public education, and on raising taxes. Doyle promised to counteract the budget shortfall with deep spending cuts, which might threaten local services. He managed to balance the budget, while holding the line on taxes, and as a result, state taxes as a percentage of income were by 2005 the lowest in 34 years in the state. In 2005, Doyle announced his "KidsFirst" plan, an agenda to invest in Wisconsin's children, starting with the early years of life. He also implemented a "GrowWisconsin" agenda, to create jobs in the state. He is an advocate of providing citizens with access to safe, affordable prescription drugs from Canada.

1² STATE GOVERNMENT

Wisconsin's first constitutional convention, meeting in Madison in October 1846, was marked by controversy between conservative Whigs and allied Democrats on the one hand, and progressive Democrats with a constituency made up of miners, farmers, and immigrants on the other. The latter, who favored the popular election of judges and exemption of homesteads from seizure for debt, among other provisions, carried the day, but this version of the constitution failed to win ratification. A second constitutional convention, convened in December 1847, agreed on a new draft which made few major changes. This document, ratified by the electorate in 1848 and amended 133 times (two of which were subsequently nullified by the courts) as of January 2005, remains in effect today.

The Wisconsin legislature consists of a Senate with 33 members elected for four-year terms, and an assembly of 99 representatives elected for two-year terms. Legislators must be state residents for one year prior to election, and residents of their districts at least 10 days before the election. Voters elect an assembly and half the Senate membership in even-numbered years. Legislators must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, qualified voters in their districts, and residents of the state for at least one year. Regular legislative sessions begin in January; session schedules are determined biennially (in odd-numbered years) by joint resolution. Each house elects its own presiding officer and other officers from among its members. The legislative salary in 2004 was \$45,569.

There are six elected state officers: governor and lieutenant governor (elected jointly), secretary of state, state treasurer, attorney general, and superintendent of public instruction. Since 1970, all

have been elected for four-year terms. The governor and lieutenant governor must be US citizens, qualified voters, and state residents. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$131,768. As the chief executive officer, the governor exercises authority by the power of appointment, by presenting a budget bill and major addresses to the legislature, and by the power to veto bills and call special legislative sessions.

A bill may be introduced in either house of the legislature, but must be passed by both houses to become law. The governor has six days (Sundays excluded) to sign or veto a measure. If the governor fails to act and the legislature is still in session, the bill automatically becomes law. (If the legislature has adjourned, a bill automatically dies after six days unless the governor acts on it.) Gubernatorial vetoes can be overridden by a two-thirds majority of those present in each house. Constitutional amendments may be introduced in either house. They must be approved by a simple majority of both houses in two legislatures and then ratified by a majority of the electorate at a subsequent election.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and must have resided in the state for at least 10 days before the election. (The residency requirement is waived in voting for US president and vice-president.) Restrictions apply to those convicted of certain crimes and to those judged by the court as mentally incompetent to vote.

1³ POLITICAL PARTIES

The Democratic Party dominated politics until the late 1850s; then the newly founded Republican Party held sway for almost

Wisconsin Presidential Vote by Political Party, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELEC. VOTE	WISCONSIN WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROGRESSIVE	SOCIALIST	SOC. WORKERS	SOCIALIST LABOR
1948	12	*Truman (D)	647,310	590,959	25,282	12,547	—	399
1952	12	*Eisenhower (R)	622,175	979,744	2,174	1,157	1,350	770
					CONSTITUTION			
1956	12	*Eisenhower (R)	586,768	954,844	6,918	754	564	710
1960	12	Nixon (R)	830,805	895,175	—	—	1,792	1,310
1964	12	*Johnson (D)	1,050,424	638,495	—	—	1,692	1,204
1968	12	*Nixon (R)	748,804	809,997	—	—	1,222	1,338
					AMERICAN IND.	AMERICAN		
1972	11	*Nixon (R)	810,174	989,430	127,835	47,525	—	998
						SOCIALIST		LIBERTARIAN
1976	11	*Carter (D)	1,040,232	1,004,967	8,552	4,298	1,691	3,814
							CITIZENS	
1980	11	*Reagan (R)	981,584	1,088,845	**1,519	—	7,767	29,135
1984	11	*Reagan (R)	995,740	1,198,584	—	—	—	4,883
					POPULIST	SOC. WORKERS	NEW ALLIANCE	
1988	11	Dukakis (D)	1,126,794	1,047,499	3,056	2,574	1,953	5,157
						IND. (Perot)	TAXPAYERS	
1992	11	*Clinton (D)	1,041,066	930,855	2,311	544,479	1,772	2,877
							IND. (Nader)	
1996	11	*Clinton (D)	1,071,971	845,029	—	227,339	28,723	7,929
					CONSTITUTION	IND. (Buchanan)	GREEN (Nader)	
2000	11	Gore (D)	1,242,987	1,237,279	2,042	11,471	94,070	6,640
						SOC. PARTY OF WI.	WI. GREENS	BETTER LIFE
2004	10	Kerry (D)	1,489,504	1,478,120	471	(Brown) 2,661	(Cobb) 16,390	(Nader) 6,464

*Won US presidential election.

Listed as **CONSTITUTION Party on Wisconsin ballot.

100 years. More recently, the parties remain relatively even in power at both the national and state levels.

Jacksonian democracy was strong in Wisconsin in the early days, and until 1856 all territorial and state governors were Democrats, except for one Whig. In 1854, however, a coalition of Whigs, antislavery Democrats, and Free Soilers formed a Republican Party in the state—a key event in the establishment of the national Republican Party. Republicans quickly gained control of most elective offices; from 1856 to 1959 there were only three Democratic governors. The Republican Party was dominated in the late 19th century by conservatives, who were sympathetic to the railroads and the lumbering industry but whose stands on pensions and jobs for Union veterans and ability to win federal funds for the state attracted support from farmers and small business. Then, in the 1890s, Progressives within the party, led by Robert La Follette, began a successful battle for control that culminated in La Follette's election as governor in 1900.

The La Follette brand of progressivism remained strong in the state, although not always under the umbrella of Republicanism. In 1924, La Follette ran for president on the Progressive ticket; 10 years later, his sons, Robert and Philip, also broke away from the GOP, to head a Progressive Party slate. However, their newly organized national third party faded and folded when Philip La Follette failed to be reelected governor, and World War II made isolationism unpopular. The Progressives rejoined the GOP in 1946.

Socialist parties have won some success in Wisconsin's political history. Socialists worked with progressive Republicans at the state level to pass important legislation in the early 20th century. In 1910, the Socialists scored two major political victories in Wisconsin: Emil Seidel was elected mayor of Milwaukee, becoming the first Socialist mayor of a major US city, and Victor Berger became the first Socialist ever elected to Congress. The state does not require voters to register. There were 3,045,730 voters registered in the state in 2002, however; 2,997,000 voters cast ballots in the 2004 presidential election.

Wisconsin's senators, both Democrats, are Herb Kohl, reelected in 2000 and Russell Feingold, reelected in 2004. Wisconsin's US House delegation consists of four Republicans and four Democrats following 2004 elections. In mid-2005, there were 19 Republicans and 14 Democrats in the state Senate, and 39 Democrats and 60 Republicans in the state Assembly. Wisconsin's former Republican governor, Tommy Thompson, who was reelected to an unprecedented fourth four-year term in 1998, was named President George W. Bush's Secretary of Health and Human Services in 2001, a post he held until January 2005. Republican Scott McCallum, began his first term as governor in 2001; he lost his bid for a second term to Democrat Jim Doyle in the 2004 election. Doyle became governor in 2005.

In the 2000 presidential election, Democrat Al Gore beat Republican George W. Bush by a mere 5,396 votes in Wisconsin; Green Party candidate Ralph Nader received 4% of the vote. In 2004, Democratic challenger John Kerry won 49.8% of the vote to incumbent President George W. Bush's 49.4%. The state had 10 electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election, a decrease of 1 vote over 2000.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Wisconsin had 72 counties, 585 municipal governments, and 431 public school districts. There were also 684 special districts, each providing a certain local service, such as sewerage or fire fighting, usually across municipal lines. In 2002, there were 1,265 townships.

Each county is governed by a board of supervisors (which in the most populous counties has more than 40 members), generally elected for two-year terms. Some counties have elected county executives, serving four-year terms; several others have an appointed administrator or similar official. County officials can include district attorneys, sheriffs, clerks, treasurers, coroners, registers of deeds, and surveyors.

Towns are civil subdivisions of counties equivalent to townships in other states. Each town is a unit of 6 sq mi (16 sq km) marked off for governmental purposes. Wisconsin towns are generally small units with populations under 2,500. Each town is governed by a board of supervisors elected every two years; a town supervisor carries out policies set at an annual town meeting. Cities and villages have home-rule powers limited by legislative review. Most cities are governed by a mayor-council system: a small percentage of cities have a council-manager system, which was first authorized in Wisconsin in 1923. Executive power in a village is vested in an elected president who presides over an elected board but has no veto power.

The state is home to six Native American nations represented by 11 tribal governments.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 223,523 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Wisconsin operates under the authority of state statute; the adjutant general is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

A six-member Ethics Board, appointed by the governor, administers an ethics code for public officials and employees and investigates complaints against them. The board may refer cases for criminal prosecution.

The Department of Public Instruction administers public elementary and secondary education in the state, and the Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System has jurisdiction over all public higher education. The Wisconsin Technical College System supervises the state's 16 technical colleges.

The Transportation Department plans, constructs, and maintains highways and licenses motor vehicles and drivers. Physical and mental health, corrections, public and medical assistance, service to the aged, children's services, and vocational rehabilitation fall within the purview of the Department of Health and Family Services. The Office of Employment Relations enforces antidiscrimination laws in employment as well as minimum standards for wages and working conditions, provides training for the unemployed and disadvantaged, and sets safety standards for buildings.

Public protection in general is provided by the Department of Justice, which is responsible for investigating crimes of statewide magnitude and offering technical assistance to local law enforce-

ment agencies. Regulations to protect consumers are administered and enforced by the Trade and Consumer Protection Division of the Department of Agriculture, Trade, and Consumer Protection, in cooperation with the Justice Department. The Army and Air National Guard are under the Department of Military Affairs.

The Department of Commerce has responsibilities in the areas of community, economic, and housing development, promotion of trade and tourism, and small and minority business assistance.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The judicial branch is headed by a supreme court, consisting of seven justices, elected statewide on a nonpartisan basis for terms of 10 years. Vacancies are filled by gubernatorial appointment until an open election day becomes available. The justice with the greatest seniority serves as chief justice. The supreme court, which is the final authority on state constitutional questions, hears appeals at its own discretion and has original jurisdiction in limited areas.

The state's next-highest court is the Court of Appeals, established by constitutional amendment in 1977. Its 16 judges are elected by district on a nonpartisan basis and serve staggered six-year terms. Vacancies are filled by the governor until a successor is elected. Judges sit in panels of three for most cases, although some cases can be heard by a single judge. Decisions by the court of appeals may be reviewed by the supreme court.

Circuit courts are the trial court of general jurisdiction, which also hears appeals from municipal courts. Circuit court boundaries coincide with county boundaries, except that three judicial circuits comprise two counties each; thus, there are 69 judicial circuits. Trial judges are elected by district on a nonpartisan basis for six-year terms. All justices at the circuit court level or higher must have at least five years' experience as practicing attorneys and be less than 70 years old in order to qualify for office. Vacancies are filled by the governor until a successor is elected.

Wisconsin's 200 municipal courts have jurisdiction over local matters. Municipal judges are elected for terms of two or four years, generally serve on a part-time basis, and need not be attorneys.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 22,966 prisoners were held in Wisconsin's state and federal prisons, an increase from 22,604 of 1.6% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 1,387 inmates were female, down from 1,405 or 1.3% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Wisconsin had an incarceration rate of 390 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Wisconsin in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 209.6 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 11,548 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 146,710 reported incidents or 2,663.1 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Wisconsin has no death penalty.

In 2003, Wisconsin spent \$87,417,174 on homeland security, an average of \$16 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 502 active-duty military personnel and 2,847 civilian personnel stationed in Wisconsin. Prime military contracts amounted to more than \$1.7 billion in the same fiscal year, and total defense payroll outlays were \$647 million.

A total of 3,932 Wisconsinites were killed in World War I; 7,980 in World War II; 800 in Korea; and 1,142 in Vietnam. In 2003, there were 474,594 veterans were living in Wisconsin. Of these, 69,671 saw service in World War II; 58,649 in the Korean conflict; 145,970 in the Vietnam era; and 61,028 in the Persian Gulf War. Wisconsin veterans received benefits of over \$1.1 billion in 2004.

In 2004, the Wisconsin State Patrol employed 492 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Until the early 19th century, Wisconsin was inhabited mainly by Indians; the French and British brought few permanent settlers. In the 1820s, southerners began to arrive from the lower Mississippi, and in the 1830s easterners poured in from New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New England.

Foreign immigrants began arriving in the 1820s, either directly from Europe or after temporary settlement in eastern states. Most of the early immigrants were from Ireland and England. Germans also came in large numbers, especially after the Revolution of 1848, and by 1860 they were predominant in the immigrant population, which was proportionately larger than in any other state except California. The state soon became a patchwork of ethnic communities—Germans in the counties near Lake Michigan, Norwegians in southern and western Wisconsin, Dutch in the lower Fox Valley and near Sheboygan, and other groups in other regions.

After the Civil War, and especially in the 1880s, immigration reached new heights, with Wisconsin receiving a large share of Germans and Scandinavians. The proportion of Germans declined, however, as new immigrants arrived from Finland, Russia and from southern and eastern Europe, especially Poland, before World War I. Despite this overseas immigration, Wisconsin suffered a net population loss from migration beginning in 1900 as Wisconsinites moved to other states. Between 1970 and 1983 alone, this loss totaled 154,000. From 1985 to 1990, the net loss from migration amounted to 3,150. Between 1990 and 1998, Wisconsin had net gains of 84,000 in domestic migration and 21,000 in international migration. In 1998, 3,724 foreign immigrants arrived in Wisconsin; of these, the greatest number (680) came from Mexico. The state's overall population increased 6.8% between 1990 and 1998.

A significant trend since 1970 has been the decline in population in Milwaukee and other large cities; at the same time, suburbs have continued to grow, as have many other areas, especially in parts of northern Wisconsin. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 46,106 and net internal migration was 14,595, for a net gain of 60,701 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The Commission on Interstate Cooperation represents the state in its dealings with the Council of State Governments. Wisconsin also participates in the Education Commission of the States,

Great Lakes Commission, Midwest Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact Commission, and Mississippi River Parkway Commission. In 1985, Wisconsin, seven other Great Lakes states, and the Canadian provinces of Quebec and Ontario signed the Great Lakes Compact to protect the lakes' water reserves. In fiscal year 2001, Wisconsin received over \$5.8 billion in federal grants. Mirroring a national trend, that figure declined to \$5.547 billion in fiscal year 2005, an estimated \$5.418 billion in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated 5.600 in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

With the coming of the first Europeans, fur trading became a major economic activity. As more settlers arrived, agriculture prospered. Although farming—preeminently dairying—remains important, manufacturing is the mainstay of today's economy. Wisconsin's industries are diversified, with nonelectrical machinery and food products the leading items. Other important industries are paper and pulp products, transportation equipment, electrical and electronic equipment, and fabricated metals. Economic growth has been concentrated in the southeast. There, soils and climate are favorable for agriculture. A skilled labor force is available to industry, and capital, transportation, and markets are most readily accessible.

As happened to the country at large, Wisconsin in 1981–82 experienced the worst economic slump since the Great Depression, with the unemployment rate rising to 11.7% in late 1982. Manufacturing was hard hit, and the loss of jobs in this sector was considered permanent. Nevertheless, manufacturing has remained Wisconsin's dominant sector, accounting for 27% of total state output in 1997, and growing close to 2.7% a year from 1997 to 2000, before falling 2.9% in the national recession of 2001. The strongest growth in the period, as in most of the country, was in various service categories such as general services, financial services, government, trade and the transportation and utilities sectors, all up more than 20% from 1997 to 2001. The diversity of Wisconsin's economy moderated the impact of the national recession that began in 2001 and 2002. By the end of 2002, the rebound of employment in the state was outpacing that of the nation overall.

In 2004, Wisconsin's gross state product (GSP) was \$211.616 billion, of which manufacturing (durable and nondurable goods) contributed the biggest share at \$47.685 billion or 22.5% of GSP, followed by the real estate sector at \$23.778 billion (11.2% of GSP), and health care and social assistance at \$16.968 billion (8% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 406,766 small businesses in Wisconsin. Of the 125,888 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 123,349 or 98% were small companies. An estimated 13,093 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 5.6% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 12,711, up 0.7% from 2003. There were 742 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 2.8% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 506 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Wisconsin as the 26th highest in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 Wisconsin had a gross state product (GSP) of \$218 billion which accounted for 1.8% of the nation's gross domestic product

and placed the state at number 19 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Wisconsin had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$32,166. This ranked 22nd in the United States and was 97% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 4.2%. Wisconsin had a total personal income (TPI) of \$177,026,243,000, which ranked 18th in the United States and reflected an increase of 5.5% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.9%. Earnings of persons employed in Wisconsin increased from \$127,965,881,000 in 2003 to \$135,601,941,000 in 2004, an increase of 6.0%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$47,220 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 10.2% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Wisconsin 3,079,600, with approximately 147,200 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 4.8%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 2,873,300. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Wisconsin was 11.8% in January 1983. The historical low was 2.9% in April 1999. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 4.7% of the labor force was employed in construction; 17.6% in manufacturing; 18.9% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 5.5% in financial activities; 9.3% in professional and business services; 13.7% in education and health services; 9.2% in leisure and hospitality services; and 14.3% in government.

Labor began to organize in the state after the Civil War. The Knights of St. Crispin, a shoemakers' union, grew into what was at that time the nation's largest union, before it collapsed during the Panic of 1873. In 1887, unions of printers, cigarmakers, and iron molders organized the Milwaukee Federated Trades Council, and in 1893 the Wisconsin State Federation of Labor was formed. A statewide union for public employees was established in 1932. In 1977, the state's legislature granted public employees (except public safety personnel) the right to strike, subject to certain limitations.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 410,000 of Wisconsin's 3,551,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 16.1% of those so employed, up slightly from 16% in 2004, well above the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 438,000 workers (17.2%) in Wisconsin were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Wisconsin is one of 28 states that did not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Wisconsin had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.70 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 47.6% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Farm marketings in 2005 amounted to \$6.6 billion, 10th among the 50 states; nearly \$4.9 billion in farm marketings came from dairy products and livestock. Wisconsin led the United States in 2004 in the production of snap beans for processing, cranberries, processing beets, corn for silage, and cabbage for kraut. It also ranked third for oat production and sweet corn for processing, peas, and carrots for processing, fourth in oats and fall potatoes, fifth in tart cherries, seventh in alfalfa hay, and ninth in corn for grain.

In the early years, Wisconsin developed an agricultural economy based on wheat, some of which was exported to eastern states and overseas via the port of Milwaukee. Farmers also grew barley and hops, finding a market for these products among early Milwaukee brewers. After the Civil War, soil exhaustion and the depredations of the chinch bug forced farmers to turn to other crops, including corn, oats, and hay, which could be used to feed hogs, sheep, cows, and other livestock.

Although agricultural income has continued to rise in recent years and the average size of farms has increased, farm acreage and the number of farms have declined. In 2004 there were 15.5 million acres (6.3 million hectares) of land in farms, nearly 50% of the total land area, distributed among 76,500 farms, a decline of 4,600 from 1986. Farmland is concentrated in the southern two-thirds of the state, especially in the southeast. Potatoes are grown mainly in central Wisconsin, cranberries in the Wisconsin River Valley, and cherries in the Door Peninsula.

Leading field crops (in bushels) in 2004 were corn for grain, 353,600,000; oats 13,650,000; wheat, 12,852,000; and barley, 1,650,000. About 4,880,000 tons of dry hay and 13,300,000 tons of corn for silage were harvested that year. Potato production was 30,450,000 hundredweight. In 2004, Wisconsin farmers produced for processing 511,220,000 hundredweight of sweet corn, 322,640 tons of snap beans, 54,500 tons of green peas, 3,480,000 barrels of cranberries, and 6.7 tons of tart cherries, and 302,000 lb (137,000 kg) of spearmint and peppermint for oil. Some 30,180 tons of cucumber pickles and 630,000 hundredweight of cabbage were produced in 2004.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Aided by the skills of immigrant cheesemakers and by the encouragement of dairy farmers who emigrated from New York—especially by the promotional effort of the agriculturist and publisher William D. Hoard—Wisconsin turned to dairying in the late 19th century. In 2003, Wisconsin ranked second (after California) in the number of milk cows with 1.26 million milk cows which produced over 22.2 billion lb (10 billion kg) of milk. Dairy farms are prominent in nearly all regions, but especially in the Central Plains and Western Uplands. Wisconsin ranchers also raise livestock for meat production. In 2004, dairy products accounted for 53.7% of total farm receipts; cattle and calves, 11.7%.

In 2005, the state had 3.35 million cattle and calves, valued at \$4 billion. During 2004, Wisconsin farms had about 430,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$38.7 million. Poultry farmers sold 12.3 million lb (5.6 million kg) of chicken in 2003. Also during 2003, there were 1.1 billion eggs produced, valued at \$55.6 million. Wisconsin was also the leading producer of mink pelts in 2004, at 706,300.

2⁵ FISHING

In 2004, Wisconsin ranked third among the Great Lakes states in the quantity of its commercial fishing, with 3.9 million lb (1.8 million kg) valued at \$3.1 million. In 2001, the commercial fishing fleet had 18 boats and 78 vessels. Walleye, perch, and lake trout are primary Great Lakes fish species.

In 2004, there were 61 trout farms, with sales of nearly \$1.5 million. The muskellunge is the premier game fish of Wisconsin's inland waters; Coho and Chinook salmon, introduced to Lake Michigan, now thrive there. The largest concentration of lake sturgeon in the United States is in Lake Winnebago. In 2004, the state issued 1,391,173 fishing licenses. There are 16 state fish hatcheries and 2 national hatcheries in the state.

2⁶ FORESTRY

Wisconsin was once about 85% forested. Although much of the forest was depleted by forest fires and wasteful lumber industry practices, vast areas reseeded themselves naturally, and more than 820,000 acres (332,000 hectares) have been replanted. In 2004, Wisconsin had 15,965,000 acres (6,461,000 hectares) of forest, covering 46% of the state's land area; 70% of all forestlands are privately owned. Hardwoods make up over 80% of the sawtimber. The most heavily forested region is in the north. The timber industry reached its peak in the late 19th century. In 2004, lumber production totaled 539 million board feet.

Wisconsin's woods have recreational as well as commercial value. Two national forests—Chequamegon and Nicolet, both located in northern Wisconsin—cover 1,527,300 acres (618,098 hectares). The 10 state forests cover 471,329 acres (190,741 hectares).

Forest management and fire control programs are directed by the Department of Natural Resources. The US Forest Service operates a Forest Products Laboratory at Madison, in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin.

2⁷ MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Wisconsin in 2003 was \$405 million, an increase from 2002 of over 3%. The USGS data ranked Wisconsin as 32nd among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 1% of total US output.

According to the preliminary data for 2003, crushed stone, and construction sand and gravel were the state's top nonfuel minerals, accounting for around 40% and 39%, respectively, of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. These were followed by lime (more than 9% by value); industrial sand and gravel (around 8% by value); and dimension stone (over 3% by value). By volume, Wisconsin in 2003, was the nation's fourth largest producer of dimension stone; eighth largest in construction sand and gravel; and fifth in peat and in industrial sand and gravel.

Preliminary data for 2003 showed crushed stone production at 38 million metric tons, with a value of \$163 million, while construction sand and gravel output that same year stood at 39.1 million metric tons, and was valued at \$156 million. Industrial sand and gravel production in 2003 totaled 38 million metric tons, and

was valued at \$32.7 million. Lime output that year came to 640,000 metric tons, and had a value of \$38.4 million.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Wisconsin had 125 electrical power service providers, of which 82 were publicly owned and 25 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, 12 were investor owned, and six were owners of independent generators that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 2,753,247 retail customers. Of that total, 2,262,424 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 236,036 customers, while publicly owned providers had 254,781 customers. There were six independent generator or "facility" customers.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 14.309 million kW, with total production that same year at 60.122 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 93.3% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 41.717 billion kWh (69.4%), came from coal-fired plants, with nuclear generation in second place at 12.215 billion kWh (20.3%) and natural gas fueled plants in third at 2.478 billion kWh (4.1%). Other renewable power sources accounted for 2.3% of all power generated, with hydroelectric at 3.1%, and petroleum fired plants at 0.8%.

The state's first hydroelectric plant was built at Appleton in 1882, with many others built later, especially along the Wisconsin River. Because Wisconsin itself has no coal, oil, or natural gas resources, the state has been active in developing alternative energy resources to increase its energy independence. Biomass energy is being developed for the production of ethanol; and waste wood is being used for utility generation and as fuel in industrial processes. Hydropower is a significant source of electricity generation in the paper industry and for electric utility generation.

As of 2006, Wisconsin had two nuclear power stations; the Point Beach station operated by Wisconsin Electric Power Company near Two Rivers and Manitowoc; and the Kewaunee plant, operated by the Wisconsin Public Service Co in Carlton.

Wisconsin has no proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. As of 2005, the state's only crude oil refinery had a distillation capacity of 33,000 barrels per day.

29 INDUSTRY

Industrial activity is concentrated in the southeast, especially the Milwaukee metropolitan area. Milwaukee however, has lost some of its luster as a brewery center, as a number of breweries have ceased operations there.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Wisconsin's manufacturing sector covered some 20 product subsectors. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$136.676 billion. Of that total, food manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$24.600 billion. It was followed by transportation equipment manufacturing at \$19.702 billion; machinery manufacturing at \$14.744 billion; paper manufacturing at \$12.765 billion; and fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$11.289 billion.

In 2004, a total of 476,794 people in Wisconsin were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 344,680 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the fabricated metal product manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees, with 62,051 (46,048 actual production workers). It was followed by machinery manufacturing, with 60,111 (37,179 actual production workers); food manufacturing, with 59,750 (47,137 actual production workers); transportation equipment manufacturing, with 36,790 (28,314 actual production workers); and printing and related support activities, with 33,849 (25,226 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Wisconsin's manufacturing sector paid \$19.808 billion in wages. Of that amount, the machinery manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$2.895 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$2.486 billion; food manufacturing at \$2.080 billion; and transport equipment manufacturing at \$1.808 billion.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Wisconsin's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$68.5 billion from 7,557 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 4,617 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 2,311 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 629 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$26.9 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$33.6 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$7.9 billion.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Wisconsin was listed as having 21,360 retail establishments with sales of \$59.9 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (2,776); gasoline stations (2,667); miscellaneous store retailers (2,564); clothing and clothing accessories stores (2,268); and food and beverage stores (2,205). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$15.5 billion, followed by general merchandise stores at \$8.8 billion; food and beverage stores at \$8.1 billion; gasoline stations at \$5.95 billion; and building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers at \$5.92 billion. A total of 311,730 people were employed by the retail sector in Wisconsin that year.

The state engages in foreign as well as domestic trade through the Great Lakes ports of Superior-Duluth, Milwaukee, Green Bay, and Kenosha. Iron ore and grain are shipped primarily from Superior-Duluth, while Milwaukee handles the heaviest volume of general merchandise. Wisconsin exported \$14.9 billion in goods (18th in the United States) in 2005. Greater Milwaukee is a foreign-trade zone where goods can enter duty-free under certain conditions.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection in Wisconsin is not the responsibility of a single, dedicated agency, office or department. The administration of the state's laws governing product safety and trade practices is the responsibility of the Trade and Consumer Protection Division

of the state's Department of Agriculture, Trade and Consumer Protection, which monitors food production, inspects meat, and administers grading programs. The Trade and Consumer Protection Division in turn, acts in cooperation with the state's Department of Justice through its Consumer Protection Unit, which litigates cases involving deceptive and fraudulent business practices that have been referred to it by other state agencies. Consumer protection in financial matters is handled by the Office of the Commissioner of Banking, which administers laws governing consumer credit, while the Department of Transportation's Motor Vehicles Division investigates complaints from buyers of new and used automobiles.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the Wisconsin Department of Justice's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil and criminal proceedings; represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The Department of Agriculture, Trade and Consumer Protection has its main office in Madison, but also has regional offices in Green Bay and Milwaukee. There is also a county government consumer affairs office in Racine.

3² BANKING

As of June 2005, Wisconsin had 303 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 282 state-chartered and 2 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Milwaukee-Waukesha-West Allis market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 63 institutions and \$40.172 billion in deposits, followed by the Madison market area with 48 institutions and \$10.944 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 10.9% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$14.838 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 89.1% or \$121.910 billion in assets held.

The Office of the Commissioner of Banking licenses and charters banks, loan and collection companies, and currency exchanges. The Office of the Commissioner of Savings and Loan supervises state-chartered savings and loan associations. The Office of the Commissioner of Credit Unions enforces laws relating to state-chartered credit unions.

3³ INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 3.4 million individual life insurance policies in force with a total value of about \$248 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was about \$388.7 billion. The average coverage amount is \$72,800 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$1 billion.

As of 2003, there were 182 property and casualty and 31 life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$7.8 billion.

That year, there were 12,861 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$1.5 billion.

The Office of the Commissioner of Insurance licenses insurance agents, enforces state and federal regulations, responds to consumer complaints, and develops consumer education programs and literature. The office also operates the State Life Insurance Fund, which sells basic life insurance (maximum \$10,000) to state residents; and the Local Government Property Insurance Fund, which insures properties of local government units on an optional basis.

In 2004, 59% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 24% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 11% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 22% for single coverage and 24% for family coverage. The state offers an 18-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were over 3.5 million auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. While liability coverage is not mandatory, motorists are expected to accept financial responsibility in the event of an accident. Minimum liability limits include bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is available in the state. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$620.44.

3⁴ SECURITIES

Wisconsin has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 1,940 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 3,800 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 90 publicly traded companies within the state, with over 35 NASDAQ companies, 29 NYSE listings, and 4 AMEX listings. In 2006, the state had ten Fortune 500 companies; Johnson Controls ranked first in the state and 75th in the nation with revenues of over \$28 billion, followed by Northwestern Mutual, Manpower, Kohl's, and WPS Resources.

The sale of securities is regulated by the Department of Financial Institutions, Division of Securities.

3⁵ PUBLIC FINANCE

Budget estimates are prepared by departments and sent to the governor or governor-elect in the fall of each even-numbered year. The following January, the governor presents a biennial budget to the legislature, which passes a budget bill, often after many amendments. Most appropriations are made separately for each year of the biennium. The fiscal year (FY) begins 1 July. Expenditures by state and local governments alike have risen dramatically since 1960. At one time, the state was constitutionally prohibited from borrowing money. This provision was at first circumvented

Wisconsin—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	34,753,272	6,314.18
General revenue	23,933,776	4,348.43
Intergovernmental revenue	6,831,514	1,241.19
Taxes	12,638,266	2,296.20
General sales	3,899,395	708.47
Selective sales	1,721,642	312.80
License taxes	811,548	147.45
Individual income tax	5,251,190	954.07
Corporate income tax	681,990	123.91
Other taxes	272,501	49.51
Current charges	2,660,736	483.42
Miscellaneous general revenue	1,803,260	327.63
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	—	—
Insurance trust revenue	10,819,496	1,965.75
Total expenditure	28,577,240	5,192.09
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,285,137	1,686.98
Direct expenditure	19,292,103	3,505.11
Current operation	12,335,594	2,241.21
Capital outlay	1,781,247	323.63
Insurance benefits and repayments	3,781,755	687.09
Assistance and subsidies	571,629	103.86
Interest on debt	821,878	149.32
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	3,462,527	629.09
Total expenditure	28,577,240	5,192.09
General expenditure	24,789,046	4,503.82
Intergovernmental expenditure	9,285,137	1,686.98
Direct expenditure	15,503,909	2,816.84
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	9,045,030	1,643.36
Public welfare	5,908,896	1,073.56
Hospitals	799,711	145.30
Health	644,461	117.09
Highways	1,678,313	304.93
Police protection	121,120	22.01
Correction	918,706	166.92
Natural resources	555,771	100.98
Parks and recreation	55,244	10.04
Government administration	614,390	111.63
Interest on general debt	821,878	149.32
Other and unallocable	3,625,526	658.71
Utility expenditure	6,439	1.17
Liquor store expenditure	—	—
Insurance trust expenditure	3,781,755	687.09
Debt at end of fiscal year	17,727,318	3,220.81
Cash and security holdings	83,020,637	15,083.69

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

by the use of private corporations and then, in 1969, eliminated by constitutional amendment.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$12.7 billion for resources and \$12.4 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Wisconsin were \$7.4 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Wisconsin was slated to receive: \$32.5 million for a new Department of Veterans Affairs spinal-cord injury center in Milwaukee; and \$5.6 million for the repair or replacement of the windows and doors at the historic US Federal Building and Courthouse in Milwaukee.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Wisconsin collected \$13,452 million in tax revenues or \$2,430 per capita, which placed it 13th among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita. Property taxes accounted for 0.8% of the total, sales taxes 30.0%, selective sales taxes 15.2%, individual income taxes 40.6%, corporate income taxes 5.8%, and other taxes 7.4%.

As of 1 January 2006, Wisconsin had four individual income tax brackets ranging from 4.6% to 6.75%. The state taxes corporations at a flat rate of 7.9%.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$7.5 billion or \$1,350 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 11th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$7,324,843,000 of the total and the state government \$104,158,000.

Wisconsin taxes retail sales at a rate of 5%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 0.60%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 5.60%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 77 cents per pack, which ranks 28th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Wisconsin taxes gasoline at 32.9 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Wisconsin citizens received \$0.82 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The state seeks to promote the relocation of new industries to Wisconsin, as well as the expansion of existing ones, by providing advice and assistance through the Wisconsin Commerce Development and some 280 local development corporations. It supports businesses that promise to substantially improve the economy of a community or the state; extends loans to small businesses; helps with the training or retraining of employees; and offers financial assistance for applied research that results in a new product or production process. To revitalize economically depressed areas, the state provides tax benefits to businesses locating or expanding operations in such areas and helps finance local economic development projects. Communities are authorized to issue tax-exempt bonds to enable industries to finance new equipment. In addition, all machinery and equipment used in goods production is tax-exempt under state law. In 2006, the Commerce Department contained seven main operating divisions: the Administrative Services Division, the Business Development Division, the Community Development Division, the Environmental and Regulatory Services Division, the International and Export Development Division, the Office of the Secretary, and the Buildings and Safety Division. The Bureau of Minority Business Development also operates.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 6.4 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 12.8 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 9.6 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 84.9% of pregnant woman received prenatal care be-

ginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 83% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.4 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 237.5; cancer, 199; cerebrovascular diseases, 63.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 42.9; and diabetes, 24.9. The mortality rate from HIV infection was 1.4 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 3.2 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 55.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 21.9% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Wisconsin had 121 community hospitals with about 14,800 beds. There were about 588,000 patient admissions that year and 11.8 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 9,200 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,282. Also in 2003, there were about 408 certified nursing facilities in the state with 42,644 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 85.6%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 77.5% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Wisconsin had 262 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 856 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 3,055 dentists in the state.

Medical degrees are granted by the University of Wisconsin at Madison and by the Medical College of Wisconsin (formerly part of Marquette University). The Division of Health, a branch of the State Department of Health and Social Services, has responsibility for planning and supervising health services and facilities, enforcing state and federal regulations, administering medical assistance programs, and providing information to the public.

About 17% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 15% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 11% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$5.3 billion.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 269,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$251. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 345,748 persons (143,459 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$76.39 per person, which was the lowest average benefit in the nation. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$316.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Wisconsin's TANF program is called Wisconsin Works (W-2). In 2004, the state program had 54,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$109 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 937,490 Wisconsin residents. This number included 629,930 retired workers, 89,810 widows and widowers, 103,460 disabled workers,

49,000 spouses, and 65,290 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 17.1% of the total state population and 96.8% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$979; widows and widowers, \$952; disabled workers, \$894; and spouses, \$493. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$525 per month; children of deceased workers, \$659; and children of disabled workers, \$260. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 90,026 Wisconsin residents, averaging \$386 a month. An additional \$9.6 million of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 95,173 residents.

40 HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 2,463,802 housing units, 2,172,924 of which were occupied; 69.9% were owner-occupied. About 65.2% of all units were single-family, detached homes. Rural areas had a higher proportion of deficient housing than urban areas, and substandard conditions were three times as common in units built before 1939, which account for about 21% of the existing housing stock. In 2004, utility gas was the most common energy source for heating. It was estimated that 97,491 units lacked telephone service, 9,105 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 9,348 lacked complete kitchen facilities. The average household had 2.46 members.

In 2004, 40,000 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$137,727. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,155. Renters paid a median of \$609 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$28.4 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

The Department of Veterans Affairs makes home loans to veterans. The Housing Finance Authority, created by the legislature in 1971, raises money through the sale of tax-exempt bonds and makes loans directly or indirectly to low- and moderate-income home buyers. Wisconsin's state building code, developed in 1913 to cover construction of all dwellings with three or more units, was revised in the late 1970s to cover new one- and two-family dwellings. Local housing codes prescribing standards for structural upkeep and maintenance in existing buildings are in force in all large cities and in many smaller cities and villages.

41 EDUCATION

Wisconsin has a tradition of leadership in education. The state's constitution, adopted in 1848, provided for free public education; however, there was no state tax for schools until 1885. A compulsory education law was passed in 1879 and strengthened in 1903 and 1907. The first kindergarten in the United States was established in Watertown, Wisconsin, in 1856.

General public elementary and secondary education is administered under the overall supervision of the Department of Public Instruction, which is headed by a state superintendent elected on a nonpartisan basis. As of 2004, 88.8% of all Wisconsinites 25 years or older had completed high school, above the national average of 84%. Some 25.6% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Wisconsin's public schools stood at 881,000. Of these, 592,000 attended schools from kin-

ergarten through grade eight, and 290,000 attended high school. Approximately 78.8% of the students were white, 10.5% were black, 5.8% were Hispanic, 3.4% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1.4% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 871,000 in fall 2003 and expected to be 847,000 by fall 2014, a decline of 3.9% during the period 2002–14. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$9 billion. There were 134,474 students enrolled in 1,041 private schools in fall 2003. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in Wisconsin scored 285 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 329,443 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 10.9% of total postsecondary enrollment. In 2005 Wisconsin had 68 degree-granting institutions. The University of Wisconsin (UW) system is comprised of 13 degree-granting campuses, 13 two-year centers, and the University of Wisconsin-Extension, which has outreach and continuing education activities on all 26 UW campuses and in all 72 Wisconsin counties. All 13 universities award bachelor's and master's degrees. University of Wisconsin-Madison and University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee also confer doctoral degrees. UW-Madison, one of the world's largest and most respected institutions of higher learning, was chartered by the state's first legislature in 1848. UW-Milwaukee is the system's second-largest campus. The 11 other universities are Eau Claire, Green Bay, La Crosse, Oshkosh, Parkside (at Kenosha-Racine), Platteville, River Falls, Stevens Point, Stout (at Menomonie), Superior, and Whitewater.

Wisconsin's private institutions of higher education encompass a broad range of schools. There were 35 private 4-year institutions in 2005, including such leading institutions as Marquette University, Lawrence University, Ripon College, and Beloit College. Wisconsin also has a system of technical colleges, the Wisconsin Technical College System. In 1911, the legislature enacted the first system of state support for vocational, technical, and adult education in the nation. The system includes 16 technical colleges with 47 campuses, each governed by a local board. At the same time, each college is part of a statewide system governed by an independent board.

42 ARTS

The Wisconsin Arts Board, consisting of 15 members appointed by the governor for three-year terms, aids artists and performing groups and assists communities in developing arts programs. In 2005, the Wisconsin Arts Board and other Wisconsin arts organizations received 22 grants totaling \$1,013,400 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Wisconsin Humanities Council, founded in 1972, offers series of book discussions. In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$2,188,896 for 21 state programs. State and private sources contribute funding to supplement federal assistance.

Wisconsin offers numerous facilities for drama, music, and other performing arts, including Marcus Center for the Performing Arts Center in Milwaukee and the Alliant Energy Center in Madison. Milwaukee hosts the Milwaukee Repertory Theater (The Rep),

which celebrated its 50th season in 2003/04. There are many other theater groups around the state. Summer plays are performed at a unique garden theater at Fish Creek in the Door Peninsula. The Door County Folk Festival is held annually in July and hosts numerous folk dancing workshops, children's activities, and singing workshops; in 2006 the festival marked its 27th season.

The Pro Arte Quartet in Madison, founded in 1912, and the Fine Arts Quartet in Milwaukee have been sponsored by the University of Wisconsin, which has also supported many other musical activities. The Fine Arts Quartet celebrated its 60th anniversary in 2006. Milwaukee is the home of the Great Lakes Opera Company, the Milwaukee Ballet Company, and the Milwaukee Symphony. Madison is home to the Madison Symphony, the Madison Opera, and the Wisconsin Chamber Orchestra.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, the state of Wisconsin had 379 public library systems, with a total of 455 libraries, of which there were 79 branches. In that same year, the public library system had a combined total of 18,647,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 49,768,000. The system also had 844,000 audio and 857,000 video items, 46,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and 11 bookmobiles. The Milwaukee Public Library, founded in 1878, maintained 12 branches and had 2,504,461 bound volumes as of 1998; the Madison Public Library had seven branches and over 815,686 volumes. The largest academic library is that of the University of Wisconsin at Madison, with six million bound volumes. The best-known special library is that of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin at Madison, with 3.6 million books and over 60,000 cu ft (1,700 cu m) of government publications and documents. In 2001, operating income for the state's public library system was \$166,870,000 and included \$5,311,000 in state funding and \$149,637,000 in local funding.

Wisconsin had 208 museums and historical sites in 2000. The State Historical Society maintains a historical museum in Madison and other historical sites and museums around the state. The Milwaukee Public Museum contains collections on history, natural history, and art. The Milwaukee Art Center, founded in 1888, a major museum of the visual arts, emphasizes European works of the 17th to 19th centuries. The Madison Art Center, founded in 1901, has European, Japanese, Mexican, and American paintings and sculpture, as well as 17th-century Flemish tapestries. The Charles Allis Art Library in Milwaukee, founded in 1947, houses collections of Chinese porcelains, French antiques, and 19th-century American landscape paintings. Other leading art museums include the Elvehjem Museum of Art in Madison and the Theodore Lyman Wright Art Center at Beloit College.

The Circus World Museum at Baraboo occupies the site of the original Ringling Brothers Circus. Other museums of special interest include the Dard Hunter Paper Museum (Appleton), the National Railroad Museum (Green Bay), and the Green Bay Packer Hall of Fame. More than 500 species of animals are on exhibit at the Milwaukee County Zoological Park; Madison and Racine also have zoos. Historical sites in Wisconsin include Villa Louis, a fur trader's mansion at Prairie du Chien; the Old Wade House in Greenbush; Old World Wisconsin, an outdoor ethnic museum

near Eagle; Pendarvis, focusing on lead mining at Mineral Point; and the Taliesin estate of architect Frank Lloyd Wright, in Spring Green.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

About 95.5% of the state's households had telephones in 2004. In addition, by June of that same year there were 2,831,645 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 63.8% of Wisconsin households had a computer and 57.4% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 732,706 high-speed lines in Wisconsin, 682,073 residential and 50,633 for business. In 2005 there were 34 major AM and 99 major FM radio stations. The state also had 28 major television stations. The Milwaukee area had 815,640 television households, 63% of which subscribed to cable in 1999. A total of 77,862 Internet domain names were registered within the state in the year 2000.

45 PRESS

The state's first newspaper was the *Green Bay Intelligencer*, founded in 1833. Some early papers were put out by rival land speculators who used them to promote their interests. Among these was the *Milwaukee Sentinel*, launched in 1837 and a major daily newspaper today. As immigrants poured in from Europe in succeeding decades, German, Norwegian, Polish, Yiddish, and Finnish papers sprang up. Wisconsin journalism has a tradition of political involvement. The *Milwaukee Leader*, founded as a Socialist daily by Victor Berger in 1911, was denied the use of the US mails because it printed antiwar articles; the *Madison Capital Times*, still important today, also started as an antiwar paper. Founded in 1882 by Lucius Nieman, the *Milwaukee Journal* (now known as the *Milwaukee Journal Sentinel*), won a Pulitzer Prize in 1919 for distinguished public service and remains the state's largest-selling and most influential newspaper.

In 2005, Wisconsin had 11 morning papers, 24 evening papers, and 18 Sunday papers.

The following table shows leading dailies with their approximate 2005 circulations:

AREA	NAME	DAILY	SUNDAY
Green Bay	<i>Press-Gazette</i> (m,S)	68,944	83,395
Madison	<i>Wisconsin State Journal</i> (m,S)	101,639	152,943
Milwaukee	<i>Journal Sentinel</i> (m,S)	227,387	435,127

As of 2005 there were also 223 weekly newspapers, as well as some 300 periodicals directed to a wide variety of special interests. Among the largest are *Hoard's Dairyman*, founded by William D. Hoard in 1885, with a 81,133 paid subscribers in 2005; it is the only paid dairy publication in the United States. Kalmbach Publishing Co. located in Brookfield originally published rail magazines, *Model Railroader*, *Trains*, *Classic Toy Trains*, *Garden Railways* and *Classic Trains*, and later diversified with *Birder's World*, *Scale Auto*, and *Bead&Button*, *BeadStyle* and *Art Jewelry*, *The Writer*, and *American Snowmobiler*. Other publications are *Bowling Magazine*, *Coin Prices*, *Coin*, and *Old Cars Weekly*. Other notable periodicals are the *Wisconsin Magazine of History*, published quarterly in Madison by the state historical society; and *Wisconsin Trails*, another quarterly, also published in Madison.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 8,188 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 5,639 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

The Wisconsin Historical Society, founded in 1846, is one of the largest organizations of its kind. It has a museum, a library, and research collections in Madison and is a prominent publisher of historical articles and books. The Wisconsin Arts Board is also in Madison. There are several city and county historical societies throughout the state as well.

National organizations based in Wisconsin include the United States Bowling Congress, American Society of Agronomy, Crop Science Society of America, Experimental Aircraft Association, Inter-Varsity Christian Fellowship, the John Birch Society, the National Association of Congregational Christian Churches, the Seventh Day Baptist General Conference, the National Funeral Directors Association, the United States Curling Association, and World Council of Credit Unions.

The Purebred Dairy Cattle Association is a national agricultural organization. State agricultural organizations include the Wisconsin Cheesemakers' Association, the Wisconsin Dairy Products Association, the Wisconsin Apple Growers Association, the Wisconsin Christmas Trees Producers, and the Wisconsin Berry Growers Association. There are professional organizations for a variety of professions. The Natural Heritage Land Trust and the North American Lake Management Society are local conservation groups.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Wisconsin had estimated tourism revenues of \$11.7 billion in 2004, reflecting a 2% increase over the previous year. Tourism supports 309,000 jobs in the state.

The state has ample scenic attractions and outdoor recreational opportunities. There are over 33 state parks. In addition to the famous Wisconsin Dells gorge, visitors are attracted to the Cave of the Mounds at Blue Mounds, the sandstone cliffs along the Mississippi River, the rocky Lake Michigan shoreline of the Door Peninsula, the lakes and forests of the Rhinelander and Minocqua areas in the north, and Lake Geneva, a resort, in the south. Several areas in southern and northwestern Wisconsin, preserved by the state as the Ice Age National Scientific Reserve, still exhibit drumlins, moraines, and unusual geological formations. The town of Hayward hosts the Freshwater Fishing Hall of Fame. Hank Aaron State Trail is named for the Milwaukee baseball star. Wisconsin hosts the World's Championship Snowmobile Derby in Eagle River. There are 43 auto race tracks. The Milwaukee Mile is the oldest racetrack in the world. Spring Green is the home of Frank Lloyd Wright's home, Taliesin. America's largest waterpark, Noah's Ark, is located in the Wisconsin Dells.

There are three national parks in Wisconsin: Apostle Islands National Lakeshore, on Lake Superior, and the St. Croix and Lower St. Croix scenic riverways. There are 48 state parks, covering 65,483 acres (26,193 hectares).

48 SPORTS

Wisconsin has three major professional sports teams: the Milwaukee Brewers of Major League Baseball (MLB), the Green Bay Packers of the National Football League (NFL), and the Milwaukee Bucks of the National Basketball Association (NBA). The Brewers won the American League Pennant in 1982 but lost the World Series to St. Louis. The Brewers have since been realigned and now play in the National League. The Packers won five league championships prior to the establishment of the Super Bowl and then won Super Bowls I, II, and XXXI in 1967, 1968, and 1997, respectively. The Bucks won the NBA championship in 1971. Milwaukee is the site of the Greater Milwaukee Open in professional golf. There are also numerous minor league baseball, basketball, and hockey teams in the state.

The University of Wisconsin Badgers compete in the Big Ten Conference. Badger ice hockey teams won the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championship in 1973, 1977, 1981, 1983, 1990, and 2006. In football, they won the Rose Bowl in 1994, 1999, and 2000 after losing their first three appearances, in 1953, 1960, and 1963. Overall, they have eight bowl game victories. The basketball team from Marquette University in Milwaukee won the NCAA Division I title in 1977 and the National Invitation Tournament championship in 1970. They advanced to the NCAA Final Four in 2003.

Other annual sporting events include ski jumping tournaments in Iola, Middleton, and Wetsby; the World Championship Snowmobile Derby in Eagle River in January; the American Birkebeiner Cross-Country Race at Cable and Hayward in February; and the Great Wisconsin Dells Balloon Race in the Dells. Famous athletes native to Wisconsin include Eric Heiden, Elroy (Crazy Legs) Hirsch, and Chris Witt.

49 FAMOUS WISCONSINITES

Wisconsinites who have won prominence as federal judicial or executive officers include Jeremiah Rusk (b. Ohio, 1830–93), a Wisconsin governor selected as the first head of the Agriculture Department in 1889; William F. Vilas (b. Vermont, 1840–1908), who served as postmaster general under Grover Cleveland; Melvin Laird (b. Nebraska, 1922–92), a congressman who served as secretary of defense from 1969–73; and William Rehnquist (1924–2005), named to the Supreme Court in 1971 and the 16th Chief Justice from 1986–2005.

The state's best-known political figures achieved nationwide reputations as members of the US Senate. John C. Spooner (b. Indiana, 1843–1919) won distinction as one of the inner circle of Senate conservatives before he retired in 1907 amid an upsurge of Progressivism within his party. Robert La Follette (1855–1925) embodied the new wave of Republican Progressivism—and, later, isolationism—as governor and in the Senate. His sons, Robert Jr. (1895–1953), and Philip (1897–1965), carried on the Progressive tradition as US senator and governor, respectively. Joseph R. McCarthy (1908–57) won attention in the Senate and throughout the nation for his anti-communist crusade. William Proxmire (b. Illinois, 1915–2005), a Democrat, succeeded McCarthy in the Senate and eventually became chairman of the powerful Senate Banking Committee. Representative Henry S. Reuss (1912–2002), also a Democrat, served in the House for 28 years and was chair-

man of the Banking Committee. Democrat Clement Zablocki (1912–83), elected to the House in 1948, was chairman of the Foreign Affairs Committee. Victor L. Berger (b. Transylvania, 1860–1929), a founder of the Social-Democratic Party, was first elected to the House in 1910; during World War I, he was denied his seat and prosecuted because of his antiwar views.

Besides the La Follettes, other governors who made notable contributions to the state include James D. Doty (b. New York, 1799–1865), who fought to make Wisconsin a separate territory and became the territory's second governor; William D. Hoard (b. New York, 1836–1918), a tireless promoter of dairy farming, as both private citizen and chief executive; James O. Davidson (b. Norway, 1854–1922), who attempted to improve relations between conservatives and progressives; Francis E. McGovern (1866–1946), who pushed through the legislature significant social and economic reform legislation; and Walter J. Kohler (1875–1940), an industrialist who, as governor, greatly expanded the power of the office.

Prominent figures in the state's early history include the Jesuit Jacques Marquette (b. France, 1637–75) and the explorer Louis Jolliet (b. Canada, 1645–1700); and the Sauk Indian leader Black Hawk (b. Illinois, 1767–1838), who was defeated in the Battle of Bad Axe. John Bascom (b. New York, 1827–1911) was an early president of the University of Wisconsin. Charles Van Hise (1857–1918), a later president, promoted the use of academic experts as government advisers; John R. Commons (b. Ohio, 1862–1945), an economist at the university, drafted major state legislation. Philetus Sawyer (b. Vermont, 1816–1900), a prosperous lumberman and US senator, led the state Republican Party for 15 years, before Progressives won control. Carl Schurz (b. Germany, 1829–1906) was a prominent Republican Party figure in the years immediately before the Civil War. Lucius W. Nieman (1857–1935) founded the *Milwaukee Journal*, and Edward P. Allis (b. New York, 1824–89) was an important iron industrialist.

Wisconsin was the birthplace of several Nobel Prize winners, including Herbert S. Gasser (1888–1963), who shared a 1944 Nobel Prize for research into nerve impulses; William P. Murphy (1892–1987), who shared a 1934 prize for research relating to anemia; John Bardeen (1908–91), who shared the physics award in 1956 for his contribution to the development of the transistor; and Herbert A. Simon (1916–2001), who won the 1978 prize in economics. Stephen Babcock (b. New York, 1843–1931) was an agricultural chemist who did research important to the dairy industry. In addition, Wisconsin was the birthplace of the child psychologist Arnold Gesell (1880–1961), and of naturalist and explorer Chapman Andrews (1884–1960). John Muir (b. Scotland, 1838–1914), another noted naturalist and explorer, lived in Wisconsin in his youth. Conservationist Aldo Leopold (1887–1948) taught at the University of Wisconsin and wrote *A Sand County Almanac*.

Frederick Jackson Turner (1861–1932), historian of the American frontier, was born in Wisconsin, as were the economist and social theorist Thorstein Veblen (1857–1929) and the diplomat and historian George F. Kennan (1904–2005). Famous journalists include news commentator H. V. Kaltenborn (1878–1965), award-winning sports columnist Red Smith (Walter Wellesley Smith, 1905–82), and television newsman Tom Snyder (b. 1936).

Thornton Wilder (1897–1975), a novelist and playwright best known for *The Bridge of San Luis Rey* (1927), *Our Town* (1938),

and *The Skin of Our Teeth* (1942), each of which won a Pulitzer Prize, heads the list of literary figures born in the state. Hamlin Garland (1860–1940), a novelist and essayist, was also a native, as were the poet Ella Wheeler Wilcox (1850–1919) and the novelist and playwright Zona Gale (1874–1938). The novelist Edna Ferber (b. Michigan, 1887–1968) spent her early life in the state.

Wisconsin is the birthplace of architect Frank Lloyd Wright (1869–1959) and the site of his famous Taliesin estate (Spring Green), Johnson Wax Co. headquarters (Racine), and first Unitarian Church (Madison). The artist Georgia O'Keefe (1887–1986) was born in Sun Prairie. Wisconsin natives who have distinguished themselves in the performing arts include Alfred Lunt (1893–1977), Frederic March (Frederick Bickel, 1897–1975), Spencer Tracy (1900–1967), Agnes Moorehead (1906–74), and Orson Welles (1915–85). Magician and escape artist Harry Houdini (Ehrich Weiss, b. Hungary, 1874–1926) was raised in the state, and piano stylist Liberace (Wlad Ziu Valentino Liberace, 1919–1987) was born there. Speed skater Eric Heiden (b. 1958), a five-time Olympic gold medalist in 1980, is another Wisconsin native.

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WYOMING

State of Wyoming



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Derived from the Delaware Indian words *maugh-wau-wa-ma*, meaning “large plains.” **NICKNAME:** The Equality State; The Cowboy State. **CAPITAL:** Cheyenne. **ENTERED UNION:** 10 July 1890 (44th). **SONG:** “Wyoming.” **MOTTO:** Equal Rights. **FLAG:** A blue field with a white inner border and a red outer border (symbolizing, respectively, the sky, purity, and the Native Americans) surrounds a bison with the state seal branded on its side. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** A female figure holding the banner “Equal Rights” stands on a pedestal between pillars topped by lamps symbolizing the light of knowledge. Two male figures flank the pillars, on which are draped banners that proclaim “Livestock,” “Grain,” “Mines,” and “Oil.” At the bottom is a shield with an eagle, star, and Roman numerals XLIV, flanked by the dates 1869 and 1890. The whole is surrounded by the words “Great Seal of the State of Wyoming.” **BIRD:** Western meadowlark. **FISH:** Cutthroat trout. **FLOWER:** Indian paintbrush. **TREE:** Cottonwood. **GEM:** Jade. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr. and Wyoming Equality Day, 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. Special observances are made on Arbor Day, last Monday in April; Native American Day, 2nd Friday in May; Juneteenth, 3rd Saturday in June; Birthday of Nellie Tayloe Ross, 29 November; Pearl Harbor Remembrance Day, 7 December; Wyoming Day, 10 December. **TIME:** 5 AM MST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the Rocky Mountain region of the northwestern United States, Wyoming ranks ninth in size among the 50 states.

The total area of Wyoming is 97,809 sq mi (253,325 sq km), of which land comprises 96,989 sq mi (251,201 sq km) and inland water 820 sq mi (2,124 sq km). Shaped like a rectangle, Wyoming has a maximum E–W extension of 365 mi (587 km); its extreme distance N–S is 265 mi (426 km).

Wyoming is bordered on the N by Montana; on the E by South Dakota and Nebraska; on the S by Colorado and Utah; and on the W by Utah, Idaho, and Montana. The boundary length of Wyoming totals 1,269 mi (2,042 km). The state’s geographic center lies in Fremont County, 58 mi (93 km) ENE of Lander.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The eastern third of Wyoming forms part of the Great Plains; the remainder belongs to the Rocky Mountains. Much of western Wyoming constitutes a special geomorphic province known as the Wyoming Basin. It represents a westward extension of the Great Plains into the Rocky Mountains, separating the Middle and Southern Rockies. Extending diagonally across the state from northwest to south is the Continental Divide, which separates the generally eastward-flowing drainage system of North America from the westward-flowing drainage of the Pacific states.

Wyoming’s mean elevation is 6,700 ft (2,044 m), second only to Colorado’s among the 50 states. Gannett Peak, in western Wyoming, at 13,804 ft (4,210 m), is the highest point in the state. With the notable exception of the Black Hills in the northeast, the eastern portion of Wyoming is generally much lower. The lowest point in the state—3,099 ft (945 m)—occurs in the northeast, on the Belle Fourche River.

Wyoming’s largest lake—Yellowstone—lies in the heart of Yellowstone National Park. In Grand Teton National Park to the south are two smaller lakes, Jackson and Jenny. All but one of Wyoming’s major rivers originate within its boundaries and flow into neighboring states. The Green River flows into Utah; the Yellowstone, Big Horn, and Powder rivers flow into Montana; the Snake River, into Idaho; the Belle Fourche and Cheyenne rivers, into South Dakota; and the Niobrara and Bear rivers, into Nebraska. The lone exception, the North Platte River, enters Wyoming from Colorado and eventually exits into Nebraska.

³ CLIMATE

Wyoming is generally semiarid, with local desert conditions. Normal daily temperatures in Cheyenne range from 15°F (-9°C) to 38°F (3°C) in January, and 54°F (12°C) to 83°F (28°C) in July. The record low temperature, -66°F (-54°C), was set 9 February 1933 at Riverside; the record high, 114°F (46°C), 12 July 1900 at Basin. In Cheyenne, average annual precipitation is about 14.5 in (36 cm) a year, most of that falling between April and September; the snowfall in Cheyenne averages 51.2 in (130 cm) annually.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Wyoming has more than 2,000 species of ferns, conifers, and flowering plants. Prairie grasses dominate the eastern third of the state; desert shrubs, primarily sagebrush, cover the Great Basin in the west. Rocky Mountain forests consist largely of pine, spruce, and fir. In April 2006, three species were listed as threatened by the US Fish and Wildlife Service, including Colorado butterfly plant,

Ute ladies' tresses, and desert yellowhead; no plant species were listed as endangered.

The mule deer is the most abundant game mammal; others include the white-tailed deer, pronghorn antelope, elk, and moose. The jackrabbit, antelope, and raccoon are plentiful. Wild turkey, bobwhite quail, and several grouse species are leading game birds; more than 50 species of non-game birds also inhabit Wyoming all year long. There are 78 species of fish, of which rainbow trout is the favorite game fish. In April 2006, nine Wyoming animal species (vertebrates and invertebrates) were listed as threatened or endangered, including the black-footed ferret, grizzly bear, razor-back sucker, Kendall Warm Springs dace, and Wyoming toad.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Environmental Quality Council, a seven-member board appointed by the governor, hears and decides all cases arising under the regulations of the Department of Environmental Quality, which was established in 1973 and reorganized in 1992. The department enforces measures to prevent pollution of Wyoming's surface water and groundwater, and it administers 21 air-monitoring sites to maintain air quality.

Wyoming typically spends the most money per capita on the environment and natural resources relative to all the states in the union. The state's principal environmental concerns are conservation of scarce water resources and preservation of air quality. Programs to dispose of hazardous waste and assure safe drinking water are administered by the federal Environmental Protection Agency (EPA); in 2002–05, the federal program to fund infrastructure for safe drinking water allocated 1% of its budget to Wyoming.

Wetlands cover about 1.25 million acres (505,857 hectares) of Wyoming and are administered and protected by the Wyoming Wetlands Act.

In 2003, 19.3 million lb of toxic chemicals were released in the state. Also in 2003, Wyoming had 42 hazardous waste sites listed in the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database, two of which, F.E. Warren Air Force Base and Mystery Bridge (US Highway 20 in Evansville), were on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2005, the EPA spent over \$38,000 through the Superfund program for the cleanup of hazardous waste sites in the state. The same year, federal EPA grants awarded to the state included \$8 million for the drinking water state revolving fund and \$5.2 million for the water pollution control revolving fund.

6 POPULATION

Wyoming ranked 51st in population among the United States and the District of Columbia with an estimated total of 509,294 in 2005, an increase of 3.1% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, Wyoming's population grew from 453,588 to 493,782, an increase of 8.9%. The population was projected to reach 528,005 by 2015 and 529,031 by 2025.

In 2004 the median age was 38.4. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 23.1% of the population while 12.1% was age 65 or older.

Wyoming has the second-lowest population density in the country (5.2 persons per sq mi/2 persons per sq km in 2004); only Alaska is more sparsely populated. However, during the 1970s Wyoming was the third-fastest-growing state; its population grew

by 41%, from 332,416 at the 1970 census to 469,557 according to the 1980 census, largely from in-migration. The growth rate reversed during the 1980s, shrinking the population to 453,588 in 1990 (-3.4%).

Leading cities, all with populations of less than 100,000, are Cheyenne, Casper, and Laramie. The Cheyenne metropolitan area had an estimated population of 85,296 in 2004; the Casper metropolitan area had an estimated population of 69,010.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

There were some 11,133 American Indians residing in Wyoming in 2000, up from 9,000 at the 1990 census. In 2004, 2.4% of the state's total population was American Indian. The largest tribe is the Arapaho. Wind River (2000 population 23,250) is the state's only reservation; tribal lands covered 1,793,000 acres (726,000 hectares) in 1982.

The black population was 3,722 in 2000. In 2004, blacks made up 0.9% of the state's population. In 2000, the Asian population was 2,771; the largest group was the Chinese, who numbered 609. In 2004, 0.6% of the population was Asian and 0.1% Pacific Islander. That year, 6.7% of the population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2004 as well, 1.2% of the population reported origin of two or more races. In 2002 about 95% of the population was white and mostly of European descent, the largest groups being German, English, and Irish.

8 LANGUAGES

Some place-names—Oshoto, Shoshoni, Cheyenne, Uinta—reflect early contacts with regional Indians.

Some terms common in Wyoming, like *comforter* (tied quilt) and *angleworm* (earthworm), evidence the Northern dialect of early settlers from New York State and New England, but generally Wyoming English is North Midland with some South Midland mixture, especially along the Nebraska border. Geography has changed the meaning of *hole*, *basin*, *meadow*, and *park* to signify mountain openings.

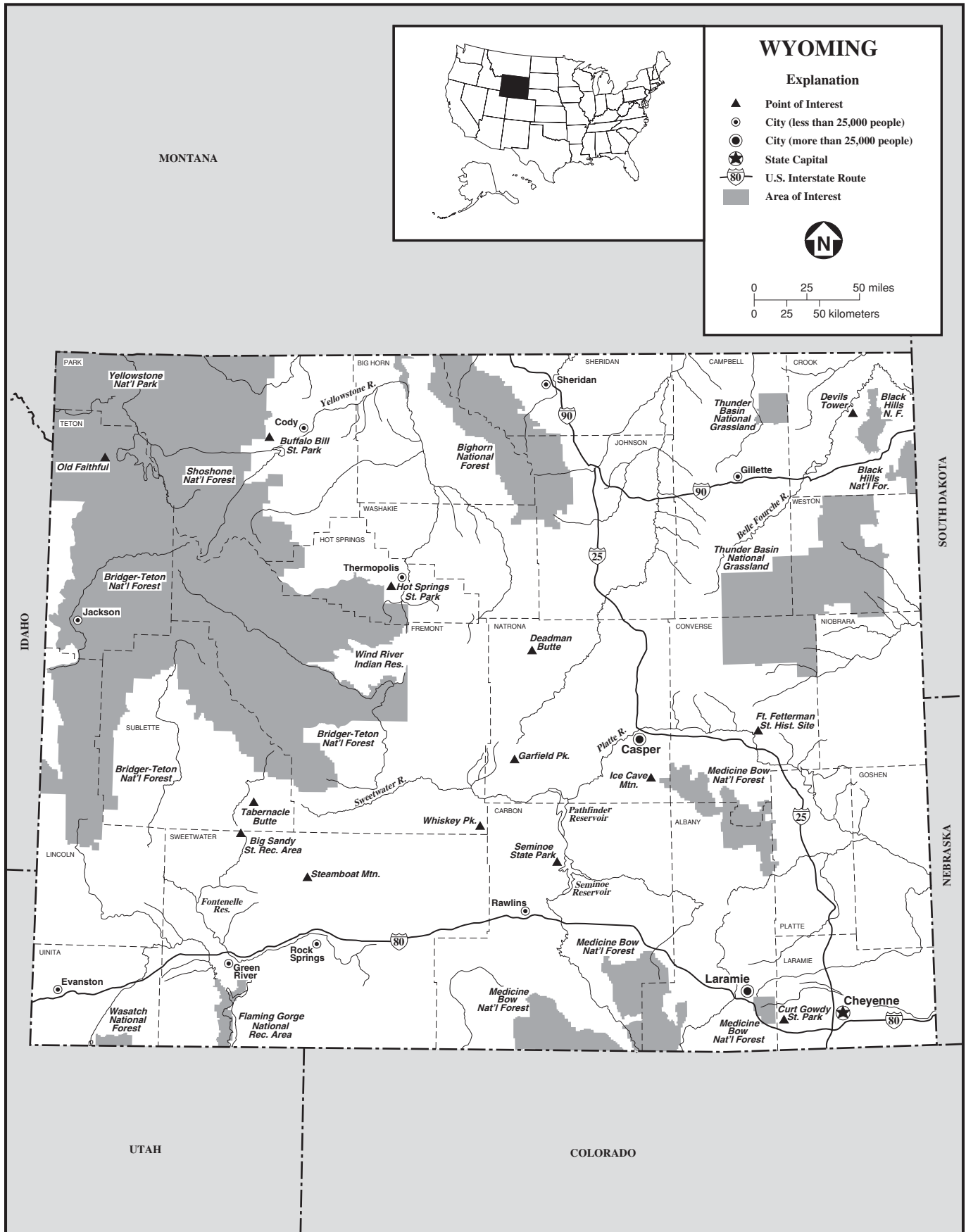
In 2000, over 433,000 Wyomingites—93.6% of the residents five years old or older (down slightly from 94.3% in 1990)—spoke only English at home.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and over. The category "Other Native North American languages" includes Apache, Cherokee, Choctaw, Dakota, Keres, Pima, and Yupik.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	462,809	100.0
Speak only English	433,324	93.6
Speak a language other than English	29,485	6.4
Speak a language other than English	29,485	6.4
Spanish or Spanish Creole	18,606	4.0
German	2,382	0.5
Other Native North American languages	1,795	0.4
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	1,618	0.3
Japanese	518	0.1
Chinese	512	0.1

9 RELIGIONS

The religiously active population in Wyoming is somewhat closely split between Protestants and Catholics. In 2004, the Roman Catholic Church had about 50,979 members. The next largest



single denomination is the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons), with 56,665 members reported in 2006. Other leading denominations include the Southern Baptist Convention, with 17,101 members in 2000 (and 232 newly baptized members reported in 2002); the United Methodist Church, 11,431 members in 2000; the Lutheran Church—Missouri Synod, 11,113; and the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, 10,038. Wyoming also had an estimated 430 Jews and 263 Muslims in 2000. That year, there were 263,057 people (about 53% of the population) who were not counted as members of any religious organization.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Wyoming as of 2003 was served by four railroads. Two of the largest were the Burlington Northern Santa Fe and the Union Pacific, both Class I lines. Out of a total of 1,882 mi (3,030 km) of railroad track these two companies accounted for nearly all of it at 1,846 mi (2,972 km). This was due to the double and triple-tracking, of their respective mainlines, primarily to haul coal from the Powder River Basin. In 2003, coal was the top commodity carried by rail that originated and terminated within the state. As of 2006, there was no Amtrak service in or through the state.

As of 2004, there were 27,594 mi (44,426 km) of public highways and roads in the state. In that same year, there were some 651,000 registered motor vehicles and 380,180 licensed drivers in the state.

In 2005, Wyoming had a total of 113 public and private-use aviation-related facilities. This included 90 airports and 23 heliports. Jackson Hole Airport in Jackson was the state's main airport. In 2004, the airport had 212,247 passenger enplanements.

¹¹HISTORY

The first human inhabitants of what is now Wyoming probably arrived about 11,500 BC. The forebears of these early Americans had most likely come by way of the Bering Strait and then worked their way south. Sites of mammoth kills south of Rawlins and near Powell suggest that the area was well populated. Artifacts from the period beginning in 500 BC include, high in the Big Horn Mountains of northern Wyoming, the Medicine Wheel monument, a circle of stones some 75 ft (23 m) in diameter with 28 "spokes" that were apparently used to mark the seasons.

The first Europeans to visit Wyoming were French Canadian traders. The Vérendrye brothers, Francois and Louis-Joseph, probably reached the Big Horn Mountains in 1743; nothing came of their travels, however. The first effective discovery of Wyoming was made by an American fur trader, John Colter, earlier a member of the Lewis and Clark expedition. In 1806–07, Colter traversed much of the northwestern part of the state, probably crossing what is now Yellowstone Park, and came back to report on the natural wonders of the area. After Colter, trappers and fur traders crisscrossed Wyoming. By 1840, the major rivers and mountains were named, and the general topography of the region was well documented.

Between 1840 and 1867, thousands of Americans crossed Wyoming on the Oregon Trail, bound for Oregon or California. Migration began as a trickle, but with the discovery of gold in California in 1848, the trickle became a flood. In 1849 alone it is estimated that more than 22,000 "forty-niners" passed through the state

via the Oregon Trail. Fort Laramie in the east and Fort Bridger in the west were the best-known supply points; between the two forts, immigrants encountered Independence Rock, Devil's Gate, Split Rock, and South Pass, all landmarks on the Oregon Trail. Although thousands of Americans crossed Wyoming during this period, very few stayed in this harsh region.

The event that brought population as well as territorial status to Wyoming was the coming of the Union Pacific Railroad. Railroad towns such as Cheyenne, Laramie, Rawlins, Rock Springs, and Evanston sprang up as the transcontinental railroad leapfrogged across the region in 1867 and 1868; in the latter year, Wyoming was organized as a territory. The first territorial legislature distinguished itself in 1869 by passing a women's suffrage act, the first state or territory to do so. Wyoming quickly acquired the nickname the Equality State.

After hostile Indians had been subdued by the late 1870s, Wyoming became a center for cattlemen and foreign investors who hoped to make a fortune from free grass and the high price of cattle. Thousands of Texas longhorn cattle were driven to the southeastern quarter of the territory. In time, blooded cattle, particularly Hereford, were introduced. As cattle "barons" dominated both the rangeland and state politics, the small rancher and cowboy found it difficult to go into the ranching business. However, overgrazing, low cattle prices, and the dry summer of 1886 and harsh winter of 1886/87 all proved disastrous to the speculators. The struggle between the large landowners and small ranchers culminated in the so-called Johnson County War of 1891–92, in which the large landowners were arrested by federal troops after attempting to take the law into their own hands.

Wyoming became a state in 1890, but growth remained slow. Attempts at farming proved unsuccessful in this high, arid region, and Wyoming to this day remains a sparsely settled ranching state. What growth has occurred has been primarily through the minerals industry, especially the development of coal, oil, and natural gas resources during the 1970s because of the national energy crisis. However, the world's oil glut in the early 1980s slowed the growth of the state's energy industries; in 1984, the growth of the state's nonfuel mineral industry slowed as well.

Wyoming's population, which had risen 41% during the minerals boom of the 1970s, declined, leaving the state ranking 50th in population in the 1990 census, having ceded 49th place to Alaska in the decade since 1980. In the 1990s, Wyoming's economy was spurred by a rise in oil prices and expanding coal production, as well as increased tourism. As of the 2000 census, the population stood at nearly 500,000, still ranking 50th in the nation.

