To the Student

The California Reading Essentials and Study Guide accompanies the student textbook The American Journey to World War I. This booklet is designed to help you use recognized reading strategies to improve your reading-for-information skills. For each section of the student textbook, you are alerted to key content and academic terms. Then, you are asked to draw from prior knowledge, organize your thoughts with a graphic organizer, and follow a process to read and understand the text. The California Reading Essentials and Study Guide was prepared to help you get more from your textbook by reading with a purpose.

Using this study tool will also help you learn the California standards for United States History and Geography: Growth and Conflict. The standards that apply to a given section are listed on the first page of that section.
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United States History and Geography: Growth and Conflict
Grade 8 Standards

**US8.1**
Students understand the major events preceding the founding of the nation and relate their significance to the development of American constitutional democracy.

- **US8.1.1** Describe the relationship between the moral and political ideas of the Great Awakening and the development of revolutionary fervor.
- **US8.1.2** Analyze the philosophy of government expressed in the Declaration of Independence, with an emphasis on government as a means of securing individual rights (e.g., key phrases such as “all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights”).
- **US8.1.3** Analyze how the American Revolution affected other nations, especially France.
- **US8.1.4** Describe the nation’s blend of civic republicanism, classical liberal principles, and English parliamentary traditions.

**US8.2**
Students analyze the political principles underlying the U.S. Constitution and compare the enumerated and implied powers of the federal government.

- **US8.2.1** Discuss the significance of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights, and the Mayflower Compact.
- **US8.2.2** Analyze the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution and the success of each in implementing the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.
- **US8.2.3** Evaluate the major debates that occurred during the development of the Constitution and their ultimate resolutions in such areas as shared power among institutions, divided state-federal power, slavery, the rights of individuals and states (later addressed by the addition of the Bill of Rights), and the status of American Indian nations under the commerce clause.
- **US8.2.4** Describe the political philosophy underpinning the Constitution as specified in the *Federalist Papers* (authored by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay) and the role of such leaders as Madison, George Washington, Roger Sherman, Gouverneur Morris, and James Wilson in the writing and ratification of the Constitution.
| US8.2.5 | Understand the significance of Jefferson’s Statute for Religious Freedom as a forerunner of the First Amendment and the origins, purpose, and differing views of the founding fathers on the issue of the separation of church and state. |
| US8.2.6 | Enumerate the powers of government set forth in the Constitution and the fundamental liberties ensured by the Bill of Rights. |
| US8.2.7 | Describe the principles of federalism, dual sovereignty, separation of powers, checks and balances, the nature and purpose of majority rule, and the ways in which the American idea of constitutionalism preserves individual rights. |

<p>| US8.3 | Students understand the foundation of the American political system and the ways in which citizens participate in it. |
| US8.3.1 | Analyze the principles and concepts codified in state constitutions between 1777 and 1781 that created the context out of which American political institutions and ideas developed. |
| US8.3.2 | Explain how the ordinances of 1785 and 1787 privatized national resources and transferred federally owned lands into private holdings, townships, and states. |
| US8.3.3 | Enumerate the advantages of a common market among the states as foreseen in and protected by the Constitution’s clauses on interstate commerce, common coinage, and full-faith and credit. |
| US8.3.4 | Understand how the conflicts between Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton resulted in the emergence of two political parties (e.g., view of foreign policy, Alien and Sedition Acts, economic policy, National Bank, funding and assumption of the revolutionary debt). |
| US8.3.5 | Know the significance of domestic resistance movements and ways in which the central government responded to such movements (e.g., Shays’ Rebellion, the Whiskey Rebellion). |
| US8.3.6 | Describe the basic law-making process and how the Constitution provides numerous opportunities for citizens to participate in the political process and to monitor and influence government (e.g., function of elections, political parties, interest groups). |
| US8.3.7 | Understand the functions and responsibilities of a free press. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>Students analyze the aspirations and ideals of the people of the new nation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.4</strong></td>
<td>Describe the country’s physical landscapes, political divisions, and territorial expansion during the terms of the first four presidents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.4.1</strong></td>
<td>Explain the policy significance of famous speeches (e.g., Washington’s Farewell Address, Jefferson’s 1801 Inaugural Address, John Q. Adams’s Fourth of July 1821 Address).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.4.2</strong></td>
<td>Analyze the rise of capitalism and the economic problems and conflicts that accompanied it (e.g., Jackson’s opposition to the National Bank; early decisions of the U.S. Supreme Court that reinforced the sanctity of contracts and a capitalist economic system of law).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.4.3</strong></td>
<td>Discuss daily life, including traditions in art, music, and literature, of early national America (e.g., through writings by Washington Irving, James Fenimore Cooper).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>Students analyze U.S. foreign policy in the early Republic.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.5</strong></td>
<td>Understand the political and economic causes and consequences of the War of 1812 and know the major battles, leaders, and events that led to a final peace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.5.1</strong></td>
<td>Know the changing boundaries of the United States and describe the relationships the country had with its neighbors (current Mexico and Canada) and Europe, including the influence of the Monroe Doctrine, and how those relationships influenced westward expansion and the Mexican-American War.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.5.2</strong></td>
<td>Outline the major treaties with American Indian nations during the administrations of the first four presidents and the varying outcomes of those treaties.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced, with emphasis on the Northeast.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>US8.6</strong></td>
<td>Discuss the influence of industrialization and technological developments on the region, including human modification of the landscape and how physical geography shaped human actions (e.g., growth of cities, deforestation, farming, mineral extraction).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
US8.6.2 Outline the physical obstacles to and the economic and political factors involved in building a network of roads, canals, and railroads (e.g., Henry Clay’s American System).

US8.6.3 List the reasons for the wave of immigration from Northern Europe to the United States and describe the growth in the number, size, and spatial arrangements of cities (e.g., Irish immigrants and the Great Irish Famine).

US8.6.4 Study the lives of black Americans who gained freedom in the North and founded schools and churches to advance their rights and communities.

US8.6.5 Trace the development of the American education system from its earliest roots, including the roles of religious and private schools and Horace Mann’s campaign for free public education and its assimilating role in American culture.

US8.6.6 Examine the women’s suffrage movement (e.g., biographies, writings, and speeches of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Margaret Fuller, Lucretia Mott, Susan B. Anthony).

US8.6.7 Identify common themes in American art as well as transcendentalism and individualism (e.g., writings about and by Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry David Thoreau, Herman Melville, Louisa May Alcott, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow).

US8.7 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the South from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.

US8.7.1 Describe the development of the agrarian economy in the South, identify the locations of the cotton-producing states, and discuss the significance of cotton and the cotton gin.

US8.7.2 Trace the origins and development of slavery; its effects on black Americans and on the region’s political, social, religious, economic, and cultural development; and identify the strategies that were tried to both overturn and preserve it (e.g., through the writings and historical documents on Nat Turner, Denmark Vesey).

US8.7.3 Examine the characteristics of white Southern society and how the physical environment influenced events and conditions prior to the Civil War.

US8.7.4 Compare the lives of and opportunities for free blacks in the North with those of free blacks in the South.
### US8.8
Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the West from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.

- **US8.8.1** Discuss the election of Andrew Jackson as president in 1828, the importance of Jacksonian democracy, and his actions as president (e.g., the spoils system, veto of the National Bank, policy of Indian removal, opposition to the Supreme Court).

- **US8.8.2** Describe the purpose, challenges, and economic incentives associated with westward expansion, including the concept of Manifest Destiny (e.g., the Lewis and Clark expedition, accounts of the removal of Indians, the Cherokees’ “Trail of Tears,” settlement of the Great Plains) and the territorial acquisitions that spanned numerous decades.

- **US8.8.3** Describe the role of pioneer women and the new status that western women achieved (e.g., Laura Ingalls Wilder, Annie Bidwell; slave women gaining freedom in the West; Wyoming granting suffrage to women in 1869).

- **US8.8.4** Examine the importance of the great rivers and the struggle over water rights.

- **US8.8.5** Discuss Mexican settlements and their locations, cultural traditions, attitudes toward slavery, land-grant system, and economies.

- **US8.8.6** Describe the Texas War for Independence and the Mexican-American War, including territorial settlements, the aftermath of the wars, and the effects the wars had on the lives of Americans, including Mexican Americans today.

### US8.9
Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.

- **US8.9.1** Describe the leaders of the movement (e.g., John Quincy Adams and his proposed constitutional amendment, John Brown and the armed resistance, Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad, Benjamin Franklin, Theodore Weld, William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass).

- **US8.9.2** Discuss the abolition of slavery in early state constitutions.

- **US8.9.3** Describe the significance of the Northwest Ordinance in education and in the banning of slavery in new states north of the Ohio River.

- **US8.9.4** Discuss the importance of the slavery issue as raised by the annexation of Texas and California’s admission to the union as a free state under the Compromise of 1850.
### US8.9.5
Analyze the significance of the States’ Rights Doctrine, the Missouri Compromise (1820), the Wilmot Proviso (1846), the Compromise of 1850, Henry Clay’s role in the Missouri Compromise and the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854), the *Dred Scott v. Sandford* decision (1857), and the Lincoln-Douglas debates (1858).

### US8.9.6
Describe the lives of free blacks and the laws that limited their freedom and economic opportunities.

### US8.10
Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War.

1. **US8.10.1** Compare the conflicting interpretations of state and federal authority as emphasized in the speeches and writings of statesmen such as Daniel Webster and John C. Calhoun.
2. **US8.10.2** Trace the boundaries constituting the North and the South, the geographical differences between the two regions, and the differences between agrarians and industrialists.
3. **US8.10.3** Identify the constitutional issues posed by the doctrine of nullification and secession and the earliest origins of that doctrine.
4. **US8.10.4** Discuss Abraham Lincoln’s presidency and his significant writings and speeches and their relationship to the Declaration of Independence, such as his “House Divided” speech (1858), Gettysburg Address (1863), Emancipation Proclamation (1863), and inaugural addresses (1861 and 1865).
5. **US8.10.5** Study the views and lives of leaders (e.g., Ulysses S. Grant, Jefferson Davis, Robert E. Lee) and soldiers on both sides of the war, including those of black soldiers and regiments.
6. **US8.10.6** Describe critical developments and events in the war, including the major battles, geographical advantages and obstacles, technological advances, and General Lee’s surrender at Appomattox.
7. **US8.10.7** Explain how the war affected combatants, civilians, the physical environment, and future warfare.

### US8.11
Students analyze the character and lasting consequences of Reconstruction.

1. **US8.11.1** List the original aims of Reconstruction and describe its effects on the political and social structures of different regions.
US8.11.2 Identify the push-pull factors in the movement of former slaves to the cities in the North and to the West and their differing experiences in those regions (e.g., the experiences of Buffalo Soldiers).

US8.11.3 Understand the effects of the Freedmen’s Bureau and the restrictions placed on the rights and opportunities of freedmen, including racial segregation and “Jim Crow” laws.

US8.11.4 Trace the rise of the Ku Klux Klan and describe the Klan’s effects.

US8.11.5 Understand the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution and analyze their connection to Reconstruction.

US8.12 Students analyze the transformation of the American economy and the changing social and political conditions in the United States in response to the Industrial Revolution.

US8.12.1 Trace patterns of agricultural and industrial development as they relate to climate, use of natural resources, markets, and trade and locate such development on a map.

US8.12.2 Identify the reasons for the development of federal Indian policy and the wars with American Indians and their relationship to agricultural development and industrialization.

US8.12.3 Explain how states and the federal government encouraged business expansion through tariffs, banking, land grants, and subsidies.

US8.12.4 Discuss entrepreneurs, industrialists, and bankers in politics, commerce, and industry (e.g., Andrew Carnegie, John D. Rockefeller, Leland Stanford).

US8.12.5 Examine the location and effects of urbanization, renewed immigration, and industrialization (e.g., the effects on social fabric of cities, wealth and economic opportunity, the conservation movement).

US8.12.6 Discuss child labor, working conditions, and laissez-faire policies toward big business and examine the labor movement, including its leaders (e.g., Samuel Gompers), its demand for collective bargaining, and its strikes and protests over labor conditions.

US8.12.7 Identify the new sources of large-scale immigration and the contributions of immigrants to the building of cities and the economy; explain the ways in which new social and economic patterns encouraged assimilation of newcomers into the mainstream amidst growing cultural diversity; and discuss the new wave of nativism.
US8.12.8 Identify the characteristics and impact of Grangerism and Populism.

US8.12.9 Name the significant inventors and their inventions and identify how they improved the quality of life (e.g., Thomas Edison, Alexander Graham Bell, Orville and Wilbur Wright).

World History and Geography: Medieval and Early Modern Times
Grade 7 Local Options

WH7.11 Students analyze political and economic change in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries (the Age of Exploration, the Enlightenment, and the Age of Reason).

WH7.11.1 Know the great voyages of discovery, the locations of the routes, and the influence of cartography in the development of a new European worldview.

WH7.11.2 Discuss the exchanges of plants, animals, technology, culture, and ideas among Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Americas in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and the major economic and social effects on each continent.

WH7.11.3 Examine the origins of modern capitalism; the influence of mercantilism and cottage industry; the elements and importance of a market economy in seventeenth-century Europe; the changing international trading and marketing patterns, including their locations on a world map; and the influence of explorers and map makers.

WH7.11.4 Explain how the main ideas of the Enlightenment can be traced back to such movements as the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Scientific Revolution and to the Greeks, Romans, and Christianity.

WH7.11.5 Describe how democratic thought and institutions were influenced by Enlightenment thinkers (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, American founders).

WH7.11.6 Discuss how the principles in the Magna Carta were embodied in such documents as the English Bill of Rights and the American Declaration of Independence.
Content Vocabulary

- **technology**: the use of scientific knowledge for practical purposes (page 82)
- **astrolabe**: instrument that measured the position of the stars (page 83)
- **circumnavigate**: sail around (page 85)
- **conquistador**: Spanish explorer (page 86)
- **pueblo**: Spanish town (page 88)
- **mission**: religious community that usually included a small town, surrounding farmland, and a church (page 88)
- **presidio**: Spanish fort (page 88)
- **encomienda**: the right to demand taxes or labor from Native Americans living on the land (page 88)
- **Northwest Passage**: water route to Asia through the Americas (page 88)

**Drawing From Experience**

Think about a place you visited for the first time. Were you curious to know what the place was like? Did you get a feeling of excitement when you discovered something about it that was new to you?

In this section you will learn about voyages to strange lands by early European explorers.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about reasons why the Spanish conquistadors were able to defeat the Aztec and Inca empires.

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**WH7.11**: Students analyze political and economic change in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries (the Age of Exploration, the Enlightenment, and the Age of Reason). Focuses on: **WH7.11.1**
Europe Gets Ready to Explore (pages 81–83)

Main Idea: New knowledge and ideas led Europeans to explore overseas.

In 1271, Marco Polo began a trek from Europe across Asia to China. His book about Chinese culture inspired Europeans to explore.

The Middle Ages was the period from the fall of the western Roman Empire through the 1400s. Europeans at this time knew little about other parts of the world. Crusades, or Christian holy wars against Muslims, brought Europeans into contact with people of eastern lands. Trade increased as a result. Goods traveled to Europe from the Middle East through Italian cities. These cities became centers of the growing East-West trade. Italian merchants became wealthy.

During the 1400s, political changes in Asia made Asian goods harder to get and more expensive. European merchants could earn huge profits if they could find a way to get Asian goods without going through Arab and Italian cities. Meanwhile, strong monarchs came to power in Spain, Portugal, England, and France. They wanted to expand trade to increase their countries’ wealth and power.

Advances in technology aided European exploration. Technology is the use of scientific knowledge for practical purposes. Mapmakers learned to make more accurate maps. An instrument called an astrolabe measured the position of the stars. The astrolabe along with an improved compass helped sailors navigate. Advances in ship design, including a new stern rudder and triangular sails, allowed ships to sail into the wind. A new type of ship, the caravel, could sail faster and carry more cargo.

1. Why did merchants want to find a new way to get Asian goods?
Exploring the World (pages 84–85)

Main Idea In search of trade routes, Portuguese explorers began an era of overseas exploration.

Portugal and Spain began to look for sea routes to Asia. Prince Henry of Portugal set up a center for exploration. There, astronomers, geographers, and mathematicians shared their knowledge with Portuguese sailors and shipbuilders.

In 1488, a great storm carried Portuguese explorer Bartholomeu Dias off course and around the tip of Africa. King John II renamed this tip of land the Cape of Good Hope. He hoped the passage might lead to a new route to India. In 1498, Vasco da Gama completed this sea route around Africa to the port of Calicut. Pedro Alvares Cabral followed da Gama’s route. His wide swing around Africa led him to Brazil. His claim gave Portugal a stake in the Americas.

Christopher Columbus planned to sail across the Atlantic Ocean to reach Asia. No one knew about a great landmass that blocked this route. With support from Queen Isabella of Spain, Columbus set sail in 1492. He landed on a small island in the Bahamas. He named it San Salvador and claimed it for Spain. In his three voyages to the area, he never realized he was in the Americas, not Asia.

In 1519 Spain hired Ferdinand Magellan to find a way around South America to Asia. He sailed through a narrow passage near the tip of South America. Today this passage is called the Strait of Magellan. Magellan emerged from the stormy passage into a vast calm sea. He named it the Pacific, or peaceful, Ocean. Magellan reached the Philippines. He was killed there, but some of his crew continued. Only 18 of the more than 200 original crew members made it back to Spain. They were the first to circumnavigate, or sail around, the world.
2. How did Prince Henry of Portugal contribute to the era of exploration?

Building Empires (pages 86–89)

Main Idea: Rivalries between countries led to increased exploration of North America.

Before the Europeans arrived, the great Aztec and Inca Empires spread across present-day Mexico and Central and South America. Stories of rich kingdoms led Spanish conquistadors, or explorers, to search the Americas. In 1519, Hernán Cortés landed in Mexico. With Native American allies, he marched into the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán. Montezuma, the emperor, welcomed him. Cortés took Montezuma prisoner and destroyed the city. The Aztec Empire dissolved as Spain seized control of the region.

Francisco Pizarro heard tales about the wealthy Inca Empire in present-day Peru. In 1532, he captured the Incan ruler, Atahualpa, and destroyed much of the Incan army. The Inca Empire fell under Pizarro’s control within a few years.

The conquistadors defeated the Aztec and Inca for several reasons. They had guns and cannons, weapons unknown to Native Americans. They rode horses and had ferocious dogs. Many Native Americans helped the conquistadors because they hated their Aztec overlords. Also, Europeans unknowingly brought diseases with them. Native Americans had no immunity to these diseases. Epidemics of smallpox and other diseases wiped out entire communities.

Juan Ponce de León’s explorations in Florida led to the first Spanish settlement in the United States. Álvar Núñez
Cabeza de Vaca, Hernando de Soto, and Francisco Vásquez de Coronado led explorations through what is today the southern and southwestern United States. The Spanish established **pueblos**, or towns, and religious communities called **missions** in the Americas. They built **presidios**, or forts. The Spanish government gave each conquistador an **encomienda**, the right to demand taxes or labor from Native Americans living on the land. This system turned Native Americans into slaves.

England, France, and the Netherlands hoped to discover a **Northwest Passage**, or water route through the Americas to Asia. England sent John Cabot to find it. He landed near Newfoundland, giving England a claim to North America. France sent Giovanni da Verrazano in 1524. He mapped America’s east coast. Ten years later, French explorer Jacques Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence River. The Netherlands sent Henry Hudson. He discovered what are today known as the Hudson River and Hudson Bay. None of the explorers found a passage to the Pacific and Asia.

England and Spain competed for trade. English adventurers attacked Spanish ships and ports. Spain sent a large fleet, the Spanish Armada, to conquer England. It failed. The defeat of the armada ended Spanish control of the seas.

3. Why did European diseases kill so many Native Americans?
**Content Vocabulary**

- **capitalism**: economic system in which money is invested in business to make profits (page 91)
- **joint-stock company**: organization that sold stock in a venture (page 93)
- **entrepreneur**: individual who combines money, ideas, raw materials, and labor to make goods and profits (page 93)
- **mercantilism**: economic theory that held that a nation became powerful by building up its supply of gold and silver (page 94)
- **bullion**: gold and silver (page 94)
- **colony**: settlement of people living in a new territory controlled by their home country (page 95)
- **Columbian Exchange**: global exchange of people, goods, technology, ideas, and even diseases (page 95)

**Drawing From Experience**

Have you ever met someone from another culture? How were this person’s practices different from yours? What new ideas did you learn from this person?

In this section, you will learn how global trade resulted in an exchange of ideas and practices as well as goods.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Describe the kinds of things exchanged and who exchanged them. Discuss the results of these exchanges.

**Columbian Exchange**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Things Exchanged</th>
<th>To/From</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goods:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>People:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diseases:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Commercial Revolution (pages 91–93)

Main Idea New ways of doing business developed to raise money to finance trade.

In the 1600s, Europe’s growing population led to an increased demand for products. Also, building empires and expanding trade had brought greater wealth to Europe. The search for wealth led to the rise of capitalism, an economic system in which money is invested in business to make profits. Nations competed for markets and trade goods. New business methods developed to invest money, speed the flow of wealth, and reduce risks in commercial ventures. These changes became known as the Commercial Revolution.

Overseas trade was expensive. Merchants had to buy many goods, store them, and ship them by land and sea. The investment in a venture paid off only after the fleet returned home several years later. At first, only governments and rich merchants could afford to invest in trading voyages, and even they needed some financial assistance.

At first, merchants turned to bankers for money to finance their ventures. Rich families like the Medici in Italy and Fuggers in Germany operated banks. They accepted deposits, made loans, and even set up branches. Governments began to support banks. In return, banks loaned them money. Soon banks began to offer other services, such as issuing banknotes and checks, and exchanging foreign currencies.

Individual merchants began to pool their money in joint-stock companies, organizations that sold shares in a business venture. As a result, large and small investors could share the profits and risks of a trading voyage. Sharing the risk helped create a stable source of funds for voyages.

Some joint-stock companies, like the Dutch East India Company, became rich. The government of the Netherlands granted the company the sole right to trade with Africa and the East Indies. In return, the government received taxes on the imported goods.
Profit became the goal of businesses. Individuals known as entrepreneurs combined money, ideas, raw materials, and labor to make goods and profits. Profits were then used to expand the business and start new ventures. In the system known as the “cottage industry,” entrepreneurs hired people to make products in their homes. For example, some spun yarn. Others wove yarn into cloth. The entrepreneur then sold the cloth at a profit. If prices fell or workers could not provide the products as needed, the entrepreneur could lose the money invested.

1. Why was a trading venture so expensive?

Government and Trade (pages 94–95)

Main Idea Nations competed to establish colonies in the Americas.

Trade increased most in the countries bordering the Atlantic Ocean—Portugal, Spain, England, and the Netherlands. Italian cities declined as trade centers as trade routes shifted to the Atlantic Ocean and the Americas.

Governments made trade policies based on mercantilism. This economic theory held that a nation became powerful by building up its supply of bullion, or gold and silver. When a country exported goods, bullion flowed in from other countries to pay for the goods. When a country imported, bullion flowed out to other countries. If a country exported more than it imported, it would gain wealth as more bullion flowed in than went out. Wealth meant more influence in the world. To promote exports, governments granted monopolies, or total control of a market, to some producers. They also taxed imports to make them more expensive and less attractive to consumers in their country.
A colony is a settlement of people living in a new territory controlled by their home country. Mercantilists believed that colonies should produce goods their home country did not have. That way, the home country would not have to buy the goods from other countries. European countries competed for overseas territory. They wanted to set up colonies to provide raw materials and serve as markets for the home country’s products.

2. Why did mercantilists encourage exports and discourage imports?

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Global Exchange (pages 95–97)

Main Idea Exploration and trade led to a worldwide exchange of products, people, and ideas.

Europe’s trade with the world resulted in a global exchange of people, goods, technology, ideas, and even diseases. This transfer is called the **Columbian Exchange**.

The exchange of goods changed the ways people lived throughout the world. Europeans brought grains and animals that changed the diets of many people in the Americas. As some Native Americans learned to use horses to hunt, buffalo became their main food source. Europeans brought Native American corn, potatoes, and other foods back to Europe. There, animals fed on corn provided more meat. By planting potatoes instead of grain, many more Europeans could live off the same amount of land. Many of these foods spread to Asia and Africa, boosting population growth there. Europeans brought tropical products, such as bananas and coffee, from Asia and Africa back to Europe and the Americas.

The continents also exchanged people and cultures. Europeans moved to the Americas and elsewhere seeking
religious freedom or economic opportunity. They shared their ideas and practices with the people in their new lands. Traders spread European languages. European missionaries taught Christianity and European values. Unfortunately, Europeans also carried germs to the Americas. Millions of Native Americans died of smallpox, measles, and malaria.

Europeans enslaved and moved millions of Africans to the Americas to plant and harvest sugarcane in the Caribbean. In the West Indies, Spanish settlers developed plantations, or large estates, to grow tobacco and sugarcane. At first, they used Native American labor. Then Bartolomé de Las Casas, a Spanish priest, suggested replacing the Native Americans with enslaved Africans. Africans were captured and then marched to European forts on the West African coast. The Africans were traded, branded, and forced to board ships bound for the Americas. By the late 1500s, slave labor was a key part of the colonial economy.

3. How was sugarcane related to the slave trade?
The Enlightenment  For use with textbook pages 98–107

Content Vocabulary

**rule of law:** idea that the law should apply to everyone equally and that all people should be treated the same (page 99)

**coventant:** agreement (page 99)

**theology:** study of religion and God (page 101)

**Renaissance:** period of intellectual and artistic creativity (page 102)

**scientific method:** orderly way of collecting and analyzing evidence (page 105)

**philosophe:** French philosopher (page 105)

**Drawing From Experience**

Do you like to try doing something a new way, just to see if it will work? People experimented in the 1500s as well. They learned that old ideas were not always true.

In this section you will learn about ideas from Europe in the 1500s and 1600s that influence our way of life today.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about American practices and values that have roots in the ancient world and the Renaissance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American Practices and Values</th>
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<td>Democracy</td>
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</table>
Europe’s Heritage of Ideas (pages 99–101)

Main Idea Ancient cultures laid the foundation of many modern ideas.

The idea of democracy developed in the ancient Greek city of Athens during the 400s B.C. The Athenians practiced direct democracy. They met and voted on laws firsthand. Ancient Rome began as a republic. In this form of government, citizens elect their leaders. This idea later shaped the founding of the United States government. Rome also contributed the idea of the “rule of law.” This means that the law should apply equally to everyone and that all people should be treated the same. The American legal system today is based on the rule of law.

In the ancient world, most people worshiped many gods. The Jews believed in only one god. The Hebrew Bible describes a covenant, or agreement, between the Jews and their God. The idea of a covenant later influenced the way colonists set up their societies in North America. The Ten Commandments found in the Hebrew Bible shaped the moral laws of many nations. The new religion of Christianity, based on the message of Jesus, a Jewish teacher, shaped values around the world.

Muslims, the followers of Islam, also believe in one God. Islam began in the Arabian Peninsula with the preaching of Muhammad. Jewish and Muslim scholars saved much of the learning of the ancient world. Muslims made advances in mathematics and medicine. They introduced the Arabic numerals used today.

A new way of thinking called scholasticism began to change theology, or the study of religion and God. Its followers used reason to explore questions of faith. One follower, Thomas Aquinas, emphasized the idea of natural law. This is the belief that people have certain rights from birth. Governments do not have to grant these rights. Among these are the rights to live, learn, worship, and reproduce. Americans’ belief in human rights can partly be traced to the ideas of Aquinas.
1. How was the government of ancient Greece different from that of ancient Rome?

New Ideas (pages 102–103)

Main Idea Religious and philosophical thinkers changed the way people viewed Christianity and the government.

Wealth from trade enabled Italian merchants to pursue other interests. Italians studied classical—ancient Greek and Roman—works. Scholars translated Greek manuscripts. Artists studied ancient sculpture and architecture. This period of intellectual and artistic creativity was called the Renaissance, or “rebirth.” The Renaissance spread through Europe from about 1350 to 1550.

Martin Luther, a German monk, criticized Catholic practices. He and his followers started a new form of Christianity called Protestantism. John Calvin also broke from the Catholic Church. He believed that God had already chosen those who would be saved. In England, the English, or Anglican, Church became Protestant with some Catholic features. However, a group known as the Puritans wanted to “purify” the Anglican Church of its remaining Catholic practices. Persecution led many Puritans to come to America to seek religious freedom.

Under the system of absolutism, European monarchs held absolute, or total, power. They claimed rule by divine right. This meant that rulers answered only to God, not to their people. In 1688, the English Parliament forced King James out and placed William and Mary on the throne. This “Glorious Revolution” showed the power of elected representatives over the monarch. William and Mary signed the English Bill of Rights. This document later inspired the American Bill of Rights.
Political changes sparked debate about the purpose of government. Thomas Hobbes argued that absolute monarchy was best. He believed people were naturally selfish and violent. They needed a strong ruler to give them direction. John Locke believed government should be based on natural law. All people had rights from birth. Among these were the rights to life, liberty, and ownership of property. The purpose of government, he argued, was to protect these rights. Locke believed that government was based on a social contract between the people and their rulers. If the government failed to protect the people’s rights, the people had a right to change the government.

2. What political event in England challenged the system of absolutism?

A New View of the World (pages 105–107)

Main Idea Science and the influence of reason led to new innovations in political thought.

In the 1500s, Europeans began to test old theories. Copernicus and Galileo found that the sun, not the earth, was the center of the universe. Newton claimed that gravity held the solar system together. Francis Bacon developed the scientific method, an orderly way of collecting and analyzing evidence.

The 1700s became known as the Age of Enlightenment. Educated Europeans came to believe that reason, not faith or tradition, was the way to find truth. France was the major center of the Enlightenment. The writings of French philosophes, or philosophers, spread Enlightenment thinking across Europe. Montesquieu wrote that government should include a separation of powers. This means power is equally divided among branches, preventing a
government from becoming too powerful. Voltaire opposed government support of one religion over others. Diderot’s huge encyclopedia spread Enlightenment ideas. Jean-Jacques Rousseau, however, argued that people should rely more on feelings and less on reason. He believed government should be based on a social contract, or an agreement of the people to obey the will of society as a whole.

Colonists in North America brought the ideas of natural rights and limited government with them from England. The Magna Carta of 1215 had limited royal power and protected certain rights in England. The English Bill of Rights prohibited taxing without the consent of Parliament. It established the right to trial by jury and the right to petition the king. English colonists also brought the idea of representative government, in which people elect representatives who make laws. Locke’s ideas about natural rights and a government responsible to the people inspired the American Revolution.

3. What did Enlightenment thinkers believe was the way to find truth?
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever been in a group where you felt you did not belong? Did you find a new group where you felt more comfortable? Many people came to America to settle with groups who shared their views.

This section describes the people and structure of the American colonies.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. For each colony, describe two facts that make it different from the others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colony</th>
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Settlements in America (page 117)

Main Idea Spain, France, and the Netherlands founded colonies in North America.

In the 1600s, France and England started colonies in the Americas, mostly in North America. Spain’s colonies were mostly in the Caribbean, Mexico, and Central America. Spain also built settlements in the southern United States, including Florida. They set up missions to teach Christianity and European ways to Native Americans in New Mexico, Texas, California, and other areas.

The French came to North America to profit from fur trading. Samuel de Champlain set up a trading post named Quebec. It became the capital of the colony of New France. Explorers Joliet and Marquette discovered the Mississippi River. La Salle followed the river to the Gulf of Mexico. He named the area Louisiana. French settlers began to bring in enslaved Africans to grow crops.

The Dutch set up a colony in what is today New York. Their capital, New Amsterdam, is today New York City.

1. What was the purpose of Spanish missions?

The Virginia Colony (page 119)

Main Idea The first permanent English settlement in North America was at Jamestown.

Sir Walter Raleigh financed an English colony that settled on Roanoke Island, off the coast of North Carolina. After 6 years, the colonists disappeared. No one knows what happened. It became known as the Lost Colony.

The Virginia Company, an English joint-stock company, received a charter, or right to organize a settlement.
It set up the first permanent English colony of Jamestown, Virginia. The colonists had come to find gold and silver. Many starved in the early years and those who survived did so because of the leadership of Captain John Smith. Smith got corn from the Native Americans and forced the settlers to farm. John Rolfe found that tobacco grew well there. Tobacco became the first cash crop of the English colonies.

The Virginia Company gave colonists the right to elect burgesses, or representatives. The first House of Burgesses was a representative government modeled on the English Parliament. Soon other colonies set up legislatures.

2. Why was the Virginia House of Burgesses important?

The 13 English Colonies (pages 120–124)

Main Idea The English established 13 colonies along the east coast of North America.

The Puritans wanted to stay in the Church and rid it of Catholic practices. The Pilgrims were Separatists. They wanted to leave the Church. The Pilgrims sailed to America on the Mayflower to find religious freedom. The Virginia Company granted them land, but a storm blew them off course. They landed at Plymouth north of Cape Cod. The Pilgrims signed the Mayflower Compact, a document that set up a civil government. They promised to obey the laws of the colony. This compact was a step toward democracy in America.

The Puritans, led by John Winthrop, founded the colony of Massachusetts. A General Court owned by the founding company ran the colony. The settlers wanted a larger role. The company created a legislature. Men who
owned land and were church members could vote. The Puritans made the Protestant Congregationalist faith the official religion. People of other beliefs had to leave.

The Connecticut colony, led by Thomas Hooker, adopted the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut. This was the first written constitution, or formal plan of government.

Roger Williams believed the church and government should be separate. He also believed that settlers should not take Native American land. Massachusetts banished him for his views. He set up the Rhode Island colony based on religious toleration. It was a safe place for dissenters, or people who disagreed with established views. People of all faiths could worship freely there.

England controlled the New England colonies and Virginia. The area in between was Dutch land. When it came under English rule, the area became the Middle Colonies of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware.

The Dutch surrendered New Amsterdam to the English fleet. England’s king then gave New Netherland to his brother, the Duke of York. He renamed it New York. New Amsterdam became New York City.

Quakers, a Protestant group, founded the Pennsylvania colony to escape persecution, or harsh treatment, in England. William Penn received the land from the king as payment for a debt owed Penn’s father. He saw the colony as a chance to put Quaker ideals of toleration and equality into practice. People from many countries answered Penn’s advertisement to settle there. In 1701 in the Charter of Liberties, Penn granted the colonists the right to elect representatives to the legislative assembly.

New settlers in Virginia pushed inland, settling on Native American land. The Powhatan Confederation, a Native American group, nearly destroyed the colony. The Virginia Company lost its charter. Virginia became a royal colony. Laws made by the House of Burgesses then needed royal approval. The Anglican Church became the official religion.
Maryland was founded by Lord Baltimore as a safe place for Catholics. Protestant settlers soon outnumbered Catholics. Lord Baltimore passed the Act of Toleration to protect Catholics. It granted the right for both groups to worship freely. It was an early step toward protecting religious diversity, or variety, in the colonies.

King Charles granted members of his court a charter for the Carolina colony. Wanting a larger role in government, the other settlers seized control from the owners. Carolina became the royal colonies of North and South Carolina.

Georgia was the last English colony. James Oglethorpe got a charter to create a colony where English debtors—people who could not repay their debts—could make a fresh start. Located between Spanish Florida and South Carolina, Georgia was a military barrier between the two and could protect other British colonies from Spanish attack. In 1751, Oglethorpe turned the colony back to the king.

3. Why do you think Pennsylvania attracted settlers from many countries?

THE MCDougALL-LITTEL READING ESSENTIALS AND STUDY GUIDE 2-1 (continued)
Do you eat corn from the Midwest? Peaches from the South? Strawberries from the West? Climate and soil determine what grows well in a region. These factors made farming more profitable in some American colonies than in others.

In this section you will learn how the economy, culture, and government developed in the American colonies.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. In the ovals, identify the regions that participated in triangular trade. Inside the arrows, describe the items traded.
The Colonies Grow (pages 126–127)

Main Idea: As the population of the colonies grew, agriculture and trade increased.

Long winters and poor soil made farming in New England difficult. Most farms were small. Farmers practiced subsistence farming—producing just enough to feed their own families. Lumber from the forests of New England made shipbuilding an important industry there.

New England was a center of the shipping trade. A common trade route was called the triangular trade. On one leg, ships brought sugar and molasses from the West Indies to New England. The colonies made rum from the molasses. The rum and other goods were shipped to West Africa and traded for enslaved Africans. The Africans were taken to the West Indies in the final leg of the triangle. The profit from selling the Africans was used to buy more molasses, and the process began again.

Fertile soil and a milder climate made farming better in the Middle Colonies than in New England. Farmers in New York and Pennsylvania grew large amounts of wheat and other cash crops—crops that could be sold easily in markets in the colonies and overseas. Often they shipped out of the busy ports of New York and Philadelphia. These cities were the largest in the colonies.

Industry in the Middle Colonies included home-based crafts as well as lumber, mining, and small-scale manufacturing. Settlers from many lands gave the Middle Colonies more cultural diversity than New England. With diversity came tolerance of differences.

The South’s rich soil and warm climate were well suited to cash crops. Tobacco, rice, and indigo were grown on large farms called plantations. At first, the field hands were indentured servants—laborers who agreed to work to pay for their passage to America. Planters turned to enslaved Africans when indentured servants became scarce and expensive. Most farms in the South were small. The planters made up a small part of the population but had the most wealth and power.
The inhumane leg of triangular trade that brought enslaved Africans to the Americas was called the Middle Passage. Most enslaved Africans lived on plantations. Some did housework but most worked in the fields. Overseers, or bosses, made them work hard. The Southern Colonies had strict rules called slave codes about slave behavior and punishment. Slaveholders tore apart families by selling off family members. Slaves developed a culture that drew on their African roots. Some learned a trade. A few were able to buy their freedom.

Slavery contributed to the South’s economic success. Some colonists, such as Puritans, Quakers, and Mennonites, believed slavery was wrong.

1. Why was shipbuilding more important than farming in New England?

An Emerging Culture (pages 128–129)

Main Idea An American culture, influenced by religion and education, began to develop.

Throughout the colonies, people adapted their traditions to the new conditions of life in America, developing a new American culture.

In the 1730s and 1740s, a religious revival called the Great Awakening swept through the colonies. Ministers called for a return to the strong faith of earlier days. The Great Awakening resulted in greater religious and political freedom. The strength of established churches declined as more colonists chose their own faith. The revival also united colonists in a common cause. This paved the way for the spread of political ideas and revolutionary fervor.

Education was important to the colonists. The Puritans in Massachusetts passed a public education law.
It required each community to have a teacher paid through taxes. Most communities set up schools. Schooling was common in the Middle Colonies but not as universal as in New England. Formal education was less common in the South, where farms were widely separated. Generally children of the wealthy Southerners attended school. Other children learned from parents.

Colonial schools were primitive. There were few books. Classes were held only two or three months a year. Most children received only a primary education. Most girls received little education. The first colleges—Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale—were established to train ministers.

Ideas from the Enlightenment in Europe influenced educated colonists in the 1700s. They believed that knowledge, reason, and science could improve society. Benjamin Franklin was an American scientist. He invented the lightning rod, bifocal eyeglasses, and the Franklin stove. His greatest service, though, would come later as a statesman and voice for American independence.

2. What was the Great Awakening?

Colonial Government (pages 130–131)

Main Idea Although the American colonies developed some self-government, the British still set many laws, especially those concerning trade.

Colonists brought ideas about government with them from England. Two important principles of the English system were limited government and representative government.

The colonies began as either charter colonies or proprietary colonies. Charter colonies had a charter, or grant of rights and privileges from the English monarch to stock-
holders. Proprietary colonies were owned by an individual or small group. Over time, the English monarch began to change them into royal colonies under direct English control. Parliament appointed a governor and council, or upper house. The colonists selected an assembly, the lower house. Often the upper and lower houses conflicted.

Only white male landowners could vote. Women, indentured servants, landless poor, and African Americans could not. For the time, however, political participation was high in the colonies compared to other places.

In 1707 England united with Scotland and became the United Kingdom. Great Britain was the world’s most powerful trading empire.

Britain allowed the colonies to run their own affairs for many years. The British government, however, controlled trade according to the policy of mercantilism. The colonies sent raw materials to Britain in exchange for manufactured goods. Britain passed a series of laws called the Navigation Acts. The laws required the colonies to sell raw materials to Britain even if they could get a better price elsewhere. Goods the colonies bought from other European countries had to pass through England first to be taxed. All trade goods had to travel on British or colonial ships with British crews.

The colonists came to resent British restrictions. They wanted to make their own manufactured goods. They wanted to sell their products wherever they could get the best prices. Many colonial merchants began smuggling, or shipping goods without paying taxes or getting government permission.

3. What two important principles of government did colonists bring with them from England?
Draw From Experience

Think about a project you worked on with a group. Did group members always agree on what to do? How did you work out your differences? As tensions mounted, the colonists were deeply divided over the idea of independence.

