

# Introduction

## Making the most of this book

### ● Where this book fits into your GCSE history course

#### The course

The GCSE history course you are following is made up of five different studies. These are shown in the table below. For each type of study you will follow **one** option. We have highlighted the option that this particular book helps you with.

#### OCR SHP GCSE B

<b>Paper 1</b> 1 ¾ hours	<b>British thematic study</b> 20%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The People's Health</li> <li>• Crime and Punishment</li> <li>• Migrants to Britain</li> </ul>
<b>Paper 2</b> 1 hour	<b>British depth study</b> 20%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Norman Conquest</li> <li>• The Elizabethans</li> <li>• Britain in Peace and War</li> </ul>
<b>Paper 3</b> 1 ¾ hours	<b>History around us</b> 20%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Any site that meets the given criteria.</li> </ul>
<b>Paper 3</b> 1 ¾ hours	<b>World period study</b> 20%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Viking Expansion</li> <li>• The Mughal Empire</li> <li>• <b>The Making of America</b></li> </ul>
<b>Paper 3</b> 1 ¾ hours	<b>World depth study</b> 20%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The First Crusade</li> <li>• The Aztecs and the Spanish Conquest</li> <li>• Living under Nazi Rule</li> </ul>

#### The world period study

The world period study focuses on a wider world society and the unfolding story of a particularly interesting period in its history. It explores the relationship between different cultures at a time of great upheaval and considers the experiences and perspectives of different individuals and groups in the past.

As the table shows, you will be examined on your knowledge and understanding of the world period study as part of Paper 3. You can find out more about that on pages 96–103 at the back of the book.

Here is exactly what the specification requires for this world period study.

#### The Making of America, 1789–1900

Sections	Learners should study the following content:
<b>America's expansion, 1789–1838</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How and why the USA expanded, from 1789 to 1838</li> <li>• The expansion of Southern cotton on plantations and of slavery, 1793–1838</li> <li>• The removal of indigenous people from the East, 1830–38</li> </ul>
<b>The West, 1839–60</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The culture of the Plains Indians, including a case study of the Lakota Sioux</li> <li>• The journeys of the early migrants to California and Oregon; the Mormon settlement of Utah</li> <li>• The nature and impact of the Californian gold rush (1848–49) and the consequences of the Pike's Peak gold rush (1858–59)</li> </ul>
<b>Civil War and Reconstruction, 1861–77</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Divisions over slavery and the causes of the Civil War</li> <li>• The African-American experience of the Civil War, 1861–65</li> <li>• Reconstruction and continuing limitations to African-American liberty</li> </ul>
<b>Settlement and conflict on the Plains, 1861–77</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The causes and nature of white American exploitation of the Plains: railroads, ranches and cow towns</li> <li>• Homesteaders: living and farming on the Plains</li> <li>• The Indian Wars including Little Crow's War (1862), Red Cloud's War (1865–68) and the Great Sioux War (1876–77)</li> </ul>
<b>American cultures, 1877–1900</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Changes to the Plains Indians' way of life, including the impact of reservations and the destruction of the buffalo</li> <li>• The impact of economic, social and political change on the lives of African Americans</li> <li>• The growth of big business, cities and mass migration</li> </ul>

#### You need to understand:

- how and why American territory expanded, 1789–1900
- the relationship between this expansion and the cultures of American Indians, African Americans and white Americans.

#### You need to be able to:

- identify, describe and explain events and developments relating to these three cultures and the conflicts between them in these years.

The next two pages show how this book works.

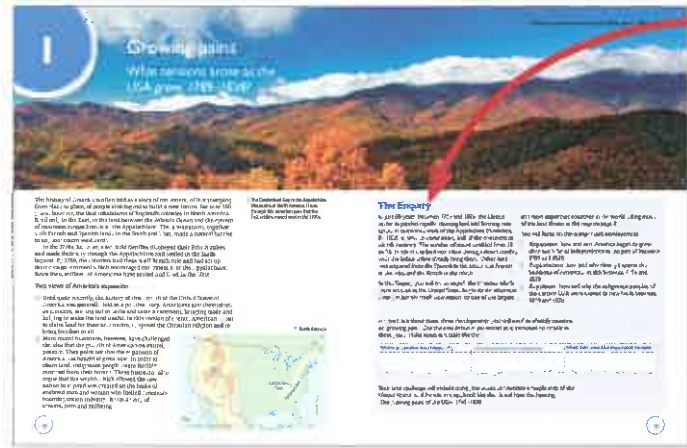
# How this book works

The rest of this book (from pages 8 to 95) is carefully arranged to match what the specification requires. It does this through the following features:

## Enquiries

The book is largely taken up with five 'enquiries'. Each enquiry sets you a challenge in the form of an overarching question.

The first two pages of the enquiry set up the challenge and give you a clear sense of what you will need to do to work out your answer to the main question. You will find the instructions set out in 'The Enquiry' box, on a blue background, as in this example.



## Record tasks

From that point, the enquiry is divided into three sections. These match the bullet points shown in the specification on page 3. You can tell when you are starting a new section as it will start with a large coloured heading like the one shown here. Throughout each section there are 'Record' tasks, where you will be asked to record ideas and information that will help you make up your mind about the overarching enquiry question later on. You can see an example of these 'Record' instructions here. They will always be in blue text with blue lines above and below them.



## Reflect tasks

At regular intervals we will set a 'Reflect' task to prompt you to think carefully about what you are reading. They will look like the example shown here.

These Reflect tasks help you to check that what you are reading is making sense and to see how it connects with what you have already learned. You do not need to write down the ideas that you think of when you 'reflect', but the ideas you get may help you when you reach the next Record instruction.



## Review tasks

Each enquiry ends by asking you to review what you have been learning and use it to answer the overarching question in some way. Sometimes you simply answer that one question. Sometimes you will need to do two or three tasks that each tackle some aspect of the main question. The important point is that you should be able to use the ideas and evidence you have been building up through the enquiry to support your answer.



## Closer looks

Between the enquiries you will find pages that provide a 'closer look' at some aspect of the theme or period you are studying. These will often give you a chance to find out more about the issue you have just been studying in the previous enquiry, although they may sometimes look ahead to the next enquiry.

We may not include any tasks within these 'closer looks' but, as you read them, keep thinking of what they add to your knowledge and understanding. We think they add some intriguing insights.



## One very important final point

We have chosen enquiry questions that should help you get to the really important issues at the heart of each period you study, but you need to remember that the examiners will almost certainly ask you different questions when you take your GCSE. Don't simply rely on the notes you made to answer the enquiry question we gave you. We give you advice on how to tackle the examination and the different sorts of question you will face on pages 96 to 103.

## A new beginning

▼ *First in Peace* – an engraving by John C. McRae, c.1866



### The President

This engraving shows George Washington arriving in New York City on 23 April 1789, ready to take up his position as the first ever President of the United States of America.

As Washington's ceremonial barge is rowed gently to the waterfront, the flags fly and crowds of men, women and children cheer from the land and from ships in the harbour. There is even a canoe in the foreground carrying Indians, the indigenous people of America on whose lands this new nation was being formed. Washington himself stands confidently in the centre of the painting with his hat held high in response to the people's good wishes.

Twenty years before this, George Washington had been living a comfortable life as a slave-holding landowner in Virginia, one of Britain's thirteen American colonies. Like so many of his fellow Americans, Washington resented the heavy-handed rule of the British Parliament that allowed them little

say over their own affairs. In 1775, this resentment reached a crisis and the colonists fought the British for the right to rule themselves.

On 4 July 1776, Washington was one of the American leaders who signed the famous Declaration of Independence. It opens with these words:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal ... [and have] certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.

The American army, led by George Washington, finally forced the British to surrender in 1783. After another six years, here he was arriving to be sworn in as the first ever President of the United States of America.

The artist has shown this as a scene of joy, pride and hope but, as you will see, there were darker currents running through the new nation.

### The nation

Between 1783 and 1789, the most trusted men in the new nation, known as the 'Founding Fathers', worked carefully to decide how the USA should be ruled. They had to try to balance the desire of each state (i.e. former colony) to run its own affairs against the need for all thirteen states to gain strength by joining as one nation. They also knew that this new nation would want and need to grow.

By 1788, the Founding Fathers had agreed on the system of government for the USA. Here are some of its main features:

#### 1. The Constitution

The rules stating how the country should be run were written down in 'the Constitution'. All the states in the USA agreed to follow the rules in the Constitution. In case they had missed anything, the Founding Fathers allowed it to be amended (changed) later.

#### 2. The Congress

This was made up of people elected from each state. It passed laws.

#### 3. The President

The USA did not want a king. Instead there would be a president, elected every four years, who could propose or block laws. The President had to serve the people by looking after matters that affected the whole nation.

#### 4. The Supreme Court

This court heard the nation's most difficult law cases and could decide if new laws fitted with the Constitution.

#### 5. The states

These were areas that were well-populated and had a settled form of government. They had their own government and governor, elected by people living in the state. They could make their own laws as long as they did not go against the Constitution (this was tested by the Supreme Court). State voters could also vote in national elections and send representatives to Congress. This allowed them to shape the laws made for the whole country.

#### 6. The territories

These were areas of land without enough people or stability to become a state. Each territory was ruled by a territorial governor appointed by Congress. People living in a territory could not vote in national elections or send representatives to Congress until Congress and the President agreed to let them enter the Union as a full state.

### The people

#### White Americans

The painting on page 6 is filled with these. They or their forefathers had come to America from Britain or other parts of northern Europe. People could claim to be citizens of the USA if they were free, white and 'of good character'. Voting rights were connected to owning property, but because most white people owned their own land, between 60 and 90 per cent of white males could vote in the USA. Women, non-citizens and slaves in the USA could not vote at all.

#### Indians

The painting shows a few of these. There were many Indian tribes and the Constitution accepted these as nations in their own right. Congress could make treaties with them.

White settlers in the territories often came into conflict with Indians whose lands they tried to farm. Indians could vote, but only if they paid US taxes.

The indigenous people of North America were known as 'Indians', and this term is still used, as is 'Native Americans'.

#### Black Americans

Just one black face appears in the painting, hidden in the top-right corner.

In 1789, the vast majority of the 694,000 African Americans (also called black Americans) lived as slaves in the Southern states. They had no right to vote.

The Founding Fathers considered banning slavery completely in the USA, but left the problem for later generations to solve. It caused enormous conflict in the next century and beyond.

# I Growing pains

## What tensions arose as the USA grew, 1789–1838?

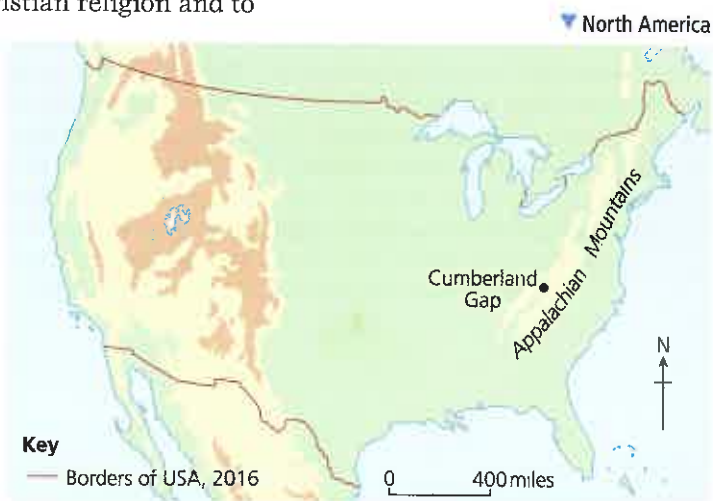
The history of America is often told as a story of movement, of feet tramping from place to place, of people striking out to build a new future. For over 150 years, however, the first inhabitants of England's colonies in North America lived only in the East, in the land between the Atlantic Ocean and the system of mountain ranges known as the Appalachians. These mountains, together with French and Spanish lands in the South and West, made a natural barrier to any movement westwards.

In the 1770s, however, a few bold families disobeyed their British rulers and made their way through the Appalachians and settled in the lands beyond. By 1789, the colonists had thrown off British rule and had set up their own government which encouraged movement over the Appalachians. Since then, millions of Americans have settled and lived in the West.

### Two views of America's expansion

- Until quite recently, the history of this growth of the United States of America was generally told as a positive story. Americans saw themselves as pioneers, moving out to settle and tame a continent, bringing trade and helping to make the land useful. In this version of events, Americans went to claim land for their new nation, to spread the Christian religion and to bring freedom to all.
- More recent historians, however, have challenged the idea that the growth of America was entirely positive. They point out that the expansion of America was bought at great cost. In order to claim land, indigenous peoples were forcibly removed from their homes. These historians also argue that the wealth which allowed the new nation to expand was created on the backs of enslaved men and women who fuelled America's booming cotton industry. It was a story of tension, pain and suffering.

▲ The Cumberland Gap in the Appalachian Mountains of North America. It was through this mountain pass that the first settlers moved west in the 1770s



### The Enquiry

In just 50 years, between 1789 and 1838, the United States expanded rapidly, claiming land and forming new states in territories west of the Appalachian Mountains. By 1838, it grew to cover nearly half of the continent of North America. The number of states doubled from 13 to 26. Much of this land was taken through direct conflict with the Indian tribes already living there. Other land was acquired from the Spanish in the south, the French in the west and the British in the north.

In this Enquiry you will try to unpick the tensions which were created as the United States began its development from a relatively small, new nation, to one of the largest

and most important countries in the world, filling much of the land shown in the map on page 8.

You will focus on three important developments:

- 1 **Expansion:** how and why America began to grow after the War of Independence in the period between 1789 and 1838.
- 2 **Exploitation:** how and why slavery became the backbone of America's wealth between 1793 and 1838.
- 3 **Expulsion:** how and why the indigenous peoples of the eastern USA were moved to new lands between 1830 and 1838.

As you learn about these three developments, you will need to identify tensions or 'growing pains' that the new nation experienced as it increased so rapidly in these years. Make notes in a table like this:

Where expansion was happening	Why expansion was happening	What tensions the expansion reveals

Your final challenge will include using your notes to annotate a simple map of the United States, as if for use in a textbook like this. It will have the heading, 'The growing pains of the USA, 1789–1838'.

## Expansion: Moving into new lands, 1789–1838

As the map below clearly shows, the years between 1789 and 1838 saw enormous changes in North America. In particular, the United States pushed westwards setting up new states as the Union expanded. As you will learn, the growth revealed significant tensions within the new, young nation.

### Record

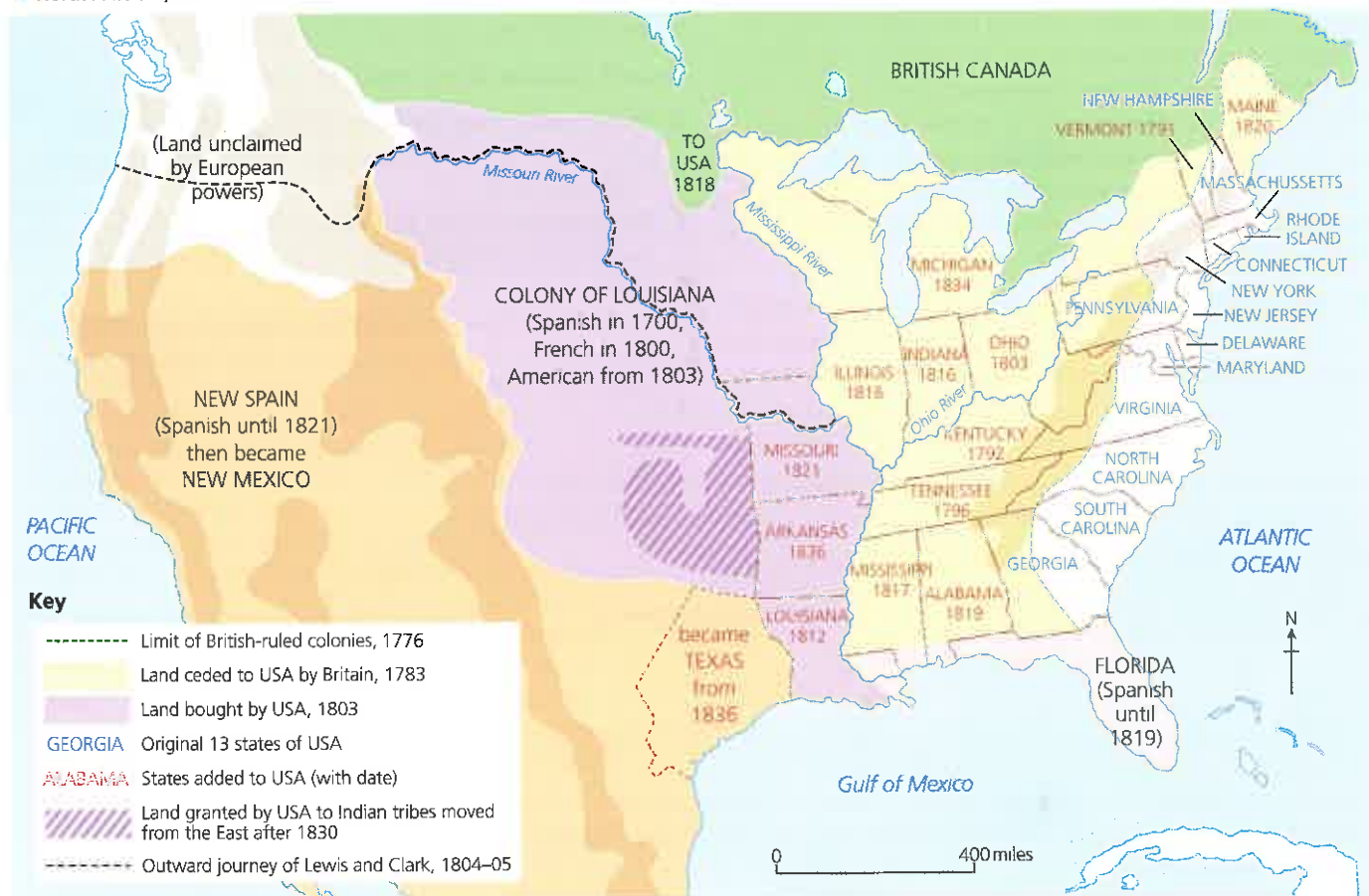
As you read pages 10–13 you should add your first entries to your list of the USA's 'growing pains' (see page 9).

### Reflect

Study the map below.

- 1 Which states were added to the Union (the United States) between 1789 and 1838?
- 2 Do you think growing so far and so fast would make it more or less likely that the nation would experience tensions and 'growing pains'?

North America, 1789–1838



## The Indians of the East

During the American War of Independence, Indian tribes that lived in the lands to the northwest of the original 13 colonies supported the British side. These tribes, such as the Iroquois and Miami, knew that the British had agreed not to expand their American colonies into Indian lands. In 1783, however, the British lost the war and, as part of the peace treaty, they handed over 230 million acres of Indian lands to the newly created United States of America (see the yellow shading on the map on page 10).

As the Indians had not been defeated in the war, they were extremely angry that the British had given their lands away and had effectively placed them under the rule of the new United States Government.

The US Government called the lands to the north of the River Ohio the 'Northwest Territory'. The lands to the south of the Ohio were called the 'Southwest Territory'. In the Southwest Territory, frontiersmen set up farms in Indian-held land west of Virginia and the Carolinas even before the War of Independence. This was one reason why so many Indian tribes supported the British against the Americans.

Once the frontiersmen had set up farms in Indian lands, they demanded that the Government help to defend them against Indian attack. When no help was given, the settlers attacked the Indians themselves, leading to bloody conflicts between the two sides.

### Reflect

What part did the following play in creating tensions in the United States between 1783 and 1795?

- 1 The British
- 2 Early settlers
- 3 George Washington

## Defeat and dispossession

When he became president in 1789, George Washington believed that there was a real possibility that the Indians in the Northwest Territory might attack the United States. He was especially worried that Britain might support an Indian attack, hoping to win American lands back for the British Crown.

From 1791, Washington put 80 per cent of his government budget into a huge campaign against the Indians. In 1794, the Indians were defeated at the Battle of Fallen Timbers and a year later their leaders agreed to the Treaty of Greenville. This allowed the USA to take vast areas of the Northwest Territory under its control and even more settlers moved there. Eventually, the different areas of land became full states and joined the Union. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Michigan were all formed out of the northwestern lands between 1803 and 1837. In the Southwest Territory, the new states of Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi and Alabama were added by 1819.

As the USA spread, the Indians who had occupied this land moved further west into regions that were often already inhabited by other Indian tribes. This created conflict between the Indians.

A painting of the Treaty of Greenville, 1795. The artist was probably one of the American army officers present at the time. It gives an impression of the fine land that was being passed to the white settlers by the Indians





▲ An engraving of a settler's small farm and cabin in Ohio, from a travel book published in 1826. The French author, Georges Collot, wrote the book about his journey along the Ohio River in 1796

### Land and democracy

The United States was one of the world's first democratic countries. Thomas Jefferson, the third President of the USA (1801–09), believed that the ideal democratic American was a 'yeoman farmer' who owned his own piece of land and could provide for himself. He argued that such people would make more sensible democratic decisions than those who had no property or land and who had nothing to lose by voting for extreme ideas.

It was Jefferson who, before he was president, helped to set up the Northwest and Southwest Territories. He also created systems to divide and sell this land as quickly as possible. The territories were divided up into a neat grid of six-mile squares. Each of these was then divided into 36 sections of 640 acres each. Each acre was to be sold for \$1–2, but the Government would only sell whole sections of 640 acres at a time. Most farming families barely made \$100 a year so few small farmers could therefore scrape together the \$640 payment to buy a section of land.

Nevertheless, thousands of white Americans were inspired by the promise that they could own their own piece of land. In the Northwest Territory, many became 'squatters', people who simply settled the land without paying, hoping that they would raise the funds by the time the bailiff came knocking.

### Reflect

- 1 What is meant by the term 'yeoman farmer'?
- 2 Why did Jefferson think land was so important to democracy?
- 3 Do you think the US Government would approve of squatters?

▼ Thomas Jefferson, painted by Rembrandt Peale, 1800



### Land and profit

Farmers were not the only people interested in land. Land speculators made big profits by buying up large amounts of cheap land from the Government and selling it on to small farmers who could not afford to buy a full 640 acres at a time, or who did not want to risk squatting without permission. The Government even offered a 10 per cent discount to those who bought land in cash. This played into the hands of the wealthy speculators.

In Wisconsin, the territory to the north of Illinois, half a million acres was bought up by just 68 men. This caused a lot of anger among the farmers who had begun to farm the land, hoping they could buy it later. In many cases, farmers literally had the land bought from under them. They were then given a simple choice: pay a large sum to the new landowner or leave the farm and go back east. In some cases, small farmers clubbed together to buy land before the speculators could get in. Most of the time, they did not succeed.

### Reflect

Why do you think so many farmers were angry at the land speculators?

### Land and trade

In 1789, the USA relied almost entirely on being able to trade across the Atlantic, but the new nation was keen to become a major player in the world economy by becoming a Pacific trader as well. In order to do this, President Jefferson was keen to open new land routes across the continent.

In 1803, Jefferson had a remarkable stroke of good fortune during his negotiations to buy the important port of New Orleans from the French. While they were discussing the deal, the French negotiator made the Americans an offer they could not refuse: they would sell the whole of the French territory of Louisiana for just \$15 million (see the purple shading on the map on page 10). This enormous purchase at a tiny price added 530 million acres of land to the USA.

### Lewis and Clark

Once the land was purchased, President Jefferson ordered his government to find opportunities for trade to the West. Merriweather Lewis and William Clark were given the task of exploring the new lands. They set out in May 1804, following the Missouri River into the Rocky Mountains and making their way overland through unclaimed territory to the Pacific coast (see the map on page 10).