In the summer of 1988, wild fires raged through Yellowstone National Park, damaging nearly one-third of the park's total area. Gray wolves, eradicated from the mountains of Wyoming and Idaho in the 1930s, were reintroduced to Yellowstone National Park and central Idaho in 1995 and 1996 as part of the US Fish and Wildlife Service's wolf reintroduction program. The program was initiated to fulfill a goal of the Endangered Species Act, passed in 1973. It was subjected to legal challenge in 1997, but the wolf reintroduction program was ruled legal in 2000. In 2003, the US Fish and Wildlife Service reclassified the gray wolves in the northern Rockies from an "endangered" to a "threatened" species, due to the growing wolf populations in those areas. In 2005, Governor Dave Freudenthal, elected in 2002, signed a petition requesting

the Fish and Wildlife Service to remove the gray wolf from the list of threatened and endangered species. The final decision on whether to delist the species must be made by the Fish and Wildlife Service no later than July 2006.

Unlike most of the nation, Wyoming in 2003 had a \$169 million budget surplus, largely due to an increase in mineral revenues. Rising health care costs and the need to pay for new state buildings and schools caused Democratic Governor Freudenthal to call for increases in property taxes.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Wyoming's state constitution was approved by the voters in November 1889 and accepted by Congress in 1890. By January 2005 it had been amended 94 times. Constitutional amendments require a two-thirds vote of the legislature and ratification by the voters at the next general election.

The legislature consists of a 30-member Senate and a 60-member House of Representatives. Senators are elected to staggered four-year terms. The entire House of Representatives is elected every two years for a two-year term. Legislators must be US citizens, citizens and residents of Wyoming, qualified voters, and residents of their districts for at least one year prior to election. The minimum age for senators is 25 and for representatives 21. Regular sessions begin in January or February and are limited to 40 legislative days in odd-numbered years and 20 legislative days in even-numbered years. The legislature may call special sessions by a petition of a majority of the members of each house. In 2004 the legislative salary was \$125 per diem during regular sessions, unchanged from 1999.

Heading the executive branch are the following elected officials: the governor, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, comptroller, commissioner of finance, and superintendent of public instruction. Each serves a four-year term. The governor is limited to serving two consecutive terms. His successor is the secretary of the Senate, as there is no lieutenant governor. A governor must be at least 30 years old, a US citizen, a state citizen, and at least a five-resident of the state. As of December 2004, the governor's salary was \$130,000.

A bill passed by the legislature becomes law if signed by the governor, if left unsigned by the governor for three days while the legislature is in session (or 15 days after it has adjourned), or if passed over the governor's veto by two-thirds of the elected members of each house.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, and bona fide residents of Wyoming. Convicted felons and those adjudicated as mentally incompetent may not vote.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

The Republicans traditionally dominate Wyoming politics at the federal and state level, although the state elected a Democratic governor, Dave Freudenthal, in 2002. There were 246,000 registered voters in 2004. Both of Wyoming's senators, Craig Thomas (reelected in 2000) and Mike Enzi (elected in 1996 to succeed Alan Simpson and reelected in 2002), are Republicans, as is Wyoming's US Representative, Barbara Cubin, reelected in 2004.

As of mid-2005, there were 23 Republicans and 7 Democrats in the state Senate and 46 Republicans and 14 Democrats in the

Wyoming Presidential Vote by Major Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	WYOMING WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1948	3	*Truman (D)	52,354	47,947
1952	3	*Eisenhower (R)	47,934	81,049
1956	3	*Eisenhower (R)	49,554	74,573
1960	3	Nixon (R)	63,331	77,451
1964	3	*Johnson (D)	80,718	61,998
1968	3	*Nixon (R)	45,173	70,927
1972	3	*Nixon (R)	44,358	100,464
1976	3	Ford (R)	62,239	92,717
1980	3	*Reagan (R)	49,427	110,700
1984	3	*Reagan (R)	53,370	133,241
1988	3	*Bush (R)	67,113	106,867
1992**	3	Bush (R)	68,160	79,347
1996**	3	Dole (R)	77,934	105,388
2000	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	60,481	147,947
2004	3	*Bush, G. W. (R)	70,776	167,629

*Won US presidential election.

**IND. candidate Ross Perot received 51,263 votes in 1992 and 25,928 votes in 1996.

state House. Republican George W. Bush received 69% of the vote in the 2000 presidential election, while Democratic candidate Al Gore won 28%. Bush garnered the same percentage (69%) in his 2004 bid for a second term, defeating Democrat John Kerry, who won just 29% of the vote. In 1998, 30% of registered voters were Democratic, 59% Republican, and 11% unaffiliated or members of other parties. The state had three electoral votes in the 2004 presidential election.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In 2005, Wyoming was subdivided into 23 counties, 98 municipal governments, 48 public school districts, and 546 special districts and authorities.

Counties, which can be geographically vast and include a relatively small population, are run by commissioners. Each county has a clerk, treasurer, assessor, sheriff, attorney, coroner, district court clerk, and from one to five county judges or justices of the peace. Municipalities may decide their own form of government, including mayor-council and council-manager.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 32,026 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

15 STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in Wyoming operates under state statute; a homeland security director is designated as the state homeland security advisor.

The Board of Education has primary responsibility for educational services in Wyoming. Transportation services are provided by the Wyoming Department of Transportation; health and welfare matters fall under the jurisdiction of the Department of Health and the Department of Family Services. Among the many state agencies concerned with natural resources are the Department of Environmental Quality, Land Quality Advisory Board, Oil and Gas Conservation Commission, and Water Development

Commission. The Department of Employment is responsible for labor services.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Wyoming's judicial branch consists of a supreme court with a chief justice and four other justices, district courts with a total of 222 judges, and county judges and justices of the peace. Supreme court justices are appointed by the governor but must stand for re-election at the next general election. Once elected, they serve eight-year terms.

As of 31 December 2004, a total of 1,980 prisoners were held in Wyoming's state and federal prisons, an increase from 1,872 of 5.8% from the previous year. As of year-end 2004, a total of 210 inmates were female, up from 175 or 20% from the year before. Among sentenced prisoners (one year or more), Wyoming had an incarceration rate of 389 per 100,000 population in 2004.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Wyoming in 2004, had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 229.6 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 1,163 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 16,889 reported incidents or 3,334.3 reported incidents per 100,000 people. Wyoming has a death penalty, of which lethal injection is the sole method of execution. However, if that method is declared unconstitutional, the use of lethal gas has been authorized. From 1976 through 5 May 2006, the state has carried out only one execution, in January 1992. As of 1 January 2006, Wyoming had only two inmates on death row.

In 2003, Wyoming spent \$13,404,443 on homeland security, an average of \$24 per state resident.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 5,125 active-duty military personnel and 524 civilian personnel stationed in Wyoming, nearly all of whom were at Wyoming's only US military installation—the Francis E. Warren Air Force Base at Cheyenne. The Air National Guard was stationed at Cheyenne Municipal Airport. Total defense contracts awarded in 2004 totaled more than \$115 million, the lowest in the nation. Total defense payroll outlays for that same year were \$302 million, second lowest only to Utah.

In 2003, there were 54,941 military veterans living in Wyoming. Of these, 6,344 were veterans of World War II; 5,477 of the Korean conflict; 18,625 of the Vietnam era; and 9,840 of the Gulf War. In 2004, the Veterans Administration expended more than \$168 million in pensions, medical assistance, and other major veterans' benefits.

As of 31 October 2004, the Wyoming Highway Patrol employed 174 full-time sworn officers.

18 MIGRATION

Many people have passed through Wyoming, but relatively few have come to stay. Not until the 1970s, a time of rapid economic development, did the picture change. Between 1970 and 1983, Wyoming gained a net total of 45,500 residents through migration. In the 1980s, the state's total population grew only by 1.1%,

primarily offset by the net loss from migration of 52,000 persons. The urban population increased from 62.8% of the state's total in 1980 to 65% in 1990. Between 1990 and 1998, Wyoming had a net loss of less than 500 in domestic migration but a net gain of 2,000 in international migration. In 1998, the state admitted 159 foreign immigrants. Between 1990 and 1998, the state's overall population increased 6%. In the period 2000–05, net international migration was 2,264 and net internal migration was 1,771, for a net gain of 4,035 people.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

Emblematic of Wyoming's concern for water resources is the fact that it belongs to seven compacts with neighboring states concerning the Bear, Belle Fourche, Colorado, Upper Colorado, Snake, Upper Niobrara, and Yellowstone rivers.

Wyoming has also joined the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, the Western Interstate Energy Compact, the Western States Water Council, the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, and numerous other multistate bodies, including the Council of State Governments. Federal grants in fiscal year 2001 totaled over \$1.2 billion. Mirroring a national trend, that figure declined significantly by 2005, to \$675 million. Federal grants totaled an estimated \$697 million in fiscal year 2006, and an estimated \$713 million in fiscal year 2007.

20 ECONOMY

The economic life of Wyoming is largely sustained by agriculture, chiefly feed grains and livestock, and mining, including petroleum and gas production. Mining and petroleum production mushroomed during the 1970s, leading to a powerful upsurge in population. In the early 1980s, unemployment remained low, per capita income was high, and the inflation rate declined. The absence of personal and corporate income taxes helped foster a favorable business climate during the 1990s. The state economy's annual growth rate accelerated coming into the 21st century, from 1.1% in 1998 to 3.6% in 1999 to 12.3% in 2000. Not heavily involved in the information technology (IT) boom of the 1990s, Wyoming was relatively unaffected by its bust in 2001, registering annual growth of 6.8% for the year. The main growth sectors have been various service categories, with output from general services up 37.9% from 1997 to 2001; from trade, up 29.1%; from the government sector, up 24.3%; and from financial services, up 23.6%.

In 2004, Wyoming's gross state product (GSP) was \$23.979 billion, of which mining accounted for \$5.997 billion or 25% of GSP, while real estate accounted for \$2.101 billion (8.7% of GSP) and construction at \$1.272 billion (5.3% of GSP). In that same year, there were an estimated 56,740 small businesses in Wyoming. Of the 20,071 businesses that had employees, an estimated total of 19,388 or 96.6% were small companies. An estimated 2,519 new businesses were established in the state in 2004, up 4.1% from the year before. Business terminations that same year came to 2,737, down 6.3% from 2003. There were 65 business bankruptcies in 2004, up 47.7% from the previous year. In 2005, the state's personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 484 filings per 100,000 people, ranking Wyoming as the 30th highest in the nation.

2¹ INCOME

In 2005 Wyoming had a gross state product (GSP) of \$27 billion which accounted for 0.2% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 49 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 Wyoming had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$34,279. This ranked 15th in the United States and was 104% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 5.3%. Wyoming had a total personal income (TPI) of \$17,341,215,000, which ranked 51st in the United States and reflected an increase of 7.0% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 5.8%. Earnings of persons employed in Wyoming increased from \$11,534,759,000 in 2003 to \$12,448,030,000 in 2004, an increase of 7.9%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002 to 2004 in 2004 dollars was \$43,641 compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 9.6% of the population was below the poverty line as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

2² LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006 the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in Wyoming 292,000, with approximately 9,400 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 3.2%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 271,900. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in Wyoming was 10.1% in May 1983. The historical low was 1.9% in February 1979. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 7.9% of the labor force was employed in construction; 19.7% in trade, transportation, and public utilities; 6% in professional and business services; 12% in leisure and hospitality services; and 24.2% in government. Data for manufacturing, financial activities, and education and health services were unavailable.

The BLS reported that in 2005, a total of 18,000 of Wyoming's 228,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 7.9% of those so employed, down slightly from 8% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 22,000 workers (9.5%) in Wyoming were covered by a union or employee association contract, which includes those workers who reported no union affiliation. Wyoming is one of 22 states with a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, Wyoming had a state-mandated minimum wage rate of \$5.15 per hour. In 2004, women in the state accounted for 46.1% of the employed civilian labor force.

2³ AGRICULTURE

Agriculture—especially livestock and grain—is one of Wyoming's most important industries. In 2004, Wyoming had about 9,200 farms and ranches covering almost 34.4 million acres (13.9 million hectares). The state's acreage of 3,743 acres (1,514 hectares) per farm ranked second in the United States after Arizona. The

value of the lands and buildings of Wyoming's farms and ranches in 2004 was over \$10.8 billion. Total farm marketings in 2005 amounted to \$1.1 billion, ranking 38th among the 50 states. Of this, livestock and animal products accounted for \$984 million; crops, \$146 million.

Field crops in 2004 included barley, 6,900,000 bu; wheat, 3,750,000 bu; oats, 795,000 bu; sugar beets, 812,000 tons; dry beans, 541,000 cwt; and hay, 2,016,000 tons.

2⁴ ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

For most of Wyoming's territorial and state history, cattle ranchers have dominated the economy, even though the livestock industry is not large by national standards. In 2005, Wyoming had an estimated 1.35 million cattle and calves, valued at \$1.38 billion. During 2004, there were 114,000 hogs and pigs, valued at \$13.7 million. Wyoming farms and ranches produced 28.8 million lb (13.1 million kg) of sheep and lambs in 2003, and an estimated 3.64 million lb (1.7 million kg) of shorn wool in 2004 (second after Texas). In 2003, Wyoming farmers sold 28,000 lb (12,700 kg) of chicken and produced 54 million lb (24.5 million kg) of milk.

2⁵ FISHING

There is no important commercial fishing in Wyoming. Fishing is largely recreational, and fish hatcheries and fish-planting programs keep the streams well stocked. Wyoming's streams annually provide 1.3 million angler days and 3.4 million fish; lakes generate 1.6 million angler days and a harvest of 4.1 million fish. There are two national fish hatcheries in the state (Saratoga and Jackson) that stock native cutthroat trout into high mountain wilderness lakes to enhance the native stocks. In 2004, the state issued 247,583 sport fishing licenses.

2⁶ FORESTRY

Wyoming has 10,995,000 acres (4,450,000 hectares) of forested land, equal to 17.8% of the state's land area. Of this, 5,739,000 acres (2,323,000 hectares) are usable as commercial timberland. As of 2003, the state's four national forests—Bighorn, Bridger-Teton, Medicine Bow, and Shoshone—covered a total of 9,238,000 acres (3,739,000 hectares). In 2004, lumber production totaled 165 million board feet. Ponderosa pine accounts for about 50% of the annual cut, and lodgepole pine most of the rest. The remainder consists of Douglas fir, larch, Engelmann spruce, and other species.

2⁷ MINING

According to preliminary data from the US Geological Survey (USGS), the estimated value of nonfuel mineral production by Wyoming in 2003 was \$1.01 billion, which was unchanged from estimated values for 2002. The USGS data ranked Wyoming as 13th among the 50 states by the total value of its nonfuel mineral production, accounting for over 2.5% of total US output.

According to preliminary data for 2003, soda ash was the state's top nonfuel mineral, followed by bentonite, Grade-A helium and portland cement, by value. Collectively, these four commodities accounted for almost 93% of all nonfuel mineral output, by value. By volume, Wyoming in 2003, was the nation's leading producer

of soda ash and bentonite, and ranked second in the output of Grade-A helium. The state also ranked ninth in the production of gypsum.

Data for 2003 showed the production of bentonite as totaling 3.34 million metric tons, with a value of \$145 million, construction sand and gravel output that year came to 7.5 million metric tons, with a value of \$31.5 million. Crushed stone output in 2003 totaled 4 million metric tons and was valued at \$19 million.

Major uses of Wyoming bentonite were as pet waste absorbent, in drilling mud, in the pelletizing of iron ore, in foundry sand, and as a waterproof sealant. Soda ash (sodium carbonate) is produced mostly from trona ore, of which Wyoming contains the largest known deposit of natural trona. Soda ash is used in the manufacturing of a number of products including glass, soap, detergents, and textiles, as well as in food products as sodium bicarbonate.

Wyoming is also known to have deposits of gold and silver, diamonds, copper, and of metals belonging to the platinum group.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, Wyoming had 35 electrical power service providers, of which 13 were publicly owned and 15 were cooperatives. Of the remainder, five were investor owned, one was federally operated and one was the owner of an independent generator that sold directly to customers. As of that same year there were 290,971 retail customers. Of that total, 177,304 received their power from investor-owned service providers. Cooperatives accounted for 83,933 customers, while publicly owned providers had 29,730 customers. There were three federal customers and one independent generator or "facility" customer.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 6.562 million kW, with total production that same year at 43.626 billion kWh. Of the total amount generated, 96.9% came from electric utilities, with the remainder coming from independent producers and combined heat and power service providers. The largest portion of all electric power generated, 42.341 billion kWh (97.1%), came from coal-fired plants, with hydroelectric plants in second place at 593.555 million kWh (1.4%). Other renewable power sources, petroleum and natural gas fired plants accounted for the remaining output.

Wyoming is comparatively energy-rich, ranking first among the states in coal production and seventh in output of crude oil.

As of 2004, Wyoming had proven crude oil reserves of 628 million barrels, or 3% of all proven US reserves, while output that same year averaged 141,000 barrels per day. Including federal offshore domains, the state that year ranked sixth (fifth excluding federal offshore) in proven reserves and eighth (seventh excluding federal offshore) in production among the 31 producing states. In 2004 Wyoming had 9,468 producing oil wells and accounted for 3% of all US production. As of 2005, the state's five refineries had a combined crude oil distillation capacity of 152,000 barrels per day.

In 2004, Wyoming had 20,244 producing natural gas and gas condensate wells. In that same year, marketed gas production (all gas produced excluding gas used for repressuring, vented and flared, and nonhydrocarbon gases removed) totaled 1,592.203 billion cu ft (45.21 billion cu m). As of 31 December 2004, proven re-

serves of dry or consumer-grade natural gas totaled 22,632 billion cu ft (642.74 billion cu m).

Wyoming has the three largest producing coal mines in the United States and had total recoverable coal reserves estimated at 7.053 billion tons in 2004. In 1970, Wyoming's coal production accounted for only 1% of the US total. By 1998 the state's production had risen to 28% of national production. In 2004, Wyoming had 20 producing coal mines, all of which, except one, were surface operations. Coal production that year totaled 396,493,000 short tons, up from 376,270,000 short tons in 2003. Of the total produced in 2004, the state's lone underground mine accounted for 43,000 short tons. One short ton equals 2,000 lb (0.907 metric tons).

29 INDUSTRY

Although manufacturing has increased markedly in Wyoming over the last three decades, it remains insignificant by national standards.

According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, Wyoming's manufacturing sector was largely centered on only two product subsectors, chemicals and fabricated metal products. The shipment value of all products manufactured in the state that same year was \$5.010 billion. Of that total, chemical manufacturing accounted for the largest share at \$1.414 billion. It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$177.298 million.

In 2004, a total of 8,675 people in Wyoming were employed in the state's manufacturing sector, according to the ASM. Of that total, 6,472 were actual production workers. In terms of total employment, the chemical manufacturing industry accounted for the largest portion of all manufacturing employees with 1,531 (1,165 actual production workers). It was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing, with 1,057 (780 actual production workers).

ASM data for 2004 showed that Wyoming's manufacturing sector paid \$352.411 million in wages. Of that amount, the chemical manufacturing sector accounted for the largest share at \$90.685 million and was followed by fabricated metal product manufacturing at \$35.410 million.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, Wyoming's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$3.3 billion from 789 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 475 establishments, followed by nondurable goods wholesalers at 286 and electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 28 establishments. Sales by durable goods wholesalers in 2002 totaled \$1.3 billion, while wholesalers of nondurable goods saw sales of \$1.6 billion. Electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry had sales of \$283.01 million.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, Wyoming was listed as having 2,861 retail establishments with sales of \$5.7 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: miscellaneous store retailers (410); gasoline stations (401); motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts dealers (371); building material/garden equipment and supplies dealers (289); and food and beverage stores (278). In terms of sales, motor vehicle and motor vehicle

parts dealers accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$1.5 billion, followed by gasoline stations at \$1.04 billion; general merchandise stores at \$887.7 million; and food and beverage stores at \$775.3 million. A total of 28,796 people were employed by the retail sector in Wyoming that year.

Wyoming's exports of products to other countries were valued at \$669.07 million in 2005, ranking 50th among all states.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Attorney General's Consumer Protection Unit enforces the Wyoming Consumer Protection Act, which includes provisions regulating the promotional advertising of prizes and telephone solicitation, and creates a telemarketer "no-call" list. The unit also enforces statutes prohibiting price discrimination and other anti-competitive practices, as well as laws regarding pyramid schemes.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the state's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil but not criminal proceedings. It can also: represent the state before state and federal regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; and handle formal consumer complaints. However, the office has limited subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own and initiate damage actions on behalf of the state in state courts. However, the office cannot initiate criminal proceedings or represent other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under state or federal law.

The office of the Consumer Protection Unit of the Office of the Attorney General is located in the state capitol, Cheyenne.

32 BANKING

As of June 2005, Wyoming had 44 insured banks, savings and loans, and saving banks, in addition to 33 federally chartered credit unions (CUs). Excluding the CUs, the Cheyenne market area accounted for the largest portion of the state's financial institutions and deposits in 2004, with 14 institutions and \$1.066 billion in deposits, followed by the Casper market area with seven institutions and \$1.048 billion in deposits. As of June 2005, CUs accounted for 16.9% of all assets held by all financial institutions in the state, or some \$1.186 billion. Banks, savings and loans, and savings banks collectively accounted for the remaining 83.1% or \$5.830 billion in assets held.

The median net interest margin (the difference between the lower rates offered to savers and the higher rates charged on loans) for the state's insured institutions stood at 4.21% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 4.34% for all of 2004 and 4.225 for all of 2003. The median percentage of past-due/nonaccrual loans to total loans stood at 1.42% as of fourth quarter 2005, down from 1.73% for all of 2004 and 2% for all of 2003.

Regulation of Wyoming's state-chartered banks and other state-chartered financial institutions is the responsibility of the Department of Audit's Division of Banking.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, there were 233,000 individual life insurance policies in force in Wyoming with a total value of \$18.7 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was

\$28.4 billion. The average coverage amount is \$80,500 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$82.2 million.

As of 2003, there were two property and casualty and no life and health insurance companies domiciled in the state. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled \$763 million. That year, there were 2,159 flood insurance policies in force in the state, with a total value of \$306 million.

In 2004, 53% of state residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 7% held individual policies, and 23% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 15% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 16% for single coverage and 20% for family coverage. The state offers a 12-month health benefits expansion program for small-firm employees in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 444,587 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$20,000. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$617.46.

34 SECURITIES

Wyoming has no securities exchanges. In 2005, there were 110 personal financial advisers employed in the state and 170 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 12 publicly traded companies within the state, with over five NASDAQ companies: Altair Intl., US Energy Corp., Crazy Woman Creek Bancorp, Double Eagle Petroleum Co., and Great Lakes Aviation Ltd.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Wyoming's biennial budget is prepared by the governor and submitted to the legislature at the beginning of each even-numbered calendar year. The fiscal year is 1 July through 30 June.

Fiscal year 2006 general funds were estimated at \$1.25 billion for resources and \$1.24 billion for expenditures. In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to Wyoming were \$1.6 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, Wyoming was slated to receive: \$7.3 million in State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) funds to help the state provide health coverage to low-income, uninsured children who do not qualify for Medicaid. This funding is a 23% increase over fiscal year 2006; and \$3.9 million for the HOME Investment Partnership Program to help Wyoming fund a wide range of activities that build, buy, or rehabilitate affordable housing for rent or homeownership, or provide direct rental assistance to low-income people. This funding is an 11% increase over fiscal year 2006.

36 TAXATION

In 2005, Wyoming collected \$1,740 million in tax revenues or \$3,418 per capita, which placed it third among the 50 states in per capita tax burden. The national average was \$2,192 per capita.

Wyoming—State Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	5,151,978	10,181.77
General revenue	4,061,138	8,025.96
Intergovernmental revenue	1,976,603	3,906.33
Taxes	1,504,777	2,973.87
General sales	462,842	914.71
Selective sales	111,162	219.69
License taxes	101,712	201.01
Individual income tax	—	—
Corporate income tax	—	—
Other taxes	829,061	1,638.46
Current charges	122,014	241.13
Miscellaneous general revenue	457,744	904.63
Utility revenue	—	—
Liquor store revenue	56,361	111.39
Insurance trust revenue	1,034,479	2,044.42
Total expenditure	3,596,174	7,107.06
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,204,014	2,379.47
Direct expenditure	2,392,160	4,727.59
Current operation	1,588,024	3,138.39
Capital outlay	354,831	701.25
Insurance benefits and repayments	363,803	718.98
Assistance and subsidies	37,373	73.86
Interest on debt	48,129	95.12
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	486,718	961.89
Total expenditure	3,596,174	7,107.06
General expenditure	3,185,501	6,295.46
Intergovernmental expenditure	1,204,014	2,379.47
Direct expenditure	1,981,487	3,915.98
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	1,070,621	2,115.85
Public welfare	497,376	982.96
Hospitals	7,279	14.39
Health	168,603	333.21
Highways	415,425	821.00
Police protection	30,598	60.47
Correction	91,003	179.85
Natural resources	178,887	353.53
Parks and recreation	25,687	50.76
Government administration	122,063	241.23
Interest on general debt	48,129	95.12
Other and unallocable	529,830	1,047.09
Utility expenditure	—	—
Liquor store expenditure	46,870	92.63
Insurance trust expenditure	363,803	718.98
Debt at end of fiscal year	909,531	1,797.49
Cash and security holdings	11,569,706	22,865.03

Abbreviations and symbols: — zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

Property taxes accounted for 10.4% of the total, sales taxes 30.0%, selective sales taxes 6.9%, and other taxes 52.7%.

As of 1 January 2006, Wyoming had no state income tax, a distinction it shared with Alaska, Washington, Nevada, Florida, Alaska, and South Dakota.

In 2004, state and local property taxes amounted to \$683,963,000 or \$1,352 per capita. The per capita amount ranks the state 10th highest nationally. Local governments collected \$544,154,000 of the total and the state government \$139,809,000.

Wyoming taxes retail sales at a rate of 4%. In addition to the state tax, local taxes on retail sales can reach as much as 2%, making for a potential total tax on retail sales of 6%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is taxable, although an income tax credit is allowed to offset sales tax on food. The tax on cigarettes is 60 cents per pack, which ranks 31st among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Wyoming taxes gasoline at 14 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to Washington in 2004, Wyoming citizens received \$1.11 in federal spending.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

State policy in Wyoming has traditionally favored fiscal, social, and political conservatism. A pro-business and pro-family climate has generally prevailed. For example, Wyoming does not have a state personal income tax, a state business income tax, nor a business inventory tax. Not until 1969 was the minerals industry compelled to pay a severance tax on the wealth it was extracting from Wyoming soils. The state's leading industry is tourism, (the federal government owns over 50% of Wyoming's land), and Wyoming is first among US states in coal and iron production. The Wyoming Department of Commerce's Business Council encourages entrepreneurship, emphasizes community development, and supports retention and expansion of existing Wyoming businesses. Grant and loan programs also assist Wyoming communities and businesses. In 2006, the Wyoming Business Council maintained six regional offices around the state to provide personalized and localized technical assistance. These were part of a statewide network of partners, offering one-on-one business assistance.

38 HEALTH

The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 5.8 per 1,000 live births. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.4 per 1,000 population. The abortion rate stood at 0.9 per 1,000 women in 2000. In 2003, about 86.4% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 83% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 8.3 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 201.5; cancer, 172.2; cerebrovascular diseases, 48.7; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 65; and diabetes, 29.1. Wyoming had the highest suicide rate in the nation at 21.1 per 100,000 population. The mortality rate from HIV infection was not available that year. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 3.6 per 100,000 population. In 2002, about 54.5% of the population was considered overweight or obese. As of 2004, about 21.6% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, Wyoming had 23 community hospitals with about 1,800 beds. There were about 53,000 patient admissions that year and 900,000 outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 900 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$943. Also in 2003, there were about 39 certified nursing facil-

ities in the state with 3,061 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 80.9%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 68.1% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. Wyoming had 191 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 774 nurses per 100,000 in 2005. In 2004, there was a total of 266 dentists in the state.

About 15% of state residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003; 14% were enrolled in Medicare programs in 2004. Approximately 15% of the state population was uninsured in 2004. In 2003, state health care expenditures totaled \$709,000.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 14,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$238. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 25,482 persons (10,422 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$88.22 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$26.9 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. Wyoming's TANF program is called POWER (Personal Opportunities With Employment Responsibility). In 2004, the state program had 1,000 recipients; state and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$17 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 82,510 Wyoming residents. This number included 54,890 retired workers, 7,340 widows and widowers, 9,370 disabled workers, 4,720 spouses, and 6,190 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 15.8% of the total state population and 94.5% of the state's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$955; widows and widowers, \$926; disabled workers, \$896; and spouses, \$491. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$516 per month; children of deceased workers, \$637; and children of disabled workers, \$270. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 5,645 Wyoming residents, averaging \$368 a month. An additional \$56,000 of state-administered supplemental payments were distributed to 2,769 residents.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, there were an estimated 232,637 housing units in Wyoming, ranking the state as having the smallest housing stock in the country. About 202,496 units were occupied; 69.9% were owner-occupied. About 65.4% of all units were single-family, detached homes; 14.4% were mobile homes. It was estimated that 11,242 units lacked telephone service, 1,229 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 1,198 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Utility gas

was the most common energy source for heating. The average household had 2.43 members.

In 2004, 3,300 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$119,654. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$954. Renters paid a median of \$534 per month. In 2006, the state received over \$3.2 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

4¹ EDUCATION

In 2004, 91.9% of Wyoming residents age 25 and older were high school graduates, well above the national average of 84%. Approximately 22.5% had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher; the national average was 22.5%.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in Wyoming's public schools stood at 88,000. Of these, 60,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 28,000 attended high school. Approximately 86% of the students were white, 1.4% were black, 8.2% were Hispanic, 1% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 3.5% were American Indian/Alaskan Native. Total enrollment was estimated at 85,000 by fall 2003 and expected to be 89,000 by fall 2014. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$947.5 million. In fall 2003 there were 2,079 students enrolled in 35 private schools. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005, eighth graders in Wyoming scored 282 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 32,605 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 7.8% of total post-secondary enrollment. In 2005 Wyoming had nine degree-granting institutions. Wyoming has seven community colleges. The state controls and funds the University of Wyoming in Laramie, as well as the seven community colleges. There are no private colleges or universities, although the National Outdoor Leadership School, based in Lander, offers courses in mountaineering and ecology.

4² ARTS

The Wyoming Arts Council helps fund local activities and organizations in the visual and performing arts, including painting, music, theater, and dance. In 2005, the Wyoming Arts Council and other Wyoming arts organizations received five grants totaling \$655,200 from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). In 2005, the National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$503,322 for five state programs. Contributions to the arts also came from state and private sources.

The Grand Teton Music Festival (formerly the Jackson Hole Fine Arts Festival) has continued to present an annual program of symphonic and chamber music performed by some of the nation's top artists; in summer 2006, the festival celebrated its 45th season. The Cheyenne Civic Center serves as a venue for a variety of musical and theatrical groups, including the Cheyenne Symphony Orchestra. Cheyenne is also home to the Cheyenne Little Theater Players, a community theater group that marked a 75-year anniversary in 2005.

The University of Wyoming Art Museum houses a permanent collection that includes over 7,000 pieces. The diverse collection showcases European and American paintings, 19th century Japanese prints, and African and Native American artifacts, among other artwork.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 2001, Wyoming was served by 23 public library systems, with a total of 74 libraries, of which 51 were branches. In the same year, the state's library systems had a combined 2,415,000 volumes of books and serial publications, and a total circulation of 3,757,000. The system also had 78,000 audio and 65,000 video items, 8,000 electronic format items (CD-ROMs, magnetic tapes, and disks), and four bookmobiles. The University of Wyoming, in Laramie, had 1,227,000 volumes and 12,960 periodical subscriptions in 2000. In fiscal year 2001, operating income for the state's public library system totaled \$15,740,000 and included \$14,427,000 in local funding and \$73,000 in federal funds. Operating expenditures that year totaled \$14,852,000, of which 70.4% was spent on staff and 10.6% on the collection.

There are at least 53 museums and historic sites, including the Wyoming State Museum in Cheyenne; the Buffalo Bill Historical Center (Cody), which exhibits paintings by Frederic Remington; and the anthropological, geological, and art museums of the University of Wyoming at Laramie.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

In 2004, 94.6% of all Wyoming households had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 277,658 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 65.4% of Wyoming households had a computer and 57.7% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 55,884 high-speed lines in Wyoming, 49,585 residential and 6,299 for business.

In 2005, Wyoming had 28 major radio stations, 7 AM and 21 FM, plus 3 television stations. A total of 7,279 Internet domain names were registered in the state by 2000.

45 PRESS

There were nine daily newspapers and five Sunday newspapers in Wyoming in 2005. The major daily and its 2005 circulation was the *Casper Star-Tribune*, 30,790 (33,289 on Sunday).

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 825 nonprofit organizations registered within the state, of which about 590 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations.

National organizations with headquarters within the state include the Dude Ranchers' Association, the National Park Academy of the Arts, and the Yellowstone Association. Local arts, history, and the environment are represented in part through the Arts Council (in Cheyenne) and the Wyoming Council for the Humanities. Outdoor sports and recreation organizations include the Wyoming Outfitters and Guides Association, Wyoming Ranch and Recreational Services, and the Wyoming Campgrounds Association.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

In 2004, the state hosted 8 million overnight visitors and 17.9 million day trip travelers. The tourism and travel industry, the state's second-leading industry, supports over 37,823 full-time and part-time jobs. In 2002–03, Wyoming tourism increased by 6.5%, the highest increase in travel and tourism of any US state.

There are two national parks in Wyoming—Yellowstone and Grand Teton—and 9 national forests. Devils Tower and Fossil Butte are national monuments, and Fort Laramie is a national historic site. Yellowstone National Park, covering 2,219,791 acres (898,349 hectares), mostly in the northwestern corner of the state, is the oldest (1 March 1872) and largest national park in the United States. The park features some 3,000 geysers and hot springs, including the celebrated Old Faithful. Just to the south of Yellowstone is Grand Teton National Park, 309,993 acres (125,454 hectares). Wyoming is home to major emigrant trails: Oregon, Mormon, California, and Pony Express. Devil's Tower National Monument, in the Black Hills National Forest, is a much-photographed landmark. The town of Cody was founded by Buffalo Bill Cody. The town of Kaycee was the home of the famous outlaws Butch Cassidy and the Sundance Kid.

Adjacent to Grand Teton is the National Elk Refuge, the feeding range of the continent's largest known herd of elk. Devils Tower, a rock formation in the northeast, looming 5,117 feet (1,560 meters) high, is the country's oldest national monument (24 September 1906).

48 SPORTS

There are no major professional sports teams in Wyoming, but there is a minor league baseball team in Casper. Participation sports in Wyoming are typically Western. Skills developed by ranch hands in herding cattle are featured at rodeos held throughout the state. Cheyenne Frontier Days is the largest of these rodeos. Skiing is also a major sport, with Jackson Hole being the largest, best-known resort.

In collegiate sports, the University of Wyoming competes in the Mountain West Conference. They won the Sun Bowl in 1956 and 1958, and they appeared in, but lost, the Holiday Bowl in 1987 and 1988.

49 FAMOUS WYOMINGITES

The most important federal officeholder from Wyoming was Willis Van Devanter (b.Indiana, 1859–1941), who served on the US Supreme Court from 1910 to 1937. Many of Wyoming's better-known individuals are associated with the frontier: John Colter (b.Virginia, 1775?–1813), a fur trader, was the first white man to explore northwestern Wyoming; and Jim Bridger (b.Virginia, 1804–81), perhaps the most famous fur trapper in the West, centered his activities in Wyoming. Late in life, William F. "Buffalo Bill" Cody (b.Iowa, 1846–1917) settled in the Big Horn Basin and established the town of Cody. A number of outlaws made their headquarters in Wyoming. The most famous were "Butch Cassidy" (George Leroy Parker, b.Utah, 1866–1908) and the "Sundance

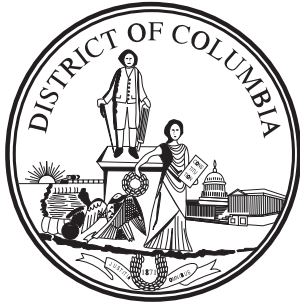
Kid" (Harry Longabaugh, birthplace in dispute, 1863?–1908), who, as members of the Wild Bunch, could often be found there.

Two Wyoming women, Esther Morris (b.New York, 1814–1902) and Nellie Taylor Ross (b.Missouri, 1880–1979), are recognized as the first woman judge and the first woman governor, respectively, in the United States; Ross also was the first woman to serve as director of the US Mint. Few Wyoming politicians have received national recognition, but Francis E. Warren (b.Massachusetts, 1844–1929), the state's first governor, served 37 years in the US Senate and came to wield considerable influence and power.

Without question, Wyoming's most famous businessman was James Cash Penney (b.Missouri, 1875–1971). Penney established his first "Golden Rule" store in Kemmerer and eventually built a chain of department stores nationwide. The water-reclamation accomplishments of Elwood Mead (b.Indiana, 1858–1936) and the botanical work in the Rocky Mountains of Aven Nelson (b.Iowa, 1859–1952) were highly significant. Jackson Pollock (1912–56), born in Cody, was a leading painter in the abstract expressionist movement.

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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

District of Columbia



ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: From "Columbia," a name commonly applied to the United States in the late 18th century, ultimately derived from Christopher Columbus. **BECAME US CAPITAL:** 1 December 1800, when Congress first assembled in the city. **MOTTO:** *Justitia omnibus* (Justice for all). **FLAG:** The flag, based on George Washington's coat of arms, consists of three red stars above two horizontal red stripes on a white field. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the background, the Potomac River separates the District of Columbia from the Virginia shore, over which the sun is rising. In the foreground, Justice, holding a wreath and a tablet with the word "Constitution," stands beside a statue of George Washington. At the left of Justice is the Capitol; to her right, an eagle and various agricultural products. Below is the District motto and the date 1871; above are the words "District of Columbia." **BIRD:** Wood thrush. **FLOWER:** American beauty rose. **TREE:** Scarlet oak. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Washington's Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Veterans' Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 7 AM EST = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the South Atlantic region of the United States, the District of Columbia has a total area of 69 sq mi (179 sq km), of which land takes up 63 sq mi (163 sq km) and inland water 6 sq mi (16 sq km). The District is bounded on the n, e, and s by Maryland and on the w by the Virginia shore of the Potomac River. The total boundary length is 37 mi (60 km).

For statistical purposes, the District of Columbia (coextensive since 1890 with the city of Washington, DC) is considered part of the Washington, DC, metropolitan area, which since 1985 has embraced Calvert, Charles, Frederick, Montgomery, and Prince George's counties in Maryland and Arlington, Fairfax, Loudoun, Prince William, and Stafford counties in Virginia, along with a number of other Virginia jurisdictions, most notably the city of Alexandria.

² TOPOGRAPHY

The District of Columbia, an enclave of western Maryland, lies wholly within the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The major topographical features are the Potomac River and its adjacent marshlands; the Anacostia River, edged by reclaimed flatlands to the south and east; Rock Creek, wending its way from the northwestern plateau to the Potomac; and the gentle hills of the north. The district's average elevation is about 150 ft (46 m). The highest point, 410 ft (125 m), is in the northwest, at Tenleytown; the low point is the Potomac, only 1 ft (30 cm) above sea level.

³ CLIMATE

The climate of the nation's capital is characterized by chilly, damp winters and hot, humid summers. The normal daily average temperature is 58°F (14°C), ranging from 36°F (2°C) in January to 79°F (26°C) in July. The record low, -15°F (-26°C), was set on 11 February 1899; the all-time high, 106°F (41°C), on 20 July 1930. Precipitation

averaged 39.4 in (100 cm) yearly during 1971–2000; snowfall, 17 in (43 cm). The average annual relative humidity is 75% at 7 AM and 53% at 1 PM.

⁴ FLORA AND FAUNA

Although most of its original flora has been obliterated by urbanization, the District has long been known for its beautiful parks, where about 1,800 varieties of flowering plants and 250 shrubs grow. Boulevards are shaded by stately sycamores, pin and red oaks, American lindens, and black walnut trees. Famous among the introduced species are the Japanese cherry trees around the Tidal Basin. Magnolia, dogwood, and ginkgo are also characteristic. The District's fauna is less exotic, with squirrels, cottontails, English sparrows, and starlings predominating. Two species (Hay's Spring amphipod and the puma) were listed as endangered and one (the bald eagle) as threatened by the US Fish and Wildlife Service as of April 2006.

⁵ ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Environmental Regulation Administration (ERA) administers district and federal laws, regulations and mayoral initiatives governing the environment and natural resources of the District of Columbia and the surrounding metropolitan area. The main duty is the protection of human health and the environment as they relate to pesticides, hazardous waste, underground storage tanks, water, air, soils, and fisheries programs. The ERA is responsible for administering over 30 statutes and regulations.

In 1996, the District had about 250 acres of wetlands, all palustrine (marsh) or riverine, mostly along the tidal reaches of the Potomac and the Anacostia Rivers. The Potomac is an important tributary of the Chesapeake Bay Estuarine Complex, which was designated as a Ramsar Wetland of International Importance in 1987.

In 2003, the US Environment Protection Agency (EPA) database listed 29 hazardous waste sites in the District. Only one site, the Washington Naval Yard, was on the National Priorities List as of 2006. In 2004, the District received a federal EPA grant of \$1.2 million for water pollution control projects.

6 POPULATION

In 2005, the District of Columbia ranked 50th in the nation with a larger population than the last-ranked state of Wyoming, at an estimated 550,521 residents, a decrease of 3.8% since 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, the District's population declined from 606,900 to 572,059, a decrease of 5.7%. The population is projected to decrease to 506,323 by 2015 and 455,108 by 2025.

In 2004, the median age was 35.8. Persons under 18 years old accounted for 19.8% of the population while 12.1% was age 65 or older.

In 1990, the District of Columbia outranked three states in population, with a census total of 606,900, a decline of almost 5% from 1980. As a city, the District ranked 27th in the United States in 2004. The population density in 2004 was 9,057.00 persons per sq mi.

Even as the capital's population has declined, the number of Washington, DC, metropolitan area residents has been increasing, from 3,040,000 in 1970 to 3,251,000 in 1980, to 3,924,000 in 1990, and to an estimated 5,139,549 in 2004. The District's population is 100% urban and extremely mobile.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Black Americans have long been the largest ethnic or racial group in the District of Columbia, accounting for 60% of the population in 2000 (when they numbered 343,312), among the highest percentages of any major US city. In 2004, that percentage had dropped to 57.7% of the population.

Between 1970 and 1980, the population of groups other than white and black almost quadrupled within the Washington metropolitan area, reaching 134,209 in 1980. Southeast Asians made up a significant proportion of the immigrants, as did Mexicans and Central and South Americans. The District's racial and ethnic minorities in 2000 included 44,953 Hispanics and Latinos (up from 33,000 in 1990) and 15,189 Asians (including 3,734 Chinese and 2,845 Asian Indians). There also were 1,713 American Indians living in the District. In 2004, 3% of the population was Asian, 0.3% was American Indian or Alaska native, 0.1% was Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 8.5% of the total population was of Hispanic or Latino origin. In 2004, 1.5% of the population reported origin of two or more races.

There were 73,561 foreign-born residents, accounting for 12.9% of the District's total population, in 2000. In addition, the many foreign-born residents attached to foreign embassies and missions contribute to Washington's ethnic diversity.

8 LANGUAGES

Dialectically, the Washington, DC, area is extremely heterogeneous. In 2000, 83.2% of all District of Columbia residents five years of age or older spoke only English at home, down from 87% in 1990.

The following table gives selected statistics from the 2000 Census for language spoken at home by persons five years old and

over. The category "African languages" includes Amharic, Ibo, Twi, Yoruba, Bantu, Swahili, and Somali.

LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENT
Population 5 years and over	539,658	100.0
Speak only English	449,241	83.2
Speak a language other than English	90,417	16.8
Speak a language other than English	90,417	16.8
Spanish or Spanish Creole	49,461	9.2
French (incl. Patois, Cajun)	9,085	1.7
African languages	5,181	1.0
Chinese	2,913	0.5
German	2,695	0.5
Arabic	2,097	0.4
Italian	1,723	0.3
Vietnamese	1,610	0.3
Tagalog	1,356	0.3
Russian	1,110	0.2
Portuguese or Portuguese Creole	1,013	0.2

9 RELIGIONS

As of 2000, the largest number of religious adherents in Washington, DC, were Roman Catholic, with about 160,048 adherents in 42 congregations. Mainline Protestants were next in numbers with the American Baptist Churches in the USA claiming 51,836 adherents in 62 congregations and the Episcopal Church claiming 19,698 adherents in 34 congregations. The Southern Baptist Convention had 38,852 adherents in about 49 congregations; the church reported 1,160 newly baptized members in the district in 2002. The Jewish population was estimated at 25,500 in 2000. About 26.8% of the population did not report affiliation with any religious organization.

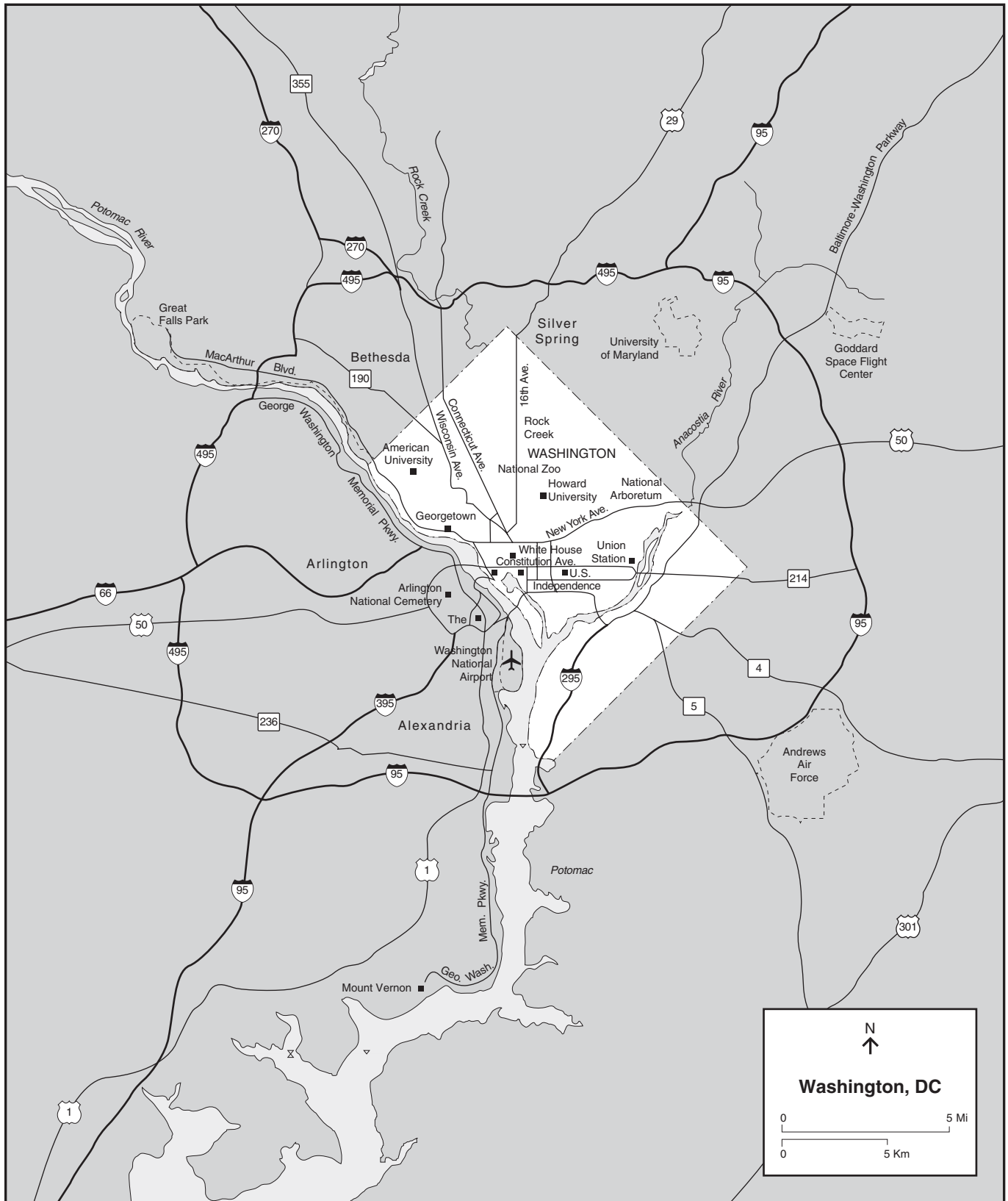
The Washington National Cathedral was established by Congress through an 1893 charter with the Protestant Episcopal Cathedral Foundation. The charter was signed by President Benjamin Harrison. The building was completed in 1912.

The international headquarters of B'nai B'rith International is located in Washington, DC, as is the headquarters for Hillel, an organization of Jewish college students groups. The United States Conference of Catholic Bishops is also based in the District.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Union Station, located north of the Capitol, is the District's one rail terminal, from which Amtrak provides passenger service to the northeast corridor and southern points. As of 2006 Amtrak provided daily north south and east-west service from Union Station. In all, four railroads operated 45 rail mi (72 km) of track within the District. The Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Authority, or Metro, operates bus and subway transportation within the city and its Maryland and Virginia suburbs. About 40% of working District residents commute by public transportation. In 1994-95, the US Transit Authority awarded grants of \$199 million for the Metro.

Within the District, as of 2004, were 1,500 mi (2,415 km) of public streets and roads. In that same year, some 228,000 motor vehicles were registered, and there were 349,122 driver's licenses in force. In 2005, a total of three major airports handled the District's commercial air traffic: Ronald Reagan Washington National Airport, just south of the city in Virginia; Dulles International Airport in Virginia; and Baltimore-Washington International Airport in Maryland. Enplanements for the three airports in 2004 totaled 7,661,532 for Reagan Washington National; 10,961,614 for



Dulles; and 10,103,563 for Baltimore-Washington. The three airports were the 30th-, the 21st-, and the 23rd-busiest airports, respectively, in the United States that same year. The District also had 14 heliports in 2005.

Although Washington, DC, is not generally thought of as a traditional port, in 2004 the District did have 7 mi (11 km) of navigable inland waterways, and in 2003, it had waterborne shipments totaling 770,000 tons.

11 HISTORY

Algonkian-speakers were living in what is now the District of Columbia when Englishmen founded the Jamestown, Virginia, settlement in 1607. The first white person known to have set foot in the Washington area was the English fur trader Henry Fleete, who in 1622 was captured by the Indians and held there for several years. Originally part of Maryland Colony, the region had been carved up into plantations by the latter half of the 17th century.

After the US Constitution (1787) provided that a tract of land be reserved for the seat of the federal government, both Maryland and Virginia offered parcels for that purpose; on 16 July 1790, Congress authorized George Washington to choose a site not more than 10 mi (16 km) square along the Potomac River. President Washington made his selection in January 1791. He then appointed Andrew Ellicott to survey the area and employed Pierre Charles L'Enfant, a French military engineer who had served in the Continental Army, to draw up plans for the federal city. L'Enfant's masterful design called for a wide roadway (now called Pennsylvania Avenue) to connect the Capitol with the President's House (Executive Mansion, now commonly called the White House) a mile away, and for other widely separated public buildings with spacious vistas. However, L'Enfant was late in completing the engraved plan of his design, and he also had difficulty in working with the three commissioners who had been appointed to direct a territorial survey; for these and other reasons, L'Enfant was dismissed and Ellicott carried out the plans. Construction was delayed by lack of adequate financing. Only one wing of the Capitol was completed, and the President's House was still under construction when President John Adams and some 125 government officials moved into the District in 1800. Congress met there for the first time on 17 November, and the District officially became the nation's capital on 1 December. On 3 May 1802, the city of Washington was incorporated (the District also included other local entities), with an elected council and a mayor appointed by the president.

Construction proceeded slowly, while the city's population grew to about 24,000 by 1810. In August 1814, during the War of 1812, British forces invaded and burned the Capitol, the President's House, and other public buildings. These were rebuilt within five years, but for a long time, Washington remained a rude, rough city. In 1842, English author Charles Dickens described it as a "monument raised to a deceased project," consisting of "spacious avenues that begin in nothing and lead nowhere." At the request of its residents, the Virginia portion was retroceded in 1846, thus confining the federal district to the eastern shore of the Potomac. The Civil War brought a large influx of Union soldiers, workers, and escaped slaves, and the District's population rose sharply from 75,080 in 1860 to 131,700 by the end of the decade, spurring the development of modern Washington.

In 1871, Congress created a territorial form of government; this territorial government was abolished three years later because of alleged local extravagances, and in 1878, a new form of government was established, headed by three commissioners appointed by the president. During the same decade, Congress barred District residents from voting in national elections or even for their own local officials. In the 1890s, Rock Creek Park and Potomac Park were established, and during the early 1900s, city planners began to rebuild the monumental core of Washington in harmony with L'Enfant's original design. The New Deal period brought a rise in public employment, substantial growth of federal facilities, and the beginnings of large-scale public housing construction and slum clearance. After World War II, redevelopment efforts concentrated on demolishing slums in the city's southwest section. The White House was completely renovated in the late 1940s, and a huge building program coincided with the expansion of the federal bureaucracy during the 1960s.

Because it is the residence of the president, Washington, DC, has always been noted for its public events, in particular the Presidential Inauguration and Inaugural Ball. The District has also been the site of many historic demonstrations: the appearance in 1894 of Coxey's Army (some 300 unemployed workers); the demonstrations in 1932 of the Bonus Marchers (17,000 Army veterans demanding that the government cash their bonus certificates); the massive March on Washington by civil rights demonstrators in 1963; the march on the Pentagon in 1967 by antiwar activists and later Vietnam-era protests; and, in 1995, the Million Man March organized by the controversial Nation of Islam leader Louis Farrakhan.

The District's form of government has undergone significant changes. The 23rd Amendment to the US Constitution, ratified on 3 April 1961, permits residents to vote in presidential elections, and beginning in 1971, the District was allowed to send a nonvoting delegate to the US House of Representatives. Local self-rule began in 1975, when an elected mayor and council took office. The District both prospered and suffered in the 1980s and 1990s. In spite of an expanding economy, the city was wracked by poverty, drug-bred crime, and even gang warfare. In 1989, the federal government mandated \$80 million for a program to combat drug abuse in the nation's capital. Crime in Washington has included corruption in high places. In the mid-1980s, the federal government launched an investigation into allegations of bribery, fraud, and racketeering in the award of millions of dollars in municipal and federal contracts. The investigation produced the conviction of 11 city officials. In 1990, the District's mayor of twelve years, Marion Barry, was videotaped smoking crack and was convicted of possessing cocaine. Barry was succeeded that year by Sharon Pratt Dixon, a black lawyer and former power company executive, but reelected in 1994. In 1998, he announced he would not run for reelection, completing four terms of office.

Since the 1970s, many of Washington's residents have supported statehood for the District of Columbia. A proposal for statehood won the majority of votes in a 1980 election, and the name "New Columbia" was approved by voters two years later. In 1992, the US House of Representatives passed a measure approving statehood for the capital, but the Senate refused to consider it.

Mayor Anthony A. Williams was reelected to a second term in November 2002. He pledged to target education, expand opportunities for all district residents, and to keep neighborhoods safe.

In 2004, the National World War II Memorial was completed and opened to the public. The Memorial lies between the Washington Monument and the Lincoln Memorial.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

The District of Columbia is the seat of the federal government and is home to the principal organs of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches. Both the US Senate and House have subcommittees (of the Appropriations Committees) to oversee federal spending within the District. The District's residents have only limited representation in the House, where an elected delegate may participate in discussions and votes on bills within the District of Columbia subcommittees but may not vote on measures on the floor of the House. The District has no representation in the Senate. In 1978, Congress approved an amendment to the US Constitution granting the District two US senators and at least one representative; however, the amendment failed to become law when it was not ratified by the necessary 38 state legislatures by August 1985 (by that time only 16 states had approved the amendment).

In 1982, elected delegates to a District of Columbia statehood convention drafted a constitution for the proposed State of New Columbia. The petition for statehood was approved by voters within the District and sent to Congress. But in 1993 Congress voted on and rejected District statehood by 63 votes (277 against, 153 for, and 4 not voting). The bill, which polls have shown has wide public support within the District, can be reintroduced.

The Council of the District of Columbia, the unicameral legislative body for the district, is comprised of 13 representatives who serve four-year terms. Council members must be at least 18 years old, district residents and qualified voters. Prior to 1973, the mayor and council members were appointed by the US president; since 1973, they have been elected by the District's voters. The body was given full legislative powers in 1974. The council meets every year, beginning in January. In 2004, the legislative salary was \$92,500 per year.

Voters must be US citizens, at least 18 years old, residents of Washington, DC for at least 30 days prior to election day, and not able to claim the right to vote elsewhere. Restrictions apply to convicted felons and those declared mentally incompetent by the court.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Washington, DC, is the headquarters of the Democratic and Republican parties, the nation's major political organizations. The District itself is overwhelmingly Democratic: in 1992 and again in 1996, Democratic presidential candidate Bill Clinton garnered an impressive 85% of the District's voters. Democrat Al Gore repeated this performance in 2000, capturing 85% of the vote to Republican candidate George W. Bush's 9% and Green Party candidate Ralph Nader's 5%. In fact, since 1964, when they were first permitted to vote for president, DC voters have unfailingly cast their ballots for the Democratic nominee. In 2002, there were 363,211 registered voters. As of 2003, the district had three electoral votes.

The first mayor, Walter Washington, was defeated for reelection in 1978 by Marion S. Barry Jr., who was reelected in 1982 and

District Presidential Vote by Major Parties, 1964–2004

YEAR	ELECTORAL VOTE	DISTRICT WINNER	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
1964	3	*Johnson (D)	169,796	28,801
1968	3	Humphrey (D)	139,566	31,012
1972	3	McGovern (D)	127,627	35,226
1976	3	*Carter (D)	137,818	27,873
1980	3	Carter (D)	124,376	21,765
1984	3	Mondale (D)	180,408	29,009
1988	3	Dukakis (D)	159,407	27,590
1992	3	*Clinton (D)	192,619	20,698
1996	3	*Clinton (D)	158,220	17,339
2000	3	Gore (D)	171,923	18,073
2004	3	Kerry (D)	202,970	21,256

*Won US presidential election.

again in 1986. Sharon Pratt Dixon was elected mayor in 1990. In 1994, Marion S. Barry Jr., returning to political life after serving a six-month jail term for a 1990 drug conviction, defeated Republican Carol Schwartz in the mayoral contest. Schwartz previously lost to Barry in the mayoral election of 1986. Anthony Williams was elected mayor in 1998 and reelected in 2002.

Eleanor Holmes Norton serves as the District's delegate to the House of Representatives.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government in the District of Columbia operates under authority delegated by Congress. In 1973, for the first time in more than a century, Congress provided the District with a home-rule charter, allowing Washington, DC, residents to elect their own mayor and city council. Residents of the District approved the charter on 7 May 1974, and a new elected government took office on 1 January 1975.

The mayor has traditionally been the District's chief executive, and the council is the legislative branch; however, under constitutional authority, Congress can enact laws on any subject affecting the District, and all legislation enacted by the District is subject to congressional veto. In response to both a managerial and budgetary crisis, Congress passed the District of Columbia Financial Responsibility and Management Assistance Act of 1995. This law established a Control Board that has broad powers to review all actions of the DC government and must approve the financial plans and budget for the city before submission to Congress. Home rule was further eroded when in 1997 Congress took responsibility for most major agencies away from the mayor and gave them to the Control Board.

The council consists of 13 members: the council chairman and 4 members elected at large, and 8 elected by wards. The 12-member Board of Education consists of eight officials elected by ward and four elected at-large, including one at-large member elected by students. They serve for four years. As of 2005, there were two public school systems in the District. The charter also provides for 36 neighborhood advisory commissions, whose seats are filled through nonpartisan elections.

In 2005, local government accounted for about 45,951 full-time (or equivalent) employment positions.

1⁵ STATE SERVICES

To address the continuing threat of terrorism and to work with the federal Department of Homeland Security, homeland security in the District of Columbia operates under executive authority; the deputy mayor for public safety is designated as the state homeland security advisor for the District.

Public education in the District is the responsibility of a chief executive officer and board of trustees appointed by the Control Board and the University of the District of Columbia Board of Trustees. The elected Board of Education is left with very little authority. Transportation services are provided through the Department of Transportation and the Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Authority, while health and welfare services fall within the jurisdiction of the Department of Human Services. The Office of Consumer and Regulatory Affairs, Department of Corrections, District of Columbia National Guard, and Metropolitan Police Department provide public protection services, and the Department of Housing and Community Development is the main housing agency. Employment and job-training programs are offered through the Department of Employment Services.

1⁶ JUDICIAL SYSTEM

All judges in Washington, DC, are nominated by the president of the United States from a list of persons recommended by the District of Columbia Nomination Commission, and appointed upon the advice and consent of the Senate. The US Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia functions in a manner similar to that of a state supreme court; it also has original jurisdiction over federal crimes. The court consists of a chief judge and eight associate judges, all serving 15-year terms. The Superior Court of the District of Columbia, the trial court, consisted in 1999 of five divisions and 16 judges, also serving for 15 years. Washington, DC, is the site of the US Supreme Court and the US Department of Justice. The District of Columbia is the only US jurisdiction where the US Attorney's Office, an arm of the Justice Department, and not the local government, prosecutes criminal offenders for non-federal crimes.

Prisoners sentenced to more than one year come under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Prisons.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the District of Columbia in 2004 had a violent crime rate (murder/nonnegligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault) of 1,371.2 reported incidents per 100,000 population, or a total of 7,590 reported incidents. Crimes against property (burglary; larceny/theft; and motor vehicle theft) in that same year totaled 26,896 reported incidents, or 4,859.1 reported incidents per 100,000 people. The District of Columbia has no death penalty. The last execution took place in 1957. District residents voted 2-1 against the death penalty in 1992. There is a provision for life without parole.

In 2003, Washington, DC, spent \$1,891,475,962 on homeland security, an average of \$2,364 per district resident.

1⁷ ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 24,328 active-duty military personnel stationed in the District of Columbia, with the vast majority, 10,109, at the Pentagon as the Washington Headquarters Services (WHS).

The WHS maintains and operates the Pentagon Reservation, the headquarters of the US Department of Defense, which covers 34 acres (14 hectares) of Arlington, Virginia, across the Potomac. In addition there were 21,549 civilian employees, of which 6,427 were at the Pentagon. An Air Force installation (Bolling Air Force Base) and the Army's Fort McNair are within the District. In 2005, the Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC) Commission recommended that Walter Reed Medical Center be realigned with the National Naval Medical Center to create a Walter Reed National Military Medical Center in Bethesda, Maryland. Firms in the District received \$3.5 billion in federal defense contract awards in 2004, and defense payroll, including retired military pay, amounted to \$1.9 billion.

There were 37,377 veterans of US military service in the District as of 2003, of whom 5,807 served in World War II; 4,384 in the Korean conflict; 10,474 during the Vietnam era; and 5,410 in the Gulf War. The federal government expenditures for veterans in Washington totaled \$1.2 billion during 2004.

Because Washington is often the scene of political demonstrations and because high federal officials and the District's foreign embassy personnel pose special police-protection problems, the ratio of police personnel to residents is higher than in any state. In 2003, 3,963 police employees were employed in the District.

1⁸ MIGRATION

The principal migratory movements have been an influx of southern blacks after the Civil War and, more recently, the rapid growth of the Washington, DC, metropolitan area, coupled with shrinkage in the population of the District itself. Between 1950 and 1970, the District suffered a net loss from migration of as much as 260,000, much of it to Maryland and Virginia; there was, however, an estimated net inflow of 87,000 blacks in this period. Net emigration totaled between 150,000 and 190,000 during the 1970s, and roughly 23,000 more during 1981-83.

From 1985 to 1990, the District had a net loss from migration of over 30,000. Between 1990 and 1998, there was a net loss of 139,000 in domestic migration and a net gain of 28,000 in international migration. In 1998, 2,377 foreign immigrants arrived in Washington, DC. The District's overall population decreased 13.8% between 1990 and 1998. In the period 2000-05, net international migration was 20,618 and net internal migration was -53,550, for a net loss of 32,932 people.

1⁹ INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The District of Columbia, a member of the Council of State Governments and its allied organizations, also participates in such interstate regional bodies as the Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Authority Commission, and Potomac Valley Commission. Counties and incorporated cities in the Washington area are represented on the Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments, established in 1957. The District relies heavily on federal grants, which came to over \$4 billion in fiscal year 2001. Following a national trend, by fiscal year 2005, that amount had dropped significantly, to \$1.91 billion. In fiscal year 2006, federal grants amounted to an estimated \$1.787 billion, and for fiscal year 2007 were estimated at \$1.934 billion.

20 ECONOMY

During the 1990s, the number of jobs in the service sector grew by about 50%. Other sectors, however, declined in that decade. Not surprisingly, the public sector has a greater weight in DC's economy than is found in any of the 50 states, where the average contribution from the public sector in 2001 was 12% compared to 35.2% in DC. Also distinct from most of the states, the District's economy was not adversely affected by the national recession of 2001, as the strong annual growth rates at the end of the 20th century—6.2% in 1999 and 8.2% in 2000—continued into the 21st, averaging 7.5% for 2001. In 2002, the military build-up for the war in Iraq was one of the major growth points in an otherwise slowed national economy reeling from a precipitous drops in both domestic and foreign private investment. The recession and slowed economy also meant more work for government agencies.

In 2004, District's gross state product (GSP) totaled \$76.685 billion, of which professional and technical services accounted for the largest portion, at \$15.264 billion or nearly 20%, with real estate coming in a distant second at \$6.068 billion or nearly 8%. In that same year, there were a total of 59,775 small businesses in DC. Of that total, 27,424 firms had employees, of which an estimated 25,600 or 93.4% were small businesses. An estimated 4,393 new businesses were established in DC in 2004, up 8.4% from the previous year. Business terminations that same year came to 3,440. Business bankruptcies totaled 41 in 2004, down 25.5% from 2003. In 2005, the personal bankruptcy (Chapter 7 and Chapter 13) filing rate was 395 filings per 100,000 people, ranking the District of Columbia 38th in the nation.

21 INCOME

In 2005 District of Columbia had a gross state product (GSP) of \$83 billion which accounted for 0.7% of the nation's gross domestic product and placed the state at number 35 in highest GSP among the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, in 2004 District of Columbia had a per capita personal income (PCPI) of \$51,155. This ranked first in the United States and was 155% of the national average of \$33,050. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of PCPI was 5.2%. District of Columbia had a total personal income (TPI) of \$28,352,299,000, which ranked 45th in the United States and reflected an increase of 6.5% from 2003. The 1994–2004 average annual growth rate of TPI was 4.6%. Earnings of persons employed in District of Columbia increased from \$57,332,497,000 in 2003 to \$61,911,331,000 in 2004, an increase of 8.0%. The 2003–04 national change was 6.3%.

The US Census Bureau reports that the three-year average median household income for 2002–04 in 2004 dollars was \$43,003, compared to a national average of \$44,473. During the same period an estimated 16.8% of the population was below the poverty line, as compared to 12.4% nationwide.

22 LABOR

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), in April 2006, the seasonally adjusted civilian labor force in the District of Columbia numbered 288,500, with approximately 16,000 workers unemployed, yielding an unemployment rate of 5.5%, compared to the national average of 4.7% for the same period. Preliminary

data for the same period placed nonfarm employment at 690,500. Since the beginning of the BLS data series in 1976, the highest unemployment rate recorded in the District of Columbia was 11.4%, in March 1983. The historical low was 4.8% in December 1988. Preliminary nonfarm employment data by occupation for April 2006 showed that approximately 1.8% of the labor force was employed in construction; 21.8% in professional and business services; 8% in leisure and hospitality services; and 33.4% in government.

The US Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2005, a total of 29,000 of the District of Columbia's 259,000 employed wage and salary workers were formal members of a union. This represented 11.3% of those so employed, down from 12.7% in 2004, and below the national average of 12%. Overall in 2005, a total of 33,000 workers (12.8%) in the District were covered by a union or employee association contract, which included those workers who reported no union affiliation. The District of Columbia does not have a right-to-work law.

As of 1 March 2006, the District had a locally mandated minimum wage rate of \$7.00 per hour. In 2004, women in the District accounted for 50.1% of the employed civilian labor force. The District of Columbia also serves as the headquarters of many labor organizations.

23 AGRICULTURE

There is no commercial farming in the District of Columbia.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The District of Columbia has no livestock industry.

25 FISHING

There is no commercial fishing in the District of Columbia. Recreational fishing is accessible via a boat-launching facility on the Anacostia River. The Mammoth Spring National Fish Hatchery in Arkansas distributed 1,200 channel catfish within the district in 1995/96.

26 FORESTRY

There is no forestland or forest products industry in the District of Columbia.

27 MINING

There is no mining in the District of Columbia, although a few mining firms have offices there.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

As of 2003, the District of Columbia had five electrical power service providers, of which three were energy-only providers, one was a delivery-only provider and one was investor owned. As of that same year there were 225,500 retail customers. Of that total, 198,926 received their power from the sole investor-owned service provider. The energy-only provider had 26,574 customers. There was no data on the delivery-only power supplier.

Total net summer generating capability by the state's electrical generating plants in 2003 stood at 806,000 kW, with total production that same year at 74.144 million kWh. Of the total amount generated, 100% came from independent producers and com-

bined heat and power service providers. Petroleum fired plants accounted for all the power produced.

The District of Columbia has no proven reserves or production of crude oil or natural gas. Nor is there any refining capacity. The states of Maryland and Virginia provide the District with its fossil fuel needs.

29 INDUSTRY

Although the District of Columbia is best known as the nation's capital and a center of political administration, the District does have a small manufacturing sector. According to the US Census Bureau's Annual Survey of Manufactures (ASM) for 2004, the District's shipment value of all manufactured products totaled \$271.285 million.

In 2004, a total of 1,876 people in the District earned their livelihood in the manufacturing sector, of which 1,155 were actual production workers. ASM data for 2004 showed that the District's manufacturing sector paid \$70.970 million in wages.

Within the District is the Government Printing Office (established by Congress in 1860), which operates one of the largest printing plants in the United States. Also in the District is the Washington Post Co., publisher of the newspaper of that name and of *Newsweek* magazine; the company also owns television stations.

30 COMMERCE

According to the 2002 Census of Wholesale Trade, the District of Columbia's wholesale trade sector had sales that year totaling \$2.9 billion from 381 establishments. Wholesalers of durable goods accounted for 176 establishments, while the number of nondurable goods wholesalers stood at 186, with electronic markets, agents, and brokers accounting for 19 establishments. Sales data for durable goods wholesalers, nondurable goods wholesalers and those for electronic markets, agents, and brokers in the wholesale trade industry in 2002 was not available.

In the 2002 Census of Retail Trade, the District of Columbia was listed as having 1,877 retail establishments with sales of \$3.06 billion. The leading types of retail businesses by number of establishments were: food and beverage stores (506); clothing and clothing accessories stores (355); miscellaneous store retailers (258); and health and personal care stores (185). In terms of sales, food and beverage stores accounted for the largest share of retail sales at \$952.5 million, followed by health and personal care stores at \$460.4 million; and clothing and clothing accessories stores at \$416.2 million. A total of 18,513 people were employed by the retail sector in the District of Columbia that year.

Washington, DC, exported \$825 million in merchandise in 2005.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

The Department of Consumer and Regulatory Affairs has primary responsibility for consumer protection in the District. The Department regulates businesses; land and building use; occupational and professional standards; rental housing and condominiums; health and social service care facilities; and the natural environment.

When dealing with consumer protection issues, the District's Attorney General's Office can initiate civil but not criminal pro-

ceedings. It can also: represent the District before regulatory agencies; administer consumer protection and education programs; handle formal consumer complaints; and exercise broad subpoena powers. In antitrust actions, the Attorney General's Office can act on behalf of those consumers who are incapable of acting on their own; initiate damage actions on behalf of the District in court; initiate criminal proceedings; and represent other governmental entities in recovering civil damages under District or federal law.

32 BANKING

Banking in the District of Columbia began with the chartering of the Bank of Alexandria in 1792 and the Bank of Columbia in 1793; both banks terminated in the early 19th century. The oldest surviving bank in the District is the National Bank of Washington, founded as the Bank of Washington in 1809.

As of June 2005, there were 7 banks/savings and loans/savings banks plus 65 credit unions (CUs) within the District of Columbia. As of that same date, CUs accounted for the vast majority of the assets held by financial institutions in the District, accounting for 85.4% of all assets held or \$5.560 billion. Banks/savings and loans/savings banks accounted for the remaining 14.6% or \$950 million in assets held. In addition, CUs had 470,150 members or 84.9% of the District's population. Financial institutions are regulated by the DC Department of Banking and Financial Institutions.

33 INSURANCE

In 2004, District of Columbia policyholders held 363,000 individual life insurance policies worth over \$26.6 billion; total value for all categories of life insurance (individual, group, and credit) was over \$104.5 billion. The average coverage amount is \$73,400 per policy holder. Death benefits paid that year totaled \$148.5 million.

As of 2003, there were 10 property and casualty and 1 life and health insurance company incorporated or organized in the District of Columbia. In 2004, direct premiums for property and casualty insurance totaled over \$1.4 billion. That year, there were 1,115 flood insurance policies in force in the District of Columbia, with a total value of over \$118 million.

In 2004, 51% of residents held employment-based health insurance policies, 5% held individual policies, and 29% were covered under Medicare and Medicaid; 14% of residents were uninsured. In 2003, employee contributions for employment-based health coverage averaged at 19% for single coverage and 23% for family coverage. The District does not offer an expansion program in connection with the Consolidated Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (COBRA, 1986), a health insurance program for those who lose employment-based coverage due to termination or reduction of work hours.

In 2003, there were 210,515 auto insurance policies in effect for private passenger cars. Required minimum coverage includes bodily injury liability of up to \$25,000 per individual and \$50,000 for all persons injured in an accident, as well as property damage liability of \$10,000. Uninsured motorist coverage is also required. In 2003, the average expenditure per vehicle for insurance coverage was \$1,129.31, which ranked as the third-highest average in the nation (after New Jersey and New York).