In this section you will learn about the issues that raised tensions with Great Britain and how the colonists worked together to protect their interests.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Describe laws passed by the British Parliament and the colonists’ responses.

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Content Vocabulary

import: bring into the country from foreign markets (page 136)
smuggling: illegal trade with other nations (page 136)
boycott: refuse to buy (page 136)
repeal: cancel (page 136)
resolution: formal expression of an opinion (page 139)
militia: group of citizen soldiers (page 139)
minutemen: militia companies who promised to be ready to fight on a minute’s notice (page 140)
New British Policies (pages 135–136)

Main Idea Following Britain’s victory in the French and Indian War, the British prohibited colonists from moving west of the Appalachian Mountains and taxed the colonists to pay for the war.

Britain and France competed for control of eastern North America. Both claimed the vast land between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. Their rivalry led to the French and Indian War in 1754. Colonial representatives met to discuss how to defend themselves against the French. The result was the Albany Plan of Union. It called for one government for 11 of the American colonies. The plan was not approved.

Victory in 1763 gained Britain almost all of France’s North American land. Britain issued the Proclamation of 1763. This rule prohibited colonists from moving west of the Appalachian Mountains. Britain hoped this rule would avoid conflict with Native Americans. It also hoped to keep colonists on the coasts where Britain’s main investments were. Alarmed colonists saw the rule as a limit on their freedom of movement. They also feared that the British troops in America might take away their liberties.

The cost of the war left Britain deep in debt. To help pay the debt, Britain taxed the colonies and tightened trade rules.

Britain passed the Sugar Act in 1764. The law lowered the tax on molasses that was imported, or bought from foreign markets, by the colonists. Britain hoped the lower tax would convince colonists to pay the tax instead of smuggling. Smuggling means to trade illegally with other nations. These acts angered the colonists. They believed taxing without their consent violated their rights.

Britain passed the Stamp Act in 1765. It placed a tax on newspapers and other printed material. All printed items had to bear a stamp showing that the tax was paid. In response, colonial representatives formed the Stamp Act Congress and issued a letter to the British government. It stated that the colonists could be taxed only by
their own assemblies. Colonists refused to use stamps. They also boycotted, or refused to buy, British goods. Britain gave in and repealed, or cancelled, the Stamp Act. However, the same day, Britain passed the Declaratory Act. This law stated that Parliament had the right to tax and make all decisions for British colonies.

In 1767, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts. These laws taxed imported goods at the port of entry. Britain hoped the colonists would accept these acts because they did not tax the colonists directly, as the Stamp Act did. The acts taxed basic goods the colonists could not make and had to import. By now, any British tax enraged the colonists. They believed that only their representatives had a right to tax them. The boycott was even more widespread this time.

1. Why did tax laws passed by Parliament anger the colonists?
group spread writings about colonists’ grievances. Soon committees sprang up throughout the colonies.

In 1773, Parliament passed the Tea Act. It let the British East India Company ship tea to the colonies without paying the taxes colonial tea merchants had to pay. As a result, the company could sell tea at very low prices. This could drive colonial tea merchants out of business.

A group of protestors dressed as Native Americans boarded British ships in Boston Harbor. They dumped cargoes of tea overboard. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party. In 1774, Parliament passed the Coercive Acts to punish the colonists. These laws closed Boston Harbor and put Massachusetts under military rule. They also required colonists to quarter British troops, or provide them a place to live in their homes. The colonists called these laws the Intolerable Acts, or laws they could not bear.

2. How did committees of correspondence fuel resistance to British rule?

A Call to Arms (pages 139–141)

Main Idea After colonial leaders met to discuss relations with Britain, the first shots of the American Revolution were fired.


The delegates issued a statement of grievances. The statement called for repeal of 13 acts of Parliament. The delegates said these laws violated colonists’ rights.
Delegates voted to boycott all British goods and stop all trade with Britain.

They also passed a resolution, or formal expression of opinion, to form militias. A militia is a group of citizen soldiers. Militia companies in Massachusetts trained, made bullets, and stockpiled guns. Some, known as minutemen, boasted that they would be ready to fight on a minute’s notice.

King George III ordered British general Thomas Gage to use his soldiers around Boston to take arms away from the Massachusetts militia and arrest its leaders. Gage ordered troops to Concord, northwest of Boston, to seize the arms stored there. On April 18, 1775, colonists Paul Revere and William Dawes rode to Lexington, east of Concord, to warn that the British were coming. When the redcoats reached Lexington, they encountered 70 minutemen led by John Parker.

No one knows who fired the first shot. When the shooting ended, eight minutemen lay dead. The British continued to Concord. Minutemen were waiting for them at Concord’s North Bridge.

Alerted by messengers, colonists hid all along the road from Concord to Boston. They fired on British troops as they marched. When the British reached Boston, they faced 20,000 militiamen.

The bloodshed in Massachusetts prompted colonial leaders to call for separation from Great Britain. Many colonists were not yet ready.

Later, poet Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote that Americans at Lexington and Concord had fired the “shot heard ‘round the world.” The battle for American independence had begun.

3. What was the Continental Congress?
War of Independence  For use with textbook pages 149–157

Content Vocabulary

petition: formal request (page 150)
preamble: the introduction to a formal document, especially the Constitution (page 152)
Patriots: Americans who supported independence (page 153)
neutral: taking neither side in a conflict (page 153)
Loyalists: Americans who remained loyal to Great Britain (page 153)
guerrilla warfare: hit-and-run technique in battle (page 156)

Drawing From Experience

Have you ever felt strongly about something? How did you try to convince others to see your point of view? Patriot writers, such as Thomas Paine, used stirring words to influence Americans to support the cause of independence.

In this section you will learn about the Declaration of Independence and the American struggle to separate from Great Britain.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the main ideas expressed in the four sections of the Declaration of Independence.

US8.1 Students understand the major events preceding the founding of the American nation and relate their significance to the development of American constitutional democracy.

Focuses on:
US8.1.2, US8.1.3
Moving Toward Independence (page 150)

Main Idea As colonial forces and British troops continued to fight, colonial leaders met again to plan their resistance to Britain.

In 1775, the British won the Battle of Bunker Hill near Boston. Their heavy losses showed them that defeating the Americans would not be easy.

Meanwhile, the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia. It created the Continental Army to fight in a more organized way than the colonial militias could. The Congress chose George Washington to command the army.

The Congress offered Britain a chance to avoid war. It sent a petition, or formal request, to George III. Called the Olive Branch Petition, it said the colonists wanted peace. It asked the king to protect colonists’ rights from acts of Parliament. The king refused. Instead, he hired German troops to fight beside British troops in America.

In early 1776, Thomas Paine published a pamphlet called Common Sense. He used strong language to condemn the king and call for separation. He told colonists that their cause was not just about taxes but about freedom. His widely circulated pamphlet convinced thousands to support independence.

Thomas Jefferson drafted a declaration. After a few changes, the Congress approved the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776.

1. How did Thomas Paine’s pamphlet influence colonists?
The Colonies Declare Independence (page 152)

Main Idea  The Declaration of Independence used traditional English political rights to call for independence for the colonies.

In the Declaration of Independence, Jefferson drew on the English Bill of Rights and Magna Carta to explain why the colonies were founding a new nation. These English documents established the idea that governments were not all powerful. Rulers had to obey the laws and treat citizens fairly. Jefferson also drew on ideas of thinkers such as John Locke. Locke wrote that people were born with natural rights, including life, liberty, and property. People formed governments to protect these rights. If government interfered with these rights, the people had a right to overthrow it.

The Declaration has four main sections. The preamble, or introduction, states that people should explain why they want to form a new country. The second section explains the rights colonists believed they should have. It describes “unalienable Rights” including “Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.” It states that government exists to protect these rights. If it does not, the people have the right to “alter or abolish it and institute new Government.”

The third section lists American grievances against the king and Parliament. The last section proclaims America to be a new nation. It pledges “to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our sacred Honor.”

2. What ideas in the Declaration of Independence reflect the writings of John Locke?
The American Revolution  *(pages 153–157)*

**Main Idea** America’s victory and independence led to revolutions in other parts of the world.

_Patriots_ were Americans who supported independence. Some colonists were _neutral_, taking neither side in the conflict. At least one colonist in five was a _Loyalist_, an American who remained loyal to Great Britain.

In the summer of 1776, British armies defeated Washington’s forces on New York’s Long Island. The Patriots retreated to Pennsylvania. The British army settled in New York for the winter, leaving some troops in New Jersey at Trenton and Princeton. Washington’s troops were stationed across the Delaware River. On Christmas night, 1776, Washington took troops across the icy river and surprised the enemy at Trenton. Then he drove them out of Princeton.

In 1777, three British forces planned to meet at Albany, New York, and destroy Patriot troops there. When General Burgoyne’s force reached Saratoga, New York, the other British forces had not arrived. After a fight with a larger Patriot force, Burgoyne surrendered. The Battle of Saratoga was the first major American victory.

Washington’s troops camped at Valley Forge for the winter of 1777. They suffered from lack of food, clothing, and shelter. In spite of harsh conditions that challenged him, Washington managed to keep the Continental Army together.

The victory at Saratoga marked a turning point. European nations realized that the United States might win the war. France declared war on Britain in 1778 and aided the Americans. Spain declared war on Britain in 1779. The army of the Spanish governor of Louisiana, Gálvez, forced British troops from areas along the Gulf of Mexico. This secured the southern frontiers. French nobleman

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**Academic Vocabulary**

- **challenge**: a demanding task  
  *(p. 154)*

- **secure**: guarding from danger or loss  
  *(p. 125)*
Lafayette served as an aide to Washington. Kosciusko and Pulaski of Poland helped the Americans. Steuben of Germany helped train the Continental Army.

With their men away at war, women took over duties of running homes and businesses. The ideals of liberty and freedom caused some women to question their place in society. One was Abigail Adams, wife of John Adams. These ideals also inspired some white Americans to question slavery. Many African Americans fought for the American cause.

During 1778 and 1779, victories by George Rogers Clark in present-day Illinois and Indiana strengthened American positions in the West. At sea, the defeat of the British warship \textit{Serapis} made John Paul Jones a naval hero. In the South, the British took Savannah and Charles Town. Patriots used the \textit{technique} of \textit{guerrilla warfare}, or hit-and-run methods, to loosen British control in these areas.

The Battle of Yorktown on the coast of Virginia was key to winning the war. American and French forces surrounded the British. The French navy blocked British escape by sea. The British surrendered.

Fighting dragged on in other areas for two more years. The war ended with the Treaty of Paris in 1783. The new nation claimed territory from the Atlantic Ocean west to the Mississippi River and from Canada south to Spanish Florida.

Why did the Americans win? They fought on their own land. The British had to bring troops and supplies from far away. The British could \textit{occupy} the cities but could not control the countryside. The Patriots also had help from other nations. Perhaps most important was the determination of the American people.

Principles of freedom and rights from the Declaration of Independence inspired the French rebels in the French Revolution. They also inspired enslaved Africans on the
island of Saint Dominigue. Led by Toussaint-Louverture, they overthrew French rule. Saint Dominigue, now Haiti, became the second nation in the Americas to achieve independence.

3. How did Washington defeat the British at Trenton?
The Articles of Confederation  

For use with textbook pages 178–185

Content Vocabulary

- **popular sovereignty**: government by consent of the governed (page 179)
- **bicameral**: divided into two parts (page 179)
- **confederation**: voluntary association of independent states (page 180)
- **sovereignty**: supreme power (page 180)
- **ratify**: approve (page 181)
- **ordinance**: law (page 181)
- **right of deposit**: permission to put goods ashore for transfer to ocean-going ships (page 185)

Drawing From Experience

Suppose your teacher asked you to create a bulletin board display. When you asked for markers, paper, and glue to create the display, your teacher refused. Would you feel frustrated? Members of America’s first Congress felt this way. The states did not give them the powers they needed to govern adequately.

This section describes America’s first attempt to create a national government. You will learn how the first plan of government resulted in many problems.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the powers Congress had under the Articles of Confederation and the powers it did not have.

Confederation Congress

**Powers of Congress:**

**Powers Denied Congress:**
As soon as the Declaration of Independence was signed, the 13 states began writing their own constitutions.

Even before the Declaration was signed, leaders began preparing new state constitutions. These documents were based on American ideals of individual rights to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." They also included values such as popular sovereignty—government by consent of the governed—and equal justice under the law. New Hampshire was the first colony to have a constitution.

Each state set up a legislature, most of which were bicameral, or divided into two parts or houses. The legislature made the laws. The governor, the chief executive, was elected by the legislature or the citizens. The governor’s job was to carry out the laws. The state judges and courts interpreted the laws.

State legislators were elected. In most states, only white male landowners over 21 could vote. Some states allowed free African American men to vote. Most state constitutions included a bill of rights. They contained ideas about rights and limited government that could be traced back to the Magna Carta and English Bill of Rights.

1. Ideals expressed in both the state constitutions and the Declaration of Independence had roots in what English documents?

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Main Idea Americans realized the necessity of establishing a central, or national, government for the 13 states.

Americans quickly recognized that they needed to form a union of states to do things that the states could not do on their own. For example, they needed a large army under central control to defeat the British.

In 1777, the Continental Congress laid out plans for a new government in a document called the Articles of Confederation. A confederation is a voluntary association of independent states. The states in the Confederation agreed to allow the central government to carry out a limited number of activities. The Articles set up a one-house legislature called the Congress. Each state, no matter what size, had one vote. The Articles specified the activities that Congress could undertake. In all other matters, the states held sovereignty, or supreme power.

Congress had the authority to conduct foreign affairs, maintain armed forces, borrow money, and issue currency. It could not enforce its laws or impose taxes. It could ask the states for money, but could not demand it. Congress had no real power over the states.

All 13 states ratified, or approved, the Articles. Soon, problems with the Articles became clear. Congress could not pass a law unless nine states voted to accept it. An amendment, or change, to the Articles required approval of all 13 states. Even when Congress passed laws, it could not enforce them. The Articles did not provide for courts or a chief executive. A state could ignore a law and Congress could do nothing about it.

By the 1790s, nearly 120,000 non-Indian settlers lived west of the Appalachian Mountains. They hoped to organize as states. The Articles contained no process for adding states. Lacking power to tax or regulate trade, Congress could only raise money by selling land. In 1785, Congress passed an ordinance, or law. It set up a process to divide and sell western lands.
Two years later, Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance. It created the Northwest Territory from the lands north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi River. The lands were further divided into smaller territories. This ordinance set up a model for national expansion. When a territory’s population reached 60,000, its people could apply for statehood. Each new state would enter the Union with the same privileges as other states. The ordinance guaranteed certain rights to the people in the territory. It also prohibited slavery there.

The Ordinance of 1785 and Northwest Ordinance of 1787 created an orderly way to settle the Northwest Territory. Ohio was the first state admitted from the territory. Later, the rest of the territory formed the states of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

2. Under the Articles of Confederation, which held most power: the federal government or state governments?

Trouble on Two Fronts (pages 183–185)

Main Idea: The weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation created problems for the new country.

Congress could not regulate trade. As a result, each state passed laws taxing goods from other states. Unable to collect taxes, Congress and the states printed their own money. People feared the money could not be exchanged for gold or silver. As a result, the value of paper money declined. A $10 bill bought less and less over time. Meanwhile, prices of food and other goods soared.

Costs of fighting the Revolution left Congress deep in debt. It had borrowed from American citizens and foreign
governments. It still owed Revolutionary soldiers for their service. Without the ability to tax, the Confederation could not raise funds to pay its debts. Two attempts to win state approval to allow Congress to tax failed.

In the Treaty of Paris, Britain promised to abandon lands east of the Mississippi. Yet British troops continued to occupy forts in the Great Lakes region. Also, Americans complained that the British were keeping Americans away from profitable British markets. The British refused to discuss the problems. They pointed to America’s failure to pay Loyalists for property taken from them, a promise made in the treaty. Congress had asked the states to pay the Loyalists, but the states had refused.

Spain held Florida and territory west of the Mississippi River. To halt American expansion into its territory, Spain closed the lower Mississippi River to American shipping. Western settlers depended on the river to transport their trade goods. Settlers wanted the right of deposit, or permission to put goods ashore at New Orleans for transfer to ocean-going ships. American diplomats reached an agreement with Spain. The Southern states, however, blocked it because it did not include the right to use the Mississippi River.

States bickered among themselves and often refused to support the central government. Without money or real power over the states, Congress could do little. Few members bothered to attend sessions.

3. Why did the Confederation fail to pay Loyalists for land taken from them?
**Drawing From Experience**

Think about a disagreement you had with someone. Did both of you give up a little of what you wanted to reach an agreement? This is called “compromise.” American leaders compromised on important issues to create the Constitution.

In this section you will learn about the problems and compromises that led to a new national government.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the issues facing delegates to the Constitutional Convention. Describe the compromises they made to resolve them.
Troubles Under the Articles (pages 194–196)

Main Idea The government under the Articles of Confederation faced many problems.

By 1786, many people began to recognize that the Confederation was having problems. In the spring of 1787, delegates from 12 states gathered in Philadelphia to discuss revising the Articles of Confederation. Only Rhode Island decided not to participate.

After the war, the new nation went through a depression, a period when economic activity slowed and unemployment increased. Southern plantations damaged from the fighting produced less rice for export. Britain closed the profitable West Indies to trade with American merchants. The nation had little currency to pay its war debts.

Farmers could not sell their goods. They also could not pay the taxes levied by states to pay off Revolutionary War debts. When farmers could not pay their debts, officials seized their land. Many went to jail. Resentment grew. Farmers wanted the government to print more money and create policies to relieve debtors.

In Massachusetts, angry farmers, led by Daniel Shays, revolted. In 1786, they forced courts to close to stop judges from taking farmers’ lands. In 1787, Shays led farmers to a federal arsenal in Springfield to seize arms stored there. The militia fired warning shots at the rebels. When the farmers did not stop, the militia fired again, killing four of them. Shays’s Rebellion demonstrated that the government might not be strong enough to control unrest.

For many, the American fight for liberty brought into question the practice of slavery. In the South, many whites believed the plantation economy depended on slavery. Slavery existed in the North, but was not a major source of labor there. People began to work for an end to slavery. Quakers organized the first American antislavery society in 1774. Beginning with Pennsylvania in 1780,
several Northern states passed laws that gradually ended slavery. Free African Americans still faced discrimination. They were barred from many public places. Few could vote. Their children attended separate schools. They began to set up their own churches and schools.

Some slaveholders began freeing their slaves after the Revolution. Virginia passed a law that encouraged manumission, the freeing of individual enslaved persons.

Many American leaders believed the nation needed a stronger national government to solve its problems. James Madison and Alexander Hamilton led a movement for change. Hamilton proposed a convention in Philadelphia to discuss trade issues and revisions to the Articles of Confederation. Shays’s Rebellion convinced George Washington of the need for change.

1. Why was Shays’s Rebellion important?

The Constitutional Convention (pages 197–199)

Main Idea National leaders worked to produce a new constitution for the United States.

In 1787, 55 delegates met in Philadelphia. All were white men. Many were well educated. Several leaders stood out, including the highly respected Benjamin Franklin, then over 80, and George Washington. John Adams and Thomas Jefferson did not attend. They were serving as ambassadors in Europe.

Virginians Edmund Randolph and James Madison supported a strong national government. Madison took careful notes that are now the main source of information about the Convention. Often called the Father of the Constitution, Madison wrote the basic plan of government
that the Convention adopted. Gouverneur Morris wrote the final draft.

The delegates chose Washington to preside. Each state would have one vote. A majority vote would decide each issue. The delegates decided to keep sessions secret from the public. This key decision allowed delegates to talk freely.

Edmund Randolph proposed that the delegates create a strong national government rather than revise the Articles of Confederation. He introduced the Virginia Plan, written mostly by Madison. The plan called for a two-house legislature, a chief executive chosen by the legislature, and a court system. The people would elect members to the lower house. The lower house would choose members of the upper house. The number of representatives in both houses would be proportional, or corresponding in size, to the population of each state.

Delegates from small states objected. The plan would give states with large populations more representatives than states with fewer people. They preferred the current system that gave all states equal representation.

William Paterson of New Jersey presented a different plan. The New Jersey Plan was designed to revise the Articles of Confederation rather than form a new government. It kept the Confederation’s one-house legislature with one vote per state. This would preserve equality between large and small states. The plan, however, gave Congress the power to tax and regulate trade. Congress would elect a weak executive branch.

2. Why did delegates from small states prefer the New Jersey Plan?

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Compromise Wins Out (pages 199–201)

Main Idea The Constitutional Convention broke the deadlock over the form the new government would take.

The delegates decided to work toward a new government based on the Virginia Plan rather than revise the Articles of Confederation. They had to resolve several key issues. How would the number of representatives from each state be determined? For representation based on population, would enslaved people count as part of the population? Would slavery be allowed?

A compromise is an agreement between two or more sides in which each side gives up some of what it wants. Roger Sherman proposed a plan known as the Great Compromise. According to Sherman’s plan, the legislature would have two houses. Representation in the House of Representatives would be based on state population. In the Senate, each state would have two members.

Southern states wanted to count slaves in the population. This would give them more representatives. Northern states objected because enslaved people were legally considered property. Some argued that as property, slaves should be counted for taxation but not representation. The delegates agreed to the Three-Fifths Compromise. Each enslaved person would count as three-fifths of a free person for both taxation and representation. This meant that five enslaved persons would equal three free persons.

Northern states wanted to ban slavery nationwide. Southern states considered slavery necessary to their economy. The delegates reached another compromise. Congress could not interfere with the slave trade until 1808. Then it could choose to limit it.

George Mason proposed a bill of rights to protect against abuses of government. His proposal was defeated. Most delegates believed the Constitution’s careful listing of government powers provided adequate protection.
All but three delegates signed the document. The draft then went to the states for approval. The Articles of Confederation had required unanimous approval to make changes. The delegates decided instead that the new government would take effect when 9 of 13 states approved the new Constitution.

3. Why did some Northern delegates argue that enslaved people should be counted for taxation but not representation?
Drawing From Experience
What duties do you perform for your family? Do you take out the trash? Wash dishes? Mow the lawn?
The Constitution divides the duties of government among three branches to accomplish the work of running the nation.

In this section, you will learn about the Constitution—its roots, its plan of government, and the debate over its approval.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram on the next page to help you take notes. Identify the branches of the federal government and the articles in the Constitution that establish them. Describe the duties or powers of each branch.

Content Vocabulary

**Enlightenment:** a movement of the 1700s that promoted knowledge, reason, and science as the means to improve society (page 203)

**Federalism:** sharing power between the federal and state governments (page 204)

**Article:** part of a document (page 204)

**Legislative Branch:** lawmaking branch of government (page 204)

**Executive Branch:** branch of government, headed by the president, that carries out the nation’s laws (page 205)

**Judicial Branch:** branch of government, including the federal court system, that interprets the nation’s laws (page 205)

**Checks and Balances:** system through which the three branches of government limit the others so that no single branch can dominate the government (page 205)

**Ratify:** approve (page 206)

**Federalist:** supporter of the new Constitution (page 206)

**Antifederalist:** opponent of the new Constitution (page 206)
Ideas and thinkers of the past influenced the creation of the United States Constitution. Roots of the Constitution (page 203)

Main Idea Ideas and thinkers of the past influenced the creation of the United States Constitution.

Roots of the Constitution can be traced back to other civilizations, including ancient Greece. Two important English documents served as models for Americans: the Magna Carta (1215) and the English Bill of Rights (1689). The Magna Carta set limits on the power of the monarch. Parliament controlled the government’s funds, giving it some control over the king’s actions. Following this model, colonial assemblies controlled the colony’s funds. This gave them some control over colonial governors. Many Americans believed the Constitution needed a bill of rights like the English Bill of Rights.

Many ideas for the Constitution came from thinkers of the Enlightenment. This movement of the 1700s promoted knowledge, reason, and science as the means to improve society. English philosopher John Locke believed that all people have natural rights, including the rights to life, liberty, and property. Many Americans believed that natural rights included those defined in the Magna Carta and English Bill of Rights. The Framers of the Constitution also followed the ideas of the French writer

Academic Vocabulary

promote: to encourage or contribute to the growth of an idea (p. 203)
Montesquieu when they specified and divided the powers of government.

1. What power gave the British Parliament a way to limit the king’s actions?

The Federal System (pages 204–205)

Main Idea: The Constitution outlines the responsibilities and limits of the three branches of government.

The Constitution created a system of government based on federalism, or sharing power between the federal, or national, and state governments. The states gave up some of the powers they had under the Articles of Confederation. The federal government gained broad powers to tax, regulate trade, control the currency, raise an army, and declare war. It could pass laws that were “necessary and proper” to carry out its duties. The states could still pass laws and regulate trade within their borders. They could set up local governments, schools, and other institutions for their citizens.

The Constitution and laws of Congress were to be the “supreme law of the land.” State laws and actions could not go against the Constitution. Federal courts would settle disputes between the states and the federal government based on the Constitution.

The Framers divided the federal government into three branches: legislative, executive, and judicial. The first three articles, or parts, of the Constitution describe the powers of each branch.

Article I establishes Congress, the legislative branch, or lawmaking branch, of the government. The House of Representatives and Senate make up the Congress. Congress has the power to collect taxes, coin money, regulate
trade, declare war, and raise armies. It can make all laws needed to carry out these responsibilities.

Experience with the British king made some delegates wary of establishing a powerful executive or ruler. Others argued that a strong executive was needed to serve as a check, or limit, on Congress. Article II establishes the **executive branch** to carry out the laws. The president serves as commander in chief of the armed forces and conducts relations with other countries.

Article III sets up the **judicial branch**, or court system. The Supreme Court and lower federal courts rule on cases involving the Constitution, laws passed by Congress, and disputes between states.

To keep any one branch from dominating the others, the Framers created a system of **checks and balances**. In this system, each branch has roles that check, or limit, the power of the others.

Congress and the president have a number of checks on one another. Both houses of Congress must pass a bill for it to become law. The president can check Congress by vetoing, or rejecting, a bill. Congress can check the president by overriding, or voting down, the veto. Two-thirds of both houses must vote for the bill to override a veto.

The system also applies to the judicial branch. The president appoints Supreme Court justices. The Senate must approve those appointments. The Supreme Court can check Congress and the president by deciding whether particular laws or presidential actions violate the Constitution.

2. According to the Constitution, what is the supreme law of the land?
Americans reacted to the proposed Constitution in different ways. Nine states had to ratify, or approve, the Constitution to put it into effect. State legislatures held ratifying conventions to consider the document. People who supported ratification were called Federalists. Among the Federalist leaders were James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay. They wrote a series of essays that explained and defended the Constitution. The essays appeared in popular newspapers. Called the Federalist Papers, the essays were later published as a book.

Antifederalists opposed ratification. Many believed that no government could be trusted to protect individual freedoms. Several states refused to ratify the Constitution without a bill of rights.

The debate between Federalists and Antifederalists centered on their different fears. Federalists feared disorder, like Shays’s Rebellion, without a strong central government. Antifederalists feared government oppression more than disorder.

To gain approval, a promise was made to add a bill of rights. Many small states quickly ratified the Constitution. They were happy with equal representation in the Senate. The ninth state ratified in 1788. However, the two largest states—New York and Virginia—held out. Without their support, the future looked bleak for the new government. Washington, Madison, and Randolph helped swing the vote in Virginia. Hamilton helped win approval in New York. The last state, Rhode Island, ratified in 1790. The Bill of Rights was added in 1791.

3. Why do you think the Federalist Papers were important?
Reading Essentials and Study Guide 4-1

Goals of the Constitution  For use with textbook pages 218–225

Content Vocabulary

Preamble: introduction to the Constitution (page 219)
popular sovereignty: authority of the people (page 222)
republicanism: system in which the people choose their representatives in government (page 222)
federalism: system in which the power to govern is shared between the national government and the states (page 222)
enumerated powers: powers belonging only to the federal government (page 222)
reserved powers: powers retained by state governments (page 222)
concurrent powers: powers shared by the state and federal governments (page 222)
amendment: a change to the Constitution (page 223)
implied powers: powers not specifically defined in the Constitution (page 224)
judicial review: right of the Supreme Court to determine whether a law violates the Constitution (page 225)

Drawing From Experience

Do you have any idea of how the world will change in the next 50 or 100 years? Fifty years ago, few people realized the impact that the Internet would have on everyday life, or that it would even exist. The Framers realized that the Constitution had to be adjustable to meet changing needs.

This section describes the goals and principles of the Constitution. You will also learn how the Framers made the Constitution a “living” document.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about the three types of powers under the system of federalism.

US8.2 Students analyze the political principles underlying the U.S. Constitution and compare the enumerated and implied powers of the federal government.
US8.3 Students understand the foundation of the American political system and the ways in which citizens participate in it.
Focuses on: US8.2.2, US8.2.6, US8.2.7, US8.3.3
The Preamble to the Constitution describes six goals for the United States government.

Gouverneur Morris began the **Preamble**, or introduction, to the Constitution with “We the People.” These words reflect the basic principle of the new government—the right of the people to govern themselves. The Preamble lists six goals for the United States government:

1. To “form a more perfect Union”—The Framers believed the states needed to agree to **function** as a single country and **cooperate** on major issues.

2. To “establish Justice”—The government should treat each citizen equally. The Constitution establishes a national court system to protect people’s rights.

3. To “insure domestic Tranquility”—The Constitution provides a strong central government to keep peace among the people.

4. To “provide for the common defence [defense]”—The federal government has the power to maintain armed forces to protect the country.

5. To “promote the general Welfare”—The government can promote well-being by keeping order, protecting liberties, regulating commerce and bankruptcies, and granting patents to promote science and technology.
6. To “secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity”—Basic rights may not be taken away from Americans now or from future generations (posterity).

1. What basic principle does the Preamble’s words “We the People” reflect?

Major Principles (pages 221–223)

Main Idea The Constitution is based on seven major principles.

Seven basic principles form the foundation of the Constitution:

1. **Popular sovereignty**, or authority of the people—Government derives its power from the consent of the governed.

2. **Republicanism**, or representative government—The people are the source of government power. They choose their representatives in government.

3. Limited government, or government that is not all-powerful—Article I specifies the powers the government has and those it does not have. The Bill of Rights limits government by guaranteeing certain rights to the people. Limited government is the “rule of law”—no people or groups are above the law.

4. **Federalism**, or a system in which the power to govern is shared between the national government and the states—Enumerated powers belong only to the federal government. These include the power to coin money, regulate interstate and foreign trade, and maintain armed forces. Reserved powers are powers kept by the states. They include the power to establish schools
and regulate trade within the state. The Tenth Amendment grants reserved powers by stating that all powers not specifically given to the federal government belong to the states. **Concurrent powers** are powers shared by the state and federal governments. They include the power to tax, borrow money, and run courts. When conflicts arise between state and federal laws, the Constitution designates the Constitution to be "the supreme Law of the Land."

5. Separation of powers, or the division of power among the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government—The legislative branch, Congress, makes the laws. The executive branch, headed by the president, carries out the laws. The judicial branch, made up of the Supreme Court and other federal courts, interprets and applies the laws.

6. Checks and balances, a system in which each branch of government can check, or limit, the power of the other branches—For example, the president can veto, or reject, a law passed by Congress. Congress can vote to override, or reverse, the veto. The Supreme Court can declare that a law or policy goes against the Constitution. This power serves as a check on Congress and the president. The president’s power to appoint judges and the Senate’s power to approve them serve as checks on the judicial branch. Court decisions can be overruled by amending the Constitution or changing the law so that it no longer conflicts with the Constitution.

7. Individual rights—Basic liberties and rights are protected by the Bill of Rights—the first 10 **amendments**, or changes to the Constitution. They include freedom of speech, the press, assembly, and religion. The next 17 amendments add rights and adjust some parts of the Constitution. Among them are amendments that abolish slavery, guarantee the right to vote to all citizens, and authorize an income tax.
2. Suppose the president vetoes a law. In this case, which branch of government is applying a check? Which branch is being checked?


A Living Constitution (pages 224–225)

Main Idea The Framers wrote the Constitution so that it could be altered or adapted to meet changing needs.

The Constitution still works today because it is flexible. It allows the government to deal with matters the Framers could never have anticipated. An amendment process allows the document to be changed or additions to be made.

An amendment may be proposed in two ways: (1) Two-thirds of both houses of Congress vote for the proposal or (2) two-thirds of the state legislatures ask Congress to call a constitutional convention. An amendment can be ratified by winning approval of (1) three-fourths of the state legislatures or (2) three-fourths of special state constitutional conventions. The Framers made the amendment process difficult on purpose. They wanted to discourage minor or frequent changes.

Two clauses in Article I, Section 8 give Congress flexibility to meet changing conditions. The “elastic clause” allows Congress to “make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper” to execute the powers of government. This passage gives Congress implied powers, or powers not specifically defined in the Constitution. The “commerce clause” gives Congress the power to “regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several states.” Congress has used this clause to expand its powers into areas such as radio and television.

Academic Vocabulary

anticipate: to look forward to (p. 224)
The Constitution describes the powers of the president in general terms. This has allowed the executive branch to extend its powers as needed.

Implied powers have also expanded the role of the judicial branch. In the case *Marbury v. Madison*, the Supreme Court struck down an act of Congress. This ruling established the principle of **judicial review**, or the power of the Court to determine whether a law violates the Constitution.

3. Is the amendment process easy or difficult? Why did the Framers make it this way?

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The Federal Government

For use with textbook pages 226–233

Content Vocabulary

appropriate: set aside (page 227)
impeach: bring formal charges against (page 227)
constituent: a person that a member of Congress represents from the member’s home state or district (page 227)

Drawing From Experience

Think about the many roles you play. You are a family member, a student, and perhaps a church member or member of a team or club. Each role involves different activities and responsibilities. The president plays many roles as well in performing the tasks of the nation’s leader.

In this section you will learn about the structure and duties of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the roles the president plays and the activities involved in each role.

Role:
Activities:

Role:
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President
The Legislative Branch (pages 227–228)

Main Idea The legislative branch is responsible for making the nation’s laws.

Congress, the legislative branch, is composed of the House of Representatives and the Senate. Today, the House of Representatives has 435 voting members and five nonvoting delegates. A state’s population determines its number of representatives. Representatives must be at least 25 years old. They serve two-year terms.

The Senate consists of 100 senators, 2 from each state. Senators must be at least 30 years old. They serve six-year terms. Terms are staggered so that one-third of the Senate seats come up for election every two years.

Congress has two main jobs: to make the nation’s laws and to control government spending. The government can spend only the money that Congress appropriates, or sets aside. All tax and spending bills must start in the House of Representatives. They must be approved by both houses and signed by the president.

Congress also monitors the executive branch. The House of Representatives can impeach, or bring formal charges against, any official it suspects of wrongdoing. The Senate then acts as a court and tries the official. If found guilty, the official may be removed from office.

Only the Senate can ratify treaties and confirm presidential appointments. All members of Congress are responsible to their constituents, the people they represent from their home states and districts. Senators and representatives look out for their states’ interests as well as those of the nation.

Both houses form committees to study the thousands of bills introduced each year. Standing committees are permanent committees in both houses that specialize in a certain topic, such as agriculture or commerce. Each house sometimes forms temporary select committees to deal with special issues. Members from both houses may form a joint committee to study an issue. If the House and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Vocabulary</th>
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<td>monitor: to observe for a special purpose (p. 227)</td>
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Senate pass different versions of the same bill, they will form a type of joint committee called a conference committee to work out their differences.

When a committee receives a bill, it can immediately reject it, set it aside without reviewing it, or prepare it for consideration by the full House or Senate. In preparing a bill, committees hold public hearings at which citizens can argue for or against the bill. If the committee approves the bill, it goes to the full Senate or House for debate. After debate, the bill may be passed, rejected, or returned to the committee for changes.

If both houses pass a bill, it goes to the president. If the president signs the bill, it becomes law. If the president vetoes the bill, it will not become law unless Congress overrides the veto by a vote of two-thirds of members in each house.

1. How are standing committees different from joint committees?

The Executive Branch (pages 229–230)

Main Idea The executive branch carries out the laws made by the legislative branch.

The executive branch is composed of the president, vice president, and many offices, departments, and agencies. The job of the executive branch is to carry out the laws passed by Congress.

The president plays several roles: chief executive, chief diplomat, commander in chief, chief of state, and legislative leader. As chief executive, the president carries out the laws with the help of departments and agencies. As chief diplomat, the president directs foreign policy,
appoints ambassadors, and negotiates treaties. Treaties must be approved by a two-thirds vote of the Senate.

As commander in chief of the armed forces, the president can intervene or offer assistance in crisis situations at home and around the world. The president can send troops, but cannot declare war. Only Congress has that power. For troops to remain in an area longer than 60 days, Congress must approve or declare war.

As chief of state, the president serves as a representative of all Americans in activities such as visiting foreign nations and bestowing honors on Americans. As legislative leader, the president proposes laws and works for their passage. The president presents goals for legislation in the annual State of the Union address.

The individuals and agencies of the Executive Office of the President (EOP) assist the president directly. They gather information and offer advice.

Executive departments have specific areas of responsibility. For example, the Department of State handles foreign policy. The Department of the Interior manages public lands and natural resources. The department heads, or secretaries, form the president’s cabinet, or close advisers.

Independent agencies manage federal programs in fields such as banking, communications, and trade. Government corporations are government agencies that are run like private businesses. One example is the United States Postal Service.

2. Receiving foreign ambassadors is an example of what role of the president?

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The Judicial Branch (pages 230–233)

Main Idea The Supreme Court and a number of lesser courts make up the judicial branch.

District courts form the lowest level of the federal court system. They handle criminal and civil cases related to federal, rather than state, offenses. Criminal cases include kidnapping and federal tax evasion. Civil cases involve claims against the federal government or issues of constitutional rights, such as free speech.

The next level of federal courts, the appeals courts, review district court decisions when asked by the losing side. If an appeals court disagrees with the district court’s verdict, it can either overturn the verdict or order a retrial.

The Supreme Court tops the American legal system. It is led by a chief justice. Congress sets the number of justices and can change it. Since 1869, the number has been nine. The Constitution does not describe the duties of the justices. Their duties developed over time. The justices decide which cases to hear from among the thousands appealed to the Court each year. The court decides a case, then prepares the Court’s opinion, or explanation of the decision.

The Supreme Court is both a political and legal institution. As a legal institution, it interprets laws and settles disputes. As a political institution, its decisions often determine national policy. For example, when the Court rules that a law must apply to men and women equally, it is setting policy.

Judicial review is the Supreme Court’s power to strike down a law or presidential policy as unconstitutional. The Court first assumed this power under Chief Justice John Marshall in the case Marbury v. Madison. In the case Ex parte Milligan, the Court ruled that President Lincoln’s suspension of certain civil rights during the Civil War was unconstitutional.
Judicial review applies to state laws and actions as well. At one time, schools were segregated. Black students and white students attended different schools. In the 1896 case *Plessy v. Ferguson*, the Court ruled that segregation was constitutional as long as the facilities were equal for both races. Later, the parents of a black student, Linda Brown, sued the Topeka school board. They argued that black children were not getting the same quality of education as white children. In the 1954 case *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*, the Court ruled that school segregation was unconstitutional. This ruling overturned the *Plessy* decision and began the process of ending segregated schools in the United States.

3. Why is the case *Marbury v. Madison* important?
Citizens’ Rights and Responsibilities

For use with textbook pages 234–239

Drawing From Experience

Suppose the people of your town did not agree to obey the laws. What do you think would happen? All American citizens have a duty to obey the laws. Laws make it possible for people in a society to live together peacefully.

In this section you will learn about your rights as well as your duties and responsibilities as an American citizen.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Identify the basic freedoms guaranteed by the First Amendment.

Content Vocabulary

due process of law: the idea that government must follow procedures established by law and guaranteed in the Constitution, and that all people must be treated according to these principles (page 235)
citizen: person who owes loyalty to and is entitled to the protection of a state or nation (page 236)
naturalization: process through which a person of foreign birth becomes a U.S. citizen (page 236)
Rights of American Citizens

Main Idea Americans have certain rights that are protected in the Constitution.

The rights of Americans fall into three main categories: the right to protection from unfair actions of government, the right to equal treatment under the law, and the right to basic freedoms.

The Fifth Amendment guarantees due process of law. This means government must follow procedures established by law and guaranteed in the Constitution. It must treat all people according to these principles.

The Fourteenth Amendment guarantees “equal protection under the law.” The law must treat all Americans the same, regardless of race or beliefs.

The basic freedoms involve the liberties found in the First Amendment: freedom of speech, religion, the press, and assembly, and the right to petition the government. This amendment allows people to criticize the government, in speech or in the press, without fear of
punishment. It prohibits the government from endorsing a religion or preventing citizens from practicing a religion. The Ninth Amendment states that citizens' rights are not limited to those listed in the Constitution. Voting and expressing your opinion to your representatives help uphold your rights.

Rights have limits. The government may make laws to protect health, safety, security, and moral standards. Also, in exercising their rights, people may not interfere with the rights of others. Restrictions on rights must be reasonable and apply to everyone equally.