On their journey, Lewis and Clark travelled through areas occupied by many different groups of Indians. For the most part, they got on well with the natives and a Shoshone woman called Sacagawea acted as their guide. However, some violence did occur and misunderstandings with the Sioux chief, Black Buffalo, nearly led to a small war.

Although Lewis and Clark failed to find a river route to the Pacific, their exploration led to an explosion in the fur trade. The fur traders used the routes and maps created by Lewis and Clark to help them hunt beaver furs for sale to Europe. This encouraged other traders to head westwards into the new lands, especially the mountains. The trade with the Indians grew rapidly and with remarkably few problems until around 1840.



▲ A painting made in 1939 of Lewis, Clark and Sacagawea during their 1804 expedition

### Record

Check that your list of the USA's 'growing pains' (see page 9) has as many good examples as possible from pages 10–13.

**Record**

As you read pages 14–19 you should continue adding entries to your table about the USA's 'growing pains' (see page 9).

**Exploitation: Cotton plantations and slavery, 1793–1838**

Not everyone who moved west after 1789 had a say in the matter. This engraving shows a coffle (chained group) of enslaved African Americans, both men and women, being marched westwards by slave traders into the state of Kentucky in the 1820s. The years between 1793 and 1838 saw an enormous expansion of slavery across the United States. As the nation grew, so did the suffering and so did the divisions.



▲ A slave coffle being taken to Kentucky c.1820, from a book published in 1836

**Divisions over slavery**

By 1789, slavery was being phased out in the seven northernmost states of the USA. However, it continued to thrive in the southern states of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia. It became common to talk about the nation in two halves: 'the North' and 'the South'. Over the years the resentment between the two sides grew as their differences deepened.

**Economic differences**

The nature of the land and the type of work in the North did not lend itself to keeping a workforce of enslaved people. This, rather than any moral argument, explains why slavery died out in the North. The South was different. Most of its wealth came from growing crops such as tobacco, rice and – above all – cotton. Ever since the seventeenth century it had become common for the work on these plantations, large or small, to be done by black people of African origin, held as slaves, the human property of the landowner.

Many in the North had little real sympathy for slaves but Northern businessmen believed that slave holders could make profits much more easily as they did not have to pay their workers or give them any rights. Northern workers might go on strike if they didn't feel they were being paid enough. This seemed to give the South an unfair advantage in trade.

**Religious differences**

A few Christian groups such as the Quakers and Methodists, particularly in the North, spoke out against slavery. Their numbers and influence grew after a great religious revival began around 1790. They said that God had made all men to be free. However, other religious groups, mainly in the South, actually preached that God had made black people to serve white people. Slavery was even dividing people's understanding of their Christian faith.

**Political differences**

Slavery had proved to be a real problem when the Constitution was drawn up in 1787. Every state in the new USA had the right to elect Senators and Representatives to Congress, and to vote in presidential elections. Some states had greater voting power than others depending on the size of their population. The higher the population, the greater the chance the state could influence the politics of the country.

Enslaved people could not vote at all, but if they were to be counted as part of its population, a state with a large number of slaves could gain a lot of influence despite having relatively few white voters.

The men who drew up the Constitution feared that removing slavery altogether would ruin many Southern slave holders. They worried that this might lead the South to rebel against the new country and go its separate way. They reached a compromise and agreed that slaves should count as three-fifths of a person in the population count. Many in the North were unhappy that the Government was giving in to the demands of a few powerful Southern slave holders. Resentment grew.

**New opportunities in the new territories**

In 1788, Jefferson and his colleagues faced another big decision about slavery: should it be allowed to spread freely into the new lands that the USA had gained from Britain in 1783?

- Some in the North wanted the US Government to ban slavery completely. Others simply wanted to restrict slavery to states where it already existed. They believed it would die out as America grew.
- Southerners insisted that slavery must be allowed to spread into all new American lands. The Constitution said that the Government must not take any person's property unless they had broken the law. As slaves were the property of their holders, Southerners argued that the US Government could not legally end slavery.

The result was another compromise: slavery would be banned in the Northwest Territory but permitted in the Southwest Territory.

Straight away, new cotton plantations were opened in the 'Deep South', the lands to the west of Georgia and the Carolinas. This stimulated the sale of slaves which, by the mid-1790s, was just as big as the sale of cotton. Slave traders bought slaves in the old states of Maryland, North Carolina, Delaware and Virginia, then force-marched them for months for sale to plantation owners in the Deep South. When they arrived, slaves would be deloused and fed butter. Once they regained their weight they were sold for an enormous profit (often over \$1000 a slave). So much money could be made that people even began to kidnap free black people in the Northern states to sell into slavery.

**Reflect**

In what different ways was slavery dividing the USA by 1800?

▼ The new territories open for American settlement by 1790



**Reflect**

Almost everyone in the South insisted that they must be allowed to keep using slaves. What different reasons might they have given for this?

## The growth of slavery, 1793–1820

Thomas Jefferson hoped that slavery would ultimately die out, but he feared what would happen if the North tried to abolish it. He once said that ‘we have the wolf by the ears, and we can neither hold him, nor safely let him go’. Far from weakening, this ‘wolf’ grew more vigorous than ever in the early years of the nineteenth century.

### The ‘cotton gin’

One reason for the rapid increase in slavery is shown in the engraving below. Around the edges you can see the cotton plant and some of the different stages it went through on the plantation. At the centre, the plantation owner and a customer inspect its quality. Behind them raw cotton is being tipped into a remarkable new machine that greatly increased the speed and quality of cotton production. This was the cotton gin (or engine) invented by Eli Whitney in 1793.

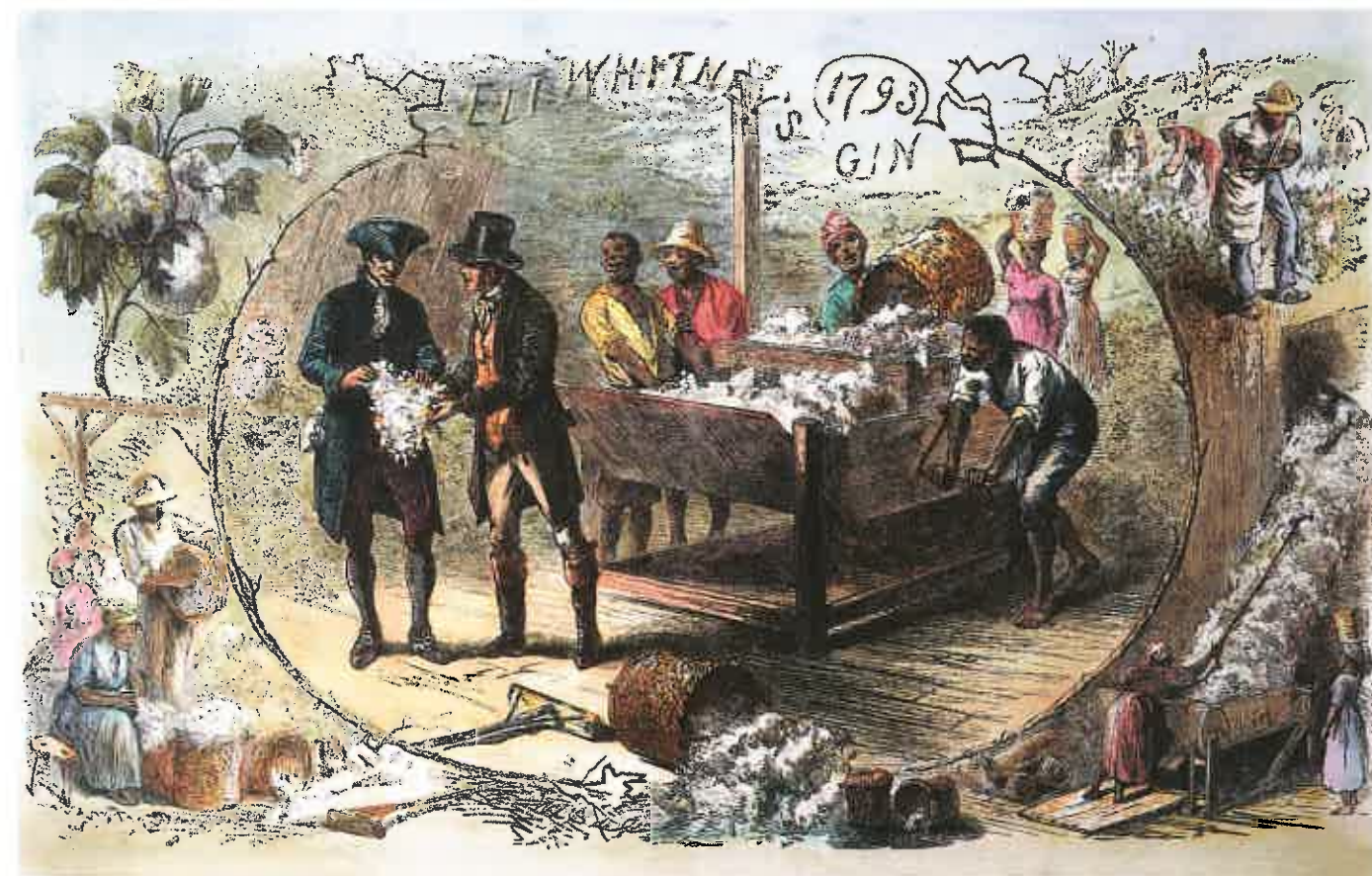
Before this date, preparing raw cotton for sale took a lot of time and work. Cotton fibres had to be separated from the cotton seeds by hand. The gin helped separate the cotton quickly. The invention sped up the cleaning of cotton by around 50 times. Planters could now process cotton as fast as they picked it. It

also allowed cotton planters to grow a more seed-filled variety of cotton, which was better able to survive the heat of the Deep South. This meant that cotton could be grown in places where it would have previously failed.

Banks, including many in the Northern states and from as far away as Britain, speeded up the expansion of new cotton fields and of slavery by loaning thousands of dollars to the new plantation owners. The bottleneck in the process was how fast cotton could be picked. The owners developed the ‘pushing system’, using more slaves and forcing them to work more quickly. The cotton gin depended on human sweat and toil. Anyone hoping to see slavery die away would be deeply upset.

### Reflect

What do you think Jefferson meant when he said about slavery, ‘we have the wolf by the ears’?



▲ An engraving showing the value of Eli Whitney's cotton gin, late eighteenth century

## The Louisiana Purchase and the ‘Cotton Kingdom’

As you learned on page 13, the USA purchased the vast Louisiana colony from France in 1803. Along with the cotton gin, this boosted the spread of plantations and slavery. Americans quickly moved into the area around the mouth of the great Mississippi River and, in 1812, the new state of Louisiana joined the USA. (It used the same name as the former French colony, but occupied only a small part of it.)

By 1819, land to the west of the river had been added to Louisiana and two more states, Alabama and Mississippi, had been formed. These three new states in the Deep South, together with the older ones of Georgia and the two Carolinas, became the heart of what some called the ‘Cotton Kingdom’.

At the centre of the Cotton Kingdom of the Deep South was New Orleans, the bustling, riotous hub of the trade in cotton and people. The city tripled in size between 1803 and 1819, becoming the fourth largest in the United States. Bales of cotton were moved from the plantations along canals or by some of the USA's first railways and were shipped down the Mississippi River by steam boat. They were loaded onto sailing ships at the docks in New Orleans and were taken to the North or across the Atlantic Ocean to Britain where the raw cotton was woven into cloth. As early as 1820, cotton made up 42 per cent of all US exports.

Meanwhile, in the city's dingy auction houses, slaves were bought and sold before being taken up the river to work on the plantations of the rapidly growing Cotton Kingdom. There was a ready supply of new slaves from the natural growth in the black enslaved population. Children were taken from their parents and sold to serve new masters. The slaves who produced the cotton seemed to be the only ones who did not benefit from the trade.

## The ‘Missouri Compromise’, 1820

In 1819, a battle began over whether states created from the territory of the Louisiana Purchase would allow slavery. Both the North and the South were concerned that if there were more slave states than free, or the other way around, one side of the slavery issue would be able to control the Government through its increased votes.

In 1820, the ‘Missouri Compromise’ was created to solve the problem.

- Slavery was to be allowed in the land that became the new state of Missouri in 1821 and in the area south of its border as far as Spanish territory.
- Any new states that might be created to the north and west of that line would not allow slavery.
- To balance the new slave state of Missouri, the free state of Maine joined the USA in 1820.

After this point, new states were generally added to the USA in pairs, one slave and one free. This helped keep the balance of power in the Government, at least for the time being. But slavery was continuing to expand.



▲ New Orleans in 1834, showing steam boats bringing cotton and sailing ships taking it away

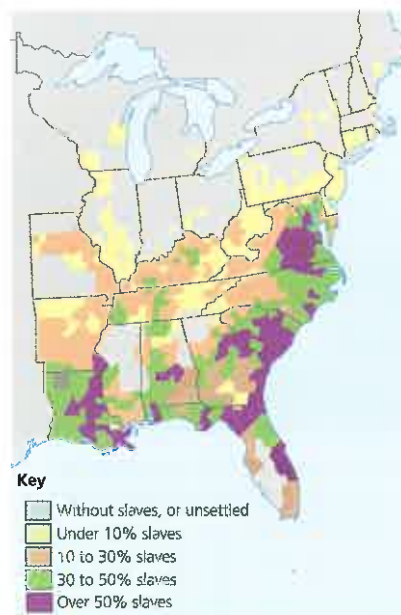
### Reflect

- 1 Why was slavery growing so quickly in the USA by 1820?
- 2 How does the Deep South's nickname of ‘Cotton Kingdom’ reveal a tension within the USA?

▼ The ‘Missouri Compromise’ of 1820



Map showing the number of slaves in the USA and where they lived by 1830. The division between the North and the South is clear



## Troubles grow

Despite political agreements such as the 'Missouri Compromise' of 1820, slavery was creating more strains than ever in American society. And the divisions it caused became increasingly complicated.

### Growing fears about slavery

The growth of slavery in the Deep South caused Southern whites to worry more about the risks that came with it. In 1803, there had been a successful slave revolt on the French-owned Caribbean island of St Dominique. In January 1811, inspired by that revolt, a New Orleans slave named Charles Deslondes organised a revolt in the Deep South. The rebel slaves marched through plantations, attacking whites and encouraging others to join them. Within two days, the local armed forces had pinned the slaves down and the rebels were either arrested or killed. Deslondes' hands were cut off; he was shot and set alight. Twenty-five other rebels were killed; their heads placed on sticks along the riverbank as a warning to others.

To opponents of slavery in the North, this revolt proved that slavery was outdated and that it relied on violence to keep workers under control, rather than paying fair wages. They pointed out that where slavery was still being used in the British Caribbean islands for example, the cost of keeping slaves under control was more than the profits being made. But most Northerners also shared the South's fear of rebellion and they were anxious about what might happen to the USA if millions of freed slaves won the right to vote.

### Growing opposition to slavery – the 'abolitionists'

Those who worked to abolish (end) slavery altogether were known as 'abolitionists'. Their number grew in the first half of the nineteenth century, but even among the abolitionists there were serious differences.

- **Most abolitionists believed slavery was simply wrong** and must be ended peacefully.
- **Some abolitionists had no deep objection to slavery but simply disliked the interference of Southerners.** A federal (nation-wide) law of 1793 said that any black American in the North could be sent to the South if a judge agreed that the person was a runaway slave. Most Northern states then passed their own local laws saying that a full jury, not just a judge, should decide if the person truly was a runaway. Southern slave holders complained bitterly. Some Northerners became abolitionists just because they were angry with the South for trying to interfere with Northern state laws.
- **Some abolitionists wanted to free the slaves and then send all black Americans to Africa.** Many Americans feared what might happen to the USA if too many slaves were set free or if they simply rose up in rebellion. In 1817, some Northerners set up a Colonization Society. This aimed to send freed slaves to a new home far away in Africa, even though the vast majority had lived their whole life in America. Although many in the Colonization Society were abolitionists, they believed that these black people did not belong in American society. Slavery was revealing what we now call racist attitudes.
- **Some abolitionists wanted to stir up violent slave revolts in the South.** In 1829, a black abolitionist, David Walker, published a pamphlet that called for slaves to rise up against those who tried to enslave them. Walker's essays began turning up on Southern plantations in early 1830 and anyone found with a copy was put to death. Actions like this made other Northerners who objected to slavery view these abolitionists as dangerous extremists.

## Reflect

Do you think it is fair to say that the North was united in its opposition to slavery?

### Growing dependency on slavery

Owners of large cotton, tobacco or rice plantations in the South depended on slave labour for the huge profits they made. But not all Southerners benefited equally from the slave economy. Only 25 per cent of them owned slaves, and only a tiny proportion of these owned more than twenty (the figure at which a farm was considered a plantation). Even these small-scale slave holders came to depend on their slaves.

Other Southerners depended on slavery for their living without being plantation owners. These included the slave traders shown on page 14 and businessmen who set up the auction houses where slaves were bought and sold. The children of slaves were automatically slaves themselves and they were often separated from their parents and sold. Records show that between 1815 and 1820, 2646 children under thirteen were sold in New Orleans alone; 1001 of these without any family at all. Their average age was just nine years old.

The North, too, did well out of slavery and was entangled in its web.

- Cotton and other goods produced by slaves helped to make Northern factories and other businesses profitable.
- Land speculators, often from the North, bought land in the new territories in the hope of making big profits. Most made a profit by selling the land on to wealthy, white investors. These investors would then employ people to run their plantations for them so the landowners often never even went to the Deep South. It was very easy for them not to think about how slaves were treated. The more money they invested, the more slave holders searched for new land for their plantations and their slaves. The years 1829–37, in particular, saw wild investment as slavery spread faster than ever before.

As more and more people depended on slavery for their wealth, it became less and less likely that it would simply die away as Jefferson had once wished.

### Growing power from slavery

As the South grew, so did its strength in US politics. Between 1829 and 1837 the President was a Southerner, Andrew Jackson. He openly supported slavery and used his power as president to allow banks to lend larger sums to cotton investors and even ordinary people, opening the cotton business up to even more Americans in the North and the South. In the next section you will learn how Andrew Jackson also used his power to strengthen slavery by taking land from indigenous American tribes.

The issue of slavery was putting the USA under more and more strain as the years went by.



▲ A slave auction in New Orleans, 1831

## Record

Check that your list of the USA's 'growing pains' (see page 9) has as many good examples as possible from pages 14–19.

**Record**

As you read pages 20–23 you should continue adding entries to your table about the USA's 'growing pains' (see page 9).

▲ A map showing Indian tribes and nations of North America c.1829, before the removal of the Indians from the East

**Expulsion: Removing the Indians from the East, 1830–38**

This map shows some of the different indigenous nations or tribes that once lived across most of the land that now forms the United States of America. Ever since the first arrival of white Europeans, the number and way of life of these tribes had been threatened. By 1800, however, Indian tribes that lived inside the United States were treated as miniature, independent countries. The events of 1830–38 forever changed this view of Indian nations and set a pattern for American–Indian relations for the next 60 years.



**Indian responses to settlement, 1789–1829**

On page 11 you learned how, in 1783, the British granted the lands to the west of the Appalachian Mountains to the newly formed United States and how settlers quickly moved into these lands.

From 1787, the USA opened the Northwest Territory to settlement. This covered the land that later became the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Michigan (see the map on page 10). Many of the tribes that lived there responded by moving further west, out of the reach of the US Government and the settlers. For Indians in the southeast however, this was not an option as they were already hemmed in by the sea to the east and by growing white settlement to the west.

When the Southwest Territory was opened to settlement in 1790, cotton speculators and slavers swarmed into the lands that became Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama and Louisiana (see the map on page 10).

These planters were constantly challenged by Indian groups who lived on the land. The Creeks and Seminoles both waged war on the settlers to prevent themselves from being overrun. In 1814, this ended badly for the Creeks, who were forced to sign over 23 million acres of land after they were defeated by an army led by a Tennessee slave holder, Andrew Jackson. In years to come he was to cause the tribes of the southeast even more problems.

**The 'Five Civilised Tribes'**

By the late 1820s, many southeastern Indian peoples had accepted that they would need to adapt their lives to fit into the USA. Some white Americans tried hard to help them. This painting (right) shows one of these, Benjamin Hawkins, a plantation owner, slave holder and politician. He learned the language and culture of the Creek Indians and worked to keep the peace between the Creeks and white settlers.



The Cherokee Indians went further than most others in adapting to white culture. They modelled their economy and government on the US system, and built themselves a capital city, Echota, just like Washington. A man named Sequoyah even created an alphabet, so that the Cherokee language could be written down.

Soon more Cherokees were able to read than the neighbouring whites. This led to the creation of the Cherokee's first newspaper, the *Cherokee Phoenix*. The paper's editor Elias Boudinot wrote in 1826 that he could see the Cherokee 'rising from the ashes and taking their seat with the nations of the earth'.

The Cherokee and Creeks were not the only Indian peoples to adopt American ways. The Choctaws, Chickasaws and Seminoles also opened schools and churches, and traded in the national economy. Some even owned slaves. Despite their efforts, the adoption of white culture by these 'Five Civilised Tribes' (as they became known) did not save their homelands.

▲ Benjamin Hawkins and Creek Indians, painted in 1805. He is teaching the Indians how to use a plough

**Reflect**  
Find the 'Five Civilised Tribes' on the map on page 20.

**The Indian Removal Act, 1830**

By 1830, Andrew Jackson had become President of the United States. He was unimpressed by the 'civilisation' of the Indian tribes and was convinced that cotton planters should be allowed to take over the lands on which they lived. He set his mind to end the 'Indian problem' in the East once and for all.

In 1830, Jackson persuaded Congress to pass the Indian Removal Act. This declared that the lands shown on the map on page 10 would be set aside for Indians from the East. The Act was supposed to be voluntary, however it made it clear that, in any disputes over landownership in the southeast, the Government would support the demands of white settlers, rather than Indian tribes. The Choctaws, Chickasaws and Creeks were quickly pressured into signing and began moving westwards across the Mississippi River to the newly declared Indian Territory.

**An extract from the Indian Removal Act, 1830.**

Be it enacted that territory belonging to the United States west of the Mississippi be divided for the reception of such tribes or nations of Indians as may choose to exchange the lands where they now reside, and remove there ... [And that] ... the United States will forever secure and guarantee the country so exchanged with them.



▼ President Andrew Jackson

## Indian resistance, 1830–38

The Cherokees, however, were determined not to lose their homelands. In 1831 and 1832, the Cherokee nation took the state of Georgia to the Supreme Court, the highest court in the country. They accused Georgia of ignoring their rights as an independent nation. Judge Marshall ruled in favour of the Cherokee, recognising that they were 'a distinct political society'. However, Marshall also ruled that the Cherokee were dependent on the US Government for protection and therefore the US Government had a right to act in the Indians' best interests. This set a new standard for how Indian nations would be dealt with. From now on they would be treated like children: independent in some ways, but having to follow the instructions of the president and government, too.

President Jackson was furious at Marshall's main decision. He told the State Government of Georgia to continue the settlement of the Cherokee lands and to ignore the Supreme Court.

### Seminole wars

After the Indian Removal Act was passed, a small group of leading Seminoles signed a treaty and were taken to Indian Territory. However, because the Seminoles did not recognise one chief over all others, many local chiefs said the treaty did not apply to them. The rejection of the treaty led to war. The Second Seminole War (Jackson had fought a first against them in 1816) lasted from 1835 to 1842 and cost the USA \$40–60 million, ten times the estimated cost for removal. African Americans who had escaped from slavery joined forces with the Seminole Indians to fight against the whites.



◀ An 1835 attack by Seminole Indians on an American fort. Painted by George Catlin, c.1845

### Reflect

From what you have read on this page, what different types of resistance did the Cherokee, Seminole and Creek use?

Finally, the USA admitted defeat and offered the Seminole War chief, Osceola, safe passage to a peace negotiation. When he agreed, the army captured Osceola and threw him in prison, where he later died.