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in the District of Columbia. In 2005, there were 740 personal financial advisers employed in the District and 890 securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. In 2004, there were over 34 publicly traded companies within the District, with 11 NASDAQ companies, 11 NYSE listings, and 2 AMEX listings. In 2006, the District had two Fortune 500 companies; Pepco Holdings (Potomac Electric Power Company) ranked first in the District and 283rd in the nation, with revenues of over \$8 billion, followed by Danaher. Washington Post, Harman International Industries, and WGL Holdings made the Fortune 1,000 listing. All five companies are traded on the NYSE.

The headquarters of the US Securities and Exchange Commission is located in Washington, DC.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

The budget for the District of Columbia is prepared in conjunction with the mayor's office and reviewed by the city council, but is subject to review and approval by the Congress. The fiscal year (FY) runs from 1 October through 30 September.

The local tax base is limited by a shortage of taxable real estate, much of the District being occupied by government buildings and federal reservations. Moreover, Congress has not allowed the District to tax the incomes of people who work in Washington but live in the suburbs, an objective the District government has urgently sought.

In fiscal year 2004, federal government grants to the District of Columbia were nearly \$4.2 billion.

In the fiscal year 2007 federal budget, the District of Columbia was slated to receive: \$214 million for the DC Court Services and Offender Supervision Agency, a \$15 million increase over 2006; \$35 million for the DC Resident Tuition Assistance program, an increase of \$2 million over 2006. This program allows DC residents to attend public colleges nationwide at in-state tuition rates; \$30 million to construct a new central library and renovate neighborhood branches for the District; \$26 million to improve school facilities in the District; \$20 million to expand the Navy Yard Metro station; \$15 million for DC School Choice, a program that provides parents more options for obtaining a quality education for their children who are trapped in low-performing schools.

36 TAXATION

As of 1 January 2006, the District of Columbia had three individual income tax brackets ranging from 4.5% to 9.0%. The District of Columbia taxes corporations at a flat rate of 9.975%.

In 2004, the District collected \$1,027,976,000 in property taxes, or \$1,856 per capita. Only New Jersey, Connecticut, and New Hampshire have higher per capita property taxes.

The District of Columbia taxes retail sales at a rate of 5.75%. Food purchased for consumption off-premises is tax exempt. The tax on cigarettes is 100 cents per pack, which ranks 19th among the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The District of Columbia taxes gasoline at 22.5 cents per gallon. This is in addition to the 18.4 cents per gallon federal tax on gasoline.

According to the Tax Foundation, for every federal tax dollar sent to the federal government in 2004, DC citizens received \$6.64

in federal spending, which ranks the District highest nationally by a wide margin.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

The Business Resource Center offers information on doing business in the District. There is an Office of the Deputy Mayor for Planning and Economic Development. Community Development Corporations (CDCs) and other community-based organizations work to revitalize distressed neighborhoods throughout the District. The Department for Housing and Community Development (DHCD) facilitates the production and preservation of housing, community, and economic development opportunities. DHCD fosters partnerships with for-profit and nonprofit organizations to create and maintain stable neighborhoods; retain and expand the city's tax base; promote economic opportunities through community empowerment; and retain and create job and business opportunities for the benefit of DC residents. Business Improvement Districts (BIDs) are commercial areas of the District that collect a "self tax" from property owners to provide services and programs to the entire BID. These programs address cleanliness, maintenance, safety, promotion, economic development, among other issues. The Department of Small and Local Business Development (DSLBD) works with the Office of Contracting and Procurement (OCP) to match small, disadvantaged businesses with contracting opportunities with the DC government and elsewhere. DSLBD also fosters economic development of DC's small business community through technical assistance, business seminars, conferences, exhibits, and outreach forums, among other programs.

38 HEALTH

Health conditions in the nation's capital are no source of national pride. The infant mortality rate in October 2005 was estimated at 10.6 per 1,000 live births, the highest in the nation. The birth rate in 2003 was 13.5 per 1,000 population. In 2000, the District had the highest abortion rate in the country at 68.1 per 1,000 women (the national average was 21.3 per 1,000 that year); however, this figure represented a fairly substantial decrease from the 1992 rate of 133.1 per 1,000. In 2003, about 76.1% of pregnant woman received prenatal care beginning in the first trimester. In 2004, approximately 83% of children received routine immunizations before the age of three.

The crude death rate in 2003 was 9.8 deaths per 1,000 population. As of 2002, the death rates for major causes of death (per 100,000 resident population) were: heart disease, 291.8; cancer, 227.4; cerebrovascular diseases, 48.9; chronic lower respiratory diseases, 23.3; and diabetes, 33.5. The mortality rate from HIV infection in 2002 was the highest in the nation at 40.8 per 100,000 population. In 2004, the reported AIDS case rate was at about 179.2 per 100,000 population, the highest in the nation and well above the national average of 15 per 100,000. In 2002, the District had the lowest rate of suicides in the nation, at about 5.4 per 100,000, but also had the distinction of having the highest rate of homicides at 40.1 per 100,000; the national average rate of homicides that year was 6.1 per 100,000. In 2002, about 50.2% of the population was considered overweight or obese, one of the lowest rates in the nation. As of 2004, about 20.8% of state residents were smokers.

In 2003, the District had 10 community hospitals with about 3,400 beds. There were about 135,000 patient admissions that year and 1.6 million outpatient visits. The average daily inpatient census was about 2,500 patients. The average cost per day for hospital care was \$1,824. Also in 2003, there were about 21 certified nursing facilities in the state with 3,114 beds and an overall occupancy rate of about 91.9%. In 2004, it was estimated that about 72.2% of all state residents had received some type of dental care within the year. The District had 752 physicians per 100,000 resident population in 2004 and 1,515 nurses per 100,000 in 2001; these represents the highest health care worker–population rates in the nation. In 2004, there was a total of 575 dentists in the District.

About 28% of District residents were enrolled in Medicaid programs in 2003, with this percentage, the District was tied with California and Tennessee as having the second-highest percentage of Medicaid recipients in the country (after Maine). Approximately 14% were uninsured in 2004.

3⁹ SOCIAL WELFARE

In 2004, about 17,000 people received unemployment benefits, with the average weekly unemployment benefit at \$257. In fiscal year 2005, the estimated average monthly participation in the food stamp program included about 88,799 persons (44,362 households); the average monthly benefit was about \$96.94 per person. That year, the total of benefits paid through the state for the food stamp program was about \$103.2 million.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the District program had 44,000 recipients; District and federal expenditures on this TANF program totaled \$68 million in fiscal year 2003.

In December 2004, Social Security benefits were paid to 71,670 District of Columbia residents. This number included 46,910 retired workers, 6,770 widows and widowers, 9,270 disabled workers, 2,460 spouses, and 6,260 children. Social Security beneficiaries represented 13% of the District's total population and 77.3% of the District's population age 65 and older. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$782; widows and widowers, \$755; disabled workers, \$824; and spouses, \$415. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$431 per month; children of deceased workers, \$488; and children of disabled workers, \$268. Federal Supplemental Security Income payments in December 2004 went to 20,856 District of Columbia residents, averaging \$430 a month.

4⁰ HOUSING

In 2004, the District of Columbia had an estimated 276,600 housing units, of which 248,563 were occupied. Only 43.6% were owner occupied, ranking the District as having the least number of homeowners in the nation. About 38% of all units dated from 1939 or earlier. Only about 13% of all units were single-family, detached homes; the lowest percentage in the country. About 30% of all housing units were in buildings of 20 units or more; which is the highest percentage in the country for this category of housing.

It was estimated that about 9.625 units were without telephone service, 985 lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 961 lacked complete kitchen facilities. Most households relied on gas and electricity for heating. The average household had 2.08 members.

In 2004, 1,900 new privately owned housing units were authorized for construction. The median home value was \$334,702, placing the District as third in the nation for highest home values. The median monthly cost for mortgage owners was \$1,612 while renters paid a median of \$799 per month. In 2006, the district was awarded over \$19.2 million in community development block grants from the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

4¹ EDUCATION

The District of Columbia's first public schools were opened in 1805. Until 1954, public schools for whites and blacks were operated separately. Although legally integrated, the public school system remains virtually segregated. Most white and many black students attend private schools. In 2004, 86.4% of all residents 25 years of age or older were high school graduates. Some 45.7%, compared to the national average of 26%, obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

The total enrollment for fall 2002 in the District of Columbia's public schools stood at 76,000. Of these, 59,000 attended schools from kindergarten through grade eight, and 17,000 attended high school. In 2001/02, approximately 86.6% of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools were minorities. Total enrollment was estimated at 75,000 in fall 2003 and was expected to be 74,000 by fall 2014, a decrease of 2.8% during the period 2002 to 2014. There were 16,376 students enrolled in 82 private schools in fall 2003. Expenditures for public education in 2003/04 were estimated at \$1,077,584 or \$12,801 per student, the third-highest among the 50 states. Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has tested public school students nationwide. The resulting report, *The Nation's Report Card*, stated that in 2005 eighth graders in the District of Columbia scored 245 out of 500 in mathematics compared with the national average of 278.

As of fall 2002, there were 91,014 students enrolled in college or graduate school; minority students comprised 42.5% of total postsecondary enrollment. As of 2005, the District of Columbia had 16 degree-granting institutions, 14 private and 2 public. Some of the best-known private universities are American, Georgetown, George Washington, and Howard. The University of the District of Columbia, created in 1976 from the merger of three institutions, has an open admissions policy for District freshman undergraduate students. It has five academic colleges. The US Department of Agriculture Graduate School also operates within the District.

4² ARTS

The District of Columbia Commission on the Arts and Humanities was founded in 1968 and is a partner with the Mid-Atlantic Arts Foundation. In 2005, District arts organizations received 57 grants totaling \$3,028,225 from the National Endowment for the Arts. The Humanities Council of Washington, DC, was established in 1980 and as of 2004, awarded approximately \$125,000 annually to support local programming. In 2005, the National En-

dowment for the Humanities contributed \$5,003,912 for 43 programs within the District.

The National Endowment for the Humanities contributed \$400,000 to the Historical Society of Washington, DC, for community educational programs and exhibits, humanities fellowships of \$149,565 to the American Councils for International Education in 2002, and \$378,000 to the Folger Shakespeare Library in 2003.

The John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts, officially opened on 8 September 1971, is the District's principal performing arts center. Its five main halls—the Opera House, Concert Hall, Eisenhower Theater, Terrace Theatre, and American Film Institute Theater—display gifts from at least 30 foreign governments, ranging from stage curtains and tapestries to sculptures and crystal chandeliers. Major theatrical productions are also presented at the Arena Stage-Kreeger Theater, National Theatre, Folger Theatre, and Ford's Theatre. Rep, Inc., is one of the few professional black theaters in the United States; the New Playwrights' Theatre of Washington is a nonprofit group presenting new plays by American dramatists.

The District's leading symphony is the National Symphony Orchestra, which performs from October through April at the Concert Hall of the Kennedy Center. On a smaller scale, the Phillips Collection, National Gallery of Art, and Library of Congress offer concerts and recitals. The Washington Opera performs at the Kennedy Center's Opera House.

During the summer months, the Carter Barron Amphitheater presents popular music and jazz. Concerts featuring the US Army, US Navy, and US Marine Corps bands, and the Air Force Symphony Orchestra are held throughout the District.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

Although Washington, DC, is best known as the site of the world's largest library, the Library of Congress, the District, or the city proper, had its own public library system, which for the fiscal year ending in September 2001, consisted of a central or main library and 26 branch libraries. In that same year the system had 2,472,000 volumes of books and serial publications, with a circulation of 1,191,000. The system also had 298,000 audio and 17,000 video items, and one bookmobile. Operating income for fiscal year 2001 totaled \$27,223,000, of which \$550,000 came from federal sources and \$26,412,000 came from local sources. In that same year, operating expenditures totaled \$27,223,000, of which 72.4% was spent on the staff and 9.6% on the collection.

The Library of Congress, as of 1998, had a collection of more than 80 million items, including 26 million books and pamphlets. The Library, which is also the cataloging and bibliographic center for libraries throughout the United States, has on permanent display a 1455 Gutenberg Bible, Thomas Jefferson's first draft of the Declaration of Independence, and Abraham Lincoln's first two drafts of the Gettysburg Address. Also in its permanent collection are the oldest known existing film (Thomas Edison's *The Sneeze*, lasting all of three seconds), maps believed to date from the Lewis and Clark expedition, original musical scores by Charles Ives, and huge libraries of Russian and Chinese texts. The Folger Shakespeare Library contains not only rare Renaissance manuscripts but also a full-size re-creation of an Elizabethan theater. The District's own public library system has a main library and 26 branch-

es—including the Martin Luther King Memorial Library—with 2,863,296 volumes in 1998.

The District of Columbia was home to at least 93 museums in 2000. The Smithsonian Institution—endowed in 1826 by an Englishman, James Smithson, who had never visited the United States—operates a vast museum and research complex that includes the National Air and Space Museum, National Museum of Natural History, National Museum of History and Technology, many of the District's art museums, and the National Zoological Park. Among the art museums operated by the Smithsonian are the National Gallery of Art, housing one of the world's outstanding collections of Western art from the 13th century to the present; the Freer Gallery of Art, housing a renowned collection of Near and Far Eastern treasures, along with one of the largest collections of the works of James McNeill Whistler, whose Peacock Room is one of the museum's highlights; the National Collection of Fine Arts; the National Portrait Gallery; and the Hirshhorn Museum and Sculpture Garden. Among the capital's other distinguished art collections are the Phillips Collection, the oldest museum of modern art in the United States; the Museum of African Art, located in the Frederick Douglass Memorial Home; and the Corcoran Gallery of Art, devoted primarily to American paintings, sculpture, and drawings of the last 300 years. Washington is also the site of such historic house-museums as Octagon House, Decatur House, Dumbarton Oaks, and the Woodrow Wilson House. Many national associations maintain exhibitions relevant to their areas of interest. The US National Arboretum, US Botanic Garden, and National Aquarium are in the city. In 1999, lawmakers debated plans to build a memorial for Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. between the Jefferson and Lincoln memorials.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Washington, DC, is the headquarters of the US Postal Service. As of 2004, about 91.9% of households had telephones. In addition, by June of that same year there were 555,958 mobile wireless telephone subscribers. In 2003, 64.3% of the District households had a computer and 56.8% had Internet access. By June 2005, there were 126,609 high-speed lines in the District, 94,320 residential and 32,289 for business.

In 2005, the District had 4 AM and 13 FM radio stations and 7 television stations. The District had 1,999,870 television households, 70% of which ordered cable in 1999. A total of 47,433 Internet domain names were registered in the District in 2000.

45 PRESS

Because the District of Columbia is the center of US government activity, hundreds of US and foreign newspapers maintain permanent news bureaus there. The District's major newspaper is the *Washington Post*. In 2005, the *Post*, a morning paper, had an average daily circulation of 707,690 and a Sunday circulation of 1,007,487. In 2004, the *Washington Post* had the sixth-largest daily circulation and the third-largest Sunday circulation in the country. The *Washington Times*, also published on weekday mornings, had a circulation of 100,603 (43,660 on Sunday).

Press clubs active within the District include the National Press Club, Gridiron Club, American Newspaper Women's Club, Washington Press Club, and White House Correspondents Association.

There are more than 30 major Washington-based periodicals. Among the best known are the *National Geographic*, *U.S. News & World Report*, *Smithsonian*, and *New Republic*. Important periodicals covering the workings of the federal government are the *Congressional Quarterly* and its companion, *CQ Weekly Report*.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

In 2006, there were over 4,000 nonprofit organizations registered within the District, of which about 2,849 were registered as charitable, educational, or religious organizations. Service and patriotic organizations with headquarters in the District include the Air Force Association, Daughters of the American Revolution, and the 4-H Program. Among the cultural, scientific, and educational groups are the American Film Institute, American Theatre Association, Federation of American Scientists, American Association for the Advancement of Science, National Academy of Sciences, National Geographic Society, Association of American Colleges, American Council on Education, National Education Association, American Association of University Professors, American Association of University Women, and US Student Association. District cultural and educational organizations include the Cultural Alliance of Greater Washington, the United States Capitol Historical Society, and the Historical Society of Washington, DC.

Among the environmental and animal protection organizations in the District are the Animal Welfare Institute and the Humane Society of the United States. Medical, health, and charitable organizations include the American Red Cross. Groups dealing with the elderly include the National Association of Retired Federal Employees and the American Association of Retired Persons. Among ethnic and religious bodies with headquarters in the District are the National Association of Arab Americans, B'nai B'rith International, and the US Conference of Catholic Bishops.

Trade, professional, and commercial organizations include the American Advertising Federation, American Federation of Police, Air Line Pilots Association, American Bankers Association, National Cable Television Association, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, American Chemical Society, and National Press Club.

Virtually every major public interest group maintains an office in Washington, DC. Notable examples are the Consumer Federation of America, National Consumers League, National Abortion Rights Action League, National League of Cities, Common Cause, US Conference of Mayors, National Organization for Women, and the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO). Among the important world organizations with headquarters in the District are the Organization of American States, International Monetary Fund, and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

As the nation's capital, the District of Columbia is one of the world's leading tourist centers. Tourism in Washington, DC, generates over \$10 billion in direct spending each year and sustains some 260,000 full and part-time jobs. In 2004, there were over 17.7 million domestic visitors and over 1 million international vis-

itors. In 2003, the District of Columbia employed 56, 200 people directly in the tourism industry.

The most popular sites are The National Air and Space Museum, the National Museum of Natural History, National Gallery of Art, Museum of American History, the National Zoo (featuring pandas), the US Holocaust Memorial Museum, Smithsonian Castle, the Vietnam Veterans Memorial, Lincoln Memorial, Library of Congress, White House, and US Capitol tours. Besides the many museums, there are federal buildings and landmarks, parks and gardens, cemeteries, and war memorials.

Across the Potomac, in Virginia, are Arlington National Cemetery, site of the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier and the grave of John F. Kennedy, and George Washington's home at Mt. Vernon.

48 SPORTS

There are six major professional sports teams in Washington, DC: the Redskins of the National Football League, the Nationals (formerly the Montreal Expos) of Major League Baseball, the Wizards (formerly the Bullets), of the National Basketball Association, the Mystics of the Women's National Basketball Association, the Capitals of the National Hockey League, and DC United of Major League Soccer. Hockey and basketball are played in downtown Washington at the MCI Arena, which was opened for the 1997–98 season. In 2005, the Nationals opened their first season in Washington, DC, at the Robert F. Kennedy Memorial Stadium. The Redskins began the 1997 season in the new Jack Kent Cooke Stadium in Landover, Maryland. The Redskins have reached football's Super Bowl five times, winning in 1983, 1988, and 1992. The Bullets won the National Basketball Association (NBA) championship in 1978.

In collegiate sports the Georgetown University Hoyas were a dominant force in basketball during the 1980s, reaching the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championship game in 1982, 1984, and 1985, and winning the title in 1984.

49 FAMOUS WASHINGTONIANS

Although no US president has been born in the District of Columbia, all but George Washington (b.Virginia, 1732–99) lived there while serving as chief executive. Seven presidents died in Washington, DC, including three during their term of office: William Henry Harrison (b.Virginia, 1773–1841), Zachary Taylor (b.Virginia, 1784–1850), and Abraham Lincoln (b.Kentucky, 1809–65). In addition, John Quincy Adams (b.Massachusetts, 1767–1848), who served as a congressman for 17 years after he left the White House, died at his desk in the House of Representatives; and William Howard Taft (b.Ohio, 1857–1930) passed away while serving as US chief justice. Retired presidents Woodrow Wilson (b.Virginia, 1856–1924) and Dwight D. Eisenhower (b.Texas, 1890–1969) also died in the capital. Federal officials born in Washington, DC, include John Foster Dulles (1888–1959), secretary of state; J(ohn) Edgar Hoover (1895–1972), director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI); and Robert C. Weaver (1907–97), who as secretary of housing and urban development during the administration of President Lyndon B. Johnson was the first black American to hold cabinet rank. Walter E. Fauntroy (b.1933) was the District's

first delegate to Congress in the 20th century, appointed when that office was reestablished in 1971.

Among the outstanding scientists and other professionals associated with the District were Cleveland Abbe (b.New York, 1838–1916), a meteorologist who helped develop the US Weather Service; inventor Alexander Graham Bell (b.Scotland, 1842–1922), president of the National Geographic Society (NGS) in his later years; Henry Gannett (b.Maryland, 1846–1914), chief geographer with the US Geological Survey, president of the NGS and a pioneer in American cartography; Charles D. Walcott (b.New York, 1850–1927), director of the Geological Survey and secretary of the Smithsonian Institution; Emile Berliner (b.Germany, 1851–1929), a pioneer in the development of the phonograph; Gilbert H. Grosvenor (b.Turkey, 1875–1966), editor in chief of *National Geographic* magazine; and Charles R. Drew (1904–50), developer of the blood bank concept. Leading business executives who have lived or worked in the District include William W. Corcoran (1798–1888), banker and philanthropist, and Katharine Graham (b.New York, 1917–2001), publisher of the *Washington Post* and chairman of its parent company; the two *Post* reporters who received much of the credit for uncovering the Watergate scandal are Carl Bernstein (b.1944), a native Washingtonian, and Robert “Bob” Woodward (b.Illinois, 1943). Mary Elizabeth “Tipper” Gore (b.1948), wife of Vice President Al Gore, was born in Washington, DC. Washingtonians who achieved military fame include Benjamin O. Davis (1877–1970), the first black to become an Army general, and his son, Benjamin O. Davis Jr. (1912–2002), who was the first black to become a general in the Air Force. John Shalikashvili (b.Poland, 1936) was the first foreign-born commander in chief of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

The designer of the nation’s capital was Pierre Charles L’Enfant (b.France, 1754–1825), whose grave is in Arlington National Cemetery; also involved in laying out the capital were surveyor Andrew Ellicott (b.Pennsylvania, 1754–1820) and mathematician-astronomer Benjamin Banneker (b.Maryland, 1731–1806), a black who was an early champion of equal rights. Among Washingto-

nians to achieve distinction in the creative arts were John Philip Sousa (1854–1932), bandmaster and composer; Herblock (Herbert L. Block, b. Illinois, 1909), political cartoonist; and playwright Edward Albee (b.1928), winner of the Pulitzer Prize for drama in 1967 and 1975. Famous performers born in the District of Columbia include composer-pianist-bandleader Edward Kennedy “Duke” Ellington (1899–1974) and actress Helen Hayes (Helen Hayes Brown, 1900–92). Alice Roosevelt Longworth (b.New York, 1884–1980) dominated the Washington social scene for much of this century.

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PUERTO RICO

Commonwealth of Puerto Rico

ORIGIN OF STATE NAME: Spanish for “rich port.” **NICKNAME:** Island of Enchantment. **CAPITAL:** San Juan. **BECAME A COMMONWEALTH:** 25 July 1952. **SONG:** “La Borinquena.” **MOTTO:** *Joannes est nomen ejus.* (John is his name.) **FLAG:** From the hoist extends a blue triangle, with one white star; five horizontal stripes—three red, two white—make up the balance. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** In the center of a green circular shield, a lamb holding a white banner reclines on the book of the Apocalypse. Above are a yoke, a cluster of arrows, and the letters “F” and “I,” signifying King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, rulers of Spain at the time of discovery; below is the commonwealth motto. Surrounding the shield, on a white border, are the towers of Castile and lions symbolizing Spain, crosses representing the conquest of Jerusalem, and Spanish banners. **BIRD:** Reinita. **FLOWER:** Maga. **TREE:** Ceiba. **LEGAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year’s Day, 1 January; Three Kings Day (Epiphany), 6 January; Birthday of Eugenio Maria de Hostos, 2nd Monday in January; Birthday of Martin Luther King Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Presidents’ Day, 3rd Monday in February; Abolition Day, 22 March; Good Friday, Friday before Easter, March or April; Birthday of José de Diego, 3rd Monday in April; Memorial Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Birthday of Luis Muñoz Rivera, 3rd Monday in July; Constitution Day, 25 July; Birthday of José Celso Barbosa, 25 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Discovery of America (Columbus Day), 12 October; Veterans’ Day, 11 November; Discovery of Puerto Rico Day, 19 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November, Christmas Day, 25 December. **TIME:** 8 AM Atlantic Standard Time = noon GMT.

¹ LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Situated on the NE periphery of the Caribbean Sea, about 1,000 mi (1,600 km) SE of Miami, Puerto Rico is the easternmost and smallest island of the Greater Antilles group. Its total area is 3,515 sq mi (9,104 sq km), including 3,459 sq mi (8,959 sq km) of land and 56 sq mi (145 sq km) of inland water.

Shaped roughly like a rectangle, the main island measures 111 mi (179 km) E-W and 36 (58 km) N-S. Offshore and to the E are two major islands, Vieques and Culebra.

Puerto Rico is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean to the N, the Virgin Passage and Vieques Sound to the E, the Caribbean Sea to the S, and the Mona Passage to the W. Puerto Rico’s total boundary length is 378 mi (608 km).

² TOPOGRAPHY

About 75% of Puerto Rico’s land area consists of hills or mountains too steep for intensive commercial cultivation. The Cordillera Central range, separating the northern coast from the semi-arid south, has the island’s highest peak, Cerro de Punta (4,389 ft–1,338 m). Puerto Rico’s best-known peak, El Yunque (3,496 ft–1,066 m), stands to the east, in the Luquillo Mountains (Sierra de Luquillo). The north coast consists of a level strip about 100 mi (160 km) long and 5 mi (8 km) wide. Principal valleys are located along the east coast, from Fajardo to Cape Mala Pascua, and around Caguas, in the east-central region. Off the eastern shore are two small islands: Vieques, with an area of 51 sq mi (132 sq km), and Culebra, covering 24 sq mi (62 sq km). Uninhabited Mona Island (19 sq mi–49 sq km), off the southwest coast, is a breeding ground for wildlife.

Puerto Rico has 50 waterways large enough to be classified as rivers, but none is navigable by large vessels. The longest river is the Rio de la Plata, extending 46 mi (74 km) from Cayey to Dorado, where it empties into the Atlantic. There are few natural lakes but numerous artificial ones, of which Dos Bocas, south of Arecibo, is one of the most beautiful. Phosphorescent Bay, whose luminescent organisms glow in the night, is a tourist attraction on the south coast.

Like many other Caribbean islands, Puerto Rico is the crest of an extinct submarine volcano. About 45 mi (72 km) north of the island lies the Puerto Rico Trench, at over 28,000 feet (8,500 meters) one of the world’s deepest chasms.

³ CLIMATE

Tradewinds from the northeast keep Puerto Rico’s climate equable, although tropical. San Juan has a normal daily mean temperature of 80°F (27°C), ranging from 77°F (25°C) in January to 82°F (28°C) in July; the normal daily minimum is 73°F (23°C), the maximum 86°F (30°C). The lowest temperature ever recorded on the island is 39°F (4°C), at Aibonito, the highest 103°F (39°C), at San Lorenzo. The recorded temperature in San Juan has never been lower than 60°F (16°C) or higher than 97°F (37°C).

Rainfall varies by region. Ponce, on the south coast, averages only 32 in (81 cm) a year, while the highlands average 108 in (274 cm); the rain forest on El Yunque receives an annual average of 183 in (465 cm). San Juan’s average annual rainfall is 54 in (137 cm), the rainiest months being May through November.

The word “hurricane” derives from *hurakán*, a term the Spanish learned from Puerto Rico’s Taino Indians. Nine hurricanes have

struck Puerto Rico in this century, the most recent being the devastating Hurricane Georges in 1998. On 7 October 1985, torrential rains created a mud slide that devastated the hillside barrio of Mameyes, killing hundreds of people; not only was this Puerto Rico's worst disaster of the century, but it was the single most destructive landslide in US history. On 15–16 September 2004, Hurricane Jeanne, the tenth named storm and the seventh hurricane of the 2004 hurricane season, entered southeast Puerto Rico near Maunabo and traveled west then north across Puerto Rico and exited over the northwest tip of the island near Aguadilla. Following the storm, Puerto Rico was declared a federal disaster area. As the storm approached, the entire power grid of Puerto Rico was shut down by the government, indirectly causing over \$100 million in damage and resulting in 600,000 people left without running water. Seven deaths were attributed to Jeanne and there was also landslide damage.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

During the 19th century, forests covered about three-fourths of Puerto Rico. As of the 21st century however, only one-fourth of the island is forested. Flowering trees still abound, and the butterfly tree, African tulip, and flamboyán (royal poinciana) add bright reds and pinks to Puerto Rico's lush green landscape. Among hardwoods (now rare) are nutmeg, satinwood, Spanish elm, and Spanish cedar. Pre-Columbian peoples cultivated yucca, yams, peanuts, hot peppers, tobacco, and cotton. Pineapple, guava, tamarind, and cashews are indigenous, and such fruits as mamey, jobo guanábana, and quenepa are new to most visitors. Coconuts, coffee, sugarcane, plantains, mangoes, and most citrus fruits were introduced by the Spanish.

The only mammal found on the island by the conquistadores was a kind of barkless dog, now extinct. Virtually all present-day mammals have been introduced, including horses, cattle, cats, and dogs. The only troublesome mammal is the mongoose, brought in from India to control reptiles in the cane fields and now wild in remote rural areas. Mosquitoes and sand flies are common pests, but the only dangerous insect is the giant centipede, whose sting is painful but rarely fatal. Perhaps the island's best-known inhabitant is the golden coqui, a tiny tree frog whose call of "ko-kee, ko-kee" is heard all through the night; it is a threatened species. Marine life is extraordinarily abundant, including many tropical fish, crabs, and corals. Puerto Rico has some 200 bird species, many of which live in the rain forest. Thrushes, orioles, grosbeaks, and hummingbirds are common, and the reinita and pitirre are distinctive to the island. Several parrot species are rare, and the Puerto Rican parrot is endangered. Also on the endangered list are the yellow-shouldered blackbird and the Puerto Rican plain pigeon, Puerto Rican whippoorwill, Culebra giant anole, Puerto Rican boa, and Monita gecko. The Mona boa and Mona ground iguana are threatened. Also, on the endangered list is the hawksbill sea turtle, which nests in Puerto Rico. There are three national wildlife refuges, covering a total of 2,425 acres (981 hectares).

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

US environmental laws and regulations are applicable in Puerto Rico. Land-use planning, overseen by the Puerto Rico Planning Board, is an especially difficult problem, since residential, industrial, and recreational developers are all competing for about 30%

of the total land area on an island that is already more densely populated than any US state except New Jersey. Pollution from highland latrines and septic systems and from agricultural and industrial wastes is a potential hazard; the rum industry, for example, has traditionally dumped its wastes into the ocean. Moreover, the US requirement that sewage receive secondary treatment before being discharged into deep seas may be unrealistic in view of the commonwealth government's claim, in the late 1970s, which it could not afford to build secondary sewage treatment facilities when 45% of its population lacks primary sewage treatment systems. As of 2003, sewage discharges into the ocean remained a problem: in August 2000, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) granted the Puerto Rico Aqueduct and Sewage Authority's Aguadilla treatment plant a 20-year waiver for discharging primary treated sewage into the ocean, threatening coral reefs. In 2003, the EPA database listed 16 hazardous waste sites in Puerto Rico. As of 2006, 10 sites were on the National Priorities List, including the Atlantic Fleet Weapons Training Area and the Upjohn facility; Pesticide Warehouse I in Arecibo was a proposed site.

In 2003, total on- and off-site release of toxic chemicals was 8.8 million pounds. In January 1994, 750,000 gallons of oil were spilled off the coast of Puerto Rico, resulting in a fine of over \$75 million levied against the three companies responsible. Wetlands on the island have been devastated by development, but in recent years, efforts have been mounted to save and expand these resources. An example is the restoration of one of the most important waterfowl habitats on the island, the freshwater wetlands of Laguna Cartagena.

6 POPULATION

Puerto Rico's population was estimated at 3,912,054 in 2005, an increase of about 0.4% from 2004 and up from 3,522,037 in 1990. From 1990 to 2000, the population increased by 8.1%. The population was projected to reach 4.4 million by 2010. The population density in 2004 was about 1,137.4 persons per sq mi (439.2 per sq km).

In 2004, about 26.8% of the population was under 18 years of age and 12.2% were 65 years or over. The median age was 33.8 years. In 2003, there were 93 Puerto Rican males for every 100 females.

The population was estimated to be 75.2% urban and 24.8% rural in 2000. San Juan is Puerto Rico's capital and largest city, with an estimated 2005 population of 428,591, followed by Bayamon, 222,195; Carolina, 187,472; Ponce, 182,387; and Caguas, 142,378. Approximately one-third of all residents live in the San Juan–Carolina–Bayamon metropolitan area.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

Three main ethnic strands reflect the heritage of Puerto Rico: the Taino Indians, most of whom fled or perished after the Spanish conquest; black Africans, imported as slaves under Spanish rule; and the Spanish themselves. With an admixture of Dutch, English, Corsicans, and other Europeans, Puerto Ricans today enjoy a distinct Hispanic-Afro-Antillean heritage. In 2006, about 80.5% of the population was white (primarily of Spanish origin), 8% were black, 0.4% was Amerindians, and 10.9% were of other or mixed race.

Residents of Puerto Rico have been considered as US citizens since 1917, when the island was ceded to the United States at the end of the Spanish-American War. However, Puerto Ricans do not pay federal income tax to the United States and they do not vote in US presidential elections. Despite this link to the United States, most Puerto Ricans describe themselves as “Puertorriqueños” rather than Americans.

Less than two-thirds of all ethnic Puerto Ricans live on the island. Virtually all the remainder resides on the US mainland; in 2000 there were 3,407,000 people who identified themselves as Puerto Rican in the 50 states. The state of New York had the largest US ethnic Puerto Rican population (some 1.1 million) and ethnic Puerto Ricans made up 5.5% of that state’s total population. New Yorkers who were born in Puerto Rico or who are of Puerto Rican descent sometimes refer to themselves as “Nuyorican.” Florida’s total ethnic population in 2000 stood second to New York’s, at approximately one-half million.

8 LANGUAGES

Spanish and English are the official languages of Puerto Rico, but Spanish remains dominant among the residents. The issue of language has been an ongoing concern between residents and US authorities. A 1902 law established both languages for official use, but US officials pushed for many years to make English the dominant language in school and government use. In 1991, the Puerto Rican legislature issued a bill making Spanish the official language, but this decision was reversed in 1993, restoring both languages to official status.

Puerto Rican Spanish contains many Taino influences, which can be found in such place-names as Arecibo, Guayama, and Mayagüez, as well as *hamaca* (hammock) and *canoas* (canoe). Among many African borrowings are food terms like *quimbombó* (okra), *guince* (banana), and *mondongo* (a spicy stew). Some English words are incorporated into Spanish in what is commonly referred to as “Spanglish.”

9 RELIGIONS

Until 1850, Roman Catholicism was the only religion permitted in Puerto Rico. Most of the population is Christian, with Roman Catholics accounting for about 85% of the population in 2006. The Catholic Church maintains numerous hospitals and schools on the island. Most of the remaining Puerto Ricans belong to other Christian denominations, which have been allowed on the island since the 1850s. Pentecostal churches have attracted a significant following, particularly among the urban poor of the barrios.

A small number of residents (an estimated 0.71% or 27,799 adherents in 2001) are Spiritists, incorporating native and African beliefs into their faith practices. Santería, a syncretic religion originating in Cuba and Brazil that incorporates African and native Caribbean beliefs (including voodoo) with Catholicism, is practiced by some residents. As of 2001, Puerto Rico had 3,446 Hindus, 2,818 Baha’is, 2,715 Jews, 1,135 Muslims, and 509 Buddhists.

In 2006, the United Evangelical Church of Puerto Rico (Iglesia Evangelical Unida de Puerto Rico—IEUPR) voted to end a 40-year partnership with the United Church of Christ (UCC) due to the denomination’s liberal policies on lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender issues. The IEUPR, which was established in 1931 and became a conference of the UCC in 1961, planned to con-



tinue to operate as an independent denomination, much as it had before affiliation with the UCC.

10 TRANSPORTATION

Puerto Rico’s inland transportation network consists primarily of roads and motor vehicles. A system of public buses operated by the Metropolitan Bus Authority (MBA) provides intercity passenger transport in the capital of San Juan and nearby cities. As of 2000, the bus service carried 135,000 daily passengers, up from 60,000 daily passengers in 1995, a 125% increase. The *públicos*, a privately owned jitney service of small buses and cars, offers transportation between fixed destinations in cities and towns.

As of 2004, Puerto Rico had 264 mi (424 km) of interstate highways and 15,673 mi (25,217 km) of local roads. In 2000, the territory had approximately two million registered automobiles.

The Tren Urbano (Urban Train), a heavy rail transit train, began operations in December 2004. Tren Urbano connects San Juan to the surrounding urban areas with 16 stations along a 10.7-mi (17-km), 30-minute route. The cost of the Tren Urbano project was \$2.25 billion.

In 1996/97, the Puerto Rico Hotel and Tourism Association invested nearly \$750 million to complete the strategic highway network system around the island, as well as other roads that connect small towns with the nearby cities. By 2000, the majority of the projects to improve the highway system had been completed, including improvements to Highways 2, 3, 22, 26, 30, and 52. The PR-10 Expressway crosses from the north to the central mountainous region. The PR-53 toll road provides a new route for the towns of the northeast. The Baldorioty de Castro Expressway allows rap-

id travel between the main airport and the capital. In 2000, a \$200 million master plan for a new north-south expressway was being developed, which would involve the Martínez Nadal Expressway (Highway 20), improvements to Highway 1 to Caguas, an intersection in Caparra, and the Kennedy Expressway. The project was to be completed by 2008.

San Juan, the island's principal port and a leading containerized cargo-handling facility, handled 9.6 million tons of cargo in 2001. Ponce and Mayagüez handle considerable tons of cargo as well. Ferries link the main island with the islands of Vieques and Culebra.

As of 2006, the first of four phases was completed in the development of the "Port of the Americas," a world-class transshipment port and adjoining free industrial zone extending from Ponce to Guayanilla. Extensive tracts of land and the natural deep-water bay were an advantageous site for the port. The port was designed to handle all of Puerto Rico's foreign trade, and a good deal of the international container traffic crossing the Caribbean. It was expected that 12,000 jobs would be created with the establishment of the port.

Puerto Rico receives flights from 38 US mainland cities, and from the Virgin Islands, the British West Indies, Jamaica, the Dominican Republic, Great Britain, France, Spain, and the Netherlands. Luis Muñoz Marín International Airport in San Juan enplaned 10.4 million passengers in 2002. Puerto Rico shipped 495.8 million tons of air cargo in 2002. San Juan had 1.29 million passenger airline seats in January 2003. Other leading air terminals are located at Ponce, Mayagüez, and Aguadilla. There were 30 airports in Puerto Rico in 2004, 17 of which had paved runways. As of 2003, 52 airlines serviced Puerto Rico.

11 HISTORY

Archaeological finds indicate that at least three Indian cultures flourished on the island now known as Puerto Rico long before its discovery by Christopher Columbus on 19 November 1493. The first group, belonging to the Archaic Culture, is believed to have come from Florida. Having no knowledge of agriculture or pottery, it relied on the products of the sea; the remains of its members have been found mostly in caves. The second group, the Igneri, came from northern South America. Descended from Arawak stock, the Igneri brought agriculture and pottery to the island; their remains are found mostly in the coastal areas. The third culture, the Taino, also of Arawak origin, combined fishing with agriculture. A peaceful, sedentary tribe, the Taino were adept at stonework and lived in many parts of the island; Taino relics have been discovered not only along the coastal perimeter but also high in the mountains, where the Taino performed ritual games in ball parks that have been restored in recent times. To the Indians, the island was known as Boriqúen.

Columbus, accompanied by a young nobleman named Juan Ponce de León, landed at the western end of the island—which he called San Juan Bautista (St. John the Baptist)—and claimed it for Spain. Not until colonization was well under way would the island acquire the name Puerto Rico (literally, "rich port"), with the name San Juan Bautista applied to the capital city. The first settlers arrived on 12 August 1508, under the able leadership of Ponce de León, who sought to transplant and adapt Spanish civilization to Puerto Rico's tropical habitat. The small contingent of Spaniards

compelled the Taino, numbering perhaps 30,000, to mine for gold; the rigors of forced labor and the losses from rebellion reduced the Taino population to about 4,000 by 1514, by which time the mines were nearly depleted. With the introduction of slaves from Africa, sugarcane growing became the leading economic activity. Since neither mining nor sugarcane was able to provide sufficient revenue to support the struggling colony, the treasury of New Spain began a subsidy, known as the *situado*, which until the early 19th century defrayed the cost of the island's government and defense.

From the early 16th century onward, an intense power struggle for control of the Caribbean marked Puerto Rico as a strategic base of the first magnitude. After a French attack in 1528, construction of La Fortaleza (still in use today as the governor's palace) was begun in 1533, and work on El Morro fortress in San Juan commenced six years later. The new fortifications helped repel a British attack led by Sir Francis Drake in 1595; a second force, arriving in 1598 under George Clifford, Earl of Cumberland, succeeded in capturing San Juan, but the British were forced to withdraw by tropical heat and disease. In 1625, a Dutch attack under the command of Boudewijn Hendrikszoon was repulsed, although much of San Juan was sacked and burned by the attackers. By the 18th century, Puerto Rico had become a haven for pirates, and smuggling was the major economic activity. A Spanish envoy that came to the island in 1765 was appalled, and his report to the crown inaugurated a period of economic, administrative, and military reform. The creation of a native militia helped Puerto Rico withstand a fierce British assault on San Juan in 1797, by which time the island had more than 100,000 inhabitants.

Long after most of the Spanish colonies in the New World had obtained independence, Puerto Rico and Cuba remained under Spanish tutelage. Despite several insurrection attempts, most of them inspired by the liberator, Simón Bolívar, Spain's military might concentrated on these islands precluded any revolution.

Puerto Rico became a shelter for refugees from Santo Domingo, Haiti, and Venezuela who were faithful to Spain, fearful of disturbances in their own countries, or both. As in Cuba, the sugar industry developed in Puerto Rico during this period under policies that favored foreign settlers. As a result, a new landowner class emerged—the hacendados—who were instrumental in strengthening the institution of slavery on the island. By 1830, the population was 300,000. Sugar, tobacco, and coffee were the leading export crops, although subsistence farming still covered much of the interior. Sugar found a ready market in the US, and trade steadily developed, particularly with the northeast.

The 19th century also gave birth, however, to a new Puerto Rican civil and political consciousness. Puerto Rican participation in the short-lived constitutional experiments in Spain (1812–14 and 1820–23) fostered the rise of a spirit of liberalism, expressed most notably by Ramón Power y Giralt, at one time vice president of the Spanish Cortes (parliament). During these early decades, Spain's hold on the island was never seriously threatened. Although the Spanish constitution of 1812 declared that the people of Puerto Rico were no longer colonial subjects but were full-fledged citizens of Spain, the crown maintained an alert, centralized, absolutist government with all basic powers concentrated in the captain general.

Toward the middle of the 19th century, a criollo generation with strong liberal roots began a new era in Puerto Rican history. This group, which called for the abolition of slavery and the introduction of far-reaching economic and political reforms, at the same time developed and strengthened Puerto Rican literary tradition. The more radical reformers espoused the cause of separation from Spain and joined in a propaganda campaign in New York on behalf of Cuban independence. An aborted revolution, beginning in the town of Lares in September 1868 (and coinciding with an insurrection in Spain that deposed Queen Isabella II), though soon quelled, awakened among Puerto Ricans a dormant sense of national identity. "El Grito de Lares" (the Cry of Lares) helped inspire a strong anti-Spanish separatist current that was unable to challenge Spanish power effectively but produced such influential leaders as Ramón Emeterio Betances and Eugenio María de Hostos.

The major reform efforts after 1868 revolved around abolitionism and *autonomía*, or self-government. Slavery was abolished in 1873 by the First Spanish Republic, which also granted new political rights to the islanders. The restoration of the Spanish monarchy two years later, however, was a check to Puerto Rican aspirations. During the last quarter of the century, leaders such as Luis Muñoz Rivera sought unsuccessfully to secure vast new powers of self-government. By this time, Puerto Rico was an island with a distinct Antillean profile, strong Hispanic roots, and a mixed population that, borrowing from its Indian-Spanish-African background and an influx of Dutch, English, Corsicans, and other Europeans, had developed its own folkways and mores.

The imminence of war with the US over Cuba, coupled with autonomist agitation within Puerto Rico, led Spain in November 1897 to grant to the island a charter with broad powers of self-rule. Led by Luis Muñoz Rivera, Puerto Ricans began to establish new organs of self-government; but no sooner had an elected government begun to function in July 1898 than US forces, overcoming Spanish resistance, took over the island. A cease-fire was proclaimed on 13 August, and sovereignty was formally transferred to the US with the signing in December of the Treaty of Paris, ending the Spanish-American War. The US government swept aside the self-governing charter granted by Spain and established military rule from 1898 to 1900. Civilian government was restored in 1900 under a colonial law, the Foraker Act, which gave the federal government full control of the executive and legislative branches, leaving some local representation in the lower chamber, or House of Delegates. Under the Jones Act, signed into law by President Woodrow Wilson on 2 March 1917, Congress extended US citizenship to the islanders and granted them an elective senate, but still reserved vast powers over Puerto Rico to the federal bureaucracy.

The early period of US rule saw an effort to Americanize all insular institutions, even to the point of superseding the Spanish language as the vernacular. In the meantime, American corporate capital took over the sugar industry, developing a plantation economy so pervasive that, by 1920, 75% of the population relied on the cane crop for its livelihood. Glaring irregularities of wealth resulted, sharpening social and political divisions. This period also saw the development of three main trends in Puerto Rican political thinking. One group favored the incorporation of Puerto Rico into the US as a state; a second group, fearful of cultural as-

similation, favored self-government; while a third group spoke for independence.

The Depression hit Puerto Rico especially hard. With a population approaching 2 million by the late 1930s and with few occupational opportunities outside the sugar industry, the island's economy deteriorated, and mass unemployment and near-starvation were the results. Controlling the Puerto Rican legislature from 1932 to 1940 was a coalition of the Socialist Party, led by Santiago Iglesias, a Spanish labor leader who became a protégé of the American Federation of Labor, and the Republican Party, which had traditionally espoused statehood and had been founded in Puerto Rico by José Celso Barbosa, a black physician who had studied in the US. The coalition was unable to produce any significant improvement, although under the New Deal a US government effort was made to supply emergency relief for the "stricken island."

Agitation for full political and economic reform or independence gained ground during this period. A violent challenge to US authority in Puerto Rico was posed by the small Nationalist Party, led by Harvard-educated Pedro Albizu Campos. A broader attack on the island's political and economic ills was led by Luis Muñoz Marín and the Popular Democratic Party (PDP), founded in 1938; within two years, the PDP won control of the senate. Under Muñoz Marín, a new era began in Puerto Rico. Great pressure was put on Washington for a change in the island's political status, while social and economic reform was carried to the fullest extent possible within the limitations of the Jones Act. Intensive efforts were made to centralize economic planning, attract new industries through local tax exemptions (Puerto Rico was already exempt from federal taxation), reduce inequality of income, and improve housing, schools, and health conditions. Meanwhile, a land distribution program helped the destitute peasants who were the backbone of the new party. All these measures—widely publicized as Operation Bootstrap—coupled with the general US economic expansion after World War II, so transformed Puerto Rico's economy that income from manufacturing surpassed that from agriculture by 1955 and was five times as great by 1970. Annual income per capita rose steadily from \$296 in 1950 to \$1,384 in 1970.

The PDP, the dominant force in Puerto Rican politics from 1940 to 1968, favored a new self-governing relationship with the US, distinct from statehood or independence. The party succeeded not only in bringing about significant social and economic change but also in obtaining from Congress in 1950 a law allowing Puerto Ricans to draft their own constitution with full local self-government. This new constitution, approved in a general referendum on 3 March 1952, led to the establishment on 25 July of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico (*Estado Libre Asociado de Puerto Rico*), which, according to a resolution approved in 1953 by the United Nations Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, was constituted as an autonomous political entity in voluntary association with the United States.

An island-wide plebiscite in 1967 showed that 60% of those voting favored continuation and improvement of the commonwealth relationship, 39% preferred statehood, and less than 1% supported independence; the turnout among eligible voters was 65%. The result of the plebiscite, held to support a movement for additional home-rule powers, met with indifference from the US executive branch and outright opposition from the pro-statehood

minority in Puerto Rico. Consequently, efforts to obtain passage by Congress of a "Compact of Permanent Union between Puerto Rico and the United States," although approved at the subcommittee level by the House of Representatives, failed to produce any change in the commonwealth arrangement.

The result was renewed agitation for either statehood or independence, with growing internal political polarization. The island's Republican Party rearranged itself after the plebiscite as the New Progressive Party (NPP), and came to power in 1968 as a result of a split in PDP ranks that led to the creation of the splinter People's Party. The two major blocs have been evenly balanced since that time, with the PDP returning to power in 1972 but losing to the NPP in 1976 and again, by a very narrow margin, in 1980, before regaining the governorship in 1984. The independence movement, in turn, divided into two wings: the moderates favored social democracy, while the radicals pursued close ties with the Fidel Castro regime in Cuba. Capitalizing on the increased power of Third World countries in the United Nations, and with Soviet support, the radicals challenged US policies and demanded a full transfer of sovereign rights to the people of Puerto Rico. Their position won the support of the UN Special Committee on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples (more generally known as the Committee of 24), which on 15 August 1979 reaffirmed "the inalienable right of the people of Puerto Rico to self-determination and independence...." The US government replied that the people of Puerto Rico had already exercised their right of self-determination in the 1967 plebiscite, and noted that Congress in 1979 had restated its "commitment to respect and support the right of the people of Puerto Rico to determine their own political future through peaceful, open and democratic processes."

More advanced than most Caribbean countries in education, health, and social development, Puerto Rico suffered from growing political tensions in the early 1980s, with occasional terrorist attacks on US military installations and personnel. These tensions may have been exacerbated by the national recession of 1980–81, which had a particularly severe impact on Puerto Rico. The commonwealth's gross national product declined by 6% in 1982 and 1983, and federal budget cuts ended a jobs program and reduced access to food stamps. At the same time, the island's economy experienced a structural shift. Whereas 50% of jobs in Puerto Rico had been in agriculture in 1940, by 1989 that figure had dropped to 20%. Manufacturing jobs, in contrast, rose from 5 to 15% of total employment between 1940 and 1989. Although Puerto Rico's economy began to expand in the mid-1980s, growing at an annual rate of 3.6%, the island continued to depend heavily on the federal government, which in 1989 employed 25% of Puerto Rican workers. The economy grew at an estimated rate of 2.2% in 2001. (Due to adverse conditions in the global economy, however, the GDP growth rate stood at 0.5% in 2002).

Puerto Rico's political status remains a source of controversy. Statehood would give Puerto Rico representation in the US Congress and would make the island eligible for billions of dollars more a year in food stamps, medical insurance, and income support payments, which are currently set at levels far below those of states. However, statehood would also incur the loss of tax benefits. Under current federal tax law for the commonwealth, individuals pay no federal income tax. More importantly, corporations

pay no federal tax on profits, which has persuaded many companies, particularly manufacturers of pharmaceuticals, chemicals, and electronics, to build plants in Puerto Rico. In 1993 and 1998 plebiscites, a slight majority of Puerto Rican voters chose to maintain the island's status as an American commonwealth rather than opt for statehood or independence.

In 1989, Hurricane Hugo caused 12 deaths and \$1 billion in damage in Puerto Rico. In 1994, the island suffered its worst drought in almost 30 years, and narrowly avoided serious damage to its beaches and wildlife when over half a million gallons (2.3 million liters) of heavy oil were spilled by a barge that ran aground on a coral reef. In October 1998, Hurricane Georges ravaged the island, causing damage estimated in the billions of dollars.

Pedro Rosselló was reelected governor in 1994; he announced in 1999 that he would not seek a third term in elections of fall 2000. In the 2000 election, Sila M. Calderón was elected the island's first woman governor.

In 1999 one Puerto Rican civilian had been killed and four others were seriously wounded in an accident during a US military training exercise on the island of Vieques. Widespread protests following the accident led US president Bill Clinton to temporarily suspend military training on the island, pending an investigation, and subsequent exercises used inert weapons only. The residents of Vieques, however, maintained that the military exercises were responsible for health and environmental problems. Governor Calderón, who opposed the US Navy maneuvers, pressured President George W. Bush, Clinton's successor, to halt the activity. On 1 May 2003, the US Navy withdrew from Vieques, and approximately 15,000 acres of land previously used by the military were turned over to the US Department of the Interior's Fish and Wildlife Service, to be dedicated to a wildlife refuge closed to the public.

That same month (May 2003), Calderón announced she would not run for reelection in 2004. The announcement set off a chain of events that brought the island commonwealth to the brink of financial insolvency in 2006.

During Governor Calderón's administration, Puerto Rico was faced with a growing crime rate, fueled by the drug trade, and a sick economy, made worse by the phasing out of tax breaks that had been given to US companies to set up operations on the island and Washington's general disinterest in the island. In addition, Puerto Rico had been losing population to the US mainland, further demoralizing those who chose to stay on the island. Shortly after Calderón announced her retirement, her predecessor, Pedro Rossello, announced that he would run for the governorship in the 2004 election.

When Rossello left office in 2001, unresolved charges of corruption leveled against him and members of his administration remained. In the 2004 election, Rossello's opponent was Anibal Acevedo Vila, a member of Governor Calderón's pro-commonwealth party and the son of a former governor. During the campaign however, the interest centered upon the political theatrics between Rossello (whose party favored statehood) and Calderón.

The election was bitter and hard fought and the results were very close: Acevedo Vila's margin of victory, only 3,880 votes out of around 2 million paper votes cast, led to a recount and a challenge by Rossello in federal court. In the end, Acevedo Vila was pronounced the victor. However, this left the legislature and the

office of the island's second-highest government official (the resident commissioner in Washington, DC, held by Luis Fortuno) under the control of the pro-statehood party. The result was political gridlock, mainly over a failure to agree on the budget.

The lack of a budget since 2004 caused a \$740-million budget shortfall, and on 1 May 2006, the government ran out of money. Nearly 100,000 Puerto Rican government employees lost their jobs, some 43 government agencies shut down, and the island's 1,600 public schools were closed. The disruption to the Puerto Rican economy was severe and the island's bonds hovered at near junk status, seriously impacting the ability of the commonwealth to raise money for needed public works and other government needs.

Feeling the pressure, a meeting was arranged between the governor, the speaker of Puerto Rico's House, and the president of its Senate. Also invited to participate was a religious delegation that included the Roman Catholic archbishop of Puerto Rico. On 13 May 2006, a deal was approved that included a \$741 million loan from the Government Development Bank of Puerto Rico and authorized the creation of an "urgent needs" fund, which would raise money through a new sales tax.

Although Puerto Rico banned capital punishment in 1929, in 2003, two men who were charged with first degree murder and extortion were being considered for execution under the 1994 Federal Death Penalty Act, which broadened the range of crimes punishable by death. Many Puerto Ricans claimed the imposition of the death penalty would infringe upon the commonwealth's right to self-government.

12 STATE GOVERNMENT

Since 1952, Puerto Rico has been a commonwealth of the US, governed under the Puerto Rican Federal Relations Act and under a constitution based on the US model. The Puerto Rican constitution specifically prohibits discrimination "on account of race, color, sex, birth, social origin or condition, or political ideas." The constitution has been amended a number of times, and in 2002, plans to hold a constitutional assembly to amend the constitution were proposed, providing for the elimination of the House of Representatives and the senate and the creation of a unicameral legislature. In 2005, the administration of President George W. Bush asked Congress to set a vote for the Puerto Ricans to decide on their status as a free nation.

The commonwealth legislature comprises a Senate (Senado) of 27 or more members, 2 from each of 8 senatorial districts, and 11 elected at large; and a House of Representatives (Cámara de Representantes) of 51 or more members, 1 from each of 40 districts and 11 at large. Each Senate district consists of five House districts. The Law of Minorities holds that if a single party wins two-thirds or more of the seats in either house, but does not win two-thirds of the vote in the gubernatorial election, the opposition parties are eligible for additional seats, in order to give the opposition (collectively) one-third of the seats in either house. The number of seats therefore, can be expanded (up to a limit of 9 in the senate and 17 in the house), if opposition parties receive at least 3% of the gubernatorial vote. In the 2000 election, one seat was added to the Senate according to this law, but no seats were added to the House of Representatives. Senators must be at least 30 years of age, representatives must be 25. Legislators must have been commonwealth

residents for two years and district or municipal residents for one year. All legislators serve four-year terms.

The governor, who may serve an unlimited number of four-year terms, is the only elected executive. Candidates for the governorship must be US citizens for at least five years, must be at least 35 years of age, and must have resided in Puerto Rico for at least five years.

A bill becomes law if approved by both houses and either signed by the governor or left unsigned for 10 days while the legislature is in session. A two-thirds vote of the elected members of each house is sufficient to override a gubernatorial veto. The governor can employ the item veto or reduce amounts in appropriations bills. The governor also has the power to declare martial law in cases of rebellion, invasion, or immediate danger of rebellion or invasion. The constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the legislature and ratification by popular majority vote.

Residents of Puerto Rico may not vote in US presidential elections. A Puerto Rican who settles in one of the 50 states automatically becomes eligible to vote for president; conversely, a state resident who migrates to Puerto Rico forfeits such eligibility. Puerto Rico has no vote in the US Senate or House of Representatives, but a nonvoting resident delegate, elected every four years, may speak on the floor of the House, introduce legislation, and vote in House committees.

Qualified voters must be US citizens, be at least 18 years of age, and have registered 50 days before a general election; absentee registration is not allowed.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Taking part in Puerto Rican elections during recent years were two major and three smaller political parties. The Popular Democratic (PPD), founded in 1938, favors the strengthening and development of commonwealth status. The New Progressive Party (PNP), created in 1968 as the successor to the Puerto Rican Republican Party, is pro-statehood. The National Republican Party of Puerto Rico is led by Luis Ferré. Two smaller parties, each favoring independence for the island, were the Puerto Rican Independence Party (PIP), founded in the mid-1940s and committed to democratic socialism, and the more radical Puerto Rican Socialist Party, which had close ties with Cuba until it became defunct. A breakaway group, the Renewal Party, led by the mayor of San Juan, Hernán Padilla, left the PNP and took part in the 1984 elections.

In 1980, Governor Carlos Romero Barceló of the PNP, who had pledged to actively seek Puerto Rico's admission to the Union if elected by a large margin, retained the governorship by a plurality of fewer than 3,500 votes, in the closest election in the island's history, while the PPD won control of the legislature and 52 out of 78 mayoralty contests. Former governor Rafael Hernández Colón defeated Romero Barceló's bid for reelection in 1984 by more than 54,000 votes. Colón was reelected in 1988 and was succeeded in 1992 by Pedro Rosselló, a New Progressive and a supporter of statehood, who was reelected in 1996. In 2000, Sila M. Calderón was elected Puerto Rico's first female governor, with 48.6% of the vote. The 2004 General Elections were the second-closest in Puerto Rican history. A recount confirmed the winner, Anibal Acevedo-Vila of the PPD; he was the first governor in Puerto Rican history not to have a resident commissioner of his same party, given that Luis Fortuno of the PNP won the post.

Puerto Rico Gubernatorial Vote by Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	WINNER	POPULAR DEMOCRAT (PPD)	NEW PROGRESSIVE (PNP)	REPUBLICAN	PUERTO RICAN INDEPENDENCE (PIP)	SOCIALIST	LIBERAL REFORMIST
1948	Luis Muñoz Marín (PPD)	392,033	—	88,819	66,141	64,121	28,203
1952	Luis Muñoz Marín (PPD)	429,064	—	85,172	125,734	21,655	—
1956	Luis Muñoz Marín (PPD)	433,010	—	172,838	86,386	—	—
1960	Luis Muñoz Marín (PPD)	457,880	—	252,364	24,103	—	—
						CHRISTIAN ACTION	
1964	Roberto Sánchez Vitella (PPD)	487,280	—	284,627	22,201	26,867	—
						PEOPLE'S	
1968	Luis A Ferré (PNP)	367,903	390,623	4,057	24,713	87,844	—
							PR UNION
1972	Rafael Hernández Colón (PPD)	609,670	524,039	—	52,070	2,910	1,608
1976	Carlos Romero Barceló (PNP)	634,941	682,607	—	58,556	9,761	—
1980	Carlos Romero Barceló (PNP)	756,434	759,868	—	87,275	5,225	—
							RENEWAL
1984	Rafael Hernández Colón (PPD)	822,040	767,710	—	61,101	—	68,536
1988	Rafael Hernández Colón (PPD)	865,309	813,448	—	96,230	—	—
1992	Pedro Rosselló (PNP)	845,372	919,029	—	76,357	—	—
1996	Pedro Rosselló (PNP)	1,006,331	875,852	—	75,304	—	—
2000	Sila María Calderón (PPD)	978,860	919,194	—	104,705	—	—
2004	Aníbal Acevedo-Vilá (PPD)	963,303	959,737	—	54,551	—	—

* Residents of Puerto Rico are barred from voting in US presidential elections.

The question of Puerto Rico's status remained controversial as of 2006. Governor Rosselló called a plebiscite in November of 1993 to enable voters to choose between independence, commonwealth or statehood. A narrow majority of Puerto Rican voters decided to maintain the island's status as an American commonwealth. However, they conditioned their vote on a demand that the terms of the island's commonwealth status be modified. Such modifications would include eliminating the federal limits on food stamps and expanding Supplemental Security Income to encompass elderly and handicapped Puerto Ricans. Puerto Rican voters also requested that recent changes in Federal Tax Law 936, which had lowered by 60% the exemptions corporations could claim from taxes on profits, be removed and that the law be restored to its original form. Although Puerto Ricans have no vote in US presidential elections, the island does send voting delegates to the national conventions of the Democratic and Republican parties. In 1980, for the first time, those delegates were chosen by presidential preference primary.

Puerto Rico's political parties have generally committed themselves to peaceful change through democratic methods. One exception was the pro-independence Nationalist Party, whose followers were involved in an attempt to assassinate US president Harry S. Truman in 1950 and in an outbreak of shooting in the House of Representatives that wounded five congressmen in 1954. A US-based terrorist group, the Armed Forces of Puerto Rican National Liberation (FALN), claimed credit during the late 1970s for bombings in New York and other major cities. FALN members briefly took over the Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor on 25 October 1977. Another group, the Macheteros, apparently based on the island, claimed responsibility for an attack on a US Navy bus in 1980 and for blowing up eight US Air Force planes at a Puerto Rico Air National Guard installation early in 1981.

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The Commonwealth of Puerto Rico had 78 municipalities in 2006, each governed by a mayor and municipal assembly elected every four years. In fact, these governments resemble US county governments in that they perform services for both urban and rural areas. Many of the functions normally performed by municipal governments in the US—for instance, fire protection, education, water supply, and law enforcement—are performed by the commonwealth government directly.

15 STATE SERVICES

The executive branch of Puerto Rico's highly centralized government is organized into departments, agencies, and public corporations. The departments are as follows: agriculture, consumer affairs, correction and rehabilitation, economic development and commerce, education, family services, health, housing, justice, labor and human resources, natural resources and the environment, recreation and sports, state, transportation and public works, and treasury. Lodged within the Office of the Governor are the Office of Management and Budget, Planning Board, Commission on Women's Affairs, and Environmental Quality Board, as well as offices of economic opportunity, energy, youth affairs, cultural affairs, labor affairs, child development, and development of the disabled, and commissions for the protection and strengthening of the family and of agricultural planning and action.

Puerto Rico is more heavily socialized than any US state. Almost one-fourth of all those employed work for the commonwealth government, which operates hotels, marine transports, the telephone company, and all sugar mills, among other enterprises.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Puerto Rico's highest court, the Supreme Court, consists of a chief justice and six associate justices, appointed, like all other judges, by the governor with the consent of the senate and serving until

compulsory retirement at age 70. The court may sit in separate panels for some purposes, but not in cases dealing with the constitutionality of commonwealth law, for which the entire body convenes. Decisions of the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico regarding US constitutional questions may be appealed to the US Supreme Court.

The Circuit Court of Appeals consists of 33 justices named by the governor with the consent of the senate. Decisions of the court may revise those of the trial courts of first instance. The Circuit Court of Appeals was created in 1994 as an intermediary tribunal between the courts of first instance and the Supreme Court. The tribunal sits in San Juan.

The nine superior courts are the main trial courts; superior court judges are appointed to 12-year terms. In 2003, superior courts were divided into 13 districts. These courts have original jurisdiction in civil cases not exceeding \$10,000 and in minor criminal cases. District courts also hear preliminary motions in more serious criminal cases. Municipal judges, serving for five years, and justices of the peace, in rural areas, decide cases involving local ordinances.

San Juan is the seat of the US District Court for Puerto Rico, which has the same jurisdiction as federal district courts on the US mainland.

The death penalty is constitutionally forbidden; however, in 2003, the 1994 Federal Death Penalty Act was being invoked in a case involving two men accused of murder and extortion. This attempt met with increased activism against the death penalty, and reinforced the belief that the death penalty infringes on Puerto Rico's right to self-government. The last execution in Puerto Rico took place in 1927.

17 ARMED FORCES

In 2004, there were 611 active-duty military personnel stationed in Puerto Rico. Principal of the US military installations in Puerto Rico are the Naval Security Station at Sabana Seca and the Roosevelt Roads Naval Reservation, near Ceiba (a BRAC closing in 2004). Under BRAC Ft. Buchanan in Guaynabo became an army reserve base in 2005. Use of Vieques for training maneuvers, including shelling and bombing, forced many of that island's residents to move; the US Navy withdrew its forces in May 2003. Aerial and naval target practice on Culebra by the US Navy was halted by protests and legal action. Defense spending decreased dramatically in 2002: US defense agencies spent \$133.8 million on procurement contracts greater than \$25,000 during the first nine months of 2002.

As of 2004, some 131,448 veterans of US military service were living on the island, including 12,449 World War II veterans, 28,434 from the Korean Conflict, 34,195 Vietnam veterans and 17,345 from the Persian Gulf War. Total VA expenditures were \$820, 565. Puerto Ricans suffered 731 combat deaths in Korea and 270 in Vietnam.

Reserve and National Guard personnel in Puerto Rico totaled 7,605 in 2004, with the army accounting for the vast majority (6,693).

18 MIGRATION

Although migration from Puerto Rico to the US mainland is not an entirely new phenomenon—several Puerto Rican merchants

were living in New York City as early as 1830—there were no more than 70,000 islanders in the US in 1940. Mass migration, spurred by the booming postwar job market in the US, began in 1947. The out-migration was particularly large from 1951 through 1959, when the net outflow of migrants from the island averaged more than 47,000 a year. According to the 2003 American Community Profile an estimated 3,717,941 ethnic Puerto Ricans were living in the 50 states, or about 1.31% of the US population. At least 32 cities had Puerto Rican communities of 5,000 or more. Puerto Ricans are found in significant numbers not only in New York State but also in New Jersey, Illinois, Pennsylvania, California, and Florida. Connecticut, and Massachusetts. Indeed, 58% of ethnic Puerto Ricans living in the 50 states were concentrated in the Northeast in 2002.

During the 1970s, in part because of the economic decline of many US urban centers, the migration trend slowed; official estimates show that the net flow of migrants from the island totaled only 65,900. But with the Puerto Rican economy worsening in the early 1980s, the net migration from early 1980 to mid-1983 was about 90,000. From 1990 to 1992, there was a net loss from migration of about 40,000.

One striking aspect of the US-Puerto Rico migration pattern is its fluidity. As US citizens, Puerto Ricans can move freely between the island and the mainland. Even in 1953, when the heaviest net outflow was recorded—74,603—fully 230,307 persons emigrated from the US mainland to Puerto Rico, as 304,910 Puerto Ricans were migrating the other way. In 2000, 242,973 people living on the US mainland said that they had lived in Puerto Rico in 1995, while 112,788 people living in the commonwealth in 2000 said that they had lived on the mainland in 1995. This extreme mobility, though sensitive to the job market, would not be possible were it not for the increased income available to Puerto Ricans on both the island and the US mainland, and the fact that Puerto Ricans who come to the continental US generally preserve their ties of family and friendship with those in the commonwealth, thus finding it easy to return, whether for a short stay at Christmastime or for a new job on the island.

19 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

A member of the US Council of State Governments, Puerto Rico subscribes to the Compact for Education, the Interstate Compact for the Supervision of Parolees and Probationers, the Southern States Energy Board, and the Southern Growth Policies Compact. In its relations with the US government, the commonwealth is in most respects like a state, except in the key areas of taxation and representation. US laws are in effect, federal agencies regulate aviation and broadcasting, and Puerto Ricans participate in such federally funded programs as Social Security and food stamps. US grants to Puerto Rico totaled almost \$5.3 billion in fiscal year 2004.

20 ECONOMY

The island's most important industrial products are pharmaceuticals, electronics, apparel, and food products. The sugar industry has gradually lost ground to dairy production and other livestock products in the agricultural sector. Tourism is the backbone of a large service industry, and the government sector has also grown. Tourist revenues and remittances from workers on the US main-

land largely counterbalance Puerto Rico's chronic trade deficit. Federal funds to the government and directly to the people have been important to the Puerto Rican economy.

Puerto Rico's major problem is lack of jobs for an expanding population, a problem exacerbated when rising unemployment in the United States persuades Puerto Ricans to return to the island. From its former dependence on subsistence agriculture, Puerto Rico became a center for low-wage textile manufacturing, then a home for refining cheap crude oil from abroad—mainly Venezuela. The sharp rise of overseas oil prices that began in 1973 devastated this economic sector. Since then, high-technology industries, such as pharmaceutical and biotechnology industries, have become a major presence on the island.

Section 936 of the US internal revenue code, passed in 1976 and discontinued in 1996, established a substantial tax credit for US corporations doing business in Puerto Rico and possessions of the United States. Some corporations were also allowed to import their products into the United States duty-free. Section 936 was replaced with Section 30A, which allowed companies to claim 60% of wages and capital investment as non-taxable income. Pharmaceutical companies and high-tech industries based in Puerto Rico were to have an advantage over NAFTA member Mexico, whose low wages in low-skill labor-intensive jobs competed with Puerto Rican jobs. Due to the elimination of Section 936, however, many companies in Puerto Rico closed.

The downturn in the US economy that began in 2001 negatively impacted the Puerto Rican economy more severely than the mainland economy. The 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States also had an adverse effect on the Puerto Rican tourist industry. By 2003, the economy was beginning to show signs of stabilizing: unemployment stood at 11.9% in the first quarter of 2003, down from over 13% in 2002. However, some of the same factors affecting the US economy, such as the ongoing war with Iraq and rising oil prices, continue to impact the Puerto Rican economy as well. In May 2006, the unemployment rate was at 19.5%. Gross national product (GNP) in 2004 was at about \$50.3 billion with an annual growth rate of 6.1%. GDP the same year was \$78.8 billion with an annual growth rate of 5.4%. In 2004, the overall sales of goods and services totaled about \$66.3 billion while the purchase of goods and services totaled \$80.2 billion. Government net recurrent revenues were totaled at \$11.2 billion.

21 INCOME

The minimum wage laws of the United States apply to Puerto Rico as well. In 2004, the mean hourly wage was \$10.38, lower than the US national mean of \$17.80. One of the highest mean hourly wages (\$24.45) was paid to those in legal occupations, while those in the food service industry received one of the lowest mean hourly wages (\$6.55). Per capita personal income in Puerto Rico was \$12,031 in 2004. The average family income was about \$37,990 per year. Government jobs accounted for 30% of payroll employment as of 2004. The next largest sector was trade, transportation, warehouse, and utilities, which accounted for 18% of payroll employment.

22 LABOR

Puerto Rico's civilian labor force as of May 2006 numbered 1,417,300. The unemployment rate in May 2006 averaged 19.5%.

In 2003, services accounted for 28% of employment; government, 21%; trade, 21%; manufacturing, 11%; construction and mining, 7%; transportation and other public utilities, 5%; finance, insurance, and real estate, 4%; and agriculture, 2%. In 2004, approximately 62,124 people were employed in construction, natural resources, and mining; 118,597, manufacturing; 182,037, trade, transportation, warehouse, and utilities; 22,067, information; 46,402, finance; 102,102, professional and business; 97,951, educational and health; 70,512, leisure and hospitality; 303,137, government; and 20,643, other services.

Less than 10% of the labor force belongs to trade unions. There are four main Puerto Rican unions represented on the island, the largest of which is the General Confederation of Puerto Rican Workers. Wages tend to adhere closely to the US statutory minimum, which applies to Puerto Rico.

23 AGRICULTURE

In 1940, agriculture employed 43% of the work force; by 2000, about 3% of the Puerto Rican labor force had agricultural jobs. Nowhere is this decline more evident than in the sugar industry. Production peaked at 1,300,000 tons in 1952, when 150,000 cane cutters were employed; by 1978, however, production was 300,000 tons, fewer than 20,000 cutters were in the fields, and the industry was heavily subsidized. By 2000, only 2,500 people were employed in the sugar industry, mostly in the fields, and Puerto Rico was importing most of its sugar from the US mainland and the Dominican Republic. The hilly terrain makes mechanization difficult, and manual cutting contributes to production costs that are much higher than those of Hawaii and Louisiana. In 2002, out of 17,659 farms sugarcane accounted for 21; vegetables and melons, 337; coffee, 7,167; fruits and coconuts, 4,544; and grains, 102. Despite incentives and subsidies, tobacco production has practically ceased, and coffee production—well adapted to the highlands—falls far short of domestic consumption, although about 10% of the best quality crops are exported to Asia, Europe, and the United States. Plantains are an important crop as well as ornamental plants. As of 2006, other important agricultural products included sugarcane, coffee, pineapples, and bananas, which are also grown on plots and on former sugarcane fields.

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In 2002 there were 281,371 cattle (down from 386,980 in 1998) and 87,490 hogs and pigs (down from 101,619 in 1998) on 4,000 cattle and 1,200 hog and pig farms and ranches. Sales of cattle and calves amounted to \$36.5 million in 2002 (down from \$53.4 million in 1998); hogs and pigs, \$9.7 million (down from \$11.4 million in 1998).