1. What is the meaning of the phrase “equal protection under the law”?

Citizen Participation (pages 236–239)

A citizen is a person who owes loyalty to and is entitled to the protection of a state or nation. Citizenship is granted to people born in the United States and to people born outside the United States if one parent is a citizen.

A foreign-born person can become a citizen through the naturalization process. Applicants must be at least 18. They must have been admitted lawfully for permanent residence and have lived in the United States for five years. They must understand English and the history and principles of the United States government. Applicants must give up foreign allegiance and promise to obey the Constitution and laws of the United States.

As a citizen, you have both duties and responsibilities. Duties are things the law requires you to do. Responsibilities are things you should do.
All Americans have a duty to obey the law. Laws serve three functions. They help keep order. They protect the health, safety, and property of all citizens. They make it possible for people to live together peacefully.

Americans have a duty to pay taxes. The government uses tax money to provide services, such as national defense and construction of roads and bridges.

Citizens have a duty to defend the nation. All males aged 18 or older must register with the government in case they are needed for military service.

Citizens have a duty to serve on a jury, if called. A citizen becomes eligible for jury duty at age 18. As jurors, citizens carry out the constitutional right to a speedy and fair trial by a jury of one’s peers (equals).

The responsibilities of citizens are not as clear-cut. They are voluntary, so you would not face punishment if you failed to fulfill them. Our society’s quality of life, however, would diminish if citizens did not carry out their responsibilities.

You have a responsibility to know what the government is doing and to voice your opinion when you feel strongly. You can express your views to your representative through letters, phone calls, and petitions. Government officials usually try to do what most people want.

You are responsible for understanding your rights and exercising them when necessary. Other responsibilities include respecting diversity, accepting responsibility for your actions, supporting your family, and volunteering in your community.

Perhaps your most important responsibility is to vote when you reach age 18. By voting, you participate in government and guide its direction.

You can also participate by belonging or contributing to a special interest group. Interest groups represent various causes. For example, labor organizations promote economic interests. The Sierra Club supports laws to protect the environment. MADD works to prevent drunk driving. People from special interest groups often express
their views at public hearings held by the committees of Congress.

Another way to participate is to join a political party. Political parties choose candidates for office. They present voters with views on issues and keep them informed on how officials are performing in office. As a party member, you may volunteer during campaigns, but your only duty is to vote.

You have the responsibility to respect the rights of others, including those with whom you disagree. You are responsible for respecting and accepting others regardless of race, religion, beliefs, and other differences.

2. Name four duties that you have as an American citizen.

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The First President

For use with textbook pages 278–284

Drawing From Experience

Think about a school assignment unlike any you have done before. Did you plan a way to go about completing it? Did you use the same process the next time you had a similar assignment? The first president and Congress established a structure and processes for the new government and future governments to follow.

In this section you will learn about the structure of government and economic decisions under President George Washington.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about Alexander Hamilton’s economic proposals and their results.

Content Vocabulary

precedent: tradition (page 279)
cabinet: group of department heads who advise the president (page 280)
national debt: amount the nation’s government owes (page 281)
bond: paper note promising to repay money in a certain length of time (page 281)
speculator: person who takes risks with his or her money to make larger profit (page 282)
unconstitutional: inconsistent with the Constitution (page 282)
tariff: tax on imports (page 282)
President Washington (pages 279–281)

Main Idea President Washington and the new Congress established the departments in the executive branch, set up the nation’s court system, and added the Bill of Rights to the Constitution.

In 1789, George Washington took office as the first president in New York City, then the nation’s capital. John Adams became vice president. Many Americans were concerned that a president might try to become king. They trusted Washington. After the war, he willingly gave up military power.

As the first president, any precedents, or traditions, Washington set would shape the nation’s future. One precedent he set was the way people would address the president. He ultimately chose to be called “Mr. President” instead of “His Highness the President.”

Washington and the new Congress needed to make many decisions about the structure of the government. The Constitution gave Congress power to establish executive departments. It did not say whether the department heads should report to the president or to Congress. Congress created the State Department to handle foreign relations, the Treasury Department to oversee financial
matters, and the War Department to provide national defense. It also established the offices of attorney general and postmaster general.

Washington chose the department heads: Thomas Jefferson as secretary of state, Alexander Hamilton as secretary of the treasury, and Henry Knox as secretary of war. He selected Edmund Randolph as attorney general to handle legal affairs. Together, these people became his cabinet, or advisers.

The Constitution stated that the Senate must approve many presidential appointments. It did not say whether the president could dismiss someone he appointed and that the Senate had confirmed. In the Senate vote, Adams broke the tie by voting to allow the president to dismiss people without Senate approval. This helped establish the president's authority over the executive branch.

The Constitution left the details of the court system up to Congress. Congress passed the Judiciary Act of 1789. It established the Supreme Court, district courts, and courts of appeal. The Supreme Court would be the final authority. Washington appointed John Jay as Supreme Court chief justice.

Their experience with Britain caused many Americans to fear a strong central government. Some states supported the Constitution on the condition that a bill of rights would be added. In 1791, the states ratified 10 amendments to the Constitution. These became the Bill of Rights. Government may not interfere with freedom of speech, press, or religion. It must provide a fair and speedy trial for people accused of a crime. The Tenth Amendment states that powers not specifically given to the federal government belong to the states or to the people.

1. How did Washington choose to be addressed as president? Why was this choice important?

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Academic Vocabulary

**confirm:** to support or agree to (p. 280)
Strengthening the Economy (pages 281–284)

Main Idea  Alexander Hamilton, the secretary of the treasury under Washington, worked to fix financial problems and strengthen the economy.

The national debt—the amount the national government owes—was growing. The Confederation government had borrowed millions of dollars from France and the Netherlands, and from American citizens. Hamilton proposed that the federal government pay off all the debts for the states.

Congress agreed to pay the money owed to other countries. The plan to repay American citizens brought strong protests. To borrow money, the government had issued bonds—paper notes promising to repay the money in a certain length of time. Many ordinary citizens who bought the bonds had already sold them for less than their value. The new owners were speculators—people who take risks with their money to make a larger profit. The original bond owners felt betrayed by Hamilton’s plan. They had lost money on the bonds they bought to support the war effort. Instead, speculators would profit.

Southern states also objected. They had less debt than the North. They would have to pay more than their share under Hamilton’s plan. Hamilton worked out a compromise. Southern leaders agreed to pay off state debts. In return, the nation’s capital moved to a new district in the South—Washington, D.C.

Hamilton asked Congress to create a national bank. The bank could hold the government’s money and make loans to the government and businesses. Madison and Jefferson opposed the idea. They believed it would give the wealthy too much power. They charged that the bank was unconstitutional, or inconsistent with the Constitution. The bill passed, creating the Bank of the United States.

Hamilton believed that development of manufacturing would make the economy stronger. He proposed a tariff, or tax on imports. The tariff would raise revenue for the new government. It would also protect American
industry from foreign competition. The South objected because they had little industry to protect. Congress rejected the protective tariff but passed low tariffs to raise money. By the 1790s, 90 percent of the government’s revenue came from tariffs.

Hamilton asked Congress to create national taxes. The government needed more money to operate and to pay interest on the national debt. Congress approved several taxes, including one on whiskey made in the United States.

Jefferson and Madison led strong opposition to Hamilton’s economic program. His policies favored merchants, bankers, and speculators. They spoke for farmers and laborers. Hamilton’s policies increased the power of the federal government. Jefferson and Madison wanted to limit it.

2. Why did Southern states object to Hamilton’s plan to pay off the national debt?

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**Early Challenges**  For use with textbook pages 285–289

**Content Vocabulary**

- **neutrality:** refusing to take sides in a conflict (page 288)
- **impressment:** forcing people into military service (page 288)

**Drawing From Experience**

Did you ever get involved in a disagreement among your friends, and later wish you had stayed out of it? President Washington’s warnings against getting involved in the affairs of other nations influenced American policy for more than 100 years.

In this section you will learn how President Washington dealt with tax protests and Native American resistance in the West as well as foreign conflicts.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about battles with Native Americans in the Northwest Territory and their results.

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**Battle Location**

- United States Commander
- Native American Commander

**Result**
The Whiskey Rebellion (page 286)

Main Idea Hamilton’s taxes led to rebellion in western Pennsylvania and changed the way the government handled protestors.

Before canals and railroads, transporting goods from Western farms to Eastern markets was very expensive. Farmers could earn more from whiskey than from grain, so they distilled their grain into whiskey before transporting it. Western farmers also used whiskey in their barter system. They had little cash, so they exchanged whiskey for other goods they needed.

In 1791, Congress placed a tax on whiskey to help pay the national debt. Protests were peaceful until officials stepped up efforts to collect the tax. In 1794, a large mob of farmers attacked tax collectors. This armed protest, called the Whiskey Rebellion, alarmed government leaders. Unlike the time of Shays’s Rebellion, however, the government now had the power to impose taxes and enforce them. President Washington sent a large army, but the rebels had already disbanded. His action, though, sent a message. The government would use force to maintain order. Citizens must use constitutional means to change a law, such as by proposing a new law or using the courts.

1. Why did Western farmers make whiskey rather than sell their grain in Eastern markets?

Struggle Over the West (page 287)

Main Idea The new government faced difficult problems in the West.

Native Americans in the Northwest Territory believed the United States had no authority over them. Encouraged by the British and Spanish, Native Americans fought...
settlers to defend their lands. Washington sent an army commanded by Arthur St. Clair to restore order. Forces of Little Turtle, chief of the Miami people, defeated St. Clair’s forces in a battle by the Wabash River.

The Native Americans demanded that all settlers leave the land north of the Ohio River. At the Battle of Fallen Timbers (near present-day Toledo, Ohio), troops under Anthony Wayne defeated the warriors of Shawnee chief Blue Jacket. The defeat crushed resistance in the territory. The Native Americans surrendered most of their land in present-day Ohio in the Treaty of Greenville (1795).

2. What was the result of the Treaty of Greenville?

Problems With Europe (pages 288–289)

Main Idea President Washington wanted the nation to remain neutral in foreign conflicts.

The French Revolution began in 1789, shortly after Washington took office. At first, Americans cheered. The struggle seemed to reflect ideals of the American Revolution. Opinion divided, however, when French leaders executed the king and queen and thousands of French citizens.

When Britain and France went to war in 1793, Washington wanted to maintain neutrality—not take sides in the conflict. The French tried to recruit American volunteers to attack British ships. Washington issued a Proclamation of Neutrality. It stated that American citizens may not fight in the war and British and French warships may not enter American ports.

French ships, some carrying American recruits, seized British ships and cargoes. Outraged, the British began capturing American ships that traded with the French.
The British also practiced impressment. They stopped American merchant ships and forced their crews into the British navy. These attacks pushed the nation close to war.

Washington sent John Jay to try to find a peaceful solution. In Jay’s Treaty, the British agreed to abandon their forts on American land, pay for ships they had seized, and allow Americans some trade with British colonies in the Caribbean. Few Americans approved of the treaty. It did not deal with impressment or British interference with American trade. It did, however, end the crisis. After fierce debate, the Senate approved it.

Spanish leaders feared that the treaty might lead the British and Americans to join forces to seize Spanish land in North America. Washington sent Thomas Pinckney to negotiate. In Pinckney’s Treaty, Spain agreed to allow Americans free navigation on the Mississippi River and the right to trade at New Orleans.

After serving two four-year terms, Washington announced that he would not seek a third term. Later presidents followed this precedent to serve no more than two terms.

Divisions in the nation troubled Washington. He viewed the growth of political parties as a great danger. In his “Farewell Address,” Washington attacked the evils of political parties. He also warned citizens to avoid involvement in foreign affairs. His words influenced American foreign policy for more than 100 years.

3. Why did many Americans find fault with Jay’s Treaty?

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The First Political Parties  For use with textbook pages 290–297

Drawing From Experience

Do some people you know just seem to view things differently than you do? Do you tend to take opposing sides in disagreements? Washington’s close advisers, Hamilton and Jefferson, often took opposing sides on issues.

In this section you will learn how two political parties emerged from the differing views of Hamilton and Jefferson. You will also learn how the parties clashed during the presidency of John Adams.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Describe the differences between the two political parties.

Content Vocabulary

- **partisan**: favoring one side of an issue (page 291)
- **implied powers**: powers suggested but not directly stated in the Constitution (page 292)
- **caucus**: meeting of members of a political party (page 293)
- **alien**: immigrant who is not a citizen but is living in the nation (page 295)
- **sedition**: activities aimed at weakening established government (page 295)
- **nullify**: legally overturn (page 296)
- **states’ rights**: limiting the federal government to those powers clearly assigned to it by the Constitution and reserving to the states all other powers not expressly forbidden to them (page 296)
Americans began to take opposing sides on issues by 1796, and as a result, two political parties emerged. In Washington’s cabinet, Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton often took opposing sides. They were partisan—favoring one side of an issue. Washington usually supported Hamilton’s views.

As public opinion divided, two distinct political parties emerged. People who supported policies of the Washington administration became known as Federalists. They believed in a strong federal government. They admired Britain and distrusted France. Federalist policies usually favored banking and business. Strong Federalist support came from the Northeast and from wealthy Southern planters.

Jefferson and Madison organized people who disagreed with Hamilton. Their party was called the Republicans, or the Democratic-Republicans. Republicans

### Academic Vocabulary

**distinct:** clearly different from one another (p. 291)
wanted to limit government to safeguard individual liberties. Republicans supported France and opposed pro-British policies. Small farmers and city workers, especially in the Middle Atlantic states and the South, favored the Republicans.

Federalists and Republicans differed greatly in their interpretation of the Constitution. The Constitution granted the federal government implied powers, or powers that were suggested but not directly stated in the Constitution. Hamilton interpreted implied powers broadly. He believed they allowed the federal government to do whatever it needed to do to carry out its duties. He used this interpretation to justify a national bank. Creating a national bank would clearly help Congress carry out its duties to regulate trade and issue money. Jefferson and Madison interpreted the Constitution more strictly. They believed implied powers meant only those powers that are “absolutely necessary” for Congress to carry out its duties.

The two parties disagreed on the role ordinary citizens should play in government. Federalists believed that the public should not become too involved in politics. People should elect honest, educated men who owned property to represent them and protect their rights. In contrast, Republicans feared a strong central government controlled by a few people. They believed that liberty depended on the participation of ordinary people in their government.

The Federalists and Republicans held meetings called caucuses to choose their party’s candidates for the election of 1796. The Federalists chose John Adams for president and Charles Pinckney for vice president. The Republicans selected Jefferson for president and Aaron Burr for vice president. Adams won with 71 electoral votes. Jefferson came in second with 68. At that time, the Constitution stated that the person with the second-highest number of electoral votes would become vice president. Jefferson became vice president. The new administration had a Federalist president and a Republican vice president.
1. Thomas Jefferson ran for president in 1796. Why did he become vice president?

President John Adams (pages 293–297)

Main Idea) John Adams dealt with many things in office, including a dispute with France, which led to a group of measures called the Alien and Sedition Acts.

John Adams served his country as an active patriot, as an ambassador to France and Great Britain, and as vice president for two terms under Washington.

As president, Adams faced a crisis. France and Britain were at war. The French viewed Jay’s Treaty as an American attempt to aid the British against them. In response, the French seized American ships carrying cargo to Britain. Adams sent a delegation to discuss the problem. French foreign minister Charles de Talleyrand refused to talk to them. Instead, he sent three agents. The agents demanded a bribe and a loan for France from the Americans. The Americans refused. Adams referred to the agents as X, Y, and Z. The incident became known as the XYZ affair.

Congress prepared for war. It set up the Navy Department and strengthened the army. American and French naval vessels fought many times between 1798 and 1800. The two sides negotiated a peace agreement in 1800, although war had never been formally declared.

Many Europeans who came to the United States in the 1790s supported the ideals of the French Revolution. Americans were suspicious of these aliens—immigrants who were not citizens but were living in the nation. They wondered if the immigrants would side with France if the two nations went to war. Because of their anti-British feelings, many of these immigrants were Republicans.

Many Federalists thought these laws would weaken the Republican Party. Instead, they hurt the Federalists. The laws offended new immigrants. Many newspaper editors were jailed under the Sedition Act, often for criticizing the government. They were hailed as heroes for their support of freedom of the press. One editor who was jailed was accompanied by a long parade of supporters following his release from jail.

To some Americans, these laws seemed an example of a strong central government abusing its power. Republicans looked to the states to preserve people’s liberties. Virginia and Kentucky passed protest documents written by Madison and Jefferson. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions claimed the Alien and Sedition Acts violated the Constitution. The Kentucky Resolutions went further. They suggested that a state could nullify, or legally overturn, federal laws if the state believed the government exceeded its powers under the Constitution.

The resolutions supported the principle of states’ rights—limiting the federal government to those powers clearly assigned to it by the Constitution and reserving to the states all other powers not expressly forbidden to them. In other words, the state had a right to protect its citizens from the misuse of federal power. Federalists argued that if a state could refuse to obey any federal law, the federal government would have no power, and the Union would break up.

Some Federalists believed that, if the war with France continued, Adams would have a better chance to win reelection in 1800. Those Federalists urged Adams to step up the war. He refused to use war for his own political gain. Instead, he negotiated peace. He acted in the best interests of the United States, but his actions split his party.

2. How would the practice of nullification threaten the Union?
The Republicans Take Power  For use with textbook pages 306–309

**Drawing From Experience**
Do you think leaders should choose advisers who agree with their views or advisers who will present opposing views? When Thomas Jefferson became president, he surrounded himself with men who agreed with his views. These people helped him shape the government as he believed it should be.

This section describes the political clashes between the outgoing Federalist administration of John Adams and the incoming Republican administration of Thomas Jefferson.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the principles of judicial review established by the case of *Marbury v. Madison*.

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**Content Vocabulary**

- *laissez-faire*: French philosophy meaning “let (people) do (as they choose)” (page 307)
- *judicial review*: right of the Supreme Court to determine whether a law violates the Constitution (page 309)

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**US8.4 Students analyze the aspirations and ideals of the people of the new nation.**
Focusses on: **US8.4.1, US8.4.2**
Jefferson Becomes President (page 307)

Main Idea The election of 1800 showed that power in the United States could be peacefully transferred even when political parties are in disagreement.

In the election of 1800, Federalist President John Adams and Vice President Charles Pinckney ran for a second term. The Republicans nominated Thomas Jefferson for president and Aaron Burr for vice president. At that time, candidates did not travel the country making speeches. Instead, they wrote letters to leading citizens and newspapers to publicize their views. The letters were not polite.

At the time, members of the Electoral College voted for each candidate for president and vice president individually, rather than as a team. In the election of 1800, Jefferson and Burr received an equal number of votes in the Electoral College. The House of Representatives, therefore, had to decide the election. Federalists tried to block Jefferson by supporting Burr. The vote remained tied until one Federalist decided not to vote for Burr. Jefferson became president and Burr, vice president.

To prevent another tie between a presidential and vice-presidential candidate, Congress passed the Twelfth Amendment, which was ratified in 1804. It requires electors to vote for the president and vice president on separate ballots.

Jefferson believed that the states, rather than the federal government, could best protect freedom. He wanted to reduce the power and size of the federal government. His ideas were similar to the French philosophy of laissez-faire, meaning “let (people) do (as they choose).”

1. Why did the House of Representatives decide the election of 1800?
Jefferson's Policies (pages 308–309)

Jefferson worked to limit the scope of the federal government and shift control of the federal courts away from the Federalists.

In 1801, the federal government consisted of only a few hundred people (compared to nearly 3 million today). Jefferson wanted to keep the government small. He believed the national government's responsibilities should be limited to delivering the mail, collecting customs duties, and conducting a census every 10 years.

Jefferson surrounded himself with men who shared his Republican views. He chose James Madison for secretary of state and Albert Gallatin for secretary of the treasury. Jefferson and Gallatin slashed spending. They cut the size of the army and navy. Their cost-cutting significantly reduced the national debt.

After the election but before Jefferson took office, Federalists in Congress passed the Judiciary Act of 1801. It increased the number of federal judges. Outgoing President John Adams filled these positions with Federalists. These judges were called the “midnight judges” because Adams supposedly made the appointments until midnight of his last day in office. His appointments ensured that Federalists would control the courts.

The judges could not take their positions until the legal papers (commissions) were delivered. A few had not been delivered by the time Jefferson took office. Jefferson told Madison not to deliver them. One was addressed to William Marbury.

Marbury wanted to force delivery of his commission. He took his case directly to the Supreme Court. Chief Justice John Marshall denied Marbury’s claim. He noted that the Constitution did not give the Court the jurisdiction to decide the case. In his opinion, Marshall described three principles of judicial review: (1) The Constitution is the supreme law of the land. (2) When a law conflicts with the Constitution, the Constitution must be followed. (3) The judicial branch has a duty to uphold the Constitution.
The courts must decide when a law conflicts with the Constitution and nullify, or cancel, it.

Marshall also broadened federal power at the expense of the states. In *McCulloch v. Maryland*, the Court interpreted the elastic clause to mean that Congress may do more than the Constitution expressly authorizes it to do. The ruling in *Gibbons v. Ogden* established that federal law takes priority over state law in interstate transportation.

2. Who were the “midnight judges”? 

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Drawing From Experience
Imagine that you heard about a land full of strange plants and animals, lush river valleys, and beauty beyond belief. Would you want to go see this land? The accounts that Lewis and Clark brought back from their explorations inspired many Americans to travel west.

In this section you will learn how the United States acquired new western lands. You will also learn about expeditions to explore these new lands.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the events that resulted in the Louisiana Purchase.
Western Territory  (page 313)

Main Idea  As Americans moved west in the early 1800s, Spain and France made a secret agreement about land that affected American trade.

During the early 1800s, many pioneers made the difficult journey west across the Appalachian Mountains to settle in Kentucky, Tennessee, or the Northwest Territory. Most were farmers. They loaded their belongings into Conestoga wagons, sturdy vehicles topped with white canvas.

At this time, the Mississippi River was the western border of United States territory. The enormous Louisiana Territory that lay west of the river belonged to Spain, and included the southern city of New Orleans. The Spanish allowed Americans to sail the lower Mississippi and trade in New Orleans. Western farmers depended on this right. The goods they sent downriver were unloaded at New Orleans and sent by ship to markets on the East Coast.

In 1802 Spain suddenly stopped allowing American goods to move into or past New Orleans. That same year, President Jefferson learned that Spain and France had made a secret deal that transferred the Louisiana Territory to France. Jefferson feared that French control would threaten American trade on the Mississippi River. He sent Robert Livingston to France to try to buy New Orleans and other French territory.

French leader Napoleon Bonaparte wanted to use Santo Domingo in the Caribbean as a base for controlling an American empire. A revolt, however, ended his hopes. Led by Toussaint-Louverture, enslaved Africans rebelled against the island’s plantation owners, and French troops failed to regain control. The colony became the independent republic of Haiti.

1. Why was President Jefferson concerned about the secret deal between France and Spain?
The Nation Expands  
(pages 314–317)

Main Idea: The Louisiana Purchase opened a vast area to exploration and settlement.

Without Santo Domingo, Napoleon had little use for Louisiana. His foreign minister offered to sell the entire territory. The American representatives, Livingston and James Monroe, were taken by surprise. The offer was far beyond their authority to accept, but the deal was too good to pass up. The Louisiana Purchase pleased Jefferson because it would provide cheap and abundant land for generations to come. The Constitution, however, said nothing about acquiring new land. Jefferson decided that the purchase was legal under the government’s treaty-making power. The Louisiana Territory doubled the size of the United States.

Jefferson convinced Congress to sponsor an expedition to explore the new territory. Jefferson chose Meriwether Lewis to head the expedition. The co-leader was William Clark. They assembled a skilled crew to accompany them.

The expedition left St. Louis in 1804 and traveled up the Missouri River. Lewis and Clark kept a journal of what they saw and did. They encountered Native American groups along the way. A young Shoshone woman named Sacagawea joined them as a guide. The group traveled nearly 4,000 miles over 18 months, finally reaching the Pacific Ocean. After spending the winter there, the explorers headed back along separate routes.

The expedition returned in 1806 with valuable information on the people, plants, animals, and geography of the West. Their journey inspired many Americans eager to move west.

Zebulon Pike led two expeditions to the west between 1805 and 1807. He explored the upper Mississippi River valley and the region that is now Colorado. Pike provided the first detailed description of the Great Plains and Rocky Mountains.
Many Federalists opposed the Louisiana Purchase. They feared the territory would become Republican states. A group of Federalists in Massachusetts plotted to secede—withdraw—from the United States. They wanted New England to form a Northern Confederacy. They realized that the Northern Confederacy needed to include New York to be successful.

In 1804 Aaron Burr was running for governor of New York as a Federalist. He had changed parties because his relationship with Jefferson had cooled. The Massachusetts Federalists hoped that Burr would back their plan.

Alexander Hamilton had never trusted Burr. After hearing rumors that Burr had secretly agreed to lead New York out of the Union, Hamilton accused Burr of plotting treason. When Burr lost the election for governor, he blamed Hamilton and challenged him to a duel. Armed with pistols, the two men met in New Jersey. Hamilton pledged not to fire. Burr did fire, killing Hamilton. Burr fled to avoid arrest on murder charges.

Without Burr and with little support in New England, the Northern Confederacy failed. Republican Thomas Jefferson was reelected president in 1804 by a wide margin over Federalist candidate Charles Pinckney.

2. What power granted by the Constitution did Jefferson use to justify the Louisiana Purchase?
Drawing From Experience

Have you ever traveled a long distance by car? Were the roads smooth and paved? Was there food available all along the route? Now think about making this trip in a covered wagon, over rocky, muddy paths, carrying all your supplies with you. This is the way many settlers traveled west in the early 1800s.

This section describes the emerging American culture of the early 1800s. You will also learn about the way of life in different regions of the country.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the responses of Native Americans to the westward movement of settlers, and the ultimate outcome.

Native American Responses:

Cause:
Settlers push westward to establish farms beyond the Appalachian Mountains.

Outcome:
Creating a Democratic Society (pages 321–322)

Main Idea  A strong sense of national identity grew among Americans.

During Jefferson’s time as president, a spirit of nationalism spread across the country. Nationalism is a feeling of pride in a nation and loyalty to its goals. The nation was prospering. People felt confident about the future. Americans who were excluded from power—poor white males, women, and enslaved and free African Americans—began to demand their basic rights.

Americans came to believe that democracy required an educated population. The Northwest Ordinance provided for schools on the frontier. Many children learned at home or at dame schools—schools run by women in their own homes. In the early 1800s, most schools were private. Only those who could afford to pay could attend. Massachusetts and Philadelphia, however, provided free public schools. Their success led to a demand for a nationwide system of public schools that would make education available to all citizens.

In the early 1800s, a religious revival called the Second Great Awakening spread across the country. At camp meetings, preachers stressed equality of all people before God and promised salvation to all believers. The Second Great Awakening inspired many to work to improve society. The message of equality attracted many African Americans to Christianity.

1. Why were many children unable to attend school in the early 1800s?
An American Culture (pages 322–325)

Main Idea: Americans began to create their own unique culture.

Europe strongly influenced the culture of colonial America. In the early 1800s, Americans began to create a truly American culture. Writers began to use American settings and characters. Washington Irving used a rural New York setting for his short stories in The Sketch Book. His story "Rip Van Winkle" tells of a man who falls asleep in the woods for twenty years. In “The Legend of Sleepy Hollow,” schoolteacher Ichabod Crane encounters a headless horseman.

In The Last of the Mohicans and The Deerslayer, novelist James Fenimore Cooper created a trapper folk-hero who went by many names, including Leatherstocking and Deerslayer. He portrayed his hero as brave and honorable. The poetry of William Cullen Bryant expressed a love of natural beauty. In his poem “Thanatopsis,” he suggested that by studying nature, people could better understand life and death.

Artists, too, turned to American subjects. George Caleb Bingham painted fur traders, riverboat workers, and political speakers. George Catlin lived among Native Americans and painted scenes from their daily life. Thomas Doughty led a group who painted landscapes of the Catskill Mountains and Hudson River.

American forms of music began to emerge, including instruments such as banjos and pianos. Songwriter Stephen C. Foster combined African and European music to create uniquely American songs about life in the South, including “My Old Kentucky Home” and “Swanee River.”

American architects designed their own forms of buildings based on the classical styles of ancient Greece and Rome. Public buildings, such as the Capitol in Washington and Jefferson’s home, Monticello, reflect classical influences. Many plantation houses in the South were based on the Greek Revival style.
2. How did American literature begin to reflect on American culture?

A Rural Nation (pages 326–327)

Main Idea People living in different regions developed different ways to use and farm the land.

Most Americans lived in rural areas in the early 1800s. People, however, occupied the land differently in different regions of the country. People in the North tended to cluster in towns. Beyond the towns were farming communities located within a short distance of each other. Farmers produced enough to sell in nearby markets. Farming was the North’s major economic activity. Some rural people, though, worked in small workshops, saw mills, and iron forges. Others worked as craftspeople or day laborers in nearby towns.

Southerners lived on widely separated small farms or large plantations. Their economy depended on cash crops and slavery. Profit from growing cotton increased the demand for more enslaved laborers. Wealthy planters, or large landowners, became the South’s economic and social leaders. Most Southern farmers, however, were not planters. About three out of four white Southerners farmed a small plot of land and held no slaves.

In time, the South’s “peculiar institution” of slavery set it apart from the rest of the country. Most enslaved people in the South worked long hours in the fields. Many enslaved women performed housework and childcare. Not all enslaved people worked on plantations. Some lived and worked in towns. Many worked in jobs other than farming, such as coach drivers, artisans, and miners. Wherever they lived, enslaved people formed their own
communities in which they shared singing, dancing,
and prayer.

Cities were growing. In the North, the thriving
seaports of Boston, New York City, and Philadelphia
exported American farm products and imported Euro-
pean manufactured goods. The South had fewer cities.
Southern farm goods shipped out of New Orleans,
Charleston, and Savannah to markets in the North
and Europe.

During the early 1800s, factories grew in the North,
drawing workers from farms and from overseas. Some
factory workers were children. The rise of industry in the
North created a gap between the rich and the poor in
cities. Prosperous businesspeople controlled urban eco-

nomic and social life. Artisans, shopkeepers, and profes-

sionals formed the moderately prosperous middle class.
At the bottom was the growing working class. Crowded
into tenements, or rented row houses, many members of
the working class struggled to survive.

After the American Revolution, slavery declined in the
North. Northern farms depended on paid workers, not
slaves. Many Northerners came to believe that slavery
was contrary to the nation’s ideals of equality and justice.
By 1804, most Northern states had passed laws ending
slavery. Free African Americans, though, faced many
obstacles. They had no voting rights. They were excluded
from white churches and schools, and from many skilled
jobs. African Americans responded by building their own
institutions and culture.

3. What was the “peculiar institution”?
An increasing number of Americans chose to move west into new territory.

Americans pushed beyond the Appalachian Mountains to claim new land in the West. Some traveled difficult routes by horseback or wagon. Others traveled by boat along waterways such as the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. The settlers cut trees to build log cabins and cleared the land for farming.

Life was hard on the frontier. Settlers faced uncertain climate, limited supplies, and sometimes failing crops. Life could be lonesome, too. Settlements were far apart. The few roads were poor, making it difficult to transport goods.

As settlers moved west, they came into conflict with Native American groups. Many settlers angered Native Americans by setting up farms on traditional hunting grounds. Some Native American groups, such as the Cherokee, tried to adjust peacefully. They adopted written laws and a constitution modeled on those of American states. Many Cherokee accepted Christianity. Sequoyah invented a Cherokee alphabet that enabled many Cherokee to learn to read and write. He published a Cherokee newspaper and translated part of the Bible into Cherokee.

Other Native American groups, such as the Shawnee and Creek, wanted to preserve their traditional culture rather than accept the settlers’ ways. They chose armed resistance. Neither peaceful adaptation nor armed resistance succeeded. By 1830, Native Americans faced loss of culture, military defeat, and forced migration to lands west of the Mississippi River.

4. What were some of the difficulties of life on the frontier?
Drawing From Experience
Have you ever read a story or seen a movie about pirates? Did you wonder where the pirates came from and why they were attacking other ships? In this section you will learn about one famous pirate group. The Barbary pirates were just one of the problems facing the nation in the early 1800s.

This section describes events leading to the War of 1812. You will also learn about Native American leaders Tecumseh and the Prophet.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the events and the desires of Americans that contributed to war fever.
In the early 1800s, the livelihoods of many Americans depended on foreign trade, but a war between Great Britain and France threatened U.S. shipping and trade.

For years, pirates from Tripoli and other Barbary Coast states of North Africa had been seizing ships sailing through the Mediterranean Sea. European governments had to pay tribute, or protection money, to the Barbary pirates to enable their ships to pass safely. In 1804 pirates seized the U.S. warship Philadelphia and towed it into Tripoli Harbor. Stephen Decatur, a U.S. Navy captain, took a small raiding party into the harbor. They burned the ship to keep the pirates from using it. His action was hailed as a daring deed. Negotiations ended the conflict with Tripoli in 1805.

When Thomas Jefferson won reelection in 1804, Britain and France were at war. The United States claimed neutral rights—the right to sail the seas and not take sides. For two years, Americans continued profitable trade with both countries. By 1805, however, the warring countries began to seize ships caught trading with their enemy.

Conditions in the British navy were terrible. Many British sailors deserted, or ran away. British patrols claimed the right to stop American ships to search for British deserters. They would force sailors on these ships, Americans as well as British deserters, to serve in the British navy. This practice was called impressment. When the British ship Leopard stopped the American ship Chesapeake off the Virginia coast, the American captain refused to allow the British to search for British deserters. The British fired on the American ship, killing several people.

In response to impressment and neutral-rights violations, President Jefferson stopped some trade with Britain. The attack on the Chesapeake prompted Congress to pass the Embargo Act. An embargo prohibits trade with another country. The embargo banned imports from and exports to all foreign countries. Jefferson knew that
Britain depended on American farm goods. He hoped the embargo would hurt Britain but avoid war. The embargo was a disaster. It wiped out American trade. Meanwhile, Britain bought farm goods from Latin America.

Following Washington’s precedent, Jefferson did not seek a third term. The Republican candidate James Madison defeated the Federalist candidate Charles Pinckney.

1. How did Great Britain and France violate America’s neutral rights?

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**War Fever (pages 341–345)**

**Main Idea** President James Madison struggled with trade issues with France and Britain, as well as with tensions between Native Americans and white settlers.

In 1810 Congress passed a law permitting trade with France or Britain, whichever nation first lifted its trade restrictions against America. France’s leader, Napoleon Bonaparte, made the first promise. France, however, continued to seize American ships. Madison knew Bonaparte had tricked him, but he saw Britain as the bigger threat.

As Madison tried to resolve difficulties with European powers, other problems arose. Settlers were moving onto lands guaranteed to Native Americans by treaty. Shawnee chief Tecumseh tried a new strategy by building a confederacy among Native American nations in the Northwest. With the help of the British in Canada, he hoped his confederacy could stop whites from taking more land.

Tecumseh’s brother Tenskwatawa, known as the Prophet, urged all Native Americans to return to the customs of their ancestors. He called on them to give up practices learned from the white invaders. The Prophet and his followers founded a village called Prophetstown near present-day Lafayette, Indiana.
General William Henry Harrison, governor of the Indiana Territory, wrote a letter to Tecumseh. He warned that the United States had many more warriors than the Indian nations could assemble. Tecumseh told Harrison that it was the actions of white people in taking Native American land that was threatening peace.

In 1811 Harrison attacked Prophetstown on the Tippecanoe River. Harrison’s victory in the Battle of Tippecanoe won him the nickname of “Tippecanoe.” Many, including Tecumseh, fled to Canada. His flight to British-held Canada seemed to prove that the British were supporting the Native Americans. Many Americans argued for war with Britain as a way to take Canada and end Native American attacks.

Young Republicans in Congress, known as War Hawks, were pressuring President Madison to declare war on Britain. The War Hawks were eager to expand the nation’s power. Their nationalism, or loyalty to their country, appealed to American patriotism. Henry Clay of Kentucky and John Calhoun of South Carolina led the War Hawks. Hunger for Canadian land and Spanish Florida also fueled war fever. By the spring of 1812, Madison concluded that war with Britain was inevitable.

The British had decided to end their policy of search and seizure of American ships. Word of the change, however, arrived in Washington too late. The United States had already declared war.

2. How did Tecumseh hope to stop white settlers from taking Native American land?
The War of 1812  

For use with textbook pages 353–359

Drawing from Experience
When you sing “The Star-Spangled Banner,” do you feel proud? Did you know that the song describes a battle during the War of 1812? As you will learn, the National Anthem comes from a poem by a patriotic American watching the bombardment of Fort McHenry.

In this section you will learn about major battles of the War of 1812 and about the effects of the war.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the key people in the War of 1812 and why they were important.

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War Begins (pages 354–355)

Main Idea In 1812 the United States was at war with Britain and was unprepared from the onset.

The United States was unprepared for war. The army consisted of only 7,000 troops. The state militias had between 50,000 and 100,000 men, but they were not well trained. In addition, many states opposed the war.

The War of 1812 began when William Hull led the American army from Detroit to Canada. There, he met Tecumseh and his warriors. To avoid a massacre by Native Americans, Hull surrendered Detroit to a small British force. Another attempt by William Henry Harrison to invade Canada also failed.

To make headway, the Americans had to take control of Lake Erie from the British. The task fell to Oliver Hazard Perry, commander of the Lake Erie naval forces. In a bloody battle, Perry’s assembled fleet defeated the British naval force.

After losing Lake Erie, the British and Native Americans tried to pull back from Detroit. Harrison cut them off. In the Battle of the Thames, Tecumseh was killed. The Americans also attacked the town of York, near present-day Toronto, Canada, burning the parliament buildings.

The Americans had three fast frigates, or warships. One, the Constitution, destroyed two British ships. After seeing a shot bounce off its hull, a sailor nicknamed the ship “Old Ironsides.” American privateers, armed private ships, also captured many British ships.

In 1814 Andrew Jackson led an attack against the Creeks in Alabama, slaughtering hundreds. Known as the Battle of Horseshoe Bend, this defeat forced the Creeks to give up most of their lands to the United States.

1. Why was Oliver Hazard Perry’s victory important?
The British Offensive (pages 356–359)

Main Idea: Even though the last battle of the war, the Battle of New Orleans, took place two weeks after the war had officially ended, the American victory there instilled a strong sense of national pride.

The British fared better after winning their war with France. With that war over, the British could send more forces to the United States. In 1814 the British sailed up the Chesapeake Bay to Washington, D.C. After overpowering the militia, they began to burn buildings. Among those burned were the Capitol and the president’s mansion.

In a surprise move, the British abandoned Washington and sailed to Baltimore. Americans were ready for them. Bombardment from Fort McHenry prevented the British from entering the city. Francis Scott Key watched the bombs burst over Fort McHenry that night. Finally “by dawn’s early light,” he saw the American flag still flying over the fort. Deeply moved, Key wrote the poem called “The Star-Spangled Banner.” In 1931 Congress designated “The Star-Spangled Banner” as the National Anthem.

The British sent troops into New York state from Canada. They wanted to capture Plattsburgh, a key city on the shore of Lake Champlain. The American naval force defeated the British fleet on the lake. Without control of the lake, the British had to retreat to Canada.

After the Battle of Lake Champlain, the British lost interest in the war. It was costly and they had little to gain. In 1814 the two sides signed the Treaty of Ghent. Borders did not change. Nothing was mentioned about impressment, but with the defeat of France, neutral rights were no longer an issue.

Before word of the treaty reached America, the two sides clashed one more time. At New Orleans, the British were no match for Andrew Jackson’s soldiers, who shot from behind bales of cotton. Victory at the Battle of New Orleans made Andrew Jackson a hero and helped him win the presidency in 1828.
New England Federalists had opposed “Mr. Madison’s war” from the beginning. At the Hartford Convention, they drew up a list of proposed amendments to the Constitution. News of Jackson’s victory and the peace treaty arrived after the convention broke up. The Federalists’ grievances seemed unpatriotic at this moment of triumph. The young nation had gained respect in the world. Although the Federalists weakened, the Republican War Hawks carried on the philosophy of strong national government. They favored trade, western expansion, the energetic development of the economy, and a strong army and navy.

2. How was the issue of neutral rights violations resolved?
Drawing From Experience

Did you ever stand up to a bully? When European countries planned to retake lost territory in the Americas, President Monroe stood up to them. He declared that the United States would not allow European powers to meddle in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere. This was a bold statement. If challenged, the young nation probably could not back up its warning.

This section describes agreements that ended territorial disputes. You will also learn about events in Latin America leading to the Monroe Doctrine.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the treaties and agreements between the United States and other countries and their results.

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Relations With European Powers (pages 363–365)

Main Idea After the War of 1812, a new spirit of nationalism took hold in American society.