After this, most of the remaining Seminoles were pushed into moving west. However, it took a third war, fought between 1855 and 1858, for the USA to remove the last of the Seminoles across the Mississippi. By the end of the war, the Seminole population in Florida was reduced to around 200. Finally, the United States paid the remaining Seminoles to move west.

### Creek revenge

The Creeks signed a treaty in March 1832 in which they gave over a large portion of their Alabama land to white settlement. In return, each Creek was promised an individual piece of land in the remaining Creek area. Land speculators took the opportunity to gain large chunks of Creek territory. They offered tiny sums of money to buy individual Creek lands, then took the surrounding areas without permission. There was also a problem of Americans simply coming and squatting on Creek land. The Creeks complained, but the Alabama Government refused to stop the settlers.

The situation worsened until, in 1835, the Creeks began stealing livestock and crops from white settlers. Some eventually committed arson and murder in revenge for their brutal treatment. Alabama called for the assistance of the US Government and, in 1836, the Secretary of War ordered the removal of all remaining Creeks. By 1837, approximately 15,000 had moved west.

## Cherokee tears



The Trail of Tears, painted by Robert Lindneux in 1942

In 1835, *Cherokee Phoenix* editor, Elias Boudinot, and a number of other key Cherokee signed a treaty with the US Government. They and a small group of treaty supporters headed west to Indian Territory. However, 15,000 Cherokee, nearly the whole population, signed a petition to Congress, rejecting the treaty as a fraud.

In the spring of 1838, 7000 US army troops arrived and forced some 18,000 Cherokee into concentration camps, in terrible conditions. When winter came, they began a three-month forced march cross-country to Indian Territory. Historians have estimated that

somewhere between 4000 and 5000 Cherokee died of cold, hunger and disease on the death march. The journey became known as the 'Trail on Which We Cried' or the 'Trail of Tears'. Boudinot and other treaty Cherokee were later murdered by their own people.

By 1838, the Jackson Government had forcibly removed over 46,000 Indians from their lands, and had made treaties with a similar number. This opened up an extra 25 million acres east of the Mississippi to white settlement and to slavery.

### Reflect

How does Robert Lindneux capture the mood of the Trail of Tears in his painting (see above)?

### Record

Check that your list of the USA's 'growing pains' (see page 9) has as many good examples as possible from pages 20–23.

### Review

1. Make your own very simple outline version of the map on page 10. Include only those features that you think are most important in telling the story of the USA's 'growing pains' in the years between 1789 and 1838
2. Around the map, write brief notes about some of the most significant tensions that the new nation experienced in those years and what caused them. Draw lines to link these notes with relevant places on the map.
3. Underneath your map, write a paragraph to explain what you think was the single most important cause of the USA's 'growing pains', 1789–1838.

## Slavery – hands, fingers and blood

In 2014, the American historian Edward E. Baptist published his book *The Half Has Never Been Told*. He had spent years researching the lives of thousands of the USA's enslaved people so that he could tell their largely untold story to his twenty-first-century readers and show how important their work was in shaping the wider history of the USA.

Baptist decided to help his readers in two ways.

- 1 He would often tell the story of enslaved people's lives almost as if they were characters in a novel, but making sure he based everything on the mass of evidence he had studied.
- 2 He would organise each chapter around a different part of the human body that would reflect aspects of slave life. The first chapter, for example, is called 'Feet'. In it, Baptist tells the story of how Africans were brought to America and how slaves were sold and moved from place to place like farm animals.

This 'closer look' introduces you to some of the slaves in Baptist's book. Just as he does, it uses the human body to give a focus for each one.

### Hands: Slave auctions

The first experience of most slaves brought to the Deep South would have been their sale at an auction house. Here slaves were talked about, not as people, but as hands – disembodied tools for the production of cotton.

Rachel arrived in New Orleans in January 1819. After a long spell locked aboard a trading ship, she was taken to Maspero's Coffee House. This was no Costa or Starbucks, it was like a dark prison, filled with fumes from whisky and tobacco. Here Rachel and many others were sold.

First, she was examined by prospective buyers: her legs, her arms, teeth and gums. Women were

often forced to strip naked, their bodies examined to see if they might bear children. Questions were asked: 'What sort of work can you do? Have you ever run away?' Disobedient slaves were worth less to masters seeking to turn a profit.

In January 1819, a healthy eighteen-year-old male might reach \$900–\$1100 at auction (around \$17,000–\$21,000 in today's money). Rachel was sold for \$800 to a man named William Fitz. The auctioneer's hammer brought an end to her old life and signalled her transition to being little more than a pair of hands.

▼ Slaves in a cotton field, c.1860

### Fingers: A new type of slavery

Charles Ball spent his youth on a plantation in Maryland working under the 'task system'. Each slave was set a number of tasks to complete each day. Once the tasks were complete, the slaves could use their spare time to tend their own crops, go to church or relax. This all changed when Ball was sold and marched to a new plantation in Georgia, in the Deep South.

Here the 'pushing system' was being developed. The invention of the cotton gin allowed planters to process as much cotton as could be picked (harvested). The pushing system drove the pace of picking by putting the fastest pickers at the head of a line of slaves to set the pace. The overseer could then target the heads of the lines rather than having to monitor each slave.

Ball and other cotton slaves worked from before dawn until after sundown, first planting, then weeding, and finally picking. Slaves had to train their fingers to work faster and faster to meet the demands. On his first day of picking, Ball harvested 17 kilograms of cotton, weighed by the overseer at the end of the day. This set his minimum. Should Ball ever pick less than his 17 kilograms he would be brutally punished. The photograph shows the damage that whipping could do.

Slaves did not simply accept their lot, although there was little they could do against the violence they faced. Some dared to work slowly, broke tools or hid rocks in the cotton baskets to add weight. In extreme cases, slaves rose in open rebellion. In 1828, the black preacher Nat Turner managed to raise a rebel army and kill 60 white Americans before troops stopped him. Turner was brutally executed along with scores of others.

Between 1805 and 1860, the amount of cotton picked per person in the Deep South increased sixfold. No new technology helped with this. It was the result of the 'pushing system', supported by punishments and torture that drove the rates higher and higher.



▲ A Louisiana cotton plantation slave who had been whipped by his owner, Captain John Lyon. Photographed c.1860

### Blood: Building new lives

Joe Kilpatrick was stolen away from his wife and daughters, Lettice and Nelly, in the 1830s. Like Charles Ball, he was sold to work on a different plantation in the Deep South where he had no family or friends. In these circumstances, enslaved people had to take a long view. They tried to build new ties and form new family connections on the plantations.

On his new plantation Joe adopted an orphaned five-year-old named George. Together they made a new family as if they were blood relatives. It is impossible to know what stories Joe might have told the young George in his cabin. However, when George had children of his own, years later, he named them Lettice and Nelly after the half-sisters he never knew. In this way, in some sense at least, Joe's blood lived on in a new family.



▲ A slave family, c.1860. It is impossible to know if these were all blood relatives

## Visions

### How did different groups see the American West, 1839–60?



▲ *Storm: Waiting for the Caravan*, by Alfred Jacob Miller, 1858

The 2 million square miles of land between the Mississippi River and the west coast of America is an extraordinary landscape. It is a region of endless plains of grasslands, mighty rivers, baking deserts, towering mountains and deep ravines. White Americans referred to it simply as 'the West'. For thousands of years the West had been the home of many different tribes of Native Americans, each with their own language and culture.

In the 1820s white Americans began to travel west across the Plains and into the Rocky Mountains. These people were fur trappers known as mountain men. Hats made from beaver and other animal furs were fashionable in Europe and in America's eastern cities. The mountain men hoped to make a fortune by trapping animals for their valuable fur.

During the 1830s, the American Fur Company established an annual rendez-vous in the Rocky Mountains. Hundreds of mountain men would arrive with their pack-mules loaded with furs.

At the rendez-vous, the mountain men exchanged furs for money and bought rifles, traps, knives, coffee and whisky, which the merchants of the American Fur Company brought in a long caravan of wagons from the East.

In 1837, the American artist Alfred Jacob Miller travelled with an American Fur Company caravan to a rendez-vous in the Rocky Mountains. He rode on horseback for more than a thousand miles, sketching and painting whenever he could. The painting on this page shows the caravan as it made its way through the Rocky Mountains in a rainstorm.

As you can see in Miller's painting, Native Americans guided the caravan through the mountains. As many as 2000 Indians would also attend the rendez-vous where they traded furs and buffalo hides for guns, knives, axes and whisky. Native American women were eager to buy the metal pots, kettles and jewellery brought by the American Fur Company merchants.

In the period 1820–40, the relationship between Indians and mountain men in the West was mostly positive and peaceful. There were plenty of animals to trap and both groups took advantage of the trade. From 1840, this changed. Trading posts, protected by forts, brought an end to the rendez-vous. In the period after 1840, new groups would move to the West:

- Migrants would travel over the Plains and through the Rocky Mountains and begin to settle in Oregon and California on the Pacific coast.
- People escaping religious persecution would settle in the desert at Salt Lake.
- Gold would be discovered in the Rocky Mountains, bringing thousands of people to seek their fortunes in the West.

From 1840, white Americans wanted the land of the West as well as its animals. The competing visions of the West held by white Americans and Native Americans would eventually lead to conflict and war.

▼ A map of America showing the main Indian tribes, c.1840



### The Enquiry

In this Enquiry you will find out about the lives of four groups of people and their competing vision of the American West in the period 1839–60:

1. **The Plains Indians** who inhabited the vast grasslands of the American West
2. **The early migrants** who travelled across the Plains and the Rocky Mountains to begin new lives in Oregon and California

3. **The Mormons** who built a city in the desert at Salt Lake
4. **The gold miners** who hoped to make a fortune by digging for gold in the Rocky Mountains after 1849.

These groups had contrasting lives and saw the West in different ways. As you find out about each group, you should make a 'summary chart' to describe their experiences and their vision of the West.

## The Plains Indians

The early travellers who headed west saw the Great Plains as a desert. It was a landscape of few trees, little water and vast grasslands grazed by huge herds of buffalo. By the 1830s, horses (first brought to America by the Spanish in the sixteenth century) and guns (also brought by Europeans) had enabled several Indian tribes to hunt the buffalo in large numbers.

In 1837, as the artist Alfred Jacob Miller travelled across the Great Plains with the American Fur Company caravan, he made a quick sketch of a buffalo hunt which he later turned into the oil painting below. Miller's painting shows a group of Indians surrounding a large buffalo herd and getting ready for the kill.

### Reflect

Which of the features described here can you see in the painting?

▼ A *Surround* by Alfred Jacob Miller, 1858



### The move to the Great Plains

By 1840, a number of Indian nations lived on the Great Plains (see map on page 27). Each nation had its own history and culture, but they shared some similar characteristics as you will discover in the three following examples.

#### The Apache

The Apache already lived on the southwest Plains by the 1600s. They survived almost entirely on buffalo which they hunted on foot with bows and arrows during the spring and summer. In the autumn, the Apache moved to villages on the edge of the Plains. Here they survived the winter by trading their meat and other buffalo products for corn and other foodstuffs produced by the Navajo and Pueblo Indians.

Because they lived in the South, the Apache had been some of the first Native Americans to get hold of the horses brought by the Spanish. By the 1830s, the

Apache were a fully nomadic horse culture. Where they once hunted single buffalo on foot, they now hunted huge numbers on horseback. Guns and horses meant that the Apache could raid the settlements of Navajo and Pueblo Indians and steal their corn rather than trading. Apache warriors were feared across the southwest Plains

#### The Cheyenne

In the eighteenth century, the Cheyenne lived in small settlements on the edge of the northern Plains. They survived by farming and hunting, and the buffalo was already an important source of food. The availability of horses began to make full-time hunting of buffalo on the Plains a realistic option. The Cheyenne realised that they could use buffalo as a trade item as well as a source of food.

By the 1830s, the Cheyenne became nomadic hunters on the Plains. Trade was an important part of their culture. The Cheyenne exchanged guns and horses with the Apache and supplied the new white trading posts with buffalo meat and skins in return for guns, powder and alcohol. Hunting and horsemanship became the centre of Cheyenne culture. Horseback warfare also became key to Cheyenne survival on the Plains and they sometimes fought bitterly with other tribes for control of hunting grounds.

#### The Lakota Sioux

In the eighteenth century, the Lakota Sioux lived on the northern edge of the Plains near the Great Lakes. They hunted buffalo on foot, foraged the woodlands and grew small amounts of crops. The arrival of horses transformed Sioux culture. At first, the Sioux used horses to hunt in the summer, but continued to farm to survive in the winter. But by the 1830s, guns became more easily available as white traders moved westward. This meant that the Lakota Sioux could

hunt buffalo on a larger scale. At the same time, the Lakota Sioux homelands near the Great Lakes were filling up with Indian tribes escaping the expansion of the United States.

The Lakota responded to these changes by expanding rapidly onto the Plains. They saw that they could use horses and guns to give up on farming altogether and live as nomads following the buffalo herds. By the 1830s, the Lakota had moved their whole tribe to the Plains. At the centre of this new life were the Black Hills of Dakota – a symbol of Lakota power.

### Reflect

Some historians have argued that different Indian nations 're-imagined' the West in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. What similarities and differences can you find in the ways the Apache, the Cheyenne and the Lakota Sioux re-imagined the West?

### The Lakota Sioux – a case study

Most Plains Indians were nomads whose lives centred on the buffalo. They lived in temporary villages which could be moved easily to follow the herds. The men were skilled horsemen and members of warrior societies. The Plains Indians believed that the Great Spirit ruled over the earth and that all living things had spirits of their own. Most Plains Indians shared these cultural characteristics, but each tribe had its own language and distinctive culture. This section provides a case study of one of the most important tribes in the northern Plains – the Lakota Sioux.

▼ *Sioux Buffalo Dance* by George Catlin, c.1832



### Hunting the buffalo

The Lakota used buffalo for food, clothing and shelter. For a hunter on the move across the Plains, the blood of the buffalo could provide liquid when no water was to be found. Before a hunt, the Lakota would perform a 'Buffalo Dance' which could last for several days. The dance called to the spirit world for a successful hunt. A few buffalo hunts per year could provide a small Lakota band with enough food to survive. However, the Lakota often killed many more buffalo than necessary. One Lakota hunting party, for example, brought back 1400 buffalo tongues (a great delicacy), but left the animals' bodies, including the meat, to rot on the Plains.

### Homes and families

Lakota families lived in a tipi made from several buffalo hides stretched over wooden poles. It was a perfect design for the Lakota's nomadic life on the Plains. A tipi could be put up and taken down very quickly. The conical shape meant that it would not be blown over in the strong winds of the Plains. The flaps at the top of the tipi could be moved to direct the wind so that the smoke from the fire inside blew away. In summer the hides at the bottom of the tipi could be rolled up to let air inside.

Men and women had specific roles which suited their lives on the Plains: the men hunted, fought and looked after the horses; women were responsible for preparing food, crafting items from buffalo and ensuring the tipi was built or dismantled in time. Lakota children were highly valued. They did not go to school, but were prepared for their adult roles by their parents and the wider family. Old people were respected for their wisdom, but when they became too old and weak to keep up with the band they were often left to die. The survival of the band was more important than the life of an individual.



▲ A view of a Sioux camp by George Catlin, c. 1830s

### Beliefs

The Lakota believed in the Great Spirit, Wakan Tanka, and that all living things had their own spirit which came from the earth. Even the rocks, streams and trees had spirits. Circles were an important part of Lakota culture. They were surrounded by the circle of the horizon and their lives were determined by the sun and moon, the circular nature of the seasons and the circle of birth, childhood, adulthood, old age and death. The Lakota reflected the power of circles in their culture – settlements, meetings, dances and tipis all took a circular form.

The land was also an important part of the Lakota's spirituality. They believed that all living things came from the land and that when they died they would return to the land. The Lakota said that no one could own the land and that farming was disrespectful to the earth. This was very different to their beliefs in the 1700s when they themselves had farmed. Another new belief was that the Black Hills were an area of sacred land. By the 1840s, many generations of Lakota had been buried in the land around the Black Hills and the area had become an especially important place for the tribe.

### Leadership

The Lakota were made up of a number of tribes, and each tribe from many bands. A band was a group of between ten and fifty families. The leadership of the Lakota fitted well with their life on the Plains. Bands needed to be able to make their own decisions when they were hunting the buffalo. There was not really any point in meeting as a tribe unless there were major decisions to be made about war or trade. There was no single leader of all the tribes; each band or tribe chose a leader who they felt would lead them well. When the US Government tried to make treaties with the Lakota, this caused a lot of problems. Some tribes would follow the treaties, and others would ignore them.

### Warfare

The Lakota fought to steal horses and to control important hunting lands. They had fierce rivalries with other tribes such as the Crow and Mandan, using horses to attack their enemies quickly and with force. Indian warriors on foot were no match for the horse-riding Lakota. By 1839, the Lakota were the dominant tribe on the Plains.

Warrior culture was at the heart of Lakota life. From a young age, Lakota boys learned to ride and fight. Men were expected to join warrior societies and their opinions were sought when key decisions about fighting needed to be made. Warrior societies were divided between those for older and younger men. Each society had its own customs, songs, costumes and dances. These societies also developed intense rivalries. Lakota warriors brought honour to their society by stealing horses, or acting bravely in battle. Women were generally not allowed in these societies, however there were some notable women warriors including Buffalo Calf Robe and Moving Robe.

### Record

Make your first 'summary chart' to describe the culture of the Plains Indians. Make sure you explain how the Indians came to live on the Plains. Your chart should focus on the Lakota as an example of Plains Indians' culture and their vision of the West.

A Sioux War Council by George Catlin, 1847



## Migrants to the Far West

In the early 1840s, white Americans developed a very different vision of the West. People from the East began to make long and difficult journeys across the Great Plains and through the Rocky Mountains to the Far West of America. By 1850, around 105,000 people had moved to live in the west-coast territories of Oregon and California; by 1860, the number was 443,000. There were several factors which led so many people to migrate:

### Reflect

For each of these reasons think of a heading to summarise why so many people migrated to the Far West after 1840.

- 1 In 1837, there was a big downturn in the economy of the USA. In the East, banks collapsed and many people lost their savings. Wages were cut and people lost their jobs. Arable farmers in the Mississippi valley faced ruin when the price of wheat collapsed. Many people began to think that they had nothing to lose by trying their luck in the Far West.
- 2 The migrants hoped to build better lives on the rich farming land of the Far West. Early explorers and traders had spread the word that the climate and land of the region were perfect for farming. Once the first migrants had settled, reports began to reach the East about the good lives which people could make in Oregon and California. Advertisements, like the one below, reinforced the idea that people could improve their lives in the Far West.
- 3 In 1841, the 'Pre-emption Act' was passed by the US Government. This applied to Oregon and meant that a farmer who built a house and cleared trees would be given the first opportunity to buy the surrounding land. The Act made it difficult for speculators to buy land and sell it at high prices.
- 4 In 1845, journalists and politicians in the East began to suggest that it was the 'Manifest Destiny' of white Americans to settle the whole of North America. In other words, the settlement of the West was God's plan for the continent. Some Christians believed that God's mission was for them to convert the Indians of the American West to Christianity.
- 5 By 1840, mountain men and explorers had mapped the routes and trails which would allow settlers to make the 2000-mile journey to the West more safely. As more migrants moved west, people began to feel more secure about making the long journey.

### Reflect

How does the advertisement make the Far West seem like an appealing place?



▲ An advertisement for Singer sewing machines, 1881

## Making the journey

The migrants' journey to the Far West was nearly 2400 miles long and it took around eight months to complete. This did not stop a wide range of people attempting the trek. The migrants included Americans, Norwegians, Swedes, Germans, Irish and Canadians. In parts of the Far West as many as 25 per cent of the population were foreign-born. Over 3000 black Americans had migrated to California by 1850; however, anti-black laws stopped them from becoming full citizens.

Whatever their background, migrants to the Far West faced a long and difficult journey. The early migrants were often guided by mountain men and Native Americans, but it was their own stamina, courage and good luck which determined whether they would succeed.

### ▶ The migrants' journey to the Far West

4. At Fort Hall the migrants decided whether to follow the southern route into California or the northern route into Oregon. Migrants heading for California faced a trek across desert and another struggle across the mountains of the Sierra Nevada. The Oregon migrants often had great difficulty crossing the Blue Mountains. Some were sometimes paddled down the rivers by Indians in canoes. Others were forced to abandon their wagons and continue the journey on foot. When their journeys ended, the migrants then faced the final challenge of building a new life in Oregon or California.



3. The next part of the journey was often the most challenging as the migrants faced the difficult trek over the Rocky Mountains. They struggled with wagons, possessions, children and animals through the narrow and steep mountain passes. Accidents were frequent and many migrants often died from diseases such as cholera. They faced the constant worry that the autumn snows would trap them in the mountains. When this happened migrants sometimes starved to death.

1. Migrants often spent the winter in one of the towns along the Missouri River such as Council Bluffs, St Joseph or Independence. There they built their wagons, bought oxen and stocked up with provisions such as flour, bacon, salt, coffee and sugar. When the snows began to melt in the spring, the migrants set off on their long trek to the Far West. They often travelled in 'trains' of twenty or more wagons for safety.

2. The migrants followed the valley of the Platte River across the Great Plains. Their wagons crawled along, often covering under 18 miles a day. Migrants could face baking sun or torrential rain. Swollen rivers, stampeding buffalo and hostile Indians sometimes added to their worries. Migrants often discovered that they had brought too many possessions with them; the trails were often littered with discarded furniture. When they stopped at Fort Laramie and Fort Kearny for rest and provisions, the migrants had completed nearly a third of their journey.

### Reflect

- 1 What challenges did migrants face on their journey to the Far West?
- 2 Why do you think so many people still chose to go?

## Case study: The Sagers on the Oregon Trail



▲ The Whitman Mission, Oregon, 1840s

Henry Sager began the move to Oregon in May 1844, along with a group of 323 other emigrants. He brought along his six children and heavily pregnant wife, Naomi.

The Sagers' journey, recorded by Henry's daughter, Catherine, was particularly difficult. From the very start, high rainfall turned the ground into mud and the children were forced to stay in the wagons. By 4 July, things were improving. A couple got married and there was singing and dancing. But the good times did not last.

- As they forded the Platte River, Henry Sager lost control of his oxen and the wagon overturned.
- In August, Catherine jumped from a moving wagon, catching her dress in the axle as she did so. She was dragged under the wagon wheel, breaking her leg. It never fully recovered.
- At Fort Laramie disease began to spread through the group. Two women and a girl died before Henry Sager was struck down. Henry Sager was buried in a coffin made from a tree trunk, though he was later dug up by other travellers searching for usable goods.
- Shortly after Henry's death, Naomi became ill. Delirious, she lay with a weakening pulse crying out to her dead husband, 'Oh Henry, if only you knew how we have suffered.' When Naomi died the Sager children became orphans.

### The Whitman Mission

In October, the Sager children reached the Christian Mission of Marcus and Narcissa Whitman. The Whitmans had come to Oregon in 1836 in the hope of converting the Cayuse Indians. Narcissa agreed to adopt the Sager children. But the trials of the Sagers were not yet over.

In 1847, measles swept through the Cayuse camps, killing many Indians. The Cayuse blamed the Whitmans and the white emigrants for the deaths of their people. Shortly after, three Cayuses arrived at the Whitman home, hacked Marcus Whitman to death and shot Narcissa. The Cayuse set the Mission alight, killing thirteen people. Only Catherine and three other Sager sisters survived. Eventually Catherine would go on to marry a minister and settle down in Oregon.

Catherine Sager's remarkable account of her family's journey reveals the extreme challenges faced by some migrants to the Far West. The Sager story is one of the better-known tales of those who travelled the Oregon Trail. However, their experience was not really typical. Although the journey west was dangerous, the most common cause of death was disease rather than Indian attack. People were more likely to shoot themselves with their own guns than be killed by an Indian. The Indians themselves tended to benefit more by trading with the settlers and charging them for ferry travel, food and supplies.