Dairy cattle numbered 153,097 in 2002 (down from 163,537 in 1998); poultry for meat numbered 7.7 million (down from 10.9 million in 1998); and chickens for egg production numbered 1.9 million in 2002 (up from 1.6 million in 1998). Puerto Rican dairy farms produced 373.3 million quarts of milk products valued at \$194.2 million in 2002; egg production that year reached 17.6 mil-

lion dozen. Sales of dairy products and poultry products in 2002 totaled \$194.2 million and \$78.7 million, respectively.

Meat and dairy production did not meet domestic demand in the early 2000s, so these products were being imported.

25 FISHING

Although sport fishing, especially for blue marlin, is an important tourist attraction, the waters surrounding Puerto Rico are too deep to lend themselves to commercial fishing. Tuna brought in from African and South American waters and processed on the western shore provided much of the canned tuna sold in eastern US markets until the late 1990s, when many tuna processing plants were closed in favor of lower-cost production elsewhere in the world. Approximately 4,497,000 lb of fish were produced in 2002, for a total value of \$10.3 million.

Fifty aqua cultural farms were operating in 2002, up from 44 in 1998; aquaculture accounted for \$2.9 million in sales that year. Products include prawns, saltwater shrimp, red tilapia fish, and ornamental species.

26 FORESTRY

Puerto Rico lost its self-sufficiency in timber production by the mid-19th century, as population expansion, increasing demand for food, and extraction of native and endemic woods for export led to massive deforestation. Puerto Rico must import nearly all of its wood and paper products. The public forest system covers 86,095 acres (34,842 hectares), of which 58,249 acres (23,573 hectares) are part of the Puerto Rico State Forest system and 27,846 acres (11,269 hectares) are part of the Caribbean National Forest.

27 MINING

The estimated value of nonfuel mineral commodities produced in Puerto Rico was \$159 million in 2000; Puerto Rico, when compared to the 50 US states, ranked 42nd in nonfuel mineral production. Portland cement was the leading nonfuel mineral commodity. To protect proprietary data, statistics on specific nonfuel mineral products were not reported as of the early 2000s.

A multiyear study of the island's known and undiscovered mineral resources indicated that at least 11 different types of metallic mineral deposits, including copper, iron, gold, manganese, silver, molybdenum, zinc, lead, and other minerals, occur on the island in addition to the industrial minerals (cement, stone, clay, and sand and gravel) currently being produced.

Approximately 1,500 people were employed in mining, which was limited to quarry operations, in 2002.

28 ENERGY AND POWER

Puerto Rico is almost totally dependent on imported crude oil for its energy needs, particularly electricity generation. Oil accounted for 93% of total primary energy consumption in 2001. The island has not yet developed any fossil fuel resources of its own, and its one experimental nuclear reactor, built on the south coast at Rincon in 1964, was shut down after a few years. Solar-powered hot-water heaters have been installed in a few private homes and at La Fortaleza. Inefficiency in the public transport system has encouraged commonwealth residents to rely on private vehicles, thereby increasing the demands for imported petroleum. In 2003, Puerto Rico consumed an estimated 218,000 barrels per day of oil;

the vast majority of its imports came from American and Caribbean suppliers.

As of January 2004, the commonwealth's refining capacity was 114,400 barrels per day, from two operating refining facilities, the Caribbean Petroleum Refining facility on Bayamon, and the Shell Chemical's facility in Yabucoa. A third refinery at Guayama is used for storage. Puerto Rico also has petroleum storage at its Proterm facility.

Puerto Rico began importing liquefied natural gas in 2000 to feed its 540-MW EcoEléctrica gas-fired plant in Peñuelas. In 2003, an estimated 740 million cu m was consumed.

As of 2002, Puerto Rico consumed 176,370 short tons of coal each year, all of it imported. Since becoming operational in 2002, a new 454-MW coal-fired plant in Guayama increased the use of coal. The plant was recognized as one of the cleanest coal-fired plants in the world.

The commonwealth generated approximately 23.0 billion kilowatt hours of electricity in 2003, mostly from five oil-fired generators, but a fraction came from small hydroelectric dams. The Puerto Rico Electric Power Authority (PREPA) is Puerto Rico's only distributor of electric power.

The first non-incineration waste-to-energy power plant in the United States was being developed as of 2003 in Caguas. The proposed plant is to use a gasification process that will break down approximately 3,300 tons of waste per day into basic elements and electricity.

29 INDUSTRY

Value added by manufacture surpassed \$8.6 billion in 1982, more than double the total for 1977. In 1949, about 55,200 Puerto Rican workers were employed in industrial jobs, 26% of them in sugar refining. By 1992, despite the loss of many jobs in the sugar industry, the number was 158,181 with a total payroll of \$2.7 billion. The leading employment categories in 1992 were apparel and textiles, 30,700; chemicals and allied products, 25,400; food and kindred products, 21,000; electric and electronic equipment, 18,400; and instruments, 15,900. The growth areas were electric and electronic equipment, up 47% from 1977, and instruments and related products, up 60%.

According to the 1992 Census of Manufactures, the value of shipments amounted to \$31 million, of which chemicals and allied products accounted for \$13.3 billion; food and kindred products, \$5.2 billion; and electronic and electric equipment, \$2.8 billion.

There were more than 90 pharmaceutical plants representing 20 of the world's leading drug and health companies. The largest included Johnson & Johnson (Rio Piedras), Abbott Chemicals (Barceloneta), Bristol-Myers Squibb (Humacao), Warner-Lambert (Vega Baja), and Schering-Plough (Manati). In 1991, Baxter International (medical devices) was one of the commonwealth's largest non-locally based manufacturers, with 10 plants; Westinghouse Electric (electric components) had 15; Sara Lee (men's underwear), 6; and Motorola (radio equipment), 4.

In addition to the production of pharmaceuticals, electrical and electronic products, and textiles, other industries include: bottling, chemicals, clay and glass, distilling, leather, metal (including precision instruments), printing, publishing, and software manufacturing.

Industries tend to be labor intensive. The construction industry has been a growth area in recent years; in 1997, construction growth was estimated at around 15%. By 2003, however, the construction sector saw a downward trend. Manufacturing in 2003 accounted for 42.1% of GDP, more than double the percentage share of the US mainland. In 2002, employment in manufacturing declined by 8.5%, compared with a decline of 6.9% on the mainland. And, in 2005, there was an annual decline of 2.3% in manufacturing employment. However, in the face of the phase-out of federal tax incentives for U.S. firms the pharmaceutical industry continued to thrive. In 2005, the pharmaceutical industry employed over 30,000 people, approximately 26% of GDP, compared with less than 2% in the United States.

Puerto Rico has two foreign free-trade zones, in Mayagüez and San Juan. In January 1987, the Puerto Rico Industrial Incentives Act was passed to make more manufacturing and export service industries eligible for tax exemptions.

30 COMMERCE

Wholesale trade in Puerto Rico in 2002 involved about 2,313 establishments and major distributors, with sales of over \$16.1 billion. Merchant wholesalers accounted for 94.3% of establishments and 97% of wholesale trade. Durable goods accounted for only 34.2% of sales. E-commerce accounted for about \$71 million of the wholesale trade. There were approximately 39,316 employees engaged in wholesale trade in 2002.

Retail trade during 2002 involved 11,465 establishments; total retail trade amounted to over \$20.4 billion. There were about 122,435 paid employees involved in retail trade. Motor vehicles and parts dealers accounted for the largest portion of retail trade sales at about \$4.6 billion, followed by food and beverage stores at \$3.5 billion. E-commerce accounted for about \$115.7 million in retail trade sales.

Two large shopping centers, Plaza las Americas and Plaza Carolina, are in the San Juan area. The San Juan area alone had retail sales of nearly \$3.3 billion in 1992, or over 28.1% of the total. Radio Shack announced at the end of 2002 that its best selling store in the world was the one at Plaza las Americas, with \$6 million in revenue for fiscal year 2002.

Foreign trade is a significant factor in Puerto Rico's economy. Trade between the United States and Puerto Rico is unrestricted. In 2003, the islands' imports totaled about \$33.7 billion and exports \$55.2 billion. The primary import commodities were chemicals, machinery and equipment, clothing, food, fish, and petroleum products. Major exports included pharmaceuticals, medical equipment, electronics, apparel, canned tuna, rum, and beverage concentrates.

During 2001, the United States received \$41.4 billion of Puerto Rico's exports and supplied about \$15.6 billion of its imports. In 2003, the primary export partners were the United States (86.4%), the Netherlands (2.1%), and Belgium (2%). The primary import partners were the United States (48.9%), Ireland (20.7%), and Japan (3.9%). More than 100 of the US Fortune 500 multinational companies have industrial plants located in Puerto Rico.

31 CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection is the responsibility of Puerto Rico's cabinet-level Department of Consumer Affairs.

32 BANKING

Puerto Rico's first bank began operations in 1850. As of 2006, there were 19 commercial banks in Puerto Rico (most are local corporations, with the rest being US branches and foreign interests). The government owns and operates two banks, the Government Development Bank (GDB—founded in 1948) and the Economic Development Bank (EDB—created in 1985). The EDB fosters the development of local businesses engaged in agriculture, manufacturing, commerce, and other services, thus decreasing the need to import goods and services. The Economic Development Bank's loan portfolio was \$128.7 million in 2003, and loan disbursements amounted to \$82.7 million. The average of loan principal by sector in 2003 was: agriculture, 30%; services, 27%; business, 23%; manufacturing, 14%; and tourism, 6%. The Government Development Bank's liquidity increased 69.4% in fiscal year 2002, with \$2.2 billion in reported capital.

Banco Popular de Puerto Rico continues to be the largest domestic bank in Puerto Rico, with more than 100 branches (2006). The second-largest bank, Banco Santander Puerto Rico, and Banco Bilbao-Vizcaya, are foreign banks.

Since 1992, a new type of institution has flourished in Puerto Rico, promoted by the government: the international banking entity. International banking entities are completely tax-exempt but can only receive deposits from non-residents. As the end of 2002, there were 34 international banking entities in Puerto Rico with total combined assets of \$50 billion. Citibank controls 40% of these assets.

The credit union industry is also thriving in Puerto Rico. There were 144 credit unions throughout the island in 2002.

US corporations no longer operate tax-free in Puerto Rico. Amendments made to the US Internal Revenue Code tax laws require the payment of federal taxes on a portion of their income.

Banks in Puerto Rico are insured by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC). Automatic teller machines are located all across the island.

33 INSURANCE

Due to Hurricane Hugo, the insurance industry suffered underwriting losses of \$19.5 million in 1989. The largest life insurance company in 1990 was Seguro de Service de Salud de Puerto Rico, Inc., with written premiums exceeding \$275 million. More than 200 Puerto Rican insurance companies collected revenues of \$82.4 million (life insurance companies, \$18.1 million; property and casualty, \$64.3 million) in 1990/91, enforcing policies exceeding \$1.5 billion. Hurricane Georges in 1998 caused \$1 billion in insured property losses in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands.

In 2003, there were 21 property and casualty and 15 life and health insurance companies domiciled in Puerto Rico. In 2004, approximately 60,995 flood insurance policies were in force with an estimated value of over \$4.2 billion.

34 SECURITIES

There are no securities exchanges in Puerto Rico. Bonds issued by the Government Development Bank, exempt from federal income taxes and from the income taxes of all US states and cities, are offered for sale on the world securities market. The Puerto Rico Stock Index (PRSI) is a market-value-weighted index composed of eight businesses with their main headquarters or main places of business in Puerto Rico. The companies included in the index are traded on national stock markets, such as the NYSE and AMEX, and in the over-the-counter market (NASDAQ). There are several hundred broker-dealer firms registered to do business in Puerto Rico. Approximately 100 organizations providing security investment advice are registered in Puerto Rico.

35 PUBLIC FINANCE

Puerto Rico's annual budget is prepared by the Bureau of Budget and Management and submitted by the governor to the legislature, which has unlimited power to amend it. The fiscal year extends from 1 July to 30 June.

In 1959/60, transfers from the US government amounted to \$44 million, or less than 13% of all revenues. By 1972/73, receipts from the US government represented 23% of all revenues; by 1977/78, more than 29%. In 1995/96 intergovernmental transfers from the US government amounted to \$2.9 billion, or 30.0% of the commonwealth government's receipts.

Puerto Rico's revenues were \$6.7 billion, with expenditures of \$9.6 billion during fiscal year 2000, the most recent year for which data was available.

Of expenditures, 3.3% were assigned to economic development and 26.2% to public housing and welfare; education accounted for 25.4% of the central government's expenditures.

36 TAXATION

The Puerto Rican Federal Relations Act stipulates that the commonwealth is exempt from US internal revenue laws. The US federal income tax is not levied on permanent residents of Puerto Rico, but federal Social Security and unemployment taxes are deducted from payrolls and the commonwealth government collects an income tax. Corporations in Puerto Rico are also taxed.

The commonwealth internal revenue tax system is a self-assessment system modeled on that of the United States. In 2004, the treasury reported total tax revenues of \$7.24 billion. About \$97.8 million was collected in property taxes. Income tax provided revenues of about \$5.3 billion, with \$2.7 billion from individual income tax and \$1.8 billion from corporations and partnerships.

Section 936 of the Internal Revenue Code exempted certain corporations from paying taxes for periods ranging from 10 to 25 years, allowing subsidiaries of US corporations virtual exemption from US corporate income taxes. The exemption was passed in 1976 to encourage economic development on the island. At the time of repatriation of profits to the US stockholder, the Puerto Rican government imposed a "tollgate" of 5–10%. Section 936 was replaced with Section 30A in 1996, which reduced the amount of income companies could claim as non-taxable to 60% of wages and capital investment. In 2004, the tollgate tax revenues totaled about \$31.6 million.

The government in 2001 also enacted a series of 27 laws to further economic development and foreign investment, primary among them Laws 145, 169, and 225. These provide incentives or tax credits that could in effect reduce corporate income tax to as low as 2%; a 10% income tax credit for companies that purchase locally produced goods for export, or to be used in local manufacturing for local consumption; and lower tax rates directed to businesses that establish hemispheric, global, or Latin American headquarters in Puerto Rico.

There is no general sales tax, but there is a 5% tax on jewelry. There are also taxes on room charges levied at 11% for hotels with casinos, 9% for those without casinos, and 7% for rooms at small inns. An excise tax applies for all inbound shipments and there are taxes on alcohol and motor vehicles as well. Merchandise arriving from the United States is subject to a tax of about 6.6%. In 2004, excise taxes brought in revenues of about \$1.7 billion. US excises on off-shore shipments totaled over \$328 million.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

Inaugurated during the 1940s, Operation Bootstrap had succeeded by 1982 in attracting investments from more than 500 US corporations. The principal Puerto Rican agencies responsible for this transformation are the Administración de Fomento Económico, known as Fomento (Development), and its subsidiary, the Puerto Rico Industrial Development Co. (PRIDCO), which help select plant sites, build factories, hire and train workers, and arrange financing. Fomento reorganized certain industries, taking a direct role, for example, in promoting export sales of Puerto Rican rum. At first, Fomento brought in apparel and textile manufacturers,

who needed relatively unskilled workers. More recently, with the improvement in Puerto Rico's educational system, Fomento has emphasized such technologically advanced industries as pharmaceuticals and electronics. Industrialization has also required heavy investment in roads, power, water facilities, and communications systems.

PRIDCO reported that 253 new businesses were established in 2002 with 11,296 new jobs created with \$1.1 billion in investment. Approximately 5,200 jobs were retained with a \$170 million investment. In 2002, the government invested \$2 billion in public works, with \$2 billion budgeted for 2003. In 2001–03, \$4.3 billion was offered for six economic development regions, including the Mayaguez-Ponce Expressway and the Santiago Channel.

The Puerto Rico Manufacturers' Association and the Puerto Rico Technoeconomic Corridor (PRTEC) also work to encourage and sustain industrial activities on the island. PRTEC is a non-profit organization public and private entities working to facilitate economic development. This organization has been instrumental in implementing six major strategies for economic development, including an industrial cluster concept, which promotes networking and competition among similar industries.

The primary incentives to investment in Puerto Rico have been lower wage scales than in the continental US and the exemption of up to 90% of corporate profits from island corporate and property taxes for five years, with a descending rate of exemption that could last as long as 235 years in some regions. The commonwealth government created a 218-acre (88-hectare) free-trade zone in the San Juan area that allows companies to assemble imports duty-free in government-built warehouses for export from the island.

The government's plans for urban center rehabilitation in 2003 included \$165.5 million for 80 revitalization projects in 18 municipalities. Economic development was being geared toward five sectors: pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, medical instruments, communication and information technology, and health services. The government has also launched "Puerto Rico 2025," a long-term economic and social development plan directed to ensuring the commonwealth's competitiveness in the global economy.

38 HEALTH

Health conditions in Puerto Rico have improved remarkably since 1940, when the average life expectancy was only 46 years. A resident of Puerto Rico born in 2006 is expected to live 78.4 years (74.46 years for males, 82.54 years for females). The infant mortality rate has declined from 113 per 1,000 live births in 1940 to 9.38 in 1999 to an estimate of 9.14 in 2006. As of 2003, about 82.4% of all mothers received prenatal care within the first trimester of pregnancy.

In 2002, about 59.5% of the population was considered to be overweight or obese; the US national average was at 56%. As of 2004, about 12.6% of the adult population were smokers. The leading causes of death in 1940 were diseases brought on by malnutrition or infection: diarrhea, enteritis, tuberculosis, and pneumonia. In 2002, the most common causes of death, in order of prevalence, were heart disease (154.2 per 100,000 population); cancer (120.9 per 100,000); and diabetes mellitus (63.9 per 100,000). That year, the diabetes death rate was higher than that of any state in the United States. Cardiovascular diseases claimed a death rate of 40.8 per 100,000 and death by homicide was rated at 19 per 100,000 population (higher than any state, but lower than Washington, DC, which had a rate of 40 per 100,000).

At the end of 2004, there were an estimated 10,079 residents with AIDS. The same year, new AIDS cases were reported at an estimated rate of 23.4 per 100,000 population; a total of 2,049 new cases of HIV infection were reported as well. In 2003, the death rate for HIV was estimated at 13.6 per 100,000 population.

In 2002, Puerto Rico had 45 private hospitals and 13 public hospitals. There were 12,178 hospital beds available. In 2004, there were 254 physicians and 1,552 dentists per 100,000 people. In 2004, about 70% of the population had received dental care within the year. In 2005, there were 383 registered nurses per 100,000 population.

Annual national health expenditure as a percentage of GDP was 6.03% in 2002. The budget for health in 1999/00 was \$993.3 million; of that amount, \$570.3 came from federal contributions. As a result of health reform, the government now finances a medical insurance program contracted to the private sector. As of late 2000, all 78 municipalities had been incorporated into the health insurance plan, with 99% insured and 1.8 million participants in the plan.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Since the mid-1960s, residents of Puerto Rico have been eligible for most of the social welfare programs that apply throughout the 50 states. About one-fourth of the commonwealth's budget is appropriated for public housing and welfare. Federal grants, trans-

fers, and expenditures in Puerto Rico amounted to nearly one-quarter of the GNP in 1990.

In 2004, Nutrition Assistance Grants, a program similar to the US Food Stamp Program, were offered through the US government to provide \$1.3 billion in benefits to 1.01 million low-income residents. In FY 2005, there were 369,889 students participating in the national school lunch program.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the system of US federal welfare assistance that officially replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1997, was reauthorized through the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005. TANF is funded through federal block grants that are divided among the states based on an equation involving the number of recipients in each state. In 2004, the program in Puerto Rico had 49,000 recipients.

Because unemployment is high and wages are low, Social Security benefits are below the US average. In 2004, 704,880 residents received social security benefits, including 327,620 retired workers, 81,610 widows and widowers, 134,540 disabled workers, 63,480 spouses, and 97,630 children. Retired workers received an average monthly payment of \$635; widows and widowers, \$555; disabled workers, \$767; and spouses, \$283. Payments for children of retired workers averaged \$287 a month, children of deceased workers received \$422 a month, and children of disabled workers received \$205 per month. Monthly benefits for December 2004 totaled at about \$404 million dollars. Approximately 96,000 workers received unemployment benefits in 2004, with the average weekly benefit at \$107.

40 HOUSING

In 2000, there were a total of about 1,418,476 housing units, up from 1,184,382 units in 1990. About 1,261,325 units were occupied that year; 72.9% of occupied units were owner-occupied. About 68% of all units were single-family detached homes and just over 25% of all units were built between 1970 and 1979. About 58% of all households did not have modern heating systems; 31.1% had electric heating systems. Nearly 24% of all units had no telephone service, 5.2% lacked complete plumbing facilities, and 1.5% lacked complete kitchen facilities. The median home value was \$75,100. The median monthly cost for a mortgage was \$625 and the median monthly cost for rent was \$297. The average household size was 2.98 persons.

In 2001, the Puerto Rico Housing Bank and Finance Agency was reorganized as the Puerto Rico Housing Finance Authority. One of the goals of the new agency was to build and renovate at least 50,000 units for low and moderate income families by 2005. Between 2001 and 2003, about \$1.35 million was spent to renovate 139 public housing projects. Investment in elderly housing was \$105 million for 994 units in 22 public housing projects. There were 15,985 housing units constructed during this period.

For those who have a gross annual income of up to \$45,000 a year, the authority offers home loans of up to \$90,000 with a 6.5% annual interest rate.

41 EDUCATION

Puerto Rico has made enormous strides in public education. In 1900, only 14% of the island's school-age children were in school; the proportion had increased to 50% by 1940 and 85% by the late 1970s. The government encouraged school attendance among the

poor in the 1940s and 1950s by providing inexpensive shoes, free lunches, school uniforms, and small scholarships. Education is compulsory for children between 6 and 16 years of age, and nearly two out of ten commonwealth budget dollars goes to education. About 94.1% of the population is literate (2002).

In 2004, there were 584,916 students attending public school. Instruction is carried out in Spanish, but English is taught at all levels. In 2004, there were 1,489 public schools and 545 private schools in Puerto Rico.

The main state-supported institution of higher learning is the University of Puerto Rico, with its main campus at Rico Piedras. The system also includes doctorate-level campuses at Mayagüez and San Juan (for medical sciences), and four-year colleges at Aguadilla, Arecibo, Bayamon, Carolina, Cayey, Humacao, Ponce, and Utuado. The 39 private institutions in 2002/03 included Interamerican University, with campuses at Hato Rey, San German, and other locations, and the Catholic University of Puerto Rico, at Ponce. In 2002/03, 191,552 students were enrolled at higher education institutions in Puerto Rico.

42 ARTS

The Tapia Theater in Old San Juan is the island's major showcase for local and visiting performers, including the Taller de Histriónes group and zarzuela (comic opera) troupes from Spain. Claimed as one of the oldest theaters in the Western Hemisphere, Tapia Theater (Teatro Tapia) was built in 1832. The Institute of Puerto Rican Culture is headed by ASPIRA Association, Inc., a nonprofit organization focused on developing education and leadership in the communities. The Fine Arts Center (Centro de Bellas Artes) is the largest center of its kind in the Caribbean. The Fine Arts Center features entertainment ranging from ballet, opera, and symphonies to drama, jazz, and popular music.

Puerto Rico has its own symphony orchestra and conservatory of music. Both were formerly directed by Pablo Casals, and the annual Music Festival Casals, which he founded, still attracts world-renowned musicians to the island each year. In 2006, the festival celebrated its 50th anniversary with one full month of concerts, including the first performance by the Philadelphia Orchestra in Puerto Rico. The Opera de Camara tours several houses. Puerto Rico supports both a classical ballet company (the Ballets de San Juan) and the Areyto Folkloric Group, which performs traditional folk dances. Salsa, a popular style pioneered by Puerto Rican musicians like Tito Puente, influenced the development of pop music on the US mainland during the 1970s. In 2002, the Puerto Rican government devoted \$25 million to a public arts project, developing 97 works of art in 18 municipalities as part of an urban revitalization program. Puerto Rico was awarded seven grants totaling \$654,898 in 2005 from the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH). That same year the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) contributed five grants totaling \$662,100. The NEA has also contributed to the arts education programs developed by the Institute of Puerto Rican Culture, and supported the Opera de Camara in Old San Juan, and the Ballet Concierto de Puerto Rico. The Puerto Rican Community Foundation, Inc., has received funding through the NEA's challenge grant program.

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

In 1996–97, Puerto Rico's public libraries contained about 609,391 volumes and had a combined circulation of 479,133. The University of Puerto Rico Library at Rio Piedras held 1,804,010 books in 2003; the library of the Puerto Rico Conservatory of Music, in San Juan, has a collection of music written by Puerto Rican and Latin American composers. Also in San Juan are La Casa del Libro, a library-museum of typographic and graphic arts, and the Museo del Indio, a museum dedicated to the indigenous peoples of the Caribbean. There were some 50 museums in Puerto Rico in 2003, among them the Museo de Arte de Ponce (Luis A. Ferre Foundation), which has paintings, sculptures, and archaeological artifacts, as well as a library. The Marine Station Museum in Mayagüez exhibits Caribbean marine specimens and sponsors research and field trips.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

Puerto Rico is one of the most advanced and fastest growing telecommunications markets in the Caribbean region. The Puerto Rico Telephone Co. was founded in 1914 by two German sugar brokers, Sosthenes and Hernand Behn, best known today as the creators of International Telephone and Telegraph (ITT). In 1974, the Puerto Rican government bought the phone company from ITT. In 2004, there were an estimated 1.112 million telephone lines on the island. That same year there were an estimated 2.682 million cellular phone subscribers.

On 12 September 1996, Law 213 (known as Puerto Rico's Telecommunications Act of 1996) was enacted. The act created the Puerto Rico Telecommunications Regulatory Board with jurisdiction over all telecommunications companies providing services on the island. As of 2003, as a result of the 1996 law, 233 telecommunications companies had begun operations on the island. The Puerto Rico Telephone Co. has a 93% market share of the local telecommunications market and Centennial of Puerto Rico holds the remaining 7%. However, the Puerto Rico Telecommunications Regulatory Board, as of 2003, was attempting to promote competition within the telecommunications industry.

WKAQ, the island's first radio station, came on the air in 1923 and the first television station, WKAQ-TV, began broadcasting in 1954. As of 2006, there were 74 AM and 53 FM radio stations. In 2003, there were four commercial television channels/networks with six affiliates, one public broadcast television channel/network, three cable television service companies (with 360,579 subscribers), and four satellite television providers. The total number of television broadcast stations reached 32 in 2006.

There were 132 internet hosts in 2005, servicing approximately 1 million internet users.

45 PRESS

Puerto Rico has four major dailies: *El Nuevo Dia*, *El Vocero*, *Primera Hora*, and the *San Juan Star*. There are 22 weekly newspapers, including *El Estrella de Puerto Rico* and *Caribbean Business*, Puerto Rico's leading business publication. There are also eight monthly newspapers. The 2005 circulation for *El Nuevo Dia* (Puerto Rico's daily with the largest circulation), was 203,153 mornings and 245,500 Sundays. The English-language *San Juan Star* won a Pulitzer Prize in 1961.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

Important organizations on the island include the Puerto Rico Medical Association, Puerto Rico Manufacturers' Association, and Puerto Rico Bar Association. Also maintaining headquarters in Puerto Rico are the Association of Island Marine Laboratories of the Caribbean, Puerto Rico Rum Producers Association, Caribbean Hotel Association, and Caribbean Studies Association.

Some American professional organizations have chapters in Puerto Rico, including the American Physical Therapy Association and the American Library Association. Fondos Unidos is the local branch of Untied Way of America. Puerto Rico has chapters of Caritas and Amnesty International. There are also chapters of the YWCA/YMCA and the Young Democrats.

US-based agencies such as the National Puerto Rican Forum and the Puerto Rican Community Development Project assist Puerto Ricans living on the mainland. "Hometown clubs" consisting of "absent sons" (*hilos ausentes*) of various Puerto Rican towns are a typical feature of the barrios in New York and other cities in the continental United States.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Only government and manufacturing exceed tourism in importance to the Puerto Rican economy. The industry has grown rapidly, from 65,000 tourists in 1950 to 1.1 million in 1970 to over 3 million in 2003. Tourism employs approximately 60,000 workers. Many hotels are located in San Juan, though the eastern part of the island also features hotels and resorts. Most tourists come for sunning, swimming, deep-sea fishing, and the fashionable shops, night clubs, and casinos of San Juan's Condado Strip. Attractions of old San Juan include two fortresses, El Morro and San Cristobal, San Jose Church (one of the oldest in the New World), and La Fortaleza, the governor's palace. The government has been encouraging tourists to journey outside of San Juan to such destinations such as the Arecibo Observatory (with its radio telescope used for research astronomy, ionospheric studies, and radar mapping), the rain forest of El Yunque, Phosphorescent Bay, colonial-style San German, and the bird sanctuary and mangrove forest on the shores of Torrecilla Lagoon. The 53-acre (21-hectare) San Juan harbor fortifications are a national historic site.

As of 2003, there were 3,238,300 total arrivals of non-resident tourists, including 2,454,300 from the United States. In that same year, 1,304,610 of the total non-resident tourists arrived at hotels and *paradores*. The occupancy rate of tourist hotels was 66.7% as of December 2005. During 2000/01, visitors spent \$2.7 billion in Puerto Rico, a 14.2% increase over 1999/00. The 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States had a negative impact on the Puerto Rican tourist industry, as did the 2003 US-led war in Iraq. The World Travel and Tourism Council estimated that the war in Iraq cost Puerto Rico \$262 million in lost tourism revenue and 3,800 jobs. Although industry growth decreased in 2001–03 in response to the slowdown in the US economy, Puerto Rico's tourism began to recover in 2004–05. There was an estimated tourist arrival total of almost five million for 2004.

48 SPORTS

Baseball is very popular in Puerto Rico. There is a six-team professional winter league, in which many ball players from Ameri-

can and National League teams participate. There were 50 games played in the league's six ballparks in 2002. Horse races are held every Sunday at El Nuevo Comandante, along with the annual Clásico del Caribe. Cockfighting, boxing, and basketball are also popular. Puerto Rico, which has its own Olympic Committee, sent a delegation to the 1980 Olympics in Moscow despite the US boycott. Other annual sporting events include the Copa Velasco Regatta, the Maraton de San Blas, the International Cycling Competition in Sabana Grande, the first leg of the Caribbean Ocean Racing Triangle, and the International Billfish Tournament in San Juan.

49 FAMOUS PUERTO RICANS

Elected to represent Puerto Rico before the Spanish Cortes in 1812, Ramón Power y Giralt (1775–1813), a liberal reformer, was the leading Puerto Rican political figure of the early 19th century. Power, appointed vice president of the Cortes, participated in drafting the new Spanish constitution of 1812. Ramón Emeterio Betances (1827–98) became well known not only for his efforts to alleviate a cholera epidemic in 1855, but also for his crusade to abolish slavery in Puerto Rico and as a leader of a separatist movement that culminated in 1868 in the "Grito de Lares." Eugenio María de Hostos (1839–1903), a writer, abolitionist, and educator, spent much of his adult life in Latin America, seeking to establish a free federation of the West Indies to replace colonial rule in the Caribbean. Luis Muñoz Rivera (1859–1916), a liberal journalist, led the movement that obtained the Autonomic Charter of 1897 for Puerto Rico, and he headed the cabinet that took office in 1898. With the island under United States rule, Muñoz Rivera served between 1911 and 1916 as Puerto Rico's resident commissioner to the US Congress. Other important Puerto Rican historical figures include Juan Alejo Arizmendi (1760?–1814), the first Puerto Rican-born bishop, appointed to the See of San Juan; José de Diego (1866–1918), a noted poet and gifted orator who, under the Foraker Act, became the first speaker of the island house of delegates and was a champion of independence for Puerto Rico.

The dominant political figure in 20th-century Puerto Rico was Luis Muñoz Marín (1898–1980), founder of the Popular Democratic Party in 1938 and president of the Puerto Rico senate from 1940–48. Muñoz, the first native-born elected governor of the island (1948–64), devised the commonwealth relationship that has governed the island since 1952. Another prominent 20th-century figure, Antonio R. Barceló (1869–1939), who led the Unionista Party after Muñoz Rivera's death, was the first president of the senate under the Jones Act, and was later the leader of the Liberal Party. In 1946, Jesús T. Pinero (1897–1952) became the first Puerto Rican appointed governor of the island by a US president; he had been elected as resident commissioner of Puerto Rico to the US Congress two years before. Pedro Albizu Campos (1891–1965), a Harvard Law School graduate, presided over the militant Nationalist Party and was, until his death, the leader of forces that advocated independence for Puerto Rico by revolution. In 1945, Gilberto Concepción de Gracia (1909–68), also a lawyer, helped found the more moderate Puerto Rican Independence Party. Herman Badillo (b.1929) was the first person of Puerto Rican birth to be a voting member of the US House of Representatives, as congressman from New York, and Maurice Ferré (b.1935), elected mayor of Miami in 1973, was the first native-born Puerto Rican to

run a large US mainland city. Hernán Padilla (b.1938), mayor of San Juan, became the first Hispanic American elected to head the US Conference of Mayors (1984).

Women have participated actively in Puerto Rican politics. Ana Roqué de Duprey (1853–1933) led the *Asociación Puertorriqueña de Mujeres Sufragistas*, organized in late 1926, while Milagros Benet de Mewton (1868–1945) presided over the *Liga Social Sufragista*, founded in 1917. Both groups actively lobbied for the extension of the right to vote to Puerto Rican women, not only in Puerto Rico but also in the United States and other countries. Felisa Rincón de Gautier (1897–1994), mayor of San Juan from 1946 to 1968, was named Woman of the Americas in 1954, the year she presided over the Inter-American Organization for Municipalities. Carmen Delgado Votaw (b.1935) was the first person of Puerto Rican birth to be elected president of the Inter-American Commission of Women, the oldest international organization in the field of women's rights. Sila María Calderón, elected in 2000, became the commonwealth's first female governor.

Manuel A. Alonso (1822–89) blazed the trail for a distinctly Puerto Rican literature with the 1849 publication of *El Gibaro*, the first major effort to depict the traditions and mores of the island's rural society. Following him in the development of a rich Puerto Rican literary tradition were, among many others, that most prolific of 19th century Puerto Rican writers, Alejandro Tapia y Rivera (1826–82), a writer adept in history, drama, poetry, and other forms of literary expression; essayist and critic Manuel Elzaburu (1852–92); novelist Manuel Zeno Gandía (1855–1930); and poets Lola Rodríguez de Tió (1843–1924) and José Gautier Benítez (1848–80). Tió's patriotic lyrics, popularly acclaimed, were adapted to become Puerto Rico's national anthem. Among 20th century Puerto Rican literary figures are poets Luis Lloréns Torres (1878–1944), Luis Palés Matos (1898–1959), and Julia de Burgos (1916–53); and essayists and critics Antonio S. Pedreira (1898–1939), Tomás Blanco (1900–75), José A. Balseiro (1900–62), Margot Arce de Vázquez (1904–90), Concha Meléndez (1904–83), Nilita Vientós Gastón (1908–89), and María T. Babin (1910–89). In the field of fiction, René Marqués (1919–79), Abelardo Díaz Alfaro (1919–99), José Luis González (b.1926), and Pedro Juan Soto (b.1928) are among the best known outside Puerto Rico.

In the world of entertainment, Academy Award winners José Ferrer (1912–92) and Rita Moreno (b.1931), and two-time Tony winner Chita Rivera (b.1933) are among the most famous. Notable in classical music are cellist-conductor Pablo Casals (b.Spain, 1876–1973), a longtime resident of Puerto Rico; pianist Jesús María Sanromá (1902–84); and opera star Justino Díaz (b.1940). Well-known popular musicians include Tito Puente (b.New York, 1923–2000) and José Feliciano (b.1945).

Roberto Clemente (1934–72), one of baseball's most admired performers and a member of the Hall of Fame, played on 12 National League All-Star teams and was named Most Valuable Player in 1966.

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UNITED STATES CARIBBEAN DEPENDENCIES

NAVASSA

Navassa, a 5-sq-km (2-sq-mi) island between Jamaica and Haiti, was claimed by the United States under the Guano Act of 1856. The island, located at 18°24' N and 75°1' W, is uninhabited except for a lighthouse station under the administration of the coast guard.

VIRGIN ISLANDS OF THE UNITED STATES

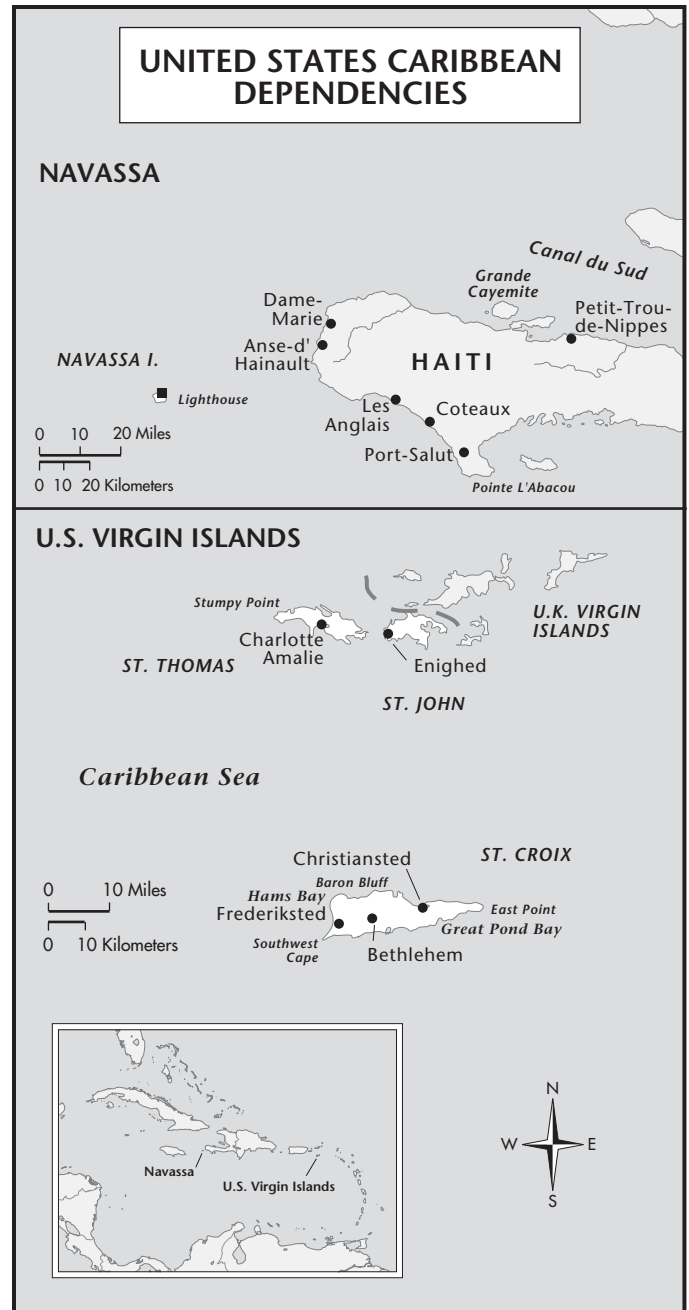
The Virgin Islands of the United States lie about 64 km (40 mi) E of Puerto Rico and 1,600 km (1,000 mi) SSE of Miami, between 17°40' and 18°25' N and 64°34' and 65°3' W. The island group extends 82 km (51 mi) N–S and 80 km (50 mi) E–W with a total area of at least 353 sq km (136 sq mi). Only 3 of the more than 50 islands and cays are of significant size: St. Croix, 218 sq km (84 sq mi) in area; St. Thomas, 83 sq km (32 sq mi); and St. John, 52 sq km (20 sq mi). The territorial capital, Charlotte Amalie, on St. Thomas, has one of the finest harbors in the Caribbean.

St. Croix is relatively flat, with a terrain suitable for sugarcane cultivation. St. Thomas is mountainous and little cultivated, but it has many snug harbors. St. John, also mountainous, has fine beaches and lush vegetation; about two-thirds of St. John's area has been declared a national park. The subtropical climate, with temperatures ranging from 21–32°C (70–90 °F) and an average temperature of 25°C (77°F), is moderated by northeast trade winds. Rainfall, the main source of fresh water, varies widely, and severe droughts are frequent. The average yearly rainfall is 114 cm (45 in), mostly during the summer months.

The population of the US Virgin Islands was estimated at 123,498 in 2002, up from 96,569 at the time of the 1980 census. St. Croix has two principal towns: Christiansted and Frederiksted. Economic development has brought an influx of new residents, mainly from Puerto Rico, other Caribbean islands, and the US mainland. Most of the permanent inhabitants are descendants of slaves who were brought from Africa in the early days of Danish rule, and about 80% of the population is black. English is the official and most widely spoken language.

Some of the oldest religious congregations in the Western Hemisphere are located in the Virgin Islands. A Jewish synagogue there is the second-oldest in the New World, and the Lutheran Congregation of St. Thomas, founded in 1666, is one of the three oldest congregations in the United States. As of 1999, Baptists made up an estimated 42% of the population, Roman Catholics 34%, and Episcopalians 17%.

In 2000 there were 856 km (531.6 mi) of roads in the US Virgin Islands; the US Virgin Islands has the only US roads where driving is done on the left side of the road. Cargo-shipping services operate from Baltimore, Jacksonville, and Miami via Puerto Rico. In addition, weekly shipping service is available from Miami. Both St. Croix and St. Thomas have airports, with St. Croix's



facility handling the larger number of jet flights from the continental United States and Europe.

Excavations at St. Croix in the 1970s uncovered evidence of a civilization perhaps as ancient as AD 100. Christopher Columbus, who reached the islands in 1493, named them for the martyred virgin St. Ursula. At this time, St. Croix was inhabited by Carib

Indians, who were eventually driven from the island by Spanish soldiers in 1555. During the 17th century, the archipelago was divided into two territorial units, one controlled by the British, the other (now the US Virgin Islands) controlled by Denmark. The separate history of the latter unit began with the settlement of St. Thomas by the Danish West India Company in 1672. St. John was claimed by the company in 1683 and St. Croix was purchased from France in 1733. The holdings of the company were taken over as a Danish crown colony in 1754. Sugarcane, cultivated by slave labor, was the backbone of the islands' prosperity in the 18th and early 19th centuries. After brutally suppressing several slave revolts, Denmark abolished slavery in the colony in 1848. A long period of economic decline followed, until Denmark sold the islands to the United States in 1917 for \$25 million. Congress granted US citizenship to the Virgin Islanders in 1927. In 1931, administration of the islands was transferred from the Department of the Navy to the Department of the Interior, and the first civilian governor was appointed. In the late 1970s, the Virgin Islands government began to consider ways to expand self-rule. A UN delegation in 1977 found little interest in independence, however, and a locally drafted constitution was voted down by the electorate in 1979.

The chief executive of the Virgin Islands is the territorial governor, elected by direct popular vote (prior to 1970, territorial governors were appointed by the US president). Constitutionally, the US Congress has plenary authority to legislate for the territory. Enactment of the Revised Organic Act of the Virgin Islands on 22 July 1954 vested local legislative power—subject to veto by the governor—in a unicameral legislature. Since 1972, the islands have

sent one nonvoting representative to the US House of Representatives. Courts are under the US federal judiciary; the two federal district court judges are appointed by the US president. Territorial court judges, who preside over misdemeanor and traffic cases, are appointed by the governor and confirmed by the legislature. The district court has appellate jurisdiction over the territorial court.

Tourism, which accounts for approximately 70% of both GDP and employment is the islands' principal economic activity. The number of tourists rose dramatically throughout the late 1960s and early 1970s, from 448,165 in 1964 to over 2 million per year in the 1990s, continuing into the early 2000s. Rum remains an important manufacture, with petroleum refining (on St. Croix) a major addition in the late 1960s. Economic development is promoted by the US-government-owned Virgin Islands Corp. In 2002 the gross domestic product per capita was \$14,500. The unemployment rate was 6.2% in 2003. Exports for 1992 totaled \$1.8 billion while imports totaled \$2.2 billion. The island's primary export is refined petroleum products. Raw crude oil constitutes the Virgin Island's principal import. In 1990, median family income was \$24,036.

The territorial Department of Health provides hospital and medical services, public health services, and veterinary medicine. Education is compulsory. The College of the Virgin Islands is the territory's first institution of higher learning. There were about 70,900 main line telephones in 2004, and 41,000 mobile cellular phones. The Virgin Islands had 22 radio stations (6 AM, 16 FM) and 5 broadcast television stations in 2004.

UNITED STATES PACIFIC DEPENDENCIES

AMERICAN SAMOA

American Samoa, an unincorporated and unorganized insular US territory in the South Pacific Ocean, comprises that portion of the Samoan archipelago lying E of longitude 171°W. (The rest of the Samoan islands comprise the independent state of Western Samoa.) While the Samoan group as a whole has an area of 3,121 sq km (1,205 sq mi), American Samoa consists of only seven small islands (between 14° and 15°S and 168° and 171°W) with a total area (land and water) of 197 sq km (76 sq mi). Five of the islands are volcanic, with rugged peaks rising sharply, and two are coral atolls.

The climate is hot and rainy; normal temperatures range from 24°C (75°F) in August to 32°C (90°F) during December–February; mean annual rainfall is 330 cm (130 in), the rainy season lasting from December through March. Hurricanes are common. The native flora includes flourishing tree ferns, coconut, hardwoods, and rubber trees. There are few wild animals.

As of mid-2005, the estimated population was 57,881, an increase over the 1986 population estimate of 37,500. However, the total population has remained relatively constant for many years because of the substantial number of Samoans who migrate to the United States. The inhabitants, who are concentrated on the island of Tutuila, are almost pure Polynesian. Most people are bilingual: English and Samoan are the official languages. Most Samoans are Christians.

The capital of the territory, Pago Pago, on Tutuila, has one of the finest natural harbors in the South Pacific and is a duty-free port. Passenger liners call there on South Pacific tours, and passenger and cargo ships arrive regularly from Japan, New Zealand, Australia, and the US west coast. There are regular air and sea services between American Samoa and Western Samoa, and scheduled flights between Pago Pago and Honolulu.

American Samoa was settled by Melanesian migrants in the 1st millennium BC. The Samoan islands were visited in 1768 by the French explorer Louis-Antoine de Bougainville, who named them the Îles des Navigateurs as a tribute to the skill of their native boatmen. In 1889, the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany agreed to share control of the islands. The United Kingdom later withdrew its claim, and under the 1899 Treaty of Berlin, the United States was internationally acknowledged to have rights extending over all the islands of the Samoan group lying east of 171°W, while Germany was acknowledged to have similar rights to the islands west of that meridian. The islands of American Samoa were officially ceded to the United States by the various ruling chiefs in 1900 and 1904, and on 20 February 1929 the US Congress formally accepted sovereignty over the entire group. From 1900 to 1951, the territory was administered by the US Department of the Navy, and thereafter by the Department of the Interior. The basic law is the Constitution of 1966.

The executive branch of the government is headed by a governor who, along with the lieutenant governor, is elected by popular vote; before 1977, the two posts were appointed by the US government. Village, county, and district councils have full authority to regulate local affairs.

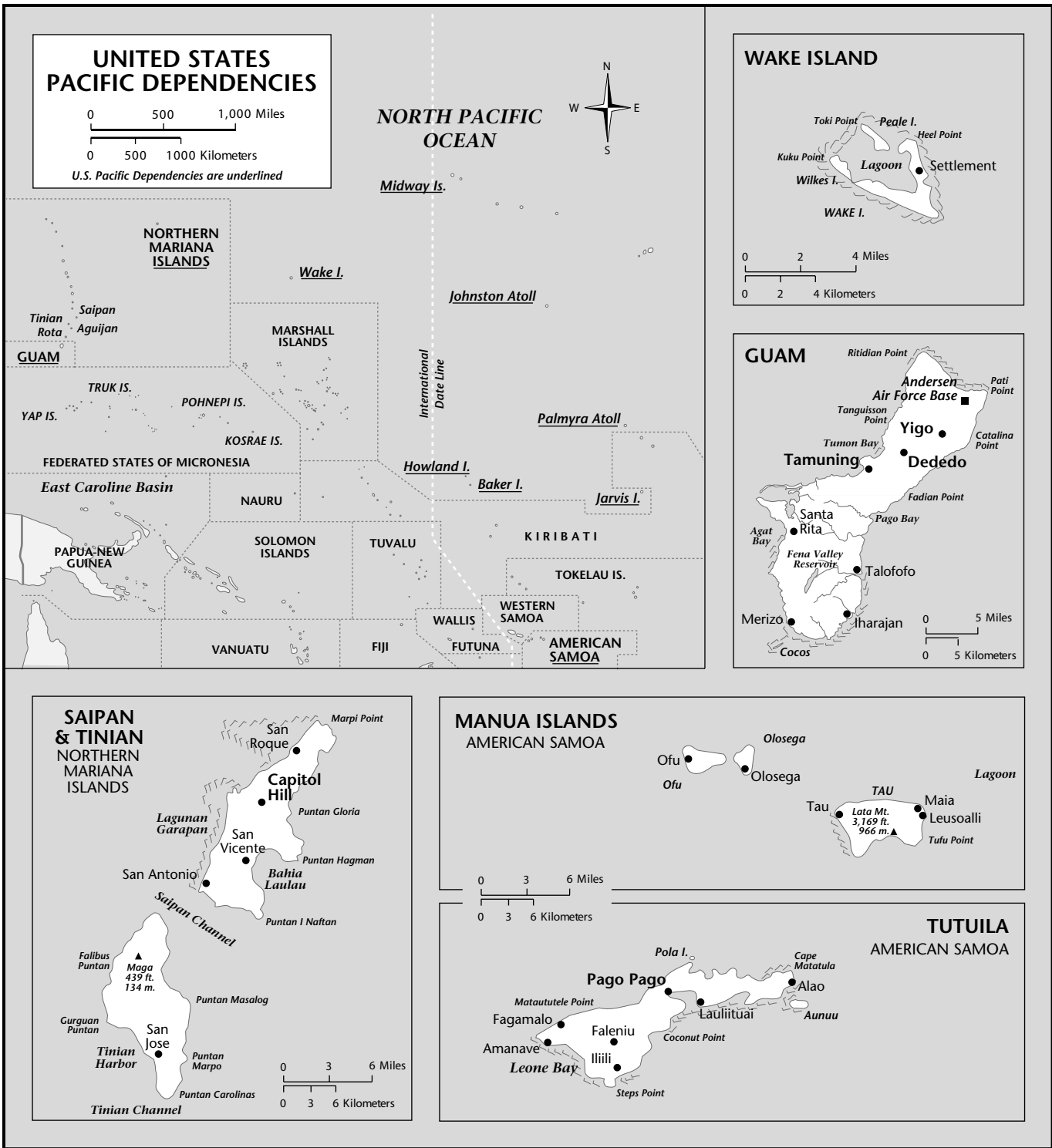
The legislature (Fono) is composed of the House of Representatives and the Senate. The 15 counties elect 18 *matais* (chiefs) to four-year terms in the senate, while the 20 house members are elected for two-year terms by popular vote within the counties. (There is one appointed member from Swains Island.) The secretary for Samoan affairs, who heads the Department of Local Government, is appointed by the governor. Under his administration are three district governors, the county chiefs, village mayors, and police officials. The judiciary, an independent branch of the government, functions through the high court and five district courts. Samoans living in the islands as of 17 April 1900 or born there since that date are nationals of the United States. The territory sends one delegate to the US House of Representatives.

The economy is primarily agricultural. Small plantations occupy about one-third of the land area; 90% of the land is communally owned. The principal crops are bananas, breadfruit, taro, papayas, pineapples, sweet potatoes, tapioca, coffee, cocoa, and yams. Hogs and poultry are the principal livestock raised; dairy cattle are few. The principal cash crop is copra. A third of the total labor force is employed by the federal and territorial government. The largest employers in the private sector, with more than 15% of the labor force, are two modern tuna canneries supplied with fish caught by Japanese, US, and Taiwanese fishing fleets. Canned tuna is the primary export. Most foreign trade is conducted with the United States.

Samoans are entitled to free medical treatment, including hospital care. Besides district dispensaries, the government maintains a central hospital, a tuberculosis unit, and a leprosarium. US-trained staff physicians work with Samoan medical practitioners and nurses. The LBJ Tropical Medical Center opened in 1986.

Education is a joint undertaking between the territorial government and the villages. School attendance is compulsory for all children from 6 through 18. The villages furnish the elementary-school buildings and living quarters for the teachers; the territorial government pays teachers' salaries and provides buildings and supplies for all but primary schools. Since 1964, educational television has served as a basic teaching tool in the school system. About 97% of the population is literate. In 1997, total enrollment in American Samoa's 29 public elementary and secondary schools was over 19,000. American Samoa Community College enrolled 1,178 in the fall of 2001.

Radiotelegraph circuits connect the territory with Hawaii, Fiji, and Western Samoa. Every village in American Samoa has telephone service.



GUAM

The largest and most populous of the Mariana Islands in the Western Pacific, Guam (13° 28' N and 144° 44' E) has an area, including land and water, of 540 sq km (208 sq mi) and is about 48 km (30 mi) long and from 6–12 km (4–7 mi) wide. The island is of volcanic origin; in the south, the terrain is mountainous, while

the northern part is a plateau with shallow fertile soil. The central part of the island (where the capital, Agana, is located) is undulating country.

Guam lies in the typhoon belt of the Western Pacific and is occasionally subject to widespread storm damage. In May 1976, a typhoon with winds of 306 km/hr (190 mph) struck Guam, caus-

ing an estimated \$300 million in damage and leaving 80% of the island's buildings in ruins. Guam has a tropical climate with little seasonal variation. Average temperature is 26°C (79°F); rainfall is substantial, reaching an annual average of more than 200 cm (80 in). Endangered species include the giant Micronesian kingfisher and Marianas crow.

The mid-2005 population, excluding transient US military and civilian personnel and their families, was estimated at 168,564, an increase over the 1986 estimate of 117,500. The increase was attributed largely to the higher birthrate and low mortality rate. The present-day Chamorro, who comprise about 37% of the permanent resident population, descend from the intermingling of the few surviving original Chamorro with the Spanish, Filipino, and Mexican settlers, plus later arrivals from the United States, United Kingdom, Korea, China, and Japan. Filipinos (26%) are the largest ethnic minority. English and Chamorro are official languages. The predominant religion is Roman Catholicism.

The earliest known settlers on Guam were the original Chamorro, who migrated from the Malay Peninsula to the Pacific around 1500 BC. When Ferdinand Magellan landed on Guam in 1521, it is believed that as many as 100,000 Chamorro lived on the island; by 1741, their numbers had been reduced to 5,000—most of the population either had fled the island or been killed through disease or war with the Spanish. A Spanish fort was established in 1565, and from 1696 until 1898, Guam was under Spanish rule.

Under the Treaty of Paris that ended the Spanish-American War in 1898, the island was ceded to the United States and placed under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Navy. During World War II, Guam was occupied by Japanese forces; the United States recaptured the island in 1944 after 54 days of fighting. In 1950, the island's administration was transferred from the Navy to the US Department of the Interior. Under the 1950 Organic Act of Guam, passed by the US Congress, the island was established as an unincorporated territory of the United States; Guamanians were granted US citizenship, and internal self-government was introduced.

The governor and lieutenant governor have been elected directly since 1970. A 15-member unicameral legislature elected for two years by adult suffrage is empowered to legislate on all local matters, including taxation and appropriations. The US Congress reserves the right to annul any law passed by the Guam legislature, but must do so within a year of the date it receives the text of any such law.

Judicial authority is vested in the district court of Guam, and appeals may be taken to the regular US courts of appeal and ultimately to the US Supreme Court. An island superior court and other specialized courts have jurisdiction over certain cases arising under the laws of Guam. The judge of the district court is appointed by the US president; the judges of the other courts are appointed by the governor. Guam's laws were codified in 1953.

Guam is one of the most important US military bases in the Pacific, and the island's economy has been profoundly affected by the large sums of money spent by the US defense establishment. During the late 1960s and early 1970s, when the United States took the role of a major combatant in the Vietnam conflict, Guam served as a base for long-range US bombers on sorties over Indochina. In 2005, there were 3,384 active-duty US military personnel stationed on the island.

Prior to World War II, agriculture and animal husbandry were the primary activities. By 1947, most adults were wage earners employed by the US armed forces, although many continued to cultivate small plots to supplement their earnings. In 2002, agriculture accounted for 7% of GDP; a considerable amount of arable land is taken up by military installations. Fruits and vegetables are grown and pigs and poultry are raised for local consumption, but most food is imported. Current fish catches are insufficient to meet local demand.

Tourism became a major industry and sparked a boom in the construction industry in the mid-1980s. The number of visitors grew rapidly from 6,600 in 1967 to around one million per year in the mid-2000s, 90% of whom come from Japan. The stagnation in the Japanese economy since the early 1990s slowed the growth of Guam's tourism sector.

The Guam Rehabilitation Act of 1963 has funded the territory's capital improvement program. Further allocations in 1969 and 1977 provided over \$120 million for additional capital improvements and development of the island's power installations. More than \$200 million of federal funds were authorized for typhoon relief in 1977–78. Total expenditures by the government of Guam were \$445 million in 2000; revenues were \$340 million.

Guam's foreign trade usually shows large deficits. The bulk of Guam's trade is with the United States, Japan, Singapore, and South Korea.

US income tax laws are applicable in Guam; all internal revenue taxes derived by the United States from Guam are paid into the territory's treasury. US customs duties, however, are not levied. Guam is a duty-free port. In its trade with the US mainland, Guam is required to use US shipping.

Typical tropical diseases are practically unknown today in Guam. Tuberculosis, long the principal killer, was brought under control by the mid-1950s. The Guam Memorial Hospital has a capacity of 208 beds. Village dispensaries serve both as public health units and first-aid stations. In addition, there are a number of physicians in private practice. Specialists from the US Naval Hospital in Guam, assisting on a part-time basis, have made possible a complete program of curative medicine.

School attendance is compulsory from the age of 6 through 16. Twenty-five elementary schools, seven middle schools, four high schools and an alternative school serve over 30,000 students.

HOWLAND, BAKER, AND JARVIS ISLANDS

Howland Island (0° 48' N and 176° 38' W), Baker Island (0° 14' N and 176° 28' W), and Jarvis Island (0° 23' S and 160° 1' W) are three small coral islands, each about 2.6 sq km (1 sq mi) in area, belonging to the Line Islands group of the Central Pacific Ocean. All are administered directly from Washington as US unincorporated territories. Public entry is by special permit and generally restricted to scientists and educators. Howland was discovered in 1842 by US sailors, claimed by the United States in 1857, and formally proclaimed a US territory in 1935–36. It was worked for guano by US and British companies until about 1890.

Baker, 64 km (40 mi) S of Howland, and Jarvis, 1,770 km (1,100 mi) E of Howland, also were claimed by the United States in 1857, and their guano deposits were similarly worked by US and British enterprises. The United Kingdom annexed Jarvis in 1889. In 1935,

the United States sent colonists from Hawaii to all three islands, which were placed under the US Department of the Interior in 1936 and are administered as part of the National Wildlife Refuge system. Baker was captured by the Japanese in 1942 and recaptured by the United States in 1944. The three islands lack fresh water and have no permanent inhabitants. They are visited annually by the US Coast Guard. A lighthouse on Howland Island is named in honor of the US aviatrix Amelia Earhart, who vanished en route to the island on a round-the-world flight in 1937.

JOHNSTON ATOLL

Johnston Atoll, located in the North Pacific 1,151 km (715 mi) sw of Honolulu, consists of two islands, Johnston (16° 44' N and 169° 31' W) and Sand (16° 45' N and 169° 30' W), with a total land and water area of about 2.6 sq km (1 sq mi). The islands are enclosed by a semicircular reef. It was discovered by English sailors in 1807 and claimed by the United States in 1858. For many years, it was worked for guano and was a bird reservation. Commissioned as a naval station in 1941, it remains an unincorporated US territory under the control of the US Department of the Air Force. In the 1950s and 1960s, it was used primarily for the testing of nuclear weapons. Until late in 2000, it was maintained as a storage and disposal site for chemical weapons. Munitions destruction is now complete, and cleanup and closure of the facility was completed by May 2005.

The population usually stood at 1,100 government personnel and contractors, but decreased significantly after the September 2001 departure of the US Army Chemical Activity Pacific (USACAP). As of May 2005, all US government personnel had left the island. The atoll is equipped with an excellent satellite and radio telecommunications system.

MIDWAY

The Midway Islands (28° 12'–17' N and 177° 19'–26' W) consist of an atoll and two small islets, Eastern Island (177° 20' W) and Sand Island (177° 22'–24' W), 2,100 km (1,300 mi) WNW of Honolulu. Total land and water area is 5 sq km (2 sq mi). As of 2005, 40 people made up the staff of the US Fish and Wildlife service on the atoll.

Discovered and claimed by the United States in 1859 and formally annexed in 1867, Midway became a submarine cable station early in the 20th century and an airlines station in 1935. Made a US naval base in 1941, Midway was attacked by the Japanese in December 1941 and January 1942. In one of the great battles of World War II, a Japanese naval attack on 3–6 June 1942 was repelled by US warplanes. Midway is a US unincorporated territory; there is a closed naval station, and the islands are important nesting places for seabirds. In 1993, administrative control of Midway was transferred from the US Department of the Navy to the US Department of the Interior's Fish and Wildlife Service.

NORTHERN MARIANAS

The Northern Marianas, a US commonwealth in the Western Pacific Ocean, is comprised of the Mariana Islands excluding Guam (a separate political entity). Located between 12° and 21° N and 144° and 146° E, it consists of 16 volcanic islands with a total land area of about 475 sq km (183.5 sq mi). Only six of the islands are inhabited, and most of the people live on the three largest is-

lands—Rota, 85 sq km (33 sq mi); Saipan, 122 sq km (47 sq mi); and Tinian, 101 sq km (39 sq mi).

The climate is tropical, with relatively little seasonal change; temperatures average 21–29°C (70–85°F), and relative humidity is generally high. Rainfall averages 216 cm (85 in) per year. The southern islands, which include Rota, Saipan, and Tinian, are generally lower and covered with moderately heavy tropical vegetation. The northern islands are more rugged, reaching a high point of 959 m (3,146 ft) on Agrihan, and are generally barren due to erosion and insufficient rainfall. Pagan and Agrihan have active volcanoes, and typhoons are common from August to November. Insects are numerous and ocean birds and fauna are abundant. The Marianas mallard is a local endangered species.

The Northern Marianas had an estimated population of 80,362 in mid-2005. Three-fourths of the population is descended from the original Micronesian inhabitants, known as Chamorros. There are also many descendants of migrants from the Caroline Islands and smaller numbers of Filipino and Korean laborers and settlers from the US mainland. English, Chamorro, and Carolinian are official languages. However, only 10.8% of the population speaks English in the home. About 90% of the people are Roman Catholic.

It is believed that the Marianas were settled by migrants from the Philippines and Indonesia. Excavations on Saipan have yielded evidence of settlement around 1500 BC. The first European to reach the Marianas, in 1521, was Ferdinand Magellan. The islands were ruled by Spain until the Spanish defeat by the United States in the Spanish-American War (1898). Guam was then ceded to the United States and the rest of the Marianas were sold to Germany. When World War I broke out, Japan took over the Northern Marianas and other German-held islands in the Western Pacific. These islands (the Northern Marianas, Carolines, and Marshalls) were placed under Japanese administration as a League of Nations mandate on 17 December 1920. Upon its withdrawal from the League in 1935, Japan began to fortify the islands, and in World War II they served as important military bases. Several of the islands were the scene of heavy fighting during the war. In the battle for control of Saipan in June 1944, some 23,000 Japanese and 3,500 US troops lost their lives in one day's fighting. As each island was occupied by US troops, it became subject to US authority in accordance with the international law of belligerent occupation. The US planes that dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, bringing an end to the war, took off from Tinian.

On 18 July 1947, the Northern Mariana, Caroline, and Marshall islands formally became a UN trust territory under US administration. This Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands was administered by the US Department of the Navy until 1 July 1951, when administration was transferred to the Department of the Interior. From 1953 to 1962, the Northern Marianas, with the exception of Rota, were administered by the Department of the Navy.

The people of the Northern Marianas voted to become a US commonwealth by a majority of 78.8% in a plebiscite held on 17 June 1975. A covenant approved by the US Congress in March 1976 provided for the separation of the Northern Marianas from the Caroline and Marshall island groups, and for the Marianas' transition to a commonwealth status similar to that of Puerto Rico. The islands became internally self-governing in January 1978. On 3 November 1986, US president Ronald Reagan pro-

claimed the Northern Marianas a self-governing commonwealth; its people became US citizens. The termination of the trusteeship was approved by the UN Trusteeship Council in May 1986 and received the required approval from the UN Security Council. On 3 November 1986, the Constitution of the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands came into force.

A governor and a lieutenant governor are popularly elected for four-year terms. The legislature consists of 9 senators elected for four-year terms and 18 representatives elected for two-year terms. A district court handles matters involving federal law and a commonwealth court has jurisdiction over local matters.

The traditional economic activities were subsistence agriculture, livestock raising, and fishing, but much agricultural land was destroyed or damaged during World War II and agriculture has never resumed its prewar importance. Garment production and tourism are the mainstays of the economy. Tourism employs about 50% of the work force. The construction industry is also expanding, and there is some small-scale industry, chiefly handicrafts and food processing.

The Northern Marianas is heavily dependent on federal funds. The United States also pays to lease property on Saipan, Tinian, and Farallon de Medinilla islands for defense purposes. The principal exports are garments, milk, and meat; imports include foods, petroleum, construction materials, and vehicles. US currency is the official medium of exchange.

Health care is primarily the responsibility of the commonwealth government and has improved substantially since 1978. Tuberculosis, once the major health problem, has been controlled. There is a hospital on Saipan and health centers on Tinian and Rota. The largest hospital in the commonwealth is a 76-bed, full service facility.

Education is free and compulsory for children between the ages of 8 and 14, and literacy is high. Northern Marianas College had an enrollment of 1,101 in 2006. There are 2 AM, 3 FM, and 1 television stations.

PALMYRA ATOLL

Palmyra, an atoll in the Central Pacific Ocean, containing some 50 islets with a total area of some 10 sq km (4 sq mi), is situated about 1,600 km (1,000 mi) ssw of Honolulu at 5° 52' N and 162° 5' W. It was discovered in 1802 by the USS *Palmyra* and formally annexed by the United States in 1912, and was under the jurisdiction of the city of Honolulu until 1959, when Hawaii became the 50th state of the United States. It is now the responsibility of the US Fish and Wildlife Service. The atoll is privately owned by the Nature Conservancy.

Kingman Reef, NW of Palmyra Atoll at 6° 25' N and 162° 23' N, was discovered by the United States in 1874, annexed by the United States in 1922, and became a naval reservation in 1934. Now abandoned, it is under the control of the US Department of the Navy. The reef only has an elevation of 1 m (3 ft) and is awash most of the time, making it hazardous for ships.

WAKE ISLAND

Wake Island, actually a coral atoll and three islets (Wake, Peale, and Wilkes) about 8 km (5 mi) long by 3.6 km (2.25 mi) wide, lies in the North Pacific 3,380 km (2,100 mi) W of Honolulu at 19° 17' N and 166° 35' E. The total land and water area is about 8 sq km (3 sq mi). Discovered by the British in 1796, Wake was long uninhabited.

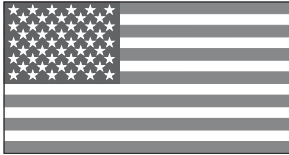
In 1898, a US expeditionary force en route to Manila landed on the island. The United States formally claimed Wake in 1899. It was made a US naval reservation in 1934, and became a civil aviation station in 1935. Captured by the Japanese on 23 December 1941, Wake was subsequently the target of several US air raids. It was surrendered by the Japanese in September 1945 and has thereafter remained a US unincorporated territory under the jurisdiction, since 1972, of the Department of the Air Force.

As of 2001, only around 200 contractor personnel inhabited Wake Island. The island was no longer being used for missile launches by the US Army's Space and Strategic Defense Command. It is a stopover and fueling station for civilian and military aircraft flying between Honolulu, Guam, and Japan.



UNITED STATES

United States of America



CAPITAL: Washington, D.C. (District of Columbia). **FLAG:** The flag consists of 13 alternate stripes, 7 red and 6 white; these represent the 13 original colonies. Fifty 5-pointed white stars, representing the present number of states in the Union, are placed in 9 horizontal rows alternately of 6 and 5 against a blue field in the upper left corner of the flag. **OFFICIAL SEAL:** Obverse: An American eagle with outstretched wings bears a shield consisting of 13 alternating white and red stripes with a broad blue band across the top. The right talon clutches an olive branch, representing peace; in the left are 13 arrows, symbolizing military strength. The eagle's beak holds a banner with the motto "E pluribus unum" (From many, one); overhead is a constellation of 13 five-pointed stars in a glory. Reverse: Above a truncated pyramid is an all-seeing eye within a triangle; at the bottom of this triangle appear the roman numerals MDCCLXXVI (1776). The pyramid stands on a grassy ground, against a backdrop of mountains. The words "Annuit Coeptis" (He has favored our undertakings) and, on a banner, "Novus Ordo Seclorum" (A new order of the ages) surround the whole. **ANTHEM:** The Star-Spangled Banner. **MOTTO:** In God We Trust. **MONETARY UNIT:** The dollar (\$) of 100 cents is a paper currency with a floating rate. There are coins of 1, 5, 10, 25, and 50 cents and 1 dollar, and notes of 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 dollars. Although issuance of higher notes ceased in 1969, a limited number of notes of 500, 1,000, 5,000, and 10,000 dollars remain in circulation. A gold-colored 1 dollar coin featuring Sacagawea was introduced in 2000. **WEIGHTS AND MEASURES:** The imperial system is in common use; however, the use of metrics in industry is increasing, and the metric system is taught in public schools throughout the United States. Common avoirdupois units in use are the avoirdupois pound of 16 oz or 453.5924277 gm; the long ton of 2,240 lb or 35,840 oz; and the short ton, more commonly used, of 2,000 lb or 32,000 oz. (Unless otherwise indicated, all measures given in tons are in short tons.) Liquid measures: 1 gallon = 231 cu in = 4 quarts = 8 pints. Dry measures: 1 bushel = 4 pecks = 32 dry quarts = 64 dry pints. Linear measures: 1 ft = 12 in; 1 statute mi = 1,760 yd = 5,280 ft. Metric equivalent: 1 m = 39.37 in. **FEDERAL HOLIDAYS:** New Year's Day, 1 January; Birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr., 3rd Monday in January; Lincoln's Birthday, 12 February (only in the northern and western states); Washington's Birthday, 3rd Monday in February; Memorial or Decoration Day, last Monday in May; Independence Day, 4 July; Labor Day, 1st Monday in September; Columbus Day, 2nd Monday in October; Election Day, 1st Tuesday after the 1st Monday in November; Veterans or Armistice Day, 11 November; Thanksgiving Day, 4th Thursday in November; Christmas, 25 December. **TIME:** Eastern, 7 am = noon GMT; Central, 6 am = noon GMT; Mountain, 5 am = noon GMT; Pacific (includes the Alaska panhandle), 4 am = noon GMT; Yukon, 3 am = noon GMT; Alaska and Hawaii, 2 am = noon GMT; western Alaska, 1 am = noon GMT.

¹LOCATION, SIZE, AND EXTENT

Located in the Western Hemisphere on the continent of North America, the United States is the fourth-largest country in the world. Its total area, including Alaska and Hawaii, is 9,629,091 sq km (3,717,813 sq mi). The conterminous United States extends 4,662 km (2,897 mi) ENE—WSW and 4,583 km (2,848 mi) SSE—NNW. It is bordered on the N by Canada, on the E by the Atlantic Ocean, on the S by the Gulf of Mexico and Mexico, and on the W by the Pacific Ocean, with a total boundary length of 17,563 km (10,913 mi). Alaska, the 49th state, extends 3,639 km (2,261 mi) E—W and 2,185 km (1,358 mi) N—S. It is bounded on the N by the Arctic Ocean and Beaufort Sea, on the E by Canada, on the S by the Gulf of Alaska, Pacific Ocean and Bering Sea, and on the W by the Bering Sea, Bering Strait, Chukchi Sea, and Arctic Ocean, with a total land boundary of 12,034 km (7,593 mi) and a coastline of 19,924 km (12,380 mi). The 50th state, Hawaii, consists of islands in the Pacific Ocean extending 2,536 km (1,576 mi) N—S

and 2,293 km (1,425 mi) E—W, with a general coastline of 1,207 km (750 mi).

The nation's capital, Washington, D.C., is located on the mid-Atlantic coast.

²TOPOGRAPHY

Although the northern New England coast is rocky, along the rest of the eastern seaboard the Atlantic Coastal Plain rises gradually from the shoreline. Narrow in the north, the plain widens to about 320 km (200 mi) in the south and in Georgia merges with the Gulf Coastal Plain that borders the Gulf of Mexico and extends through Mexico as far as the Yucatán. West of the Atlantic Coastal Plain is the Piedmont Plateau, bounded by the Appalachian Mountains. The Appalachians, which extend from southwest Maine into central Alabama—with special names in some areas—are old mountains, largely eroded away, with rounded contours and forested, as a rule, to the top. Few of their summits rise much above 1,100 m

(3,500 ft), although the highest, Mt. Mitchell in North Carolina, reaches 2,037 m (6,684 ft).

Between the Appalachians and the Rocky Mountains, more than 1,600 km (1,000 mi) to the west, lies the vast interior plain of the United States. Running south through the center of this plain and draining almost two-thirds of the area of the continental United States is the Mississippi River. Waters starting from the source of the Missouri, the longest of its tributaries, travel almost 6,450 km (4,000 mi) to the Gulf of Mexico.