Political differences seemed to fade away after the War of 1812. A Boston newspaper called these years the Era of Good Feelings.

The nation worked to establish good relations with the European powers. President James Monroe and Secretary of State John Quincy Adams worked to resolve long-standing disputes with Great Britain. In the Rush-Bagot Treaty of 1817, the United States and Britain agreed to limit the number of naval vessels each could have on the Great Lakes. They also agreed to disarmament—the removal of weapons—along a key part of the border between the United States and Canada.

Another agreement with Britain, the Convention of 1818, set the boundary of the Louisiana Territory between the United States and British Canada at the 49th parallel. The convention created a demilitarized border—a border without armed forces.

The vast Oregon Country extended from California to Alaska. In the early 1800s, Britain, Spain, Russia, and the United States all claimed the area. In time, Spain and Russia gave up their claims. In the Convention of 1818, Britain and the United States agreed to jointly occupy Oregon. People from both countries could settle there.

In the following years, many more American than British settlers streamed into Oregon Country. As American settlement grew, the question of who owned Oregon came up again. In the Treaty of 1846, Britain and the United States divided Oregon into American and British portions at latitude 49°N.

In the early 1800s, Spain held East Florida and claimed West Florida. The United States argued that West Florida was part of the Louisiana Purchase. In 1810 and 1812,
Americans added parts of West Florida to Louisiana and Mississippi. Spain objected but took no action.

In 1818 Andrew Jackson was ordered to stop raids on American territory by Seminoles in Florida. Jackson raided East Florida. In capturing two Spanish forts, Jackson went beyond his orders. Spanish minister Luis de Onís protested. Secretary of War John Calhoun said Jackson should be **court-martialed**—tried by a military court—for overstepping orders. Secretary of State John Quincy Adams disagreed.

Adams had not authorized Jackson’s raid, but did nothing to stop it. Adams guessed that Spain might be ready to settle the Florida dispute. He was right. For the Spanish, the raid had **demonstrated** the military strength of the United States. Already troubled by rebellions in Mexico and South America, Spain signed the Adams-Onís Treaty in 1819.

In the treaty, Spain gave East Florida to the United States and gave up all claims to West Florida. The United States gave up its claims to Spanish Texas, ending the dispute over the border between the Louisiana Territory and Spanish territory in the West. The treaty also extended the border from the Gulf of Mexico to the 42nd parallel and west to the Pacific, recognizing the United States claim to Oregon Country. America now extended across the entire continent.

Spain found it difficult to keep Americans out of its territory west of the Mississippi River. When Mexico won freedom from Spain in 1821, it gained control of this vast area. In 1823, the Mexican government decided to welcome U.S. settlers and traders into its lands. Mexico hoped that increased trade would boost the region’s economy. The new settlers, however, resisted Mexican laws and customs. At the same time, many people in the United States began to believe that the nation had a right to expand from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean.
Mexico refused to sell any of its territory to the United States. American settlers in Texas revolted and won independence from Mexico in 1836. Texas became a state in 1845. A border dispute led to war between Mexico and the United States. In the peace treaty following its defeat, Mexico gave up area that today includes California, New Mexico, Arizona, and several other western states.

1. What agreement finally settled the question of who owned the Oregon Country?

The United States and Latin America (pages 366–367)

Main Idea In 1823, the United States proclaimed its dominant role in the Americas with the Monroe Doctrine.

During the early 1800s, Spain controlled a vast colonial empire. In addition to its territory in the southwestern United States, it controlled Mexico, Central America, and South America except for Portugal’s Brazil.

In Mexico, Miguel Hidalgo led a rebellion against Spanish rule. Although this attempt failed, Mexico did win its independence in 1821. With independence, Mexico also gained control of Spanish territory in the American southwest.

In South America, Simón Bolívar led the struggle for freedom for present-day Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, Bolivia, and Ecuador. José de San Martín won independence for Chile and Peru. Brazil gained independence peacefully.

In 1822, the Quadruple Alliance—France, Austria, Russia, and Prussia—discussed a plan to help Spain regain its American territories. Alarmed, President
Monroe declared that the American continents were “not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.” He warned that any foreign military expeditions in the Western Hemisphere would be seen as a threat to the United States. This policy became known as the Monroe Doctrine.

2. Briefly summarize the meaning of the Monroe Doctrine.

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Academic Vocabulary

**policy:** a plan or course of action (p. 367)
Industrial Revolution: period of great change in the way goods were made that began in Great Britain in the mid-1700s (page 383)
capitalism: economic system in which individuals invest in businesses in hopes of making a profit (page 383)
capital: money (page 383)
free enterprise: economic system in which people are free to buy, sell, and produce whatever they want (page 383)
technology: scientific discoveries that simplify work (page 384)
cotton gin: machine that quickly and efficiently removes seeds from cotton fiber (page 384)
patent: sole legal right to an invention and its profits for a certain period of time (page 384)
factory system: system bringing manufacturing steps together in one place to increase efficiency (page 385)
interchangeable parts: identical parts that can be quickly put together to make a complete product (page 385)

Drawing From Experience
Do you have paved streets where you live? Does your home have a sewer system? Think about what life would be like in cities of the early 1800s. They did not have these luxuries.

This section describes the many changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about key inventions that contributed to the Industrial Revolution.
The Growth of Industry (pages 383–385)

Main Idea: New technology led to changes in the way things are made.

In the colonial period, Americans used hand tools to make furniture, clothing, and other goods in their homes and workshops. In the mid-1700s, the way goods were made began to change. This first took place in Great Britain. British inventors created machines to perform some of the tasks involved in making cloth. The machines used water power, so cloth makers built mills along rivers to power the machines. People left their homes and farms to work in the mills and earn wages. This period of great change was the Industrial Revolution.

In the United States, the Industrial Revolution first got underway in New England. Poor soil made farming difficult there. As a result, people were willing to give up farming for other work. Also, New England had many rivers which provided the waterpower needed to run the machines in the new factories.

New England’s location provided other advantages too. It was close to natural resources, such as coal and iron from nearby Pennsylvania. New England had many ports. The ports could bring in cotton from the South and send out finished cloth to markets nationwide.
The American economic system promoted industrial growth by allowing competition to flourish with little government interference. Under the economic system called capitalism, individuals put their capital, or money, into a business in hopes of making a profit.

Free enterprise is another term for the American economy. In this system, people are free to buy, sell, and produce whatever they want. The major elements of free enterprise are competition, profit, private property, and economic freedom. Business owners are free to produce the products they think will bring a profit. They compete for buyers, who are looking for the best products at the lowest prices.

Workers, waterpower, location, and capital were all key factors to the Industrial Revolution in New England. One more essential factor was the invention of new machines and technology—scientific discoveries that simplify work. Inventions such as the spinning jenny and water frame, which spun thread, and the power loom, which wove thread into cloth, made cloth manufacturing faster and less expensive.

In 1793, Eli Whitney of Massachusetts invented the cotton gin. This simple machine removed the seeds from cotton fiber quickly and easily. The cotton gin enabled one worker to clean cotton as fast as 50 people working by hand.

In 1790 Congress passed a patent law. A patent gives an inventor the sole legal right to his or her invention and its profits for a certain period of time.

The British tried to keep their new technology secret. They passed laws prohibiting their machines and skilled mechanics from leaving the country. The factory in Britain where Samuel Slater worked used machines invented by Richard Arkwright for spinning cotton thread. Slater memorized the machines’ designs and slipped out of Britain. In the United States, Slater duplicated Arkwright’s machines in his Rhode Island cotton mill and made cotton thread. Slater’s mill marked an important step in the Industrial Revolution in America.
Francis Cabot Lowell opened a textile (cloth-making) mill in Massachusetts that launched the factory system. For the first time, all manufacturing steps were performed in one place. The factory system changed the way goods were made—and marked another important step in the Industrial Revolution.

Inventor Eli Whitney started the use of interchangeable parts—identical parts that could be put together to make a complete product. Because the parts were identical, they required less skill to make and they made repair easier. Interchangeable parts paved the way for mass production and lower prices.

1. Why do you think patents are important?

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A Changing Economy (pages 386–387)

Main Idea The growth of factories and trade led to the growth of cities.

In the 1820s, more than 65 percent of Americans were farmers. In the Northeast, most farms were small and sold their goods locally. In the South, cotton production soared. The development of textile mills in New England and Europe increased the demand for cotton. The cotton gin made cleaning cotton faster and less expensive, encouraging planters to raise larger crops. Farming expanded in the West as well. Southern farmers seeking new land to plant cotton moved west. Western farmers north of the Ohio River concentrated on raising pork and cash crops such as corn and wheat.

Most new industries were financed by small investors hoping to earn a profit if the new businesses succeeded. Low taxes and few government restrictions encouraged people to invest in new industries.
The growth of factories and trade spurred the growth of cities. Industrial towns sprang up along rivers and streams to use the waterpower. Cities like New York and Boston grew as centers of trade. As Western farmers shipped more products by water, towns located on major rivers, like Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, grew.

City streets were unpaved. Without sewers to carry waste away, diseases like cholera and yellow fever threatened the people. In 1793, a yellow fever epidemic killed thousands in Philadelphia. Fire was also a constant threat. Sparks from a chimney could spread fire through a city’s wooden buildings.

Cities had some advantages. People could leave farms for city jobs that paid steady wages. Growing cities added libraries, museums, and shops not available in rural areas.

2. What were some advantages to living in a city?
Drawing From Experience

Have you ever ridden your bicycle off-road over rough terrain? Was the ride quite jarring? Now imagine riding on this terrain constantly for weeks and even months. This will give you a sense of the experience of pioneers traveling in wagons along the rough roads west.

In this section you will learn about improvements in transportation that made the movement of people and goods easier.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Describe two facts about the way people and goods traveled in the late 1700s and early 1800s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Transportation</th>
<th>Fact</th>
<th>Fact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turnpike</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Road</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>River Barge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steamboat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erie Canal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Content Vocabulary

census: official count of a population (page 389)
turnpike: toll road (page 389)
canal: artificial waterway (page 392)
lock: separate compartment of a canal where water levels are raised and lowered (page 392)

US8.6 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced, with emphasis on the Northeast.
Focuses on:
US8.6.2
Moving West (pages 389–390)

**Main Idea** Transportation routes such as roads improved as settlers moved west, while steamboats greatly improved the transport of goods along rivers.

In 1790, nearly 4 million people lived in the United States, according to the first census, or official count of the population. Most lived within a few hundred miles of the Atlantic coast. By 1820, the population had risen to 10 million. As a result of the westward stream of pioneers, nearly 2 million people were living west of the Appalachian Mountains.

The nation needed good roads for travel and for shipping goods. Private companies built turnpikes, or toll roads. They charged travelers a fee to help pay for construction. Many roads were made of crushed stone. In muddy areas, companies built “corduroy roads” of logs laid side by side like the ridges of corduroy cloth.

In 1803, the new state of Ohio asked the federal government to build a road to connect it to the East. The first section from Maryland to western Virginia opened in 1818. Later, the National Road extended through Ohio and ended in Vandalia, Illinois. Congress did not undertake any other road projects.

Floating downstream on river barges was more comfortable than traveling the bumpy roads. Propelling barges upstream against the current, however, was very slow and difficult. Also, most major rivers flowed north to south, not east to west, where most people and goods were headed.

James Rumsey equipped a small boat on the Potomac River with a steam engine. David Fitch built a steamboat that traveled the Delaware River. Neither boat had enough power to overcome the strong currents and winds of large rivers and open bodies of water.

In 1802, Robert Fulton built the Clermont, a steamboat with a powerful engine. The Clermont traveled the Hudson River from New York City to Albany in 32 hours. By sail, the trip would have taken four days. The Clermont
offered passengers sleeping compartments and a smooth, though noisy, ride.

Steamboats greatly improved the transport of goods and people along major rivers. They also spurred the growth of river cities like Cincinnati and St. Louis.

1. What trends can you identify from comparing the censuses of 1790 and 1820?

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Canals (pages 392–393)

Main Idea Business and government officials came up with a plan to build a canal to link the eastern and western parts of the country.

The existing river system did not effectively tie the East to the West. De Witt Clinton came up with a plan to build a canal—an artificial waterway—to connect Albany on the Hudson River to Buffalo on Lake Erie.

Workers on the Erie Canal built locks—separate compartments where water levels could be raised and lowered. Locks raised and lowered boats in places where canal levels changed. The 363-mile canal opened in 1825. At first, steamboats were not allowed. Their powerful engines damaged the canal’s embankments. Instead, teams of mules or horses pulled barges. Later, the embankments were reinforced to allow steam tugboats to pull barges.

The success of the Erie Canal touched off an explosion of canal building. Canals lowered the cost of transporting goods. They helped towns prosper along their routes. Canals also helped unite the growing country.

2. Why did the country need canals?

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Americans continued to move westward, settling near rivers so they could ship their crops to market.

The first wave of westward migration started before the 1790s. It led to the new states of Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio. The second wave, beginning between 1816 and 1821, resulted in the states of Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, Alabama, and Missouri.

Pioneer communities tended to form along great rivers, so they could ship their crops to market. Canals enabled people to settle farther away from rivers. People also tended to settle with others from their home communities.

Western families gathered for social events. Men took part in sports such as wrestling. Women met for quilting parties. Families participated in cornhuskings, in which they shared the task of stripping husks from corn.

Improved transportation enabled Americans to buy goods produced in distant places. The new transportation also led to home delivery of the mail in 1825. People in remote areas could then read about national issues in newspapers delivered directly to them.

3. How did canals influence where people settled?
Drawing From Experience

Imagine that you moved to a new community where the people did not speak your language or follow your traditions. Would you feel lonely? Irish and German immigrants faced these problems upon their arrival in the United States. They faced other problems as well, including anger from some Americans.

This section describes the working conditions in American factories in the mid-1800s. You will also learn about the impact of immigration on American society.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Compare the concerns of factory workers to the main concern of factory owners in the mid-1800s.

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**Content Vocabulary**

- **trade union**: organization of workers with the same trade, or skill (page 397)
- **strike**: refusing to work in order to put pressure on employers (page 397)
- **prejudice**: unfair opinion not based on facts (page 397)
- **discrimination**: unfair treatment of a group (page 397)
- **famine**: extreme shortage of food (page 398)
- **nativist**: person who opposes immigration (page 401)

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**US8.6** Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced, with emphasis on the Northeast. Focuses on: US8.6.1, US8.6.3, US8.6.4
Northern Factories (pages 396–397)

Main Idea As industrialization grew in the North, many saw the need for reforms in working conditions.

Between 1820 and 1860, more and more of America’s manufacturing shifted to factories. The factory system, established in Lowell, Massachusetts, brought the entire production process under one roof.

Working conditions in factories worsened. Factory owners required employees to work long hours. By 1840 factory workers averaged 11.4 hours a day. On-the-job injuries were common. The fast-moving parts on machines created dangerous conditions, especially for child workers. In summer, factories were stifling. Heat created by working machines added to the misery. Air-conditioning had not been invented yet. Workers suffered in winter as well because few factories had heating.

Profits, not employee comfort and safety, concerned factory owners most. They could easily replace unhappy workers. No laws existed to protect workers.

Workers began to organize unions to push for better working conditions. Skilled workers formed trade unions—organizations of workers with the same trade or skill. In the mid-1830s skilled workers in New York City staged strikes, refusing to work in order to put pressure on employers. Workers wanted higher wages and a workday limited to 10 hours.

Slavery had mostly disappeared in the North by 1820. Racial prejudice—an unfair opinion not based on facts—and discrimination—unfair treatment of a group—remained. In most communities, free African Americans were barred from public schools and public facilities. They were forced to use segregated, or separate, schools and hospitals.

Some African Americans succeeded in business. For example, Samuel Cornish and John B. Russwurm founded the first African American newspaper.
Women suffered discrimination as well. Employers paid female factory workers less than male workers. Unions excluded women. Men wanted women to stay out of the workplace to make more jobs available to men. Sarah G. Bagley founded the Lowell Female Labor Reform Organization and petitioned the state for a 10-hour day. The legislature did not discuss the woman’s petition.

1. What did New York City workers hope to gain from their strikes?

The Rise of Cities (pages 398–401)

Main Idea Immigrants entered Northern cities from many parts of Europe. They often faced hardships and discrimination upon arriving in America.

The growth of factories spurred the growth of Northern cities. People looking for work moved to cities where most factories were located. The population of New York City, the nation’s largest city, reached 1 million. Towns such as St. Louis, Pittsburgh, and Cincinnati, grew into big cities. Their location on branches of the Mississippi River helped them become centers of trade between Midwestern farmers and cities of the Northeast. Shipping on the Great Lakes turned Buffalo, Detroit, and Chicago into major cities.

Immigration also contributed to the growth of cities. The number of people arriving from other countries greatly increased between 1840 and 1860. The Irish were the largest group. Many left Ireland to escape the potato famine—an extreme shortage of food. Potatoes were the main food source in Ireland. When disease destroyed the potato crop, many people died. Most Irish immigrants were farmers, but they lacked money to buy land in the
United States. Instead, many took low-paying factory jobs or manual labor, such as working on the railroads, in the North.

Germans were the second-largest group of immigrants. Some came seeking opportunity. Others left Germany because a democratic revolution failed there. Many Germans arrived with enough money to buy farms or open businesses. They prospered in many parts of the country.

Immigrants brought with them their languages, customs, and religions. Previously, most Americans were Protestants from Great Britain or Africans forced into slavery. Most of the Irish and about half the Germans were Catholic.

Some Americans, known as nativists, opposed immigration. They feared immigration threatened the future of “native” or American-born citizens. Some accused immigrants of taking jobs from “real” Americans. They were angry that many immigrants would work for lower pay. Some nativists accused immigrants of bringing crime and disease to American cities.

Nativists formed secret anti-Catholic societies. In the 1850s, they created a new political party: the American Party. To protect the secrecy of their organization, nativists often responded to questions with “I know nothing.” As a result, the American Party came to be known as the Know-Nothings Party. The Know-Nothings wanted to extend the waiting period for citizenship from 5 to 14 years. They also wanted to ban foreign-born citizens from holding office. The Know-Nothing movement split into Northern and Southern branches over slavery.

2. Who were the “Know-Nothings”?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How were they formed?</th>
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<tr>
<td>What were their goals?</td>
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<td>How did they operate?</td>
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</table>
**Drawing From Experience**

Have you ever participated in an activity to benefit your community? For example, have you helped clean up a park or worked at a car wash to raise money for a charity? Reformers in the 1800s worked to improve society in many ways.

In this section you will learn about reformers who worked for causes such as educational improvements, temperance, and prison reform. You will also learn about emerging American themes in writings of this time.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the beliefs of transcendentalists. Identify three transcendentalist writers and describe themes in their writings.

**Transcendentalists stressed:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcendentalist Writers</th>
<th>Themes</th>
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**The Reforming Spirit (page 403)**

**Main Idea** Religious and philosophical ideas inspired various reform movements.

Reformers wanted to extend the nation’s ideals of liberty and equality to all Americans. Some tried to improve society by forming **utopias**, communities based on a vision of a perfect society. Robert Owen founded New Harmony, Indiana, based on cooperation rather than competition among members. Utopian communities tended to be impractical and few lasted more than a few years.

A wave of religious fervor again spread through the nation in the early 1800s. It was the Second Great Awakening. It began with frontier camp meetings called **revivals**. People came from miles around to hear preachers. The experience inspired many to do missionary work and join reform movements.

Alcohol abuse was common. Reformers blamed alcohol for poverty, the breakup of families, crime, and insanity. They called for **temperance**, drinking little or no alcohol. Temperance crusaders spoke out and wrote pamphlets about the dangers of liquor. Several states passed laws banning alcoholic beverages. Most of these were repealed.

1. On what principle was New Harmony, Indiana, based?

   _______________________________________________________________________

   _______________________________________________________________________

   _______________________________________________________________________

**Reforming Education (page 405)**

**Main Idea** Reformers wanted to make education accessible to all citizens.

In the early 1800s, reformers began to push for a free public school system open to all citizens and funded by the government. Horace Mann, the head of the Massachusetts Board of Education, led educational reform. He lengthened the school year to six months and improved
curriculum. He also improved pay and training for teachers. His efforts led Massachusetts to open the first state-supported normal school, a school for training high-school graduates as teachers.

By the 1850s, most states accepted three principles: schools should be free and supported by taxes, teachers should be trained, and children should be required to attend. Still, schools lacked sufficient funds and many teachers had little training. Some people opposed required education. Most females received little education. Many parents believed a woman’s role was to become a wife and mother. Girls who did attend school studied music or needlework rather than “men’s” subjects of science and mathematics.

During the age of reform, many new colleges were founded. Most admitted only men. Religious groups founded the colleges of Trinity and Wesleyan. Oberlin College admitted both women and African Americans. Mary Lyon, a teacher, founded Mount Holyoke, the nation’s first permanent women’s college. Ashmun Institute, the first African American college, opened in 1854.

Some reformers focused on teaching people with special needs. Thomas Gallaudet developed a method to educate people who were hearing impaired. He opened the Hartford School for the Deaf. Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe developed books with large raised letters for people with sight impairments. Howe headed the Perkins Institution, a school for the blind.

Dorothea Dix visited prisons. She saw inmates chained to walls, often in unheated cells. She also learned that many were guilty of no crime—they were mentally ill. Her life’s work became a crusade to improve conditions for prisoners and for the mentally ill.

2. Who was Horace Mann?
Cultural Trends (pages 406–407)

Main Idea A new wave of literature swept the United States that was distinctly American.

In the 1820s, American artists and writers began to develop their own styles that explored American themes. Transcendentalists stressed the relationship between humans and nature as well as the importance of individual conscience. The poems and essays of Ralph Waldo Emerson urged people to listen to their inner conscience and avoid prejudice. Henry David Thoreau put his beliefs into practice through civil disobedience—refusing to obey laws he believed were unjust. The writings of Margaret Fuller supported rights for women.

Other American writers emerged at this time as well. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow wrote stories and poems, such as the “Song of Hiawatha.” In “Snow-Bound,” John Greenleaf Whittier described winter on a New England farm. Edgar Allan Poe wrote of terrors that lurk in imagination and dreams. Walt Whitman’s volume of published poetry Leaves of Grass expressed his love of nature, the common people, and American democracy. Emily Dickinson wrote deeply emotional poetry. In her poem called “Hope,” she compares hope with a bird. Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote the best-selling novel of the mid-1800s, Uncle Tom’s Cabin. In this novel she explored the injustice of slavery.

3. What issue did Harriet Beecher Stowe tackle in her best-selling novel?
The Women’s Movement  For use with textbook pages 408–413

Content Vocabulary

**suffrage**: right to vote (page 409)

**coeducation**: teaching of boys and girls together (page 410)

**US8.6** Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced, with emphasis on the Northeast.

Focuses on:

**US8.6.5, US8.6.6**

**Drawing From Experience**

What are your favorite school subjects? How would you feel if the rules of society did not allow you to study those subjects? In the 1800s, education for women focused on subjects society considered appropriate to their roles as wives and mothers. Science and mathematics were considered “male” subjects.

In this section you will learn about early struggles for women’s rights.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the leaders who organized the first women’s rights convention. Also describe some of the demands that came out of the convention.

**Leader:**

**Leader:**

**Demand:**

**Demand:**

**Demand:**
Women and Reform (pages 409–410)

Main Idea Many women believed they should have the same opportunities as men, and they organized to gain these rights.

Many women who fought to end slavery also turned their efforts to gaining rights for women. Many, such as Lucretia Mott, were Quakers. Mott spoke for temperance, peace, workers’ rights, and abolition. She formed the Female Anti-Slavery Society. Mott met Elizabeth Cady Stanton at the world anti-slavery convention in London. Together with a few other women, Mott and Stanton organized the first women’s rights convention in Seneca Falls, New York.

The convention modeled its Declaration of Sentiments and Resolutions on the Declaration of Independence. It called for an end to laws that discriminated against women. It demanded that women be allowed to hold jobs previously open only to men. After heated debate, the women decided to include the radical demand for woman suffrage, or the right to vote.

The convention propelled the women’s rights movement. Susan B. Anthony called for equal pay for women, college training for girls, and coeducation—the teaching of boys and girls together. Anthony met Stanton at a temperance meeting. Together they led the struggle for women’s rights through the rest of the 1800s. Several states eventually granted women the right to vote. Women did not win suffrage nationwide, however, until 1920.

1. What radical demand caused controversy at the Seneca Falls Convention?

________________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________________
Progress by American Women *(pages 411–413)*

**Main Idea** Women made progress in education, marriage laws, and the professional sector.

In the 1700s, most people lived and worked on farms. As a result, most economic activities of both men and women involved maintaining the farm. Economic roles began to change with the Industrial Revolution of the early 1800s. The development of factories separated home from workplace. Men often left home to work, and women stayed home to care for the house and children.

People began to believe that a woman’s place was in the home. Ideas about family supported this role. Many people viewed women as kinder and more moral than men, making women better models for their children. Magazine articles and novels promoted homemaking and child-rearing as the proper roles of women.

Early educational reformers, such as Catherine Beecher and Emma Hart Willard, called for education of women for their traditional roles of wife and mother. They also believed women would make good teachers. Later, Willard founded the Troy Female Seminary to teach the traditionally “male” subjects of science, mathematics, geography, and physics as well as homemaking skills. Mary Lyon founded Mount Holyoke Female Seminary, modeled on the curriculum of nearby Amherst College.

Women made some gains in marriage and property laws. They won the right in some states to own property after their marriage. Some states passed laws allowing women to share guardianship of their children with their husbands. Several states permitted women to seek divorce if their husbands constantly abused alcohol.

Few careers were open to women in the 1800s. They could become elementary school teachers, though they received lower pay than did men. Fields such as medicine and the ministry were more difficult to enter. A few determined women broke into all-male fields. After rejections from more than 20 colleges, Elizabeth Blackwell finally

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**Academic Vocabulary**

ministry: the office, duties or work of a minister (p. 413)
gained entry to Geneva College. She graduated at the head of her class and went on to become a noted doctor.

The age of reform was just the beginning of the long struggle for women’s rights. Women in the 1800s remained limited by social customs and expectations. The early feminists had just begun the long struggle to achieve their goals.

2. Under what circumstances would some states allow women to seek divorce?
Drawing From Experience
Do you know what many of your most comfortable clothes, like your jeans and T-shirts, are made of? What about the sheets you sleep on? If you check the labels, you will find that many of the cloth products you use contain cotton. Textile mills created a high demand for Southern cotton in the 1800s.

In this section you will learn how the economy of the South grew to depend on cotton. You will also learn about industry and transportation in the South.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about reasons why little industry developed in the South in the early 1800s.

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Content Vocabulary

cotton gin: compact machine that removed seeds from cotton fibers (page 423)
capital: money to invest in businesses (page 424)

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**Content Vocabulary**

cotton gin: compact machine that removed seeds from cotton fibers (page 423)
capital: money to invest in businesses (page 424)

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US8.7 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the South from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.
Focuses on: US8.7.1

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Growth of Industry in the South

Factors Limiting Growth
Rise of the Cotton Kingdom (page 423)

Main Idea Unlike the North, the Southern economy remained mainly agrarian.

Most Southerners lived in the Upper South—in Maryland, Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina. By 1850, the South’s population had spread inland to the Deep South—Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida, Arkansas, and Texas.

After the American Revolution, European mills wanted Southern cotton to make into cloth. Cotton was hard to produce, however. After picking the cotton, workers had to separate the plant’s sticky seeds from the cotton fiber by hand. In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin. This small machine removed seeds from cotton fibers quickly, making cotton production easier. As a result, Southern planters wanted to grow more, and they wanted more slaves to do the work.

The economies of both the Deep South and the Upper South depended on agriculture. The Upper South, however, continued to produce tobacco, hemp, wheat, and vegetables. The Deep South developed an economy based on cotton and, in some areas, on rice and sugarcane.

1. Which region of the South developed an economy based mainly on cotton?

Industry in the South (pages 424–426)

Main Idea For many reasons, industry developed slowly in the South.

The economies of the North and South became increasingly different. Most of the nation’s manufacturing occurred in the North. The South, however, remained predominantly agricultural.
Thanks to booming cotton sales, Southern agriculture was thriving. This was one reason why the South developed little industry. It did not need to start new businesses.

Another reason was lack of capital—money to invest in businesses. The wealth of most Southerners was tied up in land and slaves. They saw little reason to sell slaves to raise money to build factories.

The market for manufactured goods in the South was small. A large portion of the Southern population was enslaved people who had no money to buy products. The limited local market discouraged the growth of industry.

Another reason for the slow growth of industry in the South was that some Southerners did not want it. They believed that their crops produced all the wealth they needed. One leader summed it up by stating that as long as the South had sugar, tobacco, and cotton, it had all the wealth it needed.

Some Southern leaders wanted to develop industry. They hoped to avoid dependence on the North for manufactured goods. They argued that factories would benefit the economy of the less-prosperous Upper South. After touring a New England textile mill, William Gregg opened a textile factory in South Carolina. Joseph Reid Anderson turned the Tredegar Iron Works in Richmond, Virginia, into one of the nation’s leading producers of iron. The factory produced weapons for Southern forces during the Civil War.

These factories were the exception, however. Most of the South remained rural with only three large cities: Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans.

High demand for cotton encouraged cotton production to spread west. Plantations sprang up in the “black belt,” the rich black soil of Mississippi and Alabama and along the Mississippi River and its tributaries.

Most Southern goods traveled to market along natural waterways. Towns were located on seacoasts and along rivers. The South had poor roads and few canals.
The South built rail lines, but they were short, local, and did not connect all parts of the region. As a result, cities grew more slowly in the South than in the North and Midwest, where railroads provided major routes for trade and settlement. The rail shortage would greatly hinder the South during the Civil War.

2. Why was the market for manufactured goods in the South small?
Drawing From Experience

What do you think life was like in the South during slavery? Do you think that most white farmers ran huge plantations with many enslaved workers? In fact, most Southern farms in the 1800s were small and had no slaves.

This section describes life on the small farms and plantations of the South in the 1800s. You will also learn about the development of cities and education in the South.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the steps that Southern planters went through to sell their cotton.

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Content Vocabulary

- **yeoman**: farmer who did not have slaves (page 428)
- **tenant farmer**: farmer who worked land owned by someone else (page 428)
- **fixed cost**: regular expense that remains about the same year after year (page 429)
- **credit**: form of loan (page 429)
- **overseer**: plantation manager (page 430)

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US8.7 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the South from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced. Focuses on: US8.7.3, US8.7.4
Life on the Small Farms (page 428)

Main Idea Most farmers in the South did not own slaves and lived in poor rural areas.

Few Southerners were plantation owners with large numbers of slaves. Most were small farmers who owned few or no slaves. Most white Southerners fit into one of four categories: yeomen, tenant farmers, the rural poor, or plantation owners.

Yeomen—farmers who did not have slaves—made up the largest group. Most owned a small amount of land in the Upper South or in hilly areas of the Deep South where the land was unsuited to large plantations. They grew crops to feed their families with some left over to sell or trade locally. They lived in simple one-story frame houses or log cabins.

Some Southern whites rented land or worked as tenant farmers on landlords’ estates. Others—the rural poor—lived in crude cabins in wooded areas. They cleared a small area to grow corn and keep a hog or cow. They also fished or hunted for food.

1. How were yeomen different from tenant farmers?

Plantations (pages 429–430)

Main Idea Plantations varied in size and wealth and contained varying numbers of enslaved people.

A large plantation might cover several thousand acres. Plantation owners lived in comfortable, not luxurious, homes. A small group of plantation owners—about 12 percent—held more than half the slaves. About half of all planters held fewer than five slaves. A few African Americans owned slaves, but these were mostly free
blacks who purchased family members in order to free them also.

Plantation owners were in business to earn profits. Plantations had fixed costs—regular expenses such as housing and feeding workers—that remained about the same year after year. Cotton prices, however, varied. Planters sold their cotton to agents at cotton exchanges, or trade centers, in Southern cities. The agents extended credit—a form of loan. The agents held the cotton for several months until the price rose. Then they sold it. This system kept planters in debt because they did not receive payment for their cotton until the agents sold it.

Plantation wives usually supervised the slaves working in the main plantation house. The wives looked after the plantation’s buildings and gardens. Some kept the plantation’s financial records. Women often led lonely lives on plantations. Planters traveled frequently to look at new land or to deal with agents, leaving their wives alone on the plantation for long periods.

Domestic slaves worked in the house. They cleaned, cooked, did laundry, and sewed. Other enslaved people were skilled blacksmiths, carpenters, and shoemakers. Some tended livestock in the pastures. Most, however, were field hands. They toiled in the fields all day under the supervision of an overseer, or plantation manager.

2. What job did most enslaved workers hold?
The South was home to several large cities, and education began to grow in the mid-1800s.

The ten largest cities in the South were either seaports or river ports. By 1860 the population of Baltimore was 212,000, and the population of New Orleans exceeded 165,000. The growth of railroads led some cities to grow as trade centers. Cities such as Columbia, South Carolina; Chattanooga, Tennessee; Montgomery, Alabama; and Atlanta, Georgia, developed at railway crossroads.

In cities, free African Americans formed their own communities. They served as barbers, carpenters, and small traders for their communities. They established their own churches and institutions. Between 1830 and 1860, Southern states passed laws that limited the rights of free African Americans.

Plantation owners and others who could afford it, sent their children to private schools. No statewide public school system existed. Some Southern cities established excellent public schools. By the mid-1800s, however, education was growing. By 1860, hundreds of public schools operated in North Carolina. Kentucky had a funding system for public schools. Many states had charity schools for students from poor families.

Still, the South lagged behind other regions in literacy. One reason was that Southern states had few people per square mile. Families had to send their children great distances to attend school. Also, many Southerners believed that education was a private matter, and that states should not spend money on it.

3. What prompted the growth of Atlanta, Georgia?
Drawing From Experience

When you feel sad, what can you do to help yourself feel better? Do you play your favorite music? Do you visit a friend? Music and friendship were among the ways that enslaved African Americans coped with their harsh lives.

This section describes what life was like for enslaved African Americans. You will also learn about ways they resisted slavery.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about some of the ways that enslaved African Americans resisted slavery.
Enslaved African Americans faced many hardships but were able to create family lives, religious beliefs, and a distinct culture.

Enslaved people constantly faced uncertainty and danger. Laws did not protect them. Family members could be sold away at any time. To create some stability, enslaved people formed networks of relatives and friends as extended families. If parents were sold away, an aunt or close friend could raise the children. Large, close-knit extended families became an important part of African American culture.

Enslaved African Americans combined African and American elements to form their own culture. Their culture and communities helped them cope with the hardships of slavery.

In 1808 Congress outlawed the slave trade. Slavery, however, remained legal in the South. No new slaves could be brought in, but children born to enslaved parents became part of the enslaved population. By 1860 almost all enslaved people in the South had been born there.

Native-born African Americans continued to practice African music and dance. They passed traditional African stories to their children. Many African Americans accepted Christianity, but they followed African religious practices as well. They created their own ceremonies for religious events such as marriage.

Christianity became a religion of hope and resistance for many enslaved African Americans. They expressed their suffering and hopes for freedom in spirituals—African American religious folk songs. They often used spirituals to communicate secretly with one another.

1. Why did enslaved African Americans develop extended families?
Resisting Slavery (pages 434–437)

Main Idea: Many enslaved people fought against slavery.

Since the 1700s, the Southern states had passed laws called slave codes that controlled enslaved people. The laws were intended to prevent a slave rebellion. For this reason, they prohibited slaves from meeting in large groups and from leaving their master’s property without a written pass. Slave codes also made it illegal to teach enslaved people to read or write.

In 1831, Nat Turner, an enslaved religious leader, led a brief but violent revolt in Virginia that killed at least 55 whites. Turner was hanged, but his rebellion frightened whites and led to more severe slave codes.

Before Turner, several other slave revolts had also failed. Informers gave away a plot by Gabriel Prosser in 1800 and one by Denmark Vesey in 1821.

Armed revolts were rare, however. Enslaved people knew they had little chance of winning. Instead, they resisted by other means. They worked slowly or pretended to be ill. Sometimes they broke tools or set fire to a plantation building.

Some enslaved African Americans tried to run away. Harriet Tubman and Frederick Douglass gained their freedom by fleeing to the North. Getting to the North from the Deep South was nearly impossible. Most slaves who successfully escaped came from the Upper South. Many runaway slaves received assistance from the Underground Railroad—a network of “safe houses” owned by free blacks and whites who opposed slavery.

Most runaways were captured and severely punished. Even those who made it to free states were not safe. In many Northern states, fugitive slaves were captured and returned to the South. As a result, many fled to Canada.

2. What was the purpose of slave codes?
**Drawing From Experience**

In the last presidential election, did you see campaign advertisements that tried to make the other candidate look bad? Candidates in the 1828 election pioneered mudslinging—hurling insults at one another.

This section describes the election campaigns of 1824 and 1828. You will also learn about new ideas brought to the political process by Andrew Jackson and the crisis that threatened to tear the country apart.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about how political leaders reacted differently to an important issue facing the country.
The Elections of 1824 and 1828 (pages 447–448)

Main Idea: Adams and Jackson introduced new ways of campaigning in the elections of 1824 and 1828.

The election of 1824 featured a competition among three Republican favorite sons—candidates supported by their home state rather than by the national party. They were Henry Clay, Andrew Jackson, and John Quincy Adams. Jackson won the most popular votes. He also won a plurality—largest single share—of the electoral votes. Because no candidate received a majority of the electoral votes, however, the Twelfth Amendment required the House of Representatives to select the president.

Before the House voted, Adams and Clay made a deal. Clay would use his influence as House Speaker to defeat Jackson. In return, Adams probably promised to appoint Clay as secretary of state. The House elected Adams as president. When he named Clay as secretary of state, Jackson’s supporters accused the two men of making a “corrupt bargain” to steal the election.

As president, Adams favored a stronger navy, federal funding of scientific explorations, and federal direction of the economy. Congress turned down many of his proposals, preferring a more limited federal role.

There were two political parties in 1828. Jackson’s Democratic-Republicans favored states’ rights and less power for the central government. Their supporters were mainly frontier people, immigrants, and city workers. Adams’ National Republicans wanted a strong
national government. They believed the government should take steps to help the economy. Many were merchants or farmers.

During the campaign, both parties engaged in mudslinging, attempts to ruin their opponent’s reputation with insults. They were also the first to use slogans, rallies, and buttons—strategies common in campaigns today. Jackson won in a landslide, or overwhelming victory.

1. Why did the House of Representatives elect the president in 1824?

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**Jackson as President** *(pages 448–449)*

*Main Idea* The United States’ political system changed under Andrew Jackson, becoming more democratic.

Jackson appealed to ordinary citizens. They saw his rise from poverty to the White House as an American success story. During the War of 1812, he led troops to victory at the battles of Horseshoe Bend and New Orleans. His troops called him “Old Hickory” because he was as tough as a hickory tree.

Jackson promised equality for all Americans, though this promise applied only to white men. In the nation’s early years, only white men who owned property or paid taxes had suffrage, or the right to vote. By the 1820s, many states had relaxed the property requirement. As a result, many white men voted for the first time—sharecroppers, factory workers, and others. Women, African Americans, and Native Americans still could not vote. Also by 1828, almost all states had changed their constitutions to allow the people, rather than the state legislatures, to choose presidential electors.

The Democrats wanted more democracy in the federal bureaucracy, a system in which nonelected officials carry out laws. The Democrats believed that ordinary citizens...
should hold government jobs. After winning the presidency, Jackson replaced many federal workers with his supporters. This practice became known as the spoils system. The word “spoils” refers to the benefits of victory—in this case, the right to hand out government jobs to supporters.

Jackson’s supporters worked to make the political system more democratic as well. Under the old caucus system, Congress formed committees to select major political candidates. The Democrats replaced this unpopular system with nominating conventions in which state delegates selected the party’s presidential candidate. This system allowed many people to participate in selecting candidates.

2. Why did Andrew Jackson appeal to ordinary Americans?

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**The Tariff Debate** *(pages 450–451)*

*Main Idea* The fight over tariffs divided the nation and raised the question of states’ rights versus the rights of the federal government.

Americans disagreed strongly on some issues. One was the tariff, a fee paid by merchants who imported goods. In 1828 Congress placed a high tariff on manufactured goods from Europe. The tariff benefited American manufacturers—mostly in the Northeast—because it made European goods more expensive. As a result, American consumers would buy more American-made goods.

Southerners, however, called it the Tariff of Abominations (something hateful). The South had few manufacturers to benefit from increased sales. To Southerners, the tariff meant higher prices.
Vice President John C. Calhoun argued that states have the right to **nullify**, or cancel, a federal law they consider against state interests. He argued that since the federal government is a creation of the states, the states—not the Supreme Court or Congress—have the right to decide whether federal laws are constitutional. Some Southerners called for the Southern states to **secede**, or break away, from the United States and form their own country.

In a speech to the Senate in 1830, Robert Hayne of South Carolina defended a state’s right to nullify federal laws. In a stinging attack, Daniel Webster of Massachusetts responded that nullification could only mean the end of the Union.