## The impact of migration to the Far West on the Native Americans

In the 1840s, some of the Native Americans who lived in the territories crossed by the trails to the Far West formed positive relationships with migrants. They sometimes acted as guides, helped the migrants to cross rivers and supplied them with food in return for goods from the East. However, as the number of migrants rapidly increased, relationships between the Native Americans and the US government soured.

### Tensions on the Plains

Soon the different visions of the West were causing tensions with the Indians who lived along the routes. The Government was now keen to gain access to western lands. 'The Indian barrier must be removed' declared Senator Douglas of Illinois.

In 1851, at Fort Laramie, tribes such as the Sioux, Northern Cheyenne, Arapaho and Crow granted the USA rights to establish forts and safe routes across the Plains in exchange for compensation for damage to their hunting. In 1853, southern tribes such as the Southern Cheyenne, Comanche and Kiowa made similar agreements with the US Government.

The Sioux negotiated particularly hard as the trails cut their hunting grounds in two. In the end they were granted greater hunting rights on the south side of the trails. Many smaller tribes such as the Crow were outraged that the Sioux should get better treatment. This increased splits between the Indian tribes.

### Conflict in Oregon

In 1855, the US Government signed treaties with the Yakima and other Indian tribes living in Oregon Territory. The Indians gave up huge areas of land to the USA for settlement. According to the Yakima treaty, settlement was supposed to be delayed for two years, but migrants were on the land within twelve days of the treaty being signed.

The Yakima felt cheated by the treaty with the Government and began raiding white settlements. The US army was called in. The Yakima asked the priest of a Spanish Christian Mission to protect them. When he agreed, the Mission was burned to the ground by the army. By 1858, the Yakima had lost 90 per cent of their lands and 24 of their chiefs had been hanged or shot. Many chiefs were simply executed by the army after they surrendered. The relationship between the white Americans and the Indians of the Far West was now one of conflict.

## Record

Make a 'summary chart' to describe the experiences of the migrants and their vision of the West. Your chart should cover:

- 1 The reasons why the migrants moved to the Far West
- 2 The challenges which the migrants faced on their journey
- 3 The impact of migration to the Far West on the Native Americans.

## Reflect

What was the impact of migration on the Plains Indians?

## Reflect

What led to conflict in Oregon?

## The Mormons

Not all white Americans had the same vision of the American West. The Mormons were a religious group founded by Joseph Smith, who came from New York. Smith claimed that God had shown him a secret book, written on gold plates. In 1830, he published *The Book of Mormon* which he claimed was a translation of these gold plates. The book said that Jesus had come to America after his resurrection to start his true Church there. Smith's followers, who became known as Mormons, believed they should help rebuild Jesus' Church in America.

In the 1830s, the Mormons attracted large numbers of followers. Many people were attracted by the Mormons' belief in shared ownership of land and property. For many poor Americans, this seemed like a promise of a better life. However, the Mormons were unpopular with those who disagreed with their vision of land ownership, and who felt that Joseph Smith acted like an all-powerful king among his people. The Mormons' opposition to slavery also made them unpopular with slave holders. In addition, the Mormons were very aggressive in trying to convert people to Mormonism and even practised polygamy (having multiple wives) to increase their numbers more rapidly. One Mormon leader, Brigham Young, had 55 wives in his lifetime.

### Mormon visions of the West

Faced with increasing hostility, the Mormons had already begun to move westward, settling in Nauvoo, Illinois in 1838. However, they were not able to stay long. In 1846, Joseph Smith was murdered by a mob. Brigham Young took over the Mormon leadership and encouraged his followers to leave Nauvoo and build God's kingdom in the Far West instead. He hoped this would put the Mormons out of harm's way.

Thanks to early travel guides, Young already had a good idea where he was going to take his people, he just needed to get them there. The Mormons left Nauvoo as the town was being destroyed with fire and cannon by anti-Mormon mobs. As the temple burned to the ground, a great column of Mormon emigrants moved out onto the Plains and headed west. Unlike the emigrants on the Oregon Trail, the Mormons travelled on foot, pulling their worldly goods in heavy hand carts.

After nearly 1300 miles, the Mormons arrived at Young's destination: the Great Salt Lake which lay between the Rocky and Sierra Nevada Mountains. Here in 1847 the Mormons founded Salt Lake City. By 1852, over 10,000 people had come to make that vision a reality.

#### Reflect

Why did the Mormons decide to establish a new settlement at Salt Lake?

### The Mormon settlement of Utah

From the very beginning the Mormon settlement at Salt Lake was carefully planned. Brigham Young decided that nobody would have the right to own land. Instead the Church would decide how much land each family got according to their needs. Because the Mormons saw Young as the most direct link to God's wishes, it was relatively easy for him to tell people what they needed to do and for his orders to be followed.

One of the biggest challenges for the Mormons at Salt Lake was growing food in such a dry place. It was clear to Brigham Young that irrigated farmland

would be crucial for their survival. He ordered the digging of irrigation channels bringing water from distant mountain streams to the farmland of Salt Lake. Brigham Young ensured that everyone had a fair share of the water.

A US government surveyor described the city in glowing terms in 1850:

A city has been laid out on a magnificent scale. Through the city itself flows an unending stream of pure, sweet water, which ... is made to travel along each side of every street ... spreading life and beauty over what was a barren waste.



▲ Salt Lake City, 1853

### Growth and conflict

In 1848, the US Government seized the area around Salt Lake from the Mexicans, bringing the Mormons back into the USA. In response, Young decided to apply for Utah to become a US state but the Government would not allow this. Instead, Utah was added to the USA as a territory in 1850, and Brigham Young was made its first governor. Between 1850 and 1860 many other Mormon towns and settlements were planned by Young, and the Mormons spread rapidly over the new territory. But the success of the Mormons worried many people back in the East. They feared the spread of the Mormon religion and decided to act.

Because Utah was not a state, it was not free to make its own laws on things like property ownership or marriage. In 1857, the Government decided to send troops to Utah to force Young to bring it in line with US laws. But the conflict never actually occurred. In September 1857, a band of Mormons led by John D. Lee massacred some settlers they believed to be US army spies. Lee blamed Indians for the murders but it was soon proven that the Mormons were responsible. The scandal forced Young to step down as governor of Utah, without the army having to fire a single shot. Utah was then made to follow the laws of the rest of the USA.

### Record

Make a 'summary chart' to describe the experiences of the Mormons and their vision of the West. Your chart should cover:

- 1 The reasons why the Mormons moved to the West
- 2 How the Mormons built a settlement at Salt Lake
- 3 Why the Mormon settlement of Utah led to conflict.

im Young, c.1855



## Gold miners

'Boys, by God, I believe I have found a gold mine!' These were the words shouted by James Marshall who was working at John Sutter's mill in the foothills of the Sierra Nevada Mountains in January 1848. John Sutter attempted to keep the discovery at his mill quiet, but it was impossible. By May, the news had reached the port town of San Francisco and within days, men were making their way to the Sierra Nevada with pickaxes and shovels to seek their fortune. Some of the first miners needed little more than a frying pan to find the gold deposits in the rivers and streams which flowed from the Sierra Nevada. But this 'placer gold' was just the run out from the huge deposits deeper in the mountains. Soon, diggers began to open small mines to extract the nuggets of gold.

### The California gold rush, 1848–49

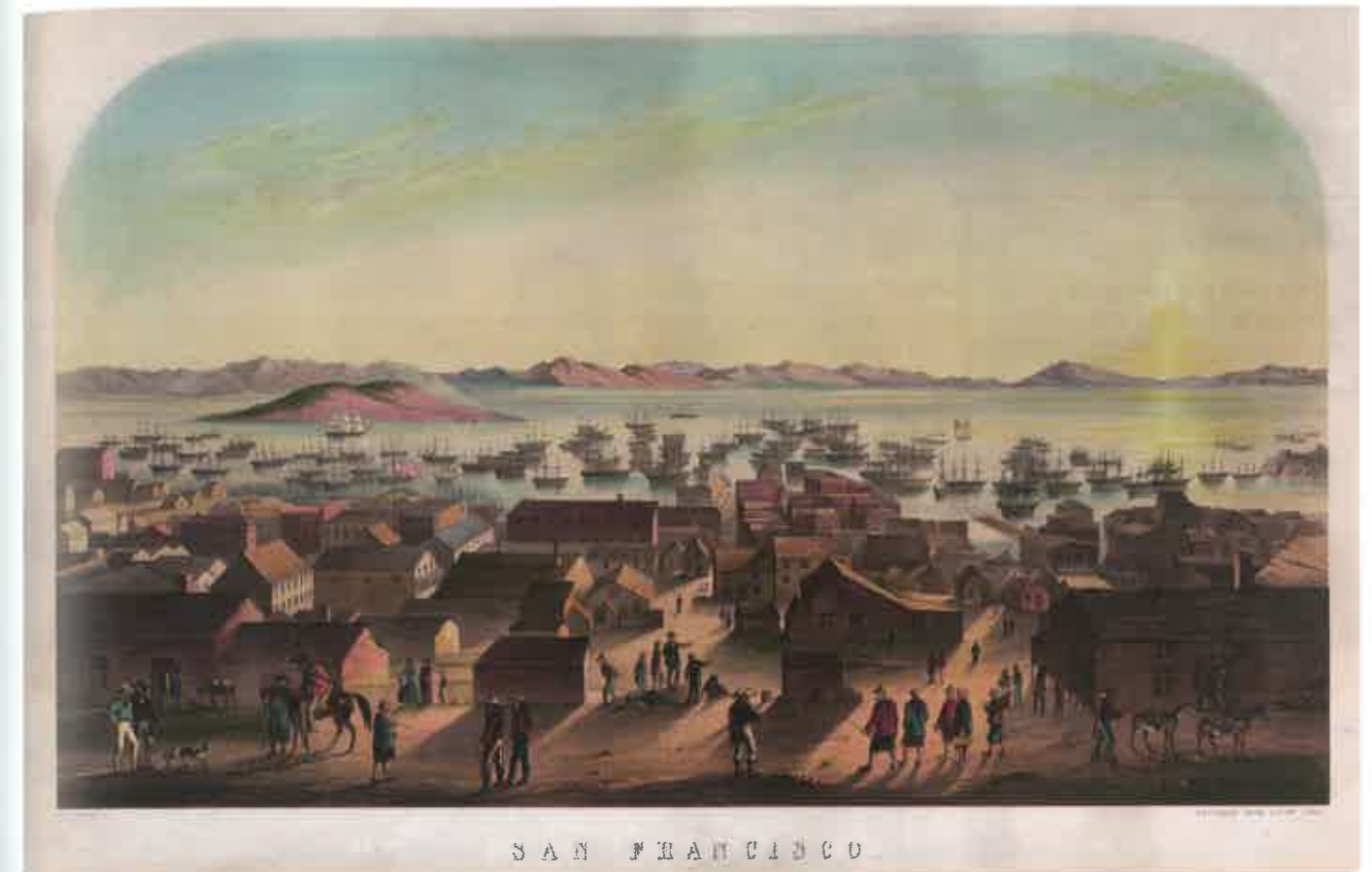
In December 1848, President James K. Polk confirmed that the reports of gold coming from the newly-conquered territory of California were indeed true. This was the spark which ignited the frenzy of 1849. Wild stories began circulating of men making \$1000 a day in California (the average wage was \$2–3 a day), or of men who were washing \$16 or more of gold dust from their beards each night.

Soon the overland trails were packed with (mainly) men desperate to get to the gold fields and claim their share of the rocks. Over 50,000 Americans headed to California in 1849 alone. The most adventurous left the East on boats in January and sailed around the tip of South America. Most however waited until springtime and used the California Trail to make their way west. Americans were not the only people who were determined to try their luck in California. Thousands of gold diggers headed to the American West from Europe, Mexico and China.

People quickly realised that they could make money by meeting the needs of the miners. Merchants were able to sell basic supplies for five to ten times their normal prices in the East. A pan, pick, tent, blanket and food could easily set a new miner back \$100. The merchant, Levi Strauss, made his fortune selling hardwearing denim trousers to the miners. These 'Levis' became the start of a huge business empire for Strauss and helped to boost cotton production in the South. Not everyone made a fortune, but many people managed to improve their lives. Nancy Gooch was an emancipated slave who got a job as a cook and washerwoman for the miners. She used her earnings to buy the freedom of her son and his wife back in Missouri.

### The impact of the California gold rush

San Francisco, c.1850



By 1852, the surface gold in California had nearly all gone. Instead of individual men panning for gold in streams and rivers, big companies now began to employ hundreds of men to dig out ton after ton of quartz crystal. The quartz was crushed in giant 'stamp mills' before being dropped into chemical vats to dissolve the worthless minerals and release the gold within. By 1852, 108 crushing mills dominated the California gold scene. Those miners who had hoped to get rich quick were soon to be found working for tiny wages at one of these huge operations. Some held out for a lucky strike, but many more returned home dejected.

The California gold rush had a lasting impact on the American West. California became a US state in 1850. Mining towns grew up in the mountains and San Francisco expanded rapidly, becoming a major city with a thriving sea port and its own newspapers and police force. Lumbering and farming spread across California to supply the towns with wood and food. Surplus goods could be sent by ship from San Francisco to the East. This was a slow journey however, so demands for a railroad link to the East grew.

For the Native Americans the California gold rush had serious consequences. In 1848, some Indians began to dig for gold alongside Americans, but the

forty-niners had driven them into the mountains, sometimes shooting them dead with little thought. This violence was encouraged by the California Government. Governor Burnett declared, 'A war of extermination will continue to be waged between the races until the Indian race becomes extinct.' In the 1850s a law was introduced which stated that any Indian who could not prove he had a job could be arrested and sold to white settlers as slave labour. Hundreds of men, women and children were captured and sold in this way.

Mining methods also caused devastation to the land. Mining companies realised that it was quicker and cheaper to use high-powered water jets to release quartz from the mountains. Whole hillsides were eaten away by the process, which then clogged the rivers with rocks and gravel. Flooding became a major problem and some towns were completely washed away. Further damage was caused by the chemicals used to extract the gold, which killed fish and wildlife. The lands of the Native Americans were being seriously harmed by the mining activities of white Americans. Before long, some tribes were struggling to survive.



▲ Miners panning for gold in California

## The Pike's Peak gold rush, 1858–59

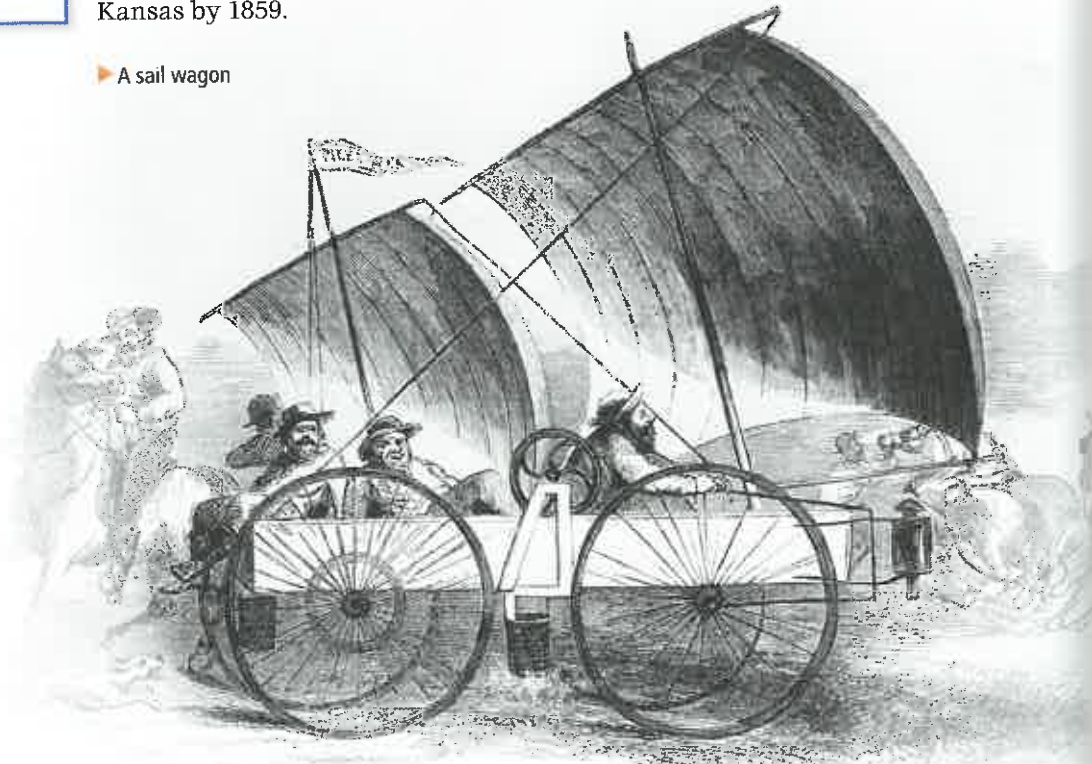
The California gold rush had led many Americans to take an interest in gold hunting and it was likely that further major discoveries would follow. The most significant of these occurred in the newly created Kansas Territory. The formation of Kansas Territory in 1854 meant that gold prospectors could settle with the assurance of government protection. At this point, Kansas stretched much further west than today and incorporated the area which forms present-day Colorado. It was here, around the summit of Pike's Peak, that the gold hunters came searching in the 1850s.

In July 1858, a discovery was finally made. By the end of the month, word had made its way back East: 'The new Eldorado!!! Gold in Kansas Territory!!!' one newspaper declared. Soon, gold fever was spreading, spurred on by the 1857 recession. More than 100,000 people had made the journey to Kansas by 1859.

### Reflect

What push and pull factors can you see for the Pike's Peak miners?

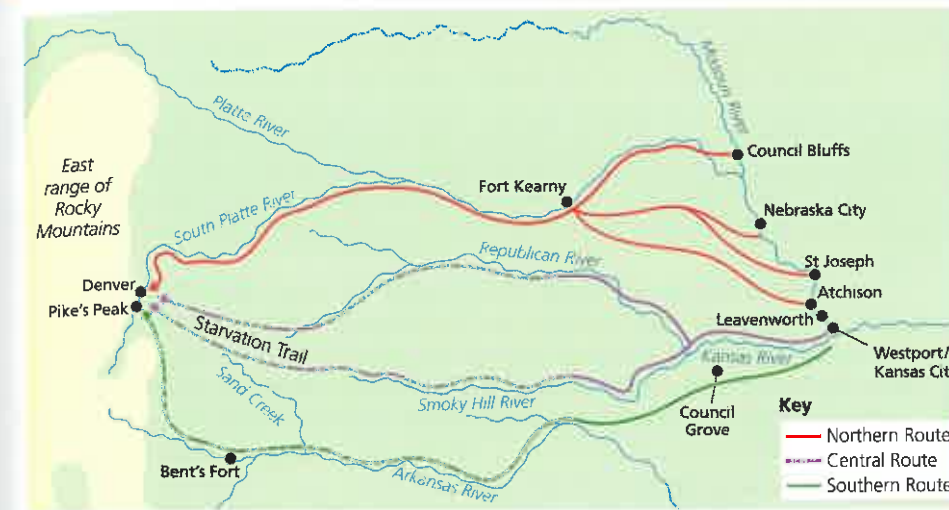
▶ A sail wagon



The Pike's Peak rush was different in two main ways from the California rush which had come before it:

1 **Rail lines helped people travel from the East to St Joseph with ease.** From St Joseph it was a mere 600 miles for prospectors hoping to strike it rich in the Rockies. The landscape of the Plains was easier to cross than the mountains which blocked passage to the Far West. This meant that almost twice the number of people came to Pike's Peak compared to California. Some enterprising people even tried to use new forms of transport such as the sail wagon to make the journey swifter. Some set out with nothing but a blanket and money, causing the equipment merchants to rub their hands in glee.

2 **'Town boosters' set out to increase the wealth of their towns by encouraging people to come and settle in them.** There were three competing routes to the Colorado gold fields, each pushed by a particular town. This led to a battle of maps, in which towns deliberately lied about the ease of the routes which were closest to them. Those promoting the central route, for example, showed the Smoky Hill River going almost directly to the gold fields. In fact, it stopped a hundred or more miles short, leaving travellers directionless and without water. In one extreme case, the Blue party who travelled the central route ate each other as they died of starvation, one by one. Daniel Blue ate one of the party and half of his own brother before an Arapaho found him and helped him back to a town.



▶ Routes to Pike's Peak

### The impact of Pike's Peak

The growth of mining in western Kansas led to the development of farming in the eastern part of the territory. The farmers could make a good living by selling food to the new towns springing up in the gold-mining districts. This growth in population led to Kansas Territory becoming a state in 1861. The western half was renamed Colorado Territory. This began the steady process of populating the missing middle states of the USA. Before 1858, the Plains were seen as a region to pass through, rather than settle in. Towns like St Joseph, once seen as the last safe place before the 2000-mile journey west, were now hubs for the promising lands in the centre of the country.

Pike's Peak marked a significant shift in relations between whites and Native Americans. The treaties signed in 1851 and 1853 had established routes across Indian lands, but now it seemed that whites wanted to settle on the Plains as well. Cities like Denver were growing in regions where the Arapaho and Southern Cheyenne lived. The competition for grazing land in particular meant that the Cheyenne and Arapaho were forced to travel much further from their lands to hunt in the summer. When many prospectors arrived in the summer months they found few Native Americans, but tensions arose when the Indians returned to spend the winter on their lands.

In September 1859, Cheyenne and Arapaho leaders met the US authorities at Fort Laramie. 'Our old people and little children are hungry ... our sufferings are increasing every winter ... We wish to live' said one Arapaho. Five days later a Kiowa rode into a shop in a white settlement in Colorado and spat blood in the shopkeeper's face. It was the sign of more blood to come. The US Government was becoming convinced that the Indians would have to abandon their vision of the West and allow the white vision to succeed.

### Review

1. Look at your four summary charts. Choose the two groups that you think had the most contrasting visions of life in the American West.
2. Explain why those two groups saw the American West so differently.

### Record

Make a final 'summary chart' to describe the experiences of the miners and their vision of the West. Your chart should cover:

1. When, why and how the miners moved to the West
2. The impact of gold mining on the American West.

## The diary of Abigail Scott



▲ A portrait of Abigail Scott Duniway, c.1880

Abigail Scott was born in 1834 in Illinois. She was seventeen years old when her father John Tucker Scott decided to head to the Far West with his wife Ann and their nine children. In March 1852, the Scotts joined four other families and set off on the 2400-mile journey to Oregon in their covered wagon.

Not all the Scott family made it to Oregon. In June, Abigail's mother died of cholera near Fort Laramie. By late August, Abigail and her family had managed the tricky ascent through the mountains and were well over three-quarters of the way through their journey. However, disease was still running rife through the group. John Tucker was extremely ill, as was Abigail's four-year-old brother, Willie. On 28 August 1852, the family faced another tragedy when Willie died.

A month later, the remaining Scotts arrived in French County Oregon. They had travelled across most of a continent to find a new life in the Far West. Shortly after arriving, Abigail found work as a teacher. The following year, she married an Oregon rancher, Benjamin Duniway. Abigail Scott eventually became a successful novelist and went on to campaign for the right of women to vote. In Oregon, this was achieved in 1912, when Abigail was 77 years old.

Like many young women who travelled on the Oregon Trail, Abigail Scott kept a diary of her journey to the Far West. You can read some of the extracts from her diary on the opposite page.

**2 April 1852:** Leaving home, home friends and home associates in Old Tazewell ... Have had but little difficulty in our journey so far; crossed the Illinois river (for perhaps the last time) with but little difficulty and in a word have had no trouble at all except what has been occasioned by bidding farewell forever to those with whom most of us have associated all our lives.