The eastern reaches of the great interior plain are bounded on the north by the Great Lakes, which are thought to contain about half the world's total supply of fresh water. Under US jurisdiction are 57,441 sq km (22,178 sq mi) of Lake Michigan, 54,696 sq km (21,118 sq mi) of Lake Superior, 23,245 sq km (8,975 sq mi) of Lake Huron, 12,955 sq km (5,002 sq mi) of Lake Erie, and 7,855 sq km (3,033 sq mi) of Lake Ontario. The five lakes are now accessible to oceangoing vessels from the Atlantic via the St. Lawrence Seaway. The basins of the Great Lakes were formed by the glacial ice cap that moved down over large parts of North America some 25,000 years ago. The glaciers also determined the direction of flow of the Missouri River and, it is believed, were responsible for carrying soil from what is now Canada down into the central agricultural basin of the United States.

The great interior plain consists of two major subregions: the fertile Central Plains, extending from the Appalachian highlands to a line drawn approximately 480 km (300 mi) west of the Mississippi, broken by the Ozark Plateau; and the more arid Great Plains, extending from that line to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. Although they appear flat, the Great Plains rise gradually from about 460 m (1,500 ft) to more than 1,500 m (5,000 ft) at their western extremity.

The Continental Divide, the Atlantic-Pacific watershed, runs along the crest of the Rocky Mountains. The Rockies and the ranges to the west are parts of the great system of young, rugged mountains, shaped like a gigantic spinal column, that runs along western North, Central, and South America from Alaska to Tierra del Fuego, Chile. In the continental United States, the series of western ranges, most of them paralleling the Pacific coast, are the Sierra Nevada, the Coast Ranges, the Cascade Range, and the Tehachapi and San Bernardino mountains. Between the Rockies and the Sierra Nevada-Cascade mountain barrier to the west lies the Great Basin, a group of vast arid plateaus containing most of the desert areas of the United States, in the south eroded by deep canyons.

The coastal plains along the Pacific are narrow, and in many places the mountains plunge directly into the sea. The most extensive lowland near the west coast is the Great Valley of California, lying between the Sierra Nevada and the Coast Ranges. There are 71 peaks in these western ranges of the continental United States that rise to an altitude of 4,267 m (14,000 ft) or more, Mt. Whitney in California at 4,418 m (14,494 ft) being the highest. The greatest rivers of the Far West are the Colorado in the south, flowing into the Gulf of California, and the Columbia in the northwest, flowing to the Pacific. Each is more than 1,900 km (1,200 mi) long; both have been intensively developed to generate electric power, and both are important sources of irrigation.

Separated from the continental United States by Canadian territory, the state of Alaska occupies the extreme northwest portion of

the North American continent. A series of precipitous mountain ranges separates the heavily indented Pacific coast on the south from Alaska's broad central basin, through which the Yukon River flows from Canada in the east to the Bering Sea in the west. The central basin is bounded on the north by the Brooks Range, which slopes down gradually to the Arctic Ocean. The Alaskan Peninsula and the Aleutian Islands, sweeping west far out to sea, consist of a chain of volcanoes, many still active.

The state of Hawaii consists of a group of Pacific islands formed by volcanoes rising sharply from the ocean floor. The highest of these volcanoes, Mauna Loa, at 4,168 m (13,675 ft), is located on the largest of the islands, Hawaii, and is still active.

The lowest point in the United States is Death Valley in California, 86 m (282 ft) below sea level. At 6,194 m (20,320 ft), Mt. McKinley in Alaska is the highest peak in North America. These topographic extremes suggest the geological instability of the Pacific Coast region, which is part of the "Ring of Fire," a seismically active band surrounding the Pacific Ocean. Major earthquakes destroyed San Francisco in 1906 and Anchorage, Alaska, in 1964, and the San Andreas Fault in California still causes frequent earth tremors. In 2004, there was a total of 3550 U.S. earthquakes documented by the United States Geological Survey National Earthquake Information Center. Washington State's Mt. St. Helens erupted in 1980, spewing volcanic ash over much of the Northwest.

3 CLIMATE

The eastern continental region is well watered, with annual rainfall generally in excess of 100 cm (40 in). It includes all of the Atlantic seaboard and southeastern states and extends west to cover Indiana, southern Illinois, most of Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, and easternmost Texas. The eastern seaboard is affected primarily by the masses of air moving from west to east across the continent rather than by air moving in from the Atlantic. Hence its climate is basically continental rather than maritime. The midwestern and Atlantic seaboard states experience hot summers and cold winters; spring and autumn are clearly defined periods of climatic transition. Only Florida, with the Gulf of Mexico lying to its west, experiences moderate differences between summer and winter temperatures. Mean annual temperatures vary considerably between north and south: Boston, 11°C (51°F); New York City, 13°C (55°F); Charlotte, N.C., 16°C (61°F); Miami, Fla., 24°C (76°F).

The Gulf and South Atlantic states are often hit by severe tropical storms originating in the Caribbean in late summer and early autumn. In the past few years, the number of hurricanes and their severity have measurably increased. From 1970-94, there were about three hurricanes per year. From 1995 to 2003, there were a total of 32 major hurricanes with sustained winds of 111 miles per hour or greater.

In 2005 there were a record-breaking 23 named Atlantic hurricanes, three of which caused severe damage to the Gulf Coast region. On 25 August 2005, Hurricane Katrina hit Florida as a category 1 hurricane. By 29 August, the storm developed into a category 4 hurricane that made landfall in southern Louisiana. Several levees protecting the low-lying city of New Orleans broke, flooding the entire region under waters that rose over the rooftops of homes. Over 1,000 were killed by the storm. Over 500,000 people were left homeless and without jobs.



LOCATION: Conterminous US: 66°57' to 124°44' w; 24°33' to 49°23' n. Alaska: 130° w to 172°28' e; 51° to 71°23' n. Hawaii: 154°48' to 178°22' w 18°55' to 28°25' n. BOUNDARY LENGTHS: Conterminous US: Canada, 6,416 kilometers (3,987 miles); Atlantic Ocean, 3,330 kilometers (2,069 miles); Gulf of Mexico coastline, 2,625 kilometers (1,631 miles); Mexico, 3,111 kilometers (1,933 miles); Pacific coastline, 2,081 kilometers (1,293 miles). Alaska: Arctic Ocean coastline, 1,706 kilometers (1,060 miles); Canada, 2,475 kilometers (1,538 miles); Pacific coastline, including the Bering Sea and Strait and Chukchi coastlines, 8,980 kilometers (5,580 miles). Hawaii: coastline, 1,207 kilometers (750 miles).

One month later, Hurricane Rita swept first into Florida and continued to make landfall between Sabine Pass, Texas, and John's Bayou, Louisiana, on 24 September 2005 as a category 3 hurricane. Before reaching land, however, the storm had peaked as a

category 5 hurricane that was placed on record as the strongest measured hurricane to ever have entered the Gulf of Mexico and the fourth most intense hurricane ever in the Atlantic Basin. Over 100 people were killed.

Hurricane Wilma followed on 24 October when it made landfall north of Everglades City in Florida as a category 3 hurricane. There were about 22 deaths in the United States from Wilma; however, the storm also hit Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, and Mexico, reaching a death toll of at least 25 people from those countries combined.

The prairie lands lying to the west constitute a subhumid region. Precipitation usually exceeds evaporation by only a small amount; hence the region experiences drought more often than excessive rainfall. Dryness generally increases from east to west. The average midwinter temperature in the extreme north—Minnesota and North Dakota—is about -13°C (9°F) or less, while the average July temperature is 18°C (65°F). In the Texas prairie region to the south, January temperatures average $10\text{--}13^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($50\text{--}55^{\circ}\text{F}$) and July temperatures $27\text{--}29^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($80\text{--}85^{\circ}\text{F}$). Rainfall along the western border of the prairie region is as low as 46 cm (18 in) per year in the north and 64 cm (25 in) in the south. Precipitation is greatest in the early summer—a matter of great importance to agriculture, particularly in the growing of grain crops. In dry years, the prevailing winds may carry the topsoil eastward (particularly from the southern region) for hundreds of miles in clouds that obscure the sun.

The Great Plains constitute a semiarid climatic region. Rainfall in the southern plains averages about 50 cm (20 in) per year and in the northern plains about 25 cm (10 in), but extreme year-to-year variations are common. The tropical air masses that move northward across the plains originate on the fairly high plateaus of Mexico and contain little water vapor. Periods as long as 120 days without rain have been experienced in this region. The rains that do occur are often violent, and a third of the total annual rainfall may be recorded in a single day at certain weather stations. The contrast between summer and winter temperatures is extreme throughout the Great Plains. Maximum summer temperatures of over 43°C (110°F) have been recorded in the northern as well as in the southern plains. From the Texas panhandle north, blizzards are common in the winter, and tornadoes at other seasons. The average minimum temperature for January in Duluth, Minn., is -19°C (-3°F).

The higher reaches of the Rockies and the mountains paralleling the Pacific coast to the west are characterized by a typical alpine climate. Precipitation as a rule is heavier on the western slopes of the ranges. The great intermontane arid region of the West shows

considerable climatic variation between its northern and southern portions. In New Mexico, Arizona, and southeastern California, the greatest precipitation occurs in July, August, and September, mean annual rainfall ranging from 8 cm (3 in) in Yuma, Ariz., to 76 cm (30 in) in the mountains of northern Arizona and New Mexico. Phoenix has a mean annual temperature of 22°C (71°F), rising to 33°C (92°F) in July and falling to 11°C (52°F) in January. North of the Utah-Arizona line, the summer months usually are very dry; maximum precipitation occurs in the winter and early spring. In the desert valleys west of Great Salt Lake, mean annual precipitation adds up to only 10 cm (4 in). Although the northern plateaus are generally arid, some of the mountainous areas of central Washington and Idaho receive at least 152 cm (60 in) of rain per year. Throughout the intermontane region, the uneven availability of water is the principal factor shaping the habitat.

The Pacific coast, separated by tall mountain barriers from the severe continental climate to the east, is a region of mild winters and moderately warm, dry summers. Its climate is basically maritime, the westerly winds from the Pacific Ocean moderating the extremes of both winter and summer temperatures. Los Angeles in the south has an average temperature of 13°C (56°F) in January and 21°C (69°F) in July; Seattle in the north has an average temperature of 4°C (39°F) in January and 18°C (65°F) in July. Precipitation in general increases along the coast from south to north, extremes ranging from an annual average of 4.52 cm (1.78 in) at Death Valley in California (the lowest in the United States) to more than 356 cm (140 in) in Washington's Olympic Mountains.

Climatic conditions vary considerably in the vastness of Alaska. In the fogbound Aleutians and in the coastal panhandle strip that extends southeastward along the Gulf of Alaska and includes the capital, Juneau, a relatively moderate maritime climate prevails. The interior is characterized by short, hot summers and long, bitterly cold winters, and in the region bordering the Arctic Ocean a polar climate prevails, the soil hundreds of feet below the surface remaining frozen the year round. Although snowy in winter, continental Alaska is relatively dry.

Hawaii has a remarkably mild and stable climate with only slight seasonal variations in temperature, as a result of northeast ocean winds. The mean January temperature in Honolulu is 23°C (73°F); the mean July temperature 27°C (80°F). Rainfall is moderate—about 71 cm (28 in) per year—but much greater in the mountains;

United States—Outlying Areas of the United States¹

NAME	AREA SQ MI	SQ KM	CAPITAL	YEAR OF ACQUISITION	POPULATION 1980	POPULATION 1999
Puerto Rico	3,515	9,104	San Juan	1898	3,196,520	3,887,652
Virgin Islands of the United States	136	352	Charlotte Amalie	1917	96,569	119,827
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, of which:	713	1,847	Saipan	1947	132,929	87,865
Northern Marianas ²	182	471	Saipan ³	—	16,780	69,398
Republic of Palau ²	191	495	Koror ³	—	12,116	18,467
Other Pacific territories:						
American Samoa	77	199	Pago Pago	1899	32,297	63,786
Guam	209	541	Agaña	1898	105,979	151,716
Midway Islands	2	5	—	1867	468	n.a.
Wake Island	3	8	—	1899	302	n.a.

¹Excludes minor and uninhabited islands.

²Although governed under separate constitutional arrangements by the mid-1980s, these territories formally remained part of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands pending action by the US Congress, the US president, and the UN Security Council.

³Centers of constitutional government. The entire Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands is administered from Saipan.

Mt. Waialeale on Kauai has a mean annual rainfall of 1,168 cm (460 in), highest in the world.

The lowest temperature recorded in the United States was -62°C (-79.8°F) at Prospect Creek Camp, Alaska, on 23 January 1971; the highest, 57°C (134°F) at Greenland Ranch, in Death Valley, Calif., on 10 July 1913. The record annual rainfall is 1,878 cm (739 in) recorded at Kukui, Maui in 1982; the previous record for a one-year period was 1,468 cm (578 in) recorded at Fuu Kukui, Maui, in 1950; in 1 hour, 30 cm (12 in), at Holt, Mo., on 22 June 1947, and on Kauai, Hawaii, on 24–25 January 1956.

4 FLORA AND FAUNA

At least 7,000 species and subspecies of indigenous US flora have been categorized. The eastern forests contain a mixture of softwoods and hardwoods that includes pine, oak, maple, spruce, beech, birch, hemlock, walnut, gum, and hickory. The central hardwood forest, which originally stretched unbroken from Cape Cod to Texas and northwest to Minnesota—still an important timber source—supports oak, hickory, ash, maple, and walnut. Pine, hickory, tupelo, pecan, gum, birch, and sycamore are found in the southern forest that stretches along the Gulf coast into the eastern half of Texas. The Pacific forest is the most spectacular of all because of its enormous redwoods and Douglas firs. In the southwest are saguaro (giant cactus), yucca, candlewood, and the Joshua tree.

The central grasslands lie in the interior of the continent, where the moisture is not sufficient to support the growth of large forests. The tall grassland or prairie (now almost entirely under cultivation) lies to the east of the 100th meridian. To the west of this line, where rainfall is frequently less than 50 cm (20 in) per year, is the short grassland. Mesquite grass covers parts of west Texas, southern New Mexico, and Arizona. Short grass may be found in the highlands of the latter two states, while tall grass covers large portions of the coastal regions of Texas and Louisiana and occurs in some parts of Mississippi, Alabama, and Florida. The Pacific grassland includes northern Idaho, the higher plateaus of eastern Washington and Oregon, and the mountain valleys of California.

The intermontane region of the Western Cordillera is for the most part covered with desert shrubs. Sagebrush predominates in the northern part of this area, creosote in the southern, with saltbrush near the Great Salt Lake and in Death Valley.

The lower slopes of the mountains running up to the coastline of Alaska are covered with coniferous forests as far north as the Seward Peninsula. The central part of the Yukon Basin is also a region of softwood forests. The rest of Alaska is heath or tundra. Hawaii has extensive forests of bamboo and ferns. Sugarcane and pineapple, although not native to the islands, now cover a large portion of the cultivated land.

Small trees and shrubs common to most of the United States include hackberry, hawthorn, serviceberry, blackberry, wild cherry, dogwood, and snowberry. Wildflowers bloom in all areas, from the seldom-seen blossoms of rare desert cacti to the hardiest alpine species. Wildflowers include forget-me-not, fringed and closed gentians, jack-in-the-pulpit, black-eyed Susan, columbine, and common dandelion, along with numerous varieties of aster, orchid, lady's slipper, and wild rose.

An estimated 428 species of mammals characterize the animal life of the continental United States. Among the larger game ani-

mals are the white-tailed deer, moose, pronghorn antelope, bighorn sheep, mountain goat, black bear, and grizzly bear. The Alaskan brown bear often reaches a weight of 1,200–1,400 lbs. Some 25 important furbearers are common, including the muskrat, red and gray foxes, mink, raccoon, beaver, opossum, striped skunk, woodchuck, common cottontail, snowshoe hare, and various squirrels. Human encroachment has transformed the mammalian habitat over the last two centuries. The American buffalo (bison), millions of which once roamed the plains, is now found only on select reserves. Other mammals, such as the elk and gray wolf, have been restricted to much smaller ranges.

Year-round and migratory birds abound. Loons, wild ducks, and wild geese are found in lake country; terns, gulls, sandpipers, herons, and other seabirds live along the coasts. Wrens, thrushes, owls, hummingbirds, sparrows, woodpeckers, swallows, chickadees, vireos, warblers, and finches appear in profusion, along with the robin, common crow, cardinal, Baltimore oriole, eastern and western meadowlarks, and various blackbirds. Wild turkey, ruffed grouse, and ring-necked pheasant (introduced from Europe) are popular game birds. There are at least 508 species of birds found throughout the country.

Lakes, rivers, and streams teem with trout, bass, perch, muskellunge, carp, catfish, and pike; sea bass, cod, snapper, and flounder are abundant along the coasts, along with such shellfish as lobster, shrimp, clams, oysters, and mussels. Garter, pine, and milk snakes are found in most regions. Four poisonous snakes survive, of which the rattlesnake is the most common. Alligators appear in southern waterways and the Gila monster makes its home in the Southwest.

Laws and lists designed to protect threatened and endangered flora and fauna have been adopted throughout the United States. Generally, each species listed as protected by the federal government is also protected by the states, but some states may list species not included on federal lists or on the lists of neighboring states. (Conversely, a species threatened throughout most of the United States may be abundant in one or two states.) As of November 2005, the US Fish and Wildlife Service listed 997 endangered US species (up from 751 listed in 1996), including 68 species of mammals, 77 birds, 74 fish, and 599 plants; and 275 threatened species (209 in 1996), including 11 species of mammals, 13 birds, 42 fish, and 146 plants. The agency listed another 520 endangered and 46 threatened foreign species by international agreement.

Threatened species, likely to become endangered if recent trends continue, include such plants as Lee pincushion cactus. Among the endangered floral species (in imminent danger of extinction in the wild) are the Virginia round-leaf birch, San Clemente Island broom, Texas wild-rice, Furbish lousewort, Truckee barberberry, Sneed pincushion cactus, spineless hedgehog cactus, Knowlton cactus, persistent trillium, dwarf bear-poppy, and small whorled pogonia.

Endangered mammals included the red wolf, black-footed ferret, jaguar, key deer, northern swift fox, San Joaquin kit fox, jaguar, jaguarundi, Florida manatee, ocelot, Florida panther, Utah prairie dog, Sonoran pronghorn, and numerous whale species. Endangered species of rodents included the Delmarva Peninsula fox squirrel, beach mouse, salt-marsh harvest mouse, 7 species of bat (Virginia and Ozark big-eared Sanborn's and Mexican long-nosed,

Hawaiian hoary, Indiana, and gray), and the Morro Ba, Fresno, Stephens', and Tipton Kangaroo rats and rice rat.

Endangered species of birds included the California condor, bald eagle, three species of falcon (American peregrine, tundra peregrine, and northern aplomado), Eskimo curlew, two species of crane (whooping and Mississippi sandhill), three species of warbler (Kirtland's, Bachman's, and golden-cheeked), dusky seaside sparrow, light-footed clapper rail, least tern, San Clemente loggerhead shrike, bald eagle (endangered in most states, but only threatened in the Northwest and the Great Lakes region), Hawaii creeper, Everglade kite, California clapper rail, and red-cockaded woodpecker. Endangered amphibians included four species of salamander (Santa Cruz long-toed, Shenandoah, desert slender, and Texas blind), Houston and Wyoming toad, and six species of turtle (green sea, hawksbill, Kemp's ridley, Plymouth and Alabama red-bellied, and leatherback). Endangered reptiles included the American crocodile, (blunt nosed leopard and island night), and San Francisco garter snake.

Aquatic species included the shortnose sturgeon, Gila trout, eight species of chub (humpback, Pahranaagat, Yaqui, Mohave tui, Owens tui, bonytail, Virgin River, and Borax lake), Colorado River squawfish, five species of dace (Kendall Warm Springs, and Clover Valley, Independence Valley, Moapa and Ash Meadows speckled), Modoc sucker, cui-ui, Smoky and Scioto madtom, seven species of pupfish (Leon Springs, Gila Desert, Ash Meadows Amargosa, Warm Springs, Owens, Devil's Hole, and Comanche Springs), Pahrump killifish, four species of gambusia (San Marcos, Pecos, Amistad, Big Bend, and Clear Creek), six species of darter (fountain, watercress, Okaloosa, boulder, Maryland, and amber), totoaba, and 32 species of mussel and pearly mussel. Also classified as endangered were two species of earthworm (Washington giant and Oregon giant), the Socorro isopod, San Francisco forktail damselfly, Ohio emerald dragonfly, three species of beetle (Kretschmarr Cave, Tooth Cave, and giant carrion), Belkin's dune tabanid fly, and 10 species of butterfly (Schaus' swallowtail, lotis, mission, El Segundo, and Palos Verde blue, Mitchell's satyr, Uncompahgre fritillary, Lange's metalmark, San Bruno elfin, and Smith's blue).

Endangered plants in the United States include: aster, cactus, pea, mustard, mint, mallow, bellflower and pink family, snapdragon, and buckwheat. Several species on the federal list of endangered and threatened wildlife and plants are found only in Hawaii. Endangered bird species in Hawaii included the Hawaiian dark-rumped petrel, Hawaiian gallinule, Hawaiian crow, three species of thrush (Kauai, Molokai, and puaiohi), Kauai 'o'o, Kauai nukupu'u, Kauai 'alialoa, 'akiapola'au, Maui'akepa, Molokai creeper, Oahu creeper, palila, and 'o'u.

Species formerly listed as threatened or endangered that have been removed from the list include (with delisting year and reason) American alligator (1987, recovered); coastal cutthroat trout (2000, taxonomic revision); Bahama swallowtail butterfly (1984, amendment); gray whale (1994, recovered); brown pelican (1984, recovered); Rydberg milk-vetch (1987, new information); Lloyd's hedgehog cactus (1999, taxonomic revision), and Columbian white-tailed Douglas County Deer (2003, recovered).

There are at least 250 species of plants and animals that have become extinct, including the Wyoming toad, the Central Valley

grasshopper, Labrador duck, Carolina parakeet, Hawaiian crow, chestnut moth, and the Franklin tree.

5 ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

The Council on Environmental Quality, an advisory body contained within the Executive Office of the President, was established by the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969, which mandated an assessment of environmental impact for every federally funded project. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), created in 1970, is an independent body with primary regulatory responsibility in the fields of air and noise pollution, water and waste management, and control of toxic substances. Other federal agencies with environmental responsibilities are the Forest Service and Soil Conservation Service within the Department of Agriculture, the Fish and Wildlife Service and the National Park Service within the Department of the Interior, the Department of Energy, and the Nuclear Regulatory Commission. In addition to the 1969 legislation, landmark federal laws protecting the environment include the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1970 and 1990, controlling automobile and electric utility emissions; the Water Pollution Act of 1972, setting clean-water criteria for fishing and swimming; and the Endangered Species Act of 1973, protecting wildlife near extinction.

A measure enacted in December 1980 established a \$1.6-billion "Superfund," financed largely by excise taxes on chemical companies, to clean up toxic waste dumps such as the one in the Love Canal district of Niagara Falls, N.Y. In 2005, there were 1,238 hazardous waste sites on the Superfund's national priority list.

The most influential environmental lobbies include the Sierra Club (founded in 1892; 700,000 members in 2003) and its legal arm, the Sierra Club Legal Defense Fund. Large conservation groups include the National Wildlife Federation (1936; over 4,000,000), the National Audubon Society (1905; 600,000), and the Nature Conservancy (1917; 1,000,000). Greenpeace USA (founded in 1979) has gained international attention by seeking to disrupt hunts for whales and seals.

Among the environmental movement's most notable successes have been the inauguration (and mandating in some states) of recycling programs; the banning in the United States of the insecticide dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT); the successful fight against construction of a supersonic transport (SST); and the protection of more than 40 million hectares (100 million acres) of Alaska lands (after a fruitless fight to halt construction of the trans-Alaska pipeline); and the gradual elimination of chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) production by 2000. In March 2003, the US Senate narrowly voted to reject a Bush administration plan to begin oil exploration in the 19 million acre (7.7 million hectare) Arctic National Wildlife Refuge (ANWR). In 2003, about 25.9% of the total land area was protected. The United States has 12 natural UNESCO World Heritage Sites and 22 Ramsar wetland sites. Yellowstone National Park, founded in 1872, was the first national park established worldwide.

Outstanding problems include acid rain (precipitation contaminated by fossil fuel wastes); inadequate facilities for solid waste disposal; air pollution from industrial emissions (the United States leads the world in carbon dioxide emissions from the burning of fossil fuels); the contamination of homes by radon, a radio-

United States—State Areas, Entry Dates, and Populations

STATE	TOTAL AREA		RANK	CAPITAL	ENTRY ORDER	DATE OF ENTRY	POPULATION		
	SQ MILE	SQ KM					AT ENTRY†	CENSUS 1990	CENSUS 2000
Alabama	51,705	133,916	19	Montgomery	22	14 December 1819	127,901	4,040,587	4,447,100
Alaska	591,004	1,530,699	1	Juneau	49	3 January 1959	226,167	550,043	626,932
Arizona	114,000	295,260	6	Phoenix	48	14 February 1912	204,354	3,665,228	5,130,632
Arkansas	53,187	137,754	27	Little Rock	25	15 June 1836	57,574	2,350,725	2,673,400
California	158,706	411,048	3	Sacramento	31	9 September 1850	92,597	29,760,021	33,871,648
Colorado	104,091	269,595	8	Denver	38	1 August 1876	39,864	3,294,394	4,301,261
Connecticut*	5,018	12,997	48	Hartford	5	9 January 1788	237,946	3,287,116	3,405,565
Delaware*	2,044	5,294	49	Dover	1	7 December 1787	59,096	666,168	783,600
Florida	58,664	151,940	22	Tallahassee	27	3 March 1845	87,445	12,937,926	15,982,378
Georgia*	58,910	152,577	21	Atlanta	4	2 January 1788	82,548	6,478,316	8,186,453
Hawaii	6,471	16,760	47	Honolulu	50	21 August 1959	632,772	1,108,229	1,211,537
Idaho	83,564	216,431	13	Boise	43	3 July 1890	88,548	1,006,749	1,293,953
Illinois	56,345	145,933	24	Springfield	21	3 December 1818	55,211	11,430,602	12,419,293
Indiana	36,185	93,719	38	Indianapolis	19	11 December 1816	147,178	5,544,159	6,080,485
Iowa	56,275	145,752	25	Des Moines	29	28 December 1846	192,214	2,776,755	2,926,324
Kansas	82,277	213,097	14	Topeka	34	29 January 1861	107,206	2,477,574	2,688,418
Kentucky	40,409	104,659	37	Frankfort	15	1 June 1792	73,677	3,685,296	4,041,769
Louisiana	47,752	123,678	31	Baton Rouge	18	30 April 1812	76,556	4,219,973	4,468,976
Maine	33,265	86,156	39	Augusta	23	15 March 1820	298,335	1,227,928	1,274,923
Maryland*	10,460	27,091	42	Annapolis	7	28 April 1788	319,728	4,781,468	5,296,486
Massachusetts*	8,284	21,456	45	Boston	6	6 February 1788	378,787	6,016,425	6,349,097
Michigan	58,527	151,585	23	Lansing	26	26 January 1837	212,267	9,295,297	9,938,444
Minnesota	84,402	218,601	12	St. Paul	32	11 May 1858	172,023	4,375,099	4,919,497
Mississippi	47,689	123,514	32	Jackson	20	10 December 1817	75,448	2,573,216	2,844,658
Missouri	69,697	180,515	19	Jefferson City	24	10 August 1821	66,586	5,117,073	5,595,211
Montana	147,046	380,849	4	Helena	41	8 November 1889	142,924	799,065	902,195
Nebraska	77,355	200,349	15	Lincoln	37	1 March 1867	122,993	1,578,385	1,711,263
Nevada	110,561	286,353	7	Carson City	36	31 October 1864	42,491	1,201,833	1,998,257
New Hampshire*	9,279	24,033	44	Concord	9	21 June 1788	141,885	1,109,252	1,235,786
New Jersey*	7,787	20,168	46	Trenton	3	18 December 1787	184,139	7,730,188	8,414,350
New Mexico	121,593	314,926	5	Santa Fe	47	6 January 1912	327,301	1,515,069	1,819,046
New York*	49,108	127,190	30	Albany	11	26 July 1788	340,120	17,990,455	18,976,457
North Carolina*	52,669	136,413	28	Raleigh	12	21 November 1789	393,751	6,628,637	8,049,313
North Dakota	70,702	183,118	17	Bismarck	39	2 November 1889	190,983	638,800	642,200
Ohio	41,330	107,045	35	Columbus	17	1 March 1803††	43,365	10,847,115	11,353,140
Oklahoma	69,956	181,186	18	Oklahoma City	46	16 November 1907	657,155	3,145,585	3,450,654
Oregon	97,073	251,419	10	Salem	33	14 February 1859	52,465	2,842,321	3,421,399
Pennsylvania*	45,308	117,348	33	Harrisburg	2	12 December 1787	434,373	11,003,464	12,281,054
Rhode Island*	1,212	3,139	50	Providence	13	29 May 1790	68,825	1,003,464	1,048,319
South Carolina*	31,113	80,583	40	Columbia	8	23 May 1788	393,751	3,486,703	4,012,012
South Dakota	77,116	199,730	16	Pierre	40	2 November 1889	348,600	696,004	754,844
Tennessee	42,144	109,153	34	Nashville	16	1 June 1796	35,691	4,877,185	5,689,283
Texas	266,807	691,030	2	Austin	28	29 December 1845	212,592	16,986,510	20,851,820
Utah	84,899	219,888	11	Salt Lake City	45	4 January 1896	276,749	1,722,850	2,233,169
Vermont	9,614	24,900	43	Montpelier	14	4 March 1791	85,425	562,758	608,827
Virginia*	40,767	105,586	36	Richmond	10	25 June 1788	747,610	6,187,358	7,078,515
Washington	68,139	176,480	20	Olympia	42	11 November 1889	357,232	4,866,692	5,894,121
West Virginia	24,231	62,758	41	Charleston	35	20 June 1863	442,014	1,793,477	1,808,344
Wisconsin	56,153	145,436	26	Madison	30	29 May 1848	305,391	4,891,769	5,363,675
Wyoming	97,809	253,325	9	Cheyenne	44	10 July 1890	62,555	453,588	493,782

†Census closest to entry date.

††Date fixed in 1953 by congressional resolution.

*One of original 13 colonies.

active gas that is produced by the decay of underground deposits of radium and can cause cancer; runoffs of agricultural pesticides, pollutants deadly to fishing streams and very difficult to regulate; continued dumping of raw or partially treated sewage from major cities into US waterways; falling water tables in many western states; the decrease in arable land because of depletion, erosion, and urbanization; the need for reclamation of strip-mined lands and for regulation of present and future strip mining; and the expansion of the US nuclear industry in the absence of a fully sat-

isfactory technique for the handling and permanent disposal of radioactive wastes.

6 POPULATION

The population of United States in 2005 was estimated by the United Nations (UN) at 296,483,000, which placed it at number 3 in population among the 193 nations of the world. In 2005, approximately 12% of the population was over 65 years of age, with another 21% of the population under 15 years of age. There were

97 males for every 100 females in the country. According to the UN, the annual population rate of change for 2005–2010 was expected to be 0.6%, a rate the government viewed as satisfactory. The projected population for the year 2025 was 349,419,000. The population density was 207 per sq km (80 per sq mi), with major population concentrations are along the northeast Atlantic coast and the southwest Pacific coast. The population is most dense between New York City and Washington, D.C.

At the time of the first federal census, in 1790, the population of the United States was 3,929,214. Between 1800 and 1850, the population almost quadrupled; between 1850 and 1900, it tripled; and between 1900 and 1950, it almost doubled. During the 1960s and 1970s, however, the growth rate slowed steadily, declining from 2.9% annually in 1960 to 2% in 1969 and to less than 1% from the 1980s through 2000. The population has aged: the median age of the population increased from 16.7 years in 1820 to 22.9 years in 1900 and to 34.3 years in 1995.

Suburbs have absorbed most of the shift in population distribution since 1950. The UN estimated that 79% of the population lived in urban areas in 2005, and that urban areas were growing at an annual rate of 1.33%. The capital city, Washington, D.C. (District of Columbia), had a population of 4,098,000 in that year. Other major metropolitan areas and their estimated populations include: New York, 18,498,000; Los Angeles, 12,146,000; Chicago, 8,711,000; Dallas, 4,612,000; Houston, 4,283,000; Philadelphia, 5,325,000; San Diego, 2,818,000; and Phoenix, 3,393,000. Major cities can be found throughout the United States.

7 ETHNIC GROUPS

The majority of the population of the United States is of European origin, with the largest groups having primary ancestry traceable to the United Kingdom, Germany, and Ireland; many Americans report multiple ancestries. According to 2004 American Community Survey estimates, about 75.6% of the total population are white, 12.1% are blacks and African Americans, and 4.2% are Asian. Native Americans (including Alaskan Natives) account for about 0.8% of the total population. About 1.8% of the population claim a mixed ancestry of two or more races. About 11.9% of all US citizens are foreign-born, with the largest numbers of people coming from Latin America (17,973,287) and Asia (9,254,705).

Some Native American societies survived the initial warfare with land-hungry white settlers and retained their tribal cultures. Their survival, however, has been on the fringes of North American society, especially as a result of the implementation of a national policy of resettling Native American tribes on reservations. In 2004, estimates place the number of Native Americans (including Alaska Natives) at 2,151,322. The number of those who claim mixed Native American and white racial backgrounds is estimated at 1,370,675; the 2004 estimate for mixed Native American and African American ancestry was 204,832. The largest single tribal grouping is the Cherokee, with about 331,491 people. The Navajo account for about 230,401 people, the Chippewa for 92,041 people, and the Sioux for 67,666 people. Groups of Native Americans are found most numerous in the southwestern states of Oklahoma, Arizona, New Mexico, and California. The 1960s and 1970s saw successful court fights by Native Americans in Alaska, Maine, South Dakota, and other states to regain tribal lands or to receive

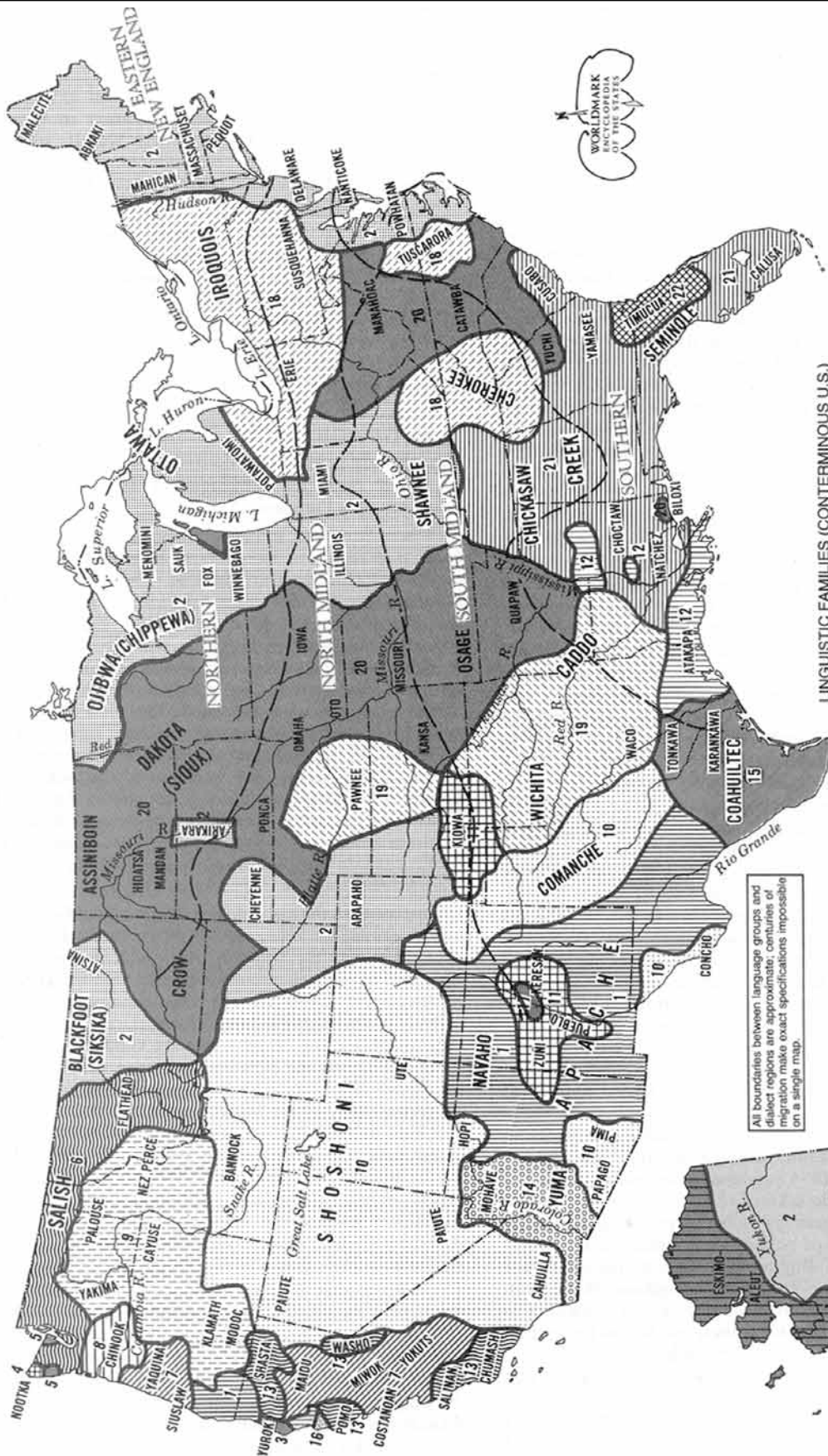
cash settlements for lands taken from them in violation of treaties during the 1800s.

The black and African American population in 2004 was estimated at 34,772,381, with the majority still residing in the South, the region that absorbed most of the slaves brought from Africa in the 18th and 19th centuries. About 1,141,232 people claimed mixed black and white ethnicity. Two important regional migrations of blacks have taken place: (1) a “Great Migration” to the North, commencing in 1915, and (2) a small but then unprecedented westward movement beginning about 1940. Both migrations were fostered by wartime demands for labor and by postwar job opportunities in northern and western urban centers. More than three out of four black Americans live in metropolitan areas, notably in Washington, D.C., Atlanta, Chicago, Detroit, New Orleans, Newark, Baltimore, and New York City, which had the largest number of black residents. Large-scale federal programs to ensure equality for African Americans in voting rights, public education, employment, and housing were initiated after the historic 1954 Supreme Court ruling that barred racial segregation in public schools. By 1966, however, in the midst of growing and increasingly violent expressions of dissatisfaction by black residents of northern cities and southern rural areas, the federal Civil Rights Commission reported that integration programs were lagging. Throughout the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s, the unemployment rate among nonwhites in the United States was at least double that for whites, and school integration proceeded slowly, especially outside the South.

Also included in the US population are a substantial number of persons whose lineage can be traced to Asian and Pacific nationalities, chiefly Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Indian, Korean, and Vietnamese. The Chinese population is highly urbanized and concentrated particularly in cities of over 100,000 population, mostly on the West Coast and in New York City. According to 2004 estimates, there are over 2.8 million Chinese in the United States. Asian Indians are the next largest group of Asians with over 2.2 million people in 2004. About 2.1 million people are Filipino. The Japanese population has risen steadily from a level of 72,157 in 1910 to about 832,039 in 2004. Hawaii has been the most popular magnet of Japanese emigration. Most Japanese in California were farmers until the outbreak of World War II, when they were interned and deprived of their landholdings; after the war, most entered the professions and other urban occupations.

Hispanics or Latinos make up about 14% of the population according to 2004 estimates. It is important to note, however, that the designation of Hispanic or Latino applies to those who are of Latin American descent; these individuals may also belong to white, Asian, or black racial groups. Although Mexicans in the 21st century were still concentrated in the Southwest, they have settled throughout the United States; there are over 25 million Mexicans in the country. Spanish-speaking Puerto Ricans, who often represent an amalgam of racial strains, have largely settled in the New York metropolitan area, where they partake in considerable measure of the hardships and problems experienced by other immigrant groups in the process of settling in the United States; there are about 3.8 million Puerto Ricans in the country. Since 1959, many Cubans have settled in Florida and other eastern states. As of 2004, there are about 1.4 million Cubans in the United States.

INDIGENOUS INDIAN LANGUAGE GROUPS AND MAJOR DIALECT REGIONS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH



- Major American Indian Tribes**
- 21 Muskogean
 - 22 Timucuan
 - SHAWNEE
 - SOUTHERN

- LINGUISTIC FAMILIES (CONTERMINOUS U.S.)**
- 16 Yukian
 - 17 Keresan
 - 18 Iroquoian
 - 19 Caddoan
 - 20 Siouan-Yuchi
 - Coahuiltecan
 - 11 Pueblo
 - 12 Tunican
 - 13 Hokan
 - 14 Yuman
 - 15 Uto-Aztecan
 - 6 Salishan
 - 7 Penutian
 - 8 Chinookan
 - 9 Shapathanian

- 1 Athapaskan
- 2 Algonkian
- 3 Ritwan
- 4 Wakashan
- 5 Chimakuan

- LINGUISTIC FAMILIES (ALASKA)**
- 1 Eskimo-Aleut
 - 2 Tlingit

All boundaries between language groups and dialect regions are approximate; centuries of migration make exact specifications impossible on a single map.



8 LANGUAGES

The primary language of the United States is English, enriched by words borrowed from the languages of Indians and immigrants, predominantly European. Very early English borrowed from neighboring French speakers such words as *shivaree*, *butte*, *levee*, and *prairie*; from German, *sauerkraut*, *smearcase*, and *cranberry*; from Dutch, *stoop*, *spook*, and *cookie*; and from Spanish, *tornado*, *corral*, *ranch*, and *canyon*. From various West African languages, blacks have given English *jazz*, *voodoo*, and *okra*. According to 2004 estimates of primary languages spoken at home, about 81% of the population speak English only.

When European settlement began, Indians living north of Mexico spoke about 300 different languages now held to belong to 58 different language families. Only 2 such families have contributed noticeably to the American vocabulary: Algonkian in the Northeast and Aztec-Tanoan in the Southwest. From Algonkian languages, directly or sometimes through Canadian French, English has taken such words as *moose*, *skunk*, *caribou*, *opossum*, *woodchuck*, and *raccoon* for New World animals; *hickory*, *squash*, and *tamarack* for New World flora; and *succotash*, *hominy*, *mackinaw*, *moccasin*, *tomahawk*, *toboggan*, and *totem* for various cultural items. From Nahuatl, the language of the Aztecs, terms such as *tomato*, *mesquite*, *coyote*, *chili*, *tamale*, *chocolate*, and *ocelot* have entered English, largely by way of Spanish. A bare handful of words come from other Indian language groups, such as *tepee* from Dakota Siouan, *catalpa* from Creek, *sequoia* from Cherokee, *hogan* from Navaho, and *sockeye* from Salish, as well as *cayuse* from Chinook.

Professional dialect research, initiated in Germany in 1878 and in France in 1902, did not begin in the United States until 1931, in connection with the *Linguistic Atlas of New England* (1939–43). This kind of research, requiring trained field-workers to interview representative informants in their homes, subsequently was extended to the entire Atlantic Coast, the north-central states, the upper Midwest, the Pacific Coast, the Gulf states, and Oklahoma. The New England atlas, the *Linguistic Atlas of the Upper Midwest* (1973–76), and the first two fascicles of the *Linguistic Atlas of the Middle and South Atlantic States* (1980) have been published, along with three volumes based on Atlantic Coast field materials. Also published or nearing publication are atlases of the north-central states, the Gulf states, and Oklahoma. In other areas, individual dialect researchers have produced more specialized studies. The definitive work on dialect speech, the American Dialect Society's monumental *Dictionary of American Regional English*, began publication in 1985.

Dialect studies confirm that standard English is not uniform throughout the country. Major regional variations reflect patterns of colonial settlement, dialect features from England having dominated particular areas along the Atlantic Coast and then spread westward along the three main migration routes through the Appalachian system. Dialectologists recognize three main dialects—Northern, Midland, and Southern—each with subdivisions related to the effect of mountain ranges and rivers and railroads on population movement.

The Northern dialect is that of New England and its derivative settlements in New York; the northern parts of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa; and Michigan, Wisconsin, northeastern South Dakota, and North Dakota. A major subdivision is that of New

England east of the Connecticut River, an area noted typically by the loss of /r/ after a vowel, and by the pronunciation of *can't*, *dance*, *half*, and *bath* with a vowel more like that in *father* than that in *fat*. Generally, however, Northern speech has a strong /r/ after a vowel, the same vowel in *can't* and *cat*, a conspicuous contrast between *cot* and *caught*, the /s/ sound in *greasy*, *creek* rhyming with *pick*, and *with* ending with the same consonant sound as at the end of *breath*.

Midland speech extends in a wide band across the United States: there are two main subdivisions, North Midland and South Midland. North Midland speech extends westward from New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania into Ohio, Illinois, southern Iowa, and northern Missouri. Its speakers generally end *with* with the consonant sound that begins the word *thin*, pronounce *cot* and *caught* alike, and say *cow* and *down* as /caow/ and /daown/. South Midland speech was carried by the Scotch-Irish from Pennsylvania down the Shenandoah Valley into the southern Appalachians, where it acquired many Southern speech features before it spread westward into Kentucky, Tennessee, southern Missouri, Arkansas, and northeast Texas. Its speakers are likely to say *plum peach* rather than *clingstone peach* and *snake doctor* rather than *dragonfly*.

Southern speech typically, though not always, lacks the consonant /r/ after a vowel, lengthens the first part of the diphthong in *write* so that to Northern ears it sounds almost like *rat*, and diphthongizes the vowels in *bed* and *hit* so that they sound like /beuhd/ and /hiuht/. *Horse* and *hoarse* do not sound alike, and *creek* rhymes with *mee*k. *Corn bread* is *corn pone*, and *you-all* is standard for the plural.

In the western part of the United States, migration routes so crossed and intermingled that no neat dialect boundaries can be drawn, although there are a few rather clear population pockets.

Spanish is spoken by a sizable minority in the United States; according to 2004 estimates, about 11.4% of the population speak Spanish as the primary language of their household. The majority of Spanish speakers live in the Southwest, Florida, and eastern urban centers. Refugee immigration since the 1950s has greatly increased the number of foreign-language speakers from Latin America and Asia.

Educational problems raised by the presence of large blocs of non-English speakers led to the passage in 1976 of the Bilingual Educational Act, enabling children to study basic courses in their first language while they learn English. A related school problem is that of black English, a Southern dialect variant that is the vernacular of many black students now in northern schools.

9 RELIGIONS

US religious traditions are predominantly Judeo-Christian and most Americans identify themselves as Protestants (of various denominations), Roman Catholics, or Jews. As of 2000, over 141 million Americans reported affiliation with a religious group. The single largest Christian denomination is the Roman Catholic Church, with membership in 2004 estimated at 66.4 million. Immigration from Ireland, Italy, Eastern Europe, French Canada, and the Caribbean accounts for the predominance of Roman Catholicism in the Northeast, Northwest, and some parts of the Great Lakes region, while Hispanic traditions and more recent immigration from Mexico and other Latin American countries account for the historical importance of Roman Catholicism in California

and throughout most of the sunbelt. More than any other US religious body, the Roman Catholic Church maintains an extensive network of parochial schools.

Jewish immigrants settled first in the Northeast, where the largest Jewish population remains; at last estimates, about 6.1 million Jews live in the United States. According to data from 1995, there are about 3.7 million Muslims in the country. About 1.8 million people are Buddhist and 795,000 are Hindu. Approximately 874,000 people are proclaimed atheists.

Over 94 million persons in the United States report affiliation with a Protestant denomination. Baptists predominate below the Mason-Dixon line and west to Texas. By far the nation's largest Protestant group is the Southern Baptist Convention, which has about 16.2 million members; the American Baptist Churches in the USA claim some 1.4 million members. A concentration of Methodist groups extends westward in a band from Delaware to eastern Colorado; the largest of these groups, the United Methodist Church has about 8.2 million members. A related group, the African Methodist Episcopal Church, has about 2.5 million members. Lutheran denominations, reflecting in part the patterns of German and Scandinavian settlement, are most highly concentrated in the north-central states, especially Minnesota and the Dakotas. Two Lutheran synods, the Lutheran Church in America and the American Lutheran Church, merged in 1987 to form the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, with more than 5 million adherents in 2004. In June 1983, the two major Presbyterian churches, the northern-based United Presbyterian Church in the USA and the southern-based Presbyterian Church in the United States, formally merged as the Presbyterian Church (USA), ending a division that began with the Civil War. This group claimed 3.4 adherents in 2004. Other prominent Protestant denominations and their estimated adherents (2004) include the Episcopal Church 2,334,000, and the United Church of Christ 1,331,000.

A number of Orthodox Christian denominations are represented in the United States, established by immigrants hoping to maintain their language and culture in a new world. The largest group of Orthodox belong to the Greek Orthodox Archdiocese of America, which has about 1.5 million members.

A number of religious groups, which now have a worldwide presence, originated in the United States. One such group, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (Mormons), was organized in New York in 1830 by Joseph Smith, Jr., who claimed to receive a revelation concerning an ancient American prophet named Mormon. The group migrated westward, in part to escape persecution, and has played a leading role in the political, economic, and religious life of Utah; Salt Lake City is the headquarters for the church. As of 2004, there are about 5.4 million members of the , the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints. The Jehovah's Witnesses were established by Charles Taze Russell in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, in 1872. They believe that Biblical prophecies are being fulfilled through world events and that the kingdom of God will be established on earth at the end of the great war described in the Bible. In 2004, there were about 1 million members in the United States.

The Church of Christ Scientist was established by Mary Baker Eddy (1821–1910) and her book *Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures*. A primary belief of the group is that physical injury and illness might be healed through the power of prayer and

the correction of false beliefs. The Mother Church is located in Boston, Massachusetts. Christian Scientists have over 1,000 congregations in the nation. The Seventh-Day Adventists were also established in the United States by William Miller, a preacher who believed that the second coming of Christ would occur between 1843 and 1844. Though his prediction did not come true, many of his followers continued to embrace other practices such as worship on Saturday, vegetarianism, and a focus on preparation for the second coming. In 2004, the Seventh-Day Adventist Church had 919,000 members in the United States.

¹⁰TRANSPORTATION

Railroads have lost not only the largest share of intercity freight traffic, their chief source of revenue, but passenger traffic as well. Despite an attempt to revive passenger transport through the development of a national network (Amtrak) in the 1970s, the rail sector has continued to experience heavy losses and declining revenues. In 1998 there were nine Class I rail companies in the United States, down from 13 in 1994, with a total of 178,222 employees and operating revenues of \$32.2 billion. In 2003 there were 227,736 km (141,424 mi) of railway, all standard gauge. In 2000, Amtrak carried 84.1 million passengers.

The most conspicuous form of transportation is the automobile, and the extent and quality of the United States road-transport system are without parallel in the world. Over 226.06 million vehicles—a record number—were registered in 2003, including more than 130.8 million passenger cars and over 95.3. commercial vehicles. In 2000, there were some 4,346,068 motorcycles registered.

The United States has a vast network of public roads, whose total length as of 2003 was 6,393,603 km (3,976,821 mi), of which, 4,180,053 km (2,599,993 mi) were paved, including 74,406 km (46,281 mi) of expressways. The United States also has 41,009 km (25,483 mi) of navigable inland channels, exclusive of the Great Lakes. Of that total, 19,312 km (12,012 mi) are still in commercial use, as of 2004.

Major ocean ports or port areas are New York, the Delaware River areas (Philadelphia), the Chesapeake Bay area (Baltimore, Norfolk, Newport News), New Orleans, Houston, and the San Francisco Bay area. The inland port of Duluth on Lake Superior handles more freight than all but the top-ranking ocean ports. The importance of this port, along with those of Chicago and Detroit, was enhanced with the opening in 1959 of the St. Lawrence Seaway. Waterborne freight consists primarily of bulk commodities such as petroleum and its products, coal and coke, iron ore and steel, sand, gravel and stone, grains, and lumber. The US merchant marine industry has been decreasing gradually since the 1950s. In 2005, the United States had a merchant shipping fleet of 486 vessels of 1,000 GRT or more, with a combined GRT of 12,436,658.

In 2004, the United States had an estimated 14,857 airports. In 2005 a total of 5,120 had paved runways, and there were also 153 heliports. Principal airports include Hartsfield at Atlanta; Logan International at Boston; O'Hare International at Chicago; Dallas-Fort Worth at Dallas; Detroit Metropolitan; Honolulu International; Houston Intercontinental; Los Angeles International; John F. Kennedy, La Guardia, and Newark International at or near New York; Philadelphia International; Orlando International; Miami International; San Francisco International; L. Munoz Marin at San Juan, Seattle-Tacoma at Seattle, and Dulles International at Wash-

ington. Revenue passengers carried by the airlines in 1940 totaled 2.7 million. By 2003, the figure was estimated at 588.997 million for US domestic and international carriers, along with freight traffic estimated at 34,206 million freight ton-km.

¹¹ HISTORY

The first Americans—distant ancestors of the Native Americans—probably crossed the Bering Strait from Asia at least 12,000 years ago. By the time Christopher Columbus came to the New World in 1492 there were probably no more than 2 million Native Americans living in the land that was to become the United States.

Following exploration of the American coasts by English, Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, and French sea captains from the late 15th century onward, European settlements sprang up in the latter part of the 16th century. The Spanish established the first permanent settlement at St. Augustine in the future state of Florida in 1565, and another in New Mexico in 1599. During the early 17th century, the English founded Jamestown in Virginia Colony (1607) and Plymouth Colony in present-day Massachusetts (1620). The Dutch established settlements at Ft. Orange (now Albany, N.Y.) in 1624, New Amsterdam (now New York City) in 1626, and at Bergen (now part of Jersey City, N.J.) in 1660; they conquered New Sweden—the Swedish colony in Delaware and New Jersey—in 1655. Nine years later, however, the English seized this New Netherland Colony and subsequently monopolized settlement of the East Coast except for Florida, where Spanish rule prevailed until 1821. In the Southwest, California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas also were part of the Spanish empire until the 19th century. Meanwhile, in the Great Lakes area south of present-day Canada, France set up a few trading posts and settlements but never established effective control; New Orleans was one of the few areas of the United States where France pursued an active colonial policy.

From the founding of Jamestown to the outbreak of the American Revolution more than 150 years later, the British government administered its American colonies within the context of mercantilism: the colonies existed primarily for the economic benefit of the empire. Great Britain valued its American colonies especially for their tobacco, lumber, indigo, rice, furs, fish, grain, and naval stores, relying particularly in the southern colonies on black slave labor.

The colonies enjoyed a large measure of internal self-government until the end of the French and Indian War (1745–63), which resulted in the loss of French Canada to the British. To prevent further troubles with the Indians, the British government in 1763 prohibited the American colonists from settling beyond the Appalachian Mountains. Heavy debts forced London to decree that the colonists should assume the costs of their own defense, and the British government enacted a series of revenue measures to provide funds for that purpose. But soon, the colonists began to insist that they could be taxed only with their consent and the struggle grew to become one of local versus imperial authority.

Widening cultural and intellectual differences also served to divide the colonies and the mother country. Life on the edge of the civilized world had brought about changes in the colonists' attitudes and outlook, emphasizing their remoteness from English life. In view of the long tradition of virtual self-government in the colonies, strict enforcement of imperial regulations and British efforts to curtail the power of colonial legislatures presaged inevi-

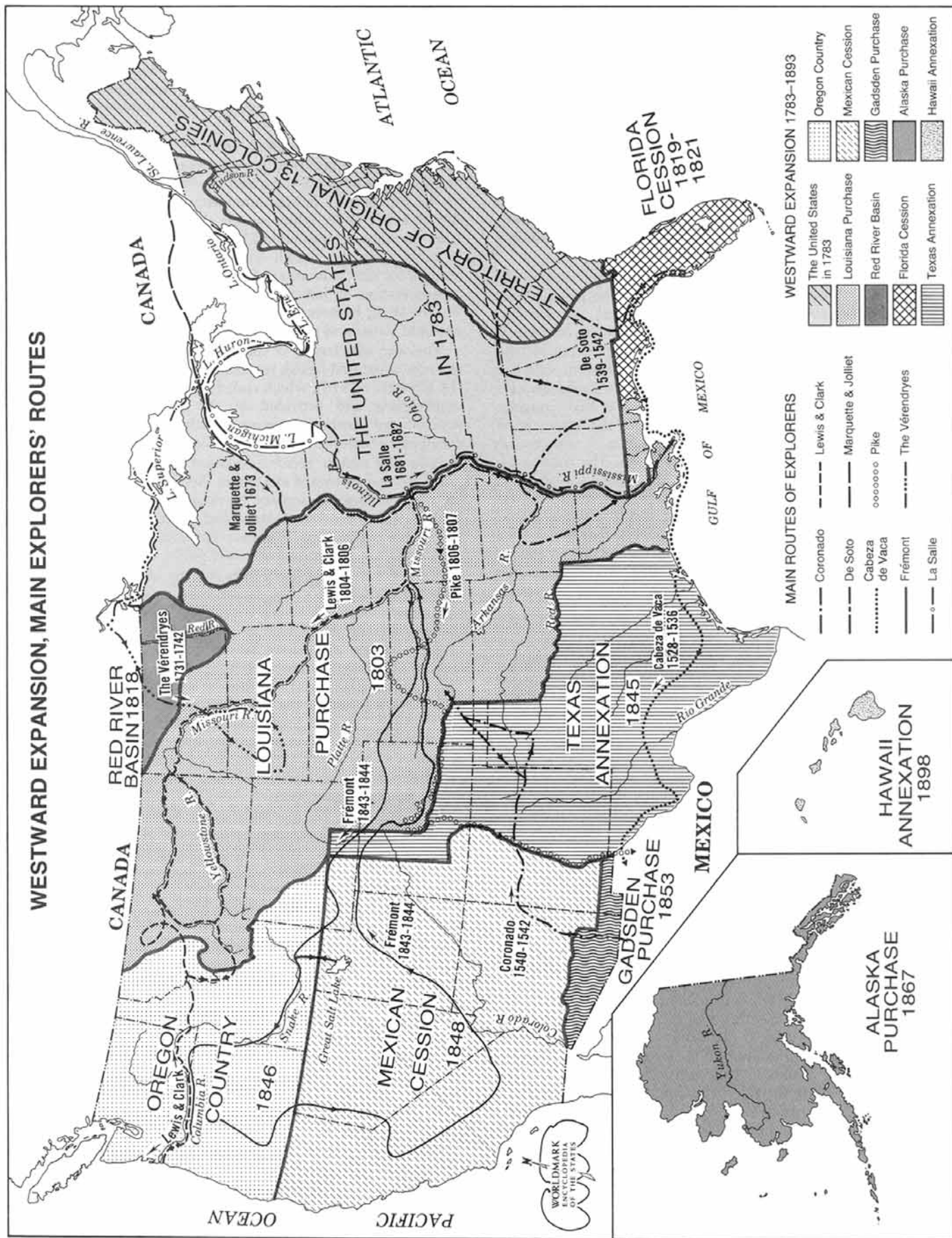
table conflict between the colonies and the mother country. When citizens of Massachusetts, protesting the tax on tea, dumped a shipload of tea belonging to the East India Company into Boston harbor in 1773, the British felt compelled to act in defense of their authority as well as in defense of private property. Punitive measures—referred to as the Intolerable Acts by the colonists—struck at the foundations of self-government.

In response, the First Continental Congress, composed of delegates from 12 of the 13 colonies—Georgia was not represented—met in Philadelphia in September 1774, and proposed a general boycott of English goods, together with the organizing of a militia. British troops marched to Concord, Mass., on 19 April 1775 and destroyed the supplies that the colonists had assembled there. American “minutemen” assembled on the nearby Lexington green and fired “the shot heard round the world,” although no one knows who actually fired the first shot that morning. The British soldiers withdrew and fought their way back to Boston.

Voices in favor of conciliation were raised in the Second Continental Congress that assembled in Philadelphia on 10 May 1775, this time including Georgia; but with news of the Restraining Act (30 March 1775), which denied the colonies the right to trade with countries outside the British Empire, all hopes for peace vanished. George Washington was appointed commander in chief of the new American army, and on 4 July 1776, the 13 American colonies adopted the Declaration of Independence, justifying the right of revolution by the theory of natural rights.

British and American forces met in their first organized encounter near Boston on 17 June 1775. Numerous battles up and down the coast followed. The British seized and held the principal cities but were unable to inflict a decisive defeat on Washington's troops. The entry of France into the war on the American side eventually tipped the balance. On 19 October 1781, the British commander, Cornwallis, cut off from reinforcements by the French fleet on one side and besieged by French and American forces on the other, surrendered his army at Yorktown, Va. American independence was acknowledged by the British in a treaty of peace signed in Paris on 3 September 1783.

The first constitution uniting the 13 original states—the Articles of Confederation—reflected all the suspicions that Americans entertained about a strong central government. Congress was denied power to raise taxes or regulate commerce, and many of the powers it was authorized to exercise required the approval of a minimum of nine states. Dissatisfaction with the Articles of Confederation was aggravated by the hardships of a postwar depression, and in 1787—the same year that Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance, providing for the organization of new territories and states on the frontier—a convention assembled in Philadelphia to revise the articles. The convention adopted an altogether new constitution, the present Constitution of the United States, which greatly increased the powers of the central government at the expense of the states. This document was ratified by the states with the understanding that it would be amended to include a bill of rights guaranteeing certain fundamental freedoms. These freedoms—including the rights of free speech, press, and assembly, freedom from unreasonable search and seizure, and the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury—are assured by the first 10 amendments to the constitution, adopted on 5 December 1791; the constitution did however recognize slavery, and did not



provide for universal suffrage. On 30 April 1789 George Washington was inaugurated as the first president of the United States.

During Washington's administration, the credit of the new nation was bolstered by acts providing for a revenue tariff and an excise tax; opposition to the excise on whiskey sparked the Whiskey Rebellion, suppressed on Washington's orders in 1794. Alexander Hamilton's proposals for funding the domestic and foreign debt and permitting the national government to assume the debts of the states were also implemented. Hamilton, the secretary of the treasury, also created the first national bank, and was the founder of the Federalist Party. Opposition to the bank as well as to the rest of the Hamiltonian program, which tended to favor northeastern commercial and business interests, led to the formation of an anti-Federalist party, the Democratic-Republicans, led by Thomas Jefferson.

The Federalist Party, to which Washington belonged, regarded the French Revolution as a threat to security and property; the Democratic-Republicans, while condemning the violence of the revolutionists, hailed the overthrow of the French monarchy as a blow to tyranny. The split of the nation's leadership into rival camps was the first manifestation of the two-party system, which has since been the dominant characteristic of the US political scene (Jefferson's party should not be confused with the modern Republican Party, formed in 1854.)

The 1800 election brought the defeat of Federalist President John Adams, Washington's successor, by Jefferson; a key factor in Adam's loss was the unpopularity of the Alien and Sedition Acts (1798), Federalist-sponsored measures that had abridged certain freedoms guaranteed in the Bill of Rights. In 1803, Jefferson achieved the purchase from France of the Louisiana Territory, including all the present territory of the United States west of the Mississippi drained by that river and its tributaries; exploration and mapping of the new territory, notably through the expeditions of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, began almost immediately. Under Chief Justice John Marshall, the US Supreme Court, in the landmark case of *Marbury v. Madison*, established the principle of federal supremacy in conflicts with the states and enunciated the doctrine of judicial review.

During Jefferson's second term in office, the United States became involved in a protracted struggle between Britain and Napoleonic France. Seizures of US ships and the impressment of US seamen by the British navy led the administration to pass the Embargo Act of 1807, under which no US ships were to put out to sea. After the act was repealed in 1809, ship seizures and impressment of seamen by the British continued, and were the ostensible reasons for the declaration of war on Britain in 1812 during the administration of James Madison. An underlying cause of the War of 1812, however, was land-hungry Westerners' coveting of southern Canada as potential US territory.

The war was largely a standoff. A few surprising US naval victories countered British successes on land. The Treaty of Ghent (24 December 1814), which ended the war, made no mention of impressment and provided for no territorial changes. The occasion for further maritime conflict with Britain, however, disappeared with the defeat of Napoleon in 1815.

Now the nation became occupied primarily with domestic problems and westward expansion. Because the United States had been cut off from its normal sources of manufactured goods in

Great Britain during the war, textiles and other industries developed and prospered in New England. To protect these infant industries, Congress adopted a high-tariff policy in 1816.

Three events of the late 1810s and the 1820s were of considerable importance for the future of the country. The federal government in 1817 began a policy of forcibly resettling the Indians, already decimated by war and disease, in what later became known as Indian Territory (now Oklahoma); those Indians not forced to move were restricted to reservations. The Missouri Compromise (1820) was an attempt to find a nationally acceptable solution to the volatile dispute over the extension of black slavery to new territories. It provided for admission of Missouri into the Union as a slave state but banned slavery in territories to the west that lay north of 36°30'. As a result of the establishment of independent Latin American republics and threats by France and Spain to re-establish colonial rule, President James Monroe in 1823 asserted that the Western Hemisphere was closed to further colonization by European powers. The Monroe Doctrine declared that any effort by such powers to recover territories whose independence the United States had recognized would be regarded as an unfriendly act.

From the 1820s to the outbreak of the Civil War, the growth of manufacturing continued, mainly in the North, and was accelerated by inventions and technological advances. Farming expanded with westward migration. The South discovered that its future lay in the cultivation of cotton. The cotton gin, invented by Eli Whitney in 1793, greatly simplified the problems of production; the growth of the textile industry in New England and Great Britain assured a firm market for cotton. Hence, during the first half of the 19th century, the South remained a fundamentally agrarian society based increasingly on a one-crop economy. Large numbers of field hands were required for cotton cultivation, and black slavery became solidly entrenched in the southern economy.

The construction of roads and canals paralleled the country's growth and economic expansion. The successful completion of the Erie Canal (1825), linking the Great Lakes with the Atlantic, ushered in a canal-building boom. Railroad building began in earnest in the 1830s, and by 1840, about 3,300 mi (5,300 km) of track had been laid. The development of the telegraph a few years later gave the nation the beginnings of a modern telecommunications network. As a result of the establishment of the factory system, a laboring class appeared in the North by the 1830s, bringing with it the earliest unionization efforts.

Western states admitted into the Union following the War of 1812 provided for free white male suffrage without property qualifications and helped spark a democratic revolution. As eastern states began to broaden the franchise, mass appeal became an important requisite for political candidates. The election to the presidency in 1928 of Andrew Jackson, a military hero and Indian fighter from Tennessee, was no doubt a result of this widening of the democratic process. By this time, the United States consisted of 24 states and had a population of nearly 13 million.

The relentless westward thrust of the United States population ultimately involved the United States in foreign conflict. In 1836, US settlers in Texas revolted against Mexican rule and established an independent republic. Texas was admitted to the Union as a state in 1845, and relations between Mexico and the United States steadily worsened. A dispute arose over the southern boundary

of Texas, and a Mexican attack on a US patrol in May 1846 gave President James K. Polk a pretext to declare war. After a rapid advance, US forces captured Mexico City, and on 2 February 1848, Mexico formally gave up the unequal fight by signing the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, providing for the cession of California and the territory of New Mexico to the United States. With the Gadsden Purchase of 1853, the United States acquired from Mexico for \$10 million large strips of land forming the balance of southern Arizona and New Mexico. A dispute with Britain over the Oregon Territory was settled in 1846 by a treaty that established the 49th parallel as the boundary with Canada. Thenceforth the United States was to be a Pacific as well as an Atlantic power.

Westward expansion exacerbated the issue of slavery in the territories. By 1840, abolition of slavery constituted a fundamental aspect of a movement for moral reform, which also encompassed women's rights, universal education, alleviation of working class hardships, and temperance. In 1849, a year after the discovery of gold had precipitated a rush of new settlers to California, that territory (whose constitution prohibited slavery) demanded admission to the Union. A compromise engineered in Congress by Senator Henry Clay in 1850 provided for California's admission as a free state in return for various concessions to the South. But enmities dividing North and South could not be silenced. The issue of slavery in the territories came to a head with the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, which repealed the Missouri Compromise and left the question of slavery in those territories to be decided by the settlers themselves. The ensuing conflicts in Kansas between northern and southern settlers earned the territory the name "bleeding Kansas."

In 1860, the Democratic Party, split along northern and southern lines, offered two presidential candidates. The new Republican Party, organized in 1854 and opposed to the expansion of slavery, nominated Abraham Lincoln. Owing to the defection in Democratic ranks, Lincoln was able to carry the election in the electoral college, although he did not obtain a majority of the popular vote. To ardent supporters of slavery, Lincoln's election provided a reason for immediate secession. Between December 1860 and February 1861, the seven states of the Deep South—South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas—withdraw from the Union and formed a separate government, known as the Confederate States of America, under the presidency of Jefferson Davis. The secessionists soon began to confiscate federal property in the South. On 12 April 1861, the Confederates opened fire on Ft. Sumter in the harbor of Charleston, S.C., and thus precipitated the US Civil War. Following the outbreak of hostilities, Arkansas, North Carolina, Virginia, and Tennessee joined the Confederacy.

For the next four years, war raged between the Confederate and Union forces, largely in southern territories. An estimated 360,000 men in the Union forces died of various causes, including 110,000 killed in battle. Confederate dead were estimated at 250,000, including 94,000 killed in battle. The North, with great superiority in manpower and resources, finally prevailed. A Confederate invasion of the North was repulsed at the battle of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, in July 1863; a Union army took Atlanta in September 1864; and Confederate forces evacuated Richmond, the Confederate capital, in early April 1865. With much of the South in Union hands, Confederate Gen. Robert E. Lee surrendered to

Gen. Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Courthouse in Virginia on 9 April.

The outcome of the war brought great changes in US life. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 was the initial step in freeing some 4 million black slaves; their liberation was completed soon after the war's end by amendments to the Constitution. Lincoln's plan for the reconstruction of the rebellious states was compassionate, but only five days after Lee's surrender, Lincoln was assassinated by John Wilkes Booth as part of a conspiracy in which US Secretary of State William H. Seward was seriously wounded.

During the Reconstruction era (1865–77), the defeated South was governed by Union Army commanders, and the resultant bitterness of southerners toward northern Republican rule, which enfranchised blacks, persisted for years afterward. Vice President Andrew Johnson, who succeeded Lincoln as president, tried to carry out Lincoln's conciliatory policies but was opposed by radical Republican leaders in Congress who demanded harsher treatment of the South. On the pretext that he had failed to carry out an act of Congress, the House of Representatives voted to impeach Johnson in 1868, but the Senate failed by one vote to convict him and remove him from office. It was during Johnson's presidency that Secretary of State Seward negotiated the purchase of Alaska (which attained statehood in 1959) from Russia for \$7.2 million.

The efforts of southern whites to regain political control of their states led to the formation of terrorist organizations like the Ku Klux Klan, which employed violence to prevent blacks from voting. By the end of the Reconstruction era, whites had reestablished their political domination over blacks in the southern states and had begun to enforce patterns of segregation in education and social organization that were to last for nearly a century.

In many southern states, the decades following the Civil War were ones of economic devastation, in which rural whites as well as blacks were reduced to sharecropper status. Outside the South, however, a great period of economic expansion began. Transcontinental railroads were constructed, corporate enterprise spurred ahead, and the remaining western frontier lands were rapidly occupied and settled. The age of big business tycoons dawned. As heavy manufacturing developed, Pittsburgh, Chicago, and New York emerged as the nation's great industrial centers. The Knights of Labor, founded in 1869, engaged in numerous strikes, and violent conflicts between strikers and strikebreakers were common. The American Federation of Labor, founded in 1886, established a nationwide system of craft unionism that remained dominant for many decades. During this period, too, the woman's rights movement organized actively to secure the vote (although woman's suffrage was not enacted nationally until 1920), and groups outraged by the depletion of forests and wildlife in the West pressed for the conservation of natural resources.

During the latter half of the 19th century, the acceleration of westward expansion made room for millions of immigrants from Europe. The country's population grew to more than 76 million by 1900. As homesteaders, prospectors, and other settlers tamed the frontier, the federal government forced Indians west of the Mississippi to cede vast tracts of land to the whites, precipitating a series of wars with various tribes. By 1890, only 250,000 Indians remained in the United States, virtually all of them residing on reservations.

The 1890s marked the closing of the United States frontier for settlement and the beginning of US overseas expansion. By 1892, Hawaiian sugar planters of US origin had become strong enough to bring about the downfall of the native queen and to establish a republic, which in 1898, at its own request, was annexed as a territory by the United States. The sympathies of the United States with the Cuban nationalists who were battling for independence from Spain were aroused by a lurid press and by expansionist elements. A series of events climaxed by the sinking of the USS *Maine* in Havana harbor finally forced a reluctant President William McKinley to declare war on Spain on 25 April 1898. US forces overwhelmed those of Spain in Cuba, and as a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States added to its territories the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico. A newly independent Cuba was drawn into the United States orbit as a virtual protectorate through the 1950s. Many eminent citizens saw these new departures into imperialism as a betrayal of the time-honored US doctrine of government by the consent of the governed.

With the marked expansion of big business came increasing protests against the oppressive policies of large corporations and their dominant role in the public life of the nation. A demand emerged for strict control of monopolistic business practice through the enforcement of antitrust laws. Two US presidents, Theodore Roosevelt (1901–09), a Republican and Woodrow Wilson (1913–21), a Democrat, approved of the general movement for reform, which came to be called progressivism. Roosevelt developed a considerable reputation as a trustbuster, while Wilson's program, known as the New Freedom, called for reform of tariffs, business procedures, and banking. During Roosevelt's first term, the United States leased the Panama Canal Zone and started construction of a 42-mi (68-km) canal, completed in 1914.

US involvement in World War I marked the country's active emergence as one of the great powers of the world. When war broke out in 1914 between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey on one side and Britain, France, and Russia on the other, sentiment in the United States was strongly opposed to participation in the conflict, although a large segment of the American people sympathized with the British and the French. While both sides violated US maritime rights on the high seas, the Germans, enmeshed in a British blockade, resorted to unrestricted submarine warfare. On 6 April 1917, Congress declared war on Germany. Through a national draft of all able-bodied men between the ages of 18 and 45, some 4 million US soldiers were trained, of whom more than 2 million were sent overseas to France. By late 1917, when US troops began to take part in the fighting on the western front, the European armies were approaching exhaustion, and US intervention may well have been decisive in ensuring the eventual victory of the Allies. In a series of great battles in which US soldiers took an increasingly major part, the German forces were rolled back in the west, and in the autumn of 1918 were compelled to sue for peace. Fighting ended with the armistice of 11 November 1918. President Wilson played an active role in drawing up the 1919 Versailles peace treaty, which embodied his dream of establishing a League of Nations to preserve the peace, but the isolationist bloc in the Senate was able to prevent US ratification of the treaty.