President Jackson expressed his position in a dinner toast: “Our federal union must be preserved!” Calhoun quickly responded, “The Union—next to our liberty, most dear.” He meant that the Union took second place to a state’s liberty to overrule the Constitution. Wanting to speak for the South in Congress, Calhoun won election to the Senate in 1832 and resigned as vice president.

Congress lowered the tariff in 1832. Still dissatisfied, South Carolina passed the Nullification Act, refusing to pay the tariffs of 1828 and 1832. South Carolina threatened to secede if the federal government tried to enforce the tariffs. Jackson supported Henry Clay’s compromise bill to lower the tariff. He also had Congress pass the Force Act, allowing military action to enforce acts of Congress. South Carolina nullified the Force Act as well. Calhoun’s supporters claimed victory, believing that they forced a revision of the tariff. Still, the Force Act showed them that the federal government would fight to preserve the Union.

3. Why did many Southerners oppose the tariff of 1828?
The Removal of Native Americans

For use with textbook pages 452–457

Drawing From Experience
Did anyone ever make a promise to you and then break it? How did you feel? Frustrated? Angry? No doubt the Cherokee people felt this way. The United States government had signed treaties with them, establishing them as a separate nation within Georgia. Yet the government later forced them to give up their land.

In this section you will learn about the effects of the government’s Indian removal policy on several Native American tribes.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about ways in which Native American tribes attempted to resist removal and the eventual result.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resistance Efforts</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cherokee</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sauk/Fox</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminole</td>
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</table>

Content Vocabulary
relocate: move to another place (page 453)
guerrilla tactics: making surprise attacks and then retreating (page 455)

US8.8 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the West from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced. Focuses on: US8.8.2
Moving Native Americans (pages 453–454)

Main Idea As settlements pushed westward, many Native Americans were forced off their lands.

The “Five Civilized Tribes”—the Cherokee, Creek, Seminole, Chickasaw, and Choctaw—lived in the Southeast. In Georgia, the Cherokee farmed the land and built schools. Many learned to read and write their language, using the alphabet invented by Sequoyah.

Many white settlers wanted Native American lands. They pushed the federal government to relocate, or move, the Native Americans west of the Mississippi River. Congress passed the Indian Removal Act in 1830. It allowed the government to pay Native Americans to move west. In 1834 Congress created the Indian Territory in present-day Oklahoma for these Native Americans.

The Cherokee refused to give up their land. Earlier treaties with the United States government recognized the Cherokee as a separate nation within Georgia. Georgia, however, refused to recognize Cherokee laws. The Cherokee sued the state. In the Supreme Court case Worcester v. Georgia, Chief Justice John Marshall ruled that Georgia had no right to interfere with the Cherokee.

President Andrew Jackson supported Georgia’s efforts to remove the Cherokee. He promised to ignore the ruling.

In 1835 a few Cherokee signed a treaty giving up the people’s land. Most Cherokee, however, refused to honor the treaty. They wrote a protest letter to the government. President Jackson sent troops to move the Cherokee west. Thousands of Cherokee died in the forced journey known as the Trail of Tears.

1. What was the Trail of Tears?
Native American Resistance (pages 455–457)

Main Idea: Some groups of Native Americans attempted to resist relocation. Most were eventually taken from their lands by force.

In 1832 Black Hawk led a force of Sauk and Fox people back to Illinois to try to recapture their homeland. State and federal troops slaughtered most of them. The Seminole of Florida were the only Native Americans to successfully resist their removal. Chief Osceola and some of his people decided to go to war rather than leave Florida. They joined with a group of African Americans who had escaped slavery. Together they attacked white settlements along the Florida coast. They used guerrilla tactics, making surprise attacks and then retreating to the cover of the forest.

In an ambush, the Seminole killed most of the soldiers commanded by Major Francis Dade. As a result of the Dade Massacre, the government sent more troops to fight the Seminole.

In 1842, the government gave up trying to force the Seminole to leave Florida. Many people on both sides had died in the Seminole wars.

After 1842, only a few scattered groups of Native Americans lived east of the Mississippi River. Most had been removed to the West. Native Americans had given up more than 100 million acres of land. They received in return about $68 million and 32 million acres west of the Mississippi. They lived there in reservations—land set aside for their use. The Five Civilized Tribes were relocated in present-day Oklahoma.

2. The government’s Indian removal policy led to what result for most Native Americans?
Drawing From Experience

Suppose your parents lost their jobs. As a result, your family could not afford to buy food or pay the rent. What if hundreds of thousands of other American families found themselves in the same situation? Would you want the president to help? When the Panic of 1837 hit, President Tyler did little to help because he believed government should not interfere in the economy.

This section describes the end of the Bank of the United States and the economic depression that followed a few years later. You will also learn about the presidencies of William Henry Harrison and John Tyler.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the characteristics of the economic depression that began with the Panic of 1837.
President Jackson forced the National Bank to close, and the Panic of 1837 caused economic problems that split the Democratic Party.

The Bank of the United States was a powerful institution. Congress chartered it to hold the federal government’s money and control the money supply. The Bank was run, however, by private bankers, not elected officials. President Jackson believed the Bank served the interests of wealthy Easterners, not ordinary citizens. To Jackson, a self-made man, the Bank’s wealthy president, Nicholas Biddle, represented everything he disliked.

Henry Clay and Daniel Webster wanted to use the Bank to defeat Jackson in the 1832 election. They persuaded Biddle to apply early to renew the Bank’s charter, which did not expire until 1836. They believed the people supported the Bank and would vote for Clay if Jackson blocked the new charter.

Jackson vetoed, or rejected, the bill to renew the charter. Like others, Jackson believed the Bank was unconstitutional, despite an earlier Supreme Court decision to the contrary in *McCulloch v. Maryland*.

The plan by Clay and Webster backfired. Most people supported Jackson’s veto. Jackson won reelection over Clay. Once reelected, Jackson decided to “kill” the Bank. He had all federal money withdrawn. Without these funds, the Bank could not operate. Later, however, critics would charge that the end of the Bank contributed to economic problems in the years ahead.

Jackson’s popularity helped his vice president, Martin Van Buren, win the presidency in 1836. Soon after Van Buren took office, the country entered a severe economic depression, a period in which business and employment fall to a very low level. It began with the Panic of 1837, a time when land values dropped sharply, investments declined suddenly, and banks failed. Thousands of businesses closed and many people lost their jobs.
President Van Buren believed that government should interfere as little as possible in the economy. This is the principle of *laissez-faire*, a French term meaning “leave alone.” Still, Van Buren did try to help. He persuaded Congress to set up a federal treasury. The treasury, rather than private banks, would handle the government’s funds. Van Buren believed that separating government finances from private banks would help avoid further bank crises. This act, however, drew criticism from his own Democratic Party as well as the Whig Party.

1. Why did Andrew Jackson oppose the Bank of the United States?

The Whigs Come to Power (page 461)

**Main Idea** After Harrison’s death, Tyler took the presidency in a direction opposed to the Whigs’ goals and the Whigs lost power after 1844.

The Whigs hoped the split in the Democratic Party and the ongoing depression would help them win the 1840 election. They ran war hero William Henry Harrison with running mate John Tyler. The Whigs used Harrison’s fame from the Battle of Tippecanoe in their slogan: “Tippecanoe and Tyler Too.”

Although Harrison was rich, the party portrayed him as a “man of the people.” Whig cartoons showed him in front of a log cabin, the Whigs’ campaign symbol. The log cabin campaign helped Harrison win easily. Harrison died, however, four weeks after taking office. John Tyler became the first vice president to gain the presidency because of the death of the elected president.

Although elected as a Whig, Tyler had once been a Democrat. He vetoed several Whig-sponsored bills,
including one to recharter the Bank of the United States. The Whigs expelled Tyler from the party. However, Whig leaders could not agree on policies and the party was divided. Whig candidate Henry Clay lost the election of 1844 to Democratic candidate Polk.

2. Why do you think the Whigs used “Tippecanoe” as their campaign slogan in 1840?

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________________________________________________________________________
**Content Vocabulary**

- **joint occupation**: settlement of an area by people from more than one nation (page 471)
- **mountain man**: fur trapper (page 472)
- **rendezvous**: meeting (page 472)
- **emigrant**: person who leaves one country or region to settle in another (page 474)
- **Manifest Destiny**: idea that the nation should expand its boundaries to the Pacific Ocean (page 474)

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**Drawing From Experience**

Have you ever heard a “tall tale”? Have you ever told one? The mountain men told many tall tales of adventure when they gathered at a rendezvous each summer.

In this section you will learn about the mountain men and the pioneers. You will also learn about the settlement of competing claims on Oregon.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the nations that made claims on Oregon and how these claims were resolved.

<table>
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<th>Nation</th>
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Rivalry in the Northwest (pages 471–472)

**Main Idea** Many Americans wanted control of the Oregon country to gain access to the Pacific Ocean.

The Oregon country was the huge area that is today Oregon, Washington, and Idaho plus parts of Montana, Wyoming, and British Columbia in Canada. It extended from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean. In the early 1800s, Great Britain, Spain, Russia, and the United States claimed the area. Many Americans wanted the land to gain access to the Pacific Ocean for trade.

John Quincy Adams negotiated the Adams-Onís Treaty with Spain in 1819. In it, the Spanish gave up claims to Oregon. They agreed to limit their territory to what is now California’s northern border. In 1824, Russia also gave up its claims to the Oregon country. Britain and the United States agreed to joint occupation—people from both countries could settle in Oregon.

Fur traders were the first Americans to arrive in Oregon. They trapped beaver, whose skins were used to make hats. American John Jacob Aster established the American Fur Company. It traded with the East Coast, Pacific Northwest, and China. The Asters became one of America’s richest families.

Fur companies hired trappers, who became known as mountain men. Many mountain men had Native American wives and adopted Native American customs and dress. In the spring and early summer, they roamed the mountains, collecting beaver skins. In the late summer they gathered for an annual rendezvous, or meeting. At the rendezvous, they exchanged their beaver skins for supplies. They swapped stories of adventure with old friends.

As they traveled, the mountain men explored the West. Jim Beckwourth, an African American mountain man, explored Wyoming’s Green River. Robert Stuart and Jedediah Smith found the South Pass. This broad break through the Rockies later became the main route to Oregon.
In time, the mountain men had to find other work. They had killed off most of the beaver. Some settled on Oregon farms. Others, such as Jim Bridger and Kit Carson, put their knowledge of the West to work as guides for settlers.

1. Why did the mountain men have to give up their trade?

Settling Oregon (pages 473–475)

Main Idea Increased American settlement led the United States and Britain to divide Oregon.

Missionaries came to Oregon to bring Christianity to the Native Americans. Dr. Marcus Whitman and his wife Narcissa built a mission among the Cayuse people. New settlers unknowingly brought measles to the mission. An epidemic killed many Native American children. The Cayuse blamed the Whitmans and killed them in 1847. The “great migration” to Oregon began in the early 1840s. Tens of thousands made the journey. The pioneers were called emigrants because they left the United States to settle in a new region. Pioneers stuffed their canvas-covered wagons, called prairie schooners, with supplies. They set out from towns in Missouri, such as Independence, to make the 2,000-mile journey. They followed the Oregon Trail across the Great Plains, along the Platte River, and through the South Pass of the Rocky Mountains. Past the mountains, they took the trail north and west along the Snake and Columbia Rivers into Oregon.

As the number of American settlers grew, the British population remained about the same. As a result, the question of what nation would control Oregon arose again.
In the 1800s, many Americans came to believe that the United States had a mission to expand across the entire continent to the Pacific Ocean. Newspaper editor John O’Sullivan called this mission America’s Manifest Destiny.

Many Americans began to push for sole ownership of Oregon. James K. Polk, the Democratic Party nominee for president in 1844, agreed. He campaigned on the slogan “Fifty-four Forty or Fight.” This slogan referred to the line of latitude that Democrats believed should be the nation’s northern border in Oregon. Henry Clay, the Whig Party candidate, did not take a strong stand on Oregon. Polk was elected president.

The British rejected the U.S. proposal at “Fifty-four Forty.” This would have meant giving up all claims to the Oregon country. Through negotiations, the two nations agreed in 1846 on setting the border between the British and American portions at latitude 49ºN.

2. What was the meaning of James K. Polk’s campaign slogan “Fifty-four Forty or Fight”? 
Independence for Texas  For use with textbook pages 480–487

Content Vocabulary

Tejano: Mexican who claimed Texas as his or her home (page 481)

empresario: person who offered land in Texas to people willing to bring their families there to settle (page 481)

decree: official order (page 482)

annex: take control of (page 486)

Drawing From Experience

Did you know that Texas was once a country? The Mexican government hoped that the Americans who settled in its Texas territory would blend into the Mexican culture. When they did not, Mexico set limits that sparked a struggle for independence in Texas.

In this section you will learn about the settlement of Texas and its struggle for independence from Mexico. You will also learn how Mexico became part of the United States.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Identify the main battles of the Texan Revolution. Describe their results and significance.

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<th>Battle</th>
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A Clash of Cultures (pages 481–482)

Main Idea Texas was settled by people from Mexico and the United States, creating cultural tension.

In 1803, the United States had claimed Texas as part of the Louisiana Purchase. Spain protested, and the United States dropped its claim in 1819. Most Texans at the time were Tejanos—Mexicans who claimed Texas as their home.

To promote Texas’s growth, Spain offered large tracts of land to people who agreed to settle there with their families. The people who obtained these land grants and recruited settlers were called empresarios. The first land grant went to Moses Austin in 1821. When he died, the land passed to his son, Stephen F. Austin. Stephen recruited 300 American families to settle in Texas.

Before Austin set up the colony, Mexico gained its independence from Spain and ownership of Texas. By 1830, Americans in Texas far outnumbered Mexicans. The Americans had not adopted Mexican ways. Alarmed by the growing American influence, the Mexican government issued a decree, or official order, in 1830 to stop all immigration from the United States. Mexico also placed a tax on American goods entering Texas. These new policies angered Texans. Some called for independence.

In 1833, Mexican president General Antonio López de Santa Anna removed the ban on American settlers. However, he refused to change Texas’s political status. When Austin began to plan for independence, the Mexican government arrested him.

1. Why did the Mexican government stop American immigration to Texas?
Main Idea  Texans wanted to be a nation separate from Mexico.

The Struggle for Independence  (pages 483–487)

In 1835 Santa Anna sent troops to stop the unrest in Texas. They tried to seize a cannon in the town of Gonzales. After a brief battle, Texans drove the Mexicans back. Texans considered this the first battle of the Texan Revolution.

In 1835, Texans liberated San Antonio from a larger Mexican force. Texans disagreed about what action to take next. As a result, they were unprepared when a Mexican army arrived in San Antonio in 1836. Only about 160 Texans faced Santa Anna’s army of several thousand at a nearby mission called the Alamo.

Davy Crockett and Jim Bowie were among the Texans’ brave leaders. The American commander, William B. Travis, sent messages through Mexican lines to ask others to join the fight. About 32 volunteers from Gonzales slipped in. The siege lasted 12 days. On March 6, 1836, Mexican cannon fire smashed the Alamo’s walls. The Mexicans killed most of the defenders, including Crockett, Bowie, and Travis. The defenders had bought Texans some much needed time.

During the siege of the Alamo, Texan leaders were meeting at Washington-on-the-Brazos to draw up a new constitution. There, on March 2, 1836, they declared independence. Texas became a new country—the Republic of Texas.

The Texas Declaration of Independence was similar to the Declaration of the United States. It accused Santa Anna’s government of violating rights guaranteed by the Mexican Constitution.

Texas set up a temporary government until elections could be held. David G. Burnet was chosen president and Lorenzo de Zavala, vice president. The government named Sam Houston commander in chief of the Texas forces. Houston had been raised among the Cherokee people. He had served as a soldier in the Creek Wars, in Congress, and as governor of Tennessee.

Academic Vocabulary

similar: having common qualities (p. 484)
Texan forces retreating from Goliad came face to face with Mexican troops. After a fierce fight, several hundred Texans surrendered. Santa Anna had them executed.

Houston gathered an army of about 900 at San Jacinto, near present-day Houston. The Texans launched a surprise attack on the Mexican army of more than 1,300. As they attacked, they shouted “Remember the Alamo! Remember Goliad!” They killed nearly half the Mexican troops and captured the others—including Santa Anna. On May 14, 1836, Santa Anna signed a treaty, recognizing Texas independence.

Texans elected Sam Houston as their president. Houston sent representatives to Washington, D.C., to ask the United States to annex—take control of—Texas. President Andrew Jackson refused because adding another slave state would upset the balance between slave and free states in Congress.

Jackson’s successor, President Martin Van Buren also put off the question of annexation. When President William Henry Harrison died in 1841, John Tyler became the first vice president to take office upon a president’s death. Tyler persuaded Texas to reapply for annexation. The U.S. Senate was still divided over slavery and denied the request.

By the 1844 election, the feeling of Manifest Destiny was growing. The South favored annexation of Texas. The North wanted the United States to take sole ownership of Oregon. Democrat James K. Polk supported both actions. After Polk’s victory, Congress passed a resolution to annex Texas. On December 29, 1845, Texas became a state of the United States.

2. Who was Sam Houston?
War With Mexico  

For use with textbook pages 490–497

**Content Vocabulary**

- ranchero: ranch owner (page 492)
- rancho: large ranch (page 492)
- Californios: Mexicans who lived in California (page 496)
- cede: give (page 497)

**Drawing From Experience**

Imagine traveling by wagon to a distant place with no roads to guide you. How would you find your way? The first American trader to reach Santa Fe, New Mexico, established a route for others to follow. It was called the Santa Fe Trail.

This section discusses important events in the history of the New Mexico and California territories. You will also learn about the war with Mexico that brought these territories into the United States.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the time line on the following page to help you take notes. Identify key events in the history of New Mexico and California that occurred on the dates shown.
The Santa Fe Trail was a busy trade route through New Mexico, a large region governed by Mexico.

In the early 1800s, the New Mexico Territory extended from Texas to California. It covered the vast area that is today New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada and parts of Colorado and Utah.

Native Americans had lived in the area for thousands of years. In the late 1500s, Spanish conquistadors made it part of Spain’s colony of Mexico. The Spanish founded Santa Fe in 1610. When Mexico won independence from Spain in 1821, New Mexico became part of Mexico.

Fearing an American takeover, the Spanish tried to keep Americans out of Santa Fe. The Mexican government, however, welcomed American traders. It hoped trade would boost the economy.
In 1821, William Becknell became the first American trader to reach Santa Fe. His route became the Santa Fe Trail. The trail began near Independence, Missouri. After crossing the prairies, it followed the Arkansas River toward the Rocky Mountains. It then turned south into New Mexico.

Goods could travel by wagon because the trail was mostly flat. The trail remained a busy trade route until the railroad arrived in 1880. As trade with New Mexico increased, Americans began settling there. Many Americans accepted the concept of Manifest Destiny, and many wanted to acquire the New Mexico Territory.

1. Why did the Mexican government allow Americans into New Mexico Territory?

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California's Spanish Culture (pages 492–494)

Main Idea California was settled and populated by diverse cultures.

The first Europeans to settle in California were Spanish explorers and missionaries. Juan Bautista de Anza opened a land route from Mexico and founded San Francisco in 1776. In 1769, Gaspar de Portolá and Father Junípero Serra began building a series of missions connected by El Camino Real, or the King’s Highway. By 1820, California had 21 missions, devoted to converting Native Americans to Christianity. American mountain man Jedediah Smith visited the San Gabriel Mission. He described Native American residents farming and working at crafts.

After Mexico gained its independence from Spain in 1821, California became part of Mexico. In 1833 the Mexican government abolished Spanish missions. It gave some of the lands to Native Americans and sold the rest.

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Academic Vocabulary

devote: to give over to a cause, enterprise, or activity (p. 492)

concept: idea (p. 491)
Mexican settlers called rancheros, or ranch owners, bought these lands and built huge properties called ranchos.

At first Mexican officials welcomed Americans into California. In 1839, they granted land in Sacramento Valley to John Sutter, who built a trading post. American fur traders and merchants arrived. In the 1840s, American families traveled the Oregon Trail to settle in the Sacramento River Valley.

John C. Frémont, an army officer, wrote of the region’s mild climate, beauty, and abundant resources. Americans began to talk about adding California to the nation. Merchants wanted ports on the Pacific coast for trade. Many Americans wanted the nation to be safely bordered by the sea instead of by a foreign power—Mexico. President Polk tried twice to buy California and New Mexico, but Mexico refused.

2. What was the purpose of Spanish missions?

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**War With Mexico (pages 495–497)**

**Main Idea** Strained relations between the U.S. and Mexico resulted in war.

After Mexico refused to sell California and New Mexico, President Polk plotted to take the territories by force. He hoped to provoke Mexico to attack first, so that he could justify the war to Congress.

The annexation of Texas strained relations with Mexico. Because Mexico had never recognized Texas independence, it considered the annexation illegal. Another dispute arose over the Texas-Mexico border. The United States set the border at the Rio Grande. Mexico set it farther north, along the Nueces River.
Polk sent John Slidell to propose a deal. Mexican officials refused to meet with Slidell. Polk ordered General Zachary Taylor to lead his soldiers into the disputed border area between the Nueces River and the Rio Grande. Taylor built a fort there. In April 1846, Mexican soldiers attacked the fort. Taylor notified Polk that blood had been shed. Congress declared war.

The war divided Americans. The Democrats, Polk’s party, mostly supported it. Many Whigs believed the war was unjust. Some Northerners accused the Democrats of starting the war to spread slavery.

Polk’s plan was to drive Mexican forces out of the disputed border region in Texas. Then, American forces would move into New Mexico and California. Finally, American forces would take Mexico’s capital, Mexico City.

General Taylor’s forces captured Monterrey and Buena Vista, securing the border. General Stephen Watts Kearney led his troops into New Mexico and California, capturing Santa Fe without firing a shot.

In June 1846, a small group of Americans seized Sonoma and proclaimed independence for California. They called their new country the Bear Flag Republic. John C. Frémont and Kit Carson joined the Americans in Sonoma. Frémont said he would seize California. These actions outraged Californios, the Mexicans who lived in California. To them, the Americans appeared to be simply seizing land.

U.S. naval forces under Commodore John Sloat captured Monterey and San Francisco. Sloat declared California annexed to the United States. Sloat’s fleet captured San Diego and sailed toward Los Angeles. After Sloat’s fleet left, many Californios in San Diego rose up against Americans controlling the city. Kearney’s troops arrived just in time to stop the uprising. By January 1847, American troops controlled California.

In March 1847 troops under Winfield Scott landed on the coast of Mexico and took Veracruz. In September 1847, they took Mexico City. The Mexican government surrendered.
The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed in February 1848, officially ended the conflict. Mexico gave up claims to Texas and agreed to the Rio Grande as the border. Mexico ceded—gave—California and New Mexico to the United States in what was called the Mexican Cession. In return, the United States paid Mexico $15 million.

In 1853 the United States paid Mexico $10 million for the Gadsden Purchase, a strip of land along the southern edge of present-day Arizona and New Mexico. With this purchase, the United States mainland reached its present size.

3. Why did President Polk send Zachary Taylor’s troops into the disputed border region?
**New Settlers in California and Utah**

*For use with textbook pages 500–506*

**Content Vocabulary**

**forty-niner**: person who came to California in 1849 to look for gold (page 501)

**boomtown**: new community that sprang up almost overnight due to the gold rush (page 503)

**vigilante**: person who took the law into his or her own hands (page 504)

**Drawing From Experience**

Think about advertisements for “get-rich-quick” schemes you have seen on television or on the Internet. Did the ads use stirring language that could excite people to jump at the “opportunity”? Exciting stories of gold discoveries inspired many adventurers to journey to California to seek their fortune.

In this section you will learn about the California Gold Rush and its effects on California. You will also learn about the Mormons who settled in Utah.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about how the discovery of gold in California affected the region and its people.

**US8.8** Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the West from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.

Focuses on: **US8.8.2**
The discovery of gold in California had a significant impact on the settlement and economy of the region.

In 1848, James Marshall found bits of gold on John Sutter’s land. As word of the discovery leaked out, the California Gold Rush began. In 1848 and 1849, nearly 100,000 people from all over the world flocked to California to look for gold. Those who arrived in 1849 were called forty-niners.

Many arrived by sea, sailing around the southern tip of South America. Most traveled overland on the Oregon Trail or Santa Fe Trail and then over California’s Sierra Nevada mountain range. More than half were American.
but others came from Mexico, South America, Europe, and Australia. A group of 300 men arrived from China. Their descendants established California’s Chinese American community.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo that ended the Mexican War made Californios (Hispanic Californians) United States citizens. It also guaranteed them the rights to their lands. The Land Law of 1851, however, required Californios to prove what land they owned. Some had official documents to prove ownership. Others lost their land.

As the huge wave of gold seekers arrived, new communities, called **boomtowns**, sprang up almost overnight. Villages, such as San Francisco, grew into large cities.

Few forty-niners had any mining experience. They tore up hillsides with pickaxes and shovels. They spent hours “panning” streams for gold nuggets. The Gold Rush more than doubled the world’s supply of gold, yet few forty-niners achieved lasting wealth. Most miners found little or no gold. Many who did find gold lost it through gambling or wild spending.

Merchants made huge profits. They could charge whatever they liked for **items**. The miners had no place else to buy supplies.

Few women lived in mining towns. Many lonely men spent their free time drinking, gambling, and fighting. The towns had no police, so lawbreakers **posed** a real threat. To protect themselves, citizens formed vigilance committees. The **vigilantes** took the law into their own hands, acting as police, judge, jury, and sometimes executioner.

The Gold Rush lasted only a few years, but it had a lasting effect on California’s economy. Agriculture, shipping, and trade expanded to meet the miners’ needs for food and supplies. Many miners remained in California to farm or run a business. California’s population soared from 20,000 in 1848 to more than 220,000 in 1852.

California applied for statehood in 1850. Southerners in Congress opposed the petition because California’s new constitution banned slavery. A new free state would
upset the balance between slave and free states in Congress. California became a state later in 1850 when Congress worked out a compromise.

1. Who opposed statehood for California at first? Why?

A Religious Refuge in Utah (pages 505–506)

Main Idea Utah was settled by Mormons, a religious group looking for safe haven.

The Mormons are members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. In 1830, Joseph Smith’s visions led him to found the Mormon church. He believed that property should be held in common. He also favored polygamy, the idea that a man could marry more than one woman. This practice angered many people, so the Mormons eventually gave it up.

Smith formed a community in New York. Neighbors, however, disapproved of the religion and forced the Mormons to leave. The Mormons went to Ohio, then to Missouri, and then to Illinois, where a mob killed Smith in 1844. Brigham Young became the Mormon leader.

Young decided to move the Mormons to the area around the Great Salt Lake in present-day Utah. At the time, the area was part of Mexico. Few people lived there, however, because of the harsh terrain.

About 12,000 Mormons made the journey, the largest single migration in American history. They worked hard to make their new home, Deseret, prosper. They built irrigation canals and set up industries to become self-sufficient.

The United States acquired the Great Salt Lake area from Mexico in 1848. In 1850, Congress set up the Utah Territory. Brigham Young became its governor. The Mormons resisted federal authority. They wanted to be left
alone. War nearly broke out between the Mormons and the United States Army in the late 1850s. Utah finally became a state in 1896.

2. Who was Brigham Young?

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Abolitionists

For use with textbook pages 528–534

Content Vocabulary

abolitionist: reformer who worked to abolish, or end, slavery (page 529)
Underground Railroad: network of free African Americans and whites who helped runaway slaves make their way to freedom (page 534)

Drawing From Experience

If you lived when African Americans were enslaved, would you hide a stranger who was trying to escape enslavement? Would you do it even if you could go to jail or be forced into slavery yourself for doing so? Grave dangers faced the courageous African American and white abolitionists who helped enslaved people escape to freedom.

In this section you will learn about the efforts of abolitionists to help enslaved people gain freedom and ultimately to end slavery.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the actions taken by Southerners and Northerners in response to the Fugitive Slave Act.

Fugitive Slave Act

Actions of Southerners:

Actions of Northerners:

US8.9. Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.
Focuses on:
US8.9.1
Early Efforts to End Slavery (page 529)

Main Idea By the early 1800s, a growing number of Americans had begun to demand an immediate end to slavery in the South.

Abolitionists were reformers who worked to abolish, or end, slavery. They opposed the notion that people could be bought and sold like objects. Many abolitionist leaders came from the Quaker faith.

Efforts to end or limit slavery began before the American Revolution. At the Constitutional Convention in 1787, the delegates agreed to let each state decide whether to allow slavery. By the early 1800s, slavery had ended in the North but not in the South.

In 1816 a group of white Virginians formed the American Colonization Society. Its goal was to resettle African Americans in Africa or the Caribbean. The society freed enslaved workers gradually by buying them from slaveholders and sending them overseas to start new lives.

The society raised enough money to send several groups to Africa, where it had acquired land. The first African Americans arrived in 1822 to settle in the colony called Liberia. Liberia became an independent country in 1847.

The society did not halt the growth of slavery. It could resettle only a small number of people. Many African Americans did not want to go. They wanted to be free in America, where their families were.

1. Many early abolitionist leaders were members of what faith?
The New Abolitionists (pages 530–532)

Main Idea: The issue of slavery became the most pressing social issue for reformers beginning in the 1830s.

Reformers realized that the gradual approach to ending slavery was not working. Planters of the Deep South were becoming ever more dependent on slave labor as the demand for cotton grew.

William Lloyd Garrison, a Quaker, was one of the first white abolitionists to call for the immediate emancipation [freeing] of enslaved people. He started a newspaper called The Liberator to spread antislavery views. He attracted enough followers to start the New England Antislavery Society.

Sarah and Angelina Grimké, sisters from a South Carolina slaveholding family, moved to Philadelphia in 1832. In the North, they lectured and wrote against slavery. The sisters, along with Angelina’s husband, Theodore Weld, wrote American Slavery As It Is, a collection of firsthand accounts of life under slavery. It became one of the most influential abolitionist publications of its time.

African Americans took an active role in the abolitionist movement. They participated in the American Anti-slavery Society. In 1827 Samuel Cornish and John Russwurm started Freedom’s Journal, the country’s first African American newspaper. David Walker, an African American writer born free, urged African Americans to overthrow slavery by force. Free African American leaders held their first convention in 1830. They discussed starting an African American college and encouraging free African Americans to settle in Canada.

Frederick Douglass escaped from slavery and settled in the North. As a runaway, he could have been captured and returned to slavery. Yet he traveled widely in the United States and abroad to address abolitionist meetings. His powerful words often moved listeners to tears. Douglass edited the antislavery newspaper the North Star.
He pushed not only for African American freedom but also for equality with whites.

Isabella “Belle” Baumfree escaped from slavery in 1826. She settled in New York City, supporting her family by doing domestic work. During this time, she began preaching in the streets. She chose the name Sojourner Truth and dedicated her life to supporting abolition and women’s rights.

2. What approach to abolition did David Walker support?

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The Underground Railroad (pages 533–534)

Main Idea Abolitionists established a network of routes and risked their lives to help African Americans escape slavery.

The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 required all citizens to help catch runaways. Anyone who aided escaped slaves could be fined or imprisoned. The South hoped the law would force Northerners to recognize Southern rights. Instead, the law enraged many in the North.

Passage of the law encouraged slaveholders to step up their efforts to catch runaways. They seized runaways who had lived in freedom in the North for years. They even captured African Americans who were not escaped slaves and forced them into slavery.

Many Northerners refused to cooperate with the law. A network of free African Americans and whites called the Underground Railroad helped runaways make their way to freedom. Antislavery groups tried to rescue African Americans from pursuers. People gave money to buy freedom for some. Northern juries refused to convict people accused of breaking the Fugitive Slave Law.
Harriet Tubman escaped to freedom with the help of the Underground Railroad. Despite the risk of capture, Tubman courageously made 19 trips back into the South during the 1850s to help other enslaved people escape. She became the most successful conductor on the Underground Railroad. She led more than 300 people—including her parents—to freedom.

3. What were the penalties under the Fugitive Slave Act for aiding runaways?

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Slavery and the West  For use with textbook pages 535–542

Content Vocabulary

sectionalism: exaggerated loyalty to a particular region of the country (page 536)
nullify: legally overturn (page 537)
protective tariff: tax placed on goods that come from another country (page 537)
fugitive: a runaway (page 541)
secede: leave (page 541)
abstain: not to cast a vote (page 542)

Drawing From Experience

Suppose that any student could choose to ignore any school rule that he or she did not like. How would this affect the operation of the school? In the 1840s, many Southerners believed that any state had a right to overturn any federal law. This idea of states’ rights threatened to tear the United States apart.

In this section you will learn about key compromises that temporarily settled the issue of slavery in the territories. You will also learn how the idea of states’ rights led to a nullification crisis.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Describe issues that brought up the idea of nullification during the late 1700s and early 1800s.

US8.9 Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.
US8.10 Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War.
The Missouri Compromise (page 536)

Main Idea: The Missouri Compromise helped resolve the issue of whether new states would be slave states or free states.

Many settlers brought enslaved African Americans with them to the Missouri Territory. When Missouri applied to become a state, its constitution allowed slavery. In 1819, 11 states allowed slavery and 11 states did not. In the Senate, each state has two representatives. As a result, the Senate was evenly balanced between free and slave states. Missouri’s application touched off a bitter debate. Admitting a new slave state would upset the balance of power.

The North and South were competing for the new western lands. They had different economic systems and different views on slavery. These differences led to sectionalism—an exaggerated loyalty to a particular region of the country.

Henry Clay proposed a compromise. Maine had also asked to join the Union as a free state. Admitting Missouri and Maine at the same time would maintain the balance in the Senate. The Missouri Compromise also settled the issue of slavery in the territories for the moment. It banned slavery in the rest of the Louisiana Purchase north of 36°30’N latitude.

1. Why did it matter whether a territory joined the Union as a free or slave state?
Nullification (pages 537–538)

Main Idea The Kentucky Resolution first advanced the doctrine of nullification.

Southerners argued that states could nullify, or legally overturn, federal laws they considered unconstitutional. Nullification was first expressed in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. Written by James Madison and Thomas Jefferson, the resolutions declared the Alien and Sedition laws unconstitutional. Madison and Jefferson argued that the federal government was formed by a contract among the states. This contract—the Constitution—granted the federal government certain powers. Whenever a state decided that a federal law went beyond these powers, the state had a right to nullify the law.

The nullification issue came up again during the War of 1812. Many New England Federalists opposed the war. Federalists met at the Hartford Convention to propose amendments to the Constitution. Their demands found little support.

The nullification controversy arose again over the issue of protective tariffs—taxes placed on goods that come from another country. A tariff would raise the price of imported goods. As a result, Americans would buy more of the cheaper American-made goods. These additional sales would benefit American industries. The South, however, had little industry. Many Southerners felt it was unjust to make them pay higher prices for imported goods to support industries in the North.

South Carolina nullified the tariffs of 1828 and 1832. John C. Calhoun used states’ rights arguments from the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions to defend the nullification. Calhoun raised an important issue—Was the national government supreme or were the states sovereign? If the states were sovereign, they had a right to secede from the Union.

In the Senate, Robert Y. Hayne argued in support of nullification of a law about the sale of Western lands. Daniel Webster replied that the Supreme Court, not the
states, should decide whether a law is constitutional. He argued that the federal government was sovereign and any attempt to destroy the Union was treason.

In 1833 a compromise settled the nullification crisis temporarily. The tariff was lowered and South Carolina withdrew its nullification.

2. Summarize the states’ rights argument for nullification.

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New Western Lands (pages 539–540)

Main Idea In the 1840s, the issue of slavery in new territories was once again at the forefront.

The debate over slavery in the territories heated up again in the 1840s. Southerners wanted to annex Texas, where slavery already existed. Desire to acquire New Mexico and California led to war with Mexico.

Just before the war started, David Wilmot introduced a proposal to Congress. The Wilmot Proviso would ban slavery in any lands that might be acquired from Mexico. Southerners protested. John C. Calhoun countered with another proposal. It stated that neither Congress nor any territorial government had the right to ban or limit slavery. Both proposals sparked bitter debate but neither passed. The issue of slavery in California and New Mexico was not settled when the United States took control of these lands.

In 1848 Zachary Taylor, a Southerner and hero in the war with Mexico, ran for president as the Whig candidate. Lewis Cass ran as a Democrat. Neither candidate took a stand on slavery in the territories. Angered by this failure to take a stand, many antislavery Democrats and Whigs left their party and formed the Free-Soil Party. The party favored the Wilmot Proviso. Its candidate was
Martin Van Buren. Neutrality on the slavery issue helped Zachary Taylor win.

3. The Free-Soil Party formed around what issue? What stand did the party take on this issue?

The Search For Compromise (pages 541–542)

Main Idea  Henry Clay presented a plan to settle the slavery debate that resulted in the Compromise of 1850.

President Taylor urged California and New Mexico to apply for statehood right away. He reasoned that they could decide later about slavery. California applied in 1850. At the time, several thorny issues faced Congress. Antislavery forces wanted to ban slavery in the District of Columbia, the nation’s capital. Southerners wanted a national law requiring states to return fugitive, or runaway, slaves. The New Mexico-Texas border was also in dispute.

At the time, the nation included 15 slave states and 15 free states. California would likely become a free state. If New Mexico, Oregon, and Utah followed as free states, which was likely, the South would be hopelessly outvoted in the Senate. Angry Southerners began talking about seceding, or leaving, the Union.

Henry Clay proposed a plan to settle all the issues: (1) California would be admitted as a free state. (2) New Mexico Territory would have no restrictions on slavery. (3) The New Mexico-Texas border dispute would be settled in favor of New Mexico. (4) The slave trade, but not slavery, would be abolished in the District of Columbia. (5) Congress would pass a stronger fugitive slave law.

Calhoun opposed Clay’s plan. He believed that the only way to save the Union was to protect slavery.
Webster supported the plan. He reasoned that the land in the new territories was not suited for plantations. As a result, slavery would not take root there. Preserving the Union was most important.

In 1850, President Taylor collapsed from illness and died. Millard Fillmore, the new president, supported compromise. Congress would not pass Clay’s plan as a whole. Too many members opposed parts of it. Stephen A. Douglas divided Clay’s plan into five measures that Congress could vote on separately. Fillmore persuaded several Whigs to abstain—not to cast votes—on measures they opposed. Congress passed the five separate bills. Together, these laws, known as the Compromise of 1850, contained Clay’s original five points.

4. How did dividing Clay’s plan into five separate bills help the compromise pass?
Drawing From Experience

Have you ever read a book, short story, or article that influenced the way you felt about something? Harriet Beecher Stowe’s book *Uncle Tom’s Cabin* led many readers to feel that slavery was wrong.

In this section you will learn how simmering differences over slavery boiled over into violence with the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Trace the series of events triggered by the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act.

Content Vocabulary

- **popular sovereignty**: allowing the people to decide (page 544)
- **border ruffians**: armed groups of proslavery Missourians who crossed the state border to vote in the Kansas election (page 546)
- **civil war**: conflict between citizens of the same country (page 547)

**US8.9 Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.**

Focuses on: **US8.9.1, US8.9.5**
The Kansas-Nebraska Act (page 544)

**Main Idea** The Kansas-Nebraska Act resulted from another dispute over slavery in Congress.

In 1853, Franklin Pierce became president. He intended to enforce the Fugitive Slave Act, inflaming abolitionists. Harriet Beecher Stowe added fuel to the fire. Her popular book *Uncle Tom's Cabin* portrayed slavery as cruel.

Stephen A. Douglas hoped to encourage settlement of the West and open the way for a transcontinental railroad. He proposed a bill that would organize the Western territories of Kansas and Nebraska. Both territories lay north of the line set by the Missouri Compromise as the bound-
ary for slavery. As a result, these territories would likely become free states. To encourage the South to accept his plan, Douglas proposed abandoning the Missouri Compromise and letting the settlers vote on whether to allow slavery. He called this **popular sovereignty**—allowing the people to decide.

Northerners protested. Repeal of the Missouri Compromise would allow slavery into areas that had been free for more than 30 years. Southerners supported the bill. They expected many slaveholders from Missouri to settle in Kansas and vote to keep slavery legal. Congress passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854.

The vote revealed deep divisions in the Democratic Party. Northern Democrats in the House split almost evenly on the vote.

1. Why did many Southerners support the Kansas-Nebraska Act?

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**Conflict in Kansas** *(pages 546–547)*

**Main Idea** Violence erupted as proslavery and antislavery forces came to arms when the new proslavery Kansas legislature was elected.

Supporters and opponents of slavery quickly rushed into Kansas. A proslavery legislature was elected in Kansas in 1855. Thousands of slavery supporters from Missouri had crossed the border just to vote in the election. Traveling in armed groups, they became known as **border ruffians**. The new Kansas legislature immediately began passing proslavery laws.