**15 April 1852:** Saw a man who said he owned seven slaves of a good stock ... two of them were worth one thousand dollars a-piece but he had not got enough of work out of them yet, and in a few years they would be worth more; May none of us ever be guilty of buying and selling the souls and bodies of our fellow creatures; slavery is a withering blight upon the prospects happiness and freedom of our Nation.

**12 May 1852:** Passed a place, where some folks were [burying] the remains of a young man who had died with the measles. The family had emigrated from Pennsylvania, had lost three of their company in St. Joe ... They have become entirely discouraged and when we left them, they were making preparations to go back [home].

**19 May 1852:** Travelled about 19 miles to-day; crossed the Big Blue river without any difficulty. The road today has been more hilly than that of yesterday. We passed four new made graves. The deaths are principally occasioned by colds and diarrhoea brought on in (some) instances by exposure and fatigue, but we think most generally from imprudence in eating and drinking.

**12 June 1852:** After traveling awhile in the afternoon we came in sight of the long heard of and renowned Chimney Rock; It at first looked as if it were a spire pointing towards Heaven's blue dome but as we came nearer to it the spire seemed to enlarge and bear rather more the appearance of a chimney extending high above a dome shaped building.

**18 June 1852:** We started early this morning passed Fort Laramie about 10 o'clock. Two of our company crossed the river (and carried some) letters which the company had written. We passed several Indian trading posts this morning ... The tribe of Indians that occupy this territory are called Sioux. They are represented as being thievish but it is thought if emigrants use proper precaution they need fear nothing from them.

**20 June 1852:** Our mother was taken about two o'clock this morning with a violent diarrhoea attended with cramping. She however aroused no one until daylight when everything was done which we possibly could do to save her life ... She now rests in peace.

**28 August 1852:** Two months and seven days this morning since our beloved mother was called to bid this world adieu, and the ruthless monster death ... [has] taken in his icy grip the treasure of our hearts! Last night our darling Willie was called from earth, to vie with angels around the throne of God ... He was four years of age ... He often before his illness talked of dying and wanted to die and meet his mother.

### Reflect

What do these extracts tell us about the challenges facing Abigail Scott on her journey to the Far West?

▲ Approaching Chimney Rock, a painting by W. F. Jackson, 1865

# 'A new birth of freedom'?

## What sense can be made of the Civil War and its aftermath, 1861–77?

From April 1861 to April 1865, the United States was locked in a brutal civil war. It was fought between the armies of the Northern and Southern states. Over 750,000 Americans, soldiers and civilians, lost their lives. It was a hugely destructive struggle.

This painting below portrays one of the darkest days of this dreadful war. On 12 April 1864, a force of almost 300 black soldiers from the Northern Union Army were defending their base at Fort Pillow in Tennessee. They knew they were outnumbered and decided to surrender. Wearing their distinctive blue Union army uniforms, the soldiers threw down their weapons and, together with the women from the fort, they walked out to meet the grey-coated soldiers of the

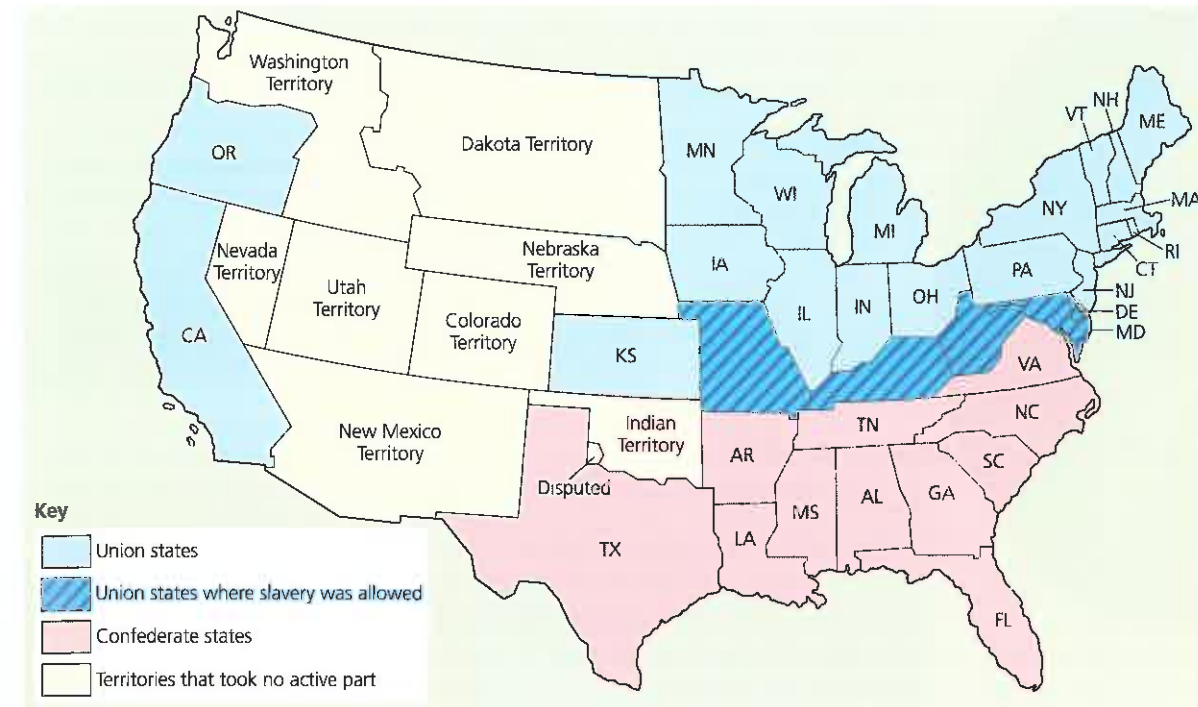
Southern Confederacy. Their surrender was ignored. The Confederates showed no mercy and shot or bayoneted them in cold blood. As some ran to escape, the Confederates swarmed over the battleground hunting down survivors, shooting or drowning them. The vast majority of these victims were ex-slaves.

A year earlier, in 1863, on the site of another Civil War battlefield at Gettysburg, President Abraham Lincoln made a famous speech in which he declared that the war could be 'a new birth of freedom' for the United States. This 'new birth' was a cause for which the ex-slaves at Fort Pillow and many thousands of others had given their lives.



▲ The Battle of Fort Pillow, painted in 1885

### The great divide



This map shows how the United States was divided during the Civil War. The conflict began shortly after seven slave-holding states, led by South Carolina, seceded (removed themselves) from the Union of the United States. Others joined them and together they formed the Confederacy, marked in pink. In blue you can see the Northern states who opposed the creation of the new Confederacy. The territories in yellow played no direct part in the war.

### The Enquiry

Like most big events in history, people often try to sum up the United States Civil War and the years of rebuilding that followed in short, simple sentences. This almost always leads to over-simplified statements. Your challenge in this Enquiry is to correct some over-simple summaries of these three aspects of American life:

1. Divisions over slavery and the causes of the Civil War
2. The African-American experience of the war, 1861–65
3. The years of Reconstruction after the war, 1865–77.

The over-simple summaries that we show you will not be completely foolish. Each one will have at least some value, but your task is to use evidence you have gathered in each section to adapt and amend the summary into something much more fair so that it matches the historical evidence you have seen. In each section of the Enquiry, you should gather your evidence in a table like this:

(Write the section title here)	
(Write the over-simple statement here)	
The statement is partly right because...	The statement should be adapted because...

## Divisions over slavery and the causes of the Civil War

In 1865, at the end of the Civil War, President Abraham Lincoln attempted to explain why the conflict had occurred. He argued that the war had begun because the power of slave holders had been growing too rapidly and needed to be stopped. However, many in the South argued that they had gone to war for very different reasons.

As pages 46–50 will show, there is no simple, single explanation for the conflict that tore the nation apart between 1861 and 1865.

### North and South: The situation, c.1850

In Enquiry 1, you learned how tensions between North and South developed in the first half of the nineteenth century. Many of these were caused by differences in their economies, as the table here reminds you.

Despite these differences between North and South, slavery still linked the two halves of the country together. Although people in the North said the South had not developed modern capitalism, they were quite wrong. In 1850, the 3.2 million slaves in the USA had a market value of \$1.3 billion (\$578 billion today) and the cotton they produced sparked wave after wave of speculation from capitalist investors all over the world.

Slavery was the economic glue which allowed white Americans to prosper together. If it had not been for this investment in cotton plantations with their slave labour, many Northern businesses would not have been able to operate and many US citizens in the North would have had no work.

▶ Boott cotton mill in the Northern state of Massachusetts, c.1850. The mill made cloth from cotton picked by slaves in the South

North	South
A modern, capitalist business system where anybody could set up a business and make profits if they worked hard.	A semi-modern plantation system dominated by a few powerful slave holders.
A mixed economy: farming, small businesses and factories.	Mostly agriculture dominated by large plantations; little industry.
Made money through the work of paid employees, for example processing cotton.	Made money through the work of slave labour, especially in growing cotton.
Believed slavery was unfair competition for business and factory owners because slaves did not have to be paid.	Believed slavery was natural and that modern factories and capitalist businesses made white workers into 'wage slaves'.



### Record

Start your first table, as described on page 45. Use the section heading 'Divisions over slavery and the causes of the Civil War'.

Copy this over-simple summary into the space near the top of your table: **'Slavery divided the North and the South and caused the American Civil War.'**

### Abolitionists

As you learned in Enquiry 1, some Northerners actively tried to end slavery, believing it was completely against the American Constitution. These 'abolitionists' had grown in strength by 1850 thanks to actions such as these:

- In 1831, William Lloyd Garrison founded *The Liberator*, a newspaper that spread abolitionist views.
- In 1833, Garrison and Arthur Tappan formed the National Anti-Slavery Society. By 1838, it had managed to grow its membership to 250,000 and its numbers were still rising. It produced masses of essays and pamphlets, and frequently petitioned Congress to end slavery.
- Escaped slaves such as the remarkable Frederick Douglass (right) gave lectures and wrote articles about the nature of life for slaves in the South.
- Northern abolitionists like Douglass and Harriet Tubman (a freed slave) assisted thousands of slaves to escape their masters and smuggled them, in a series of short stages, to freedom in the North. Hundreds of abolitionists were involved in this so-called 'Underground Railroad' to freedom.
- By 1840, there was a growing tide of support for abolition from political liberals and Christian groups, including many beyond the USA. Abolitionists such as Douglass toured all over America and Europe to raise awareness about the issue of slavery.
- In 1851, Harriet Beecher-Stowe published *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a novel that laid bare the horrors of slavery. It sold 2 million copies in ten years.

Southerners reacted with anger and fear to the work of Northern abolitionists. Even those Southerners who held no slaves felt that abolishing slavery would fundamentally upset their way of life. They also feared that freed slaves would rise up and kill the white population. When the opportunity came for the South to go its own way, many were only too happy to join the Confederacy.

### Threats to the power of the South

Even though the South generated a huge amount of America's income through cotton exports, in the late 1840s slave holders were worried that they were losing their influence. The population in the free North was growing rapidly. As representation in Congress was determined by a state's size, the South was losing political power with each passing year. Worse still, America was beginning to expand into the West and, in 1846, Congress said that slavery should be banned in the new territories there which had recently been gained from Mexico.

After four years of bitter division in Congress over the future of slavery, a pro-slavery Southern politician, Henry Clay, suggested a compromise. This said that:

- California should enter the Union as a free (non-slavery) state.
- The sale of slaves should be banned in the nation's capital, Washington DC.
- Territories like New Mexico and Utah that had been gained from Mexico should be allowed to decide for themselves if they wanted slavery.
- All states and the national government should accept a Fugitive Slave Act that made it their legal duty to return escaped slaves to their holders.

Clay's 1850 compromise won a significant victory for slave holders' power. It not only required Northerners to defend slave holders' rights in a way they had never done before, it also gave hope that slavery might be extended westwards.



▲ Frederick Douglass, 1850

### Reflect

Read the list of abolitionist activities on the left and the similar one on page 18. Which action of the abolitionists do think would most upset Southerners?

### Reflect

- 1 Which part of Clay's 1850 compromise do you think would have most pleased the South?
- 2 Which part do you think would have most pleased the North?

## North and South: The struggle deepens, 1850–60

In 1854, encouraged by Clay's success, the pro-slavery members of Congress passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act. According to the Missouri Compromise of 1820 (see page 17), these two territories were not allowed to use slaves. The new Act completely overturned this and allowed them to decide whether or not they wanted slavery by a popular vote, just as in Utah and New Mexico.

Within a few weeks of the Act, abolitionists were encouraging anti-slavery settlers to move into the territories while slave holders, especially in Missouri, sent in their own people who wanted slavery to spread. In the next few years, there was some shocking violence between the groups. In 1856, back in Washington, after arguing about the spread of slavery, two Southern Senators beat a Northern Senator unconscious on the floor of the Senate.

### Reflect

How did the Kansas-Nebraska Act add to Northern fears of Southern power?

## Democrats and Republicans

The South relied on the Democratic Party in Congress. The Democrats supported agriculture, especially cotton plantations, and they disliked modern factory industries. The Democrats also believed in strong state governments and a weaker national government. Quite a few Northern voters, especially farmers, still supported the Democrats in the early 1850s, but many of these drifted away after 1854 as the party seemed too eager to satisfy the wishes of Southern slave holders.

The Republican Party was set up in 1854 as a direct response to the passing of the Kansas-Nebraska Act. It was made up of many different groups of people, but they all believed that slave holders in the South were becoming too powerful. They favoured modern, capitalist businesses and smaller-scale landowning. Republicans won support from manufacturers, business owners, shopkeepers and small-scale farmers who wanted their own piece of land in the West. They also got support from abolitionists. Overall, its support came almost entirely from the North.

A Democrat, James Buchanan, became President of the USA in November 1856. His actions as president pushed many Northerners, who had previously been Democrats, into the arms of the Republican Party. In particular:

- Buchanan openly supported those in Kansas who wanted to spread slavery north of the Missouri Compromise line.
- He also publicly supported a controversial pro-slavery Supreme Court ruling known as the Dred Scott decision. Among other things, this said that Congress had no right to ban slavery in the territories because the Constitution gave every American the right to own property.

Buchanan's actions upset small-scale farmers who felt he was encouraging slave holders to bring slaves to territories, thereby stopping them from gaining access to the land. At the next presidential election in 1860 they, and many others, gave their votes to the Republican candidate, Abraham Lincoln.

During the 1860 campaign, Lincoln developed an image of himself as 'Honest Abe', a man of the people. He set himself up as the champion of the hardworking American and the opponent of wealthy slave holders. This campaign poster shows how, as a young man, he split logs into fencing rails.

Lincoln promised to give free land to Western settlers and prevent the expansion of slavery. He also promised that a new transcontinental railroad would run through Northern rather than Southern states. He won a solid victory. Lincoln insisted that the Union could not continue to be divided over slavery saying, 'It will become all one thing or the other'.



▲ A Republican poster showing Abraham Lincoln as a 'rail splitter', 1860

## States' rights and the descent into Civil War, 1860–61

Throughout the 1860 election, leaders of the Southern states made it clear that they would take a Lincoln victory as a sign that the North was going to end slavery and their whole way of life. They rallied around the cause of 'states' rights' arguing that it was their duty to preserve the rights of individual states to determine their own affairs. For many years, a small group of Southerners had suggested that the Southern states could secede (cut themselves away) from the Union and form their own country, where slavery was encouraged and supported. Lincoln's victory brought the issue of states' rights to a head. Newspaper articles in the South and the North stirred people into a frenzy. In this feverish situation, the South began to take serious action:

- In November 1860, within days of Lincoln's victory, the State Government of South Carolina **voted 169 to 0 to secede from the Union**. They said that the President of the USA no longer represented their interests.
- During the winter of 1860–61 **another six states left the Union** and joined South Carolina to form the Confederacy of States. They agreed to work together to create a new country.
- In February 1861, **the Confederacy elected a new government** in Montgomery, Alabama. It was led by the slave holder Jefferson Davis. Davis claimed that all states had the right to remove themselves from the Union of the USA if they chose to do so democratically. Therefore, Davis said, the creation of the Confederacy was a test of the rights of states versus the power of the President of the USA.

### Reflect

What reason did the leader of the Confederacy give to justify the South's decision to secede from the Union?

When Lincoln took up his role as president on 4 March 1861, he made a speech saying that it was illegal for the South to leave the USA. As part of that speech, he insisted that all government buildings and army forts in the South were still the property of the US Government and that the Confederacy had no right to use them. The South had to make a difficult choice: should it allow US troops to stay in the South or should it force the Union soldiers to

leave? Lincoln was forcing the Confederacy to make the first aggressive move. This it did on 12 April 1861 when it opened fire on Union soldiers in Fort Sumter, a gun battery that guarded Charleston harbour in the Confederate state of South Carolina. On 15 April, Lincoln asked loyal US troops to stop the rebellion and bring the Confederacy back into the United States. The USA was at war with itself.



▲ An engraving of the Confederate bombardment of Fort Sumter, 1861

### Record

Look back at the table you have been completing since page 46. Use the notes you have made to amend and improve the 'over-simple' summary that it gives about the causes of the Civil War.

## The African-American experience of the war, 1861-65

### Record

Start your second table, as described on page 45. Use the section heading 'The African-American experience of the war, 1861-65'.

Copy this over-simple summary into the space near the top of your table: **'During the Civil War the daily lives of African Americans carried on much as before.'**

It helps us understand how life changed for African Americans in the Civil War by dividing it into two phases: before and after President Lincoln proclaimed that all slaves would be emancipated (set free forever) if the Union won the war. That proclamation came, as you will see below, on 1 January 1863. We start by learning about the years leading up to that historic change.

### Phase I: 'Limited war', 1861-62

No move was made to end slavery at the outbreak of war in 1861. It continued just as before in the South and also in those slave states that decided to fight with the North on the side of the Union (Maryland, Delaware, Kentucky and Missouri as well as the western half of Virginia). As this diagram shows, away from areas where the fighting took place, life for most African Americans, both in the North and in the South, continued much as before the war.

#### African Americans in the North (Union) ...

Jobs	Housing	Education	Society
Did not get equal access to jobs. Black workers were not allowed to be in charge of white workers in most places. A few educated black men got positions of responsibility or power.	Tended to live in poorer areas of cities and get charged higher rents for poorer quality houses than whites.	Most schools were segregated, meaning black and white children went to different schools. There were a few black universities. Even the well-educated still struggled to get good jobs.	Public places were usually segregated and there was a lot of racism against black people, especially from working-class whites who saw them as competition for jobs.



Key  
 Union states  
 Border states  
 Confederate states  
 Territories



#### African Americans in the South (Confederacy) ...

Jobs	Housing	Education	Society
Most black Americans were slaves and therefore could not get jobs or earn money.	Plantation housing varied but the vast majority of slaves lived in cramped cabins with few comforts. Disease was common due to the lack of sanitation.	In most Southern states it was illegal for black slaves to learn to read or write. This was to stop uprisings. Most slave holders thought educating slaves was pointless.	Slaves were treated as items of property rather than as people. They could therefore not use any public facilities without permission. They still suffered brutal violence.

### 'Contrabands'

In the North, a rush of free black volunteers came forward to join the Union army in 1861. They were swiftly knocked back. Although black soldiers had fought in the War of Independence in 1776, a law created in 1792 now stopped them from joining up. Lincoln did not change this law as he was worried that allowing African Americans to serve in the Union army might make some of the slave-holding border states change their minds and join the Confederacy.

In the South, a handful of slaves did work for the Confederate army. They were not allowed to fight, so were used to build defences or move supplies. They may have hoped to earn their freedom by doing this or they may simply have feared violence if they did not help.

As the war developed and Southern plantations fell to Union forces, many slaves chose to try to support the North. Large numbers began to cross the battle lines as the Union army advanced. The Union army was not entirely sure what to do with the escapees and many ended up doing similar labour tasks to the slaves in the Confederate army.

Southerners were outraged. They said that the North could not use escaped slaves to work for them because they were prisoners of war. They demanded

that the Union generals return the 'hostages' to their plantations. But Union generals were not so easily put off. They insisted that the slaves could not possibly be 'hostages' because the Confederacy said slaves were property not people. In July 1862, Lincoln passed a new law which said the slaves could legally be held as 'contraband of war' and could work for the army rather than be sent back to their masters. They were still not allowed to join the Union army as soldiers.



▲ Union troops and contrabands outside a general's headquarters in the Civil War, 1864. The head of the woman on the left is shown twice. She must have moved it when the photograph was taken and, in those early days of photography, the camera could not cope

### First signs of freedom

From May 1862, as they took more slave-holding land and as more and more escaped slaves offered to fight against the South, some Union army generals took the initiative and allowed slaves to join the army as soldiers. Lincoln declared this unlawful, as he was still worried that the border states might change sides. But, in July, Congress passed a new law (the Second Confiscation Act) which said that any slave-holding land taken by the Union army became free automatically and Lincoln reluctantly agreed to confirm it.

One area where this new law had a huge impact was in the Sea Islands off the coast of South Carolina. There were 10,000 slaves working on plantations there when the Union troops arrived in 1861. In 1862, these slaves were freed and were allowed to keep the land to farm for themselves. They set up a new town called Mitchelville.

Northern volunteers (mainly women) soon came to offer the Sea Islanders healthcare and an education. One such volunteer was the black abolitionist heroine, Harriet Tubman. Tubman had spent decades helping slaves escape the South; now she came to the Sea Islands to be a nurse.



▲ Harriet Tubman, photographed c.1873

## Phase 2: 'Total war', 1863–65

In August 1862, when a newspaper accused him of being indecisive, Lincoln told the editor:

If I could save the Union without freeing any slave I would do it, and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves I would do it...

On 22 September 1862, Lincoln finally took a stand: he warned the Confederacy that if it did not surrender before the year was out, he would free every last slave permanently. Many abolitionists believed Lincoln had finally seen sense about the evils of slavery. Historian Adam Smith argues it was also a carefully calculated tool of war. Rumours were circulating that peace treaty negotiations were being considered. By making this proclamation, Lincoln was showing his soldiers that he was not prepared to compromise with the South. They must fight to the end.

No surrender came and so, on 1 January 1863, the Emancipation Proclamation was issued. Overnight, millions of slaves were given the promise that a Union victory in the Civil War would make them free people forever. Limited war was over. In this second phase of the war, slavery would now either triumph completely, or be destroyed completely. This was 'total war'.

## Black regiments from South and North

In autumn 1862, the first black regiment, the First South Carolina Volunteers, was formed from freed slaves. In January 1863, the 54th Massachusetts Coloured Regiment became the first Northern black regiment. Many more followed. Seventy per cent of Northern black men (33,000) joined the Union army, although some preferred to stay and work in the North as more jobs were available with so many white Americans away fighting. Ex-slaves played a major role in later victories in the war and for many whites, working and fighting alongside ex-slaves helped them to see black Americans as real people. The black soldiers however were sometimes poorly treated by white generals and were not allowed to become officers. They were often given heavy labour duties, such as digging ditches or hauling cannon. This was banned in 1864. They were paid less than whites and some regiments refused to accept any pay at all until it was made even. After much delay and the execution of a number of black soldiers for disobedience, equal pay was granted in June 1864. Black soldiers still could not serve as officers however.

▼ Black soldiers' duties in the Union army. From the *Frank Leslie Newspaper*, 1865



## Opportunities for freed slaves in the South

It was not just men who joined the Union army in 1862. Harriet Tubman served as a scout and a spy. A freed Georgia slave, Susie King Taylor, served as a battlefield nurse. She even spent time teaching poor white soldiers to read and write as she had managed to learn herself in secret. This was vital work. As it took over more lands in the South, the national government and voluntary organisations began to send missionaries to help the freed people make the transition to life outside the plantations. By 1865, some 200,000 freedmen had been taught how to read and write.

From 1863, in Union-held lands in the South, captured plantations were rented out, mainly to white investors from the North. These investors then employed thousands of freed slaves as paid labourers picking cotton. Although employment was supposed to be regulated and monitored, most cotton pickers were only given enough money to feed and clothe themselves. Whipping was banned, but the ex-slave workers were not allowed to leave these plantations.