In the 1920s, the United States had little enthusiasm left for crusades, either for democracy abroad or for reform at home; a rare

instance of idealism in action was the Kellogg-Briand Pact (1928), an antiwar accord negotiated on behalf of the United States by Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg. In general, however, the philosophy of the Republican administrations from 1921 to 1933 was expressed in the aphorism "The business of America is business," and the 1920s saw a great business boom. The years 1923–24 also witnessed the unraveling of the Teapot Dome scandal: the revelation that President Warren G. Harding's secretary of the interior, Albert B. Fall, had secretly leased federal oil reserves in California and Wyoming to private oil companies in return for gifts and loans.

The great stock market crash of October 1929 ushered in the most serious and most prolonged economic depression the country had ever known. By 1933, an estimated 12 million men and women were out of work; personal savings were wiped out on a vast scale through a disastrous series of corporate bankruptcies and bank failures. Relief for the unemployed was left to private charities and local governments, which were incapable of handling the enormous task.

The inauguration of the successful Democratic presidential candidate, Franklin D. Roosevelt, in March 1933 ushered in a new era of US history, in which the federal government was to assume a much more prominent role in the nation's economic affairs. Proposing to give the country a "New Deal," Roosevelt accepted national responsibility for alleviating the hardships of unemployment; relief measures were instituted, work projects were established, the deficit spending was accepted in preference to ignoring public distress. The federal Social Security program was inaugurated, as were various measures designed to stimulate and develop the economy through federal intervention. Unions were strengthened through the National Labor Relations Act, which established the right of employees' organizations to bargain collectively with employers. Union membership increased rapidly, and the dominance of the American Federation of Labor was challenged by the newly formed Congress of Industrial Organizations, which organized workers along industrial lines.

The depression of the 1930s was worldwide, and certain nations attempted to counter economic stagnation by building large military establishments and embarking on foreign adventures. Following German, Italian, and Japanese aggression, World War II broke out in Europe during September 1939. In 1940, Roosevelt, disregarding a tradition dating back to Washington that no president should serve more than two terms, ran again for reelection. He easily defeated his Republican opponent, Wendell Willkie, who, along with Roosevelt, advocated increased rearmament and all possible aid to victims of aggression. The United States was brought actively into the war by the Japanese attack on the Pearl Harbor naval base in Hawaii on 7 December 1941. The forces of Germany, Italy, and Japan were now arrayed over a vast theater of war against those of the United States and the British Commonwealth; in Europe, Germany was locked in a bloody struggle with the Soviet Union. US forces waged war across the vast expanses of the Pacific, in Africa, in Asia, and in Europe. Italy surrendered in 1943; Germany was successfully invaded in 1944 and conquered in May 1945; and after the United States dropped the world's first atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the Japanese capitulated in August. The Philippines became an independent republic

soon after the war, but the United States retained most of its other Pacific possessions, with Hawaii becoming the 50th state in 1959.

Roosevelt, who had been elected to a fourth term in 1944, died in April 1945 and was succeeded by Harry S Truman, his vice president. Under the Truman administration, the United States became an active member of the new world organization, the United Nations. The Truman administration embarked on large-scale programs of military aid and economic support to check the expansion of communism. Aid to Greece and Turkey in 1948 and the Marshall Plan, a program designed to accelerate the economic recovery of Western Europe, were outstanding features of US postwar foreign policy. The North Atlantic Treaty (1949) established a defensive alliance among a number of West European nations and the United States. Truman's Point Four program gave technical and scientific aid to developing nations. When, following the North Korean attack on South Korea on 25 June 1950, the UN Security Council resolved that members of the UN should proceed to the aid of South Korea. US naval, air, and ground forces were immediately dispatched by President Truman. An undeclared war ensued, which eventually was brought to a halt by an armistice signed on 27 June 1953.

In 1952, Dwight D. Eisenhower, supreme commander of Allied forces in Europe during World War II, was elected president on the Republican ticket, thereby bringing to an end 20 years of Democratic presidential leadership. In foreign affairs, the Eisenhower administration continued the Truman policy of containing the USSR and threatened "massive retaliation" in the event of Soviet aggression, thus heightening the Cold War between the world's two great nuclear powers. Although Republican domestic policies were more conservative than those of the Democrats, the Eisenhower administration extended certain major social and economic programs of the Roosevelt and Truman administrations, notably Social Security and public housing. The early years of the Eisenhower administration were marked by agitation (arising in 1950) over charges of Communist and other allegedly subversive activities in the United States—a phenomenon known as McCarthyism, after Republican Senator Joseph R. McCarthy of Wisconsin, who aroused much controversy with unsubstantiated allegations that Communists had penetrated the US government, especially the Army and the Department of State. Even those who personally opposed McCarthy lent their support to the imposition of loyalty oaths and the blacklisting of persons with left-wing backgrounds.

A major event of the Eisenhower years was the US Supreme Court's decision in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (1954) outlawing segregation of whites and blacks in public schools. In the aftermath of this ruling, desegregation proceeded slowly and painfully. In the early 1960s, sit-ins, "freedom rides," and similar expressions of nonviolent resistance by blacks and their sympathizers led to a lessening of segregation practices in public facilities. Under Chief Justice Earl Warren, the high court in 1962 mandated the reapportionment of state and federal legislative districts according to a "one person, one vote" formula. It also broadly extended the rights of defendants in criminal trials to include the provision of a defense lawyer at public expense for an accused person unable to afford one, and established the duty of police to advise an accused person of his or her legal rights immediately upon arrest.

In the early 1960s, during the administration of Eisenhower's Democratic successor, John F. Kennedy, the Cold War heated up as Cuba, under the regime of Fidel Castro, aligned itself with the Soviet Union. Attempts by anti-Communist Cuban exiles to invade their homeland in the spring of 1961 failed despite US aid. In October 1962, President Kennedy successfully forced a showdown with the Soviet Union over Cuba in demanding the withdrawal of Soviet-supplied "offensive weapons"—missiles—from the nearby island. On 22 November 1963, President Kennedy was assassinated while riding in a motorcade through Dallas, Texas; hours later, Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson was inaugurated president. In the November 1964 elections, Johnson overwhelmingly defeated his Republican opponent, Barry M. Goldwater, and embarked on a vigorous program of social legislation unprecedented since Roosevelt's New Deal. His "Great Society" program sought to ensure black Americans' rights in voting and public housing, to give the underprivileged job training, and to provide persons 65 and over with hospitalization and other medical benefits (Medicare). Measures ensuring equal opportunity for minority groups may have contributed to the growth of the woman's rights movement in the late 1960s. This same period also saw the growth of a powerful environmental protection movement.

US military and economic aid to anti-Communist forces in Vietnam, which had its beginnings during the Truman administration (while Vietnam was still part of French Indochina) and was increased gradually by presidents Eisenhower and Kennedy, escalated in 1965. In that year, President Johnson sent US combat troops to South Vietnam and ordered US bombing raids on North Vietnam, after Congress (in the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution of 1964) had given him practically carte blanche authority to wage war in that region. By the end of 1968, American forces in Vietnam numbered 536,100 men, but US military might was unable to defeat the Vietnamese guerrillas, and the American people were badly split over continuing the undeclared (and, some thought, ill-advised or even immoral) war, with its high price in casualties and materiel. Reacting to widespread dissatisfaction with his Vietnam policies, Johnson withdrew in March 1968 from the upcoming presidential race, and in November, Republican Richard M. Nixon, who had been the vice president under Eisenhower, was elected president. Thus, the Johnson years—which had begun with the new hopes of a Great Society but had soured with a rising tide of racial violence in US cities and the assassinations of civil rights leader Martin Luther King, Jr., and US senator Robert F. Kennedy, among others—drew to a close.

President Nixon gradually withdrew US ground troops from Vietnam but expanded aerial bombardment throughout Indochina, and the increasingly unpopular and costly war continued for four more years before a cease-fire—negotiated by Nixon's national security adviser, Henry Kissinger—was finally signed on 27 January 1973 and the last US soldiers were withdrawn. The most protracted conflict in American history had resulted in 46,163 US combat deaths and 303,654 wounded soldiers, and had cost the US government \$112 billion in military allocations. Two years later, the South Vietnamese army collapsed, and the North Vietnamese Communist regime united the country.

In 1972, during the last year of his first administration, Nixon initiated the normalization of relations—ruptured in 1949—with the People's Republic of China and signed a strategic arms limita-

tion agreement with the Soviet Union as part of a Nixon-Kissinger policy of pursuing détente with both major Communist powers. (Earlier, in July 1969, American technology had achieved a national triumph by landing the first astronaut on the moon.) The Nixon administration sought to muster a “silent majority” in support of its Indochina policies and its conservative social outlook in domestic affairs. The most momentous domestic development, however, was the Watergate scandal, which began on 17 June 1972 with the arrest of five men associated with Nixon’s reelection campaign, during a break-in at Democratic Party headquarters in the Watergate office building in Washington, D.C. Although Nixon was reelected in 1972, subsequent disclosures by the press and by a Senate investigating committee revealed a complex pattern of political “dirty tricks” and illegal domestic surveillance throughout his first term. The president’s apparent attempts to obstruct justice by helping his aides cover up the scandal were confirmed by tape recordings (made by Nixon himself) of his private conversations, which the Supreme Court ordered him to release for use as evidence in criminal proceedings. The House voted to begin impeachment proceedings, and in late July 1974, its Judiciary Committee approved three articles of impeachment. On 9 August, Nixon became the first president to resign the office. The following year, Nixon’s top aides and former attorney general, John N. Mitchell, were convicted of obstruction and were subsequently sentenced to prison.

Nixon’s successor was Gerald R. Ford, who in October 1973 had been appointed to succeed Vice President Spiro T. Agnew when Agnew resigned following his plea of *nolo contendere* to charges that he had evaded paying income tax on moneys he had received from contractors while governor of Maryland. Less than a month after taking office, President Ford granted a full pardon to Nixon for any crimes he may have committed as president. In August 1974, Ford nominated Nelson A. Rockefeller as vice president (he was not confirmed until December), thus giving the country the first instance of a nonelected president and an appointed vice president serving simultaneously. Ford’s pardon of Nixon, as well as continued inflation and unemployment, probably contributed to his narrow defeat by a Georgia Democrat, Jimmy Carter, in 1976.

President Carter’s forthright championing of human rights—though consistent with the Helsinki accords, the “final act” of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, signed by the United States and 34 other nations in July 1974—contributed to strained relations with the USSR and with some US allies. During 1978–79, the president concluded and secured Senate passage of treaties ending US sovereignty over the Panama Canal Zone. His major accomplishment in foreign affairs, however, was his role in mediating a peace agreement between Israel and Egypt, signed at the camp David, Md., retreat in September 1978. Domestically, the Carter administration initiated a national energy program to reduce US dependence on foreign oil by cutting gasoline and oil consumption and by encouraging the development of alternative energy resources. But the continuing decline of the economy because of double-digit inflation and high unemployment caused his popularity to wane, and confusing shifts in economic policy (coupled with a lack of clear goals in foreign affairs) characterized his administration during 1979 and 1980; a prolonged quarrel with Iran over more than 50 US hostages seized in Tehrān on 4 November 1979 contributed to public doubts about his presidency. Ex-

actly a year after the hostages were taken, former California Governor Ronald Reagan defeated Carter in an election that saw the Republican Party score major gains throughout the United States. The hostages were released on 20 January 1981, the day of Reagan’s inauguration.

Reagan, who survived a chest wound from an assassination attempt in Washington, D.C., in 1981, used his popularity to push through significant policy changes. He succeeded in enacting income tax cuts of 25%, reducing the maximum tax rate on unearned income from 70% to 50%, and accelerating depreciation allowances for businesses. At the same time, he more than doubled the military budget, in constant 1985 dollars, between 1980 and 1989. Vowing to reduce domestic spending, Reagan cut benefits for the working poor, reduced allocations for food stamps and Aid to Families With Dependent Children by 13%, and decreased grants for the education of disadvantaged children. He slashed the budget of the Environmental Protection Agency and instituted a flat rate reimbursement system for the treatment of Medicare patients with particular illnesses, replacing a more flexible arrangement in which hospitals had been reimbursed for “reasonable charges.”

Reagan’s appointment of Sandra Day O’Connor as the first woman justice of the Supreme Court was widely praised and won unanimous confirmation from the Senate. However, some of his other high-level choices were extremely controversial—none more so than that of his secretary of the interior, James G. Watt, who finally resigned on October 1983. To direct foreign affairs, Reagan named Alexander M. Haig, Jr., former NATO supreme commander for Europe, to the post of secretary of state; Haig, who clashed frequently with other administration officials, resigned in June 1982 and was replaced by George P. Shultz. In framing his foreign and defense policy, Reagan insisted on a military buildup as a precondition for arms-control talks with the USSR. His administration sent money and advisers to help the government of El Salvador in its war against leftist rebels, and US advisers were also sent to Honduras, reportedly to aid groups of Nicaraguans trying to overthrow the Sandinista government in their country. Troops were also dispatched to Lebanon in September 1982, as part of a multinational peacekeeping force in Beirut, and to Grenada in October 1983 to oust a leftist government there.

Reelected in 1984, President Reagan embarked on his second term with a legislative agenda that included reduction of federal budget deficits (which had mounted rapidly during his first term in office), further cuts in domestic spending, and reform of the federal tax code. In military affairs, Reagan persuaded Congress to fund on a modest scale his Strategic Defense Initiative, commonly known as Star Wars, a highly complex and extremely costly space-based antimissile system. In 1987, the downing of an aircraft carrying arms to Nicaragua led to the disclosure that a group of National Security Council members had secretly diverted \$48 million that the federal government had received in payment from Iran for American arms to rebel forces in Nicaragua. The disclosure prompted the resignation of two of the leaders of the group, Vice Admiral John Poindexter and Lieutenant Colonel Oliver North, as well as investigations by House and Senate committees and a special prosecutor, Lawrence Walsh. The congressional investigations found no conclusive evidence that Reagan had authorized or known of the diversion. Yet they noted that because Reagan had approved of the sale of arms to Iran and had encouraged

his staff to assist Nicaraguan rebels despite the prohibition of such assistance by Congress, “the President created or at least tolerated an environment where those who did know of the diversion believed with certainty that they were carrying out the President’s policies.”

Reagan was succeeded in 1988 by his vice president, George H.W. Bush. Benefiting from a prolonged economic expansion, Bush handily defeated Michael Dukakis, governor of Massachusetts and a liberal Democrat. On domestic issues, Bush sought to maintain policies introduced by the Reagan administration. His few legislative initiatives included the passage of legislation establishing strict regulations of air pollution, providing subsidies for child care, and protecting the rights of the disabled. Abroad, Bush showed more confidence and energy. While he responded cautiously to revolutions in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, he used his personal relationships with foreign leaders to bring about comprehensive peace talks between Israel and its Arab neighbors, to encourage a peaceful unification of Germany, and to negotiate broad and substantial arms cuts with the Russians. Bush reacted to Iraq’s invasion of Kuwait in 1990 by sending 400,000 soldiers to form the basis of a multinational coalition, which he assembled and which destroyed Iraq’s main force within seven months. This conflict became known as the Gulf War.

One of the biggest crises that the Bush administration encountered was the collapse of the savings and loan industry in the late eighties. Thrift institutions were required by law to pay low interest rates for deposits and long-term loans. The creation of money market funds for the small investor in the eighties which paid higher rates of return than savings accounts prompted depositors to withdraw their money from banks and invest it in the higher yielding mutual funds. To finance the withdrawals, banks began selling assets at a loss. The deregulation of the savings and loan industry, combined with the increase in federal deposit insurance from \$40,000 to \$100,000 per account, encouraged many desperate savings institutions to invest in high-risk real-estate ventures, for which no state supervision or regulation existed. When the majority of such ventures predictably failed, the federal government found itself compelled by law to rescue the thrifts. It is estimated that this will cost to taxpayers \$345 billion, in settlements that will continue through 2029.

In his bid for reelection in 1992, Bush faced not only Democratic nominee Bill Clinton, Governor of Arkansas, but also third-party candidate Ross Perot, a Dallas billionaire who had made his fortune in the computer industry. In contrast to Bush’s first run for the presidency, when the nation had enjoyed an unusually long period of economic expansion, the economy in 1992 was just beginning to recover from a recession. Although data released the following year indicated that a healthy rebound had already begun in 1992, the public perceived the economy during election year as weak. Clinton took advantage of this perception in his campaign, focusing on the financial concerns of what he called “the forgotten middle class.” He also took a more centrist position on many issues than more traditional Democrats, promising fiscal responsibility and economic growth. Clinton defeated Bush, winning 43% of the vote to Bush’s 38%. Perot garnered 18% of the vote.

At its outset, Clinton’s presidency was plagued by numerous setbacks, most notably the failure of his controversial health care reform plan, drawn up under the leadership of first lady Hillary Rod-

ham Clinton. Major accomplishments included the passage, by a narrow margin, of a deficit-reduction bill calling for tax increases and spending cuts and Congressional approval of the North American Free Trade Agreement, which removed or reduced tariffs on most goods moving across the borders of the United States, Canada, and Mexico. Although supporters and critics agreed that the treaty would create or eliminate relatively few jobs—two hundred thousand—the accord prompted heated debate. Labor strenuously opposed the agreement, seeing it as accelerating the flight of factory jobs to countries with low labor costs such as Mexico, the third largest trading partner of the United States. Business, on the other hand, lobbied heavily for the treaty, arguing that it would create new markets for American goods and insisting that competition from Mexico would benefit the American economy.

By the fall of 1994, many American workers, still confronting stagnating wages, benefits, and living standards, had yet to feel the effects of the nation’s recovery from the recession of 1990–91. The resulting disillusionment with the actions of the Clinton administration and the Democrat-controlled Congress, combined with the widespread climate of social conservatism resulting from a perceived erosion of traditional moral values led to an overwhelming upset by the Republican party in the 1994 midterm elections. The GOP gained control of both houses of Congress for the first time in over 40 years, also winning 11 gubernatorial races, for control of a total of 30 governorships nationwide. The Republican agenda—increased defense spending and cuts in taxes, social programs, and farm subsidies—had been popularized under the label “Contract with America,” the title of a manifesto circulated during the campaign.

The ensuing confrontation between the nation’s Democratic president and Republican-controlled Congress came to a head at the end of 1995, when Congress responded to presidential vetoes of appropriations and budget bills by refusing to pass stop gap spending measures, resulting in major shutdowns of the federal government in November and December. The following summer, however, the president and Congress joined forces to reform the welfare system through a bill replacing Aid to Families with Dependent Children with block grants through which welfare funding would largely become the province of the states.

The nation’s economic recovery gained strength as the decade advanced, with healthy growth, falling unemployment, and moderate interest and inflation levels. Public confidence in the economy was reflected in a bull market on the stock exchange, which gained 60% between 1995 and 1997. Bolstered by a favorable economy at home and peace abroad, Clinton’s faltering popularity rebounded and in 1996 he became the first Democratic president elected to a second term since Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1936, defeating the Republican candidate, former Senate majority leader Robert Dole, and Independent Ross Perot, whose electoral support was greatly reduced from its 1992 level. The Republicans retained control of both houses of Congress. In 1997, President Clinton signed into law a bipartisan budget plan designed to balance the federal budget by 2002 for the first time since 1969, through a combination of tax and spending cuts. In 1998–99, the federal government experienced two straight years of budget surpluses.

In 1998, special prosecutor Kenneth Starr submitted a report to Congress that resulted in the House of Representatives pass-

ing four articles of impeachment against President Clinton. In the subsequent trial in the Senate, the articles were defeated.

Regulation of the three large financial industries underwent significant change in late 1999. The Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act (also known as the Financial Modernization Act) was passed by Congress in November 1999. It cleared the way for banks, insurance companies, and securities companies to sell each other's services and to engage in merger and acquisition activity. Prior to the Act's passage, activities of the banking, insurance and securities industries were strictly limited by the Glass Steagall Act of 1933, which Gramm-Leach-Bliley repealed.

Health care issues received significant attention in 2000. On 23 November 1998, 46 states and the District of Columbia together reached a settlement with the large US tobacco companies over compensation for smoking-related health-care costs incurred by the states. Payments to the states, totaling \$206 billion, were scheduled to be made over 25 years beginning in 1999. Most states passed Patients' Rights legislation, and all 50 states and the District of Columbia passed Children's Health Insurance Programs (CHIP) legislation to provide health care to children in low-income families.

The ongoing strong economy continued through the late 1990s and into 2000. Economic expansion set a record for longevity, and—except for higher gasoline prices during summer 2000, stemming from higher crude oil prices—inflation continued to be relatively low. By 2000, there was additional evidence that productivity growth had improved substantially since the mid-1990s, boosting living standards while helping to hold down increases in costs and prices despite very tight labor markets.

In 2000, Hispanics replaced African Americans as the largest minority group in the United States. (Hispanics numbered 35.3 million in 2000, or 12.5% of the population, compared with 34.7 million blacks, or 12.3% of the population.)

The 2000 presidential election was one of the closest in US history, pitting Democratic Vice President Al Gore against Republican Party candidate George W. Bush, son of former President George H. W. Bush. The vote count in Florida became the determining factor in the 7 November election, as each candidate needed to obtain the state's 25 electoral college votes in order to capture the 270 needed to win the presidency. When in the early hours of 8 November Bush appeared to have won the state's 25 votes, Gore called Bush to concede the election. He soon retracted the concession, however, after the extremely thin margin of victory triggered an automatic recount of the vote in Florida. The Democrats subsequently mounted a series of legal challenges to the vote count in Florida, which favored Bush. Eventually, the US Supreme Court, in *Bush v. Gore*, was summoned to rule on the election. On 12 December 2000, the Court, divided 5–4, reversed the Florida state supreme court decision that had ordered new recounts called for by Al Gore. George W. Bush was declared president. Gore had won the popular vote, however, capturing 48.4% of votes cast to Bush's 47.9%.

Once inaugurated, Bush called education his top priority, stating that “no child should be left behind” in America. He affirmed support for Medicare and Social Security, and called for pay and benefit increases for the military. He called upon charities and faith-based community groups to aid the disadvantaged. Bush announced a \$1.6 trillion tax cut plan (subsequently reduced to

\$1.35 trillion) in his first State of the Union Address as an economic stimulus package designed to respond to an economy that had begun to falter. He called for research and development of a missile-defense program, and warned of the threat of international terrorism.

The threat of international terrorism was made all too real on 11 September 2001, when 19 hijackers crashed 4 passenger aircraft into the North and South towers of the World Trade Center, the Pentagon, and a field in Stony Creek Township in Pennsylvania. The World Trade Center towers were destroyed. Approximately 3,000 people were confirmed or reported dead as a result of all four 11 September 2001 attacks. The terrorist organization al-Qaeda, led by Saudi-born Osama bin Laden, was believed to be responsible for the attacks, and a manhunt for bin Laden began.

On 7 October 2001, the United States and Britain launched air strikes against known terrorist training camps and military installations within Afghanistan, ruled by the Taliban regime that supported the al-Qaeda organization. The air strikes were supported by leaders of the European Union and Russia, as well as other nations. By December 2001, the Taliban were defeated, and Afghan leader Hamid Karzai was chosen to lead an interim administration for the country. Remnants of al-Qaeda still remained in Afghanistan and the surrounding region, and a year after the 2001 offensive more than 10,000 US soldiers remained in Afghanistan to suppress efforts by either the Taliban or al-Qaeda to regroup. As of 2005, Allied soldiers continued to come under periodic attack in Afghanistan.

As a response to the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks, the US Congress that October approved the USA Patriot Act, proposed by the Bush administration. The act gave the government greater powers to detain suspected terrorists (or also immigrants), to counter money-laundering, and increase surveillance by domestic law enforcement and international intelligence agencies. Critics claimed the law did not provide for the system of checks and balances that safeguard civil liberties in the United States.

Beginning in late 2001, corporate America suffered a crisis of confidence. In December 2001, the energy giant Enron Corporation declared bankruptcy after massive false accounting practices came to light. Eclipsing the Enron scandal, telecommunications giant WorldCom in June 2002 disclosed that it had hid \$3.8 billion in expenses over 15 months. The fraud led to WorldCom's bankruptcy, the largest in US history (the company had \$107 billion in assets).

In his January 2002 State of the Union Address, President Bush announced that Iran, Iraq, and North Korea constituted an “axis of evil,” sponsoring terrorism and threatening the United States and its allies with weapons of mass destruction. Throughout 2002, the United States pressed its case against Iraq, stating that the Iraqi regime had to disarm itself of weapons of mass destruction. In November 2002, the UN Security Council passed Resolution 1441, calling upon Iraq to disarm itself of any chemical, biological, or nuclear weapons it might possess and to allow for the immediate return of weapons inspectors (they had been expelled in 1998). UN and IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency) weapons inspectors returned to the country, but the United States and the United Kingdom expressed dissatisfaction with their progress, and indicated military force might be necessary to remove the Iraqi regime, led by Saddam Hussein. France and Russia, per-

manent members of the UN Security Council, and Germany, a nonpermanent member, in particular, opposed the use of military force. The disagreement caused a diplomatic rift in the West that was slow to repair.

After diplomatic efforts at conflict resolution failed by March 2003, the United States, on 19 March, launched air strikes against targets in Baghdad and war began. On 9 April, Baghdad fell to US forces, and work began on restoring basic services to the Iraqi population, including providing safe drinking water, electricity, and sanitation. On 1 May, President Bush declared major combat operations had been completed. Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein was captured by US forces on 13 December 2003 and placed in custody.

In May 2004, the Abu Ghraib scandal erupted. Photographs of US soldiers engaged in acts of abuse—including physical, sexual, and psychological—against Iraqi prisoners being held at the Abu Ghraib military prison outside Baghdad were made public. The fact that the prison had been a place of torture and execution under Saddam Hussein's rule made the abuse seem even more degrading. Seven US suspects were named for carrying out the abuse; most were given prison sentences on charges ranging from conspiracy to assault, but some thought higher-ranking officials, including Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld, should resign as well.

US forces increasingly became the targets of attacks in Iraq as an insurgency against the US military presence began. By late 2005, nearly 1,900 US soldiers had been killed since major combat operations were declared over on 1 May 2003. Some 138,000 US troops remained in Iraq in late 2005, and that number was expected to increase as a referendum on a new Iraqi constitution in October 2005 and national elections in December 2005 were to be held.

The 2004 presidential election was held on 2 November. President George W. Bush and Vice President Dick Cheney defeated Democratic challengers John F. Kerry and John R. Edwards. Bush received approximately 3 million more popular votes than Kerry, and won the electoral vote 286 to 251 (One electoral vote went to John Edwards when an elector pledged to Kerry voted for “John Edwards” instead.) The vote in Ohio was the deciding factor, and upon conceding Ohio, Kerry conceded the election. The campaign was run on such issues as terrorism, the War in Iraq, the economy, and to a lesser extent issues of morality and values (Anti-gay marriage measures were on the ballots in 11 states, and all passed.)

In August 2005, Hurricane Katrina landed on the Gulf Coast of the United States, in what was one of the worst natural disasters in US history. The city of New Orleans, Louisiana, was evacuated, but some 150,000 people were unable to leave before the storm hit. A day after the storm appeared to have bypassed the city's center, levees were breached by the storm surge and water submerged the metropolis. Rescuers initially ignored the bodies of the dead in the search to find the living. Those unable to leave the city were sheltered in the Louisiana Superdome and New Orleans Convention Center; air conditioning, electricity, and running water failed, making for unsanitary and uncomfortable conditions. They were later transferred to other shelters, including the Houston Astrodome. Looting, shootings, and carjackings exacerbated already devastating conditions. The costs of the hurricane and flooding were exceedingly high in terms of both loss of life and economic damage: more than 1,000 people died and damages were estimated

to reach \$200 billion. Katrina had global economic consequences, as imports, exports, and oil supplies—including production, importation, and refining—were disrupted. The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) of the Department of Homeland Security, and President Bush were criticized in varying degrees for their lack of adequate response to the disaster. FEMA director Michael D. Brown resigned his position amid the furor. Race and class issues also came to the fore, as the majority of New Orleans residents unable to evacuate the city and affected by the catastrophe were poor and African American.

¹²FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The Constitution of the United States, signed in 1787, is the nation's governing document. In the first 10 amendments to the Constitution, ratified in 1791 and known as the Bill of Rights, the federal government is denied the power to infringe on rights generally regarded as fundamental to the civil liberties of the people. These amendments prohibit the establishment of a state religion and the abridgment of freedom of speech, press, and the right to assemble. They protect all persons against unreasonable searches and seizures, guarantee trial by jury, and prohibit excessive bail and cruel and unusual punishments. No person may be required to testify against himself, nor may he be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. The 13th Amendment (1865) banned slavery; the 15th (1870) protected the freed slaves' right to vote; and the 19th (1920) guaranteed the franchise to women. In all, there have been 27 amendments, the last of which, proposed in 1789 but ratified in 1992, denied the variation of the compensation of Senators and Representatives until an election intervened. The Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), approved by Congress in 1972, would have mandated equality between the sexes; only 35 of the required 38 states had ratified the ERA by the time the ratification deadline expired on 30 June 1982.

The United States has a federal form of government, with the distribution of powers between the federal government and the states constitutionally defined. The legislative powers of the federal government are vested in Congress, which consists of the House of Representatives and the Senate. There are 435 members of the House of Representatives. Each state is allotted a number of representatives in proportion to its population as determined by the decennial census. Representatives are elected for two-year terms in every even-numbered year. A representative must be at least 25 years old, must be a resident of the state represented, and must have been a citizen of the United States for at least seven years. The Senate consists of two senators from each state, elected for six-year terms. Senators must be at least 30 years old, must be residents of the states from which they are elected, and must have been citizens of the United States for at least nine years. One-third of the Senate is elected in every even-numbered year.

Congress legislates on matters of taxation, borrowing, regulation of international and interstate commerce, formulation of rules of naturalization, bankruptcy, coinage, weights and measures, post offices and post roads, courts inferior to the Supreme Court, provision for the armed forces, among many other matters. A broad interpretation of the “necessary and proper” clause of the Constitution has widened considerably the scope of congressional legislation based on the enumerated powers.

A bill that is passed by both houses of Congress in the same form is submitted to the president, who may sign it or veto it. If the president chooses to veto the bill, it is returned to the house in which it originated with the reasons for the veto. The bill may become law despite the president's veto if it is passed again by a two-thirds vote in both houses. A bill becomes law without the president's signature if retained for 10 days while Congress is in session. After Congress adjourns, if the president does not sign a bill within 10 days, an automatic veto ensues.

The president must be "a natural born citizen" at least 35 years old, and must have been a resident of the United States for 14 years. Under the 22nd Amendment to the Constitution, adopted in 1951, a president may not be elected more than twice. Each state is allotted a number of electors based on its combined total of US senators and representatives, and, technically, it is these electors who, constituted as the electoral college, cast their vote for president, with all of the state's electoral votes customarily going to the candidate who won the largest share of the popular vote of the state (the District of Columbia also has three electors, making a total of 538 votes). Thus, the candidate who wins the greatest share of the popular vote throughout the United States may, in rare cases, fail to win a majority of the electoral vote. If no candidate gains a majority in the electoral college, the choice passes to the House of Representatives.

The vice president, elected at the same time and on the same ballot as the president, serves as *ex officio* president of the Senate. The vice president assumes the power and duties of the presidency on the president's removal from office or as a result of the president's death, resignation, or inability to perform his duties. In the case of a vacancy in the vice presidency, the president nominates a successor, who must be approved by a majority in both houses of Congress. The Congress has the power to determine the line of presidential succession in case of the death or disability of both the president and vice president.

Under the Constitution, the president is enjoined to "take care that the laws be faithfully executed." In reality, the president has a considerable amount of leeway in determining to what extent a law is or is not enforced. Congress's only recourse is impeachment, to which it has resorted only three times, in proceedings against presidents Andrew Johnson, Richard Nixon, and Bill Clinton. Both the president and the vice president are removable from office after impeachment by the House and conviction at a Senate trial for "treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors." The president has the power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States except in cases of impeachment.

The president nominates and "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate" appoints ambassadors, public ministers, consuls, and all federal judges, including the justices of the Supreme Court. As commander in chief, the president is ultimately responsible for the disposition of the land, naval, and air forces, but the power to declare war belongs to Congress. The president conducts foreign relations and makes treaties with the advice and consent of the Senate. No treaty is binding unless it wins the approval of two-thirds of the Senate. The president's independence is also limited by the House of Representatives, where all money bills originate.

The president also appoints as his cabinet, subject to Senate confirmation, the secretaries who head the departments of the ex-

ecutive branch. As of 2005, the executive branch included the following cabinet departments: Agriculture (created in 1862), Commerce (1913), Defense (1947), Education (1980), Energy (1977), Health and Human Services (1980), Housing and Urban Development (1965), Interior (1849), Justice (1870), Labor (1913), State (1789), Transportation (1966), Treasury (1789), Veterans' Affairs (1989), and Homeland Security (2002). The Department of Defense—headquartered in the Pentagon, the world's largest office building—also administers the various branches of the military: Air Force, Army, Navy, defense agencies, and joint-service schools. The Department of Justice administers the Federal Bureau of Investigation, which originated in 1908; the Central Intelligence Agency (1947) is under the aegis of the Executive office. Among the several hundred quasi-independent agencies are the Federal Reserve System (1913), serving as the nation's central bank, and the major regulatory bodies, notably the Environmental Protection Agency (1970), Federal Communications Commission (1934), Federal Power Commission (1920), Federal Trade Commission (1914), and Interstate Commerce Commission (1887).

Regulations for voting are determined by the individual states for federal as well as for local offices, and requirements vary from state to state. In the past, various southern states used literacy tests, poll taxes, "grandfather" clauses, and other methods to disfranchise black voters, but Supreme Court decisions and congressional measures, including the Voting Rights Act of 1965, more than doubled the number of black registrants in Deep South states between 1964 and 1992. In 1960, only 29.1% of the black voting-age population was registered to vote; by the mid-1990s, that percentage had risen to over 65%.

As of the November 2004 presidential election, there were over 16 million registered African American voters (64.4% of those African Americans eligible to vote). The number of registered Hispanic voters increased from 2.5 million in 1972 to 9 million in 2004 (34.3% of eligible Hispanic voters). Sixty-four percent of eligible voters cast ballots in the 2004 presidential election, up from 60% in 2000. Voter registration was reported to be 72% nationwide. The next presidential election was to be held November 2008.

13 POLITICAL PARTIES

Two major parties, Democratic and Republican, have dominated national, state, and local politics since 1860. These parties are made up of clusters of small autonomous local groups primarily concerned with local politics and the election of local candidates to office. Within each party, such groups frequently differ drastically in policies and beliefs on many issues, but once every four years, they successfully bury their differences and rally around a candidate for the presidency. Minority parties have been formed at various periods in US political history, but most have generally allied with one of the two major parties, and none has achieved sustained national prominence. The most successful minority party in recent decades—that of Texas billionaire Ross Perot in 1992—was little more than a protest vote. Various extreme groups on the right and left, including a small US Communist Party, have had little political significance on a national scale; in 1980, the Libertarian Party became the first minor party since 1916 to appear on the ballot in all 50 states. The Green Party increased its showing in the 2000 election, with presidential candidate Ralph Nader

winning 2.7% of the vote. Independent candidates have won state and local office, but no candidate has won the presidency without major party backing.

Traditionally, the Republican Party is more solicitous of business interests and gets greater support from business than does the Democratic Party. A majority of blue-collar workers, by contrast, have generally supported the Democratic Party, which favors more lenient labor laws, particularly as they affect labor unions; the Republican Party often (though not always) supports legislation that restricts the power of labor unions. Republicans favor the enhancement of the private sector of the economy, while Democrats generally urge the cause of greater government participation and regulatory authority, especially at the federal level.

Within both parties there are sharp differences on a great many issues; for example, northeastern Democrats in the past almost uniformly favored strong federal civil rights legislation, which was anathema to the Deep South; eastern Republicans in foreign policy are internationalist-minded, while midwesterners of the same party constituted from 1910 through 1940 the hard core of isolationist sentiment in the country. More recently, “conservative” headings have been adopted by members of both parties who emphasize decentralized government power, strengthened private enterprise, and a strong US military posture overseas, while the designation “liberal” has been applied to those favoring an in-

creased federal government role in economic and social affairs, disengagement from foreign military commitments, and safeguards for civil liberties.

President Nixon’s resignation and the accompanying scandal surrounding the Republican Party hierarchy had a telling, if predictable, effect on party morale, as indicated by Republican losses in the 1974 and 1976 elections. The latent consequences of the Vietnam and Watergate years appeared to take their toll on both parties, however, in growing apathy toward politics and mistrust of politicians among the electorate. Ronald Reagan’s successful 1980 presidential bid cut into traditional Democratic strongholds throughout the United States, as Republicans won control of the US Senate and eroded state and local Democratic majorities. On the strength of an economic recovery, President Reagan won reelection in November 1984, carrying 49 of 50 states (with a combined total of 525 electoral votes) and 58.8% of the popular vote; the Republicans retained control of the Senate, but the Democrats held on to the House. Benefiting from a six-year expansion of the economy, Republican George H.W. Bush won 54% of the vote in 1988. As Reagan had, Bush successfully penetrated traditionally Democratic regions. He carried every state in the South as well as the industrial states of the North.

Bush’s approval rating reached a high of 91% in March of 1991 in the wake of the Persian Gulf War. By July of 1992, however, that

US Popular Vote for President by National Political Parties, 1948–2004

YEAR	WINNER	VOTES CAST	VOTERS	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN	PROHIBITION	SOC. LABOR	SOC. WORKERS	SOCIALIST	PROGRESSIVE	STATES’ RIGHTS DEMOCRAT	CONSTITUTION	OTHER ¹	
1948	Truman (D)	48,692,442	51	24,105,587	21,970,017	103,489	29,038	13,614	138,973	1,157,057	1,169,134	—	5,533	
1952	Eisenhower (R)	61,551,118	62	27,314,649	33,936,137	73,413	30,250	10,312	20,065	140,416	—	17,200	8,676	
1956	Eisenhower (R)	62,025,372	59	26,030,172	35,585,245	41,937	44,300	7,797	2,044	—	2,657	108,055	203,165	
1960	Kennedy (D)	68,828,960	63	34,221,344	34,106,761	44,087	47,522	40,166	—	—	209,314	—	159,856	
1964	Johnson (D)	70,641,104	62	43,126,584	27,177,838	23,266	45,187	32,701	—	—	6,953	210,732	17,843	
1968	Nixon (R)	73,203,370	61	31,274,503	31,785,148	14,915	52,591	41,390	1,076	COMMUNIST	PEACE AND FREEDOM 83,720 ²	AMERICAN IND. 9,901,151	—	48,876
1972	Nixon (R)	77,727,590	55	29,171,791	47,170,179	12,818	53,811	94,4152	25,343	—	LIBERTARIAN 3,671	AMERICAN 1,090,673	104,889	
1976	Carter (D)	81,552,331	54	40,829,046	39,146,006	15,958	US LABOR 40,041	91,310	58,992	173,019	170,531	160,773	866,655 ³	
1980	Reagan (R)	86,495,678	54	35,481,435	43,899,248	230,377	CITIZENS RESPECT FOR LIFE 32,319	40,105	43,871	920,859	41,172	6,539	5,799,753 ⁴	
1984	Reagan (R)	92,652,793	53	37,577,137	54,455,074	72,200	POPULIST 66,336	24,706	36,386	228,314	IND. ALLIANCE 46,852	13,161	132,627 ⁵	
1988	Bush (R)	91,594,809	50	41,809,074	48,886,097	30,905	47,047	15,604	—	432,179	217,219	3,475	153,209	
1992	Clinton (D)	104,426,659	55	44,909,889	39,104,545	43,398	US TAX PAYER 107,002	23,091	39,163	291,628	73,708	3,875	19,830,360 ⁶	
1996	Clinton (D)	96,277,223	49	47,402,357	39,198,755	184,658	US TAX PAYER GREEN 684,902	8,476	4,765	LIBERTARIAN 485,798	NATURAL LAW 113,668	1,847	8,196,762 ⁷	
2000	Bush, GW (R)	105,405,100	48	50,999,897	50,456,002	448,895	REFORM 2,882,955	7,378	—	384,431	87,714	98,020	39,808	
2004	Bush, GW (R)	122,295,345	57	59,028,444	62,040,610	465,650	119,859	10,791 ⁸	—	397,265	10,837	143,630	78,259	

¹Includes votes for state parties, independent candidates and unpledged electors.
²Total includes votes for several candidates in different states under the same party label.
³Includes 756,631 votes for Eugene McCarthy, an independent.
⁴Includes 5,719,437 votes for John Anderson, an independent.
⁵Includes 78,807 votes for Lyndon H. LaRouche, an independent.
⁶Includes 19,742,267 votes for Ross Perot, an independent.
⁷Includes 8,085,402 votes for Ross Perot, a Reform candidate.
⁸Includes 7,102 votes for James Harris and 3,689 for Róger Calero

rating had plummeted to 25%, in part because Bush appeared to be disengaged from domestic issues, particularly the 1991 recession. Bill Clinton, governor of Arkansas and twenty years younger than Bush, presented himself to the electorate as a “New Democrat.” He took more moderate positions than traditional New Deal Democrats, including calling for a middle-class tax cut, welfare reform, national service, and such traditionally Republican goals as getting tough on crime. The presidential race took on an unpredictable dimension with the entrance of Independent Ross Perot, a Texas billionaire. Perot, who attacked the budget deficit and called for shared sacrifice, withdrew from the race in July and then re-entered it in October. Clinton won the election with 43% of the vote, Bush received 38%, and Perot captured 18%, more than any third-party presidential candidate since Theodore Roosevelt in 1912. As of 1992, Democrats enjoyed a large advantage over Republicans in voter registration, held both houses of congress, had a majority of state governorships, and controlled most state legislative bodies. In 1996 Bill Clinton became the first Democratic president since Franklin Roosevelt to be elected to a second term, with 49% of the popular vote to 41% for Republican Bob Dole, and 8% for Ross Perot, who once again ran as an Independent. Republicans retained control of the House and Senate.

Aided by a growing climate of conservatism on moral issues and popular discontent with the pace of economic recovery from the recent recession, the Republicans accomplished an historic upset in the 1994 midterm elections, gaining control of both houses of Congress for the first time since 1952. They gained 52 seats in the House, for a majority of 230–204, and 8 seats in the Senate, for a majority that came to 53–47 once Democrat Richard Shelby of Alabama changed parties shortly after the election. The Republicans also increased their power at the state level, winning 11 governorships, for a national total of 30. The number of state legislatures under Republican control increased from 8 to 19, with 18 controlled by the Democrats and 12 under split control. After the 1998 election, the Republican majority had eroded slightly in the House, with the 106th Congress including 223 Republicans, 210 Democrats, and 2 Independents; the Senate included 55 Republicans and 45 Democrats.

The major candidates in the 2000 presidential election were Republican George W. Bush, son of former president George H.W. Bush; his vice presidential running mate was Dick Cheney. The Democratic candidate was Vice President Al Gore, Jr. (Clinton administration 1992–2000). Gore chose Joseph Lieberman, senator from Connecticut, as his running mate. Lieberman, an Orthodox Jew, became the first Jew to run for national office. Following the contested presidential election of 2000, George W. Bush emerged as president following a ruling by the US Supreme Court. Gore won the popular vote, with 48.4%, to 47.9% for Bush, but Bush won the electoral college vote, 271–266, with one blank vote in the electoral college cast. Sectional and demographic differences were evident in the 2000 election, with the Northeast, parts of the Midwest, the Pacific states, and most urban areas voting Democratic, and the South, West, and rural communities voting Republican.

Following the November 2002 mid-term elections, Republicans held 229 of 435 seats in the House of Representatives, and there were 205 Democrats and 1 independent in the House. The Republicans held an extremely thin margin in the Senate, of 51 seats, to the Democrats’ 48. There was one independent in the Senate, for-

mer Republican Jim Jeffords. Following the election, Nancy Pelosi became the Democratic Majority Leader in the House of Representatives, the first woman to head either party in Congress. As a result of the 2002 election, there were 60 women, 37 African Americans, and 22 Hispanics in the House of Representatives, and 14 women in the Senate. There were no African American or Hispanic senators following the 2002 election.

The 2004 presidential election was won by incumbent George W. Bush and his running mate Dick Cheney. They defeated Democrats John F. Kerry and John Edwards. Bush received 286 electoral votes, Kerry 251, and Edwards 1 when an elector wrote the name “John Edwards” in on the electoral ballot. Bush received a majority of the popular vote—50.73%, to Kerry’s 48.27%—or 3 million more votes than Kerry. Voter turnout was the highest since 1968, at 64%. The composition of the 109th Congress after the 2004 election was as follows: 55 Republicans, 44 Democrats, and 1 Independent in the Senate, and 232 Republicans, 202 Democrats, and 1 Independent in the House of Representatives. The next elections for the Senate and House of Representatives were to be held November 2006.

The 1984 election marked a turning point for women in national politics. Geraldine A. Ferraro, a Democrat, became the first female vice presidential nominee of a major US political party; no woman has ever captured a major-party presidential nomination. In the 109th Congress (2005–06), 14 women served in the US Senate, and 68 women held seats in the US House of Representatives (including delegates).

The 1984 presidential candidacy of Jesse L. Jackson, election, the first African American ever to win a plurality in a statewide presidential preference primary, likewise marked the emergence of African Americans as a political force, especially within the Democratic Party. In 1992 an African American woman, Democrat Carol Moseley Braun of Illinois, won election to the Senate, becoming the first black senator; Moseley Braun lost her reelection bid in 1998. She was a candidate for president in 2004.

There were 42 African Americans in the House of Representatives and one in the Senate in the 109th Congress. Twenty-six Hispanics were serving in the House and two in the Senate, a record number. Eight members of Congress were of Asian/Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander ethnicity, six in the House of Representatives and two in the Senate. There was one Native American in the House. (These numbers include delegates.)

14 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Governmental units within each state comprise counties, municipalities, and such special districts as those for water, sanitation, highways, and parks, and recreation. There are more than 3,000 counties in the United States; more than 19,000 municipalities, including cities, villages, towns, and boroughs; nearly 15,000 school districts; and at least 31,000 special districts. Additional townships, authorities, commissions, and boards make up the rest of the nearly 85,000 local governmental units.

The 50 states are autonomous within their own spheres of government, and their autonomy is defined in broad terms by the 10th Amendment to the US Constitution, which reserves to the states such powers as are not granted to the federal government and not denied to the states. The states may not, among other restrictions, issue paper money, conduct foreign relations, impair

the obligations of contracts, or establish a government that is not republican in form. Subsequent amendments to the Constitution and many Supreme Court decisions added to the restrictions placed on the states. The 13th Amendment prohibited the states from legalizing the ownership of one person by another (slavery); the 14th Amendment deprived the states of their power to determine qualifications for citizenship; the 15th Amendment prohibited the states from denying the right to vote because of race, color, or previous condition of servitude; and the 19th, from denying the vote to women.

Since the Civil War, the functions of the state have expanded. Local business—that is, business not involved in foreign or interstate commerce—is regulated by the state. The states create subordinate governmental bodies such as counties, cities, towns, villages, and boroughs, whose charters they either issue or, where home rule is permitted, approve. States regulate employment of children and women in industry, and enact safety laws to prevent industrial accidents. Unemployment insurance is a state function, as are education, public health, highway construction and safety, operation of a state highway patrol, and various kinds of personal relief. The state and local governments still are primarily responsible for providing public assistance, despite the large part the federal government plays in financing welfare.

Each state is headed by an elected governor. State legislatures are bicameral except Nebraska's, which has been unicameral since 1934. Generally, the upper house is called the senate, and the lower house the house of representatives or the assembly. Bills must be passed by both houses, and the governor has a suspensive veto, which usually may be overridden by a two-thirds vote.

The number, population, and geographic extent of the more than 3,000 counties in the United States—including the analogous units called boroughs in Alaska and parishes in Louisiana—show no uniformity from state to state. The county is the most conspicuous unit of rural local government and has a variety of powers, including location and repair of highways, county poor relief, determination of voting precincts and of polling places, and organization of school and road districts. City governments, usually headed by a mayor or city manager, have the power to levy taxes; to borrow; to pass, amend, and repeal local ordinances; and to grant franchises for public service corporations. Township government through an annual town meeting is an important New England tradition.

From the 1960s into the 21st century, a number of large cities began to suffer severe fiscal crises brought on by a combination of factors. Loss of tax revenues stemmed from the migration of middle-class residents to the suburbs and the flight of many small and large firms seeking to avoid the usually higher costs of doing business in urban areas. Low-income groups, many of them unskilled blacks and Hispanic migrants, came to constitute large segments of city populations, placing added burdens on locally funded welfare, medical, housing, and other services without providing the commensurate tax base for additional revenues.

15 STATE SERVICES

All state governments provide services in the fields of education, transportation, health and social welfare, public protection (including state police and prison personnel), housing, and labor. The 1970s saw an expansion of state services in four key areas:

energy, environment, consumer protection, and governmental ethics. Each state provides some form of consumer advocacy, either through a separate department or agency or through the office of the attorney general. State government in the 1970s and early 1980s also showed the effects of the so-called post-Watergate morality. Laws mandating financial disclosure by public officials, once rare, had become common by 1983. Also notable were “sunshine laws,” opening legislative committee meetings and administrative hearings to the public, and the use of an ombudsman either with general jurisdiction or with special powers relating, for example, to the problems of businesses, prisoners, the elderly, or racial minorities. Other trends in state administration, reflected on the federal level, include the separation of education from other services and the consolidation of social welfare programs in departments of human resources.

The distribution of federal funds to state, local, and territorial governments was placed at more than \$2.1 trillion in 2004. The largest outlays of aid were for retirement and disability funds, at \$666.9 billion; Medicare, \$259 billion; Medicaid, \$172 billion; and supplemental security income, \$36.9 billion.

California received more funds than any other state, \$232.3 billion, followed by New York state at \$143.9 billion; Texas at \$141.8 billion; Florida, at \$121.9 billion; Pennsylvania at \$94.9 billion, and Virginia at \$90.6 billion.

16 JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Supreme Court, established by the US Constitution, is the nation's highest judicial body, consisting of the chief justice of the United States and eight associate justices. All justices are appointed by the president with the advice and consent of the Senate. Appointments are for life “during good behavior,” otherwise terminating only by resignation or impeachment and conviction.

The original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court is relatively narrow; as an appellate court, it is open to appeal from decisions of federal district courts, circuit courts of appeals, and the highest courts in the states, although it may dismiss an appeal if it sees fit to do so. The Supreme Court, by means of a writ of certiorari, may call up a case from a district court for review. Regardless of how cases reach it, the Court enforces a kind of unity on the decisions of the lower courts. It also exercises the power of judicial review, determining the constitutionality of state laws, state constitutions, congressional statutes, and federal regulations, but only when these are specifically challenged.

The Constitution empowers Congress to establish all federal courts inferior to the Supreme Court. On the lowest level and handling the greatest proportion of federal cases are the district courts—including one each in Puerto Rico, Guam, the Virgin Islands, the Northern Mariana Islands, and the District of Columbia—where all offenses against the laws of the United States are tried. Civil actions that involve cases arising under treaties and laws of the United States and under the Constitution, where the amount in dispute is greater than \$5,000, also fall within the jurisdiction of the district courts. District courts have no appellate jurisdiction; their decisions may be carried to the courts of appeals, organized into 13 circuits. These courts also hear appeals from decisions made by administrative commissions. For most cases, this is usually the last stage of appeal, except where the court rules that a statute of a state conflicts with the Constitution of the United

States, with federal law, or with a treaty. Special federal courts include the Court of Claims, Court of Customs and Patent Appeals, and Tax Court.

State courts operate independently of the federal judiciary. Most states adhere to a court system that begins on the lowest level with a justice of the peace and includes courts of general trial jurisdiction, appellate courts, and, at the apex of the system, a state supreme court. The court of trial jurisdiction, sometimes called the county or superior court, has both original and appellate jurisdiction; all criminal cases (except those of a petty kind) and some civil cases are tried in this court. The state's highest court, like the Supreme Court of the United States, interprets the constitution and the laws of the state.

The grand jury is a body of from 13 to 24 persons that brings indictments against individuals suspected of having violated the law. Initially, evidence is presented to it by either a justice of the peace or a prosecuting county or district attorney. The trial or petit jury of 12 persons is used in trials of common law, both criminal and civil, except where the right to a jury trial is waived by consent of all parties at law. It judges the facts of the case, while the court is concerned exclusively with questions of law. The US accepts the compulsory jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice with reservations.

17 ARMED FORCES

The armed forces of the United States of America in 2005 numbered 1.473 million on active duty and 1.29 million in the Ready Reserve, a category of participation that allows regular training with pay and extended active duty periods for training. Membership in all U.S. armed forces is voluntary and has been since 1973 when conscription expired as the Vietnam war was winding down. The active duty force includes 196,100 women, who serve in all grades and all occupational specialties except direct ground combat units and some aviation billets.

In the 1990s, the armed forces reduced their personnel numbers and force structure because of the diminished threat of a nuclear war with the former Soviet Union or a major conflict in central Europe. Despite the interlude of the Gulf War, 1990–91, the force reductions continued throughout the decade, forcing some restructuring of the active duty forces, with emphasis on rapid deployment to deter or fight major regional conflicts much like the Gulf War, in Korea, elsewhere in the Middle East, or Latin America (e.g. Cuba). The conventional force debate centered on whether the United States could or should maintain forces to fight two regional conflicts simultaneously. In the spring of 1999, the United States took part in the NATO air campaign in response to the crisis in Kosovo, and the ensuing US participation in peacekeeping operations in the region brought with it the prospect of another long-term overseas deployment.

For the purposes of administration, personnel management, logistics, and training, the traditional four military services in the Department of Defense remain central to strategic planning. The US Army numbers 502,000 soldiers on active duty, and are deployed into 10 divisions (two armored, four mechanized infantry, two light infantry, one air assault and one airborne), as well as into various armored cavalry, aviation, artillery, signals, psychological operations, ranger, Special Forces, civil affairs and air defense units. Army missions involving special operations are given

to Special Forces groups, an airborne ranger regiment, an aviation group, and a psychological warfare group, with civil affairs and communications support units. The Army had 7,620 main battle tanks, 6,719 infantry fighting vehicles, 14,900 armored personnel carriers, 6,530 towed or self-propelled artillery pieces, some 268 fixed wing aircraft, and 4,431 armed and transport helicopters. The Army National Guard (355,900) emphasizes the preparation of combat units up to division size for major regional conflicts, while the Army Reserve (351,350) prepares individuals to fill active units or provide combat support or service support/technical/medical units upon mobilization. In addition, the National Guard retains a residual state role in suppressing civil disturbances and providing disaster relief.

The US Navy had 376,750 active personnel. The service has seen its role shift from nuclear strategic deterrence and control of sea routes to Europe and Asia, to the projection of naval power from the sea. Naval task forces normally combine three combat elements: air, surface, and subsurface. The Navy had up to 80 nuclear-powered submarines, that consisted of 16 strategic ballistic missile (SSBN) and 64 tactical/attack (SSGN and SSN) submarines. The latter ships can launch cruise missiles at land targets.

As of 2005, naval aviation was centered on 12 carriers (nine nuclear-powered) and 11 carrier aircraft wings, which included armed ASW helicopters and armed long-range ASW patrol aircraft, as well as a large fleet of communications and support aircraft. The Navy controlled 983 combat capable fixed wing aircraft and 608 helicopters of all types. Naval aviation reserves provided additional wings for carrier deployment. The surface force included 27 cruisers (22 with advanced anti-air suites), 49 destroyers, 30 frigates, 38 amphibious ships, 26 mine warfare ships, and 21 patrol and coastal combatants. More ships are kept in ready reserve or were manned by surface line reserve units. The fleet support force also included specialized ships for global logistics that are not base-dependent.

The Marine Corps, a separate branch of the Navy, was organized into three active divisions and three aircraft wings of the Fleet Marine Force, which also included three Force Service Support groups and special operations and anti-terrorism units. The Marine Corps (173,350; 11,311 reservists) emphasized amphibious landings but trained for a wide-range of contingency employments. The Marines had 344 combat capable fixed wing aircraft, 304 helicopters of all types, 403 main battle tanks, 1,311 amphibious armored vehicles, and about 1,511 artillery pieces (926 towed).

As of 2005, the US Air Force had 379,500 active personnel, and was focused on becoming rapidly deployable rather than US-based. Almost all its aircraft are now dedicated to nonstrategic roles in support of forward deployed ground and naval forces. The Air Force stressed the missions of air superiority and interdiction with complementary operations in electronic warfare and reconnaissance, but it also included 29 transport squadrons. Air Force personnel manage the US radar and satellite early-warning and intelligence effort. The Air Force Reserve and Air National Guard (roughly 183,200 active reserves) provided a wide range of flying and support units, and its flying squadrons had demonstrated exceptional readiness and combat skills on contingency missions. Air Force reserves, for example, were the backbone of the air refueling and transport fleets.

The armed forces were deployed among a range of functional unified or specified commands for actual missions. Strategic forces were under the US Strategic Command, which was a combined service command that controlled the U.S.' strategic nuclear deterrence forces, which as of 2005, was made up of 550 land-based ICBMs, 16 Navy fleet ballistic missile submarines (SSBNs), and 85 operational long-range bombers (B-52s and B-1As). Land-based ICBMs are under the Air Force Space Command, while the long-range bomber force was under the Air Force Air Combat Command. The Strategic Command was also responsible for strategic reconnaissance and intelligence collection, and the strategic early warning and air defense forces. In 2002 the Treaty of Moscow was signed between the United States and Russia to reduce deployed nuclear weapons by two-thirds by the year 2012. As of 2002, the United States had more than 10,000 operational nuclear warheads.

The conventional forces were deployed to a mix of geographic and organizational commands, including the Atlantic, European, Central, Southern, Northern and Pacific commands, as well as to specific organizational commands such as the Transportation Command, Special Operations Command and Air Mobility Command. Major operational units are deployed to Germany, Korea, and Japan as part of collective security alliances, in addition to forces stationed throughout other countries in the Middle East, Africa, Southeast Asia, Western and Eastern Europe, and Latin America. Approximately 19,000 US troops are stationed in Afghanistan with Operation Enduring Freedom.

Patterns of defense spending reflected the movement away from Cold War assumptions and confrontation with the former Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China. During the 1980s when defense spending hovered around \$300 billion a year and increased roughly 30% over the decade, defense spending absorbed roughly 6% of the gross domestic spending, 25% of federal spending, and 16% of net public spending. In the early 1990s, when the defense budget slipped back to the \$250–\$260 billion level, the respective percentages were 4.5, 18, and 11, the lowest levels of support for defense since the Korean War (1950). In 1999, the defense budget was \$276.7 billion or 3.2% of GDP. In 2005, US defense budget outlays totaled \$465 billion.

18 MIGRATION

Between 1840 and 1930, some 37 million immigrants, the overwhelming majority of them Europeans, arrived in the United States. Immigration reached its peak in the first decade of the 20th century, when nearly 9 million came. Following the end of World War I, the tradition of almost unlimited immigration was abandoned, and through the National Origins Act of 1924, a quota system was established as the basis of a carefully restricted policy of immigration. Under the McCarran Act of 1952, one-sixth of 1% of the number of inhabitants from each European nation residing in the continental United States as of 1920 could be admitted annually. In practice, this system favored nations of northern and western Europe, with the UK, Germany, and Ireland being the chief beneficiaries. The quota system was radically reformed in 1965, under a new law that established an annual ceiling of 170,000 for Eastern Hemisphere immigrants and 120,000 for entrants from the Western Hemisphere; in October 1978, these limits were replaced by a worldwide limit of 290,000, which was lowered to

270,000 by 1981. A major 1990 overhaul set a total annual ceiling of 700,000 (675,000 beginning in fiscal 1995), of which 480,000 would be family sponsored and 140,000 employment based. The 1996 Immigration Reform Law addressed concerns about illegal immigration and border enforcement. The 1996 Welfare Reform Law revised legal and illegal immigrants' access to different forms of public assistance, and raised the standards for US residents who sponsor immigrants. The 2000 H-1B Visa Legislation increased temporary immigration visas for high-tech workers. In 2004, President Bush proposed a fair and secure immigration reform with a new temporary worker program.

In 2002, 1,063,732 immigrants entered the United States, of whom 416,860 were subject to the numerical limits. Some 342,099 immigrants in 2002 were from Asia; 404,437 were from North America; 74,506 were from South America; 174,209 from Europe; 60,269 from Africa, and 5,557 from Oceania. A direct result of the immigration law revisions has been a sharp rise in the influx of Asians (primarily Chinese, Filipinos, Indians, Japanese, and Koreans), of whom 2,738,157 entered the country during 1981–90, as compared with 153,249 during the entire decade of the 1950s. Most immigrants in 2002 came from Mexico (219,380).

Since 1961, the federal government supported and financed the Cuban Refugee Program; in 1995, new accords were agreed to by the two countries. More than 500,000 Cubans were living in southern Florida by 1980, when another 125,000 Cuban refugees arrived; by 1990, 4% of Florida's population was of Cuban descent. Some 169,322 Cubans arrived from 1991–2000, and 27,520 arrived in 2002. Between 1975 and 1978, following the defeat of the US-backed Saigon (Vietnam) government, several hundred thousand Vietnamese refugees came to the United States. Under the Refugee Act of 1980, a ceiling for the number of admissible refugees is set annually; in fiscal 2002, the ceiling for refugees was 70,000. Since Puerto Ricans are American citizens, no special authorization is required for their admission to the continental United States. The population of refugees, resettled refugees, and asylum-seekers with pending claims was estimated at 5,250,954 in June 2003, a 34% increase over June 2002. During the same year, the newly-formed Bureau of Citizenship and Immigration Services (BCIS—formerly the Immigration and Naturalization Service or INS) received 66,577 applications for asylum, a decline of 36% from 2002. In 2004, the US hosted 684,564 persons of concern to UNHCR, 420,854 refugees, and 263,710 asylum-seekers. For that year, the US was the fifth largest asylum country. UNHCR reports the United States as the leading destination of refugees, accounting for 63% of all resettlement worldwide.

Large numbers of aliens—mainly from Latin America, especially Mexico—have illegally established residence in the United States after entering the country as tourists, students, or temporary visitors engaged in work or business. In November 1986, Congress passed a bill allowing illegal aliens who had lived and worked in the United States since 1982 the opportunity to become permanent residents. By the end of fiscal year 1992, 2,650,000 of a potential 2,760,000 eligible for permanent residence under this bill had attained that status. In 1996 the number of illegal alien residents was estimated at 5 million, of which 2 million were believed to be in California. As of 2002, an estimated 33.1 million immigrants (legal and illegal) lived in the United States. Of this total, the Census Bureau estimated in 2000 that 8–9 million of them

were illegal alien residents. In 2004, there were 36 million foreign-born US residents, almost 30% were unauthorized, or some 10.3 million foreigners. Of these 57% are unauthorized Mexicans. Foreign-born persons are 11 % of the US population, and 14 % of US workers.

As of 2006, there are three major immigration-related agencies in the US: the Department of Homeland Security; the US Customs and Border Protection (CBP) agency which apprehends foreigners; and, Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) which is responsible for enforcement of immigration laws within the US, together with identifying and removing unauthorized foreigners, and those ordered removed.

The major migratory trends within the United States have been a general westward movement during the 19th century; a long-term movement from farms and other rural settlements to metropolitan areas, which showed signs of reversing in some states during the 1970s; an exodus of southern blacks to the cities of the North and Midwest, especially after World War I; a shift of whites from central cities to surrounding suburbs since World War II; and, also during the post-World War II period, a massive shift from the North and East to the Sunbelt region of the South and Southwest.

In 2005, the net migration rate was estimated as 3.31 migrants per 1,000 population.

19 INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

The United States is a charter member of the United Nations, having joined on 24 October 1945. The United States participates in ECE, ECLAC, ESCAP, and all the nonregional specialized agencies. The United States is a permanent member of the UN Security Council. The United States participates in numerous intergovernmental organizations, including the Asian Development Bank, the African Development Bank, OECD, APEC, the Colombo Plan, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, G-5, G-7, G-8, the Paris Club (G-10), OSCE, and the WTO. Hemispheric agencies include the Inter-American Development Bank and the OAS. The country is an observer in the Council of Europe and a dialogue partner with ASEAN.

In 1992, the United States, Canada, and Mexico signed the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), creating a free-trade zone among the three countries. It was ratified by all three governments in 1993 and took effect the following year.

NATO is the principal military alliance to which the United States belongs. The ANZUS alliance was a mutual defense pact between Australia, New Zealand, and the United States; in 1986, following New Zealand's decision to ban US nuclear-armed or nuclear-powered ships from its ports, the United States renounced its ANZUS treaty security commitments to New Zealand. The country is a signatory of the 1947 Rio Treaty, an inter-American security agreement. The United States has supported UN missions and operations in Kosovo (est. 1999), Liberia (est. 2003), Georgia (est. 1993), and Haiti (est. 2004). The United States belongs to the Nuclear Suppliers Group (London Group), the Zangger Committee, the Nuclear Energy Agency, and the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons. It holds observer status in the European Organization for Nuclear Research (CERN).

In environmental cooperation, the United States is part of the Central American-US Joint Declaration (CONCAUSA), the Antarctic Treaty, Conventions on Air Pollution and Whaling, Ramsar, CITES, the London Convention, International Tropical Timber Agreements, the Montréal Protocol, MARPOL, the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, and the UN Conventions on Climate Change and Desertification.

20 ECONOMY

The US economy is the world's largest. In variety and quantity, the natural resources of the United States probably exceed those of any other nation, with the possible exception of the former Soviet Union. The United States is among the world's leading exporters of coal, wheat, corn, and soybeans. However, because of its vast economic growth, the United States depends increasingly on foreign sources for a long list of raw materials, including oil.

By the middle of the 20th century, the United States was a leading consumer of nearly every important industrial raw material. The industry of the United States produced about 40% of the world's total output of goods, despite the fact that the country's population comprised about 6% of the world total and its land area about 7% of the earth's surface.

In absolute terms the United States far exceeds every other nation in the size of its gross domestic product (GDP), which more than tripled between 1970 and 1983. In 1998 the nation's GDP in purchasing power parity terms (PPP) reached a record \$8.5 trillion in current dollars, with per capita GDP reaching \$31,500. Per capita GDP (PPP) stood at \$40,100 in 2004, and the nation's GDP (PPP) was \$11.75 trillion.

Inflation was not as significant a factor in the US economy in the 1990s and early 2000s as it was in the 1970s and 1980s. The US inflation rate tends to be lower than that of the majority of industrialized nations. For the period 1970–78, for example, consumer prices increased by an annual average of 6.7%, less than in every other Western country except Austria, Luxembourg, Switzerland, and West Germany, and well below the price increase in Japan. The double-digit inflation of 1979–81 came as a rude shock to most Americans, with economists and politicians variously blaming international oil price rises, federal monetary policies, and US government spending.

The United States entered the post-World War II era with the world's largest, and strongest, economy. Public confidence in both business and government was strong, the nation enjoyed the largest peacetime trade surplus in its history, and the gross national product grew to a record \$482.7 billion by the end of the 1950s. In the sixties the country enjoyed the most sustained period of economic expansion it had known, accompanied by rising productivity and low unemployment. Real income rose 50% during the decade, and US investment in foreign countries reached \$49 billion in 1965, up from \$11.8 billion in 1950. Big business and big government were both powerful forces in the economy during this period, when large industrial corporations accounted for vast portions of the national income, and the federal government expanded its role in such areas as social welfare, scientific research, space technology, and development of the nation's highway system.

After two decades of prosperity, Americans experienced an economic downturn in the 1970s, a period known for the unprecedented combination of lagging economic growth and inflation

that gave birth to the term *stagflation*. Foreign competitors in Japan and Europe challenged the global dominance of American manufacturers, and oil crises in 1973–74 and 1979 shook public confidence in the institutions of both government and business. The forced bailouts of Chrysler and Lockheed were symbolic of the difficult transition to a new economic era, marked by the growing importance of the service sector and the ascendancy of small businesses.

During Ronald Reagan's first presidential term, from 1980 to 1984, the nation endured two years of severe recession followed by two years of robust recovery. The inflation rate was brought down, and millions of new jobs were created. The economic boom of the early and mid-eighties, however, coincided with a number of alarming developments. Federal budget deficits, caused by dramatic increases in the military budget and by rising costs of entitlement programs such as Medicaid and Medicare, averaged more than \$150 billion annually. By 1992, the total deficit reached \$290 billion, or \$1,150 for every American. In addition, corporate debt rose dramatically, and household borrowing grew twice as fast as personal income. The eighties also witnessed a crisis in the banking industry, caused by a combination of factors, including high inflation and interest rates, problem loans to developing countries, and speculative real estate ventures that caused thousands of banks to fail when the real estate boom of the early eighties collapsed.

The disparity between the affluent and the poor widened at the end of the 20th century. The share of the nation's income received by the richest 5% of American families rose from 18.6% in 1977 to 24.5% in 1990, while the share of the poorest 20% fell from 5.7% to 4.3%. Externally, the nation's trade position deteriorated, as a high level of foreign investment combined with an uncompetitive US dollar to create a ballooning trade deficit. In 1990, the American economy plunged into a recession. Factors contributing to the slump included rising oil prices following Iraq's invasion of Kuwait, a sharp increase in interest rates, and declining availability of credit. Output fell 1.6% and 1.7 million jobs were cut. Unemployment rose from 5.2% in 1989 to 7.5% in 1991, but had fallen to 4.5% by 1998.

The recovery that began in March 1991 inaugurated a sustained period of expansion that, as of mid-2000, was the third longest since World War II, characterized by moderation in the key areas of growth, inflation, unemployment, and interest rates. Real GDP growth, which fluctuated between 2% and 3.5% throughout the period, was 3.9% for 1998. After peaking at 7.5%, unemployment declined steadily throughout the early and mid-1990s, falling to 5.6% in 1995, 5.3% at the end of 1996, and in 1998, remaining below 5%. After 1993/94, inflation mostly remained under 3%. One exception to the generally moderate character of the economy was the stock market, which rose 60% between 1995 and 1997, buoyed by the combination of low unemployment and low inflation, as well as strong corporate earnings. Further cause for optimism was the bipartisan balanced-budget legislation enacted and signed into law in 1997. The plan, combining tax and spending cuts over a five-year period, was aimed at balancing the federal budget by 2002 for the first time since 1969. In early 2001, the government projected a budget surplus of \$275 billion for the fiscal year ending that September. That surplus would soon be reversed.

At the beginning of the 21st century, significant economic concerns—aside from the inevitable worry over how long the boom could last without an eventual downturn—included the nation's sizable trade deficit, the increasing medical costs of an aging population, and the failure of the strong economy to improve conditions for the poor. Since 1975, gains in household income were experienced almost exclusively by the top 20% of households. However, in the late 1990s and early 2000s, productivity was continuing to grow, inflation was relatively low, and the labor market was tight.

Economic growth came to a standstill in the middle of 2001, largely due to the end of the long investment boom, especially in the information technology sector. The economy was in recession in the second half of 2001, and the service sector was affected as well as manufacturing. The 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States exacerbated the poor economic situation. Average real GDP growth rose by only 0.3% in 2001. The US economy, which had driven global economic growth during the 1990s, became the cause of a worldwide economic downturn, including in the rest of North America, Europe, Japan, and in the developing economies of Latin America and Southeast Asia strongly influenced by trends in the US economy.

The economy began to recover, slowly, in 2002, with GDP growth estimated at 2.45%. Analysts attributed the modest recovery to the ability of business decision-makers to respond to economic imbalances based on real-time information, on deregulation, and on innovation in financial and product markets. Nevertheless, domestic confidence in the economy remained low, and coupled with major corporate failures (including Enron and WorldCom) and additional stock market declines, growth remained sluggish and uneven. Economic growth slowed at the end of 2002 and into 2003, and the unemployment rate rose to 6.3% in July 2003. The CPI inflation rate fell to under 1.5% at the beginning of 2003, which raised concerns over the risk of deflation. As well, there was a substantial rise in military spending as a result of the war in Iraq which began in March 2003.

Following the start of the war in Iraq, consumer spending rebounded, as did stock prices; the housing market remained strong; inflation was low; the dollar depreciated on world markets; additional tax cuts were passed; there was an easing of oil prices; and productivity growth was strong. Nevertheless, in 2003, the federal budget deficit was projected to reach \$455 billion, the largest shortfall on record.

The American economy grew at the rate of 4.3% in the third quarter of 2005, despite the ravages of Hurricane Katrina, which destroyed the port city of New Orleans and closed down a large portion of the energy industry. Unemployment hovered around 5% in 2005. Productivity had grown by 4.7%. But the nation's fast-growing economy had shaky underpinnings. Oil prices were at their highest level in real terms since the early 1980s, at \$53.27/barrel. The inflation rate, which ran above 4% in late 2005, was at its highest level since 1991 (although core inflation, which excludes volatile energy and food prices, was still relatively modest). Wage growth was sluggish, and the jobs market was lagging the recovery. The current account deficit ballooned to record levels, and consumer spending was increasingly tied to prices in the overinflated housing market. The government ran a deficit of \$412 billion in 2004, or 3.6% of GDP, but the deficit was forecast to narrow

to \$331 billion in 2006. Analysts project US deficits will average about 3.5% of GDP until about 2015.