Slavery opponents refused to accept these laws. They adopted a constitution that banned slavery. By January 1856, Kansas had two rival governments. Both asked Congress for recognition.
With both sides arming themselves, violence became inevitable. In May 1856, slavery supporters destroyed the antislavery capital of Lawrence, Kansas.

John Brown believed God had chosen him to end slavery. In response to the attack on Lawrence, Brown led six men in an attack along the Pottawatomie Creek, killing five slavery supporters.

More violence followed. Newspapers began referring to “Bleeding Kansas” and “the Civil War in Kansas.” A civil war is a conflict between citizens of the same country. In October 1856, John Geary, the newly appointed territorial governor, used federal troops to end the bloodshed.

Abolitionist senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts lashed out against proslavery forces in a speech entitled “The Crime Against Kansas.” He also criticized proslavery senators, including Andrew P. Butler of South Carolina.

Two days after the speech, Butler’s distant cousin, Representative Preston Brooks, entered the Senate chamber. He hit Sumner in the head many times with a cane. Sumner suffered severe injuries. This incident and the violence in Kansas revealed the rising hostility between North and South.

2. Why did supporters and opponents of slavery rush into Kansas?
**Challenges to Slavery** For use with textbook pages 548–553

**Content Vocabulary**

- **arsenal**: storage place for weapons and ammunition (page 553)
- **martyr**: person who dies for a cause he or she believes in (page 553)

**Drawing From Experience**

Do you know the biblical story of David and Goliath? In the story, a little guy, David, must fight a giant, Goliath. Abraham Lincoln found himself in a similar situation when he debated Stephen A. Douglas, called “the Little Giant.” Douglas was a well-known and powerful senator. Lincoln was the nearly unknown challenger. Although Lincoln did not “slay” the Little Giant (Lincoln lost the election), his strong performance in the debates won him a national reputation.

This section discusses politics in the 1850s, including the famous Lincoln-Douglas debates. You will also learn about the impact of the *Dred Scott* case.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Describe the important parts of the Supreme Court’s ruling in the *Dred Scott* case. Then summarize the impact of the decision on the spread of slavery.

**The Dred Scott Decision**

Impact on Spread of Slavery:

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**US8.9** Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.

**US8.10** Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War.

Focuses on: **US8.9.5, US8.10.4**

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Differing views on slavery divided the Democratic Party and destroyed the Whig Party. Antislavery Whigs and Democrats joined with Free-Soilers to form the Republican Party. Their main goal was to ban slavery from new territories. With strong support in the North, the Republicans won control of the House of Representatives in 1854. Most Democratic candidates from free states lost. The Democratic Party was becoming the party of the South.

For the presidential election of 1856, the Republicans chose John C. Frémont. The party platform called for free territory. The Democratic Party, supporting popular sovereignty, picked James Buchanan. The American Party, the Know Nothings, opposed immigrants. They chose former president Millard Fillmore. The vote divided along sectional lines. Buchanan won by carrying all the Southern states except Maryland.

Dred Scott was an enslaved African American. An army doctor bought him in Missouri, a slave state. The doctor moved his household to Illinois, a free state, and then to Wisconsin Territory, where the Northwest Ordinance had banned slavery. Later, the family returned to Missouri. Scott sued for his freedom based on the fact that he had once lived on free soil.

In the Supreme Court’s ruling, Chief Justice Roger B. Taney said that slaves were not citizens and had no right to sue. Taney went on to say that residence on free soil did not make Dred Scott free. Slaves were property, and the Fifth Amendment forbids Congress to take away property without “due process of law.” Taney further ruled that Congress had no power to ban slavery in any territory. The Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional, as was popular sovereignty. Even voters in a territory had no right to take away a person’s property. This stunning decision meant that the Constitution protected slavery.
The decision delighted Southerners. It meant that nothing could legally restrict the spread of slavery. Republicans and other abolitionists were outraged.

1. Why was popular sovereignty unconstitutional according to the *Dred Scott* decision?

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**Lincoln and Douglas** *(pages 552–553)*

**Main Idea** The Lincoln-Douglas debates helped Lincoln emerge as a leader.

The 1858 Senate race in Illinois pitted the current senator, Democrat Stephan A. Douglas, against a little-known Republican, Abraham Lincoln. The short, stocky, and powerful Douglas was called “the Little Giant.” Douglas disliked slavery but thought the controversy over it would interfere with the nation’s growth. He believed that popular sovereignty would resolve the issue.

Born in the poor backcountry of Kentucky, Abraham Lincoln moved to Indiana and later to Illinois. He had little formal education. He read borrowed law books to educate himself to be a lawyer. Lincoln viewed slavery as morally wrong, but saw no easy way to eliminate it where it already existed. He believed that slavery should not be allowed to spread.

Lincoln challenged Douglas to a series of debates. Thousands attended the debates held in cities and towns across Illinois. The main topic was slavery.

In Freeport, Lincoln asked Douglas if the people of a territory could legally exclude slavery before achieving statehood. Douglas responded that the people could exclude slavery by refusing to pass laws protecting slaveholders’ rights. Douglas’s response became known as the Freeport Doctrine. It satisfied his antislavery followers but lost him support in the South.
Douglas claimed that Lincoln wanted African Americans to be fully equal to whites. Lincoln denied this. He said the real issue was between those who think slavery is wrong and those who think it is right. The Republican Party, he said, thinks it is wrong. Lincoln lost the election, but the debates earned him a national reputation.

In late 1859, abolitionist John Brown led a small group of whites and African Americans in a raid on Harpers Ferry, Virginia. He hoped to capture the arsenal and start a rebellion by arming enslaved African Americans with the weapons and ammunition stored there. Federal troops and local citizens quickly defeated Brown’s group. Brown was executed. Some antislavery leaders denounced Brown’s use of violence. Others, including writer Ralph Waldo Emerson, called Brown a martyr—a person who dies for a cause he believes in. Southerners saw the raid as evidence of a Northern conspiracy against them.

2. What was the Freeport Doctrine?
Secession and War  For use with textbook pages 554–559

Drawing From Experience

Think of a time when you agreed to work on a project with someone. The other person, however, did not do what he or she agreed to do. Did you feel less willing to work with this person again? Southern states in the mid-1800s believed the Constitution was a contract among the states that the federal government had broken. As a result, they decided to leave the Union.

In this section you will learn about the events leading to the start of the Civil War.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the candidates in the 1860 elections and their position on the key issue of the day: slavery.

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Election Result:
The Election of 1860 (page 555)

Main Idea: A split occurred in the Democratic Party, which allowed Lincoln to win the election of 1860.

The issue of slavery eventually caused a split in the Democratic Party. For the 1860 election, Northern Democrats nominated Stephen Douglas and supported popular sovereignty. Southern Democrats nominated John C. Breckinridge and supported the *Dred Scott* decision. Moderates from the North and South formed the Constitutional Union Party and nominated John Bell. This party took no stand on slavery. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln. Their position was to allow slavery where it already existed but exclude it from the territories.

The vote was along sectional lines. Lincoln took every Northern state and won the election. Breckinridge swept the South. Bell took most border states—the states located between the North and the South.

1. Why do you think Abraham Lincoln won no Southern states in the 1860 election?

The South Secedes (pages 556–557)

Main Idea: South Carolina led other Southern states in seceding from the Union.

Many Southerners did not trust the Republicans to protect their rights. On December 20, 1860, South Carolina voted to secede. As other Southern states debated secession—withdrawal from the Union—leaders in Washington tried to find a compromise. John Crittenden proposed a plan that would protect slavery south of the line set by the Missouri Compromise. Neither the Republicans nor the Southern states would accept this plan.
By February 1861, Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, and Georgia had seceded. They joined South Carolina in forming the Confederate States of America, or the Confederacy. They chose Jefferson Davis as president. Other slave states had decided to remain in the Union. If the United States used force against the Confederacy, however, these states might choose to secede.

Southerners justified secession with the theory of states’ rights. They argued that the Constitution was a contract among independent states. The national government had violated that contract by refusing to enforce the Fugitive Slave Act and by denying the Southern states equal rights in the territories. Because of these violations, the states felt justified in leaving the Union.

Many Southerners celebrated secession. Others feared for the future. In the North, some abolitionists would rather allow the Southern states to leave than to continue compromising on slavery. Most Northerners, including Lincoln, wanted to preserve the Union.

Lincoln had won the election but had not yet taken office. His Inaugural Address included tough words as well as an appeal for peace. He said that secession would not be permitted. He vowed to hold federal property in the South. He also pleaded with the people of the South to restore the Union.

2. What did Southerners believe the Constitution represented? How did this belief affect their actions?
Fort Sumter (pages 558–559)

Main Idea The Civil War began when Confederate forces attacked Fort Sumter in South Carolina.

On his inauguration day, Lincoln received a message from Major Robert Anderson, the commander of Fort Sumter, a United States fort on an island guarding Charleston Harbor. The message warned that the fort was low on supplies and the Confederates demanded its surrender.

Lincoln sent a message to Francis Pickens, governor of South Carolina. He informed Pickens that he was sending an unarmed expedition with supplies to Fort Sumter. Lincoln promised that Union forces would take no action unless fired upon. This message left the decision to start shooting up to the Confederates.

Jefferson Davis ordered Confederate forces to attack Fort Sumter before the Union supplies could arrive. The Confederates fired the first shots on April 12, 1862. Union and Confederate forces exchanged thousands of shots, but there was no loss of life. The fort surrendered on April 14.

Lincoln responded to the attack by calling for volunteers to fight to save the Union. Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas voted to join the Confederacy. The Civil War had begun.

3. What states chose to secede after the Confederates fired on Fort Sumter?

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**The Two Sides**  
*For use with textbook pages 570–575*

**Drawing From Experience**
Can you imagine a war in which the enemy included your brother, father, or best friend? The Civil War divided more than just North and South. It divided families and friends.

This section describes the strengths, weaknesses, and strategies of the North and South. You will also learn about the soldiers who fought in the war.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the main goal for both the North and the South in the Civil War and their strategies to achieve that goal.

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**Content Vocabulary**
- **border state**: state located between the North and the South (page 571)
- **blockade**: deny entry and exit through force (page 573)
- **offensive**: an attack (page 573)
- **Rebel**: Confederate soldier in the Civil War (page 574)
- **Yankee**: Union soldier in the Civil War (page 574)

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**US8.10** Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War.
Focuses on:
- **US8.10.2, US8.10.5**
Comparing North and South (pages 571–573)

**Main Idea** Both the North and the South had strengths and weaknesses that helped determine their military strategies.

Seven states seceded to form the original Confederacy. After the attack on Fort Sumter and Lincoln’s call for troops, four other states joined the Confederacy. The Confederates chose Richmond, Virginia, as their capital.

Four **border states**—Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware—allowed slavery but remained in the Union. Losing the border states would severely harm the Union. All had strategic locations. Missouri controlled parts of the Mississippi River and major routes west. Kentucky controlled the Ohio River. The important Northern city of Philadelphia lay close to Delaware.

Maryland was especially important. It was close to Richmond. Major rail lines ran through it. Plus, Washington, D.C., lay within it. If Maryland seceded, the North’s government would be surrounded.

In April 1861, Confederate sympathizers in Baltimore attacked Union troops, burned railroad bridges, and cut the telegraph line, isolating Washington, D.C., from the rest of the North. Union troops restored order, but the attack illustrated the importance of Maryland to the North.

Lincoln had to be careful not to upset people in the border states. If he said he intended to end slavery, supporters of slavery in the border states might convince their states to secede. Lincoln suspended some constitutional rights. He had supporters of secession arrested. The strategy worked. The border states remained in the Union. Many of their citizens, however, joined Southern armies.

The North enjoyed several advantages over the South. It had a larger population, more industry, and more resources. It had a better banking system to help raise money for the war. The North had more ships and a better rail network. A less **obvious** Northern advantage was Abraham Lincoln’s skill as a leader.
The North also faced disadvantages. To bring the South back into the Union, the North would have to invade the South. The South was a large area, and its population strongly supported the Confederacy.

This popular support was one of the South’s main advantages. Southerners also had the advantage of fighting in familiar territory. They would be defending their homes and way of life. The South’s strong military tradition provided a superior pool of trained commanders. Jefferson Davis, the Confederate president, was a West Point graduate.

The South faced several disadvantages. It had a smaller population of free men to serve in the military. It had few factories to make weapons and supplies. It produced less food than the North. With fewer miles of railroad tracks, the South had difficulty delivering supplies to its troops. The Confederacy’s dedication to states’ rights also hampered its war effort. The individual states refused to give the Confederate government sufficient power to fight the war effectively.

The North’s main goal was to bring the Southern states back into the Union. Ending slavery was not a major goal at first.

The Union planned three main strategies to win the war. First they planned to blockade, or close, Southern ports to prevent supplies from entering and exports, such as cotton, from leaving. Next, they wanted to gain control of the Mississippi River to cut Southern supply lines and divide the Confederacy. Finally the North planned to take Richmond, the Confederate capital.

The South’s primary goal was to win recognition as an independent nation. Independence would enable the South to preserve their way of life, including slavery. The South planned a defensive strategy. It would hold on to as much territory as possible until the North tired of fighting. The South expected Britain and France to pressure the North to end the war. Those countries needed Southern cotton. At times during the war the South took the offensive—went on the attack. By threatening Washington
and other Northern cities, the Confederates hoped to convince the North that it could not win.

1. What was the purpose of the Union blockade?

American People at War (pages 574–575)

Main Idea Soldiers in the Civil War came from every region, and each side expected an early victory.

The Civil War pitted brother against brother and parents against their children. Relatives of Mary Todd Lincoln, President Lincoln's wife, fought for the Confederacy. Senator John Crittenden, of Kentucky, had two sons fighting on opposite sides. Officers on both sides had attended the United States Military Academy at West Point.

A recruit's average age was 25. About 40 percent were 21 or younger. Soldiers came from all regions and walks of life. Most, though, came from farms. Terms of enlistment began at 90 days but lengthened as the fighting dragged on.

Confederate soldiers were sometimes called Rebels, and Union soldiers were called Yankees. By war's end, about 850,000 men fought for the Confederacy. About 2.1 million men fought for the Union, including about 200,000 African Americans. About 10,000 Hispanic soldiers fought in the war.

Both sides expected an early victory. Some leaders saw the situation more clearly. They realized that the conflict would last a long time.

2. From where did most Civil War soldiers come?
Early Years of the War  

For use with textbook pages 576–583

Drawing From Experience

Have you ever played in or watched a game in which your team seemed in control, but victory slipped away with a few key plays? The Union expected to quickly defeat the South, but an early victory put the Confederates at Washington, D.C.’s doorstep.

This section describes the battles and strategies in the early years of the Civil War.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the outcomes and significance of early battles of the Civil War.

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<tr>
<th>Battle</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
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<td>First Bull Run</td>
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<td><em>Merrimack v. Monitor</em></td>
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<td>Seven Days’ Battles</td>
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<td>Antietam</td>
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The First Battle (page 577)

Main Idea: The North realized with the first major battle that the war would be a long, difficult struggle.

The first major battle of the Civil War occurred in northern Virginia near the town of Manassas Junction and a small river called Bull Run. At first the larger Yankee force drove the Rebels back. Reinforcements under General Thomas Jackson rallied the Rebels. Jackson, whose forces stopped the Union troops “like a stone wall,” earned the nickname “Stonewall” Jackson.

As the Confederates charged, they let out a scream known as the Rebel yell that terrified the Union soldiers. Many Northerners dropped their guns and ran, colliding with fleeing civilians who had assembled to watch the battle.

The outcome of the First Battle of Bull Run shocked the North. President Lincoln called for more volunteers for the army. He appointed General George B. McClellan to head the Union army of the East, called the Army of the Potomac.

1. What actions did President Lincoln take after the First Battle of Bull Run?

War at Sea (page 578)

Main Idea: The North set up a blockade along the South’s coastline, which caused serious problems for the South.

The North’s blockade of Southern ports prevented the South from importing the supplies it needed and from exporting its cotton. Goods such as coffee, shoes, nails, and salt, as well as guns and ammunition, were in short supply in the South throughout the war.
To challenge the blockade, Southerners salvaged the *Merrimack*, a Union ship that Northern forces had abandoned when Confederate forces seized a naval shipyard. The Confederates covered the wooden ship with thick iron plates.

In a battle off the coast of Virginia, the North’s wooden ships could not damage the Confederate *ironclad* ship. Their shells simply bounced off. The North sent its own ironclad ship, the *Monitor* to fight the *Merrimack*. Neither ship could sink the other. The Union succeeded in keeping the *Merrimack* in the harbor, so it never again threatened Northern ships. The battle marked the beginning of a new form of naval warfare—battles between metal-covered ships.

2. What were the *Merrimack* and the *Monitor*?

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**War in the West** *(page 579)*

*Main Idea* The action shifted to the West after the First Battle of Bull Run as each side reorganized its forces.

A major Union goal in the West was to gain control of the Mississippi and Tennessee Rivers. This would split the Confederacy and block the flow of Southern goods. With the aid of a fleet of ironclads, Union commander Ulysses S. Grant captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River. His victories helped secure the lower Tennessee River and open the way for Union troops to enter Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama.

Grant’s troops headed south and camped at Pittsburg Landing, Tennessee, near a church called Shiloh. Union soldiers from Nashville joined them. Confederate forces then launched a surprise attack. The bloody Battle of
Shiloh lasted two days and ended with a Union victory. Both armies suffered enormous casualties—people who are killed or wounded. Union forces went on to capture Corinth, Mississippi, and Memphis, Tennessee.

A few weeks after Shiloh, Union naval forces under David Farragut captured New Orleans, Louisiana, the South’s largest city. With the fall of New Orleans, near the mouth of the Mississippi River, the South could no longer use the river to transport goods to sea. These victories by Grant and Farragut gave the Union control of much of the Mississippi River.

3. Why did the Union want to capture New Orleans?

War in the East (pages 580–583)

Main Idea Battles continued and after several Southern victories, Lincoln removed General McClellan for his failure to act in these battles.

In the East, General McClellan trained the Army of the Potomac. When faced with the prospect of battle, McClellan hesitated. He feared that his troops were not ready, or that Rebel forces were too large. Finally, he moved the army toward its goal of capturing Richmond.

Instead of advancing on Richmond directly, as Lincoln wished, McClellan moved his army to a peninsula between the York and James Rivers, to the east of Richmond. There he began the Peninsular Campaign. Many weeks passed as McClellan readied his troops and tried to evaluate the enemy’s strength. Lincoln constantly prodded him to attack. The delays allowed the South time to prepare a defense of Richmond.
The Union forces inched toward Richmond, finally meeting the Confederates in a series of encounters known as the Seven Days’ Battles. General Robert E. Lee commanded Richmond’s defenders. Before the battles began, Lee’s cavalry leader, General James E.B. (J.E.B.) Stuart boldly led his troops in a circle around the Union forces. He gathered vital information on Union positions. This information helped Lee defeat the Union attempt to capture Richmond.

Reports from Richmond disheartened the North. The flow of volunteers slowed. The South’s strategy of making the North tire of war seemed to be working. McClellan’s large army had been pushed back but not defeated. When McClellan failed to renew the attack, Lincoln ordered his army back to northern Virginia to join forces under General John Pope.

Stonewall Jackson’s troops along with the rest of Lee’s army, clashed with Pope’s forces in the Second Battle of Bull Run. The Confederate victory meant that Confederate troops now stood only 20 miles from Washington, D.C.

Jefferson Davis ordered Lee to launch an offensive into Maryland. He hoped another victory would win aid from Great Britain and France. By luck, two Union soldiers found a copy of Lee’s orders wrapped around three cigars. Now McClellan knew exactly what Lee planned to do. He learned that Lee’s army was divided into four parts. McClellan could attack Lee’s army one piece at a time.

Again, McClellan acted too slowly. Lee had time to gather most of his forces near Sharpsburg, Maryland, along Antietam Creek. The Battle of Antietam was the single bloodiest day of the war. The Union claimed victory when Lee’s forces retreated to Virginia. McClellan, however, failed to pursue and destroy the retreating army, as Lincoln had ordered. Disgusted, Lincoln replaced McClellan with General Ambrose Burnside as commander of the Army of the Potomac.
Antietam was a crucial victory for the Union. Great Britain was considering recognizing the Confederacy. With Lee’s defeat, the South lost its best chance to gain international recognition and support. The battle also marked a major change in the North’s war aims. Lincoln used the battle to take action against slavery.

4. Why did Lincoln remove McClellan as commander of the Army of the Potomac?
A Call to Freedom  For use with textbook pages 591–596

**Content Vocabulary**

emancipate: free (page 594)
ratify: approve (page 594)

**Drawing From Experience**

Before you tell your friends something important, do you think about how they might react? Abraham Lincoln had an important announcement to make. He chose to make the announcement at a time when he thought the people were ready to hear it.

This section describes the changes leading to the Emancipation Proclamation and the Thirteenth Amendment. You will also learn about the participation of African Americans in the Civil War.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about ways in which African American soldiers were treated differently than white soldiers.

[Diagram of Treatment of African American Soldiers]

**US8.10** Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War. Focuses on:

US8.10.4, US8.10.5, US8.10.6
Emancipation (pages 592–594)

Main Idea) Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, which led to the passing of the Thirteenth Amendment, freeing enslaved Americans.

Until the Battle of Antietam, the North’s main goal had been to preserve the Union. Abolitionists did not control the North. Republican leaders, including Lincoln, stated that they intended only to halt the spread of slavery.

Lincoln believed slavery was morally wrong. Still, he showed reluctance to end slavery because of the border states. He knew that an attempt to abolish slavery would lose popular support for the war.

As the war went on, attitudes in the North began to change. Northerners knew that enslaved people grew food and did tasks for the Confederate army. In 1861 and 1862, Congress passed laws that freed enslaved people held by those actively fighting against the Union.

Lincoln knew that public opinion was changing. He also knew that acting against slavery would reduce the chances that Britain and France would aid the South. He understood that the work done by each enslaved person enabled a white Southerner to fight for the Confederacy. Lincoln believed that, as president, it was his responsibility to make the decision and bear the responsibility.

Lincoln saw the Union victory at Antietam as the right moment to emancipate—or free—enslaved African Americans. On January 1, 1863, Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation. The proclamation applied only to areas controlled by the Confederacy.

The South had been seeking aid from its trading partners, Britain and France. Britain, however, strongly opposed slavery. Once Lincoln proclaimed emancipation, Britain and France decided not to recognize the Confederacy.

In 1865 Congress passed the Thirteenth Amendment. It was ratified, or approved, the same year by states loyal to the Union. This amendment to the Constitution truly freed enslaved Americans.
1. Why did Lincoln decide not to emancipate enslaved African Americans at the start of the war?

African Americans in the War (pages 595–596)

Main Idea The Civil War provided opportunities for African Americans to contribute to the war effort.

When the war began, enslaved people made up more than 30 percent of the South’s population and the bulk of its workforce. By the end of the war, about one-sixth of enslaved people had fled to areas controlled by Union armies.

Fearing a slave rebellion, white Southerners refused to use enslaved African Americans as soldiers, for then slaves would have weapons. Later, when the Confederacy became desperate, its Congress passed a law to enlist enslaved people. Some Southerners believed that those who fought should be freed. The war ended before any regiments were organized.

At the beginning of the war, many free African Americans volunteered for the Union army, but were turned away. The Union navy, however, did accept them. Many found other ways to aid the cause. African Americans who had escaped slavery could use their knowledge of the South to serve as guides and spies. Harriet Tubman often spied behind Confederate lines.

In 1862 Congress passed a law allowing African Americans to enlist. By the end of the war, African Americans made up nearly 10 percent of the Union army and 18 percent of the navy. In all, nearly 200,000 African Americans served. About 37,000 lost their lives.

African American soldiers were organized into regiments separate from white soldiers. Their regiment
commanders were usually white. African Americans received lower pay than whites until protests led to equal pay in 1864.

The African American 54th Massachusetts regiment spearheaded an attack on a Confederate fort near Charleston, South Carolina. They fought their way to the top of the fort before they were driven back. Nearly half were wounded, captured, or killed. Their bravery won respect for African American troops.

Many white Southerners threatened to execute any African American soldiers they captured. In some instances, they carried out this threat. Enslaved workers, however, rejoiced at the sight of African American soldiers fighting in the Union army.

2. Why did the Confederacy refuse to use enslaved men as soldiers until the end of the war?
**Reading Essentials and Study Guide 13-4**

**Life During the Civil War**  *For use with textbook pages 597–603*

**Content Vocabulary**

- **habeas corpus**: right of an accused person to a hearing before being jailed  *(page 600)*
- **draft**: required military service  *(page 602)*
- **bounty**: payment to encourage volunteers  *(page 602)*
- **inflation**: general increase in the level of prices  *(page 603)*

**Drawing From Experience**

Do you enjoy camping outside sometimes? Would you like it less if you had to do it every day for months in all kinds of weather? Civil War soldiers had to endure bad weather, bad food, and long marches, with the horrors of war never far from their minds.

This section describes life as a Civil War soldier and the contributions of women during the war. You will also learn about the effects of the first “modern” war on the economies of the North and the South.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the effects of the Civil War on the Southern economy.

**Effects of the War on the Southern Economy**
The Lives of Soldiers (page 598)

Main Idea In both the North and the South, civilians and soldiers suffered terrible hardships and faced new challenges.

At the start of the war, men in both the North and the South rushed to volunteer. Their enthusiasm did not last. Camp life had pleasant moments of songs and baseball games. Often, however, a soldier’s life was a dull routine of drills, bad food, marches, and rain.

The reality of war was never far away. Both sides suffered terrible losses. New rifles fired more accurately than did muskets of earlier wars. The thousands of casualties in each battle overwhelmed medical facilities. At Shiloh, many wounded men lay in the rain for 24 hours waiting for medical treatment.

Fear, hunger, and sickness led many soldiers to desert. Rebel soldiers lacked food and supplies. One reason for Lee’s invasion of Maryland was to allow his troops to feed off Maryland crops.

1. How were the rifles used during the Civil War different from muskets of earlier wars?

Women and the War (pages 599–600)

Main Idea Many Northern and Southern women took on new responsibilities during the war.

Women in the North and the South took on new roles as teachers, office workers, and farm managers. Many rolled bandages, wove blankets, and made ammunition for the soldiers. Women collected food, clothing, and medicine to distribute to the troops. Many also raised money for supplies.

Academic Vocabulary

**distribute:** to divide among several or many (p. 599)
Most battles took place in the South. At home, Northerners kept up with the war through news and letters from soldiers. In the South, however, the war dramatically changed everyday life. Many Southerners lost crops and homes to passing armies. The South ran out of almost everything. It lacked feed for animals, salt for preserving meat, clothing, and medicine.

Some women were spies. Rose O’Neal Greenhow entertained Union leaders in Washington, D.C. She passed information she gathered about Union plans to the South. Belle Boyd reported Union troop movements in the Shenandoah Valley to Confederate generals. Loretta Janeta Velázquez disguised herself as a man and fought for the South.

At first, men objected to female nurses. They believed women were too delicate for such work. Also, they disapproved of women tending the bodies of unknown men. In spite of these objections, thousands of women served as nurses.

In the North, reformer Dorothea Dix organized women to serve as military nurses. Clara Barton earned fame for her work with wounded soldiers. In the South, Sally Tompkins established a hospital for soldiers in Richmond, Virginia. Through their work as nurses, women witnessed the horrors of war.

2. Why was home life disrupted more in the South than in the North?

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Opposition to the War (pages 600–602)

Main Idea: The war efforts of the Union and the Confederate governments faced opposition.

At the start of the war, Northern Democrats split into two groups. One group supported Lincoln’s policies. The other, the “Peace Democrats,” favored negotiating with the Confederacy. Republican newspapers called the Peace Democrats “Copperheads” because some wore badges made of copper pennies. When the Union lost battles, support for the Copperheads grew.

Some Republicans suspected Copperheads of aiding the South. Lincoln ordered the arrest of anyone hindering the war effort, such as by discouraging men from enlisting. Lincoln suspended the right of habeas corpus, which guarantees accused people the right to a hearing before being jailed.

As the war dragged on, enlisting enough volunteers became a problem for both sides. The Confederate Congress passed a draft law. It required men between ages 18 and 35 to serve in the army for three years. A man could avoid service by hiring a substitute to serve in his place.

The North tried to boost enlistment by offering bounties—payments to encourage volunteers. When this plan failed, the North turned to a draft. Men from age 20 to 45 had to register. The army drew names from this pool. To avoid service, a man could hire a substitute or pay the government $300.

Protests against the draft erupted in several Northern cities. In New York City, protesters objected to the draft and to fighting to free African Americans. Angry mobs went on a four-day rampage of burning, looting, and killing.

No disturbance as severe took place in the South. Still, strong opposition to the draft led Jefferson Davis to proclaim military law and suspend habeas corpus.
War and the Economy (page 603)

Main Idea The war created economic problems in the North and in the South.

The Civil War is called the first “modern” war because it required the total commitment of resources. The impact of such a war affects every part of life. The effects were more devastating on the South than on the North.

Southern factories produced arms and ammunition, but the South did not have enough factories to provide for the needs of civilians and the military. Because most fighting occurred in the South, armies devastated Southern farmland and tore up rail lines. The war left much of the South in ruins and thousands of people homeless.

The North’s blockade caused severe shortages of vital goods. Lack of food led to riots in some Southern cities. The South suffered severe inflation—a general increase in the level of prices. Worried about their families under such conditions, many Southern soldiers deserted.

4. What effect did the North’s blockade have on the South?

[Blank lines for answer]
Drawing From Experience

Can you think of a team that often seems unbeatable? Does the team have a skillful leader? Like a team, an army needs a skillful leader to be successful. Robert E. Lee was a master of military strategy. His skill enabled the usually outnumbered Confederate army to win many battles before the much stronger Union forces were finally able to defeat the Southerners.

This section discusses the turning points and last major battles in the Civil War. You will also learn about the results of this terrible war.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the devastating results of the Civil War as well as its more positive outcomes.

Results of the Civil War

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<th>Negative</th>
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The Tide of War Turns (pages 605–607)

Main Idea: After Confederate victories in Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, a turning point occurred when Union forces won in Gettysburg and Vicksburg.

The optimism that the war would be a short one quickly vanished. From 1862 to 1865, both soldiers and civilians faced a grim conflict marked by death and destruction.

Robert E. Lee’s Army of Northern Virginia seemed unbeatable in the winter of 1862–1863. Weak Union generals proved no match for Lee’s strategic skills. On December 13, 1862, Union general Ambrose Burnside clashed with Lee near the Virginia town of Fredericksburg. The Confederates were entrenched, or set up in strong positions, on hilltops. Repeated attacks by the larger Union army failed. Thousands of Union soldiers fell. Devastated, Burnside resigned his command. General Joseph Hooker replaced him.

In May 1863 Lee attacked Hooker’s forces at Chancellorsville, Virginia. Lee won, but the outcome proved costly. The heavy losses included Stonewall Jackson. Confederate soldiers fired on Jackson’s party by mistake.

Lee moved north. A victory on Northern soil might persuade Britain and France to aid the Confederacy. Hooker wanted to attack Richmond. Lincoln ordered him to attack Lee’s army. When Hooker failed to do this, Lincoln replaced him with General George Meade. Meade’s orders were to find and fight Lee’s forces and protect Washington and Baltimore.

The two armies met by accident on July 1, 1863, near the town of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. Union cavalry surprised Rebel infantry raiding the town for shoes. Outnumbered, the Yankees retreated to Cemetery Ridge, a line of hills south of Gettysburg. The Battle of Gettysburg raged for three days. On the last day, Lee launched an attack led by General George Pickett. In Pickett’s Charge, about 14,000 Rebels advanced across open ground toward Union lines. They made easy targets. Barely half survived. The battle was lost. Lee’s army retreated to Virginia.
Vicksburg, Mississippi, stood on a high bluff above the Mississippi River. Seizing Vicksburg was key to controlling the river. Forces under Ulysses S. Grant had laid siege to the town for several months. Vicksburg finally surrendered on July 4, 1863. After taking Vicksburg and then Port Hudson, the Union held the entire river and isolated Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas from the Confederacy.

Gettysburg and Vicksburg marked turning points in the war. The Union victories drove Lee out of Pennsylvania, secured the Mississippi River, and cut the South in two. Nevertheless, the war would continue for two more bloody years.

On November 19, 1863, Lincoln delivered a two-minute speech in a ceremony dedicating a cemetery at Gettysburg. His short but powerful Gettysburg Address helped war-weary Americans focus on their shared ideals.

1. What was Pickett’s Charge and why was it important?

Final Phases of the War (pages 607–609)

Main Idea The end of war was in sight with Sherman’s capture of Atlanta and Grant’s pursuit of the Confederates in Virginia.

Ulysses S. Grant’s army career before the war was unimpressive. Yet his victories in the West and willingness to attack hard impressed Lincoln. After Grant and General William Tecumseh Sherman won an important victory at Chattanooga, Tennessee, Lincoln put Grant in charge of all the Union armies.

Grant’s strategy called for the Army of the Potomac to try to destroy Lee’s army in Virginia. The western army under Sherman would advance on Atlanta, Georgia, and crush Confederate forces in the Deep South.
In May and June of 1864, Grant’s larger army engaged Lee’s forces in three battles near Richmond, Virginia—the Battles of the Wilderness, Spotsylvania Courthouse, and Cold Harbor. Each time, Confederate lines held, but Grant pressed the attack. Critics called him a butcher for the heavy losses from these battles. Lincoln supported Grant’s resolve to fight it out.

After Cold Harbor, Grant attacked Petersburg, Virginia, an important railroad center. A Union victory would cut Richmond off from the rest of the Confederacy. The battle turned into a nine-month siege.

With Grant stuck outside Richmond and Sherman stuck outside Atlanta, support for a negotiated peace grew in the North. Democrats wanted peace, even at the cost of Confederate independence. Lincoln was determined to restore the Union. Lincoln’s chances for reelection in 1864 did not look good.

Then in August, David Farragut’s Union fleet sailed into Mobile Bay, securing the Gulf of Mexico. In September, news arrived that Sherman had captured Atlanta. The end of the war was now in sight. Lincoln easily won reelection.

Leaving Atlanta in ruins, Sherman’s army began its “march to the sea.” The troops lived off the land, taking the food they needed. Then they destroyed the fields, animals, and rail lines—anything useful to the South. This method of waging war was called total war. After capturing Savannah, Georgia, Sherman’s army devastated South Carolina.

2. What was Grant’s strategy for defeating the Confederacy?
In his second Inaugural Address, Lincoln spoke of reconciling with the South in the coming peace. “With malice toward none” he hoped to “bind the nation’s wounds.”

Grant continued the siege of Petersburg. Finally, on April 2, 1865, the Confederate lines broke, and Lee withdrew his troops. Richmond fell the same day. As the Rebels fled, they set fire to the city to keep it out of Union hands.

Lee tried to move his army west of Richmond. The Union army blocked his escape route. On April 9, 1865, Lee surrendered to Grant in a small Virginia village called Appomattox Court House. Grant’s terms were generous. The Confederate soldiers had to lay down their arms. Then they were free to go home. They could keep their horses to help their families plant crops. Grant also ordered food to be given to Lee’s troops.

Several days later, Confederate forces in North Carolina surrendered to Sherman. Jefferson Davis was captured on May 10. The Civil War was over.

Lincoln did not live to see the end of the war. On April 14, 1865, John Wilkes Booth, a Confederate sympathizer, assassinated Lincoln. Booth’s act was a tragedy for both the North and the South. It removed the one person who could best “bind the nation’s wounds.” Lincoln’s vice president, Andrew Johnson, became president.

The Civil War was the most devastating conflict in American history. More than 600,000 soldiers died. Damages, mostly in the South, totaled billions of dollars. Bitter feelings from the war would last for generations.
The war had other consequences as well. The North’s victory saved the Union. The federal government was clearly established as more powerful than the states. Finally, the war freed millions of African Americans.

3. Why do you think Grant offered generous terms to the defeated Confederates?

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Drawing From Experience

Have you ever had a heated disagreement with a friend? Afterward, did hurt feelings make it hard for you to “forgive and forget”? Bitter feelings remained after the Civil War. President Lincoln believed that punishing the South would only delay the nation’s healing. Other political leaders were not so forgiving.

This section describes different plans for bringing Southern states back into the Union. You will also learn about the assassination of President Lincoln.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Compare the provisions of two Reconstruction plans on the topics shown in the chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Ten Percent Plan</th>
<th>President Johnson’s Reconstruction Plan</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amnesty</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>End to Slavery</td>
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<tr>
<td>Voting Rights for African Americans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equal Rights for African Americans</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Reconstruction Debate (pages 625–626)

Main Idea Differences over how Reconstruction after the Civil War should be carried out divided the government.

The war had left the South in ruins. Americans agreed that the South needed to be rebuilt, but they disagreed over how to do it. This period of rebuilding is called Reconstruction. This term also refers to various plans for rebuilding.

In December 1863, as the war continued, Lincoln announced his Ten Percent Plan for accepting the South back into the Union. When 10 percent of a state’s voters took an oath of loyalty to the Union, the state could form a government. The state must adopt a new constitution that banned slavery.

Lincoln believed that punishing the South would only delay the nation’s healing. He offered amnesty—a pardon—to all white Southerners, except Confederate leaders, who swore loyalty to the Union. Lincoln wanted to give the vote to African Americans who were educated or had served as Union soldiers. He would not force the South to give African Americans equal rights with whites.

Some Republicans favored a more radical, or extreme, approach. They were called Radical Republicans. One Radical Republican leader, Thaddeus Stevens, called for the South to be “broken up and relaid.” Controlled by Radical Republicans, Congress voted to deny seats to representatives from states reconstructed under Lincoln’s plan. Congress then made its own harsher plan.

In July 1864, Congress passed the Wade-Davis Bill. It spelled out Congress’s requirements for a state to rejoin the Union: (1) Most white males in the state must swear loyalty to the Union. (2) Only white males who swore they had not fought the Union could vote for delegates to a constitutional convention. (3) Former Confederates could not hold public office. (4) The new state constitution had to ban slavery. Lincoln refused to sign this bill into law.
In March 1865 Congress and the president set up the Freedmen’s Bureau to help former enslaved persons, or freedmen, adjust to freedom. After the war, the bureau helped African Americans by providing food, clothing, and medical services. It set up schools and gave aid to new African American colleges. The bureau also helped freed people acquire land or jobs with fair wages.

1. What was the purpose of the Freedmen’s Bureau?

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**Lincoln Is Assassinated** *(pages 626–628)*

**Main Idea** After Lincoln was assassinated, Johnson became president and announced his plan of “Restoration.”

On April 14, 1865, President Lincoln attended a play at Ford’s Theater in Washington, D.C. John Wilkes Booth, an actor and Confederate supporter, entered Lincoln’s private box. He shot Lincoln in the head and fled. Lincoln died a few hours later at a nearby house where aides had carried him.

Union troops cornered Booth in a barn in Virginia. When he refused to give up, they shot him to death. A court convicted eight other people who had plotted with Booth to kill several government officials.

As a funeral train carried Lincoln’s body to his home town of Springfield, Illinois, thousands of mourners lined the route. The future was now in the hands of those who favored harsher measures against the former Confederacy.

Vice President Andrew Johnson became president when Lincoln died. Under Johnson’s “Restoration” plan, most Southerners would be granted amnesty once they swore loyalty to the Union. High-ranking or wealthy Confederates had to appeal to the president for a pardon. Johnson included this provision to humiliate the wealthy
leaders who he believed had tricked the South’s people into seceding.

Johnson allowed only loyal, pardoned whites to vote for delegates to the state constitutional conventions. He opposed equal rights and voting rights for African Americans.

Johnson’s plan also required states to denounce secession and end slavery. The states also had to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment that abolished slavery throughout the United States.

2. Why did President Johnson require wealthy Confederates to appeal to him for a pardon?

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   ___________________________________________________________
Drawing From Experience

Imagine that you were an African American living in 1866. After gaining your freedom following the Civil War, you wanted to rent some land and earn a living as a farmer. The laws of your state, however, made it illegal for you to rent land. If you took a job on a plantation, the laws allowed the plantation owner to exploit you. Would you feel like you had not fully escaped slavery? The black codes in the South were intended to control African Americans.

This section describes attempts by Southern whites to limit the rights of African Americans and congressional acts to protect African American rights.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about the protections guaranteed by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments.
When Northerners realized that African Americans in the South were still being mistreated, Congress worked to find a solution.

In 1865, Southern states elected some former Confederate leaders to Congress. When the new representatives arrived in Washington, D.C., Congress refused to seat them.

Southern states had passed black codes—laws aimed to control freed men and women. They allowed plantation owners to exploit African American workers. They allowed officials to arrest and fine jobless African Americans. Under black codes, African Americans could not own or rent farms. To many people, black codes created slavery in disguise.