In the final months of the war, as General Sherman cut through Confederate lines in the west on his march from Georgia to the sea, he was joined by thousands of freed slaves. Sherman got an agreement for each one to be given 40 acres of land and a mule, taken from slave holders' plantation lands.

In other areas, the Government agreed to rent small farms to freed slaves. In 1864, one inspector found that, of the 113,650 freedmen in the area of Mississippi and Arkansas, 41,150 were in military service and 62,300 were entirely self-supporting. They had taken jobs as firemen, field hands, labourers, mechanics, barbers and even businessmen. The Government offered ex-slaves \$10 a month to act as labourers in the Union army, but many found they could earn in excess of \$45 a month elsewhere. Only 10,200 were needing government aid and assistance.

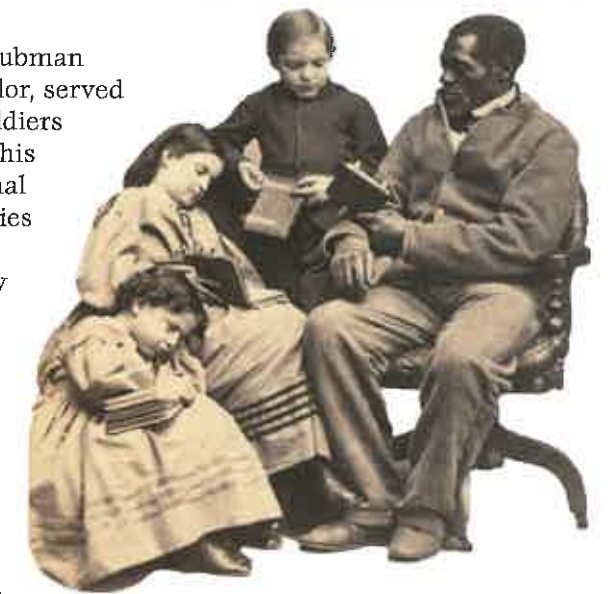
## A disturbing sign in the North

Many Americans respected the African Americans who volunteered to join the army. A very different attitude was shown in July 1863 in New York City. Congress had just passed a Conscription Act. This required all men aged between 20 and 45 to join the army. Rich men could avoid being called up by paying \$300. The white working classes of New York went on a rampage. They felt that they were being forced to fight for the freedom of African Americans. They ransacked places known to employ black workers, burned down the houses of black families, and lynched, drowned or beat many black citizens to death, before the four-day orgy of violence was ended.

It was a disturbing sign of problems ahead.

## Record

Look back at the table you have been completing since page 50. Use the notes you have made to amend and improve the 'over-simple' summary that it gives about the experience of African Americans during the Civil War.



▲ Freed slaves learning to read, c.1870

## Reflect

Which part of this inspector's report do you think was most encouraging?

▼ An engraving of a lynching in the New York riots, 1863



## Record

Start your final table, as described on page 45. Use the section heading 'Reconstruction and betrayal, 1865–77'.

Copy this over-simple summary into the space near the top of your table: 'The Reconstruction years from 1865 to 1877 were a betrayal of African-American hopes.'

## Reconstruction and betrayal, 1865–77

The Confederacy surrendered just before 4 p.m. on 9 April 1865. By this point, nearly 750,000 Americans lay dead. Eighteen of every 100 Confederate soldiers never came home, a rate three times higher than that for the Union. Now the destruction was over. The next challenge came to be called 'Reconstruction': the rebuilding of the nation.

### Presidential Reconstruction, 1865

Lincoln's actions to reconstruct the USA had already begun before the end of the war. The freedom of all slaves had been guaranteed on 31 January 1865, when Congress passed the 13th Amendment to the US Constitution, shown here.

#### The 13th Amendment to the Constitution of the USA

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall exist within the United States or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

On 4 March 1865, in the final weeks of the war, Abraham Lincoln had started his second term as President of the United States. In his speech that day he tried to win over the Southern states. He promised to work on the rebuilding of the country 'with malice toward none [and] with charity for all'. It was a fine aim, but a number of issues were still troubling him.

▼ Abraham Lincoln, 1865



Should the South be treated as conquered lands or brought back into the Union immediately?

What should happen to people who fought against the Union?

Should the South send representatives to Congress straight away? If they do, will they try to block Reconstruction?

If freed slaves are made citizens, won't this increase the population, and therefore the power, of the Southern states in Congress?

What will the status of black Americans be? Will they be free non-citizens like Indians, or full citizens?

### Assassination

In the end, Lincoln never had to deal with these issues. Less than a week after the surrender of Lee at Appomattox, the President was shot through the brain as he watched a play with his wife at Ford's Theatre, Washington. The assassin, John Wilkes Booth, said that he wanted to put a stop to 'nigger citizenship'. Booth tried to escape to the South but was shot dead a few days later.

Millions attended Lincoln's funeral procession, which travelled 1600 miles on the railroads Lincoln had helped to create. But as the crowds mourned the loss of the first Republican president, the fate of the Reconstruction project hung in the balance.

## Reflect

Which one of Lincoln's issues do you think would require the most urgent attention from Lincoln's successor?

## President Johnson's Reconstruction u-turn

It was the vice-president, Andrew Johnson, who took over as president when Lincoln was murdered. Although many abolitionists believed that he would continue to make black Americans more equal, in many ways he did the opposite.



▲ Engraving of Andrew Johnson, 1865

Johnson's aims	Johnson's actions
Believed his most important job after the war was to bring the country back together again.	Allowed the Confederate states to reapply for membership of the Union with almost immediate effect. This meant they got their old power back immediately.
Opposed the powerful plantation owners who served as generals and believed they should be punished, but did not think this should extend to other people who fought.	Planned to punish only the very top levels of the Confederate army. Published a plan to pardon 16,000 Confederate soldiers in May 1865.
Was suspicious of the US Government getting involved in state laws and forcing states to do things which they disagreed with.	Allowed Southern states to re-establish their state governments with little interference.
Strongly believed that the poor whites in the South needed protecting and defending from the growth of big businesses and capitalist Northern industry.	Returned lands that had previously been given to ex-slaves, including the Sea Islands. Only 2000 black families held on to the land they had been given.

### The situation by December 1865

In December 1865, President Johnson said Reconstruction was finished. It was a remark that shocked most of his Republican Party. The state governments of the South were back in the hands of plantation owners. Some had not even sworn an oath of loyalty to the Union but had still been pardoned by Johnson.

Although no Southern state tried to enslave African Americans again, they all passed laws that had virtually the same effect. These laws became known as the 'Black Codes'. They limited the rights of black workers, stopping them from serving on juries or giving evidence against white people in trials, banning marriages between black and white Americans, and making black ownership of weapons illegal. The laws differed from state to state but had much the same effect. Mississippi ruled that African Americans were not allowed to rent or own farmland. Louisiana said that they had to work for the same employer for a full year and never leave his land in that time.

Behind all these laws, more sinister forms of control and intimidation grew. By December 1865, the Ku Klux Klan, a violent, racist group, had been formed and was threatening and even murdering African Americans at will.

## Reflect

What were the Black Codes and why did Southern states pass them?

## Radical Reconstruction, 1866–70

Congress had not been meeting during President Johnson's first months in office. When it finally met in December 1865, many believed that Johnson had overstepped the mark by doing all these things with little support from his own party. Radical, anti-slavery Republicans like Thaddeus Stevens and Charles Sumner challenged the President for control of the Reconstruction project. They argued that, by forming the Confederacy, Southern states had given up their rights to rule themselves until they proved they could be trusted. The radicals insisted that Southern states should be run by Congress, a bit like territories. They also said that the Union army should stay in the South to protect black rights.

By February 1866, under the influence of these radicals, Congress had begun putting a new Reconstruction plan into action and undoing Johnson's changes.

### Reflect

Which of Congress's actions in the flow chart below do you think would have most pleased freed slaves?

#### February 1866

Before his death, President Lincoln had set up a temporary Freedman's Bureau. This took land from ex-slave holders and gave it out to ex-slaves. It also helped them with education and healthcare. Congress made the Bureau permanent, but found that it now had little land left to give out to black families.

#### March 1866

Congress introduced a civil rights bill to make it a federal (national) crime, punishable by fine and imprisonment, to deprive any person of his or her civil rights. President Johnson vetoed the bill twice but Congress overrode his veto.

#### June 1866

Congress approved the 14th Amendment to the Constitution which said that all persons born in the United States were to be seen as citizens, regardless of race.

#### November 1866

Republicans gained a huge majority in elections to Congress, allowing them to push for even more radical changes.

#### January 1867

Black men in Washington DC were given the right to vote for the first time. This paved the way for other Southern states.

#### March–July 1867

Congress passed three Reconstruction Acts. These:

- removed all state governments in the ex-Confederacy, dividing the South into five military districts to be run by Union generals
- banned all people who fought against the Union in the Civil War from voting
- required army officers to make sure that voters were properly registered and that black rights were protected
- required Confederate states to write a new constitution, allow black Americans to vote, and agree to accept the 13th and 14th Amendments before they could be permitted to run themselves again.

Over the next year, the work of Reconstruction went ahead in the Southern states under the watchful control of the army generals who had been given that role.

#### The 14th Amendment to the Constitution of the USA

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

## The radicals' achievements continue

By June 1868, seven Southern states (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina and South Carolina) had met the standards set and were re-admitted to the Union. The three remaining states (Virginia, Mississippi and Texas) were expected to rejoin the union later in the year. By the 1870s, over 2000 black Americans were elected to political posts ranging from the Senate down to state governments. In this display you can see the number of black politicians in the South Carolina State Government around 1876.

Then, in July, the 14th Amendment became law. It was a landmark change and overturned rulings such as the Dred Scott case of 1857 which had ruled that Americans who were descended from African slaves could not be citizens of the United States. Now they could be ... and were.

To add to the delight of radical Republicans, in November 1868 Andrew Johnson lost the election to their preferred candidate – ex-Union general, Ulysses S. Grant.



◀ A display made up of photographs of members of the Government in South Carolina, 1876

### Reflect

Why do you think this display might have been made?

#### The 15th Amendment to the Constitution of the USA

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

President Grant had not even taken up office when, on 3 February 1870, the 15th Amendment to the Constitution was accepted. This declared that every US citizen had the right to vote, regardless of race. At this point, the radicals must have felt that all was going their way. It did not last.

## Reconstruction loses its way

The pace and direction of Reconstruction faltered after 1870. There were several reasons for this.

### Southern resistance

Many Southerners were furious at what they saw as the national government's interference in state government. They complained that the Reconstruction programme was being exploited by two different groups:

- 'Scallwags' – people from the South who foolishly sympathised with the radicals' views.
- 'Carpetbaggers' – people who had moved in from the North to make quick money by buying up ex-plantation land and selling it on for profit. Their name came from the luggage they brought with them.

Southern newspapers and leading families accused both these groups of being corrupt and of driving the South into debt by borrowing vast sums of money.

### Radical weaknesses

Despite the great achievements of the radical Republicans in Congress, the Reconstruction project began to slow down by 1870. Two reasons for this were the death of many key Republicans between 1868 and 1875, and the loss of their majority in Congress in the 1874 elections. Alongside this came other unpleasant changes. In 1872, the Freedmen's Bureau was closed down as funds could not be found. This cut off much-needed support for ex-slaves.

To make matters worse, during the 1870s black citizens were being increasingly targeted by extremist groups such as the Ku Klux Klan and the White League. All voting was done in public and it was a brave ex-slave who would vote for a radical in state elections. Many black families were now 'sharecroppers', living on land owned by whites and giving them two-thirds of their crops each year as rent. This system gave significant control to white landowners who could threaten to take away the land at any time. It also kept black farmers poor. They did not dare upset the landowners by voting for radicals.

When the radicals complained to President Grant he promised assistance, but sent none. He had become worried that the Reconstruction programme was interfering in state government and that white voters thought he was paying too much attention to freed slaves when he should really be looking after the economy, which had hit serious problems. Northern newspapers suggested that black Americans needed to stop playing the baby and stand on their own feet. Slowly black voters were bullied out of the voting booths.

Above all, Southerners were convinced that the 14th Amendment would give the vote to illiterate African Americans who would ruin the South for ever.

It is true that some corrupt Northern Congressmen gave important posts in the South to big business owners and their Republican friends. It is also true that some new politicians in the South used state money to line their own pockets. (One granted himself \$1000 to cover his gambling debts.) Yet what most Southerners failed to recognise was that most states were still dominated by white voters, as ex-slaves failed to meet the property qualifications applied to would-be voters. As for the corruption, which certainly did occur, this happened all over the USA. The debts that were being run up to fund Reconstruction were greatly exaggerated by the old plantation-owning families, and without some significant borrowing the South could never be rebuilt.



▲ Engraving of sharecroppers in the Deep South, c.1875

## Supreme Court rulings

In 1873, the Supreme Court ruled that while all citizens had to be treated equally in national issues, such as voting, there was nothing in the Constitution that required them to be treated equally at state level. This opened the door to the re-introduction of segregation in the South: the creation of separate parks, schools, restaurants and other amenities for blacks and whites.

The Supreme Court delivered a second blow to the hopes of African Americans and their supporters in 1875. It ruled that the Constitution did not give the national government the power to intervene if black voters were being stopped from voting in the states. Soon the politicians like those shown on page 57 were out of office and new state governments were

dominated by ex-Confederate officers, elected mainly by white voters.

By the mid-1870s, a new generation of Americans were more interested in westward expansion and losing interest in the decade-old struggles of the Civil War. Finally, in 1877, the remaining soldiers that the Republicans had stationed in the South were withdrawn. Black citizens were left to fend for themselves. In the view of the cartoonist who created the image below in 1874, the nation was ruled by 'a white man's government' and the lives of African Americans were lived under threat from extremists like the White League and the Ku Klux Klan. As the text in the centre of the image says, this life was 'worse than slavery'.



▲ A cartoonist's view of the life of African Americans in the south of the USA by 1874

### Reflect

Why were the lives of many black Americans 'worse than slavery' by 1874 despite the encouraging signs in 1870?

### Record

Look back at the table you have been completing since page 54. Use the notes you have made to amend and improve the 'over-simple' summary that it gives about the experience of African Americans during the Civil War.

## Review

In 1865, shortly before he died, President Lincoln described the Civil War as 'a new birth of freedom' for the nation. Use what you have learned in this Enquiry to say whether you think this would be a good title for a new history book covering the period of the American Civil War and Reconstruction from 1861 to 1877.

## John Brown – fanatical abolitionist

Most Northern abolitionists were committed to using peaceful methods to argue their case. John Brown was different.

This portrait of Brown was painted in 1859 by Ole Peter Hansen Børling, a Norwegian artist working in the USA. It shows something of Brown's intense and fanatical devotion to the abolition of slavery in America. This fanaticism led to two famous incidents that were landmarks in the USA's drift into civil war.

After years of hardship, family bereavements and failures in various types of work across the Northern states, Brown felt God was calling him to commit his life to the cause of abolitionism. He became involved in the Underground Railroad and this led him to meet the great ex-slave abolitionist Frederick Douglass in 1847. Clearly Brown was already considering the use of violence in the cause of abolitionism at that stage, as Douglass later wrote:

From this night spent with John Brown in Springfield, Mass. 1847 while I continued to write and speak against slavery, I became all the same less hopeful for its peaceful abolition. My utterances became more and more tinged by the colour of this man's strong impressions.

Douglass was right to worry.



▲ A portrait of the abolitionist John Brown, 1859

### 'Bleeding Kansas'

In 1854, the territory of Kansas was thrown open for pro- and anti-slavery settlers to move in ahead of any vote about whether it should become a slave state (see page 48). The brutal violence between supporters of each cause meant that the territory became known as 'Bleeding Kansas'.

By 1856, Brown had lost patience with any idea of peaceful resistance as news came through of a dreadful attack by pro-slavery settlers against the anti-slavery town of Lawrence. He went to Kansas where some of his sons lived and gathered them together. They then kidnapped five pro-slavery settlers and hacked them to death with swords. His actions made him a hero of many in the anti-slavery movement and fed further violence that claimed more than 200 lives in Kansas over three years.

Eighty years later, a Kansas artist, John Curry, painted Brown's actions in a mural (see page 61, top). The original is held in Kansas City's state capitol building. In the mural, Brown is seen on a Kansas plain. In the distance, fires burn and a tornado rips through the land. Brown himself looks like another force of nature. He holds a bible in one hand and a rifle in the other. Behind him a line of settlers makes its way across the plain while settlers from the North and South stand face to face in deadly opposition. At Brown's feet lie the bodies of a Unionist and a Confederate soldier.

Curry's dramatic picture shows Brown's mission as a bloody dress rehearsal for the Civil War which would tear the USA in half in 1861. Three years after his Kansas butchery, Brown once again helped move the USA closer to war.



▲ A mural of John Brown from the Kansas state capitol called *Tragic Prelude*, painted by John Curry, c.1938–40

### The attack on Harper's Ferry

In October 1859, Brown was in Virginia with a small band of committed followers. He was planning to attack an arms store at Harper's Ferry, where large quantities of US army weapons and ammunition were held. He would then march on Virginia's slave plantations, freeing slaves and arming them. He was confident that within days he could be leading a large army of freed and well-armed slaves through the South and that this action would eventually bring slavery to an end.

Brown tried to persuade Frederick Douglass to support him, but Douglass refused to help, telling Brown that the plan was sure to fail and was also sure to bring the abolitionist cause into disrepute.

The attack went ahead on 16 October and, sure enough, it was a dismal failure. Several of Brown's followers were killed. Brown himself was captured and imprisoned. The portrait on page 60 shows him wrapped in his prison cloak. He defended himself passionately at his trial but he was found guilty and, on 2 December 1859, he was hanged.

Even those who disapproved of his methods came to admire Brown's commitment and he was soon seen as an abolitionist hero by some. A legend grew up that on his way to his death, Brown calmly kissed a black slave child, but there is no evidence for this. The scene, however, became a popular subject for paintings where Brown appears as some sort of saintly prophet, going calmly to his death as a martyr.



▲ John Brown blessing a child on the way to his execution, by Thomas Noble, 1867

## Smoke and blood

### Settlement and conflict on the Plains, 1861–77

In 1845, the writer John O'Sullivan wrote an article in *The Morning Post* newspaper in which he introduced Americans to the phrase 'Manifest Destiny'. This was the idea that God had given North America to the United States so that white Americans could promote progress, freedom and democracy across the whole of America. O'Sullivan did not mention the existence of slavery, or the presence of Native Americans in the lands which he thought white Americans should occupy.

Several white American artists tried to portray the idea of 'Manifest Destiny'. The picture below was painted by Frances Palmer in 1868. It has appeared in more history books in the USA than any other image and has helped to shape the way in which generations of Americans have viewed America's westward expansion. Frances Palmer created her painting at a time when white Americans had begun to settle not only in the Far West, but also in the middle of America on the Great Plains.

▼ *Across the Continent: 'Westward the course of Empire takes its way', by Frances F. Palmer, 1868*

#### Reflect

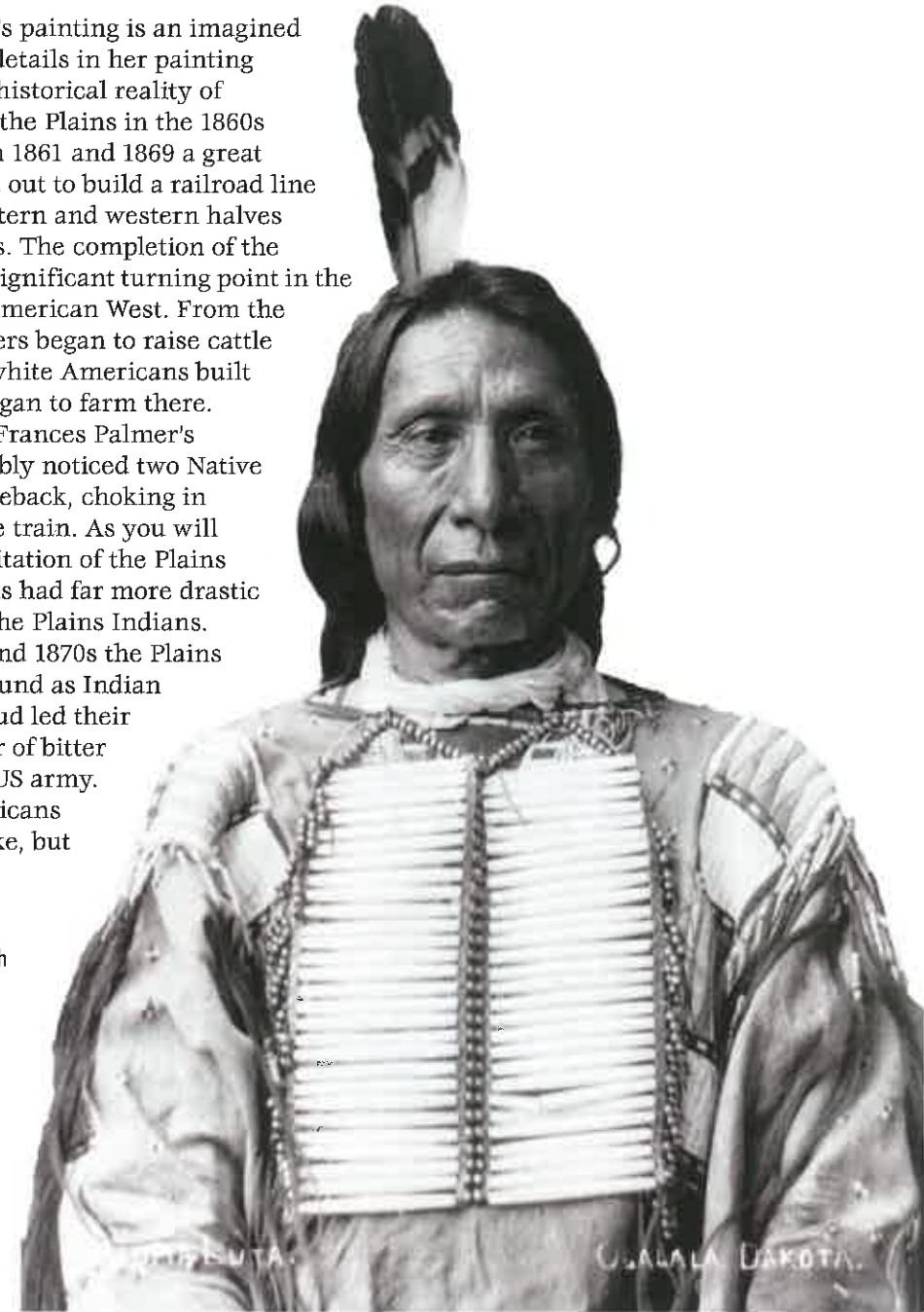
Look carefully at Frances Palmer's painting and describe the ways in which she portrayed the idea of 'Manifest Destiny'.



Frances Palmer's painting is an imagined scene, but several details in her painting were based on the historical reality of what happened on the Plains in the 1860s and 1870s. Between 1861 and 1869 a great project was carried out to build a railroad line connecting the eastern and western halves of the United States. The completion of the railroad marked a significant turning point in the settlement of the American West. From the 1860s, cattle ranchers began to raise cattle on the Plains and white Americans built homesteads and began to farm there.

On the right of Frances Palmer's painting you probably noticed two Native Americans on horseback, choking in the smoke from the train. As you will discover, the exploitation of the Plains by white Americans had far more drastic consequences for the Plains Indians. During the 1860s and 1870s the Plains became a battleground as Indian chiefs like Red Cloud led their people in a number of bitter conflicts with the US army. Many Native Americans choked not in smoke, but in their own blood.