2¹ INCOME

The US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) reports that in 2005 the United States's gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated at \$12.4 trillion. The CIA defines GDP as the value of all final goods and services produced within a nation in a given year and computed on the basis of purchasing power parity (PPP) rather than value as measured on the basis of the rate of exchange based on current dollars. The per capita GDP was estimated at \$41,800. The annual growth rate of GDP was estimated at 3.5%. The average inflation rate in 2002 was 3.2%. It was estimated that agriculture accounted for 1% of GDP, industry 0.7%, and services 78.3%.

According to the World Bank, in 2003 remittances from citizens working abroad totaled \$3.031 billion or about \$10 per capita.

The World Bank reports that in 2003 household consumption in United States totaled \$7.385 trillion or about \$25,379 per capita based on a GDP of \$10.9 trillion, measured in current dollars rather than PPP. Household consumption includes expenditures of individuals, households, and nongovernmental organizations on goods and services, excluding purchases of dwellings. It was estimated that for the period 1990 to 2003 household consumption grew at an average annual rate of 3.7%. In 2001 it was estimated that approximately 13% of household consumption was spent on food, 9% on fuel, 4% on health care, and 6% on education. It was estimated that in 2004 about 12% of the population had incomes below the poverty line.

2² LABOR

The US labor force, including those who were unemployed, totaled 149.3 million in 2005. Of that total in that same year, farming, fishing and forestry accounted for 0.7% of the workforce, with manufacturing, extraction, transportation and crafts at 22.9%, managerial, professional and technical at 34.7%, sales and office at 25.4% and other services at 16.3%. Also that year, the unemployment rate was put at 5.1%. Earnings of workers vary considerably with type of work and section of country. In the first quarter of 2003, the national average wage was \$15.27 per hour for nonagricultural workers, with an average workweek of 33.8 hours. Workers in manufacturing had a national average wage of \$15.64, (including overtime), with the longest average workweek of all categories of workers at 40.4 hours in the first quarter of 2003.

In 2002, 13.2% of wage and salary workers were union members—16.1 million US citizens belonged to a union that year. In 1983, union membership was 20.1%. In 2002, there were 34 national labor unions with over 100,000 members, the largest being the National Educational Association with 2.7 million members as of 2003. The most important federation of organized workers in the United States is the American Federation of Labor–Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL–CIO), whose affiliated unions had 13 million members as of 2003, down from 14.1 million members in 1992. The major independent industrial and labor unions and their estimated 2002 memberships are the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, 1,398,412, and the United Automobile Workers, some 710,000 (the majority of whom work for General Motors, Ford, and Daimler-Chrysler). Most of the other unaffiliated unions are confined to a single establishment or locality. US labor

unions exercise economic and political influence not only through the power of strikes and slowdowns but also through the human and financial resources they allocate to political campaigns (usually on behalf of Democratic candidates) and through the selective investment of multibillion-dollar pension funds.

The National Labor Relations Act of 1935 (the Wagner Act), the basic labor law of the United States, was considerably modified by the Labor-Management Relations Act of 1947 (the Taft-Hartley Act) and the Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act of 1959 (the Landrum-Griffin Act). Closed-shop agreements, which require employers to hire only union members, are banned. The union shop agreement, however, is permitted, if it allows the hiring of nonunion members on the condition that they join the union within a given period of time.

As of 2003, 23 states had right-to-work laws, forbidding the imposition of union membership as a condition of employment. Under the Taft-Hartley Act, the president of the United States may postpone a strike for 90 days in the national interest. The act of 1959 requires all labor organizations to file constitutions, bylaws, and detailed financial reports with the Secretary of Labor, and stipulates methods of union elections. The National Labor Relations Board seeks to remedy or prevent unfair labor practices and supervises union elections, while the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission seeks to prevent discrimination in hiring, firing, and apprenticeship programs.

The number of work stoppages and of workers involved reached a peak in the late 1960s and early 1970s, declining steadily thereafter. In 2002, there were 19 major stoppages involving 46,000 workers resulting in 660,000 workdays idle, compared with 1995, when there were 31 major stoppages involving 191,500 workers resulting in 5,771,000 days idle; a major stoppage was defined as one involving 1,000 workers or more for a minimum of one day or shift.

2³ AGRICULTURE

In 2004, the United States produced a substantial share of the world's agricultural commodities. Agricultural exports reached almost \$63.9 billion in 2004. The United States had an agricultural trade surplus of \$4 billion in 2004, 14th highest among the nations.

Between 1930 and 2004, the number of farms in the United States declined from 6,546,000 to an estimated 2,110,000. The total amount of farmland increased from 399 million hectares (986 million acres) in 1930 to 479 million hectares (1.18 billion acres) in 1959 but declined to 380 million hectares (938 million acres) in 2002. From 1930 to 2004, the size of the average farm tripled from 61 to 179 hectares (from 151 to 443 acres), a result of the consolidation effected by large-scale mechanized production. The farm population, which comprised 35% of the total US population in 1910, declined to 25% during the Great Depression of the 1930s, and dwindled to less than 2% by 2004.

A remarkable increase in the application of machinery to farms took place during and after World War II (1939–45). Tractors, trucks, milking machines, grain combines, corn pickers, and pickup balers became virtual necessities in farming. In 1920 there was less than one tractor in use for every 400 hectares (1,000 acres) of cropland harvested; by 2003 there were five tractors per 400 hectares. Two other elements essential to US farm productivity

are chemical fertilizers and irrigation. Fertilizers and lime represent more than 6% of farm operating expenses. Arable land under irrigation amounted to 12% of the total in 2003.

Substantial quantities of corn, the most valuable crop produced in the United States, are grown in almost every state; its yield and price are important factors in the economies of the regions where it is grown. Production of selected US crops in 2004 (in 1,000 metric tons), and their percent of world production were wheat, 58,737 (9.3%); corn, 299,917 (33.2%); rice, 10,469 (1.7%); soybeans, 85,013 (41.6%); cotton, 5,062 (20.5%); and tobacco, 398.8 (6.1%).

24 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The livestock population in 2005 included an estimated 95.8 million head of cattle, 60.6 million hogs, and 6.1 million sheep and lambs. That year, there were 1.9 billion chickens, and 88 million turkeys. Milk production totaled 80.1 million metric tons in that year, with Wisconsin, California, and New York together accounting for much of the total. Wisconsin, Minnesota, and California account for more than half of all US butter production, which totaled 608,900 metric tons in 2005; in that year, the United States was the world's largest producer of cheese, with almost 4.5 million metric tons (24% of the world's total). The United States produced an estimated 15% of the world's meat supply in 2005. In 2005, meat animals accounted for \$4.97 billion in exports; dairy and eggs, \$1.17 billion.

25 FISHING

The 2003 commercial catch was 5.48 million tons. Food fish make up 80% of the catch, and nonfood fish, processed for fertilizer and oil, 20%. Aquaculture accounts for about 10% of total production.

Alaska pollock, with landings of 1,524,904 tons, was the most important species in quantity among the commercial fishery landings in the United States in 2003. Other leading species by volume included Gulf menhaden, 522,195 tons; Atlantic menhaden, 203,263 tons; Pacific cod, 257,436 tons; North Pacific hake, 140,327 tons; and American cupped oyster, 183,940 tons. In 2003, exports of fish products totaled \$3,398 million (fourth after China, Thailand, and Norway).

Aquacultural production consists mostly of catfish, oysters, trout, and crayfish. In 2004, there were 1,147 catfish and 601 trout farms in the United States, with sales of \$425 million and \$64 million, respectively.

Pollution is a problem of increasing concern to the US fishing industry; dumping of raw sewage, industrial wastes, spillage from oil tankers, and blowouts of offshore wells are the main threats to the fishing grounds. Overfishing is also a threat to the viability of the industry in some areas, especially Alaska.

26 FORESTRY

US forestland covers about 226 million hectares (558.4 million acres), or 25% of the land area. Major forest regions include the eastern, central hardwood, southern, Rocky Mountain, and Pacific coast areas. The National Forest Service lands account for approximately 19% of the nation's forestland. Extensive tracts of land (4 million acres or more) are under ownership of private lumber companies in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Maine, Ore-

gon, and Washington. During 1990–2000, forested area increased by an annual average of 38,000 hectares (93,900 acres) per year.

Domestic production of roundwood during 2004 amounted to 458.3 million cu m (16.2 billion cu ft), or 1.7% of world production, of which softwoods accounted for roughly 60%. Other forest products in 2004 included 54.3 million metric tons of wood pulp, 83.6 million metric tons of paper and paperboard (excluding newsprint), and 44.2 million cu m (1.56 billion cu ft) of wood-based panels. Rising petroleum prices in the late 1970s sparked a revival in the use of wood as home heating fuel, especially in the Northeast. Fuelwood and charcoal production amounted to 43.6 million cu m (1.5 billion cu ft) in 2004.

Throughout the 19th century, the federal government distributed forestlands lavishly as a means of subsidizing railroads and education. By the turn of the century, the realization that the forests were not inexhaustible led to the growth of a vigorous conservation movement, which was given increased impetus during the 1930s and again in the late 1960s. Federal timberlands are no longer open for private acquisition, although the lands can be leased for timber cutting and for grazing. In recent decades, the states also have moved in the direction of retaining forestlands and adding to their holdings when possible.

27 MINING

Rich in a variety of mineral resources, the United States was a world leader in the production of many important mineral commodities, such as aluminum, cement, copper, pig iron, lead, molybdenum, phosphates, potash, salt, sulfur, uranium, and zinc. The leading mineral-producing states were Arizona (copper, sand and gravel, portland cement, molybdenum); California (portland cement, sand and gravel, gold, boron); Michigan (iron ore, portland cement, sand and gravel, magnesium compounds); Georgia (clays, crushed and broken stone, portland and masonry cement, sand and gravel); Florida (phosphate rock, crushed and broken stone, portland cement, sand and gravel); Utah (copper, gold, magnesium metal, sand and gravel); Texas (portland cement, crushed and broken stone, magnesium metal, sand and gravel); and Minnesota (iron ore, construction and industrial sand and gravel, crushed and broken stone). Oklahoma and New Mexico were important for petroleum and natural gas, and Kentucky, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania, for coal. Iron ore supported the nation's most basic nonagricultural industry, iron and steel manufacture; the major domestic sources were in the Lake Superior area, with Minnesota and Michigan leading all other states in iron ore yields.

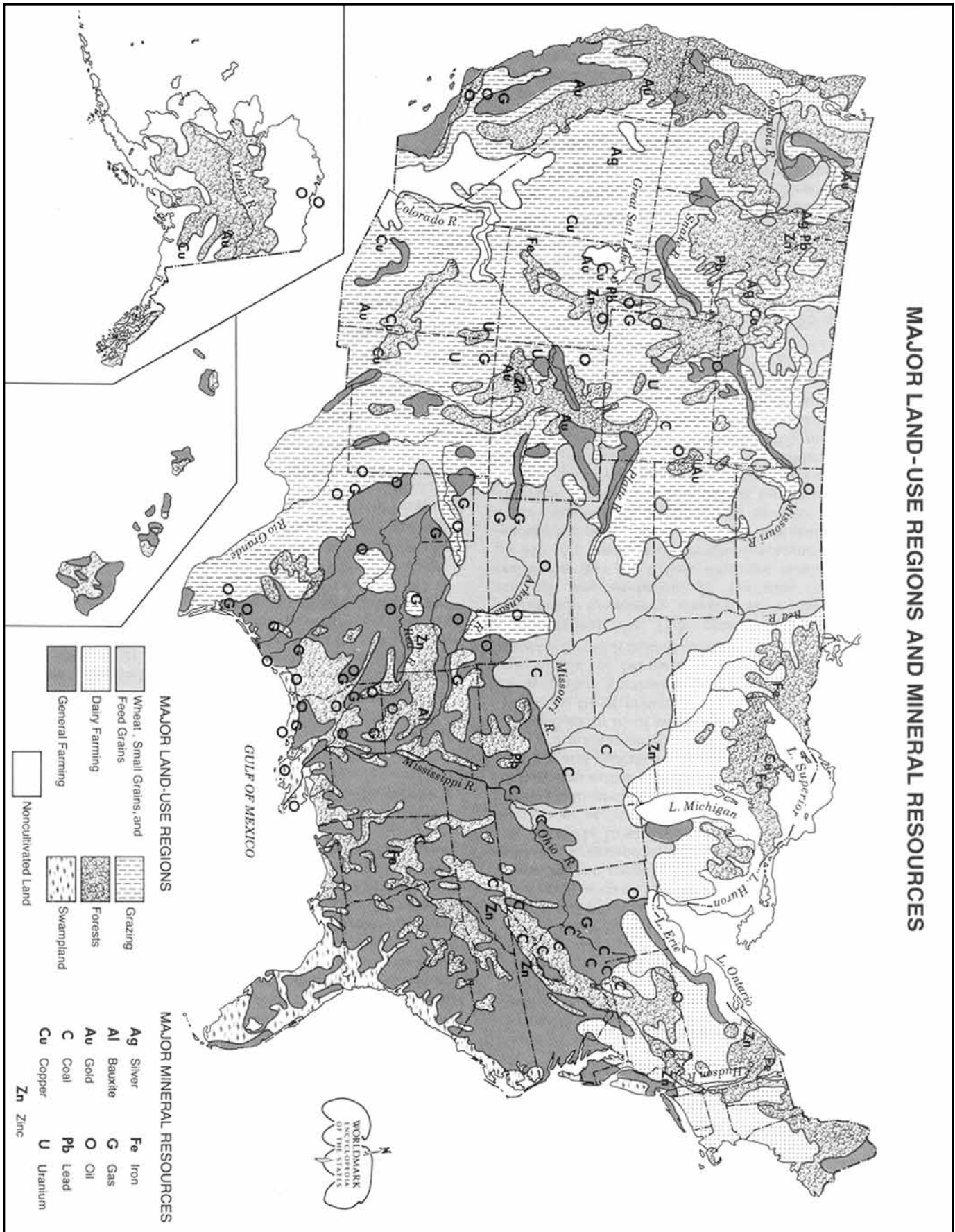
28 ENERGY AND POWER

The United States (US) is the world's leading energy producer and consumer.

According to British Petroleum (BP), as of end 2003, the US had proven oil reserves of 29.4 billion barrels. Oil production that year averaged 7,400,000 barrels per day, with domestic demand averaging 20,033,000 barrels per day. As a result, the US in 2003 was a net oil importer. In 2003, imports of all oil products averaged 12,264,380 barrels per day, of which crude oil accounted for an average of 9,664,920 barrels per day. Refined oil production in 2003 averaged 17,793,990 barrels per day.

As of end 2003, the US had proven reserves of natural gas totaling 5.29 trillion cu m (186.9 trillion cu ft), according to BP. Gross

MAJOR LAND-USE REGIONS AND MINERAL RESOURCES



production that year, according to the Energy Information Administration (EIA), totaled 24,056.00 billion cu ft. Of that amount in 2003, 98 billion cu ft was vented or flared, and 3,548 billion cu ft was re-injected. Marketed production totaled 19,912 billion cu ft, with dry production at 19,036 billion cu ft. Demand in that same year for dry production totaled 22,375 billion cu ft. As with oil, the US was a net importer of natural gas. Imports of dry natural gas in 2003 totaled 3,996 billion cu ft, while dry exports totaled 692 billion cu ft, according to the EIA.

The US had recoverable coal reserves of 246,643 million metric tons at the end of 2004, according to BP. Of that amount, anthracite and bituminous coal reserves totaled 111,338 million metric tons, with sub-bituminous and lignite reserves totaling 135,305 million metric tons, according to BP. In 2003 according to the EIA, coal production by the US totaled 1,069,496,000 short tons, of which 987,613,000 short tons consisted of bituminous coal, with anthracite output totaling 1,289,000 short tons. Lignite or brown coal output that year totaled 80,595,000 short tons, according to the EIA.

In 2003, US electric power generation capacity by public and private generating plants totaled 932.832 million kW, of which 736.728 million kW of capacity belonged to conventional thermal fuel plants, followed by nuclear plant at 98.794 million kW. Hydroelectric capacity that year totaled 79.366 million kW, with geothermal/other capacity at 17.944 million kW. Electric power output in 2003 totaled 3,891.720 billion kWh, of which conventional thermal plants generated 2,758.650 billion kWh, followed by nuclear plants at 763.733 billion kWh, hydroelectric facilities at 275.806 billion kWh and geothermal/other facilities at 93.531 billion kWh.

During the 1980s, increasing attention was focused on the development of solar power, synthetic fuels, geothermal resources, and other energy technologies. Such energy conservation measures as mandatory automobile fuel-efficiency standards and tax incentives for home insulation were promoted by the federal government, which also decontrolled oil and gas prices in the expectation that a rise in domestic costs to world-market levels would provide a powerful economic incentive for consumers to conserve fuel. In 2001 the United States had 1,694 MW of installed wind power.

29 INDUSTRY

Although the United States remains one of the world's preeminent industrial powers, manufacturing no longer plays as dominant a role in the economy as it once did.

Between 1979 and 1998, manufacturing employment fell from 20.9 million to 18.7 million, or from 21.8% to 14.8% of national employment. Throughout the 1960s, manufacturing accounted for about 29% of total national income; by 1987, the proportion was down to about 19%. In 2002, manufacturing was experiencing a decline due to the recession that began in March 2001. In 2004, industry accounted for 19.7% of GDP. That year, 22.7% of the labor force was engaged in manufacturing, extraction, transportation, and crafts.

Industrial activity within the United States has been expanding southward and westward for much of the 20th century, most rapidly since World War II. Louisiana, Oklahoma, and especially Texas are centers of industrial expansion based on petroleum

refining; aerospace and other high technology industries are the basis of the new wealth of Texas and California, the nation's leading manufacturing state. The industrial heartland of the United States is the east-north-central region, comprising Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, with steelmaking and automobile manufacturing among the leading industries. The Middle Atlantic states (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) and the Northeast are also highly industrialized; but of the major industrial states in these two regions, Massachusetts has taken the lead in reorienting itself toward such high-technology industries as electronics and information processing.

Large corporations are dominant especially in sectors such as steel, automobiles, pharmaceuticals, aircraft, petroleum refining, computers, soaps and detergents, tires, and communications equipment. The growth of multinational activities of US corporations has been rapid in recent decades.

The history of US industry has been marked by the introduction of increasingly sophisticated technology in the manufacturing process. Advances in chemistry and electronics have revolutionized many industries through new products and methods: examples include the impact of plastics on petrochemicals, the use of lasers and electronic sensors as measuring and controlling devices, and the application of microprocessors to computing machines, home entertainment products, and a variety of other industries. Science has vastly expanded the number of metals available for industrial purposes, notably such light metals as aluminum, magnesium, and titanium. Integrated machines now perform a complex number of successive operations that formerly were done on the assembly line at separate stations. Those industries have prospered that have been best able to make use of the new technology, and the economies of some states have been largely based on it.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the United States was the world leader in computer manufacturing. At the beginning of the 21st century, however, the high-tech manufacturing industry registered a decline. Semiconductor manufacturing had been migrating out of the United States to East Asian countries, especially China, Taiwan, and Singapore, and research and development in that sector declined from 1999–2003. Certain long-established industries—especially clothing and steelmaking—have suffered from outmoded facilities that (coupled with high US labor costs) have forced the price of their products above the world market level. In 2005, the United States was the world's third-leading steel producer (after China and Japan). Employment in the steel-producing industry fell from 521,000 in 1974 to 187,500 in 2002. Automobile manufacturing was an ailing industry in the 1980s, but rebounded in the 1990s. The "Big Three" US automakers—General Motors, Ford, and Daimler-Chrysler—manufactured over 60% of the passenger cars sold in the United States in 1995. In 2005, however, General Motors announced it was cutting 30,000 North American manufacturing jobs, the deepest cuts since 1991, when GM eliminated 74,000 jobs over four years. Passenger car production, which had fallen from 7.1 million units in 1987 to 5.4 million in 1991, rose to 6.3 million by 1995 and to 8.3 million in 1999. In 2003, over 12 million motor vehicles were produced in the United States.

The United States had a total of 148 oil refineries as of January 2005, with a production capacity as of September 2004 of 17.1

million barrels per day. Crude oil and refined petroleum products are crucial imports, however.

3⁰ COMMERCE

Total retail sales for 2004 were \$3.5 trillion. Total e-commerce sales were estimated at \$69.2 billion, an increase of 23.5% over 2003. The growth of great chains of retail stores, particularly in the form of the supermarket, was one of the most conspicuous developments in retail trade following the end of World War II. Nearly 100,000 single-unit grocery stores went out of business between 1948 and 1958; the independent grocer's share of the food market dropped from 50% to 30% of the total in the same period. With the great suburban expansion of the 1960s emerged the planned shopping center, usually designed by a single development organization and intended to provide different kinds of stores in order to meet all the shopping needs of the particular area. Between 1974 and 2000, the square footage occupied by shopping centers in the United States grew at a far greater rate than the nation's population.

Installment credit is a major support for consumer purchases in the United States. Most US families own and use credit cards, and their frequency of use has grown significantly in the 1990s and 2000s with aggressive marketing by credit card companies which have made cards available to households that didn't qualify in the past. The number of credit cards per household in 2004 was 8. The number of credit cards in circulation in 2004 was 641 million. The average household credit card debt in the United States in 2004 was approximately \$8,650, and the total credit card debt in the United States in 2004 was some \$800 billion. The use of debit cards was expected to exceed the use of credit cards in 2005.

The US advertising industry is the world's most highly developed. Particularly with the expansion of television audiences, spending for advertising has increased almost annually to successive record levels. Advertising expenditures in 2003 reached an estimated \$249 billion, up from \$66.58 billion in 1982 and \$11.96 billion in 1960. Of the 2003 total, \$87.8 billion was spent in radio, broadcast television, and cable television; \$57.2 billion was spent on print media (newspapers and magazines); and internet advertising amounted to \$5.6 billion.

In 2003 merchant wholesalers had combined total sales of \$2.88 trillion.

3¹ CONSUMER PROTECTION

Consumer protection has become a major government enterprise during the 20th century. The Federal Trade Commission (FTC), established in 1914, administers laws governing the granting and use of credit and the activities of credit bureaus; it also investigates unfair or deceptive trade practices, including price fixing and false advertising. The Securities and Exchange Commission, created in 1934, seeks to protect investors, while the Consumer Product Safety Commission, created in 1972, has the authority to establish product safety standards and to ban hazardous products. Overseeing the safety of air and highway transport is the National Transportation Safety Board, established in 1975. The Consumer Information Center Program of the General Services Administration (Pueblo, Colo.) and the Food Safety and Inspection Service and Food and Nutrition Service of the Department of Agriculture also serve consumer interests. Legislation that would have established

a Department of Consumer Affairs failed to win congressional approval several times during the 1970s, however.

Public interest groups have been exceptionally effective in promoting consumer issues. The Consumer Federation of America (CFA; founded in 1967), with 220 member organizations, is the largest US consumer advocacy body; its concerns include product pricing, credit, and the cost and quality of health care, education, and housing. The CFA also serves as a clearinghouse for consumer information. Consumers Union of the US, founded in 1936, publishes the widely read monthly *Consumer Reports*, which tests, grades, and comments on a variety of retail products. The National Consumers League, founded in 1899, was a pioneer in the consumer movement, focusing especially on labor laws and working conditions. Much of the growth of consumerism in the 1970s resulted from the public relations efforts of one man—Ralph Nader. Already a well-known consumer advocate concerned particularly with automobile safety, Nader founded Public Citizen in 1971 and an affiliated litigation group the following year. In 1994, Public Citizen claimed 100,000 supporters; its activities include research committees on tax reform, health care, work safety, and energy.

Other avenues open to consumers in most states include small claims courts, generally open to claims between \$100 and \$1,500 at modest legal cost. Complaints involving professional malpractice may also be brought to state licensing or regulatory boards. Supported by the business community, the US Better Business Bureau provides general consumer information and can help arbitrate some customer-company disputes.

The US government also publishes helpful consumer guides. A listing of the guides is available from the US government through its "Consumer Information Catalog." This catalog is free and lists about 142 of the best federal consumer publications. The federal publications range from planning a diet to financial planning. The publication, published quarterly by the Consumer Information Center of the US General Services Administration is available in most public libraries or online at www.pueblo.gsa.gov.

3² BANKING AND SECURITIES

The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 provided the United States with a central banking system. The Federal Reserve System dominates US banking, is a strong influence in the affairs of commercial banks, and exercises virtually unlimited control over the money supply. The Federal Reserve Bank system is an independent government organization, with important posts appointed by the President and approved by the Senate.

Each of the 12 federal reserve districts contains a federal reserve bank. A board of nine directors presides over each reserve bank. Six are elected by the member banks in the district: of this group, three may be bankers; the other three represent business, industry, or agriculture. The Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System (usually known as the Federal Reserve Board) appoints the remaining three, who may not be officers, directors, stockholders, or employees of any bank and who are presumed therefore to represent the public.

The Federal Reserve Board regulates the money supply and the amount of credit available to the public by asserting its power to alter the rediscount rate, by buying and selling securities in the open market, by setting margin requirements for securities purchases, by altering reserve requirements of member banks in the

United States—2005 Exports, Imports, and Trade Balance by Country and Area

In millions of dollars. Details may not equal totals due to rounding. (X) Not applicable. (-) Represents zero or less than one-half of value shown.
January–December, Cumulative.

COUNTRY	TRADE BALANCE	RANK	EXPORTS F.A.S.	RANK	IMPORTS CUSTOMS	RANK
Total, BOP Basis	-782,740.2	(X)	894,630.8	(X)	1,677,371.0	(X)
Net Adjustments	-15,263.3	(X)	-11,346.8	(X)	3,916.5	(X)
Total, Census Basis	-767,476.9	(X)	905,977.6	(X)	1,673,454.5	(X)
Afghanistan	194.8	205	262.2	93	67.3	132
Albania	-18.7	102	18.5	179	37.2	146
Algeria	-9,279.0	20	1,167.4	60	10,446.4	27
Andorra	9.9	152	10.5	187	0.7	203
Angola	-7,555.3	24	929.0	66	8,484.4	33
Anguilla	28.4	168	32.2	160	3.8	180
Antigua and Barbuda	186.0	204	190.4	105	4.4	177
Argentina	-461.8	67	4,121.9	32	4,583.6	46
Armenia	19.3	160	65.5	142	46.2	143
Aruba	-2,360.8	36	558.9	76	2,919.7	54
Australia	8,486.0	229	15,828.2	14	7,342.2	35
Austria	-3,509.7	30	2,593.3	42	6,102.9	39
Azerbaijan	87.1	193	132.5	116	45.4	144
Bahamas	1,086.8	222	1,786.7	51	699.9	80
Bahrain	-80.8	92	350.8	88	431.6	89
Bangladesh	-2,373.3	35	319.8	90	2,693.0	56
Barbados	363.0	212	394.9	84	31.9	150
Belarus	-310.2	71	34.9	158	345.2	97
Belgium	5,667.7	226	18,690.6	12	13,022.9	24
Belize	119.3	199	217.6	101	98.3	124
Benin	71.8	187	72.3	138	0.5	205
Bermuda	403.2	216	490.5	82	87.3	128
Bhutan	2.4	135	3.1	208	0.6	204
Bolivia	-73.7	94	219.5	99	293.2	102
Bosnia-Herzegovina	-52.9	96	17.6	181	70.5	131
Botswana	-110.9	88	67.3	141	178.2	112
Brazil	-9,063.8	21	15,371.7	15	24,435.5	15
British Indian Ocean Territories	0.4	125	0.8	219	0.4	208
British Virgin Islands	91.3	194	124.9	117	33.6	148
Brunei	-513.1	64	49.6	150	562.7	82
Bulgaria	-186.3	81	267.9	92	454.3	85
Burkina Faso	23.0	163	25.1	174	2.1	188
Burma (Myanmar)	5.4	142	5.5	201	0.1	220
Burundi	3.7	137	8.1	198	4.4	176
Cambodia	-1,697.3	45	69.7	139	1,767.0	64
Cameroon	-40.8	98	117.3	119	158.2	117
Canada	-78,485.6	3	211,898.7	1	290,384.3	1
Cape Verde	7.2	148	9.9	190	2.6	185
Cayman Islands	627.2	219	680.7	70	53.5	138
Central African Republic	9.1	151	14.8	183	5.7	171
Chad	-1,444.3	49	53.8	149	1,498.1	67
Chile	-1,441.7	50	5,222.6	29	6,664.3	37
China	-201,544.8	1	41,925.3	4	243,470.1	2
Christmas Island	1.6	132	2.0	214	0.4	210
Cocos (Keeling) Island	0.6	128	1.0	217	0.5	207
Colombia	-3,387.0	31	5,462.4	28	8,849.4	31
Comoros	-1.2	113	0.3	224	1.4	192
Congo (DROC)	-198.6	78	65.0	143	263.6	107
Congo (ROC)	-1,518.8	47	104.1	123	1,622.9	65
Cook Islands	-0.4	116	1.4	216	1.7	189
Costa Rica	183.3	203	3,598.6	36	3,415.3	50
Côte d'Ivoire	-1,073.7	55	124.2	118	1,198.0	72
Croatia	-205.7	77	158.6	109	364.3	94
Cuba	369.0	213	369.0	86	(-)	226
Cyprus	53.6	181	84.2	131	30.5	152
Czech Republic	-1,139.3	54	1,053.6	63	2,192.9	59
Denmark	-3,225.8	32	1,918.4	49	5,144.2	43
Djibouti	46.5	177	47.6	151	1.1	198
Dominica	58.2	183	61.5	146	3.3	183
Dominican Republic	115.0	198	4,718.7	30	4,603.7	45
East Timor	8.6	150	8.7	197	0.1	219
Ecuador	-3,794.9	29	1,963.8	47	5,758.7	41
Egypt	1,068.0	221	3,159.3	38	2,091.2	60
El Salvador	-134.5	86	1,854.3	50	1,988.8	62

United States—2005 Exports, Imports, and Trade Balance by Country and Area (cont.)

COUNTRY	TRADE BALANCE	RANK	EXPORTS F.A.S.	RANK	IMPORTS CUSTOMS	RANK
Equatorial Guinea	-1,279.7	51	281.5	91	1,561.1	66
Eritrea	29.8	172	31.1	163	1.3	196
Estonia	-366.0	70	145.4	113	511.4	84
Ethiopia	448.3	217	510.1	81	61.8	134
Falkland Islands	-0.2	117	9.0	195	9.3	164
Faroe Islands	-1.7	111	2.5	210	4.3	178
Federal Republic of Germany	-50,567.2	4	34,183.7	6	84,750.9	5
Federated States of Micronesia	23.8	164	25.3	173	1.6	191
Fiji	-141.3	85	28.2	169	169.5	114
Finland	-2,087.6	40	2,254.1	44	4,341.7	47
France	-11,431.7	16	22,410.4	9	33,842.1	10
French Guiana	26.9	167	27.0	172	0.1	217
French Polynesia	51.7	179	111.8	121	60.1	135
French Southern and Antarctic Lands	0.2	124	0.3	225	0.1	222
Gabon	-2,716.5	34	99.1	125	2,815.6	55
Gambia	30.2	173	30.6	165	0.4	209
Gaza Strip Administered by Israel	-1.2	112	0.2	226	1.4	193
Georgia	19.5	161	213.9	102	194.4	111
Ghana	179.0	202	337.4	89	158.4	116
Gibraltar	158.6	201	163.3	108	4.6	174
Greece	308.5	211	1,192.2	59	883.7	78
Greenland	-12.2	105	5.1	202	17.3	156
Grenada	76.6	188	82.4	133	5.9	169
Guadeloupe	52.4	180	54.5	148	2.1	187
Guatemala	-302.0	72	2,835.4	40	3,137.4	53
Guinea	18.9	159	93.6	129	74.7	130
Guinea-Bissau	2.0	133	2.1	213	0.1	218
Guyana	56.8	182	176.7	107	119.9	121
Haiti	262.4	209	709.6	69	447.2	87
Heard and McDonald Islands	0.1	122	0.2	227	(-)	225
Honduras	-495.4	66	3,253.8	37	3,749.2	49
Hong Kong	7,459.3	228	16,351.0	13	8,891.7	30
Hungary	-1,537.9	46	1,023.3	64	2,561.2	57
Iceland	243.0	208	512.0	80	269.0	105
India	-10,814.8	18	7,989.4	22	18,804.2	18
Indonesia	-8,960.4	22	3,053.9	39	12,014.3	26
Iran	-78.7	93	95.8	127	174.5	113
Iraq	-7,679.7	23	1,374.0	55	9,053.7	29
Ireland	-19,397.4	11	9,335.7	20	28,733.1	13
Israel	-7,093.1	25	9,737.3	19	16,830.5	19
Italy	-19,484.9	10	11,524.3	16	31,009.3	12
Jamaica	1,325.2	223	1,700.8	52	375.6	93
Japan	-82,519.2	2	55,484.5	3	138,003.7	4
Jordan	-622.7	59	644.2	71	1,266.8	69
Kazakhstan	-562.9	62	538.3	77	1,101.1	74
Kenya	284.5	210	632.5	72	348.0	96
Kiribati	1.3	130	2.4	211	1.1	197
Korea, North	5.8	145	5.8	199	(-)	227
Korea, South	-16,016.5	12	27,765.0	7	43,781.4	7
Kuwait	-2,359.9	37	1,974.9	46	4,334.8	48
Kyrgyzstan	26.5	166	31.1	162	4.6	175
Laos	5.6	144	9.8	191	4.2	179
Latvia	-184.6	82	177.5	106	362.2	95
Lebanon	379.3	214	465.7	83	86.4	129
Lesotho	-399.6	68	4.0	205	403.6	91
Liberia	-21.5	100	69.3	140	90.8	127
Libya	-1,506.5	48	83.8	132	1,590.3	(X)
Liechtenstein	-276.0	74	19.7	178	295.7	101
Lithuania	-243.9	75	390.0	85	633.9	81
Luxembourg	393.6	215	782.4	68	388.8	92
Macao	-1,147.4	53	101.6	124	1,249.0	70
Macedonia (Skopje)	-16.6	104	31.6	161	48.1	142
Madagascar	-295.4	73	28.2	168	323.6	99
Malawi	-87.5	90	28.0	170	115.5	122
Malaysia	-23,224.3	7	10,460.8	18	33,685.2	11
Maldives	3.8	138	9.3	193	5.5	172
Mali	28.8	170	32.4	159	3.6	182
Malta	-88.9	89	193.7	104	282.7	103
Marshall Islands	58.3	184	75.5	136	17.2	157

United States—2005 Exports, Imports, and Trade Balance by Country and Area (cont.)

COUNTRY	TRADE BALANCE	RANK	EXPORTS F.A.S.	RANK	IMPORTS CUSTOMS	RANK
Martinique	12.7	157	35.0	157	22.2	155
Mauritania	85.3	192	86.1	130	0.8	202
Mauritius	-191.0	79	30.9	164	221.9	109
Mayotte	(-)	120	(-)	230	(-)	228
Mexico	-49,743.8	5	120,364.8	2	170,108.6	3
Moldova	-10.2	106	40.1	154	50.2	140
Monaco	-20.7	101	16.8	182	37.5	145
Mongolia	-121.8	87	21.9	177	143.6	118
Montserrat	3.9	139	4.8	203	1.0	201
Morocco	79.2	190	525.0	79	445.8	88
Mozambique	50.9	178	62.8	144	11.9	160
Namibia	-17.3	103	112.2	120	129.6	120
Nauru	1.5	131	1.6	215	0.1	215
Nepal	-86.5	91	24.7	175	111.2	123
Netherlands	11,622.6	230	26,484.6	8	14,862.0	22
Netherlands Antilles	215.2	206	1,137.6	61	922.4	77
New Caledonia	11.2	154	38.4	155	27.2	153
New Zealand	-503.4	65	2,651.8	41	3,155.2	52
Nicaragua	-555.3	63	625.5	73	1,180.8	73
Niger	13.0	158	78.5	135	65.5	133
Nigeria	-22,618.2	8	1,621.2	53	24,239.4	16
Niue	0.5	127	0.6	220	0.1	216
Norfolk Island	0.2	123	0.4	223	0.2	214
Norway	-4,834.4	28	1,941.9	48	6,776.3	36
Oman	39.9	175	594.9	75	555.0	83
Pakistan	-2,001.6	41	1,251.6	57	3,253.2	51
Palau	11.7	155	12.2	185	0.5	206
Panama	1,835.0	224	2,162.0	45	327.1	98
Papua New Guinea	-3.1	107	55.3	147	58.5	136
Paraguay	844.2	220	895.8	67	51.6	139
Peru	-2,809.7	33	2,309.4	43	5,119.2	44
Philippines	-2,355.0	38	6,895.4	25	9,250.4	28
Pitcairn Island	-0.6	114	0.5	221	1.0	200
Poland	-680.8	58	1,267.7	56	1,948.6	63
Portugal	-1,196.8	52	1,131.9	62	2,328.7	58
Qatar	538.8	218	986.6	65	447.9	86
Republic of Yemen	-59.6	95	219.0	100	278.6	104
Reunion	-2.0	110	3.8	206	5.8	170
Romania	-598.7	60	608.9	74	1,207.6	71
Russia	-11,344.3	17	3,962.4	33	15,306.7	20
Rwanda	4.2	140	10.5	188	6.3	167
San Marino	3.3	136	4.7	204	1.4	194
São Tomé and Príncipe	9.9	153	10.2	189	0.2	213
Saudi Arabia	-20,379.8	9	6,812.8	26	27,192.6	14
Senegal	154.8	200	158.5	110	3.7	181
Serbia and Montenegro	77.9	189	132.5	115	54.6	137
Seychelles	12.0	156	17.9	180	5.9	168
Sierra Leone	28.5	169	37.8	156	9.3	163
Singapore	5,532.2	225	20,642.2	11	15,110.1	21
Slovakia	-810.9	57	149.8	112	960.7	76
Slovenia	-179.2	83	233.8	98	413.0	90
Solomon Islands	0.9	129	2.3	212	1.4	195
Somalia	8.5	149	8.8	196	0.3	211
South Africa	-1,978.7	42	3,906.9	34	5,885.6	40
Spain	-1,701.0	44	6,913.6	24	8,614.6	32
Sri Lanka	-1,885.3	43	197.6	103	2,082.9	61
St. Helena	-0.5	115	2.7	209	3.3	184
St. Kitts and Nevis	44.4	176	94.1	128	49.7	141
St. Lucia	103.0	197	135.4	114	32.4	149
St. Pierre and Miquelon	-0.1	118	1.0	218	1.1	199
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	29.8	171	45.4	153	15.7	158
Sudan	94.5	195	108.1	122	13.6	159
Suriname	80.4	191	245.7	95	165.3	115
Svalbard, Jan Mayen Island	5.6	143	5.7	200	(-)	223
Swaziland	-187.0	80	11.9	186	198.9	110
Sweden	-10,105.6	19	3,715.4	35	13,821.0	23
Switzerland	-2,280.0	39	10,719.8	17	12,999.9	25
Syria	-168.5	84	155.0	111	323.6	100
Taiwan	-12,756.6	13	22,069.2	10	34,825.8	8

United States—2005 Exports, Imports, and Trade Balance by Country and Area (cont.)

COUNTRY	TRADE BALANCE	RANK	EXPORTS F.A.S.	RANK	IMPORTS CUSTOMS	RANK
Tajikistan	-212.2	76	28.8	167	241.0	108
Tanzania	62.7	185	96.4	126	33.7	147
Thailand	-12,633.1	14	7,256.6	23	19,889.8	17
Togo	21.5	162	27.9	171	6.4	166
Tokelau	69.0	186	79.8	134	10.8	161
Tonga	4.3	141	9.7	192	5.4	173
Trinidad and Tobago	-6,474.1	26	1,416.7	54	7,890.9	34
Tunisia	-2.6	108	261.2	94	263.8	106
Turkey	-913.1	56	4,269.0	31	5,182.1	42
Turkmenistan	101.8	196	237.1	97	135.3	119
Turks and Caicos Islands	228.3	207	237.8	96	9.4	162
Tuvalu	(-)	119	(-)	228	0.1	221
Uganda	36.8	174	62.6	145	25.8	154
Ukraine	-565.1	61	533.0	78	1,098.0	75
United Arab Emirates	7,014.1	227	8,482.4	21	1,468.3	68
United Kingdom	-12,444.8	15	38,587.8	5	51,032.6	6
Uruguay	-375.6	69	356.7	87	732.3	79
Uzbekistan	-21.8	99	73.8	137	95.6	125
Vanuatu	6.6	147	9.1	194	2.5	186
Vatican City	23.9	165	24.2	176	0.3	212
Venezuela	-27,557.2	6	6,420.9	27	33,978.1	9
Vietnam	-5,438.0	27	1,193.2	58	6,631.2	38
Wallis and Futuna	0.4	126	0.4	222	(-)	224
West Bank Administered by Israel	2.1	134	3.7	207	1.6	190
Western Sahara	(-)	121	(-)	229	(-)	229
Western Samoa	6.6	146	14.5	184	7.9	165
Zambia	-2.6	109	29.1	166	31.7	151
Zimbabwe	-48.8	97	45.5	152	94.3	126
Unidentified	216.3	(X)	216.3	(X)	(-)	(X)
North America	-128,229.4	(X)	332,263.5	(X)	460,492.9	(X)
Western Europe	-125,453.7	(X)	200,260.3	(X)	325,714.0	(X)
Euro Area	-91,384.0	(X)	137,496.7	(X)	228,880.7	(X)
European Union (25)	-122,338.2	(X)	186,437.3	(X)	308,775.5	(X)
European Union (15)	-117,160.3	(X)	181,718.3	(X)	298,878.5	(X)
European Free Trade Association	-7,147.4	(X)	13,193.5	(X)	20,340.9	(X)
Eastern Europe	-18,539.6	(X)	10,994.0	(X)	29,533.6	(X)
Former Soviet Republics	-13,566.9	(X)	6,604.3	(X)	20,171.2	(X)
Organization for Economic Cooperation & Develop- ment (OECD) in Europe	-125,232.5	(X)	199,207.8	(X)	324,440.4	(X)
Pacific Rim Countries	-328,066.4	(X)	223,334.0	(X)	551,400.4	(X)
Asia—Near East	-30,550.8	(X)	31,893.6	(X)	62,444.3	(X)
Asia—(NICS)	-15,781.6	(X)	86,827.5	(X)	102,609.1	(X)
Asia—South	-16,966.6	(X)	10,045.2	(X)	27,011.8	(X)
Assoc. of South East Asia Nations (ASEAN)	-49,278.2	(X)	49,636.7	(X)	98,914.9	(X)
APEC	-488,815.3	(X)	575,440.1	(X)	1,064,255.4	(X)
South/Central America	-50,460.1	(X)	72,413.0	(X)	122,873.0	(X)
Twenty Latin American Republics	-96,587.6	(X)	182,836.4	(X)	279,424.0	(X)
Central American Common Market	-1,304.0	(X)	12,167.5	(X)	13,471.5	(X)
Latin American Free Trade Association	-97,865.1	(X)	162,709.5	(X)	260,574.6	(X)
North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) Allies	-198,120.9	(X)	406,259.2	(X)	604,380.0	(X)
Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)	-92,866.6	(X)	32,073.8	(X)	124,940.4	(X)
Unidentified	216.3	(X)	216.3	(X)	(-)	(X)

(1) Detailed data are presented on a Census basis. The information needed to convert to a BOP basis is not available.

(2) Countries included in Euro Area are also included in European Union. See Page 27 of the FT-900 release for a list of countries.

(3) Selected countries are included in more than one area grouping. Indonesia is included in both OPEC and Pacific Rim;

Venezuela is included in both OPEC and Other South/Central America.

(4) The export totals reflect shipments of certain grains, oilseeds, and satellites that are not included in the country/area totals.

NOTE: For information on data sources, nonsampling errors and definitions, see the information section on page 27 of the FT-900 release, or at www.census.gov/ft900 or www.bea.gov/bea/di/home/trade.htm.

system, and by resorting to a specific number of selective controls at its disposal. The Federal Reserve Board's role in regulating the money supply is held by economists of the monetarist school to be the single most important factor in determining the nation's inflation rate.

Member banks increase their reserves or cash holdings by rediscounting commercial notes at the federal reserve bank at a rate of interest ultimately determined by the Board of Governors. A change in the discount rate, therefore, directly affects the capacity of the member banks to accommodate their customers with loans. Similarly, the purchase or sale of securities in the open market, as determined by the Federal Open Market Committee, is the most commonly used device whereby the amount of credit available to the public is expanded or contracted. The same effect is achieved in some measure by the power of the Board of Governors to raise or lower the reserves that member banks must keep against demand deposits. Credit tightening by federal authorities in early 1980 pushed the prime rate—the rate that commercial banks charge their most creditworthy customers—above 20% for the first time since the financial panics of 1837 and 1839, when rates reached 36%. As federal monetary policies eased, the prime rate dropped below 12% in late 1984; as of 2000 it was below 10%. In mid-2003 the federal funds rate was reduced to 1%, a 45-year low.

The financial sector is dominated by commercial banks, insurance companies, and mutual funds. There was little change in the nature of the sector between the 1930s, when it was rescued through the creation of regulatory bodies and deposit insurance, and the 1980s, when the market was deregulated. In the 1980s, the capital markets underwent extensive reforms. The markets became increasingly internationalized, as deregulation allowed foreign-owned banks to extend their operations. There was also extensive restructuring of domestic financial markets—interest-rate ceilings were abolished and competition between different financial institution intensified, facilitated by greater diversification.

Commercial and investment banking activities are separated in the United States by the Glass Steagall Act, which was passed in 1933 during the Great Depression. Fears that investment banking activities put deposits at risk led to a situation where commercial banks were unable to deal in non-bank financial instruments. This put them at severe commercial disadvantage, and the pressure for reform became so strong that the Federal Reserve Board has allowed the affiliates of commercial banks to enter a wide range of securities activities since 1986. Attempts to repeal the act were unsuccessful until November 1999, when the Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act (also known as the Financial Modernization Act) was passed by Congress. The Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act repealed Glass-Steagall and allows banks, insurance companies, and stock brokers and mutual fund companies to sell each other's products and services. These companies are also now free to merge or acquire one another.

The expansion and diversification in financial services was facilitated by information technology. Financial deregulation led to the collapse of many commercial banks and savings and loan associations in the second half of the 1980s. In the 1990s, change has continued in the form of a proliferation of bank mergers; with the passage in 1999 of Gramm-Leach-Bliley, further consolidation of the industry was predicted.

Prior to 1994 the banking system was highly fragmented; national banks were not allowed to establish branches at will, as they were subject to the banking laws of each state. Within states, local banks faced similar restraints on their branching activities. In 1988, only 22 states permitted statewide banking of national banks, while 18 allowed limited banking and ten permitted no branches. Consequently in 1988 over 60% of US commercial banks had assets of less than \$150 million, while only 3% had assets valued at \$500 million or more.

Such regulation rendered US banks vulnerable to merger and acquisition. Acquisitions have generally taken place through

United States—Government Finances

(Dollar amounts in thousands. Per capita amounts in dollars.)

	AMOUNT	PER CAPITA
Total Revenue	1,589,856,242	5,424.22
General revenue	1,197,346,812	4,085.07
Intergovernmental revenue	394,497,492	1,345.93
Taxes	593,821,649	2,025.98
General sales	198,208,985	676.24
Selective sales	95,567,053	326.05
License taxes	39,626,991	135.20
Individual income tax	197,878,965	675.12
Corporate income tax	30,896,860	105.41
Other taxes	31,642,795	107.96
Current charges	114,842,943	391.82
Miscellaneous general revenue	94,184,728	321.34
Utility revenue	12,954,913	44.20
Liquor store revenue	4,865,703	16.60
Insurance trust revenue	374,688,814	1,278.35
Total expenditure	1,406,039,800	4,797.08
Intergovernmental expenditure	389,706,202	1,329.59
Direct expenditure	1,016,333,598	3,467.50
Current operation	691,570,727	2,359.48
Capital outlay	91,189,148	311.12
Insurance benefits and repayments	170,914,840	583.12
Assistance and subsidies	28,104,471	95.89
Interest on debt	34,554,412	117.89
Exhibit: Salaries and wages	185,827,096	634.00
Total expenditure	1,406,039,800	4,797.08
General expenditure	1,209,524,629	4,126.62
Intergovernmental expenditure	389,706,202	1,329.59
Direct expenditure	819,818,427	2,797.03
General expenditures, by function:		
Education	429,340,569	1,464.81
Public welfare	339,408,778	1,157.98
Hospitals	40,425,954	137.92
Health	49,559,091	169.08
Highways	86,428,773	294.88
Police protection	10,766,134	36.73
Correction	39,313,812	134.13
Natural resources	18,651,542	63.63
Parks and recreation	5,843,274	19.94
Government administration	44,682,549	152.45
Interest on general debt	32,883,864	112.19
Other and unallocable	112,220,289	382.87
Utility expenditure	21,676,258	73.95
Liquor store expenditure	3,924,073	13.39
Insurance trust expenditure	170,914,840	583.12
Debt at end of fiscal year	750,409,895	2,560.23
Cash and security holdings	2,928,805,805	9,992.41

Abbreviations and symbols: – zero or rounds to zero; (NA) not available; (X) not applicable.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Governments Division, 2004 Survey of State Government Finances, January 2006.

bank holding companies, which then fall under the jurisdiction of the Federal Reserve System. This has allowed banks to extend their business into non-bank activities such as insurance, financial planning, and mortgages, as well as opening up geographical markets. The number of such holding companies is estimated at 6,500. These companies are believed to control over 90% of total bank assets.

The Riegle-Neal Interstate Banking and Branching Efficiency Act of 1994 removed most of the barriers to interstate bank acquisitions and interstate banking. The new act allowed banks to merge with banks in other states although they must operate them as separate banks. In addition, banks are allowed to establish branches in neighboring states. Restrictions on branching activity were lifted as of June 1997. The legislation allowed banks to lessen their exposure to regional economic downturns. It also ensured a continuing stream of bank mergers. Liberalization has encouraged a proliferation of in-store banking at supermarkets. International Banking Technologies, Inc., reported that the number of supermarket bank branches rose to 7,100 in 1998, up from 2,191 in 1994. In the mid-1990s, the number of supermarket branch banks grew at an annual rate of around 30%, but growth from 1997 to 1998 slowed to just over 10%.

Under the provisions of the Banking Act of 1935, all members of the Federal Reserve System (and other banks that wish to do so) participate in a plan of deposit insurance (up to \$100,000 for each individual account as of 2003) administered by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC).

Savings and loan associations are insured by the Federal Savings and Loan Insurance Corporation (FSLIC). Individual accounts were insured up to a limit of \$100,000. Savings and loans failed at an alarming rate in the 1980s. In 1989 the government signed legislation that created the Resolution Trust Corporation. The RTC's job is to handle the savings and loans bailout, expected to cost taxpayers \$345 billion through 2029. Approximately 30 million members participated in thousands of credit unions chartered by a federal agency; state-chartered credit unions had over 20 million members.

The International Monetary Fund reports that in 2001, currency and demand deposits—an aggregate commonly known as M1—were equal to \$1,595.5 billion. In that same year, M2—an aggregate equal to M1 plus savings deposits, small time deposits, and money market mutual funds—was \$6,961.2 billion. The money market rate, the rate at which financial institutions lend to one another in the short term, was 3.89%. The discount rate, the interest rate at which the central bank lends to financial institutions in the short term, was 1.25%.

3³INSURANCE

The number of life insurance companies has shrunk in recent years. Between 1985 and 1995 the number fell from 2,261 to 1,840. In 1998, there were 51 life insurance mergers and acquisitions. Competition between financial institutions has been healthy and premium income has risen steadily. The overwhelming majority of US families have some life insurance with a legal reserve company, the Veterans Administration, or fraternal, assessment, burial, or savings bank organization. The passage in 1999 of the Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act allowed insurance companies, banks, and securities firms to sell each other's products and services; re-

strictions were also lifted on cross-industry mergers and acquisitions. In 2003, the value of all direct insurance premiums written totaled \$1,055.498 billion, of which nonlife premiums accounted for \$574.579 billion. In that same year, State Farm Mutual Group was the top nonlife insurer, with direct written nonlife premiums of \$47,226 million, while Metropolitan Life and Affiliated was the nation's leading life insurer, with direct written life insurance premiums of \$27,649.1 million.

Hundreds of varieties of insurance may be purchased. Besides life, the more important coverages include accident, fire, hospital and medical expense, group accident and health, automobile liability, automobile damage, workers' compensation, ocean marine, and inland marine. Americans buy more life and health insurance than any other group except Canadians and Japanese. During the 1970s, many states enacted a "no fault" form of automobile insurance, under which damages may be awarded automatically, without recourse to a lawsuit.

3⁴SECURITIES

When the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) opened in 1817, its trading volume was 100 shares a day. On 17 December 1999, 1.35 billion shares were traded, a record high for shares traded in a single day. Record-setting trading volume occurred for 1999 as a whole, with 203.9 billion shares traded (a 20% increase over 1998) for a total value of \$8.9 trillion, up from \$7.3 trillion in 1998. In 1996, 51 million individuals and 10,000 institutional investors owned stocks or shares in mutual funds traded on the NYSE. The two other major stock markets in the United States are the American Stock Exchange (AMEX) and the NASDAQ (National Association of Securities Dealers). The NASD (National Association of Securities Dealers) is regulated by the SEC (Securities and Exchange Commission). As of 2004, the New York Stock Exchange, the NASDAQ and the American Stock Exchange had a combined total of 5,231 companies listed. Total market capitalization that same year came to \$16,323.726 billion.

3⁵PUBLIC FINANCE

Under the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921, the president is responsible for preparing the federal government budget. In fact, the budget is prepared by the Office of Management and Budget (established in 1970), based on requests from the heads of all federal departments and agencies and advice from the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, the Council of Economic Advisers, and the Treasury Department. The president submits a budget message to Congress in January. Under the Congressional Budget Act of 1974, the Congress establishes, by concurrent resolution, targets for overall expenditures and broad functional categories, as well as targets for revenues, the budget deficit, and the public debt. The Congressional Budget Office monitors the actions of Congress on individual appropriations bills with reference to those targets. The president exercises fiscal control over executive agencies, which issue periodic reports subject to presidential perusal. Congress exercises control through the comptroller general, head of the General Accounting Office, who sees to it that all funds have been spent and accounted for according to legislative intent. The fiscal year runs from 1 October to 30 September. The public debt, subject to a statutory debt limit, has been raised by Congress 70 times since 1950. The debt rose from \$43 billion in

1939/40 to more than \$3.3 trillion in 1993 to more than \$8.2 trillion in early 2006. In fiscal year 1991/92, the federal deficit reached \$290 billion, a record high. Pressured by Congressional Republicans, President Clinton introduced a taxing and spending plan to reduce the rate of growth of the federal deficit when he began his term in 1993. The Clinton Administration calculated the package of tax increases and spending would cut the deficit by \$500 billion over a four-year period; in fiscal year 1997/98, the budget experienced an estimated surplus of \$69 billion. However, the tax cuts and extensive military spending of President George W. Bush in the first term of the new millennium erased the surplus and pushed the economy toward a record \$455 billion deficit projected for the 2003 fiscal year (\$475 billion projected for 2004). The total public debt as of March 2006 exceeded \$8 trillion.

The US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) estimated that in 2005 the United States' central government took in revenues of approximately \$2.1 trillion and had expenditures of \$2.4 trillion. Revenues minus expenditures totaled approximately \$-347 billion. Public debt in 2005 amounted to 64.7% of GDP. Total external debt was \$8.837 trillion.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) reported that in 2003, the most recent year for which it had data, central government revenues in billions of dollars were 1,902.4 and expenditures were 2,311.9. The value of revenues in millions of US dollars was \$1,902 and expenditures \$2,312. Government outlays by function were as follows: general public services, 12.2%; defense, 19.1%; public order and safety, 1.4%; economic affairs, 7.0%; housing and community amenities, 2.0%; health, 23.4%; recreation, culture, and religion, 0.2%; education, 2.6%; and social protection, 32.0%.

36 TAXATION

Measured as a proportion of the GDP, the total US tax burden is less than that in most industrialized countries. Federal, state, and local taxes are levied in a variety of forms. The greatest source of revenue for the federal government is the personal income tax, which is paid by citizens and resident aliens on their worldwide income. The main state-level taxes are sales and income taxes. The main local taxes are property and local income taxes.

Generally, corporations are expected to prepay, through four installments, 100% of estimated tax liability. US corporate taxes are famous for their complexity, and it is estimated that amount spent trying to comply with, minimize and/or avoid business taxes is equal to half the tax yield. As of 2004, the US had a top corporate federal tax rate of 35%, although the effective rate is actually 39.5%. Generally, corporations having taxable income in excess of \$75,000 but not over \$10 million are taxed at a 34% rate, with the first \$75,000 taxed at graduated rates of 15% to 25%. However those whose income falls between \$335,000 and \$10 million are taxed at the full 34% which includes the initial \$75,000. Corporations with income of over \$15 million but not over \$18,333,333 are subject to an additional 3% tax, while those corporations whose taxable income is over \$18,333,333 are taxed at the 35% rate. The federal government also imposes an Alternative Minimum Tax (AMT). The purpose of the AMT is to prevent what is considered an overuse of tax deductions. As a result, the AMT is effectively a separate tax system with its own credit limitations and allowable deductions. Under the AMT, a 20% flat rate is applied to alternative minimum taxable income (AMTI), which the corporation

must pay if the calculated AMT is greater than the regular tax. Conversely, if the calculated regular tax is more than the calculated AMT, then the regular tax must be paid. State and local governments may also impose their own corporate income taxes. Generally, these taxes use the federal definitions of taxable income as the starting point when applying their income taxes. Capital gains from assets held as investments are taxed at the same rates as ordinary income. Dividends, interest and royalties paid to non-residents are subject to a withholding tax of 30%.

The United States has a progressive personal income tax structure that as of 2004, had a top rate of 35%. As with corporations, individuals can be subject to an AMT. With rates of 26% and 28%, the AMT, as it applies to individuals, is similar to the AMT charged to corporations in that the individual must pay whichever is highest, the regular tax or the AMT. Individuals may also be subject to inheritance and gift taxes, as well as state and local income taxes, all of which vary from state-to-state and locality-to-locality. Capital gains from assets held for under a year (short term) are taxed at higher rates than gains derived from assets held for more than a year (long term). Long term capital gains for individuals are taxed at a 15% rate, while those individuals who fall into lower-income tax brackets would be subject to a 5% rate. Certain capital gains derived from real estate are subject to a 25% tax rate.

The United States has not adopted a national value-added tax (VAT) system. The main indirect taxes are state sales taxes. There is an importation duty of 0.7% on imported goods. Excise taxes are levied on certain motor vehicles, personal air transportation, some motor fuels (excluding gasohol), alcoholic beverages, tobacco products, tires and tubes, telephone charges, and gifts and estates.

37 ECONOMIC POLICY

By the end of the 19th century, regulation rather than subsidy had become the characteristic form of government intervention in US economic life. The abuses of the railroads with respect to rates and services gave rise to the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1887, which was subsequently strengthened by numerous acts that now stringently regulate all aspects of US railroad operations.

The growth of large-scale corporate enterprises, capable of exercising monopolistic or near-monopolistic control of given segments of the economy, resulted in federal legislation designed to control trusts. The Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890, reinforced by the Clayton Act of 1914 and subsequent acts, established the federal government as regulator of large-scale business. This tradition of government intervention in the economy was reinforced during the Great Depression of the 1930s, when the Securities and Exchange Commission and the National Labor Relations Board were established. The expansion of regulatory programs accelerated during the 1960s and early 1970s with the creation of the federal Environmental Protection Agency, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Occupational Safety and Health Administration, and Consumer Product Safety Commission, among other bodies. Subsidy programs were not entirely abandoned, however. Federal price supports and production subsidies remained a major force in stabilizing US agriculture. Moreover, the federal government stepped in to arrange for guaranteed loans for two large private firms—Lockheed in 1971 and Chrysler in

1980—where thousands of jobs would have been lost in the event of bankruptcy.

During this period, a general consensus emerged that, at least in some areas, government regulation was contributing to inefficiency and higher prices. The Carter administration moved to deregulate the airline, trucking, and communications industries; subsequently, the Reagan administration relaxed government regulation of bank savings accounts and automobile manufacture as it decontrolled oil and gas prices. The Reagan administration also sought to slow the growth of social-welfare spending and attempted, with only partial success, to transfer control over certain federal social programs to the states and to reduce or eliminate some programs entirely. Ironically, it was a Democrat, Bill Clinton, who, in 1996, signed legislation that replaced Aid to Families with Dependent Children with a system of block grants that would enable the states to design and run their own welfare programs.

Some areas of federal involvement in social welfare, however, seem safely entrenched. Old age and survivors' insurance, unemployment insurance, and other aspects of the Social Security program have been accepted areas of governmental responsibility for decades. With the start of the 21st century, the government faced the challenge of keeping the Medicare program solvent as the postwar baby-boomer generation reached retirement age. Federal responsibility has also been extended to insurance of bank deposits, to mortgage insurance, and to regulation of stock transactions. The government fulfills a supervisory and regulatory role in labor-management relations. Labor and management customarily disagree on what the role should be, but neither side advocates total removal of government from this field.

Since the Reciprocal Trade Agreement Act of 1934, government regulation of foreign trade has tended toward decreased levels of protection, a trend maintained by the 1945 Trade Agreements Extension Act, the 1962 Trade Expansion Act, and the 1974 Trade Act. The goals of free trade have also been furthered since World War II by US participation in the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). With the formation in 1995 of the World Trade Organization (WTO), most-favored-nation policies were expanded to trade in services and other areas.

In 1993, Congress approved the North American Free Trade Agreement, which extended the Free Trade Agreement between Canada and the United States to include Mexico. NAFTA, by eliminating tariffs and other trade barriers, created a free trade zone with a combined market size of \$6.5 trillion and 370 million consumers. The effect on employment was uncertain—estimates varied from a loss of 150,000 jobs over the ensuing ten years to a net gain of 200,000. Labor intensive goods-producing industries, such as apparel and textiles, were expected to suffer, while it was predicted that capital goods industries would benefit. It was anticipated that US automakers would benefit in the short run by taking advantage of the low wages in Mexico and that US grain farmers and the US banking, financial, and telecommunications sectors would gain enormous new markets. As of 2005, the pros and cons of NAFTA were still being hotly debated. Spokespersons for organized labor claimed in 2000 that the agreement had resulted in a net loss of 420,000 jobs, while advocates of free trade insisted that 311,000 new jobs had been created to support record

US exports to Canada and Mexico, with only 116,000 workers displaced—a net gain of 195,000 jobs.

In 2003, President George W. Bush introduced, and Congress passed a tax cut of \$350 billion designed to stimulate the economy, which was in a period of slow growth. This came on the heels of a \$1.35 trillion tax cut passed in 2001 and a \$96 billion stimulus package in 2002. Democrats cited the loss of 2.7 million private sector jobs during the first three years of the Bush administration as evidence that the president did not have control over the economy. In 1998, for the first time since 1969, the federal budget closed the fiscal year with a surplus. In 2000, the government was running a surplus of \$236 billion, or a projected \$5.6 trillion over 10 years. By mid-2003, the federal budget had fallen into deficit; the deficit stood at \$455 billion, which was 4.2% of gross domestic product (GDP). The budget deficit stood at \$412 billion in 2004, or 3.6% of GDP, and was forecast to decline to \$331 billion in 2006.

US businesses are at or near the forefront of technological advances, but the onrush of technology has created a “two-tier” labor market, in which those at the bottom lack the education and professional and technical skills of those at the top, and, increasingly, fail to receive comparable pay raises, health insurance coverage, and other benefits. Since 1975, practically all the gains in household income have gone to the top 20% of households. Other long-term problems facing the US economy are inadequate investment in economic infrastructure, the rapidly rising medical and pension costs of an aging population, significant trade, current account, and budget deficits, and the stagnation of family income in the lower economic groups. Congress in 2003 passed an overhaul of the Medicare program, to provide prescription drug coverage for the elderly and disabled, which went into effect in January 2006.

38 HEALTH

The US health care system is among the most advanced in the world. Escalating health care costs resulted in several proposals for a national health care program in the 1970s, early 1980s, and early 1990s. Most reform measures relied either on market-oriented approaches designed to widen insurance coverage through tax subsidies on a federally controlled single-payer plan, or on mandatory employer payments for insurance coverage. The health care industry continues to struggle with continued rising costs, as well as the financial burden of providing care to over 40 million people who were uninsured. The percentage among the nation's poor was much higher.

In response to rising costs, the popularity of managed care grew rapidly in the latter half of the 1990s. By 2000, 59% of the population was insured by either an HMO (health maintenance organization) or PPO (preferred provider organization). In such organizations, medical treatment, laboratory tests, and other health services for each patient are subject to the approval of the insurer before they can be covered. From 1987 to 1996, enrollment in health maintenance organizations (HMOs) doubled. By the end of the decade, however, the quality of treatment under managed care organizations was coming under increased scrutiny.

Life expectancy for someone born in 2005 was 77.71 years. Infant mortality has fallen from 38.3 per 1,000 live births in 1945 to 6.50 per 1,000 live births in 2005. The birth rate in 2002 was 14.1

per 1,000 people. In 1999, 56.5% of US adults were overweight and 21.1% were obese. Although health indicators continued to improve overall 2004, pronounced disparities between different segments of the population remained.

The overall death rate is comparable to that of most nations—an estimated 8.7 per 1,000 people as of 2002. Leading causes of death were: heart disease, cancer, cerebrovascular diseases, chronic lower respiratory diseases, accidents, diabetes mellitus, pneumonia and influenza, Alzheimer's disease, suicide and homicide.

Cigarette smoking has been linked to heart and lung disease; about 20% of all deaths in the United States were attributed to cigarette smoking. Smoking has decreased overall since the late 1980s. The overall trend in smoking mortality suggests a decrease in smoking among males since the 1960s, but an increase in mortality for female smokers. On 23 November 1998, the Master Settlement Agreement was signed, the result of a lawsuit brought by 46 states and the District of Columbia against tobacco companies for damages related to smoking. Payments from the settlement, totaling \$206 billion, began in 1999.

The rate of HIV infection (resulting in acquired immune deficiency syndrome—AIDS), first identified in 1981, has risen in the intervening years. There were a cumulative total of 750,000 AIDS cases in the 1980s and 1990s, with 450,000 deaths from the disease. In the latter 1990s, both incidence and mortality decreased with the introduction of new drug combinations to combat the disease. The number of AIDS cases declined by 30% between 1996 and 1998 and deaths were cut in half. In 2004, the number of people living with HIV/AIDS was estimated at 950,000, with the number of deaths from AIDS that year estimated at 14,000. AIDS continued to affect racial and ethnic minorities disproportionately. HIV prevalence was 0.60 per 100 adults in 1999.

Medical facilities in the United States included 5,810 hospitals in 2000, with 984,000 beds (down from 6,965 hospitals and 1,365,000 beds in 1980). As of 2004, there were an estimated 549 physicians, 773 nurses, 59 dentists and 69 pharmacists per 100,000 people. Of the total number of active classified physicians, the largest areas of activity were internal medicine, followed by general and family practice, then pediatrics.

Per capita health care expenditures rose from \$247 in 1967 to about \$3,380 in 1993. National health care spending reached \$1 trillion in 1996 and is projected to rise to \$1.9 trillion by 2006. Hospital costs, amounting to over \$371 billion in 1997, represented 34% of national health care spending in that year. In the late 1990s, total health care expenditures stabilized at around 13% of GDP, with most expenditures being made by the private sector.

Medicare payments have lagged behind escalating hospital costs; payments in 2000 totaled \$215.9 billion. Meanwhile, the elderly population in the United States is projected to increase to 18% of the total population by 2020, thus exacerbating the conundrum of health care finance.

39 SOCIAL WELFARE

Social welfare programs in the United States depend on both the federal government and the state governments for resources and administration. Old age, survivors', disability, and the Medicare (health) programs are administered by the federal government; unemployment insurance, dependent child care, and a variety of other public assistance programs are state administered, although

the federal government contributes to all of them through grants to the states.

The Food and Nutrition Service of the US Department of Agriculture oversees several food assistance programs. Eligible Americans take part in the food stamp program, and eligible pupils participate in the school lunch program. The federal government also expends money for school breakfasts, nutrition programs for the elderly, and in commodity aid for the needy. The present Social Security program differs greatly from that created by the Social Security Act of 1935, which provided that retirement benefits be paid to retired workers aged 65 or older. Since 1939, Congress has attached a series of amendments to the program, including provisions for workers who retire at age 62, for widows, for dependent children under 18 years of age, and for children who are disabled prior to age 18. Disabled workers between 50 and 65 years of age are also entitled to monthly benefits. Other measures increased the number of years a person may work; among these reforms was a 1977 law banning mandatory retirement in private industry before age 70. The actuarial basis for the Social Security system has also changed. In 1935 there were about nine US wage earners for each American aged 65 or more; by the mid-1990s, however, the ratio was closer to three to one.

In 1940, the first year benefits were payable, \$35 million was paid out. By 1983, Social Security benefits totaled \$268.1 billion, paid to more than 40.6 million beneficiaries. The average monthly benefit for a retired worker with no dependents in 1960 was \$74; in 1983, the average benefit was \$629.30. Under legislation enacted in the early 1970s, increases in monthly benefits were pegged to the inflation rate, as expressed through the Consumer Price Index. Employers, employees, and the self-employed are legally required to make contributions to the Social Security fund. Currently, 6.2% of employee earnings (12.4% of self-employed earnings) went toward old-age, disability, and survivor benefits. Wage and salary earners pay Social Security taxes under the Federal Insurance Contributions Act (FICA). As the amount of benefits and the number of beneficiaries have increased, so has the maximum FICA payment. As of 2004 the maximum annual earnings for contribution and benefit purposes was \$87,000.

Workers compensation laws vary according to states. Most laws were enacted before 1920; the program covering federal employees was instituted in 1908. Insurance is compulsory through public or private carriers. In most states the employer fund the total cost. There is a special federal program for miners with black lung disease (pneumoconiosis). The laws governing unemployment compensation originate in the states as well, and therefore benefits vary from state to state in duration and amount. Generally unemployment benefits amount to 50% of earnings, and federal law provides an additional 13 weeks of payments in states with high unemployment. Federal and state systems provide aid in the form of cash payments, social services, and job training to assist needy families.

Private philanthropy plays a major role in the support of relief and health services. The private sector plays an especially important role in pension management.

40 HOUSING

The housing resources of the United States far exceed those of any other country, with 122,671,734 housing units serving about

109,902,090 households, according to 2004 American Community Survey estimates. About 67% of all occupied units were owner-occupied. About 10% of the total housing stock was vacant. The average household had 2.6 people. The median home value was estimated at \$151,366. The median payment for rent and utilities of rental properties was \$694 per month. California had the highest number of housing units at over 12 million (in 2000); the state also had the highest median housing value of owner-occupied units at \$391,102 (2004 est.). Wyoming had the lowest number of housing stock with 223,854 (2000). The lowest median housing value of owner-occupied units was found in Arkansas at \$79,006 (2004 est.).

The vast majority of housing units are single-unit structures; 61% are single-family detached homes. Over 9.5 million dwellings are found in buildings of 20 units or more. Over 8.7 million dwellings are mobile homes. About 14.9% of the total housing stock was built in 1939 or before. The decade of 1970–79 had the most homes built, with 21,462,868 units, 17.6% of the existing stock. During the period 1990–99, there were 19,007,934 units built, about 15% of the existing stock. Houses being built in the 1990s were significantly larger than those built in the 1970s. The average area of single-family housing built in 1993 was 180.88 sq m (1,947 sq ft), compared to 139.35 sq m (1,500 sq ft) in 1970. The median number of rooms per dwelling was estimated at 5.4 in 2004.

41 EDUCATION

Education is the responsibility of state and the local governments. However, federal funds are available to meet special needs at primary, secondary, or higher levels. Each state specifies the age and circumstances for compulsory attendance. The most common program of compulsory education requires attendance for ages 6 to 16; however, most school programs continue through twelve years of study, with students graduating at age 17 or 18. The high school diploma is only granted to students who complete this course of study, no certificates of completion are granted at previous intervals. Those who leave school before completion of grade 12 may choose to take a General Educational Development Test (GED) that is generally considered to be the equivalent to a state-approved diploma.

“Regular” schools, which educate a person toward a diploma or degree, include both public and private schools. Public schools are controlled and supported by the local authorities, as well as state or federal governmental agencies. Private schools are controlled and supported by religious or private organizations. Elementary schooling generally extends from grade one through grade five or six. Junior high or middle school programs may cover grades six through eight, depending on the structure of the particular school district. High schools generally cover grades 9 through 12. At the secondary level, many schools offer choices of general studies or college preparatory studies. Vocational and technical programs are also available. Some schools offer advanced placement programs through which students (after appropriate exams) may earn college credits while still in high school. The school year begins in September and ends in June.

In 2003, about 58% of children between the ages of three and five were enrolled in some type of preschool program. Primary school enrollment in 2003 was estimated at about 92% of age-eligible students. The student-to-teacher ratio for primary school

was at about 14:1 in 2003; the ratio for secondary school was about 15:1. In 2003, private schools accounted for about 10.8% of primary school enrollment and 9.2% of secondary enrollment. As of 2003, about 87% percent of all 25- to 29-year-olds had received a high school diploma or equivalency certificate.

In 2003, about 1.1 million students were home schooled. In a home schooling program, students are taught at home by their parents or tutors using state-approved curriculum resources. Most of these students (about 82%) receive their entire education at home. Others may attend some classes at local schools or choose to attend public high school after completing preliminary grades through home schooling.

Colleges include junior or community colleges, offering two-year associate degrees; regular four-year colleges and universities; and graduate or professional schools. Both public and private institutions are plentiful. Eight of the most prestigious institutions in the country are collectively known as the Ivy League. These schools are some of the oldest in the country and are known for high academic standards and an extremely selective admissions process. Though they are all now independent, nonsectarian organizations, most of them were founded or influenced by religious groups. They include: Yale University (1701, Puritans), University of Pennsylvania (1740, Quaker influence), Princeton University (1746, Presbyterian), Harvard University (1638, Puritan), Dartmouth College (1769, Puritan), Cornell University (1865), Columbia University (1754, Anglican), and Brown University (1764, Baptist).