Congress gave the Freedmen’s Bureau the power to set up special courts to try individuals charged with violating
the rights of African Americans. Congress also passed a
civil rights bill that overturned black codes. The bill made
African Americans full citizens and gave the federal gov-
ernment the power to protect their rights. President John-
son vetoed both bills. He argued that the bills were
unconstitutional because they were passed by a Congress
that did not include representatives from all states.
Republicans in Congress had enough votes to override, or
defeat, both vetoes. The bills became law. The Radical
Republicans drafted a new Reconstruction plan—one led
by Congress.

The Thirteenth Amendment had freed African Ameri-
cans but did not guarantee them full rights. To fix this
problem, Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment.
It gave full citizenship to all people born in the United
States. It required every state to grant “equal protection
of the laws.” It also stated that no state could take away
a citizen’s life, liberty, and property “without due process
of law.” States that prevented any adult male citizens
from voting could lose part of their representation in Con-
gress. Finally, the amendment banned former Confederate
leaders from holding public office unless they were par-
donned. Congress required Southern states to ratify the
amendment to rejoin the Union.

In the 1866 congressional elections, President Johnson
campaigned strongly against Republican supporters
of the Fourteenth Amendment. Many Republicans
won, sending a signal that Congress should direct
Reconstruction.

1. In 1865, why did Congress not include representatives
   from all states?
Radical Reconstruction  

Radical Republicans were able to put their version of Reconstruction into action. 

The Radical Republicans held enough votes in Congress to override any vetoes. As a result, President Johnson could do little to stop them. The period of Radical Reconstruction had begun. 

Ten Southern states had refused to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment. In 1867, Congress passed the Reconstruction Act, requiring these states to form new governments. The act divided the states into five military districts. It placed each under the authority of a military commander until the states formed new governments. The act also guaranteed the vote to African American males and banned former Confederate leaders from public office. To rejoin the Union, the states had to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment and submit new state constitutions to Congress for approval. 

Many white Southerners refused to vote in elections for new state governments. Thousands of African Americans, however, did vote. In the elections, Republicans gained control of Southern state governments. 

As commander in chief, Johnson could direct the military governors. Because Johnson strongly opposed Radical Republican policies, Congress passed laws to limit his power. One was the Tenure of Office Act. It prohibited the president from removing government officials, even his own cabinet members, without the Senate’s approval. Johnson removed Secretary of War Edwin Stanton from office without the Senate’s approval, a direct challenge to the law. He also appointed some generals the Radicals opposed to head Southern military districts. 

Outraged, the House of Representatives voted to impeach—formally charge with wrongdoing—the president. The case went to the Senate for trial in 1868. Johnson’s defenders argued that Congress was trying to
remove the president for holding a different opinion rather than for committing a crime.

To remove a president from office, two thirds of the senators must vote to convict. The vote fell one short. Several moderate Republicans felt that a president should not be removed for political differences.

For the election of 1868, Republicans did not nominate Johnson to run for a second term. Instead, they chose Ulysses S. Grant. Grant won by a wide margin, affirming voter support for the Republican approach to Reconstruction.

Congress passed the Fifteenth Amendment. It guaranteed all male citizens the right to vote regardless of “race, color, or previous condition of servitude.” The amendment enabled African American males to vote.

2. Why were the Radical Republicans able to direct Reconstruction?

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The South During Reconstruction

For use with textbook pages 635–639

Drawing From Experience

If a masked mob threatened to burn your house if you voted, would you still vote? Many African Americans faced such threats in the South during Reconstruction. The white Southerners of the Ku Klux Klan used fear and violence to prevent African Americans from exercising their rights.

This section describes Southern politics during Reconstruction, including the participation of African Americans for the first time. You will also learn about education and the sharecropping system in the South.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Compare scalawags and carpetbaggers. What characteristics did they share? How were they different?

scalawag: white Southerner who supported Republican Reconstruction of the South (page 638)
carpetbagger: white Northerner who moved South after the Civil War and supported Republican Reconstruction (page 638)
corruption: dishonest or illegal actions (page 638)
integrate: include both whites and African Americans (page 638)
sharecropping: system in which a landowner rented a plot of land to a farmer and provided tools and seeds in exchange for a share of the crop (page 639)

US8.11 Students analyze the character and lasting consequences of Reconstruction. Focuses on: US8.11.1, US8.11.3, US8.11.4
New Groups Take Charge (pages 636–638)

Main Idea: Violence against African Americans and their white supporters took place during Reconstruction.

During Reconstruction, Republicans dominated Southern politics. Their supporters included African Americans, white Southerners who believed in Republican goals, and white settlers from the North.

African American voters contributed greatly to Republican wins. African Americans held important positions in some Southern states. They briefly held a majority in the lower house of the South Carolina legislature.

Between 1869 and 1880, 16 African Americans served in the federal House of Representatives and two in the Senate. Hiram Revels, one of the senators, had recruited African Americans for the Union army. He had also started a school for freed African Americans. Blanche K. Bruce, the other senator, had taught in a school for African Americans. Frederick Douglass, a powerful speaker, pushed for full equality for African Americans.

White Southerners who supported the Republicans were typically non-slaveholding farmers or pro-Union business leaders. Former Confederates called them scalawags, meaning “worthless rascals.” Other whites who supported the Republicans came from the North to live in the South. Many were Union army veterans and Freedmen’s Bureau members. Critics called them carpetbaggers, referring to their cheap suitcases made of carpet fabric.

Many Southerners accused Reconstruction governments of corruption, or dishonest or illegal actions. While some officials engaged in dishonest practices, corruption was no more common in the South than in the North.

Most Southern whites refused to respect African Americans’ rights. Many employers would not hire African Americans. Store owners refused them credit.

Secret societies, such as the Ku Klux Klan, used fear and violence to deny rights to freed people. Klan mem-
bers, wearing white sheets and hoods, killed thousands of African Americans. They burned African American homes, schools, and churches. Many Southern planters and Democrats backed the Klan. Congress passed laws to try to stop Klan violence. These laws accomplished little because most white Southerners refused to speak against the Klan.

1. Who were Hiram Revels and Blanche K. Bruce?

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Some Improvements (pages 638–639)

Main Idea After the Civil War, the South had to rebuild not only its farms and roads, but its social and political structures as well.

African Americans saw education as an important step to a better life. In many regions they created their own schools. The Freedmen’s Bureau and private charities contributed to the spread of education throughout the South. Northern women and African Americans came south to teach in these schools.

In the 1870s Reconstruction governments began creating public school systems for both races in the South. Northern missionary societies also established academies for advanced education for African Americans. Some academies developed into colleges, such as Morehouse College and Atlanta University.

African American and white students attended different schools. Only three Southern states required schools to be integrated—include both races—but the laws were not enforced.

The Freedmen’s Bureau helped some African Americans buy their own land. Most African Americans, however, could not buy land. Most African American farmers worked under a sharecropping system. A landowner
provided a plot of land for the sharecropper, or farmer, to work, along with a shack, seeds, some tools, and perhaps a mule. In exchange, the landowner claimed a share of the crop—often as much as one-half to two-thirds. After paying the landowners, sharecroppers had barely enough left to feed their families. For many, sharecropping was not much better than slavery.

2. How did the sharecropping system abuse African Americans?
Change in the South  
For use with textbook pages 640–649

**Drawing From Experience**

Do you think political leaders always try to pass laws that are fair? Fairness was not on the minds of white Southern leaders after Reconstruction. They passed laws intended to deny basic rights to African Americans.

This section describes the end of Reconstruction and the rise of the New South. You will also learn about the beginning of segregation.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about the laws and events that blocked African Americans’ progress toward equal rights after Reconstruction.

**Content Vocabulary**

- **reconciliation**: coming together again (page 641)
- **commission**: group officially brought together to perform certain duties (page 643)
- **cash crop**: crop that could be sold for money (page 646)
- **poll tax**: fee a person had to pay before voting (page 647)
- **literacy test**: test to show that a person could read and write (page 647)
- **grandfather clause**: law allowing individuals who did not pass the literacy test to vote if their fathers or grandfathers had voted before Reconstruction (page 648)
- **segregation**: separation of the races (page 648)
- **lynching**: killing a person by hanging (page 648)

**US8.11** Students analyze the character and lasting consequences of Reconstruction.

Focuses on:

Democrats steadily regained control of Southern governments as support for Radical Reconstruction policies decreased. Northerners began to lose interest in Reconstruction during the Grant administration. Many believed it was time for the South to solve its own problems. Old Radical leaders had died or left office. Opponents of Reconstruction exploited racial prejudice in the North to weaken enthusiasm for Reconstruction. Southerners protested “bayonet rule”—the use of federal troops to enforce laws in the South.

A group of Republicans split with the party over corruption in the Grant administration and in Reconstruction governments. Another group split from the party over Reconstruction, proposing peaceful reconciliation—coming together again—with Southern whites. Calling themselves Liberal Republicans, these groups nominated Horace Greeley to run against Grant in the 1872 election.

**Academic Vocabulary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>exploit</strong></th>
<th>to use unfairly for one’s own advantage (p. 641)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>enforce</strong></td>
<td>to make people obey a law, or to accept a new situation (p. 641)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Democrats also supported Greeley. Despite the Republican division, Grant won.

In 1872 Congress passed the Amnesty Act. It pardoned most former Confederates. Nearly all white Southerners could vote and hold office again. The amnesty changed the political balance in the South by restoring full rights to people who supported the Democratic Party.

Democrats soon regained control of Southern state governments. The Ku Klux Klan terrorized Republican voters, helping Democrats take power. The Democrats used threats to pressure white Republicans to become Democrats. They used violence to persuade African Americans not to vote.

Political scandals further weakened the Republicans. Investigations revealed top government officials making unfair business deals, scheming to withhold tax money, and accepting bribes. At the same time, Republicans received the blame for the economic depression that struck the nation.

In the 1874 congressional elections, Democrats gained seats in the Senate and won control of the House. This situation further weakened Congress’s commitment to Reconstruction and to protecting African American rights.

For the election of 1876, Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes for president. The Democrats chose Samuel Tilden. Tilden received 250,000 more votes than did Hayes. Disputed returns from several states, however, put the outcome in doubt. Congress created a special commission, or group, to review the election results. The commission of eight Republicans and seven Democrats voted along party lines to award all remaining electoral votes and the election to Hayes.

Democrats protested. Republican and Southern Democratic leaders met secretly to work out an agreement. In the Compromise of 1877, the Democrats agreed to accept Hayes as president in exchange for favors for the South. The new government would withdraw all troops from the South and provide aid to the region. The Democrats promised to protect African American rights. In his
Inaugural Address, Hayes made it clear that the federal government would no longer interfere in the South. Reconstruction was over.

1. How did the Amnesty Act affect Southern politics?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The South After Reconstruction (pages 645–646)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Idea</strong> When Reconstruction ended, many changes took place in the South, including a political shift and growth in industry.</td>
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</table>

When Reconstruction ended, political power in the South shifted to the Democrats. A new ruling class took charge in most areas. It included merchants, bankers, and other business leaders who supported economic development and opposed Northern interference. These Democrats called themselves “Redeemers” because they had saved the South from Republican rule.

The Redeemers adopted conservative policies. They lowered taxes and reduced government spending. They drastically cut or **eliminated** many social services, including public education.

Many Southerners believed that the South lost the Civil War because the North had more industry. Leaders, such as Henry Grady, urged Southerners to build a “New South” with an industrial economy.

Industry made dramatic gains in the South. Textile mills sprang up all over the South. Lumber and tobacco industries also thrived. James Duke’s American Tobacco Company eventually controlled almost all tobacco processing.

In the mid-1800s, American William Kelly and British engineer Henry Bessemer developed the Bessemer process. This method produced steel from iron cheaply. By 1890 Southern mills produced a large amount of iron and steel.

**Academic Vocabulary**

| **eliminate**: to remove or get rid of (p. 645) |

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A cheap workforce, including low-paid African Americans, helped the South’s industry grow. Rebuilt and expanded railroads aided industry as well. Still, the South remained mostly agricultural.

Supporters of the New South hoped to change Southern agriculture from cotton plantations to small farms raising many crops. A different economy emerged. Large landowners used their land for sharecropping and tenant farming. Neither proved profitable.

Poor farmers bought supplies on credit. Merchants who sold on credit charged high prices. To repay rising debts, farmers grew cash crops—crops that could be sold for money. Many grew cotton. Too much cotton forced prices down. Farmers then had to grow more cotton to recover their losses. Sharecropping and reliance on one cash crop hindered the development of Southern agriculture. The rural South sank further into poverty and debt.

2. Who were the “Redeemers”?

A Divided Society (pages 647–649)

Main Idea As Reconstruction ended, true freedom for African Americans became a distant dream.

After Reconstruction, racism became entrenched. Southern whites took steps to separate African Americans from whites and deny them basic rights.

Under the Fifteenth Amendment, no state could deny the right to vote because of race. Southern leaders found ways to get around this amendment.

Many Southern states required a poll tax, a fee that people had to pay before voting. Because many African Americans could not afford the tax, they could not vote. Another approach was to require voters to pass a literacy test, in which they had to read difficult parts of the state
or federal Constitution. Most African Americans had little education. The test blocked many from voting.

Literacy tests also kept some whites from voting. For this reason, some states passed **grandfather clauses**. These laws allowed people who did not pass the literacy test to vote if their fathers or grandfathers had voted before Reconstruction. African Americans could not vote until 1867, so they could not meet the requirement.

By the 1890s **segregation**, or the separation of the races, was common in the South. Southern states formed a segregated society by passing Jim Crow laws. These laws required the separation of the races in almost every public place.

In the case **Plessy v. Ferguson**, the Supreme Court upheld Jim Crow laws. The Court ruled that segregation was legal as long as African Americans had access to public facilities equal to those of whites. Public facilities, however, were not equal. Southern states spent much more on schools and other facilities for whites than for African Americans. This “separate but equal” doctrine supported segregation in the South for more than 50 years.

Violence against African Americans increased, especially **lynching**, in which an angry mob killed a person by hanging. Whites lynched African Americans who were suspected of committing a crime or who simply did not behave as whites thought they should.

Reconstruction was both a success and a failure. It helped the Southern economy recover from the Civil War, yet the recovery was far from complete. The South remained a poor rural society. Reconstruction brought African Americans greater equality and participation in government. These gains soon faded, though, when federal troops left and the South established segregation.

**3.** What was the “separate but equal” doctrine?
The Mining Booms  For use with textbook pages 666–671

Drawing From Experience

Have you ever received a gift of money from a relative? Could you hardly wait to spend it? Money came quickly to the miners on the western frontier, but the miners often spent it just as quickly.

This section describes new discoveries of gold and silver in the West and the boomtowns that sprang up around mining areas. You will also learn about the expansion of railroads that connected the West to the rest of the nation.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about characteristics that described boomtowns of the West.
In the late 1850s, discoveries of gold and silver sent miners flocking to the American West.

The California Gold Rush had ended by the mid-1850s. Miners began prospecting in other parts of the West.

In 1858, prospectors found gold on Pikes Peak in the Colorado Rockies. With the slogan “Pikes Peak or Bust,” miners flocked to Colorado. Most of the gold existed deep in underground lodes, rich streaks of ore sandwiched between layers of rock. Individual miners could not afford the expensive machinery and workers needed to dig up this rock, or ore, and then extract the gold. Mining companies made up of several investors soon replaced the lone miner.

**Main Idea** In the late 1850s, discoveries of gold and silver sent miners flocking to the American West.

**Academic Vocabulary**

- **extract**: to remove (p. 667)
In 1859 prospectors found silver ore on the banks of the Carson River in Nevada. The discovery was called the Comstock Lode after Henry Comstock, who owned a share of the claim. Thousands of mines opened near the site, but few were profitable. The Comstock Lode yielded hundreds of millions of dollars worth of gold and silver. A few mining companies reaped most of the profits.

1. Why did companies replace individual miners for mining underground lodes?

The Mining Frontier (page 668)

Main Idea A number of boomtowns grew quickly in the mining areas of the West.

Boomtowns, such as Virginia City, Nevada, grew up almost overnight around mining sites. Miners made money quickly and often spent it quickly on lavish living or gambling. High prices in boomtowns also drained miners’ earnings. Violence was part of everyday life. Few boomtowns had police. Sometimes citizens took the law into their own hands. These vigilantes served as judge and jury, often hanging the accused person from the nearest tree.

Men mostly populated boomtowns at first. Then women arrived to share in the riches. Some women opened businesses. Others served as cooks and dance-hall entertainers. Women often added stability, founding schools and churches.

When the mines no longer yielded ore, boomtowns turned to "busts" as people left the towns. In some places, gold and silver mining gave way to mining other metals, such as copper, lead, and zinc. The mining frontier became part of American industry, providing raw materials for manufacturers.

2. What happened to the mining areas when the mines no longer yielded ore?

Railroads Connect East to West (pages 669–671)

Main Idea) Railroads grew rapidly in the period following the Civil War.

Railroads expanded rapidly between 1865 and 1890. They filled the need to transport gold and silver to market and bring food and supplies to boomtowns.

The government supported railroad construction with subsidies, or financial aid. It gave the railroads free public land on which to lay track because the rail network would benefit the whole nation. The land grants included strips of land along the railway that railroad companies sold to raise more money. Many towns offered the railroads cash subsidies to come to their communities.

During the Civil War, the Union government chose a route for a transcontinental rail line—one that would span the continent. The Union Pacific Company began laying track westward from Omaha, Nebraska. At the same time, the Central Pacific Company worked eastward from Sacramento, California. The companies competed fiercely. Each wanted to cover the greatest distance in order to obtain more of the government subsidies.

The Central Pacific hired thousands of Chinese laborers. The Union Pacific relied on Irish and African American laborers. The workers labored in harsh conditions for low pay. They blasted tunnels and laid track through rugged terrain in all kinds of weather. The two tracks met...
at Promontory Summit in Utah Territory on May 10, 1869. Leland Stanford, governor of New York, drove the final golden spike. The transcontinental railroad was complete.

By 1883 many more lines connected Western cities to the rest of the nation. Trains brought thousands of workers to the West. Trains carried metals and farm products east and manufactured goods west. The demand for steel for tracks boosted the nation’s steel industry. Coal producers, railroad car manufacturers, and construction companies also benefited from the railroad boom.

Towns sprang up along rail lines. Some eventually grew into cities. Trains brought a new wave of settlers west—cattle ranchers and farmers.

Before railroads, each community kept its own time. The need for train schedules, however, changed this. Railroad companies divided the country into four time zones. Each time zone was exactly one hour apart from the zone on either side of it. Congress passed a law in 1918 to make time zones official.

3. Why did the Union Pacific and Central Pacific companies compete to lay the most track?
Drawing From Experience

Do you buy clothing based on fashion? Clothing also has a practical purpose. It protects you. Each item the Western cowhands wore had a purpose. The wide-brimmed hat protected them from the sun. Their heavy leather chaps protected their legs from injury as they rode through the brush.

This section describes herding cattle on the open range. You will also learn about settling and farming on the Great Plains.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about factors that brought settlers to the Great Plains.
Cattle on the Plains (page 673)

Main Idea Cattle ranching in Texas became a profitable business once the new railroad reached the Great Plains.

The Spanish brought cattle called longhorns when they settled Mexico and Texas. Much of Texas was open range—not fenced or divided into lots. Ranchers burned a brand, or symbol, into the animals’ hides to show who owned the cattle.

The markets for beef were in the North and East. Texas cattle increased in value when the railroad reached Missouri in 1866, making it easier to ship cattle to market. Some Texans combined herds and drove them to Sedalia, Missouri, the nearest rail point.

Cattle drives to “cow towns” near rail lines turned into a yearly event. Abilene and Dodge City, Kansas, and Cheyenne, Wyoming, became important cow towns. The Long Drive was a cattle drive of 1,000 miles or more. The heyday of the “Cattle Kingdom” extended from the late 1860s to the mid-1880s.

1. Why did Texas ranchers have to brand their animals?

Life on the Trail (pages 674–675)

Main Idea The work of the cowhands who drove the cattle north from Texas to the railroads was both difficult and dangerous.

Cowhands included Confederate army veterans, African Americans, and Hispanics. Hispanic ranch hands, or vaqueros, of the Spanish Southwest first developed the riding, roping, and branding skills used in cattle drives. Much of the language of the rancher today is derived from Spanish words used by vaqueros. The cowhand’s equipment was also based on vaquero equipment. Wide-brimmed hats protected cowhands from the sun. Leather
leggings, called chaps, protected their legs from injury. They used ropes called lariats to lasso cattle that strayed from the herd.

During the months on the trail, cowhands faced storms and rustlers who tried to steal cattle. They had to get the cattle safely across swift-flowing rivers. A sudden sound, such as a clap of thunder, could set off a stampede, with thousands of cattle running in panic. The cowhands would have to race to regain control.

Discrimination existed in the West as it did elsewhere in the nation. Non-Anglo cowhands received less pay and rarely became trail bosses.

After delivering their cattle, the cowhands enjoyed some time off in cow towns. They drank, gambled, and fought.

Cattle ranchers, sheep ranchers, and farmers all wanted to use the Western range land. Competition over land access resulted in “range wars.” After much loss of life, the range was fenced off with a new invention—barbed wire. At first, ranchers complained about these barriers. Soon they discovered that barbed wire could shut out competitors and keep their animals close to food and water. Barbed wire ended the excitement of the cattle drive. Ranch hands replaced cowboys.

Profits prompted cattle ranching to spread from Texas to the Plains. Ranchers crossbred longhorns with other breeds to produce hardier, plumper new breeds. These new breeds multiplied on the open range. When cattle prices boomed in the early 1880s, ranchers grew rich. Overgrazing, however, depleted the grasslands. Too many cattle glutted the beef market, and prices fell. Bitter winters of 1885 and 1886 killed many cattle. The price collapse of the mid-1880s marked the end of the “Cattle Kingdom.”

2. What caused range wars?
Free land and new farming methods brought many settlers to the Great Plains.

Several factors brought settlers to the Plains. The railroads made the journey west easier and cheaper. Plentiful rainfall in the late 1870s aided farming on the Plains. Finally, new laws offered free land.

The Homestead Act of 1862 offered 160 free acres to settlers who paid a filing fee and lived on the land for five years. This policy brought farmers to the Plains to homestead—earn ownership of land by settling on it. Some homesteaders were immigrants. Others were women. Married women could not claim land, but single women and widows could. They used the Homestead Act to acquire property.

Steamship companies advertised the American Plains in Scandinavia. Thousands of Swedes and Norwegians settled in Minnesota and the Dakotas.

The end of Reconstruction marked the end of federal protection for African Americans in the South. Fearing for their safety, thousands of African Americans migrated to Kansas to start new lives. Some African Americans, called “Buffalo Soldiers,” served in the army on the Western frontier.

The climate of the Plains made life challenging. The region generally received little rainfall. At times, however, rain fell in torrents, flooding crops and homes. Drought, or an extremely dry period, could also kill crops. Fire was another problem. In times of drought, brushfires swept across the Plains, destroying crops, livestock, and homes. Several times during the 1870s, grasshoppers swarmed over the Plains, devastating crops. Deep snows in winter could bury animals and trap families in their homes. They had to store enough food to get them through the winter.

Men worked hard in the fields. Women cooked, preserved food, sewed, and cared for the children. Older
children did chores and tended animals. Although separated by great distances, people gathered to enjoy weddings and picnics.

The usual methods for farming did not work on the Plains. The area received too little rain and had few streams for irrigation. The Plains farmers, known as sod-busters, needed new methods and tools. One approach, called dry farming, was to plant seeds deep in the ground where there was some moisture. A new invention—a lightweight steel plow—could turn over the tough sod that wooden plows could not penetrate.

Dry farming did not yield large crops. The 160-acre grants were too small to earn a living. Many farmers went into debt. Others lost ownership of their land.

Oklahoma Territory was the last part of the Plains to be settled. Congress had set it aside as “Indian Territory.” After years of pressure from land dealers and settlers’ groups, the government opened Oklahoma to homesteaders. On opening day, April 22, 1889, more than 10,000 homesteaders charged across the border to stake their claims. They discovered that some people had slipped in early. These “sooners” claimed the best land. Shortly after the Oklahoma land rush, the government announced that the frontier no longer existed.

3. What challenges did the climate of the Plains present to farmers?
Native American Struggles  For use with textbook pages 685–692

Content Vocabulary

nomadic: traveling vast distances to follow a source of food (page 686)
reservation: tract of land set aside for Native Americans (page 687)

Drawing From Experience

Have you ever seen a buffalo? Unless you have visited Yellowstone National Park, you may know what a buffalo looks like only from pictures. Imagine seeing herds of buffalo as far as your eyes can see. At one time, vast herds roamed the Great Plains, supporting the Native Americans who hunted them.

This section describes the lifestyles of Native Americans before white settlers arrived. You will also learn about Native Americans resistance to the changes forced on them.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Identify Native American leaders and describe the actions they led.

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<th>Native American Leader</th>
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US8.12  Students analyze the transformation of the American economy and the changing social and political conditions in the United States in response to the Industrial Revolution.
Focuses on: US8.12.2
Following the Buffalo (page 686)

Main Idea: The Native Americans of the Great Plains lived a nomadic lifestyle while following the great herds of buffalo.

For centuries, the Great Plains was home to many Native American nations. The Omaha and Osage nations lived in communities as farmers and hunters. The Sioux, Comanche, and Blackfeet lived a nomadic life. They traveled vast distances following their main source of food—the great herds of buffalo.

Despite their differences, the Plains Indians were alike in some ways. Indian nations were divided into bands. A governing council headed each band. Women cooked, prepared hides, and cared for children. Men hunted and traded. Most Indians based their religion on the spiritual power of the natural world.

Millions of buffalo once roamed the Plains. Railroad companies hired hunters to slaughter the buffalo to feed railroad builders and to prevent the herds from blocking the trains. William Cody became known as Buffalo Bill after killing thousands of buffalo. Later, hunters targeted buffalo to sell hides that tanneries made into leather goods.

1. Why did railroad companies hire hunters to slaughter the buffalo?

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Conflict (pages 687–692)

Main Idea During the late 1800s, whites and Native Americans fought while Native Americans tried to preserve their civilizations.

As settlers moved onto the Plains, they took away Native American hunting grounds and broke treaties that promised certain lands to the Plains Indians. Native Americans resisted by attacking wagon trains, stagecoaches, and ranches.

The federal Indian Peace Commission recommended moving the Native Americans to a few large reservations—tracts of land set aside for them. One reservation was in Oklahoma. Another was in the Dakota Territory. The Bureau of Indian Affairs would manage the reservations.

Government agents often tricked Native Americans into moving to reservations. Many reservations were located on poor land. The government often failed to deliver promised food and supplies.

Pockets of resistance remained. Native Americans and whites clashed many times during the 1860s. In Minnesota Territory, Red Cloud led Sioux warriors on a bloody raid on settlers’ homes. Army patrols fought with the nomadic Lakota in the northern Plains.

Troops led by Captain William J. Fetterman occupied a fort on the Bozeman Trail that led to gold mines in Montana. In 1866 Sioux leader Crazy Horse tricked Fetterman into sending 80 soldiers to pursue him into an ambush. Warriors wiped them out in what came to be known as the Fetterman Massacre.

As miners flocked to Colorado in search of gold and silver, bands of Cheyenne and Arapaho began raiding wagon trains and ranches. Colorado’s governor ordered the Native Americans to surrender at Fort Lyon. He promised them food and protection. Chief Black Kettle brought several hundred Cheyenne to negotiate a peace deal. They camped at Sand Creek. Colonel John Chivington led an attack on the unsuspecting Cheyenne, killing
hundreds. Many uprisings followed until Cheyenne and Arapaho leaders agreed to stop fighting.

In a treaty, the government promised that no white person would settle or pass through the Black Hills of the Dakotas. Rumors of gold in the hills, however, sent prospectors swarming into the area. The Sioux protested. Instead of upholding Native American rights, the government tried to buy the land. Sitting Bull, a leader of the Lakota Sioux, refused.

Sitting Bull gathered Sioux and Cheyenne warriors along the Little Bighorn River in Montana. Crazy Horse and his forces joined them. The Seventh Cavalry, under George Custer, was ordered to scout them. Seeking glory, Custer attacked. He did not realize that his 250 soldiers faced a force of thousands. Custer and all his soldiers lost their lives in the Battle of Little Bighorn.

The army soon crushed the uprising. Sitting Bull fled to Canada. By 1881, exhausted and starving, the Lakota and Cheyenne agreed to live on a reservation.

Farther west, the Nez Perce refused to move to a smaller reservation. When the army arrived, Chief Joseph led his people to Canada, a flight of more than a thousand miles. Finally, Chief Joseph surrendered in 1877. His followers were moved to reservations.

In the Southwest, the Apache resented their confinement to the San Carlos reservation in Arizona. Apache leader Geronimo escaped to Mexico with a small band of followers. He led raids into Arizona. The army pursued him. Geronimo finally gave up in 1886, becoming the last Native American to surrender formally.

Some well-meaning reformers, such as Helen Hunt Jackson, wrote about the injustices Native Americans suffered. Others wanted to abolish reservations and absorb the Native Americans into white American culture. Congress passed the Dawes Act in 1887. This law proposed to break up reservations and end identification with a tribal group. Each Native American would receive a plot of reservation land. The goal was to encourage native peoples to become farmers and, eventually, American citizens.
Native American children would be sent to white-run boarding schools. Some reservation lands would be sold to support the schools.

As the government divided up the reservations, the most valuable land went to speculators. Native Americans often received plots of land too poor to farm.

The Dawes Act failed to achieve its goals. Many Native Americans lacked the training or desire to be farmers. The plots were too small to be profitable. Some Native Americans preferred reservation life to homesteads. Once the buffalo were wiped out, the Plains Indians had no means to sustain their way of life and little interest in adopting white culture. However, the Dawes Act still changed forever the Native American way of life.

Wovoka, a Sioux prophet, told his people that they could regain their former greatness by performing a ritual known as the Ghost Dance. The ritual celebrated a hoped-for day of reckoning when settlers would disappear and the buffalo would return. Alarmed, reservation officials banned the dance. Police tried to arrest the Sioux leader Sitting Bull. In the scuffle, they shot him.

Several hundred Lakota Sioux fled. They gathered at a creek called Wounded Knee in South Dakota. On December 29, 1890, the army tried to collect their weapons. No one knows how the fighting started, but more than 200 Sioux and 25 soldiers lost their lives. Wounded Knee marked the end of armed conflict between whites and Native Americans.

2. How did the Dawes Act change the Native American way of life?
Drawing From Experience
Do you belong to a club, team, or other group? Does socializing with other members add to your enjoyment of the group’s activities? In the 1870s farmers formed a network of organizations called the National Grange. The Grange offered farmers fellowship as well as a way to promote their causes.

This section describes the problems farmers faced in the late 1800s. You will also learn about ways farmers organized to address these problems.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Describe the proposals of the Populist Party. For each proposal, describe its effect, if any, today.
When crop prices fell in the late 1800s, farmers began to organize politically. After the Civil War, farming expanded in the West and South. The supply of crops, however, grew faster than the demand for them. As a result, prices fell. At the same time, farmers' expenses remained high.

Farmers blamed three groups: railroads that charged high rates to ship crops, Eastern manufacturers that charged high prices for their products, and bankers. Farmers borrowed from banks to buy the seed and equipment they needed. The banks charged high interest rates on these loans. If crops failed and farmers could not repay the loans, they could lose their farms.

The Farmers Organize (pages 694–695)
The farmers began to organize to solve their problems. The first farmers’ organization of this time was a network of local organizations known as the National Grange. The Grange offered farmers education and fellowship. To encourage economic self-sufficiency, the Grange set up “cash-only” cooperatives, stores where farmers bought products from each other. The cooperatives charged lower prices than other stores and provided an outlet for farmers’ crops. The cash-only policy removed the burden of credit buying.

In the 1870s the Grange asked state legislatures to limit railroad shipping rates. Some did. Railroads, however, pressured the states into removing the limits.

Cooperatives also failed. Farmers often lacked cash until they sold their next crop. Without cash, they could not buy from cash-only cooperatives. By the late 1870s, the Grange had declined.

Farmers’ Alliances sprang up in the 1880s. Like the Grange, this network of organizations sponsored education and cooperative buying and selling. The Alliances proposed a plan in which the federal government would store farmers’ crops in warehouses and lend money to the farmers. When the stored crops were sold, the farmers would repay the loans. This plan would reduce the power that railroads, banks, and merchants had over farmers. It would also offer farmers some federal protection.

1. Why did cooperatives fail?
In the 1890s, a political party developed, supporting the views of farmers and the common people.

In 1890 Farmers’ Alliances supported candidates who promised to support Alliance goals. Many Alliance candidates won state and federal offices. Encouraged, Alliance members formed a national political party—the People’s Party of the U.S.A., also known as the **Populist Party**. The party’s goals were rooted in populism, or appeal to the common people.

The Populists wanted government, not private companies, to own the railroads and telegraph lines. They wanted to replace the country’s gold-based currency system with a flexible system based on **free silver**—the unlimited production of silver coins. They believed that increasing the number of silver coins in circulation would give farmers more money to pay their debts.

The Populists supported election reforms, such as limiting the president and vice president to one term, electing senators directly, and using secret ballots. The Populists also called for shorter hours for workers and a national income tax.

In 1892, James B. Weaver, the Populist Party candidate for president, received about 8.5 percent of the votes. Despite losing to Democrat Grover Cleveland, the Populists had done well for a third party.

The Populists also made a strong showing in the 1894 state and local elections. In the 1890s, however, laws passed by Democrat-controlled legislatures in the South limited the rights of African Americans to vote. Many freedmen—who might have supported the Populists—could not vote.

Bankers and business leaders opposed the Populist idea of free silver. They warned that producing unlimited amounts of coins would lead to inflation and ruin the economy. Free silver drew support from debtors, hoping for cheaper loan repayment. Silver-mining companies
also supported the cause. To them, more coins meant greater demand for their product—silver. Democrats from farm and silver-producing states began to support the issue.

President Grover Cleveland, a Democrat, opposed free silver. For the 1896 election, Democrats instead chose William Jennings Bryan. Bryan appealed to average Americans. He supported free silver and passionately believed in the farmers’ causes. The Populists decided to endorse Bryan for president and nominate their own candidate, Tom Watson, for vice president. Republicans nominated William McKinley, who opposed free silver.

Bryan crossed the country, giving dynamic speeches. The country, however, was emerging from an economic depression. Voters believed good times were returning. They chose McKinley, who represented stability. The Populist message no longer seemed urgent.

The Populist Party had a lasting effect on government. Reformers adopted Populist ideas and succeeded in getting many of them into law. Among the Populist laws still in place today are the federal income tax (Sixteenth Amendment), direct election of U.S. senators (Seventeenth Amendment), the secret ballot, primary elections, and an eight-hour workday.

2. Why did silver-mining companies support the Populist idea of free silver?
**Reading Essentials and Study Guide 16-1**

**Railroads Lead the Way**  *For use with textbook pages 706–711*

**Content Vocabulary**
- **consolidation**: practice of combining separate companies (page 707)
- **standard gauge**: a consistent width for railroad tracks (page 709)
- **rebate**: a discount (page 710)
- **pool**: agreement among railroad barons to divide the railway business among their companies and set rates for the region (page 711)

**Drawing From Experience**
Do you enjoy fresh fruit, vegetables, and meat? Such foods spoil quickly. How is it possible for your grocery store to offer fresh foods produced in distant regions? Development of the refrigerated railroad car in the early 1870s reduced the risk of spoilage during long-distance shipment.

This section describes the effects of railroad expansion on the nation’s economy. You will also learn about new railroad technology and competition among railroad barons.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**
Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about the development of new technologies and their effects on the railroad industry.

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<tr>
<th>Inventor/Developer</th>
<th>New Technology</th>
<th>Effect on Railroad Industry</th>
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**US8.12** Students analyze the transformation of the American economy and the changing social and political conditions in the United States in response to the Industrial Revolution.
Focuses on:
Railroad Expansion (page 707)

Main Idea: Railroad barons used consolidation to expand their companies and create a growing system of railroads throughout the United States.

In the Civil War, the superior rail system in the North helped the Union win. After the war, railroads expanded across the country, spurring the economy.

Railroad expansion was accompanied by consolidation—the practice of combining separate companies—in the industry. Large companies bought smaller competitors. Consolidation made large companies more efficient. It also created powerful railroad barons who controlled the nation’s rail traffic.

Cornelius Vanderbilt was one of the first railroad barons. His New York Central line stretched from New York City to the Great Lakes. James J. Hill’s Great Northern line connected Minnesota to Washington State. Collis P. Huntington and Leland Stanford, with two other partners, founded the Central Pacific, extending from California to Utah.

The railroad barons competed aggressively, sometimes using questionable methods. At the time, there were few laws to restrict them.

1. How did consolidation affect the railroad industry?

Railroads Spur the Economy (pages 709–711)

Main Idea: Railroad growth stimulated the economy and innovations made railroad travel more efficient and profitable.

Trains carried raw materials such as iron ore and coal to factories and carried manufactured goods to market. They carried produce from farming areas to cities. The
growing rail system also boosted the economy in other ways. The demand for tracks and locomotives benefited the iron industry. Later, railroads began making tracks out of steel, stimulating the steel industry. Lumber companies supplied wood for railway ties. Coal companies supplied coal to power locomotives. In addition, railroad companies created thousands of jobs laying tracks, constructing stations, and building manufacturing equipment.

At first, different rail lines used different gauges, or widths, for their tracks. As a result, trains of one line could not use another line’s tracks. Often local lines did not even connect with other lines. During the late 1880s, almost all railroad companies adopted a standard gauge, or consistent width, for railroad tracks. Long-distance rail shipment became less costly. Goods no longer had to be moved from one train to another. One train could make the entire journey.

New technology also improved rail transportation. George Westinghouse developed air brakes, making train travel safer. Eli H. Janney invented Janney car couplers that made it easier for workers to connect cars. Thaddeus Lowe invented the ice machine. Gustavus Swift employed engineers to use ice-machine technology to create refrigerated railroad cars to preserve food during shipment. George M. Pullman’s inventions made train travel more comfortable. He developed the Pullman sleeping car, with seats that converted into beds. Pullman also improved dining cars.

Railroad companies competed fiercely for customers. Large companies offered secret discounts called rebates to important customers. Many smaller companies were forced out of business because they could not match these rebates. Rebates to big customers raised rates for small shippers, such as farmers.

Railroad barons also made secret agreements among themselves, known as pools. They divided the rail business among their companies and set rates for a region. With no competitors in its region, a railroad could charge higher rates and earn greater profits.
The growing rail network enabled industry to expand into the West. Trains also redistributed the population. They carried homesteaders into the Great Plains and the West. They enabled people to move from rural areas to the cities.

Railroads affected the way Americans thought about time. People began measuring distances by the number of hours the trip would take by train rather than by the number of miles. Railroads led to a national time system based on four time zones.

Railroads opened the entire nation to settlement and economic growth. They connected regions into a single network.

2. How did railroad rebates affect customers who shipped small amounts of goods?

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Inventions  

For use with textbook pages 712–717

**Content Vocabulary**

- **assembly line**: manufacturing method in which each worker performs one task in the production process, but performs the task again and again (page 717)
- **mass production**: the production of large quantities of goods by using machinery and often an assembly line (page 717)

**Drawing From Experience**

Have you ever built something of your own design? A fort out of blankets? An igloo out of snow? Perhaps a new life form out of toy blocks? Creativity is part of the human personality. The creative drives of some people, such as Thomas Edison and Alexander Graham Bell, produce inventions that transform society.

In this section you will learn about important inventions of the late 1800s and early 1900s and the people who created them.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the table below to help you take notes. Identify important inventions and other innovations and their creators.

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Communication Changes (page 713)

Main Idea: New inventions improved communication and allowed Americans to contact one another over long distances.

Improvements in communication helped unify the regions of the country and promote economic growth. Samuel Morse introduced the telegraph in 1844. By 1860 Western Union Telegraph Company operated thousands of miles of telegraph lines. Operators transmitted messages in Morse code. Shopkeepers used telegrams to order goods. Reporters used them to transmit stories to newspapers. In 1866 Cyrus Field built the first transatlantic telegraph line, linking the United States and Europe.

Alexander Graham Bell experimented with sending voices through electrical wires. By 1876 Bell created a device that transmitted speech—the telephone. While preparing to test the device, Bell accidentally spilled battery acid on his clothes. In panic Bell called to his assistant in another room: “Mr. Watson, come here. I want you.” Watson heard Bell’s voice through the telephone. The invention worked. Bell formed the Bell Telephone Company in 1877.

1. What could Bell’s device do that Morse’s invention could not do?

The Genius of Invention (pages 714–715)

Main Idea: The advent of electricity gave America a new source of power.

Inventions abounded in the United States between 1860 and 1900. Businesses benefited from the invention of the typewriter by Christopher Sholes and the adding
machine by William Burroughs. Consumers enjoyed George Eastman’s camera—the Kodak—and John Thurman’s vacuum cleaner.