► Red Cloud: a photograph taken by Charles Bell in Washington, DC, 1880



#### The Enquiry

In this Enquiry you will find out about the railway builders, ranchers and homesteaders who transformed the Plains in the years after 1861. You will also study the conflict between US forces and the Native Americans in the period 1861–77. Your challenge is to write three clear and detailed explanations to answer the following questions:

1. How did railroads and ranches change the Plains?
2. How did homesteaders survive and thrive on the Plains?
3. Why was there so much bloodshed on the Plains between 1861 and 1877?

As you read each section you will need to make notes, which you can then use to write your explanations.

## How did railroads and ranches change the Plains?



▲ A photograph of the driving in of the last spike at the joining of the Central Pacific and Union Pacific Railroads at Promontory Point, Utah, 10 May 1869

This photograph portrays an important moment in American history. On 10 May 1869 a crowd of workers and politicians gathered at Promontory Point in the Utah desert to watch as the final spike was hammered into the rails of America's first transcontinental railroad (railway). The honour was given to Leland Stanford, president of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, which had financed the construction of the line from San Francisco. Stanford lifted the silver hammer high above his head and brought it down towards the connecting spike. He missed. The telegraph operator ignored this and sent the message that America was now connected from coast to coast. In New York and San Francisco cannon were fired and politicians made speeches celebrating this great achievement of the United States.

### Building the railroads

As early as 1853, the US Government had paid \$150,000 to survey possible transcontinental railroad routes, but the existing railroad companies did not have the funds to take on such a large project. When President Lincoln was elected in 1861 he knew that a transcontinental railway would provide opportunities for American business and would give people the opportunity to start their own farms in the West. In July 1862, Lincoln approved the Pacific Railroad Act. This stated that the US Government would provide money for any companies willing to create a railroad linking the eastern and western halves of the country. The US Government also offered the railroad companies free land on either side of the track which could be sold to settlers. Not only would the railroad make it easier for migrants to travel to the Far West, but it would also enable white Americans to start farming on the Plains.



▲ A map of the main railways in the West, c.1880

### Money and land

In California, the Central Pacific Railroad Company was awarded the contract to build the line from the West. The Central Pacific had been set up in 1860 by five shopkeepers who invested \$350,000 in the company. The Union Pacific Company built the line from the East. Its funding came mainly from a large number of speculators hoping to make a profit. At first, government investment was slow because of the large amount of money that was required to fight the Civil War. However, as the war began to draw to a close, the Government started pumping more money into the railroads. In 1864, over \$50 million was made available to encourage the companies to start building. It was easier for the Government to stick to its promise of granting land to the railroad companies. Across the Plains, the companies received 6400 acres of land for every mile of track they built. By the time the transcontinental railway was completed, the two main railroad companies owned an area of land which was greater than the whole state of Texas.



▲ A flatcar filled with European immigrants being shown potential farming sites in Kansas

## The impact of the railways on the Plains

Thousands of workers were needed to build the new track. In the West, the Central Pacific Company employed 12,000 Chinese migrants to do the dangerous work of tunnelling through the rock of the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains. As the lines rolled out across the Plains, men worked six days a week in baking sun or winter snows to complete the railroad. They lived in temporary towns of tents. Sanitation was poor and disease was a danger. America's transcontinental railway cost many lives through accident and illness.

When the transcontinental railway opened in 1869 it was praised as a great American achievement. Soon, a network of lines began to spread across the West. On the Plains, towns emerged which would play an important part in the cattle trade. At first, these were unruly places with much drinking, gambling and violence. The railway companies sold land cheaply to people who wanted to build farms on the Plains. During the 1870s, there was a flood of homesteaders moving into the Plains, not only from America but also from Europe.

The construction of the railroads across the Plains had a serious impact on the culture of the Native Americans. The railroads divided the lands where the Indians had once hunted buffalo. Cattle towns and homesteads intruded on the vast areas of grassland over which the Plains Indians needed to roam to follow the buffalo herds. Americans with a completely different culture from the Native Americans came to dominate the Plains.

### Reflect

What were the main ways in which the railroads changed the Plains?

## The cattle business

It was the Spanish who first brought cattle to America. In the first half of the nineteenth century southern Texas became an important centre of cattle ranching. By the 1850s, when beef became a popular food in America, Texas ranchers made big profits by producing a breed of cattle known as the Texas longhorn. The cattle roamed freely, grazing on what the cattlemen called 'the open range'. From time to time, cowboys rounded up the cattle into large herds and drove them to markets and cities, mainly in the southeast of the USA. By the 1850s cattlemen had even begun to drive cattle as far as California and Chicago.

▼ A Texan longhorn



▲ A map of the main cattle trails and cow towns in the 1870s

### Reflect

What factors led to the development of the northern cattle trails?

### Developing the northern trails

During the Civil War, many Texan ranchers fought on the losing Confederate side. The war brought an end to the cattle trails, but when the ranchers returned in 1865 they found that their cattle herds had increased hugely in number. The returning cattlemen knew that there was huge demand for cattle in the industrial cities of the North and that they could make a lot of money by developing northern cattle trails. The ranchers hired cowboys and began to organise regular drives to the northern cities. They soon began to take advantage of the new railroads which crossed the northern plains. Now the cattlemen only had to drive their cattle as far as the towns on the railroads.

Some cattlemen also made a fortune by supplying US forts and Indian reservations, miners and railroad builders with beef. In 1866, Charles Goodnight and his business partner Oliver Loving hired eighteen cowboys to drive 2000 cattle to these Plains markets. They sold the whole lot for \$24,000, a small fortune. News of the success of Texan ranchers spread like wildfire and soon others were getting in on the action. During the 1870s, the long drives of cattle were a common sight on the Plains.

## Cow towns

The cattle drives created another type of opportunity to exploit the Plains for profit – cow towns. In 1867, Joseph McCoy set up the town of Abilene, Kansas. He bought up land from the railroad companies, built stock pens and set about advertising his town as the ideal place to bring cattle for transport to the cities of the North and East. As the railroads grew, other cow towns began to appear. You can see some of these on the map above.

The first cow towns were riotous and often violent places. The depictions in the Western films are not far from the reality. Cowboys arrived after weeks on the trails. They often took the opportunity to buy a clean set of clothes and have their photo taken before

heading to a saloon. Many cowboys drank a lot of whisky, gambled and spent their money on prostitutes. Sometimes there was violence, but in the 1870s gun laws were introduced and sheriffs were employed to keep order. The violent cow towns of the Western films did not last very long.

Westerns also failed to show the reality of the cowboy life on the long drive. Cowboys worked from dawn until dusk, riding their horses and driving the cattle on the hot, dusty Plains. Most cowboys were poor young men working for low wages. They often felt that one cattle drive was enough. Around a third of cowboys were Mexicans, Indians or ex-slaves hoping to find a new life and a little money.

▼ Dodge City, 1878



### Cattle ranches

Some cattlemen began to see that driving cattle long distances from southern Texas to the cow towns was less efficient than rearing cattle on the Plains themselves. John Iliff was a failed gold prospector from the 1858–59 Pike's Peak gold rush (see page 40). In 1866, he bought cattle from Charles Goodnight and from migrants travelling the Oregon Trail. Iliff kept the animals on the Plains to be closer to the cattle towns. Other ranchers soon followed his example and by the 1870s cattle ranching had spread across the central Plains.

The ranches were 'open ranges'. Ranch owners did not fence in their lands and relied on cowboys to stop their herds wandering too far. However, cattle ranching led to a scarcity of water and grass for the buffalo herds. The traditional hunting grounds of the Plains tribes were disrupted and some Native American tribes faced the threat of starvation. This sometimes led to violent clashes between ranchers and Indians. Soon ranchers were asking the Government to send the army to defend their property.

### Reflect

What can we learn from the photograph above about Dodge City in 1878?

### Record

Write a clear and detailed explanation to answer the question: **How did railroads and ranches change the Plains?**

## How did homesteaders survive and thrive on the Plains?

**IF YOU WANT A FARM OR HOME**  
**"THE BEST THING IN THE WEST"**  
**Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe**  
**RAILROAD**  
**LANDS**  
**IN SOUTHWEST KANSAS.**

**Temperate Climate, Excellent Health, Pure and Abundant Water.**  
**GOOD SOIL FOR WHEAT, CORN AND FRUIT.**  
**The Best Stock Country in the World.**

Or to **For Full Information apply to**  
 Agent, **LAND COMMISSIONER,**  
 A. T. & S. F. R. R., Topeka, Kas.

Wheeler & Smith, G. H. Schmidt, Deutsche Westl. Dgt., Topeka, Kas.  
 Knight & Leonard, Printers, Chicago.

▲ A railroad advertisement for lands in Kansas

### Reflect

How did this railroad advertisement try to attract homesteaders to the Plains?

The cattlemen built profitable ranches and used the Plains for grazing, but they did not fence the land and try to grow crops. It was the farmers known as 'homesteaders' who first tried to turn the Plains into rich farmlands. The homesteaders had begun settling on the Plains before 1861 but they were few in number. In the 1860s and 1870s, hundreds of thousands of homesteaders headed west. These people included free slaves from the Southern states, immigrants from Europe and Americans from the East. In the 1870s, over half a million homesteaders moved to just one of the states in the mid-West – Kansas.

### Moving to the Plains

Three factors led to this explosion of people moving onto the Plains after 1861:

- Many Americans and European immigrants dreamed of becoming independent farmers with their own land. The high price of land in the Eastern states, and increasing prices in Oregon and California in the 1860s, meant that many people could only fulfil their dream by buying cheaper land on the Plains.
- To encourage people to become landowners, Lincoln's Government introduced the Homestead Act in 1862. This promised people 160 acres of Plains land if they farmed it for a full five years and paid a small fee. For many people this was too good an offer to refuse. The Homestead Act allowed women to apply for land as well as men, as long as they were single. Records show that between 5 and 15 per cent of all homesteads were owned by women.
- The railroad companies created demand for their railroads and land by promoting the West as a land of great opportunity. From the 1860s, they began a huge advertising campaign, not only in America but also in Europe. You can see an example of a railroad company advertisement on the left.

### Living on the Plains

For most who went west, life on the Plains was very different from the one portrayed on the railroad posters. Building a new life and raising a family on the Plains required courage and determination. Each family had a different story to tell, but few homesteaders left much evidence of their struggles to survive and thrive on the Plains. One exception is the Oblinger family, who have left a rich record of their lives in the 1870s.

#### The Oblinger family – a case study

▶ The Oblinger family, c.1870



Uriah Oblinger set out to Nebraska with his brother in 1872. He left his wife (Mattie) and his young daughter (Ella) back in Indiana. On 6 October 1872, he wrote back to them from his 'government claim' in Nebraska:

Dear wife & baby

Well I suppose the first question you would ask me now would be, How do you like Nebraska? Wife ... you can see just as far as you please here, and almost every foot in sight can be ploughed ... The longer I stay here the better I like it.

Over the next year, Uriah built the house which he and his family would live in. In the spring of 1873, Mattie and Ella came out to join him, bringing all their worldly possessions and a large number of chickens. On 16 June 1873, Mattie wrote to her family back in Indiana:

Dear Brother & Sister & all of Uncle Wheelers:

Thinking you would like to hear from us and hear how we are prospering ... The reason I have not written sooner [is] I have not had the time ... I have been here two Sundays ... We have a good Sunday school in progress now. I suppose there must be about fifty enrolled ... We have our bibles and hymn books and we all gather together and read a lesson...

I get milk & butter from Mrs Furgison who lives 1/4 of a mile from us [we] get the milk for nothing and pay twelve cents a pound for butter ... Most all of the people here live in sod houses and dug outs ... The one we are in at present is 14 by 16 and a dirt floor...

I wish I had a cow or two to milk, I would feel quite proud then. Think [we] will get one after the harvest ... The wheat and oats looks well here...

Almost every man here does his own work yet for they are not able to hire [men]. I think it will be quite different in a few years. Uriah has 23 acres of sod corn planted it looks real well I tell you it is encouraging to have out a lot of corn and all your own ... Uriah is breaking sod to day he will soon have 40 acres turned over then it will be ready to go into right next Spring.

The Oblingers continued to farm their claim through the 1870s. Mattie died in childbirth in 1880. Uriah was devastated and returned to Indiana. But his desire to farm on the Plains did not disappear. Eventually he remarried and returned to Nebraska to become a homesteader once again.

### Reflect

- 1 What challenges did the Oblingers face when they moved to Nebraska?
- 2 What helped them to survive and thrive on the Plains?

## Surviving and thriving

In this photograph you can see another homesteader family (the Beckwiths) in front of their Nebraska homestead. Like so many others, the Beckwiths were drawn to the Plains by the promise of cheap land and a better life. But homesteaders faced many difficulties in living and farming on the Plains. For nearly half of all homesteaders the challenge was too great and they were forced to move to the nearest city or back to the East.

### Reflect

As you read the information boxes, think about the challenges facing the homesteaders and how they were able to overcome some of them.

#### Keeping healthy

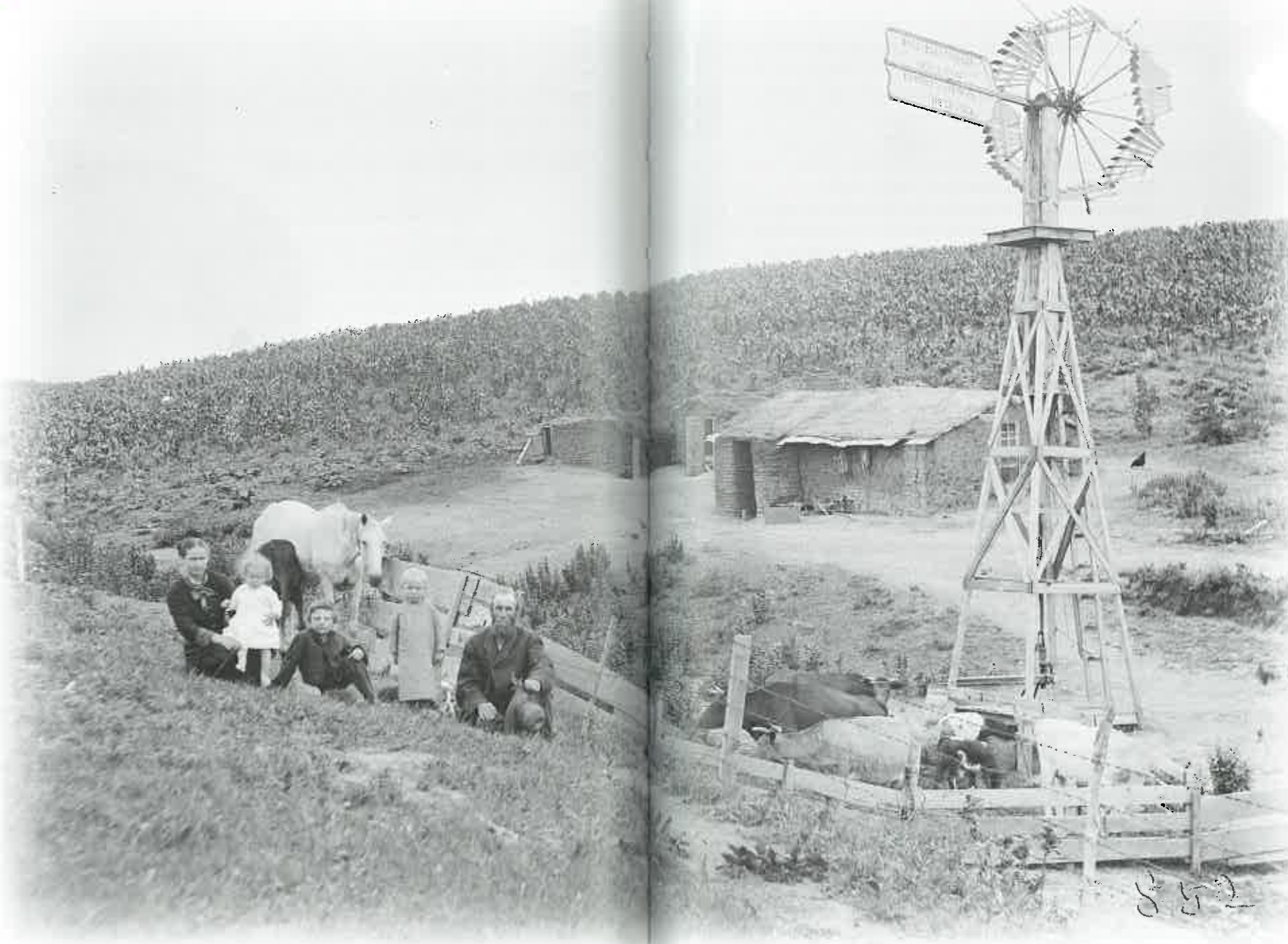
Cleanliness was a major issue for the homesteaders. Because most houses had an earth floor, sod walls and a grass roof, mice, fleas and bed bugs were a constant problem. The lack of water in summer meant that it was difficult to keep clean and in the winter homesteaders could face hardship and hunger. Diseases such as cholera, typhoid, scarlet fever, pneumonia and smallpox were common. The death of a child devastated many families.

#### Lack of water

The climate of the Plains was extreme. In winter, homesteaders faced freezing temperatures and deep snow. In summer, temperatures could rise to 30°C and droughts were common. Lack of water was a serious problem for many homesteaders. Not only did they need a regular supply of drinking water, but without water their crops would shrivel and die. For most homesteaders, the best solution was to drill a deep hole into the ground and then build a wind pump to bring the water to the surface. You can see the Beckwiths' wind pump in the photograph.

'Dry farming' was another solution to the lack of water. Farmers ploughed their land whenever there was heavy rain. This left a thin layer of fine soil on top of the land which trapped the water. Many farmers also began to use 'Turkey Red' wheat from Russia. This could withstand the frost and could be grown in the winter and spring when there was more moisture in the soil.

▼ The Beckwith family, Nebraska, 1888



#### Isolation

Families on the Plains usually lived many miles away from their nearest neighbour and it was often a long journey to the nearest town. People were forced to live isolated lives away from their wider families in Europe or the Eastern states of America. They needed to be tough and independent. Eventually, as more homesteaders moved onto the Plains, churches and schools were built, but contact with other families was always limited.

#### Ploughing the land

All homesteaders faced the immediate challenge of ploughing their land so that they could plant seed. There was a shortage of labour on the Plains so the homesteaders had to do all the ploughing themselves. The Plains had never been ploughed before and the grasses which grew there had tough roots which formed a dense, tangled mat. The iron ploughs which the homesteaders brought with them often broke under the strain and had to be repaired constantly.

#### Building a house

Most homesteaders lived far from the woods on the edge of the Plains. The lack of trees on the prairies meant that building a house was one of the first challenges they faced. Most ended up building sod houses or 'soddies'. These were made from dry blocks of earth (sods). Grass was often used for the roof, and the walls were sometimes covered with mud to make them more watertight. In the 1860s and 1870s, most sod houses had holes for windows with simple shutters. If built properly they could be cool in summer and warm in winter. However, many families had to learn how to build a sod house the hard way, and a good number leaked or collapsed during storms.

#### Keeping warm

With no wood to burn, keeping warm in the harsh winters was a challenge for the homesteaders. Their only option was to burn dried buffalo and cow droppings, or 'chips', to stay warm. Mattie Oblinger described how the chips were collected:

Each picker would tie a rope to the handle of an old washtub and pull it around over the grass and pick up all the chips they could find. They would fill the tubs, then empty them into the wagon until it was full. Then it was unloaded in a pile. This operation was repeated till a pile of chips were built up to 10–12 feet long and as high as they could be piled.

#### Hazards

In the summer months, when the grasslands of the prairies were bone dry, there was a great danger of fire. When a fire took hold across the Plains, homesteads were destroyed and families could be forced to give up their holdings. Another hazard on the Plains was locusts. Between 1874 and 1877, locusts swarmed across parts of the Great Plains. They not only ate crops but also leather boots, clothes and even wooden window frames. A swarm of locust could devastate a homestead and leave families with no crops to sell.

#### Fencing the land

Unlike the cattlemen, homesteaders needed to fence their property to show exactly which land belonged to them. They also needed to stop cattle from straying onto land which they had planted with crops. The lack of timber on the Plains, and the fact that it was difficult for hedging plants to survive, meant that fencing the land was a problem. Homesteaders were helped by the invention of barbed wire in 1874 by Joseph Glidden. This became a cheap and easy way to fence a homestead.

### Record

Write a clear and detailed explanation to answer the question: **How did homesteaders survive and thrive on the Plains?**

## Why was there so much bloodshed on the Plains, 1861–77?

▶ A Winchester rifle



▲ A map showing the main clashes between the Indians and the US army, 1861–77

As more ranchers and homesteaders followed their own vision of a West filled with small farms and towns, tensions with Indians rose. Through the 1860s and 1870s, Indians who held onto their own vision of a nomadic life came into bloody conflict with white settlers and their government. There were three underlying reasons for the conflict:

- 1 Ecological tensions.** As you discovered in Enquiry 2 (pages 28–29), there was often intense competition for land between different tribes on the Plains. The growing number of white settlers created even more competition for resources and added to the pressure. By 1860, white American settlement meant that the ecological tensions created by competition for grassland and water had reached a crisis point.
- 2 Hardening attitudes.** There was a general hardening of attitudes between white Americans and Indians in the 1860s. For white Americans,

scientific theories of race supported the idea that they were genetically superior to other races. The idea that Indians should lose their lands was seen by some as entirely natural. Government attitudes were also hardening. As white Americans began to settle on the Plains, the US Government came under pressure to sign treaties with different tribes, concentrating the Native Americans on smaller reservations. There, Indians had to survive on rations supplied by the Government, or convert to a farming way of life and feed themselves. Groups of young warriors from different tribes promised that they would never bow to this white vision of their future. From the 1850s, these warrior societies drew larger followings from the Plains Indians as the tensions grew.

- 3 Guns and fear.** Some historians argue that growing gun ownership, coupled with increasing suspicion and fear, was an important cause of the violence on the Plains. By the 1850s, owning handguns and revolvers had become normal. Winchester's repeating rifles were sold to hunters, farmers, local militia and Indians alike. The Civil War led to a huge increase in gun ownership. By 1865, one in every three households owned at least one gun. As fear grew on both sides, guns were used more and more to 'solve' conflicts.

In the period 1861–77 these underlying tensions led to a number of terrible wars on the Plains.

### Record

In this section you will study four of the worst conflicts between the Plains Indians and white Americans in the years 1861–77:

1. Little Crow's War, 1861–62
2. The Sand Creek Massacre, 1864
3. Red Cloud's War, 1865–68
4. The Great Sioux War, 1875–77.

As you find out about each conflict, make notes on the following factors at work:

1. Disputes over land
2. Problems on the reservations
3. The words and actions of individuals
4. Violence and revenge

## Little Crow's War, 1861–62

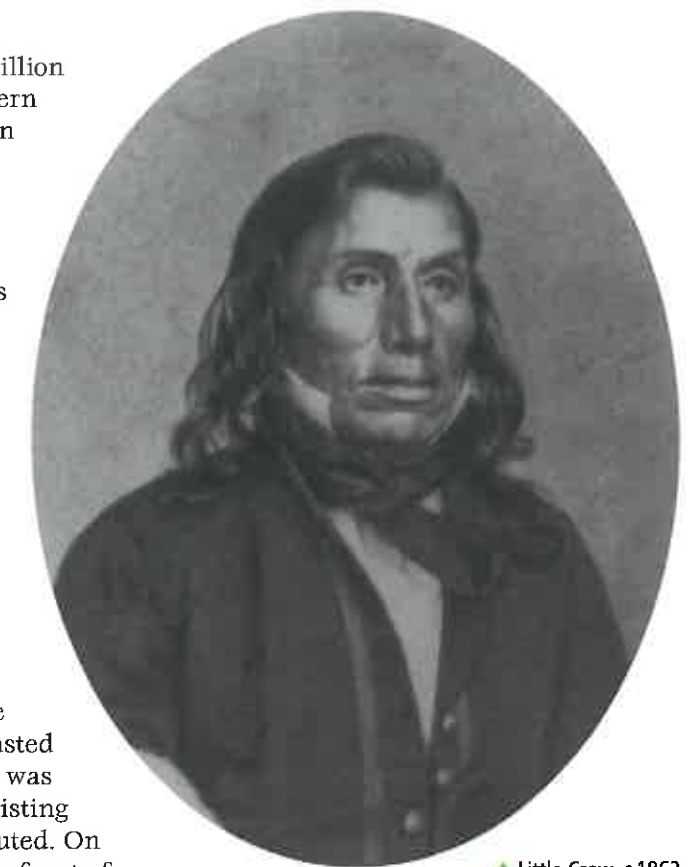
By 1861, the Santee Sioux had been forced to give up 28 million acres of land in exchange for a small reservation in southern Minnesota. In the summer of 1862, a lack of meat and corn meant that the Santee Sioux faced starvation. But the government agent in charge of the Minnesota reservation refused to open up the emergency stores. When Chief Little Crow came to negotiate with one of the reservation traders, he was told: 'If they are hungry, let them eat grass or their own dung.' The Sioux delegation was furious.