The cost of college education varies considerably depending on the institution. There are county and state universities that receive government funding and offer reduced tuition for residents of the region. Students attending both public and private institutions may be eligible for federal aid in the form of grants or loans. Institutions generally offer their own scholarship and grant programs as well.

There are over 4,000 non-degree institutions of higher learning, including educational centers offering continuing education credits for professionals as well as general skill-based learning programs. Certificate programs are available in a number of professions and trades. Technical and vocational schools are also available for adults. In 2003, it was estimated that about 83% of the tertiary age population were enrolled in tertiary education programs. The adult literacy rate has been estimated at about 97%.

Beyond this, there are numerous public and private community organizations that offer educational programming in the form of workshops, lectures, seminars, and classes for adults interested in expanding their educational horizons.

As of 2003, public expenditure on education was estimated at 5.7% of GDP, or 17.1% of total government expenditures.

42 ARTS

The nation's arts centers are emblems of the importance of the performing arts in US life. New York City's Lincoln Center for the Performing Arts, whose first concert hall opened in 1962, is now the site of the Metropolitan Opera House, three halls for concerts and other musical performances, two theaters, the New York Public Library's Library and Museum of the Performing Arts, and the Juilliard School. The John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing

Arts in Washington, D.C., opened in 1971; it comprises two main theaters, two smaller theaters, an opera house, and a concert hall.

The New York Philharmonic, founded in 1842, is the nation's oldest professional musical ensemble. Other leading orchestras include those of Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Washington, D.C. (the National Symphony). Particularly renowned for artistic excellence are the Lyric Opera of Chicago, San Francisco Opera, Opera Company of Boston, Santa Fe Opera, New York City Opera, and the Metropolitan Opera.

The recording industry is an integral part of the music world. The US accounts for fully one-third of the global total of \$33 billion in sales. Popular music (mostly rock), performed in halls and arenas in every major city and on college campuses throughout the US, dominates record sales. The Internet website Napster has challenged the recording industry's copyright rights by offering free downloads of popular music. The industry, threatened by the freedom that the Internet granted to those wishing to share music, succeeded in having Napster's operations suspended by an appeals judge in 2001.

Though still financially insecure, dance is winning an increasingly wide following. The American Ballet Theater, founded in 1940, is the nation's oldest dance company still active today; the New York City Ballet is equally acclaimed. Other important companies include those of Martha Graham, Merce Cunningham, Alvin Ailey, Paul Taylor, and Twyla Tharp, as well as the Feld Ballet, Joffrey Ballet, and Pilobolus.

Drama remains a principal performing art, not only in New York City's renowned theater district but also in regional, university, summer, and dinner theaters throughout the US. Television and the motion picture industry have made film the dominant modern medium.

The National Council on the Arts, established in 1964, advises the Chairman of the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). Fourteen members of the Council, and six members of Congress serve in this function. As the largest single funder of the nonprofit arts sector in the United States, the NEA generated a total budget of \$115.7 million in 2003. Grants are awarded to state, local, and regional organizations for projects in the following categories: creation and presentation, education and access, heritage and preservation, and planning and stabilization. Fellowship awards are made in the categories of Literature, American Jazz Masters, and National Heritage.

Since 1985, the NEA has assisted in the selection process for the National Medal of Arts, which is awarded by the president of the United States. Several winners are chosen each year, representing a variety of fields. Past medalists include: Dolly Parton (singer, 2005); Ray Bradbury (author, 2004); Ron Howard (director and actor, 2003); William "Smokey" Robinson (songwriter and musician, 2002); Al Hirschfeld (illustrator, 2002); Johnny Cash (singer, 2001); Yo-Yo Ma (cellist, 2001); Kirk Douglas (actor and producer, 2001); Mikhail Baryshnikov (dancer and director, 2000); Maya Angelou (poet and writer, 2000); Aretha Franklin (singer, 1999); Michael Graves (architect, 1999); Frank Gehry (architect, 1998); Edward Albee (playwright, 1997); Harry Callahan (photographer, 1996); Bob Hope (entertainer, 1995); Gene Kelly (dancer, 1994); Arthur Miller (playwright, 1993); and Frank Capra (film director, 1986), to name just a few. Organizations that have received medals

include the Alvin Ailey Dance Foundation (2001), National Public Radio (2000), the Julliard School (1999), Steppenwolf Theater Company (1998), the Sarah Lee Corporation (corporate arts patron, 1998), and the Boys Choir of Harlem (1994).

The National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) was created as an independent federal agency in 1965. It is the largest funder of humanities programs in the country. Grants are distributed to state and local programs in the following categories: Challenge Grants, Education Programs, Preservation and Access, Public Programs, and Research Programs. Besides offering support to outside organizations, the NEH sponsors touring exhibitions and programs through chapters in most states. The NEH budget request for the year 2006 was \$138.6 million.

The NEH sponsors the Jefferson Lecture in the Humanities award, which was established in 1972 as the highest honor the federal government bestows for distinguished intellectual and public achievement in the humanities. Recipients have included Tom Wolfe (2006); David McCullough (2003); Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (2002); Arthur Miller (2001); Toni Morrison (1996); Gwendolyn Brooks (1994); Saul Bellow (1977); and Robert Penn Warren (1974). The National Humanities Medals, established in 1997, are awarded to individuals or groups whose work has had an impact on the understanding and preservation of the humanities. Medalists include the Iowa Writers' Workshop (2002); Donald Kagan (2002); Art Linkletter (2002); Richard Peck (2001); Ernest J. Gaines (2000); Garrison Keillor (1999); Jim Lehrer (1999); Steven Spielberg (1999); Stephen Ambrose (1998); Don Henley (1997); and Maxine Hong Kingston (1997).

Since 1950, the National Book Foundation, based in New York, has sponsored the National Book Awards, which have become the nation's preeminent literary prizes. The 2005 prizes went to *Europe Central* by William Vollman (fiction), *Year of Magical Thinking* by Joan Didion (non-fiction), *New and Selected Poems* by W.S. Merwin (poetry), and *The Penderwicks* by Jeanne Birdsall (young people's literature). Notable past winners include: *United States: Essays 1952-1992* by Gore Vidal (1993); *Cold Mountain* by Charles Frazier (1997); *The White House* by Henry A. Kissinger (1980); *A Swiftly Tilting Planet* by Madeleine L'Engle (1980); *The Fall of America: Poems of these States, 1965-1971* by Allen Ginsberg (1974); *Death at an Early Age* by Jonathan Kozol (1968); *The Centaur* by John Updike (1964); *The Invisible Man* by Ralph Ellison (1953); *Collected Poems* by Marianne Moore (1952); and *The Collected Stories of William Faulkner* (1951).

43 LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

The American Library Association has reported that, as of 2004, there were an estimated 117,664 libraries in the country, including 9,211 public libraries (with over 16,500 buildings), 3,527 academic libraries, 93,861 school libraries, 9,526 special libraries, 314 armed forces libraries, and 1,225 government libraries.

The largest library in the country and the world is the Library of Congress, with holdings of over 130 million items, including 29 million books and other printed materials, 2.7 million recordings, 12 million photographs, 4.8 million maps, and 58 million manuscripts. The Library of Congress serves as the national library and the site of the U.S. Copyright Office. The government maintains a system of Presidential Libraries and Museums which serve as archive and research centers that preserve documents and other ma-

terials of historical value related to the presidency. Starting with Herbert Hoover, the 31st president of the United States, there has been a library and museum established for each president. State governments maintain their own libraries as well.

The country's vast public library system is administered primarily by municipalities. The largest of these is the New York Public Library system with 89 branch locations and over 42.7 million items, including 14.9 million bound volumes. Other major public library systems include the Cleveland Public Library (over 9.7 million items), Los Angeles County Public Library (over 9.6 million items, 8.7 million books), the Chicago Public Library (6.5 million), the Boston Public Library system (6.1 million books, including 1.2 million rare books and manuscripts), and the Free Library of Philadelphia (6 million items).

Noted special collections are those of the Pierpont Morgan Library in New York; the Huntington Library in San Marino, Calif.; the Folger Shakespeare Library in Washington, D.C.; the Hoover Library at Stanford University; and the rare book divisions of Harvard, Yale, Indiana, Texas, and Virginia universities.

Among the leading university libraries are those of Harvard (with about 15 million volumes in 90 libraries), Yale, Illinois (Urbana-Champaign), Michigan (Ann Arbor), California (Berkeley), Columbia, Stanford, Cornell, California (Los Angeles), Chicago, Wisconsin (Madison), and Washington (Seattle).

There are over 5,000 nonprofit museums in the United States. The most numerous type is the historic building, followed in descending order by college and university museums, museums of science, public museums of history, and public museums of art. The Smithsonian Institute in Washington, D.C., sponsors 18 national museums and the National Zoo. Sixteen of the Smithsonian national museums are located in the Smithsonian complex of Washington, D.C.; these include the Natural History Museum, the American History Museum, the Air and Space Museum, American Art Museum, and the American Indian Museum. The American Indian Museum, Heye Center, and the Cooper-Hewitt, National Design Museum are Smithsonian-sponsored museums located in New York.

Other eminent US museums include the American Museum of Natural History, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Museum of Modern Art, the Guggenheim Museum, the Whitney Collection of American Art, the Frick Collection, and the Brooklyn Museum, all in New York City; the Boston Museum of Fine Arts; the Art Institute of Chicago and the Chicago Museum of Natural History; the Franklin Institute and Philadelphia Museum of Art, both in Philadelphia; and the M. H. de Young Memorial Museum in San Francisco. Also of prominence are the Cleveland Museum of Art, the St. Louis Museum of Art, and the Baltimore Museum of Art.

44 COMMUNICATIONS

All major electric communications systems are privately owned but regulated by the Federal Communications Commission. The United States uses wire and radio services for communications more extensively than any other country in the world. In 2003, there were an estimated 621 mainline telephones for every 1,000 people. The same year, there were approximately 543 mobile phones in use for every 1,000 people. The Post Office Department of the United States was replaced on 1 July 1971 by the US Postal Service, a financially autonomous federal agency. In addition to

mail delivery, the Postal Service provides registered, certified, insured, express and COD mail service, issues money orders, and operates a postal savings system. Since the 1970s, numerous privately owned overnight mail and package delivery services have been established.

Radio serves a variety of purposes other than broadcasting. It is widely used by ships and aircraft for safety; it has become an important tool in the movement of buses, trucks, and taxicabs. Forest conservators, fire departments, and the police operate with radio as a necessary aid; it is used in logging operations, surveying, construction work, and dispatching of repair crews. In 2004, broadcasting stations on the air comprised over 12,000 radio stations (both AM and FM) and more than 1,500 television stations. Nearly 1,000 stations were affiliated with five major networks: NBC, ABC, CBS, FOX (all commercial), and PBS (Public Broadcasting System). As of 1997 the United States had some 9,000 cable television systems. In 2003, there were an estimated 2,109 radios and 938 television sets for every 1,000 people. About 255 of every 1,000 people were cable subscribers. Also in 2003, there were 658.9 personal computers for every 1,000 people and 551 of every 1,000 people had access to the Internet. There were 198,098 secure Internet servers in the country in 2004.

45 PRESS

In 2005 there were over 1,500 daily newspapers in the United States. It has been estimated that about 20 large newspaper chains account for almost 60% of the total daily circulation. The US daily newspapers with the largest circulations as of 2004 were: *USA Today* (national), 2,220,863; *Wall Street Journal* (national), 2,106,774; *New York Times*, 1,121,057; *Los Angeles Times* (CA), 902,3164; *New York Daily News*, 715,052; *Washington Post* (DC), 707,690; *New York Post*, 686,207; *Chicago Tribune* (IL), 600,988; *Houston Chronicle* (TX), 554,783; *Dallas Morning News* (TX), 519,014; *San Francisco Chronicle* (CA), 505,022; *Chicago Sun-Times* (IL), 481,980; *Long Island/New York Newsday*, 481,816; *Boston Globe* (MA), 451,471; *Arizona Republic*, 413,268; *Star-Ledger* (Newark, NJ), 400,042; *Journal-Constitution* (Atlanta, GA), 386,015; *Star Tribune* (Minneapolis, MN), 381,094; *Philadelphia Inquirer* (PA), 368,883; and *Cleveland Plain Dealer* (OH), 354,309. *The Christian Science Monitor* is published for daily national circulation by the Christian Science Church based in Massachusetts; circulation in 2004 was about 60,723. *Investor's Business Daily*, based in Los Angeles, California, also has a national circulation, reaching about 191,846 in 2004.

In 2004, the most popular consumer magazine in the country was AARP the Magazine, published bimonthly by the American Association of Retired Persons (AARP) with a circulation of over 22.6 million. The AARP Bulletin came in second with a circulation of about 22.1 million. The two general circulation magazines that appealed to the largest audiences were *Reader's Digest* (about 10 million) and *TV Guide* (about 9 million). *Time* and *Newsweek* were the leading news magazines, with 2004 weekly circulations of 4,034,272 and 3,135,476 respectively.

The US book-publishing industry consists of the major book companies (mainly in the New York metro area), nonprofit university presses distributed throughout the United States, and numerous small publishing firms. In 1994, 51,863 book titles were published in the United States.

The US Constitution provides for freedom of speech and of the press in its Bill of Rights, and the government supports these rights. Citizens enjoy a wide range of opinions in all media, where debate, editorial opinion, and government opposition viewpoints are represented in some form or another. Nearly all media are privately owned.

46 ORGANIZATIONS

A number of industrial and commercial organizations exercise considerable influence on economic policy. The National Association of Manufacturers and the US Chamber of Commerce, with numerous local branches, are the two central bodies of business and commerce. Various industries have their own associations, concerned with cooperative research and questions of policy alike.

Practically every profession in the United States is represented by one or more professional organizations. Among the most powerful of these are the American Medical Association, comprising regional, state, and local medical societies; the American Bar Association, also comprising state and local associations; the American Hospital Association; and the National Education Association. The most prestigious scientific and technical institutions are the National Academy of Sciences (founded 1863) and the National Academy of Engineering (1964).

Many private organizations are dedicated to programs of political and social action. Prominent in this realm are the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), the Urban League, the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), Common Cause, and the Anti-Defamation League. The League of Women Voters, which provides the public with nonpartisan information about candidates and election issues, began sponsoring televised debates between the major presidential candidates in 1976. The National Organization for Women, and the National Rifle Association have each mounted nationwide lobbying campaigns on issues affecting their members. There are thousands of political action committees (PACs) that disburse funds to candidates for the House and Senate and other elected offices.

The great privately endowed philanthropic foundations and trusts play an important part in encouraging the development of education, art, science, and social progress in the United States. Prominent foundations include the Carnegie Corporation and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Ford Foundation, the Guggenheim Foundation, the Mayo Association for the Advancement of Medical Research and Education, and the Rockefeller Foundation.

Private philanthropy was responsible for the establishment of many of the nation's most eminent libraries, concert halls, museums, and university and medical facilities; private bequests were also responsible for the establishment of the Pulitzer Prizes. Merit awards offered by industry and professional groups include the "Oscars" of the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences, the "Emmys" of the National Academy of Television Arts and Sciences, and the "Grammys" of the National Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences.

Funds for a variety of community health and welfare services are funneled through United Way campaigns, which raise funds annually. The American Red Cross has over 3,000 chapters, which pay for services and activities ranging from disaster relief to blood

donor programs. The Salvation Army is also a prominent national organization supporting programs of social welfare and advancement. There are several national associations dedicated to research and education for specific fields of medicine and particular diseases and conditions, such as the American Cancer Society, the American Heart Association, and the March of Dimes.

There are numerous youth clubs and associations across the country. The Boy Scouts of America, the Girl Scouts of the USA, rural 4-H Clubs, and the Young Men's and the Young Women's Christian Associations are among the organizations devoted to recreation, sports, camping, and education. There are youth organizations for political parties, such as the Young Republicans and Young Democrats, and Junior ROTC (Reserve Officers' Training Corps) for the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines. Most national religious and service associations have youth chapters.

The largest religious organization in the United States is the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the USA, which embraces 32 Protestant and Orthodox denominations, whose adherents total more than 42 million. Many organizations, such as the American Philosophical Society, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the National Geographic Society, are dedicated to the enlargement of various branches of human knowledge. National, state, and local historical societies abound, and there are numerous educational, sports, and hobbyist groups.

The larger veterans' organizations are the American Legion, the Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, the Catholic War Veterans, and the Jewish War Veterans. Fraternal organizations, in addition to such international organizations as the Masons, include indigenous groups such as the Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks, the Loyal Order of Moose, and the Woodmen of the World. Many, such as the Ancient Order of Hibernians in America, commemorate the national origin of their members. One of the largest fraternal organizations is the Roman Catholic Knights of Columbus.

47 TOURISM, TRAVEL, AND RECREATION

Among the most striking scenic attractions in the United States are: the Grand Canyon in Arizona; Carlsbad Caverns in New Mexico; Yosemite National Park in California; Yellowstone National Park in Idaho, Montana, and Wyoming; Niagara Falls, partly in New York; and the Everglades in Florida. The United States has a total of 49 national parks. Popular coastal resorts include those of Florida, California, and Cape Cod in Massachusetts. Historical attractions include the Liberty Bell and Constitution Hall in Philadelphia; the Statue of Liberty in New York City; the White House, the Capitol, and the monuments to Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln in the District of Columbia; the Williamsburg historical restoration in Virginia; various Revolutionary and Civil War battlefields and monuments in the East and South; the Alamo in San Antonio; and Mt. Rushmore in South Dakota. Among many other popular tourist attractions are the movie and television studios in Los Angeles; the cable cars in San Francisco; casino gambling in Las Vegas and in Atlantic City, N.J.; thoroughbred horse racing in Kentucky; the Grand Ole Opry in Nashville, Tenn.; the many jazz clubs of New Orleans; and such amusement parks as Disneyland (Anaheim, Calif.) and Walt Disney World (near Orlando, Fla.). For abundance and diversity of entertainment— theater, movies, music, dance, and sports—New York City has few rivals. In April

1993, Amtrak began the country's first regularly scheduled trans-continental passenger service, from Los Angeles to Miami.

Americans' recreational activities range from the major spectator sports—professional baseball, football, basketball, ice hockey, soccer; and horse racing; and collegiate football and basketball—to home gardening. Participant sports are a favorite form of recreation, including jogging, aerobics, tennis, and golf. Skiing is a popular recreation in New England and the western mountain ranges, while sailing, power boating, rafting, and canoeing are popular water sports.

Foreign visitors to the United States numbered 41,212,213 in 2003, down from 51 million in 2000. Of these visitors, 31% came from Canada and 25% from Mexico. Hotel rooms numbered 4,415,696 with an occupancy rate of 61%. With a few exceptions, such as Canadians entering from the Western Hemisphere, all visitors to the United States are required to have passports and visas.

The cost of traveling in the United States varies from city to city. According to 2005 US government estimates, daily expenses were approximately \$187 in Chicago, \$272 in New York, \$230 in Washington, D.C., and \$174 in Miami. Costs are lower in smaller cities and rural areas.

48 SPORTS

Baseball, long honored as the national pastime, is the nation's leading professional team sport, with two major leagues having 30 teams (one in Canada). In the 1998 season, two teams were added to Major League Baseball—the Arizona Diamondbacks, playing in the National League West, and the Tampa Bay Devil Rays, playing in the American League East. In 2005, the Montreal Expos became the Washington DC Nationals, following the team's move to Washington DC from Montreal. During the 2005 regular season, almost 75 million fans attended Major League Baseball games. In 1992, the Toronto Blue Jays became the first non-US team to win the World Series. In addition, there is an extensive network of minor league baseball teams, each of them related to a major league franchise. The National Basketball Association, created in 1946, included 30 teams in 2005. A labor dispute resulted in a lockout of the players for nearly half the 1999–2000 NBA season. The Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), founded in 1997, included 14 teams as of 2005. During the WNBA's third season (1999), 1,959,733 fans attended regular season games, establishing an attendance record for women's professional sports. In 2005, WNBA attendance totaled 1,805,937. In 2005, the National Football League included 32 teams; Houston, Texas, was awarded a franchise in 2002 to establish the 32nd team. The National Hockey League (NHL) expanded to 30 teams in 2000, when teams in St. Paul, Minnesota (Minnesota Wild), and Columbus, Ohio (Columbus Blue Jackets), played their inaugural seasons. Prior expansion occurred in the 1998–99 season, with the Nashville Predators, and in 1999–2000, with the Atlanta Thrashers. In the 2003/2004 season, 20.3 million fans attended regular NHL season games. However, the entire NHL schedule for the 2004/2005 season was cancelled because of a labor dispute between the players and the team owners. Hockey players also held strikes in 1992 and 1994. Play resumed for the 2005/2006 season after both sides agreed to a new labor contract. The North American Soccer League (NASL), which appeared to be growing popular in the late 1970s, discontinued outdoor play in 1985. Indoor soccer continued, however,

with the Major Indoor Soccer League. In 1994, however, soccer's World Cup games were played in nine US cities, with the final match held in Los Angeles. As of 2005, Major League Soccer fielded 12 teams in two divisions. Radio and television contracts are integral to the popular and financial success of all professional team sports. In 1994, a strike by baseball players caused the World Series to be canceled for the first time since 1904.

Several other professional sports are popular nationwide. Thoroughbred racing is among the nation's most popular spectator sports, with an estimated 12 million fans visiting horse-racing tracks annually. Annual highlights of thoroughbred racing are the three jewels of the Triple Crown—the Kentucky Derby, the Preakness, and the Belmont Stakes—most recently won by Seattle Slew in 1977 and by Affirmed in 1978. In 2000, jockey Julie Krone became the first woman jockey to be inducted into the Horse Racing Hall of Fame. Harness racing is also popular; attracting millions of spectators annually and involving over \$1.5 billion in wagering. In 1997, over 14.3 million fans watched greyhound racing. The prize money that Henry Ford won on a 1901 auto race helped him start his now-famous car company two years later; since then, automobile manufacturers have backed sports car, stock car, and motorcycle racing at tracks throughout the US. From John L. Sullivan to Muhammad Ali, the personality and power of the great boxing champions have drawn millions of spectators ringside. Glamour and top prizes also draw national followings for tennis and golf, two professional sports in which women are nationally prominent. Other professional sports include bowling and rodeo.

Football has been part of US college life since the game was born on 6 November 1869 with a New Jersey match between Rutgers and Princeton. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) coordinate collegiate football and basketball. Colleges recruit top athletes with sports scholarships in order to win media attention, and to keep the loyalty of the alumni, thereby boosting fund-raising. Baseball, hockey, swimming, gymnastics, crew, lacrosse, track and field, and a variety of other sports also fill the intercollegiate competitive program.

The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), a national nonprofit organization founded in 1888, conducts the AAU/USA Junior Olympics, offering competition in 22 sports in order to help identify candidates for international Olympic competition. St. Louis hosted the 1904 summer Olympics; Los Angeles was home to the games in 1932 and 1984. The winter Olympic games were held in Squaw Valley, Calif., in 1960, and at Lake Placid, New York, in 1932 and 1980. Atlanta hosted the summer Olympic games in 1996. Salt Lake City, Utah, was the site of the 2002 winter Olympic games.

49 FAMOUS AMERICANS

Printer, publisher, inventor, scientist, statesman, and diplomat, Benjamin Franklin (1706–90) was America's outstanding figure of the colonial period. George Washington (1732–99), leader of the colonial army in the American Revolution, became first president of the United States and is known as the “father of his country.” Chief author of the Declaration of Independence, founder of the US political party system, and third president was Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826). His leading political opponents were John Adams (1735–1826), second president, and Alexander Hamilton

(b. West Indies, 1755–1804), first secretary of the treasury, who secured the new nation's credit. James Madison (1751–1836), a leading figure in drawing up the US Constitution, served as fourth president. John Quincy Adams (1767–1848), sixth president, was an outstanding diplomat and secretary of state.

Andrew Jackson (1767–1845), seventh president, was an ardent champion of the common people and opponent of vested interests. Outstanding senators during the Jackson era were John Caldwell Calhoun (1782–1850), spokesman of the southern planter aristocracy and leading exponent of the supremacy of states' rights over federal powers; Henry Clay (1777–1852), the great compromiser, who sought to reconcile the conflicting views of the North and the South; and Daniel Webster (1782–1852), statesman and orator, who championed the preservation of the Union against sectional interests and division. Abraham Lincoln (1809–65) led the United States through its most difficult period, the Civil War, in the course of which he issued the Emancipation Proclamation. Jefferson Davis (1808–89) served as the only president of the short-lived Confederacy. Stephen Grover Cleveland (1837–1908), a conservative reformer, was the strongest president in the latter part of the 19th century. Among the foremost presidents of the 20th century have been Nobel Peace Prize winner Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919); Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924), who led the nation during World War I and helped establish the League of Nations; and Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945), elected to four terms spanning the Great Depression and World War II. The presidents during the 1961–2000 period have been John Fitzgerald Kennedy (1917–63), Lyndon Baines Johnson (1908–73), Richard Milhous Nixon (1913–94), Gerald Rudolph Ford (Leslie Lynch King, Jr., b.1913), Jimmy Carter (James Earl Carter, Jr., b.1924), Ronald Wilson Reagan (1911–2004), George Herbert Walker Bush (b.1924), and Bill Clinton (William Jefferson Blythe III, b.1946). George Walker Bush (b.1946) became the 43rd president and first president of the 21st century.

Of the outstanding US military leaders, four were produced by the Civil War: Union generals Ulysses Simpson Grant (1822–85), who later served as the eighteenth president, and William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91); and Confederate generals Robert Edward Lee (1807–70) and Thomas Jonathan "Stonewall" Jackson (1824–63). George Catlett Marshall (1880–1959), army chief of staff during World War II, in his later capacity as secretary of state under President Harry S Truman (1884–1972), formulated the Marshall Plan, which did much to revitalize Western Europe. George Smith Patton, Jr. (1885–1945) was a leading general who commanded major units in North Africa, Sicily, and Europe in World War II. Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964) commanded the US forces in Asia during World War II, oversaw the postwar occupation and reorganization of Japan, and directed UN forces in the first year of the Korean conflict. Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969) served as supreme Allied commander during World War II, later becoming the thirty-fourth president. William Childs Westmoreland (1914–2005) commanded US military operations in the Vietnam War from 1964 to 1968 and served as US Army Chief of Staff from 1968 to 1972. H. Norman Schwarzkopf (b.1934) commanded the successful allied invasion of Iraq in the Persian Gulf War. General Colin Luther Powell (b.1937), former Secretary of State (2001–2005) and highest ranking African American government official in the history of the US (a position assumed by Condoleezza Rice

in 2005), was a general in the army who also served as National Security Advisor (1987–1989) and Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (1989–1993).

John Marshall (1755–1835), chief justice of the United States from 1801 to 1835, established the power of the Supreme Court through the principle of judicial review. Other important chief justices were Edward Douglass White (1845–1921), former president William Howard Taft (1857–1930), and Earl Warren (1891–1974), whose tenure as chief justice from 1953 to 1969 saw important decisions on desegregation, reapportionment, and civil liberties. The justice who enjoyed the longest tenure on the court was William O. Douglas (1898–1980), who served from 1939 to 1975; other prominent associate justices were Oliver Wendell Holmes (1841–1935), Louis Dembitz Brandeis (1856–1941), and Hugo Lafayette Black (1886–1971).

Indian chiefs renowned for their resistance to white encroachment were Pontiac (1729?–69), Black Hawk (1767–1838), Tecumseh (1768–1813), Osceola (1804?–38), Cochise (1812?–74), Geronimo (1829?–1909), Sitting Bull (1831?–90), Chief Joseph (1840?–1904), and Crazy Horse (1849?–77). Other significant Indian chiefs were Hiawatha (fl. 1500), Squanto (d.1622), and Sequoia (1770?–1843). Historical figures who have become part of American folklore include pioneer Daniel Boone (1734–1820); silversmith, engraver, and patriot Paul Revere (1735–1818); frontiersman David "Davy" Crockett (1786–1836); scout and Indian agent Christopher "Kit" Carson (1809–68); James Butler "Wild Bill" Hickok (1837–76); William Frederick "Buffalo Bill" Cody (1846–1917); and the outlaws Jesse Woodson James (1847–82) and Billy the Kid (William H. Bonney, 1859–81).

Inventors and Scientists

Outstanding inventors were Robert Fulton (1765–1815), who developed the steamboat; Eli Whitney (1765–1825), inventor of the cotton gin and mass production techniques; Samuel Finley Breese Morse (1791–1872), who invented the telegraph; and Elias Howe (1819–67), who invented the sewing machine. Alexander Graham Bell (b.Scotland, 1847–1922) gave the world the telephone. Thomas Alva Edison (1847–1931) was responsible for hundreds of inventions, among them the long-burning incandescent electric lamp, the phonograph, automatic telegraph devices, a motion picture camera and projector, the microphone, and the mimeograph. Lee De Forest (1873–1961), the "father of the radio," developed the vacuum tube and many other inventions. Vladimir Kosma Zworykin (b.Russia, 1889–1982) was principally responsible for the invention of television. Two brothers, Wilbur Wright (1867–1912) and Orville Wright (1871–1948), designed, built, and flew the first successful motor-powered airplane. Amelia Earhart (1898–1937) and Charles Lindbergh (1902–74) were aviation pioneers. Pioneers in the space program include John Glenn (b.1921), the first US astronaut to orbit the earth, and Neil Armstrong (b.1930), the first man to set foot on the moon.

Benjamin Thompson, Count Rumford (1753–1814), developed devices for measuring light and heat, and the physicist Joseph Henry (1797–1878) did important work in magnetism and electricity. Outstanding botanists and naturalists were John Bartram (1699–1777); his son William Bartram (1739–1832); Louis Agassiz (b.Switzerland, 1807–73); Asa Gray (1810–88); Luther Burbank (1849–1926), developer of a vast number of new and improved

Presidents of the United States

	NAME	BORN	DIED	OTHER MAJOR OFFICES HELD	RESIDENCE AT ELECTION
1	George Washington	Westmoreland County, Va., 22 February 1732	Mt. Vernon, Va., 14 December 1799	Commander in Chief, Continental Army (1775–83)	Mt. Vernon, Va.
2	John Adams	Braintree (later Quincy), Mass., 30 October 1735	Quincy, Mass., 4 July 1826	Representative, Continental Congress (1774–77); US vice president (1797–97)	Quincy, Mass.
3	Thomas Jefferson	Goochland (now Albemarle) County, Va., 13 April 1743	Monticello, Va., 4 July 1826	Representative, Continental Congress (1775–76); governor of Virginia (1779–81); secretary of state (1790–93); US vice president (1797–1801)	Monticello, Va.
4	James Madison	Port Conway, Va., 16 March 1751	Montpelier, Va., 28 June 1836	Representative, Continental Congress (1780–83; 1786–88); US representative (1789–97); secretary of state (1801–9)	Montpelier, Va.
5	James Monroe	Westmoreland County, Va. 28 April 1758	New York, N.Y., 4 July 1831	US senator (1790–94); governor of Virginia (1799– 1802); secretary of state (1811–17); secretary of war (1814–15)	Leesburg, Va.
6	John Quincy Adams	Braintree (later Quincy), Mass., 11 July 1767	Washington, D.C., 23 February 1848	US senator (1803–8); secretary of state (1817–25); US representative (1831–48)	Quincy, Mass.
7	Andrew Jackson	Waxhaw, Carolina frontier, 15 March 1767	The Hermitage, Tenn., 8 June 1845	US representative (1796–97); US senator (1797–98)	The Hermitage, Tenn.
8	Martin Van Buren	Kinderhook, N.Y., 5 December 1782	Kinderhook, N.Y., 24 July 1862	US senator (1821–28); governor of New York (1829); secretary of state (1829–31); US vice president (1833–37)	New York
9	William Henry Harrison	Charles City County, Va., 9 February 1773	Washington, D.C., 4 April 1841	Governor of Indiana Territory (1801–13); US representative (1816–19); US senator (1825–28)	North Bend, Ohio
10	John Tyler	Charles City County, Va., 29 March 1790	Richmond, Va., 18 January 1862	US representative (1816–21); governor of Virginia (1825–27); US senator (1827–36); US vice president (1841)	Richmond, Va.
11	James K. Polk	Mecklenburg County, N.C., 2 November 1795	Nashville, Tenn., 15 June 1849	US representative (1825–39); governor of Tennessee (1839–41)	Nashville, Tenn.
12	Zachary Taylor	Orange County, Va., 24 November 1784	Washington, D.C., 9 July 1850	—	Louisiana
13	Millard Fillmore	Cayuga County, N.Y., 7 January 1800	Buffalo, N.Y., 8 March 1874	US representative (1833–35; 1837–43); US vice president (1849–50)	Buffalo, N.Y.
14	Franklin Pierce	Hillsboro, N.H., 23 November 1804	Concord, N.H., 8 October 1869	US representative, (1833–37); US senator (1837–43)	Concord, N.H.
15	James Buchanan	Mercersburg, Pa., 23 April 1791	Lancaster, Pa., 1 June 1868	US representative (1821–31); US senator (1834–45); secretary of state (1845–49)	Lancaster, Pa.
16	Abraham Lincoln	Hodgenville, Ky., 12 February 1809	Washington, D.C., 15 April 1865	US representative (1847–49)	Springfield, Ill.
17	Andrew Johnson	Raleigh, N.C., 29 December 1808	Carter Station, Tenn., 31 July 1875	US representative (1843–53); governor of Tennessee (1853–57; 1862–65); US senator (1857–62); US vice president (1865)	Greenville, Tenn.
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Point Pleasant, Ohio, 27 April 1822	Mount McGregor, N.Y., 23 July 1885	Commander, Union Army (1864–65); secretary of war (1867–68)	Galena, Ill.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Delaware, Ohio, 4 October 1822	Fremont, Ohio, 17 January 1893	US representative (1865–67); governor of Ohio (1868–72; 1876–77)	Fremont, Ohio
20	James A. Garfield	Orange, Ohio, 19 November 1831	Elberon, N.J., 19 September 1881	US representative (1863–80)	Mentor, Ohio
21	Chester A. Arthur	Fairfield, Vt., 5 October 1829	New York, N.Y., 18 November 1886	US vice president (1881)	New York, N.Y.
22	Grover Cleveland	Caldwell, N.J., 18 March 1837	Princeton, N.J., 24 June 1908	Governor of New York (1882–84)	Albany, N.Y.
23	Benjamin Harrison	North Bend, Ohio 20 August 1833	Indianapolis, Ind., 13 March 1901	US senator (1881–87)	Indianapolis, Ind.

PARTY	% OF POPULAR VOTE	% OF ELECTORAL VOTE ^{1,2}	TERMS IN OFFICE ⁵	VICE PRESIDENTS	NOTABLE EVENTS	
Federalist	—	50.0	30 April 1789–4 March 1793	John Adams	Federal government organized; Bill of Rights enacted (1791); Whiskey Rebellion suppressed (1794); North Carolina, Rhode Island, Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee enter Union.	1
Federalist	—	25.7	4 March 1797–4 March 1801	Thomas Jefferson	Alien and Sedition Acts passed (1798); Washington, D.C., becomes US capital (1800)	2
Dem.–Rep.	—	26.4 ³ 92.0	4 March 1801–4 March 1805	Aaron Burr George Clinton	Louisiana Purchase (1803); Lewis and Clark Expedition (1803–6); Ohio enters Union.	3
Dem.–Rep.	—	69.7 58.9	4 March 1809–4 March 1818 4 March 1813–4 March 1817	George Clinton Elbridge Gerry	War of 1812 (1812–14); protective tariffs passed (1816); Louisiana, Indiana enter Union.	4
Dem.–Rep.	—	84.3	4 March 1817–4 March 1821 4 March 1821–4 March 1825	Daniel D. Tompkins Daniel D. Tompkins	Florida purchased from Spain (1819–21); Missouri Compromise (1820); Monroe Doctrine (1823); Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, Missouri enter Union.	5
National Republican	30.9	38.0 ⁴	4 March 1825–4 March 1829	John C. Calhoun	Period of political antagonisms, producing little legislation; road and canal construction supported; Erie Canal opens (1825).	6
Democrat	56.0 54.2	68.2 76.6	4 March 1829–4 March 1833	John C. Calhoun Martin Van Buren	Introduction of spoils system; Texas Republic established (1836); Arkansas, Michigan enter Union.	7
Democrat	50.8	57.8	4 March 1837–4 March 1841	Richard M. Johnson	Financial panic (1837) and subsequent depression.	8
Whig	52.9	79.6	4 March 1841–4 April 1841	John Tyler	Died of pneumonia one month after taking office.	9
Whig	—	—	4 April 1841–4 March 1845	—	Monroe Doctrine extended to Hawaiian Islands (1842); Second Seminole War in Florida ends (1842).	10
Democrat	49.5	61.8	4 March 1845–4 March 1849	George M. Dallas	Boundary between US and Canada set at 49th parallel (1846); Mexican War (1846–48), ending with Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848); California gold rush begins (1848); Florida, Texas, Iowa, Wisconsin enter Union.	11
Whig	47.3	56.2	4 March 1849–9 July 1850	Millard Fillmore	Died after 16 months in office.	12
Whig	—	—	9 July 1850–4 March 1853	—	Fugitive Slave Law (1850); California enters Union.	13
Democrat	50.8	85.8	4 March 1853–4 March 1857	William R. King	Gadsden Purchase (1853); Kansas–Nebraska Act (1854); trade opened with Japan (1854).	14
Democrat	45.3	58.8	4 March 1857–4 March 1861	John C. Breckinridge	John Brown's raid at Harpers Ferry, Va. (now W. Va.; 1859); South Carolina secedes (1860); Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas enter Union.	15
Republican	39.8 55.0	59.4 91.0	4 March 1861–4 March 1865 4 March 1865–15 April 1865	Hannibal Hamlin Andrew Johnson	Confederacy established, Civil War begins (1861); Emancipation Proclamation (1863); Confederacy defeated (1865); Lincoln assassinated (1865); West Virginia, Nevada attain statehood.	16
Republican	—	—	15 April 1865–4 March 1869	—	Reconstruction Acts (1867); Alaska purchased from Russia (1867); Johnson impeached but acquitted (1868); Nebraska enters Union.	17
Republican	52.7 55.6	72.8 78.1	4 March 1869–4 March 1873 4 March 1873–4 March 1877	Schuyler Colfax Henry Wilson	Numerous government scandals; financial panic (1873); Colorado enters Union.	18
Republican	48.0	50.1	4 March 1877–4 March 1881	William A. Wheeler	Federal troops withdrawn from South (1877); civil service reform begun.	19
Republican	48.3	58.0	4 March 1881–19 Sept. 1881	Chester A. Arthur	Shot after 4 months in office, dead 2½ months later.	20
Republican	—	—	19 Sept. 1881–4 March 1885	—	Chinese immigration banned despite presidential veto (1882); Civil Service Commission established by Pendleton Act (1883).	21
Democrat	48.5	54.6	4 March 1885–4 March 1889	Thomas A. Hendricks	Interstate Commerce Act (1887)	22
Republican	47.8	58.1	4 March 1889–4 March 1893	Levi P. Morton	Sherman Silver Purchase Act (1890); North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Washington, Idaho, Wyoming enter Union.	23

Presidents of the United States

	NAME	BORN	DIED	OTHER MAJOR OFFICES HELD	RESIDENCE AT ELECTION
24	Grover Cleveland	Caldwell, N.J., 18 March 1837	Princeton, N.J., 24 June 1908	Governor of New York (1882–84)	New York, N.Y.
25	William McKinley	Niles, Ohio, 29 January 1843	Buffalo, N.Y., 14 September 1901	US representative (1877–83; 1885–91); governor of Ohio (1892–96)	Canton, Ohio
26	Theodore Roosevelt	New York, N.Y., 27 October 1858	Oyster Bay, N.Y., 6 January 1919	Governor of New York (1899–1900); US vice president (1901)	Oyster Bay, N.Y.
27	William H. Taft	Cincinnati, Ohio, 15 September 1857	Washington, D.C., 8 March 1930	Governor of Philippines (1901–4); secretary of war (1904–8); chief justice of the US (1921–30)	Washington, D.C.
28	Woodrow Wilson	Staunton, Va., 28 December 1856	Washington, D.C., 3 February 1924	Governor of New Jersey (1911–13)	Trenton, N.J.
29	Warren G. Harding	Bloomington, Ohio, 2 November 1865	San Francisco, Calif., 2 August 1923	US senator (1915–21)	Marion, Ohio
30	Calvin Coolidge	Plymouth Notch, Vt., 4 July 1872	Northampton, Mass., 5 January 1933	Governor of Massachusetts (1919–20); US vice president (1921–23)	Boston, Mass.
31	Herbert Hoover	West Branch, Iowa, 10 August 1874	New York, N.Y., 20 October 1964	Secretary of commerce (1921–29)	Stanford, Calif.
32	Franklin D. Roosevelt	Hyde Park, N.Y., 30 January 1882	Warm Springs, Ga., 12 April 1945	Governor of New York (1929–1933)	Hyde Park, N.Y.
33	Harry S Truman	Lamar, Mo., 8 May 1884	Kansas City, Mo., 26 December 1972	US senator (1935–45); US vice president (1945)	Independence, Mo.
34	Dwight D. Eisenhower	Denison, Tex., 14 October 1890	Washington, D.C., 28 March 1969	Supreme allied commander in Europe (1943–44); Army chief of staff (1945–48)	New York
35	John F. Kennedy	Brookline, Mass., 29 May 1917	Dallas, Tex., 22 November 1963	US representative (1947–52); US senator (1953–60)	Massachusetts
36	Lyndon B. Johnson	Stonewall, Tex., 27 August 1908	Johnson City, Tex., 22 January 1973	US representative (1937–48); US senator (1949–60); US vice president (1961–63)	Johnson City, Tex.
37	Richard M. Nixon	Yorba Linda, Calif., 9 January 1913	New York, N.Y., 22 April 1994	US representative (1947–51); US senator (1951–53); US vice president (1953–61)	New York, N.Y.
38	Gerald R. Ford	Omaha, Neb., 14 July 1913	—	US representative (1949–73); US vice president (1973–74)	Grand Rapids, Mich.
39	James E. Carter	Plains, Ga., 1 October 1924	—	Governor of Georgia (1951–75)	Plains, Ga.
40	Ronald W. Reagan	Tampico, Ill., 6 February 1911	Bel-Air, Calif., 5 June 2004	Governor of California (1967–76)	Los Angeles, Calif.
41	George H. W. Bush	Milton, Mass., 12 June 1924	—	US representative (1967–71) Vice president (1980–88)	Houston, Texas
42	William J. Clinton	Hope, Arkansas, 19 August 1946	—	Attorney general of Arkansas (1977–79) Governor of Arkansas (1979–81; 1983–92)	Little Rock, Arkansas
43	George W. Bush	New Haven, Conn. 6 July 1946	—	Governor of Texas (1994–2000)	Midland, Texas

¹Percentage of electors actually voting.

²In the elections of 1789, 1792, 1796, and 1800, each elector voted for two candidates for president. The candidate receiving the highest number of votes was elected president; the next highest, vice president. Percentages in table are of total vote cast. From 1804 onward, electors were required to designate which vote was for president and which for vice president, and an electoral majority was required.

PARTY	% OF POPULAR VOTE	% OF ELECTORAL VOTE ^{1,2}	TERMS IN OFFICE ⁵	VICE PRESIDENTS	NOTABLE EVENTS	
Democrat	46.1	62.4	4 March 1893–4 March 1897	Adlai E. Stevenson	Financial panic (1893); Sherman Silver Purchase Act repealed (1893); Utah enters Union.	24
Republican	51.0	60.6	4 March 1897–4 March 1901	Garret A. Hobart Theodore Roosevelt	Spanish–American War (1898); Puerto Rico, Guam, Philippines ceded by Spain; independent Republic of Hawaii annexed; US troops sent to China to suppress Boxer Rebellion (1900); McKinley assassinated.	25
Republican	56.4	70.6	14 Sept. 1901–4 March 1905 4 March 1905–4 March 1909	Charles W. Fairbanks	Antitrust and conservation policies emphasized; Roosevelt awarded Nobel Peace Prize (1906) for mediating settlement of Russo–Japanese War; Panama Canal construction begun (1907); Oklahoma enters Union.	26
Republican	51.6	66.5	4 March 1909–4 March 1913	James S. Sherman	Federal income tax ratified (1913); New Mexico, Arizona enter Union.	27
Democrat	41.8 49.2	81.9 52.2	4 March 1913–4 March 1917 4 March 1917–4 March 1921	Thomas R. Marshall Thomas R. Marshall	Clayton Antitrust Act (1914); US Virgin Islands purchased from Denmark (1917); US enters World War I (1917); Treaty of Versailles signed (1919) but not ratified by US; constitutional amendments enforce prohibition (1919), enfranchise women (1920).	28
Republican	60.3	76.1	4 March 1921–2 Aug. 1923	Calvin Coolidge	Teapot Dome scandal (1923–24).	29
Republican	54.1	71.9	3 Aug. 1923–4 March 1925 4 March 1925–4 March 1929	Charles G. Dawes	Kellogg–Briand Pact (1928).	30
Republican	58.2	83.6	4 March 1929–4 March 1933	Charles Curtis	Stock market crash (1929) inaugurates Great Depression.	31
Democrat	57.4 60.8 54.7 53.4	88.9 98.5 84.6 81.4	4 March 1933–20 Jan. 1937 20 Jan. 1937–20 Jan. 1941 20 Jan. 1941–20 Jan. 1945 20 Jan. 1945–12 April 1945	John N. Garner John N. Garner Henry A. Wallace Harry S Truman	New Deal social reforms; prohibition repealed (1933); US enters World War II (1941).	32
Democrat	—	—	12 April 1945–20 Jan. 1949 20 Jan. 1949–20 Jan. 1953	Alben W. Barkley	United Nations founded (1945); US nuclear bombs dropped on Japan (1945); World War II ends (1945); Philippines granted independence (1946); Marshall Plan (1945); Korean conflict begins (1950); era of McCarthyism.	33
Republican	55.1 57.4	83.2 86.1	20 Jan. 1953–20 Jan. 1957 20 Jan. 1957–20 Jan. 1961	Richard M. Nixon Richard M. Nixon	Korean conflict ended (1953); Supreme Court orders school desegregation (1954); Alaska, Hawaii enter Union.	34
Democrat	49.7	56.4	20 Jan. 1961–22 Nov. 1963	Lyndon B. Johnson	Conflicts with Cuba (1961–62); aboveground nuclear test ban treaty (1963); Kennedy assassinated.	35
Democrat	61.1	90.3	22 Nov. 1963–20 Jan. 1965 20 Jan. 1965–20 Jan. 1969	Hubert H. Humphrey	Great Society programs; Voting Rights Act (1965); escalation of US military role in Indochina; race riots, political assassinations.	36
Republican	43.4 60.7	55.9 96.7	20 Jan. 1969–20 Jan. 1973	Spiro T. Agnew Spiro T. Agnew Gerald R. Ford	First lunar landing (1969); arms limitation treaty with Soviet Union (1972); US withdraws from Viet–Nam (1973); Agnew resigns in tax scandal (1973); Nixon resigns at height of Watergate scandal (1974).	37
Republican	—	—	9 Aug. 1974–20 Jan. 1977	Nelson A. Rockefeller	First combination of unelected president and vice president; Nixon pardoned (1974).	38
Democrat	50.1	55.2	20 Jan. 1977–20 Jan. 1981	Walter F. Mondale	Carter mediates Israel–Egypt peace accord (1978); Panama Canal treaties ratified (1979); tensions with Iran (1979–81).	39
Republican	50.8 58.8	90.9 97.6	20 Jan. 1981–20 Jan. 1985 20 Jan. 1985–20 Jan. 1989	George H. W. Bush George H. W. Bush	Defense buildup; social spending cuts; rising trade and budget deficits; tensions with Nicaragua.	40
Republican	54.0	79.2	20 Jan. 1989–20 Jan. 1993	J. Danforth Quayle	Multi-national force repelled Iraqi invaders from Kuwait; savings and loan crisis; 1991 recession.	41
Democrat	43.0 49.2	69.7 70.4	20 Jan. 1993–20 Jan. 1997 20 Jan. 1997–20 Jan. 2001	Albert Gore, Jr.	Passed North American Free Trade Agreement; enacted crime bill banning assault weapons; sent troops to Haiti to restore first democratically elected Haitian president to power after military coup.	42
Republican	47.87 50.73	50.37 53.1	20 Jan. 2001–20 Jan. 2005 20 Jan. 2005–	Richard B. Cheney Richard B. Cheney	Lowered taxes. Engaged in war in Afghanistan and Iraq after terrorist attacks on Washington and New York. Created the Department of Homeland Security. Substantially increased the federal deficit.	43

³Electoral vote tied between Jefferson and Aaron Burr; elections decided in House of Representatives.

⁴No candidate received a majority; election decided in House.

⁵In the event of a president's death or removal from office, his duties are assumed to devolve immediately upon his successor, even if he does not immediately take the oath of office.

varieties of fruits, vegetables, and flowers; and George Washington Carver (1864–1943), known especially for his work on industrial applications for peanuts. John James Audubon (1785–1851) won fame as an ornithologist and artist.

Distinguished physical scientists include Samuel Pierpont Langley (1834–1906), astronomer and aviation pioneer; Josiah Willard Gibbs (1839–1903), mathematical physicist, whose work laid the basis for physical chemistry; Henry Augustus Rowland (1848–1901), who did important research in magnetism and optics; and Albert Abraham Michelson (b.Germany, 1852–1931), who measured the speed of light and became the first of a long line of US Nobel Prize winners. The chemists Gilbert Newton Lewis (1875–1946) and Irving Langmuir (1881–1957) developed a theory of atomic structure.

The theory of relativity was conceived by Albert Einstein (b.Germany, 1879–1955), generally considered the greatest mind in the physical sciences since Newton. Percy Williams Bridgman (1882–1961) was the father of operationalism and studied the effect of high pressures on materials. Arthur Holly Compton (1892–1962) made discoveries in the field of X rays and cosmic rays. The physical chemist Harold Clayton Urey (1893–1981) discovered heavy hydrogen. Isidor Isaac Rabi (b.Austria, 1898–1988), nuclear physicist, did important work in magnetism, quantum mechanics, and radiation. Enrico Fermi (b.Italy, 1901–54) created the first nuclear chain reaction, in Chicago in 1942, and contributed to the development of the atomic and hydrogen bombs. Also prominent in the splitting of the atom were Leo Szilard (b.Hungary, 1898–1964), J. Robert Oppenheimer (1904–67), and Edward Teller (b.Hungary, 1908–2003). Ernest Orlando Lawrence (1901–58) developed the cyclotron. Carl David Anderson (1905–91) discovered the positron. Mathematician Norbert Wiener (1894–1964) developed the science of cybernetics.

Outstanding figures in the biological sciences include Theobald Smith (1859–1934), who developed immunization theory and practical immunization techniques for animals; the geneticist Thomas Hunt Morgan (1866–1945), who discovered the heredity functions of chromosomes; and neurosurgeon Harvey William Cushing (1869–1939). Selman Abraham Waksman (b.Russia, 1888–1973), a microbiologist specializing in antibiotics, was co-discoverer of streptomycin. Edwin Joseph Cohn (1892–1953) is noted for his work in the protein fractionalization of blood, particularly the isolation of serum albumin. Philip Showalter Hench (1896–1965) isolated and synthesized cortisone. Wendell Meredith Stanley (1904–71) was the first to isolate and crystallize a virus. Jonas Edward Salk (1914–95) developed an effective killed-virus poliomyelitis vaccine, and Albert Bruce Sabin (1906–93) contributed oral, attenuated live-virus polio vaccines.

Adolf Meyer (b.Switzerland, 1866–1950) developed the concepts of mental hygiene and dementia praecox and the theory of psychobiology; Harry Stack Sullivan (1892–1949) created the interpersonal theory of psychiatry. Social psychologist George Herbert Mead (1863–1931) and behaviorist Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1904–90) were influential in the 20th century. Psychiatrist Aaron Temkin Beck (b.1921) is regarded as the founder of cognitive therapy, and Albert Ellis (b.1913) developed rational-emotive therapy.

A pioneer in psychology who was also an influential philosopher was William James (1842–1910). Other leading US phi-

losophers are Charles Sanders Peirce (1839–1914); Josiah Royce (1855–1916); John Dewey (1859–1952), also famous for his theories of education; George Santayana (b.Spain, 1863–1952); Rudolf Carnap (b.Germany, 1891–1970); Willard Van Orman Quine (1908–2000), Richard Rorty (b.1931), Hilary Putnam (b.1926), John Rawls (1921–2002), Robert Nozick (1938–2002), and linguist and political philosopher Noam Chomsky (b.1928). Educators of note include Horace Mann (1796–1859), Henry Barnard (1811–1900), and Charles William Eliot (1834–1926). Noah Webster (1758–1843) was the outstanding US lexicographer, and Melvil Dewey (1851–1931) was a leader in the development of library science. Thorstein Bunde Veblen (1857–1929) wrote books that have strongly influenced economic and social thinking. Also important in the social sciences have been sociologists Talcott Parsons (1902–79) and William Graham Sumner (1840–1910) and anthropologist Margaret Mead (1901–78).

Social Reformers

Social reformers of note include Dorothea Lynde Dix (1802–87), who led movements for the reform of prisons and insane asylums; William Lloyd Garrison (1805–79) and Frederick Douglass (Frederick Augustus Washington Bailey, 1817–95), prominent abolitionists; Elizabeth Cady Stanton (1815–1902) and Susan Brownell Anthony (1820–1906), leaders in the women's suffrage movement; Clara Barton (1821–1912), founder of the American Red Cross; economist Henry George (1839–97), advocate of the single-tax theory; Eugene Victor Debs (1855–1926), labor leader and an outstanding organizer of the Socialist movement in the United States; Jane Addams (1860–1935), who pioneered in settlement house work; Robert Marion La Follette (1855–1925), a leader for progressive political reform in Wisconsin and in the US Senate; Margaret Higgins Sanger (1883–1966), pioneer in birth control; Norman Thomas (1884–1968), Socialist Party leader; and Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929–68), a central figure in the black civil rights movement and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964. Betty Friedan (1921–2006), Gloria Steinem (b.1934), and bell hooks (b. Gloria Jean Watkins, 1952) are contemporary feminists.

Religious leaders include Roger Williams (1603–83), an early advocate of religious tolerance in the United States; Jonathan Edwards (1703–58), New England preacher and theologian; Elizabeth Ann Seton (1774–1821), the first American canonized in the Roman Catholic Church; William Ellery Channing (1780–1842), a founder of American Unitarianism; Joseph Smith (1805–44), founder of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon) and his chief associate, Brigham Young (1801–77); and Mary Baker Eddy (1821–1910), founder of the Christian Science Church. Paul Tillich (b.Germany, 1886–1965) and Reinhold Niebuhr (1892–1971) were outstanding Protestant theologians of international influence. Pat Robertson (b.1930), televangelist and leader of the Christian Coalition organization, and Jerry Falwell (b.1933), a fundamentalist Baptist pastor, televangelist, and founder of the Moral Majority movement and Liberty University, are contemporary leaders of the Christian religious right.

Famous US businessmen include Éleuthère Irénée du Pont de Nemours (b.France, 1771–1834), John Jacob Astor (Johann Jakob Ashdour, b.Germany, 1763–1848), Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794–1877), Andrew Carnegie (b.Scotland, 1835–1919), John Pierpont Morgan (1837–1913), John Davison Rockefeller (1839–1937),

Chief Justices of the United States, 1789-2006

	NAME	BORN	DIED	APPOINTED	SUPREME COURT TERM	MAJOR COURT DEVELOPMENTS
1	John Jay	New York City 12 December 1745	Bedford, N.Y., 17 May 1829	Washington	October 1789 June 1795	Organized court, established procedures.
2	John Rutledge	September 1739	Charleston, S.C., 18 July 1800	Washington		Presided for one term in 1795, but Senate refused to confirm his appointment.
3	Oliver Ellsworth	Windsor, Conn., 29 April 1745	Windsor, Conn. 26 Nov. 1807	Washington	March 1796 December 1800	
4	John Marshall	Fauquier County, Va., 24 September 1755	Philadelphia, Pa. 6 July 1835	Adams	February 1801 July 1835	Established principle of judicial review (<i>Marbury v. Madison</i> , 1803); formulated concept of implied powers (<i>McCulloch v. Maryland</i> , 1819).
5	Roger Brooke Taney	Calvert County, Md., 17 March 1777	Washington, D.C., 12 October 1864	Jackson	March 1836 October 1864	Held that slaves could not become citizens, ruled Missouri Compromise illegal (<i>Dred Scott v. Sanford</i> , 1857).
6	Salmon Portland Chase	Cornish, N.H., 13 January 1808	New York, N.Y. 7 May 1873	Lincoln	December 1864 May 1873	Ruled military trials of civilians illegal (<i>Ex parte Milligan</i> , 1866); Chase presided at A. Johnson's impeachment trial.
7	Morrison Remick Waite	Old Lynne, Conn., 29 November 1816	Washington, D.C., 23 March 1888	Grant	March 1874 March 1888	Held that businesses affecting the "public interest" are subject to state regulation (<i>Munn v. Illinois</i> , 1877).
8	Melville Weston Fuller	Augusta, Me., 11 February 1833	Sorvento, Me., 4 July 1910	Cleveland	October 1888 July 1910	Issued first opinions on cases under the Sherman Antitrust Act. (<i>US v. E.C. Knight Co.</i> , 1895; <i>Northern Securities Co. v. US</i> , 1904); held the income tax unconstitutional (<i>Pollock v. Farmers' Loan</i> , 1895).
9	Edward Douglass White	Lafourche Parish, La., 3 November 1845	Washington, D.C., 19 May 1921	Taft	December 1910 May 1921	Further qualified the Sherman Antitrust Act (<i>Standard Oil Co. v. US</i> , 1911) by applying the "rule of reason."
10	William Howard Taft	Cincinnati, Ohio 15 September 1857	Washington, D.C., 8 March 1930	Harding	July 1921 February 1930	Held against congressional use of taxes for social reform (<i>Bailey v. Drexel Furniture</i> , 1922).
11	Charles Evans Hughes	Glens Falls, N.Y., 11 April 1862	Osterville, Mass., 27 August 1948	Hoover	February 1930 June 1941	Upheld constitutionality of National Labor Relations Act, Social Security Act, invalidated National Industrial Recovery Act (<i>Schechter v. US</i> , 1935); F. Roosevelt's attempt to pack Court opposed.
12	Harlan Fiske Stone	Chesterfield, N.H., 11 October 1872	Washington, D.C., 22 April 1946	F. Roosevelt	July 1941 April 1946	Upheld Court's power to invalidate state laws (<i>Southwestern Pacific Co. v. Arizona</i> , 1945).
13	Frederick Moore Vinson	Louisa, Ky., 22 January 1890	Washington, D.C., 8 September 1953	Truman	June 1946 September 1953	Overtaken federal seizure of steel mills (<i>Youngstown Sheet and Tube Co. v. Sawyer</i> , 1952), Vinson dissenting.
14	Earl Warren	Los Angeles, Calif., 19 March 1891	Washington, D.C., 9 July 1974	Eisenhower	October 1953 June 1969	Mandated public school desegregation (<i>Brown v. Topeka, Kans., Board of Education</i> , 1954) and reapportionment of state legislatures (<i>Baker v. Carr</i> , 1962); upheld rights of suspects in police custody (<i>Miranda v. Arizona</i> , 1966).
15	Warren Earl Burger	St. Paul, Minn., 17 September 1907	Washington, D.C., 25 June 1995	Nixon	June 1969 August 1986	Legalized abortion (<i>Roe v. Wade</i> , 1973); rejected claim of executive privilege in a criminal case (<i>US v. Nixon</i> , 1974); first female justice (1981).
16	William Hubbs Rehnquist	Shorewood Village, Wis., 1 October 1924	Arlington, Va., 3 September 2005	Nixon	September 1986 September 2005	Applied constitutional prohibition against taking of property without compensation to invalidate government regulation of property. (<i>Nollan v. California Coastal Commission</i> , 1987). Strengthened states' rights although invalidated Florida election procedures (<i>Bush v. Gore</i> , 2000) on equal protection grounds. Limited enforcement of school desegregation. Narrowed the scope of affirmative action.
17	John Glover Roberts, Jr.	Buffalo, New York, 27 January 1955	—	Bush	September, 2005	

Andrew William Mellon (1855–1937), Henry Ford (1863–1947), and Thomas John Watson (1874–1956). William Henry “Bill” Gates III (b.1955), co-founder of the Microsoft Corp., was the richest person in the world as of 2006. Other corporate leaders in the 21st century include: Warren Edward Buffett (b.1930), Louis V. Gerstner, Jr., (b.1942), H. Wayne Huizenga (b.1937), Steve Jobs (b.1955), Sam Walton (1918–1992), John Francis “Jack” Welch Jr. (b.1935), and Sanford I. Weill (b.1933).

Literary Figures

The first US author to be widely read outside the United States was Washington Irving (1783–1859). James Fenimore Cooper (1789–1851) was the first popular US novelist. Three noted historians were William Hickling Prescott (1796–1859), John Lothrop Motley (1814–77), and Francis Parkman (1823–93). The writings of two men of Concord, Mass.—Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–82) and Henry David Thoreau (1817–62)—influenced philosophers, political leaders, and ordinary men and women in many parts of the world. The novels and short stories of Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–64) explore New England’s Puritan heritage. Herman Melville (1819–91) wrote the powerful novel *Moby-Dick*, a symbolic work about a whale hunt that has become an American classic. Mark Twain (Samuel Langhorne Clemens, 1835–1910) is the best-known US humorist. Other leading novelists of the later 19th and early 20th centuries were William Dean Howells (1837–1920), Henry James (1843–1916), Edith Wharton (1862–1937), Stephen Crane (1871–1900), Theodore Dreiser (1871–1945), Willa Cather (1873–1947), and Sinclair Lewis (1885–1951), first US winner of the Nobel Prize for literature (1930). Later Nobel Prize-winning US novelists include Pearl Sydenstricker Buck (1892–1973), in 1938; William Faulkner (1897–1962), in 1949; Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961), in 1954; John Steinbeck (1902–68), in 1962; Saul Bellow (b.Canada, 1915–2005), in 1976; Isaac Bashevis Singer (b.Poland, 1904–91), in 1978; and Toni Morrison (b.1931), in 1993. Among other noteworthy writers are Zora Neale Hurston (1891–1960), Henry Miller (1891–1980), James Thurber (1894–1961), Francis Scott Key Fitzgerald (1896–1940), Vladimir Nabokov (b. Russia, 1899–1977), Thomas Wolfe (1900–1938), Richard Wright (1908–60), Eudora Welty (1909–2001), John Cheever (1912–82), Bernard Malamud (1914–1986), Carson McCullers (1917–1967), Norman Mailer (b.1923), James Baldwin (1924–87), Jack Kerouac (1922–1969), John Updike (b.1932), Philip Roth (b.1933), Paul Auster (b.1947), John Barth (b.1930), Donald Barthelme (1931–1989), T. Coraghessan Boyle (b.1948), Sandra Cisneros (b.1954), Joan Didion (b.1934), Stephen Dixon (b.1936), E.L. Doctorow (b.1931), Louise Erdrich (b.1954), William Gaddis (1922–1998), Carl Hiaasen (b.1953), Oscar Hijuelos (b.1951), John Irving (b.1942), Jamaica Kincaid (b. Elaine Cynthia Potter Richardson, 1949), Jhumpa Lahiri (b. Nilanjana Sudeshna, 1967), Jonathan Lethem (b.1964), Cormac McCarthy (b.1933), Larry McMurtry (b.1936), Bharati Mukherjee (b.1940), Joyce Carol Oates (b.1938), Marge Piercy (b.1936), E. Annie Proulx (b.1935), Thomas Pynchon (b.1937), J.D. Salinger (b.1919), Wallace Stegner (1909–93), Gore Vidal (b.1925), Kurt Vonnegut Jr. (b.1922), Alice Walker (b.1944), Tom Wolfe (b.1931), and Tobias Wolff (b.1945).

Noted US poets include Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–82), Edgar Allan Poe (1809–49), Walt Whitman (1819–92), Emily Dickinson (1830–86), Edwin Arlington Robinson (1869–1935),

Robert Frost (1874–1963), Wallace Stevens (1879–1955), William Carlos Williams (1883–1963), Marianne Moore (1887–1972), Edward Estlin Cummings (1894–1962), Hart Crane (1899–1932), Langston Hughes (1902–67), and Rita Dove (b.1952). Ezra Pound (1885–1972) and Nobel laureate Thomas Stearns Eliot (1888–1965) lived and worked abroad for most of their careers. Wystan Hugh Auden (b.England, 1907–73), who became an American citizen in 1946, published poetry and criticism. Elizabeth Bishop (1911–79), Robert Lowell (1917–77), Allen Ginsberg (1926–97), and Sylvia Plath (1932–63) are among the best-known poets since World War II. Robert Penn Warren (1905–89) won the Pulitzer Prize for both fiction and poetry and became the first US poet laureate. Carl Sandburg (1878–1967) was a noted poet, historian, novelist, and folklorist. The foremost US dramatists are Eugene (Gladstone) O’Neill (1888–1953), who won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1936; Tennessee Williams (Thomas Lanier Williams, 1911–83); Arthur Miller (1915–2005); and Edward Albee (b.1928). Neil Simon (b.1927) is among the nation’s most popular playwrights and screenwriters. August Wilson (1945–2005) won the Pulitzer Prize twice, for *Fences* (1985) and *The Piano Lesson* (1990), both of which depicted the African American experience.

Artists

Two renowned painters of the early period were John Singleton Copley (1738–1815) and Gilbert Stuart (1755–1828). Outstanding 19th-century painters were James Abbott McNeill Whistler (1834–1903), Winslow Homer (1836–1910), Thomas Eakins (1844–1916), Mary Cassatt (1845–1926), Albert Pinkham Ryder (1847–1917), John Singer Sargent (b.Italy, 1856–1925), and Frederic Remington (1861–1909). More recently, Edward Hopper (1882–1967), Georgia O’Keeffe (1887–1986), Thomas Hart Benton (1889–1975), Charles Burchfield (1893–1967), Norman Rockwell (1894–1978), Ben Shahn (1898–1969), Mark Rothko (b.Russia, 1903–70), Jackson Pollock (1912–56), Andrew Wyeth (b.1917), Robert Rauschenberg (b.1925), and Jasper Johns (b.1930) have achieved international recognition.

Sculptors of note include Augustus Saint-Gaudens (1848–1907), Gaston Lachaise (1882–1935), Jo Davidson (1883–1952), Daniel Chester French (1850–1931), Alexander Calder (1898–1976), Louise Nevelson (b.Russia, 1899–1988), and Isamu Noguchi (1904–88). Henry Hobson Richardson (1838–86), Louis Henry Sullivan (1856–1924), Frank Lloyd Wright (1869–1959), Louis I. Kahn (b.Estonia, 1901–74), and Eero Saarinen (1910–61) were outstanding architects. Contemporary architects of note include Richard Buckminster Fuller (1895–1983), Edward Durrell Stone (1902–78), Philip Cortelyou Johnson (1906–2005), Ieoh Ming Pei (b.China, 1917), and Frank Gehry (b.1929). The United States has produced many fine photographers, notably Mathew B. Brady (1823?–96), Alfred Stieglitz (1864–1946), Edward Steichen (1879–1973), Edward Weston (1886–1958), Ansel Adams (1902–84), and Margaret Bourke-White (1904–71).

Entertainment Figures

Outstanding figures in the motion picture industry are D. W. (David Lewelyn Wark) Griffith (1875–1948), Sir Charles Spencer “Charlie” Chaplin (b.England, 1889–1978), Walter Elias “Walt” Disney (1906–66), and George Orson Welles (1915–85). John Ford (1895–1973), Howard Winchester Hawks (1896–1977), Frank Capra (b.Italy, 1897–1991), Sir Alfred Hitchcock (b.England,

1899–1980), and John Huston (1906–87) were influential motion picture directors; Mel Brooks (Kaminsky, b.1926), George Lucas (b.1944), and Steven Spielberg (b.1947) have achieved remarkable popular success. Woody Allen (Allen Konigsberg, b.1935) has written, directed, and starred in comedies on stage and screen. World-famous American actors and actresses include the Barrymores, Ethel (1879–1959) and her brothers Lionel (1878–1954) and John (1882–1942); Humphrey Bogart (1899–1957); James Cagney (1899–1986); Spencer Tracy (1900–1967); Helen Hayes Brown (1900–93); Clark Gable (1901–60); Joan Crawford (Lucille Fay LeSueur, 1904–77); Cary Grant (Alexander Archibald Leach, b.England, 1904–86); Greta Garbo (Greta Louisa Gustafsson, b.Sweden, 1905–90); Henry Fonda (1905–82) and his daughter, Jane (b.1937); John Wayne (Marion Michael Morrison, 1907–79); Bette (Ruth Elizabeth) Davis (1908–89); Katharine Hepburn (1909–2003); Judy Garland (Frances Gumm, 1922–69); Marlon Brando (1924–2004); Marilyn Monroe (Norma Jean Mortenson, 1926–62); and Dustin Hoffman (b.1937). Among other great entertainers are W. C. Fields (William Claude Dukenfield, 1880–1946), Al Jolson (Asa Yoelson, b.Russia, 1886–1950), Jack Benny (Benjamin Kubelsky, 1894–1974), Fred Astaire (Fred Austerlitz, 1899–1987), Bob (Leslie Townes) Hope (b.England, 1903–2003), Bing (Harry Lillis) Crosby (1904–78), Frank (Francis Albert) Sinatra (1915–98), Elvis Aaron Presley (1935–77), and Barbra (Barbara Joan) Streisand (b.1942). The first great US “showman” was Phineas Taylor Barnum (1810–91).

Composers and Musicians

The foremost composers are Edward MacDowell (1861–1908), Charles Ives (1874–1954), Ernest Bloch (b.Switzerland, 1880–1959), Virgil Thomson (1896–89), Roger Sessions (1896–1985), Roy Harris (1898–1979), Aaron Copland (1900–90), Elliott Carter (b.1908), Samuel Barber (1910–81), John Cage (1912–92), and Leonard Bernstein (1918–90). George Rochberg (1918–2005), George Crumb (b.1929), Steve Reich (b.1936), and Philip Glass (b.1937) have won more recent followings. The songs of Stephen Collins Foster (1826–64) have achieved folk-song status. Leading composers of popular music are John Philip Sousa (1854–1932), George Michael Cohan (1878–1942), Jerome Kern (1885–1945), Irving Berlin (Israel Baline, b.Russia, 1888–1989), Cole Porter (1893–1964), George Gershwin (1898–1937), Richard Rodgers (1902–79), Woody Guthrie (1912–67), Stephen Joshua Sondheim (b.1930), Paul Simon (b.1941), and Bob Dylan (Robert Zimmerman, b.1941). Preeminent in the blues traditions are Leadbelly (Huddie Ledbetter, 1888–1949), Bessie Smith (1898?–1937), and Muddy Waters (McKinley Morganfield, 1915–83). Leading jazz figures include the composers Scott Joplin (1868–1917), James Hubert “Eubie” Blake (1883–1983), Edward Kennedy “Duke” Ellington (1899–1974), and William “Count” Basie (1904–84), and performers Louis Armstrong (1900–1971), Billie Holiday (Eleanora Fagan, 1915–59), John Birks “Dizzy” Gillespie (1917–93), Charlie “Bird” Parker (1920–55), John Coltrane (1926–67), and Miles Davis (1926–91).

Many foreign-born musicians have enjoyed personal and professional freedom in the United States; principal among them were pianists Artur Schnabel (b.Austria, 1882–1951), Arthur Rubinstein (b.Poland, 1887–1982), Rudolf Serkin (b.Bohemia, 1903–91), Vladimir Horowitz (b.Russia, 1904–89), and violinists Jascha Heif-

etz (b.Russia, 1901–87) and Isaac Stern (b.USSR, 1920). Among distinguished instrumentalists born in the United States are Benny Goodman (1909–86), a classical as well as jazz clarinetist, and concert pianist Van Cliburn (Harvey Lavan, Jr., b.1934). Singers Paul Robeson (1898–1976), Marian Anderson (1897–1993), Maria Callas (Maria Kalogeropoulos, 1923–77), Leontyne Price (b.1927), and Beverly Sills (Belle Silverman, b.1929) have achieved international acclaim. Isadora Duncan (1878–1927) was one of the first US dancers to win fame abroad. Martha Graham (1893–91) pioneered in modern dance. George Balanchine (b.Russia, 1904–83), Agnes De Mille (1905–93), Jerome Robbins (1918–98), Paul Taylor (b.1930), and Twyla Tharp (b.1941) are leading choreographers; Martha Graham (1893–1991) pioneered in modern dance.

Sports Figures

Among the many noteworthy sports stars are baseball’s Tyrus Raymond “Ty” Cobb (1886–1961) and George Herman “Babe” Ruth (1895–1948); football’s Samuel Adrian “Sammy” Baugh (b.1914), Jim Brown (b.1936), Francis A. “Fran” Tarkenton (b.1940), and Orenthal James Simpson (b.1947); and golf’s Robert Tyre “Bobby” Jones (1902–71) and Mildred “Babe” Didrikson Zaharias (1914–56). William Tatum “Bill” Tilden (1893–1953), Billie Jean (Moffitt) King (b.1943), Chris Evert (b.1954), Martina Navratilova (b.Czechoslovakia, 1956), Andre Agassi (b.1970), Peter (“Pete”) Sampras (b.1971), and sisters Venus (b.1980) and Serena (b.1981) Williams have starred in tennis; Joe Louis (Joseph Louis Barrow, 1914–81) and Muhammad Ali (Cassius Marcellus Clay, b.1942) in boxing; William Felton “Bill” Russell (b.1934) Wilton Norman “Wilt” Chamberlain (1936–99), and Michael Jordan (b.1963) in basketball; Mark Spitz (b.1950) and Michael Phelps (b.1985) in swimming; Eric Heiden (b.1958) in speed skating; and Jesse Owens (1913–80) in track and field.

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