Thomas Edison loved science. He built a chemistry lab in his family’s basement. At 12 he got a job with a railroad and set up a lab in an empty freight car. In his 20s, Edison decided to go into the “invention business.” From his laboratory in Menlo Park, New Jersey, Edison produced the phonograph, motion picture projector, telephone transmitter, and storage battery. His most important invention, however, was the electric lightbulb in 1879. He then designed power plants that could produce electricity and distribute it to lightbulbs.

George Westinghouse developed transformers that could send electric power more cheaply over long distances. He also developed a system for transporting natural gas and invented many safety devices.

African Americans contributed to the era of invention as well. Lewis Howard Latimer developed an improved filament for the lightbulb and joined Edison’s company. Granville Woods patented an electric incubator as well as electromagnetic brakes and automatic circuit breakers for railroads. Elijah McCoy invented a mechanism for oiling machinery. Jan E. Matzeliger developed a shoe-making machine that automated many steps previously done by hand.

2. How did George Westinghouse and Lewis Howard Latimer improve on Edison’s work?

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Main Idea: Improvements in transportation made travel easier and helped commercial industries to make their goods available to a wider audience.

In the 1900s, the automobile developed into a practical form of transportation. Henry Ford wanted to build an inexpensive car that would last a lifetime. Ford worked with Charles Sorenson to create the Model T, introduced to the public in 1908. Ford’s company sold millions of Model Ts.

Henry Ford also pioneered a new, less expensive way to manufacture cars—the assembly line. On the assembly line, each worker performed just one task in the production process, but performed the task again and again. The assembly line revolutionized industry. It enabled mass production—the manufacture of large quantities of goods more quickly and less expensively. As a result, products could be sold for lower prices. Henry Ford made the automobile affordable for millions of Americans.

Mail delivery to homes began in 1863. By the 1890s, mail service had expanded into rural areas. Some merchants developed mail order businesses. Companies such as Montgomery Ward and Sears Roebuck published catalogs. Rural families could order a wide variety of goods not found in local stores.

Chain stores—stores with identical branches in many places—grew rapidly. Chains such as F.W. Woolworth’s specialized in common household items.

3. How did the development of mail order businesses benefit rural families?

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The Age of Big Business  For use with textbook pages 718–723

Drawing From Experience
When you shop, do you check several stores to find the best prices for the items you want? Suppose your town had only one store, and the next closest store was 200 miles away. Do you think your town’s store would charge high prices? As you will learn in this section, without competition, a company can charge high prices because consumers have no alternatives.

This section describes the rise of big corporations. You will learn how industrial leaders built corporate empires in the oil and steel industries.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagrams on the following page to help you take notes. Identify methods that corporations use to raise capital. Also identify ways that individuals can earn profits from investing in corporations.

Content Vocabulary

- **corporation**: company that sells shares of its business to the public (page 719)
- **stock**: ownership shares of a corporation (page 719)
- **shareholder**: person who invests in a corporation by buying its stock (page 719)
- **dividend**: cash payment made to shareholders from a corporation’s profits (page 719)
- **horizontal integration**: combining competing firms into one corporation (page 720)
- **trust**: group of companies managed by the same board of directors (page 720)
- **monopoly**: almost total control of a market by a single producer (page 720)
- **vertical integration**: acquiring companies that provide the equipment and services needed in a particular industry (page 721)
- **philanthropy**: use of money to benefit the community (page 722)
- **merger**: the combining of companies (page 722)

**US8.12** Students analyze the transformation of the American economy and the changing social and political conditions in the United States in response to the Industrial Revolution. Focuses on: **US8.12.1, US8.12.4**
Foundations for Growth (page 719)

Main Idea: The American economy grew because the country contained abundant land, labor, and capital.

The United States could change from an agricultural economy to an industrial one because it had the necessary factors of production: land, labor, and capital. The factor “land” includes natural resources as well as land. The United States held an abundance of both. The population boom of the late 1800s supplied a large pool of the second factor, labor, needed to turn raw materials into goods.

The third factor, capital, is the equipment—buildings, machinery, and tools—used in production. Industries use capital equipment to produce consumer goods. Capital also includes money available to invest in businesses to help them grow. Businesses get the capital they need from individual investors, from their own profits, and from loans.

One way a company can raise capital from investors is to become a corporation. A corporation is a company that sells shares, or stock, of its business to the public. The

Academic Vocabulary

(resource: a useful or valuable possession (p. 719))

(invest: to commit money in order to receive a profit (p. 719))
people who invest in the corporation by buying stock are its shareholders, or partial owners. When the corporation does well, it pays part of its profits to its shareholders as dividends. If the corporation thrives over time, the value of its stock will rise. Shareholders can then sell their stock for a profit. If the corporation fails, shareholders can lose their investment. Investors buy and sell stock in special markets called stock exchanges.

Big corporations have some advantages over small companies. Big corporations can produce goods more cheaply and efficiently. They have more resources to help them survive poor economic times. Also, large corporations have the power to negotiate lower prices from their suppliers.

The growth of corporations fueled industrial expansion in the years following the Civil War. Banks played a key role as well. Businesses borrowed money from banks to start or expand.

1. What is the factor of production called capital?

The Oil Business (page 720)

Main Idea The development of the oil industry created one of the first monopolies.

In 1870 John D. Rockefeller formed the Standard Oil Company. He set about building a corporate empire through horizontal integration—combining two or more firms producing the same kind of product.

To secure Standard Oil’s dominance of the oil industry, Rockefeller lowered his prices to drive competitors out of business. He pressured customers not to deal with rival oil companies. He also persuaded railroads to grant him rebates to get his business.
Rockefeller tightened his grip on the oil industry by forming a trust, a group of companies managed by the same board of directors. First, he acquired stock in many different oil companies. Then shareholders of these other companies traded their stock for Standard Oil stock, which paid higher dividends. By owning most of their stock, Standard Oil then owned these companies, and its board of directors had the right to manage them. Rockefeller had created a monopoly—almost total control by a single producer in an industry.

2. Why do you think railroads agreed to grant rebates to Standard Oil?

The Steel Business (pages 721–723)

Main Idea Monopolies in the steel business and other industries created the need for government regulation.

Steel was an ideal material for railroad tracks and many other products. Steel was expensive to make, however. Two new methods—the Bessemer process and the open-hearth process—turned steel into a huge business in the late 1800s. With these methods, mills could produce large amounts of steel less expensively.

Many steel mills located close to sources of iron ore, the main raw material used to make steel. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, became a major steel center.

Andrew Carnegie, son of a Scottish immigrant, worked his way up to manager of the Pennsylvania Railroad. Carnegie realized that steel would have a huge market. He built a steel plant near Pittsburgh that used the Bessemer process.
Carnegie built his steel empire through vertical integration—acquiring companies that provided the equipment and services he needed. He bought iron mines, warehouses, and railroads to gain control of all parts of steel production and sales. By 1900, the Carnegie Steel Company was producing one-third of the nation’s steel. Carnegie sold his company to banker J. Pierpont Morgan in 1901. Morgan combined it with other businesses to form the world’s first billion-dollar corporation—the United States Steel Corporation.

Carnegie, Rockefeller, and other millionaires of the time engaged in philanthropy—the use of money to benefit the community. Carnegie donated $350 million to various organizations. He believed that a person of great wealth had a duty to help humankind.

In 1889 New Jersey encouraged monopolies by allowing holding companies to obtain charters, a practice some states banned. A holding company would buy enough stock in other companies to control them, rather than buy the companies outright. Other states passed laws that made mergers—the combining of companies—easier.

Mergers concentrated economic power in a few giant corporations and a few powerful people. These large corporations helped the economy grow. Some argued, though, that lack of competition hurt consumers. Without competition, corporations had no reason to keep prices low or improve their products.

In 1859 Charles Darwin published a theory that all plants and animals evolved over long periods of time by a process of natural selection. Living things competed for survival. Those best adapted to the environment survived. Others did not. Later thinkers applied Darwin’s biological theory to society and business, calling this application Social Darwinism. Industrial leaders argued that “survival of the fittest” helped explain the growth of huge companies. They used Social Darwinism to justify their methods for achieving business success, including
child labor, poor working conditions, and unfair business practices.

Public pressure to prohibit trusts and monopolies led Congress to pass the Sherman Antitrust Act in 1890. In the early years the law did little to curb the power of big business. Instead, the government used it to defeat a strike by railroad workers.

3. What was Social Darwinism?
**Drawing From Experience**

How many hours a day do you work doing chores or homework? Can you imagine working in a factory 10 or 12 hours a day, 6 days a week? Add to this scene constant noise, choking dust, and dangerous machinery. In the 1800s, many children as young as 12 labored under such conditions.

In this section you will learn about the human costs of industrial growth. You will also learn about the efforts of labor unions to win better conditions.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about major strikes of the late 1800s and their results.

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<tr>
<th>Strike Location</th>
<th>Company or Industry</th>
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Working Conditions (page 725)

Main Idea: Industrialization created many jobs, but it also created hazardous working conditions.

Industrial growth created new jobs. It also raised the standard of living for many workers by making more products available and affordable. Yet workers paid a price for this progress. Industrial workers labored for 10 or 12 hours a day, six days a week. Factories and mines were unhealthy and unsafe. Accidents were common. Steel workers suffered burns from spills of hot steel. Coal miners died in cave-ins and from the effects of coal dust. Garment workers labored in crowded urban factories called sweatshops, where sewing for hours in poor light ruined their eyesight. Flammable materials in sweatshops made them firetraps.

Some women took jobs in industry, especially in the textile industry. Women earned about half of what men earned for the same work. Employers assumed that men needed higher wages because they supported families.

Industries also hired children. In response to pressure from reformers, many states passed laws setting limits on child labor. These laws stated that children working in factories must be at least 12 years old and may not work more than 10 hours a day. Employers widely ignored child-labor laws.

1. How did employers justify paying women less than men for the same work?
Workers created labor unions to combat unsafe working conditions in many of the nation’s industries.

Early in the 1800s workers formed trade unions. These unions had little influence because they represented workers in only one craft or trade. By the mid-1800s, labor leaders began to expand their unions.

Garment cutters in Philadelphia founded the Noble and Holy Order of the Knights of Labor. Employers fired union members, so the Knights met secretly. Under their leader Terence V. Powderly, the Knights grew into a national organization. They recruited people kept out of trade unions, including women, African Americans, immigrants, and unskilled laborers. The Knights declined after a wave of strikes turned public opinion against the union.

A group of national trade unions formed a federation that later became known as the American Federation of Labor (AFL). The AFL represented skilled workers in various crafts. Led by Samuel Gompers, the AFL pushed for higher wages, shorter hours, better working conditions, and the right to bargain collectively. In collective bargaining, unions represent workers in negotiating with management.

Many unions would not admit women, so some women formed their own unions. Mary Harris Jones, known as Mother Jones, spent 50 years fighting for workers’ rights.

In 1911 a fire broke out in the Triangle Shirtwaist factory, a sweatshop in New York City. The workers, mostly young immigrant women, could not escape. The company had locked the doors to prevent workers from leaving early. Nearly 150 workers died. As a result of the disaster, the International Ladies’ Garment Workers Union (ILGWU) pushed for a safer working environment.

2. Why did the Knights of Labor meet secretly?
The Unions Act (pages 727–729)

Main Idea: Strikes often ended in violence, causing the nation to turn against labor unions.

The nation fell into an economic depression in the 1870s. To cut costs, companies fired workers and cut wages. In 1877 wage cuts in the railroad industry triggered the first nationwide strike. Angry strikers smashed equipment and tore up tracks in several cities. The companies hired strikebreakers to replace striking workers. Federal troops restored order, but more than 100 people lay dead.

In 1886 striking workers from the McCormick Harvester Company gathered in Chicago’s Haymarket Square. When police ordered the crowd to break up, someone threw a bomb. Several people died in the Haymarket Riot, leading many Americans to associate the labor movement with violence and disorder.

In 1892 workers went on strike at Andrew Carnegie’s steel plant in Homestead, Pennsylvania. After a battle, the plant reopened with nonunion workers. The steelworkers’ union declined after the Homestead Strike failed.

Employees of George Pullman’s railway-car plant near Chicago went on strike in 1894. Pullman closed the plant. The American Railway Union supported the strikers by refusing to handle Pullman cars, paralyzing rail traffic. Pullman and the railroad owners obtained an injunction, or court order, to stop the union from blocking rail traffic and holding up the mail. Union leader Eugene V. Debs was jailed when workers refused to end the strike. President Grover Cleveland sent federal troops, ending the strike. Failure of the Pullman Strike dealt another blow to the union movement.

3. How did the American Railway Union support the Pullman strikers?
The New Immigrants  For use with textbook pages 740–747

Content Vocabulary

emigrate: leave one's homeland (page 742)
ethnic group: minority that speaks a different language or follows different customs from those of most people in a country (page 742)
steerage: cramped, noisy quarters on the lower decks of a ship (page 742)
sweatshop: factory in which workers labor long hours for low wages under poor conditions (page 744)
assimilate: become part of a culture (page 744)
nativist: person opposed to immigration (page 746)

Drawing From Experience

Did you ever move to a new neighborhood, change schools, or join a new club? Did you find it difficult to fit in at first? Now imagine moving to a new land where the people spoke a strange language and followed different customs. This was the situation for many “new” immigrants to America.

This section describes the immigrants who arrived on America’s shores in the late 1800s. You will learn about their lives in their new land and the opposition they faced.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Think about why nativists opposed the new immigrants and the restrictions that resulted from those feelings.
A Flood of Immigrants (pages 741–742)

Main Idea The immigrants who arrived in America in the late 1800s came from many different countries.

Except for enslaved people, most immigrants to the United States before 1865 came from northern and western Europe. Most were Protestant, spoke English, and blended easily into American society.

In the mid-1880s “new” immigrants began to arrive from eastern and southern Europe. They included Greeks, Russians, Hungarians, Italians, Turks, and Poles. Many were Catholics or Jews. Few spoke English. Because of these differences, they did not blend easily into American society. Many clustered together in urban neighborhoods with people of the same nationality.

Many people emigrated, or left their homelands, because of economic problems. Poverty, overcrowding, and the lack of jobs prompted many to emigrate. New machines had put many workers out of work.

Persecution also drove people from their homelands. Some governments passed laws or followed policies against certain ethnic groups—minorities that spoke different languages or followed different customs from those of most people in the country.

Immigrants saw the United States as a land of jobs, abundant and inexpensive land, and opportunities for a better life.

1. Why did many “new” immigrants find it difficult to blend into American society?
The Journey to America (pages 742–745)

Main Idea After a difficult journey to America, many immigrants faced harsh working conditions in their new cities.

Immigrants faced a difficult journey. Many traveled hundreds of miles on foot or horseback to reach a port city. Then they boarded ships for a long voyage across the ocean. Most could afford only the cheapest tickets. As a result, they traveled in steerage—cramped, noisy quarters on the lower decks.

Most European immigrants landed in New York City, where the sight of the Statue of Liberty greeted them. At the base of the statue, a poem by Emma Lazarus welcomed new immigrants. It began “Give me your tired, your poor, Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free. . . .”

Immigrants had to register at government reception centers. In the East, immigrants were processed at Castle Garden on Manhattan Island, and after 1892 at Ellis Island in New York Harbor. Most Asian immigrants arrived on the West Coast and were processed on Angel Island in San Francisco Bay.

After gaining entry, immigrants faced the challenge of finding work. Sometimes organizations in their homeland recruited unskilled workers for jobs in the United States. Many growing industries, such as steel making, hired immigrants. Many immigrants, including women and children, worked in sweatshops, factories where they worked long hours for low pay in dangerous conditions.

Immigrants tried to preserve some aspects of their cultures. At the same time, most wanted to assimilate, or become part of the American culture. These two desires sometimes caused family friction. Parents often spoke their native language, while their children and grandchildren learned to speak English. American women generally enjoyed more freedom than did European and Asian women. New lifestyles conflicted with traditional ways.
Most new immigrants came from rural areas. Lacking money to buy land in America, most settled in industrial cities. With little education, they worked as unskilled laborers. Many settled with people of the same ethnic group, forming communities of Jews, Poles, Chinese, and other groups. They established traditional institutions, such as churches and synagogues. They published newspapers in their native language, opened stores, and organized clubs. Ethnic communities and institutions helped the immigrants preserve their culture.

2. Why did most new immigrants settle in cities?

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Nativist Movement  
*pages 746–747*

Many native-born Americans resented the new immigrants and pushed for laws to control their numbers.

Many American-born workers resented the immigrants. They feared immigrants would take away their jobs or drive down everyone’s wages by accepting lower pay. Some Americans also argued that the new immigrants did not fit into American society. People found it easy to blame immigrants for increasing crime, unemployment, or other problems. The nativist movement, which had opposed immigration since the 1830s, gained strength. Congress responded to the wave of anti-immigrant feeling. In 1882 Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act. It banned Chinese workers from entering the country for 10 years. Congress extended the law in 1892 and 1902.

In 1907 Japan made a Gentlemen’s Agreement to limit the number of immigrants to the United States. In return, the federal government pledged fair treatment for Japanese Americans already in the United States.
An 1882 law made each immigrant pay a tax and barred criminals from entering the country. Along with other restrictions, the Immigration Act of 1917 required immigrants to be able to read and write in some language.

Grace Abbott and Julia Clifford Lathrop helped form the Immigrants’ Protective League to speak out in support of immigration. These and other Americans recognized that immigrants contributed to their new society. The new immigrants supplied workers needed for industries to grow. They enriched society with their religions, cultures, and languages.

3. What did the Chinese Exclusion Act do?
Drawing From Experience
When you have a cold or the flu, do other members of your family or other classmates often have it, too? When many people live or work close together, diseases can spread among them. Serious diseases often spread rapidly through crowded cities of the late 1800s.

This section describes the factors that contributed to the growth of cities. You will also learn about the problems in cities that resulted from rapid growth and about efforts to solve those problems.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Think about improvements in city transportation systems introduced in the late 1800s.
As Americans crowded into cities, strong contrasts emerged between the lives of the rich and the poor. After the Civil War, cities grew rapidly. America was changing from a rural to an urban nation. Immigrants played a major role in this growth. Native-born Americans also moved in large numbers from rural areas to cities seeking jobs.

Industrialization changed farm work. Because of new farm machinery, farms needed fewer workers. Women in rural areas no longer had to make clothes and household goods. People could buy these goods, made by machine, in stores and catalogs. Freed from such chores, many women left farms for city jobs.

African Americans also migrated to cities in large numbers to escape poverty in the rural South. Some moved to Southern cities. After 1914, large numbers
moved to Northern cities, which offered more factory jobs than Southern cities did. African Americans also hoped to find less discrimination in the North.

The expanding railroad network also fed the growth of cities. Trains helped people travel to cities. Trains transported raw materials to factories and finished goods to market, helping cities grow as industrial centers.

Cities thrived near sources of raw materials, such as iron needed to make steel. Seaports developed into large cities as worldwide trade increased.

People poured into cities faster than housing could be built to accommodate them. In the largest cities, most immigrants and other poor residents lived in tenements. These were apartment buildings in the slums—poor, rundown urban neighborhoods. Several people shared each small, dark room. Several families shared a cold water tap and toilet. Few tenements had hot water or bathtubs.

Cities also had a growing middle class made up of professionals, such as doctors and ministers, and some managers and office workers. The middle class enjoyed a comfortable life. Transportation improvements led many to move to the suburbs, residential areas outside of city centers. Their homes had hot water, indoor toilets, and—by 1900—electricity.

The very rich built enormous city mansions and country estates. They lived lives of extreme luxury, throwing huge, expensive parties. The name Gilded Age became associated with America of the late 1800s. The name came from a novel called The Gilded Age. “Gilded” means covered with a thin layer of gold. The name suggested both the extravagant wealth and the terrible poverty that existed at the time.

1. How did industrialization change farm work?


Cities in Crisis (page 753)

Main Idea America’s rapidly growing cities faced many problems.

The rapid growth of cities produced serious problems. Overcrowding created unsanitary conditions. Sewers could not handle the flow of human waste. Garbage and horse manure piled up in the streets. The filthy conditions led to diseases which spread through crowded neighborhoods. Babies often died of whooping cough, diphtheria, or measles. New York City began to screen schoolchildren for contagious diseases and provide public health clinics.

Fires were a constant threat. About 100,000 Chicagoans lost their homes in the Chicago fire of 1871. Boston experienced a terrible fire two years later.

Poverty led to increased crime. Children turned to picking pockets to survive and gangs roamed poor neighborhoods.

Many people worked to improve city life. Religious groups aided the poor. The YMCA and YWCA offered recreation centers for city youngsters.

Settlement houses located in poor neighborhoods provided services, such as medical care, playgrounds, nurseries, libraries, as well as classes in English, music, and crafts. Settlement workers—mostly women—tried to get better police protection, garbage removal, and public parks for poor areas. One of the most famous settlement houses was Chicago’s Hull House, founded by Jane Addams.

2. What serious problems resulted from overcrowding in cities?
The Changing City (pages 754–756)

Main Idea As cities grew, Americans created new styles of buildings and improved forms of transportation.

Because of the limited space in cities, architects began building upward instead of outward. Use of iron supports, along with the safety elevator, invented by Elisha Otis, made taller buildings possible. William LeBaron Jenney constructed the world’s first skyscraper, a 10-story building in Chicago. Soon architects such as Louis Sullivan were designing taller, more stylish structures.

The City Beautiful movement believed people in the city should also enjoy nature. Frederick Law Olmsted, a leader in the movement, designed New York’s Central Park as well as parks in Boston. Chicago hosted the World’s Fair on fairgrounds designed by Olmsted.

Public transportation at the time consisted of streetcars that horses pulled on tracks. Horses were slow, however, and left piles of manure. In 1873 San Francisco began constructing underground cables with a motor at one end to move cable cars. In 1888 Richmond, Virginia, introduced the trolley car, a motorized train powered by electricity supplied through overhead cables. In 1897, Boston opened the nation’s first subway, or underground railway.

Streets in some major cities were simply sand and gravel. Other cities used wood blocks, brick, or cobblestone, all of which were bumpy, noisy, and hard to repair. Use of asphalt grew in the 1890s, making city streets smoother and quieter.

Rivers ran through or around many major cities. Using new construction technology, engineers built huge steel bridges to link sections of cities. The Eads Bridge across the Mississippi River in St. Louis opened in 1873. The Brooklyn Bridge opened in 1883.
Improved transportation not only helped travel within cities but also helped cities expand. Train and trolley lines extended out from city centers, enabling middle-class families to move to suburbs and commute downtown to work or shop.

3. How did transportation improvements help cities expand?
A Changing Culture  For use with textbook pages 757–763

Content Vocabulary

land-grant college: school started with funds from the sale of federal lands (page 760)
yellow journalism: sensational, exaggerated writing style used to attract readers (page 761)
realism: art and writing style that focuses on the lives of people (page 761)
regionalism: art and writing style that focuses on a particular region of the country (page 761)
ragtime: musical form with complex rhythms that was popular in the early 1900s (page 762)
vaudeville: variety show with dancing, singing, comedy, and magic acts (page 763)

Drawing From Experience

Have shocking headlines in “tabloid” newspapers ever grabbed your attention? In the late 1800s, two famous newspaper owners pioneered this form of sensational and exaggerated writing to attract readers. The style was known as yellow journalism.

This section describes new educational opportunities in the late 1800s. You will also learn about popular American literature, art, music, and recreation.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Describe changes in education that affected the groups of people listed in the diagram.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Changes in Education</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
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<td>African Americans</td>
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<td>Native Americans</td>
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Expanding Education (page 758–760)

Main Idea The expanding education system provided opportunities for Americans and new immigrants.

In 1865 most Americans had attended school for an average of only four years. Leaders and reformers believed that progress required a more educated population. Education became more widely available by the end of the 1800s.

The number of public high schools increased dramatically from 1860 to 1914. Still, many teenagers did not attend school. Boys often went to work to help their families rather than attend school. Most high school students were girls.

Not everyone shared the benefits of public education equally. African Americans in the South received little education. In many areas of the country, African American children could attend only segregated schools.

A new idea called “progressive education” emerged around 1900. Supporters believed schools should do more than teach facts. They should develop students’ characters and teach good citizenship. They believed children should learn through “hands-on” activities. John Dewey, a leader in progressive education, criticized schools for overemphasizing memorization. He argued that schools should instead relate learning to the interests of students.

The Morrill Act of 1862 gave the states federal land they could sell to raise money for education. The states used these funds to start land-grant colleges. Wealthy people also gave money to establish colleges. Some, such as Cornell University and Stanford University, were named for the donor.

Women could attend land-grant colleges. They could also choose among new women’s colleges founded in the late 1800s—Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, and Bryn Mawr.

Some new colleges, such as Hampton Institute, provided higher education for African Americans and Native Americans. Howard University, founded after the Civil
War, had mostly African American students. Prominent Howard graduates include Chief Justice Thurgood Marshall, writer Toni Morrison, and Ralph Bunche, the first African American to win the Nobel Peace Prize.

Booker T. Washington, a Hampton student, founded Tuskegee Institute for African Americans. George Washington Carver, a Tuskegee faculty member, transformed agriculture in the South by developing hundreds of uses for peanuts.

The Carlisle Indian Industrial School and similar schools opened in the West. They trained Native Americans for jobs in industry, but they also isolated Native Americans from their tribal traditions. Boarding schools were often located hundreds of miles away from the student’s family.

1. What was “progressive education”?

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A Nation of Readers (page 761)

Reading for learning and pleasure grew more popular as education and leisure time increased for Americans.

In 1881 Andrew Carnegie pledged to build a public library in any city that would agree to pay its operating costs. In the next 30 years, Carnegie donated more than $30 million to found 2,000 libraries throughout the world. Advances in printing, paper making, and communications made it possible to publish daily newspapers. Newspapers were popular in America’s growing cities.

Using sensational stories and shocking headlines to grab attention, Joseph Pulitzer built the circulation of his New York World newspaper to over one million readers. William Randolph Hearst attracted readers to his New York Morning Journal by exaggerating the dramatic
aspects of stories. This style of sensational writing became known as **yellow journalism**.

Ethnic and minority newspapers thrived as well. Magazines also took advantage of mass circulation techniques to reach a national market.

During this period, many American authors wrote about the lives of people, an approach to literature called **realism**. Some literature of the time reflected **regionalism**, or a focus on a particular region of the country.

Mark Twain was a realist and a regionalist. Twain set many of his books along the Mississippi River where he grew up. Stephen Crane wrote about the Civil War and city slums. Jack London portrayed the lives of miners and hunters in the far Northwest. Edith Wharton described the joys and sorrows of upper-class Easterners. Paul Laurence Dunbar used the dialects and folktales of Southern African Americans in his poetry and novels. Horatio Alger wrote popular young adult books based on the idea that hard work and honesty brought success.

Inexpensive paperback books first appeared in the late 1800s. Many paperbacks told lively adventure tales.

2. How did Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst attract readers for their newspapers?

Art, Music, and Leisure (pages 762–763)

**Main Idea** American art, music, and leisure time activities continued to develop their own distinct style.


American music took on distinctive styles. John Philip Sousa composed many rousing marches. In the late 1800s, African Americans in New Orleans combined elements of work songs, gospel, spirituals, and African rhythms to create a new kind of music—jazz. The complex rhythms of ragtime, including many pieces by composer Scott Joplin, also became popular. The symphony orchestras of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia were among the world’s finest.

In spite of long work hours, middle-class people and some factory workers enjoyed increasing amounts of leisure time. Americans developed new forms of recreation. People enjoyed watching sports, especially baseball. By 1900 both the National and American leagues had been formed. College football was drawing many fans. Dr. James Naismith invented basketball in the 1890s. Basketball is considered the only major sport that is completely American in origin.

Americans also participated in sports. The wealthy enjoyed tennis and golf in private clubs. The development of air-filled tires to replace metal-rimmed wheels increased the popularity of bicycling.

Theaters in large cities offered plays and vaudeville shows—variety shows with dancing, singing, comedy, and magic acts. Inexpensive tickets made vaudeville very popular. Traveling circuses also attracted large crowds.

In the 1880s Thomas Edison invented “moving pictures.” Some theaters, called nickelodeons, charged five cents to see a short “movie.” Nickelodeons developed into today’s film industry.

3. Why is the sport of basketball unique in American history?
The Progressive Movement  For use with textbook pages 764–771

Drawing From Experience
How would you feel if you had to pay your teacher to receive a high grade? In the late 1800s reformers worked to break the power of corrupt party bosses who awarded jobs and favors to those who paid the most money.

This section describes efforts to reform government, business, and society.

Organizing Your Thoughts
Use the diagram on the following page to help you take notes. Identify important laws and amendments of the late 1800s and their effects.
### Call for Reform (pages 765–766)

**Main Idea** Americans took action against corruption in business and government.

Political machines—powerful organizations linked to political parties—controlled local government in many cities. A machine representative, or political boss, controlled jobs and services in each district. Many bosses were dishonest. They accepted bribes from tenement landlords to overlook housing code violations. Some took kickbacks, arrangements in which contractors pad their bills for city work and give, or “kick back,” part of the payment to the bosses.

William M. Tweed, known as Boss Tweed, was one of the most corrupt bosses. He headed New York City’s Democratic political machine. Tweed’s network of officials, called the Tweed Ring, controlled the police, courts, and newspapers. Thomas Nast exposed Tweed’s operations in his political cartoons.

The spoils system, also called patronage, rewarded political supporters with jobs and favors. The system led to abuses. Many who received government jobs were not

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### Reading Essentials and Study Guide 17–4 (continued)

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qualified. Some were dishonest. In 1883 Congress passed the Pendleton Act. It established the Civil Service Commission to give competitive examinations for federal jobs.

Public concern over the growing power of trusts—combinations of companies—led to new laws. In 1890 Congress passed the Sherman Antitrust Act. Supporters hoped the law would stop trusts from limiting competition. The government, however, seldom used the law against trusts until the early 1900s. Instead, officials applied the law to labor unions to end strikes.

The railroads functioned as an oligopoly—a market structure in which a few large companies control the prices of the industry. The Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 required railroads to charge reasonable rates and publish their rates. The act also set up the Interstate Commerce Commission to supervise railroads.

Reformers also sought to lower tariffs. Many people believed that tariffs led to higher prices for goods.

1. What was a political boss?

The New Reformers (page 767)

Main Idea New calls for reform were aided by writers who exposed government and business corruption.

Socialists wanted government, rather than businesses seeking a profit, to own the nation’s resources and to operate major industries on behalf of all the people. Eugene V. Debs led the American Socialist Party.

Like socialists, progressives were alarmed by the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of a few. Progressives, however, rejected the socialist idea of government ownership. Instead, they supported government regulation of industry. Progressives also sought to reform
government to make it more efficient and better able to resist the influence of big business. Progressive reforms aimed to help all citizens, especially those who lacked wealth and influence.

Investigative reporters wrote stories that exposed injustices and corruption. These journalists were called muckrakers because they “raked” (brought up) the “muck” (dirt or corruption) underlying society. Muckraker Lincoln Steffens exposed corrupt machine politics. Ida Tarbell described the unfair practices of the oil trust and warned about Standard Oil’s power. In his novel *The Jungle*, Upton Sinclair described the horrors of meatpacking. His shocking descriptions helped persuade Congress to pass the Meat Inspection Act of 1906. That same year Congress passed the Pure Food and Drug Act, requiring accurate labeling of food and medicine and banning the sale of harmful food.

2. How did socialists seek to reform society?

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**Expanding Democracy** *(pages 769–771)*

*Main Idea* In the early 1900s, more people received the right to vote, and the government began to regulate industry.

In the early 1900s, progressives promoted reforms aimed to increase the people’s direct control of government. Robert La Follette reformed the Wisconsin electoral system. Previously, candidates had been chosen at state conventions run by party bosses. La Follette introduced the direct primary election, in which the state’s voters chose their party’s candidates. Other states adopted this idea.

Oregon introduced the initiative, referendum, and recall. The initiative allowed citizens to place issues on
the ballot in a state election. The **referendum** gave voters the opportunity to accept or reject measures passed by the state legislature. The **recall** enabled voters to remove incompetent elected officials from their jobs. Other Western states adopted the Oregon System.

Under the Constitution, state legislatures chose senators. Party bosses and business interests, however, often controlled the selection process. Progressives believed that the people should vote for their senators directly. In response to growing support for this idea, Congress passed the Seventeenth Amendment. After ratification in 1913, the amendment established direct election of senators.

At the Seneca Falls Convention in 1848, women had called for suffrage, or the right to vote. The Fifteenth Amendment passed after the Civil War had given voting rights to freed men but not to women. Suffragists first won voting rights in Wyoming in 1869. Other states followed. Women finally won full voting rights nationally with ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment in 1920.

After President William McKinley’s assassination, young Theodore Roosevelt became president. McKinley had favored big business. Roosevelt, however, supported progressive reforms. Roosevelt ordered the Justice Department to take action against trusts that violated the Sherman Antitrust Act. He claimed his first victory against the Northern Securities Company, a railroad monopoly that controlled transportation in the Northwest. The Supreme Court ruled that Northern Securities had illegally limited trade and ordered the trust to be taken apart.

Roosevelt continued to target trusts throughout his presidency. Although hailed as a trustbuster, Roosevelt did not want to break up all trusts. He wanted to regulate them, not destroy them.

Roosevelt won the 1904 election on a promise of a “square deal”—fair and equal treatment for all. Presidents back to Thomas Jefferson’s time had followed a policy of **laissez-faire**, or little government interference in business. Roosevelt’s square deal, however, introduced a new
era of government regulation. He supported the Meat Inspection and Pure Food and Drug Acts. These acts allowed officials to visit businesses and inspect their products.

Roosevelt has been called America’s first environmental president. He believed in conservation, the protection and preservation of natural resources. In 1905 he proposed formation of the U.S. Forest Service. He pressured Congress to set aside national forests for wildlife sanctuaries. He formed the National Conservation Commission, which surveyed the country’s natural resources. Roosevelt recognized the need for economic growth and tried to strike a balance between business interests and conservation.

3. What problem did the Seventeenth Amendment address? What change did the Amendment make?
**A Changing Nation**  
*For use with textbook pages 774–783*

**Content Vocabulary**

- **Isthmus**: narrow strip of land that connects two larger land masses (page 776)
- **Discrimination**: unequal treatment because of race, religion, ethnic background, or place of birth (page 778)
- **Ward**: person under the legal guardianship of the government (page 782)
- **Barrio**: a mainly Spanish-speaking neighborhood (page 782)

**Drawing From Experience**

Do you think it is important to treat all people fairly and equally, even those who are not like you? America was founded on the principles of equality and fair treatment. Although the nation has not fully eliminated prejudice, Americans have made progress toward this goal since the late 1800s.

This section describes changes in American foreign policy in the late 1800s and early 1900s. You will also learn about discrimination against minority groups during this time, and the efforts of these groups to gain equal opportunity.

**Organizing Your Thoughts**

Use the diagram below to help you take notes.

Describe George Washington’s approach to foreign policy. Then describe the changes to this approach made by three presidents of the late 1800s and early 1900s.

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American Foreign Policy (pages 775–777)

Main Idea The United States demonstrated its power in areas such as Latin America and the Pacific.

For about 100 years, American foreign policy followed George Washington’s advice to increase trade but avoid political involvement and permanent alliances with other countries. After the Civil War, some American leaders began to push for the United States to acquire new territory to increase American trade and power in the world.

In 1867 Secretary of State William Seward bought Alaska from Russia. It was called “Seward’s Ice Box” until the discovery of gold revealed its value.

In 1898 the United States annexed the Hawaiian Islands. That same year, the United States went to war with Spain to support Cuban rebels fighting for independence. When the Spanish-American war ended, Cuba gained its independence and the United States gained Guam and the Philippines.

Since colonial times, the United States had conducted a thriving trade with Latin America, including the Caribbean. By 1902 Venezuela and the Dominican Republic were deeply in debt to European countries. Theodore Roosevelt feared European powers would step in to protect their financial interests.

Roosevelt responded by asserting that the United States had a right to act as a “policeman” in Latin America. This policy, known as the Roosevelt Corollary, extended the Monroe Doctrine. Up to this point, the Monroe Doctrine only served to prevent European intervention in Latin America. Under the Roosevelt Corollary, the United States claimed the right to intervene in Latin American affairs whenever those nations seemed unstable.

Roosevelt voiced his approach to foreign policy as “Speak softly, but carry a big stick.” He meant that he preferred peace, but would use force if necessary.
For years the United States and other countries had wanted to build a canal across the **isthmus** of Panama. An isthmus is a narrow strip of land that connects two larger land masses—in this case, North and South America. The canal would connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Colombia controlled Panama and rejected the United States offer to buy land for the canal. Determined to gain the canal site, Roosevelt sent marines to help Panamanian rebels gain independence from Colombia. The new government of Panama quickly signed a treaty, granting the United States control of the land. The Panama Canal was completed in 1914.

Roosevelt based his foreign policy on military power. His successor, William Howard Taft, modified this policy by “substituting dollars for bullets.” Taft believed that American investments would bring stability to troubled areas as well as profit and power to the United States. Force was not needed. Taft’s foreign policy was nicknamed “dollar diplomacy.”

President Woodrow Wilson, elected in 1912, wanted to promote democracy and world peace. His policy was called “moral diplomacy.”

In the early 1900s, Mexico was a poor country controlled by a small group of rich landholders. In 1916, Pancho Villa, a rebel leader angered at U.S. support for the Mexican government, shot 16 Americans. Later, Villa crossed into New Mexico and burned the town of Columbus. American troops under General John J. Pershing pursued Villa into Mexico, but failed to catch him.

1. How do you think the Panama Canal helped shipping?
Facing Prejudice at Home (pages 778–780)

Main Idea Many ethnic and religious minorities in America faced discrimination and even violence.

In the 1800s most Americans were white Protestants born in the United States. Nonwhite, non-Protestant, and non-native residents faced discrimination—unequal treatment because of their race, religion, ethnic background, or place of birth.

Many Protestants feared that Catholic immigrants threatened the American way of life. Among its anti-Catholic activities, the American Protective Association spread rumors that Catholics plotted to take over the country.

Many Jewish immigrants left their homelands to escape prejudice, only to find the same attitudes in America. Eastern European Jews faced discrimination both as Jews and as eastern Europeans.

In the West, Americans claimed that Chinese workers who worked for lower wages took away jobs. Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act to keep Chinese immigrants out.


Most African Americans worked as rural sharecroppers or in low-paying jobs in the South. The case Plessy v. Ferguson legalized segregation of African Americans from white society. The Ku Klux Klan, which had terrorized African Americans during Reconstruction, emerged again in 1915. With a goal of restoring white, Protestant America, the Klan targeted minorities—Catholics, Jews, and immigrants, as well as African Americans.

People who lost their jobs during the economic depressions of 1893 and 1907 sometimes aimed their anger at
minorities. More than 2,600 African Americans were lynched.

Many Americans at this time held biased views. They believed that white, male, native-born Americans had the right to make decisions for all of society.

Most progressive reformers came from the middle and upper classes. They wanted to help less-fortunate people. Some of their reforms, however, helped one group at the expense of another. For example, trade unions often excluded minorities. The temperance movement was partly an attempt to control the behavior of Irish Catholics. Still, progressive reforms did improve conditions for many Americans.

2. In the late 1800s, what group did many Americans believe should make decisions for society?

Struggle for Equal Opportunity (pages 780–783)

Minority groups in the United States sought to end discrimination and gain equal rights.

Booker T. Washington believed African Americans should seek economic power before demanding equality and civil rights. He argued that equality would come when African Americans gained the education and skills to become valuable members of their community. Washington founded the National Negro Business League to promote business development among African Americans.

W.E.B. DuBois disagreed. He believed that gaining and using the right to vote was the best way for African Americans to attain equality. DuBois founded the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP).

Some African Americans wanted separate societies. They founded African American towns and a back-to-Africa movement. These goals were not popular.
Native Americans formed the Society of American Indians to seek justice, improve living conditions, and educate white Americans about Native American cultures. Native Americans were considered wards, or persons under the legal guardianship of the U.S. government. As a result, the Fourteenth Amendment did not grant them citizenship. In 1924 Congress reversed this ruling, granting citizenship to all Native Americans.

Facing violence and discrimination, Mexican immigrants formed mutualistas—self defense associations—to raise money for insurance and legal help. In labor camps and Mexican neighborhoods called barrios, mutualistas worked to improve crowded conditions, sanitation, and public services.

In 1962 César Chávez organized Mexican farm workers into the United Farm Workers (UFW) and started a five-year strike against California grape growers to force them to recognize the union. The UFW organized a nationwide boycott of table grapes. In 1965, Chávez launched a boycott of produce not bearing the UFW label. In 1970, the strikers won. Growers negotiated an agreement with the union. In 1975 California passed a law giving farm workers the same rights as other union members.

By 1914, the United States had changed tremendously. Its population had grown and shifted from a rural to a more urban society. The nation had industrialized. People traveled by train, car, and even airplane. Then, as now, Americans remain committed to the principles of individual rights and government by the people, as expressed in the Declaration of Independence.

3. How did Booker T. Washington believe African Americans could gain equality?