Within two days, there was an explosion of violence. The Sioux attacked farms, towns and even army forts. In all, around 500 settlers were slaughtered by Little Crow's followers. The trader whose words had sparked the incident was found dead, his mouth stuffed with grass. When Minnesota soldiers fought back, Little Crow was forced to fight a retreat up a river valley. On 23 September, he was surrounded and killed. US soldiers cut off his head and scalp and put on them on public display.

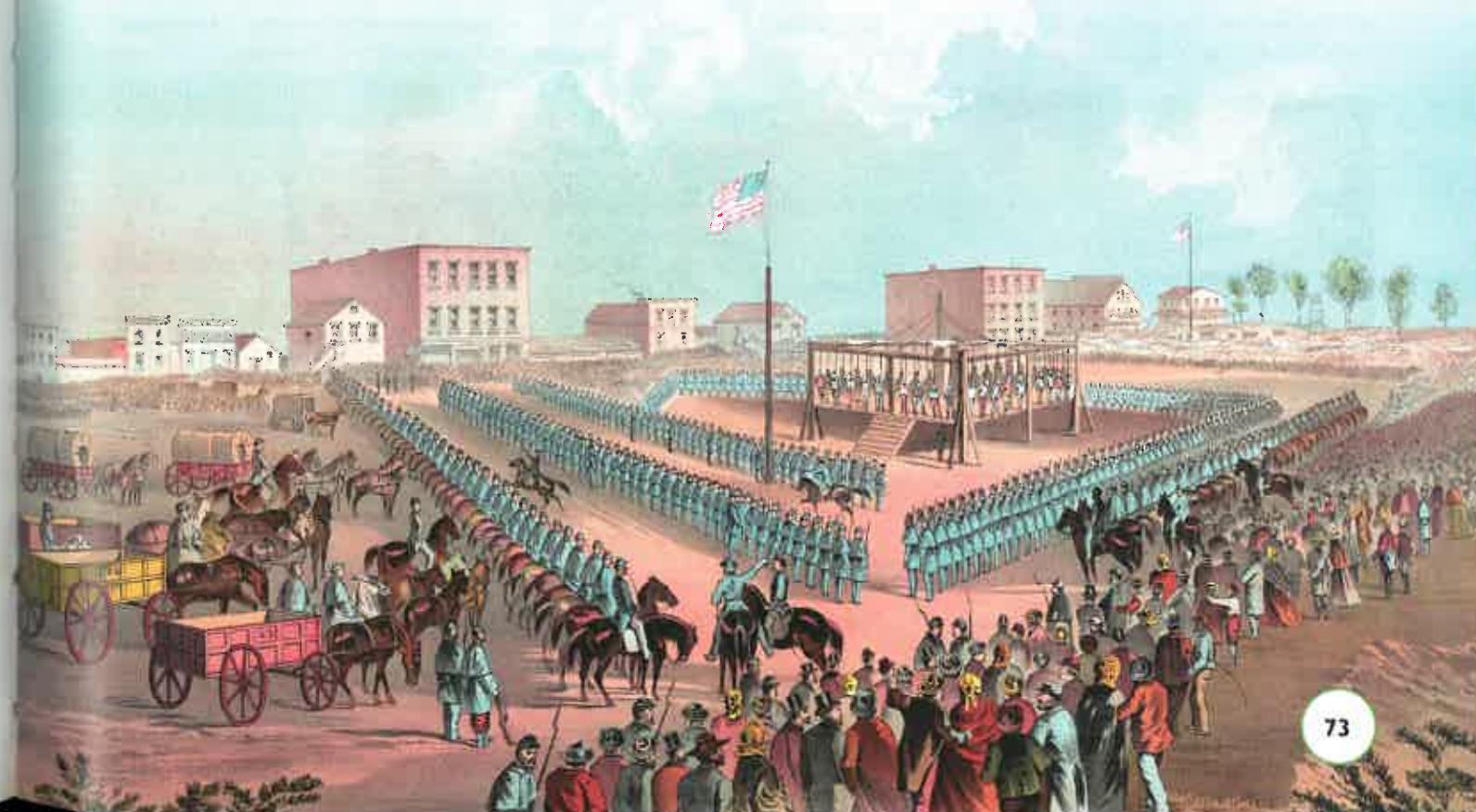
### Revenge

Once the fighting was over, around 300 Santee Sioux were put on trial and sentenced to death. Some of their trials lasted only minutes. The evidence against many of the warriors was weak and President Lincoln had to personally step in, insisting that only those accused of murder or rape should be executed. On Boxing Day 1862, 38 Santee Sioux warriors were hanged in front of a cheering crowd of settlers. Hundreds more were imprisoned, while the remainder of the Santee Sioux tribe was forcibly removed to a reservation in Dakota Territory. Anger among the Sioux was at boiling point. Many white settlers were unhappy that some of the Sioux had got off so lightly.

▼ The execution of the Santee Sioux warriors in 1862



▲ Little Crow, c.1862



## The Sand Creek Massacre, 1864

When gold was discovered at Pike's Peak in 1858, white Americans miners and other settlers poured onto the lands of the Cheyenne and Arapaho in Colorado. In 1861, the US Government forced the tribes onto a small reservation between the Arkansas River and Sand Creek in eastern Colorado. The Indians failed to produce enough food on the small area of poor land and the government agents refused to give more supplies to the Indians, accusing them of being lazy.

By 1864, many Cheyenne warriors were forced to hunt outside the reservation to feed their families. Some warriors also began to attack white settlements. President Lincoln granted the Governor of Colorado permission to raise an army of volunteers to fight the 'Indian threat' for a limited period of 100 days.

### The 'Bloodless Third'

The Third Colorado Volunteers were led by Reverend John Chivington, a preacher and politician who was keen to fight Indians. However, shortly after the Volunteers were formed, Chief Black Kettle and his Southern Cheyenne came to a nearby army fort to discuss peace. By September, the Third Colorados had seen no action at all and the clock was ticking



▲ John Chivington, an engraving from 1863

on their 100 days. Following their agreement with the army, Black Kettle and the Southern Cheyenne came into Fort Lyon. When they arrived they were told the

fort could not support them and were sent to make camp at Sand Creek instead.

It seemed that the Cheyenne wanted peace, but the Governor was not happy. 'What shall I do with the Third Colorado Regiment if I make peace?' he asked. 'They have been raised to kill Indians and they must kill Indians!' Then an answer came. On 13 November, a white settler was killed by a young Cheyenne warrior. Stung by their reputation as the 'Bloodless Third', Chivington and his men set out for Sand Creek and revenge.

### The massacre

The first cry came at dawn on 29 November as Chivington's troops rode down on Black Kettle's camp. Women and children screamed and ran for cover. Black Kettle, sure of his peace agreement with the whites, stood in the centre of camp waving an American flag and calling for his followers not to be afraid. It was soon clear that he was wrong. 'Kill and scalp all, big and little, nits make lice,' Chivington was recorded as saying. By mid-morning, 105 Cheyenne women and children and 28 men lay dead. Scalps and genitalia were cut from the corpses and became trophies or hat decorations for some soldiers.

The *Rocky Mountain News*, a Colorado newspaper, was overjoyed at Chivington's 'victory' and declared that '[the] Colorado soldiers have again covered themselves with glory'. Meanwhile, a parade was held in Denver where the crowds cheered soldiers who marched past with Indian scalps dangling from their belts. The triumph would be short-lived. Within a few months the Government launched an investigation. Six of Chivington's men were arrested and Chivington himself was forced to resign from the army.



▲ A picture of part of the Sand Creek Massacre by the Southern Cheyenne warrior-artist, Howling Wolf

## Red Cloud's War, 1865–68

After the Sand Creek Massacre, Black Kettle moved his Southern Cheyenne to safer lands. However, some of his band fled north towards Wyoming and the vast lands of the Lakota Sioux. With them they brought tales of violence and mutilation which fuelled an already tense situation.

In 1862, the discovery of gold in Montana led to warfare between the Lakota Sioux and the US army. One of the gold miners, John Bozeman, established a trail to the mining area, but the Bozeman Trail ran through the hunting grounds of the Lakota Sioux. This broke the Fort Laramie Treaty of 1851 (see page 35). The Indians, led by Red Cloud, Chief of the Lakota Sioux, began attacking travellers along the Bozeman Trail.

Throughout 1865 and 1866, increasing numbers of troops were sent out to Wyoming to try to protect settlers travelling the Bozeman Trail through Lakota country. In 1866, the USA called a meeting at Fort Laramie to agree a treaty protecting settlers. Chief Red Cloud refused to sign. But the USA began to establish army forts and a permanent military presence anyway. For the Lakota this was a step too far.

### Victory for the Sioux

During 1866, Red Cloud and a number of other Lakota leaders, including Crazy Horse, launched attacks on US army forts. In one instance, Captain Fetterman was lured out from Fort Kearny and his entire troop of 80 men was killed. Their bodies were stripped, scalped and mutilated by the Lakota. One private noted that the party sent to recover the bodies had to walk over the dead soldiers, stuffing the guts back into the corpses before they could be taken away on wagons.

Red Cloud's victories over the army continued through 1867 and 1868. Finally, the US Government was forced to give in. It met with the Indians again at Fort Laramie to sign a treaty. The terms granted a vast amount of land, including the Black Hills of Dakota, to Red Cloud and the Lakota Sioux. They also gave a guarantee that US troops and settlers would not enter these lands again without permission.

The defeat was a great humiliation for the Government. For some politicians, Red Cloud's War was a sure sign that a tougher policy against the Indians was needed. From 1868, control of the Indian conflict was handed over to Generals Sheridan and Sherman, heroes of the Union effort in the Civil War. Sherman was very clear about his view on the conflict when he wrote to Sheridan in 1868:

I ... will use all the powers confided to me to the end that these Indians, the enemies of our race and of our civilization, shall not again be able to begin and ... carry out their barbarous warfare.



▲ Red Cloud, in a photo from 1880

## The Great Sioux War, 1875–77

Like so much of the conflict on the Plains, the Great Sioux War began with a conflict of visions that led, step by step, to open warfare.

**Gold.** The 1868 Fort Laramie Treaty had promised that no white Americans would enter Sioux lands around the Black Hills of Dakota without permission. However, in 1874, rumours began to circulate of a gold strike in the Black Hills. General Custer, sent by the US Government to explore claims of gold, confirmed the rumours. By 1875, there were tens of thousands of miners right in the sacred heart of Sioux lands.

**Treaty.** Government officials negotiated a treaty to purchase the Black Hills for \$6 million. Red Cloud and others chiefs agreed to the treaty, but Sitting Bull and some of the other militant chiefs refused to sign the treaty. The US Government was furious. President Grant ordered that all Sioux and allied Indians should return to the reservation forts by the end of January 1876. When Sitting Bull's Sioux failed to return by spring, General Sheridan decided to round them up and bring them in.

**Vision.** That spring, Sitting Bull had a vision that the Sioux would win a great victory over the whites. On 6 June 1876, Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse wiped out an army camp by the Rosebud River. They then led their people west and set up a camp on the bank of the Little Bighorn River.

**Bloodshed.** On 6 June, the first blood was shed. A smaller camp of Cheyenne and Sioux, led by Crazy Horse, attacked the advancing army of General Crook. The soldiers were heavily defeated and had to be rescued by their Shoshone and Crow scouts. Crook was forced to retreat and the victorious warriors moved north to join Sitting Bull on the Little Bighorn River.



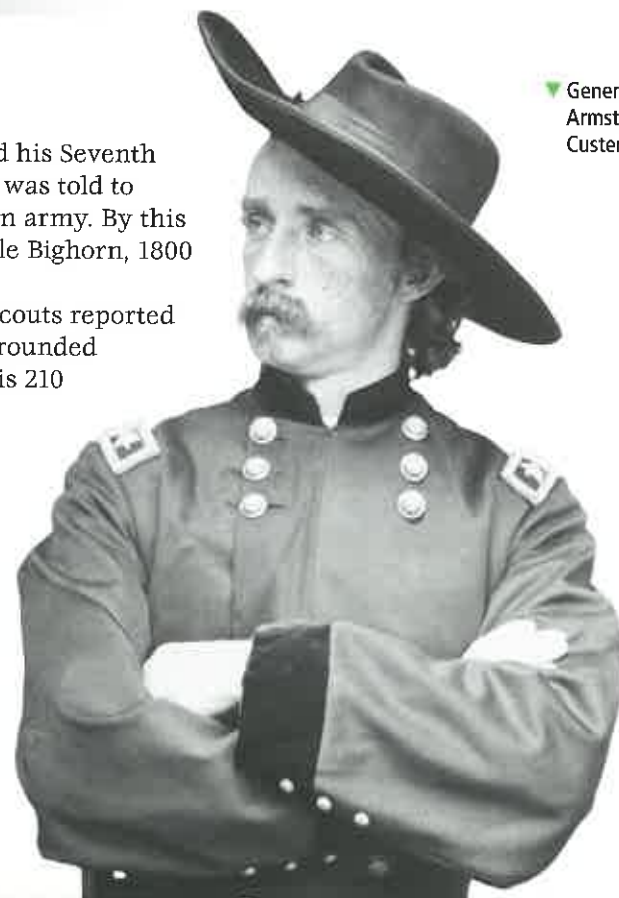
▲ Sitting Bull, c.1881

### The Battle of the Little Bighorn

On 21 June 1876, General George Armstrong Custer and his Seventh Cavalry met with Brigadier General John Terry. Custer was told to find Sitting Bull's band and drive them towards the main army. By this point, there were over 6000 Indians camped on the Little Bighorn, 1800 of whom were warriors.

25 June dawned hot and clear. That morning Crow scouts reported they had found the camp. Custer split his force and surrounded the Indians. Arrogant and eager for glory, he charged his 210 cavalymen directly down the hills, guns blazing, into Sitting Bull's camp.

The Sioux were taken by surprise. Men, women and children staggered out of lodges. Within minutes, Crazy Horse was leading a counter-attack. Custer was outnumbered four to one. Many of the white soldiers' weapons overheated or jammed, unlike the arrows or repeating rifles of the Sioux. The frightened cavalry horses bucked and reared, sending shots harmlessly into the air.



▼ General George Armstrong Custer, 1865

Custer finally realised his mistake and ordered a retreat. His men turned their horses and tried to flee back up the slopes. The Sioux closed in for the kill. White Bear later described his hand-to-hand struggle with one of Custer's men:

He drew his pistol. I wrenched it out of his hand and struck him with it three or four times on the head ... shot him in the head and fired at his heart ... that was a [good] fight.

In a matter of minutes, it was all over; Custer lay dead along with his entire troop.

### Victory and defeat

Although the Sioux won a great victory at the Little Bighorn, they were unable to win the war. Between the battles, the US army was able to prevent the warriors from meeting their daily needs for food and shelter by keeping them on the run. The army tracked the Sioux throughout the winter of 1876. The result was a hunting down of all Sioux bands, even those with nothing to do with the battle. The Government stopped all rations to reservations and eventually the Sioux were forced to sell their land. Crazy Horse was arrested and killed in 1877 on the pretext that he had tried to escape. A soldier's bayonet was stuck in his back. Sitting Bull and a small band of followers managed to escape to Canada. By 1877, the remaining Sioux in America had surrendered. The US Government took the Black Hills and a further 40 million acres of Indian land.

▼ Markers of the places where US soldiers were killed at the Little Bighorn National Monument, Montana

### Record

Use the notes you have made to write a clear and detailed explanation to answer the question: **Why was there so much bloodshed on the Plains, 1861–77?**

### Review

Look again at all three of the Record tasks you have completed in this Enquiry. Use them to help you answer this question: What was the single most important reason for the changes that took place on the American Plains between 1861 and 1877? Give reasons for your answer.



## Picturing Little Bighorn

The Battle of the Little Bighorn (as it became known to white Americans) was a decisive turning point in the conflict between the US army and the Native Americans. Since 1876, generations of historians have written about the battle and hundreds of artists have portrayed it in drawings and paintings.

### Picture 1: A scene from the battle by Red Horse, 1881

The Native Americans had a long tradition of recording important moments in their lives by drawing on rock, tipis and buffalo hide. Between 1870 and 1900, Native American artists drew in the ledgers (bound books) used by traders and soldiers in the West. In 1881, the Lakota Sioux warrior and artist Red Horse, who had fought at Little Bighorn, produced 42 drawings of the battle for a US army doctor. His powerful scenes featured combat on horseback, as well as wounded and dead warriors, soldiers and horses. This scene shows Native Americans leaving the battlefield.



### Picture 2: Custer's Last Stand, by Edgar S. Paxson, 1899

The artist Edgar Samuel Paxson spent twenty years researching the Battle of the Little Bighorn. In 1895, Paxson began his huge (6 feet x 9 feet) painting of the battle. The final work, which includes more than 200 people, was finished in 1899. Paxson and his business partner exhibited the painting in Eastern cities, charging people 25 cents to view it.



#### Reflect

The two paintings on these pages provide contrasting images of the Battle of the Little Bighorn. Take a closer look and analyse the differences between the paintings. How do you account for these?

## We the people

How did the lives of Americans change, 1877–1900?



▲ A poster depicting Chicago in the 1890s

### Reflect

How does the poster try to portray the importance of Chicago?

In 1892, the city of Chicago began the construction of a huge exhibition. It was to be a proud display of American achievements in the 400 years since Christopher Columbus had landed on the shores of North America. The World's Fair (as the exhibition became known) covered 600 acres and featured over 200 exhibition stands from 46 different countries. Over 27 million people turned up to see what modern America was like.

This was the first time a city in the West had hosted such an important event. The fair was a showcase of American technology and culture. There were stands from big corporations such as mining operations, electricity companies, railroads and big banks. Visitors could see a range of recent technology, including the latest steam locomotives, factory machines and electrical goods.

Visitors could also marvel at the grand architecture of Chicago, with its wide streets and towering buildings. Chicago was showing itself to be just as 'civilised' as Paris, London or Berlin. To European visitors it was a powerful message that America had succeeded without the need for kings, aristocrats and empires.

### Whose America?

The United States on display at the World's Fair did not represent all Americans. Black Americans were not allowed to take part in the construction of the Fair and were not represented on any of the American stands. Black civil rights campaigners produced a booklet criticising the exhibition for ignoring black contributions to the USA, particularly in art and literature.

Native Americans, too, were poorly represented. Those that did appear were seen as an interesting sideshow or attraction.

At the Chicago World's Fair of 1897, the phrase 'We the people' – the opening words of the US Constitution – still seemed to refer only to white Americans.

▼ A photograph of Chicago's Home Insurance Building shortly after it opened in 1884. This was the world's first skyscraper



### The Enquiry

Between 1877 and 1900 the United States became one of the world's leading industrial nations. For many Americans, it was a period of advancement and prosperity, but others were left behind as America surged forward.

1. For the Native Americans the consequences of America's economic development were disastrous.
2. Many African Americans continued to face poverty and discrimination.
3. Not all the migrants who flooded into America at the end of the nineteenth century were able to prosper in their new country.

In this Enquiry, you will examine exactly how the United States changed between 1877 and 1900, and the

impact this had on different groups of Americans. Your challenge is to plan a new exhibition, called 'How the lives of Americans changed, 1877–1900'. The exhibition will be in three parts:

1. The changing lives of the Native Americans
2. The changing lives of the African Americans
3. The growth of big business, cities and mass migration.

For each part of the exhibition you will:

- write an introductory panel for visitors to the exhibition
- select a picture to be the 'lead image' and provide visitors with the context for this.

## The lives of the Native Americans, 1877–1900

US policy towards the Native Americans became much harsher in the years following the Battle of the Little Bighorn in 1876. After the battle, Sitting Bull and a band of followers escaped to Canada. In 1881, starved of food and with little hope for the future, they crossed back over the border to surrender to the US army. Sitting Bull's band were sent to the Standing Rock Reservation, South Dakota. Here they were reunited with other members of the Sioux who had been rounded up by the army after 1877.

Standing Rock and other reservations in the West were often badly run by government agents who had little respect for Native American culture. Medical supplies were inadequate and food rations were often meagre. But the Native Americans had little choice. There was no longer a possibility of victory over the US army. Besides, the main source of food for the Plains Indians, the buffalo, was being systematically destroyed.

### The destruction of the buffalo

As the government-funded railroads moved out across the West, they brought hunters with them. The buffalo hunters saw an opportunity to make money by selling the hides, meat and bones of the millions of buffalo which roamed the Plains. Killing a single buffalo might earn a hunter between \$3 and \$20 for the cost of a 25-cent cartridge. Soon, buffalo were being slaughtered in their thousands. It was not uncommon for a hunter to kill over a hundred buffalo a day. By 1880, 16 million kilos of buffalo bones alone had been sent east to become fertiliser.

As many as 3 million buffalo were killed by white hunters. By 1883, the vast herds of the 1840s were all but gone. The destruction of the buffalo was one of the main causes of the warfare between the tribes of the Plains and white Americans. But, in the end, the Indians were unable to prevent the slaughter. One army general noted that the killing of the buffalo on the Plains 'has done more to solve the vexed Indian question than the entire regular army has done in the last thirty years'.

▲ A pile of buffalo skulls by a railroad, 1880s

### Reservations and the destruction of Native American culture

It was not just military defeat and the destruction of the buffalo that forced Native Americans onto reservations.

- In the southwest, ranchers fenced off areas where the Pueblo peoples drove their sheep herds. Without grass, the Pueblo herds soon died.
- Homesteaders on the central Plains fenced in water supplies, stopping the Indians from being able to roam freely on their horses.
- Big factories paid people to pick wild foods, such as berries, on the Plains. These were canned in factories in the growing Western cities. Soon the Plains were empty of usable food supplies for the nomadic tribes.

In the late 1870s, as more Native Americans were confined to reservations, the US Government followed a deliberate policy of splitting up the tribes. The Sioux

agent Thomas Galbraith said that the goal was 'to break up the [tribal] system ... [and] to make white men of them [Indians]'. The Sioux were divided over at least five major reservations to prevent them uniting with the Cheyenne as they had done in the wars of the 1870s. Following their defeat by US forces in 1877, the Nez Perce were placed on a reservation in Oklahoma, 2000 miles from their homeland in Oregon. The Southern Cheyenne and Arapaho were made to share reservations to dilute their identities.

In addition to splitting up tribes, the US Government used reservations to force the Plains Indians to become farmers. Hunting outside the reservation was banned and Indians were encouraged to plant corn and squash to survive. This often led to problems as crops often struggled to grow in the harsh Plains conditions. As a result, many reservation Indians depended on government beef rations to survive. In the period 1877–1900, poverty, hunger and disease haunted the lives of many Native Americans.



▲ Sioux Indians line up in front of a barn on a reservation to receive their beef rations, c.1893

In the period 1877–1900, the US Government followed a deliberate strategy of destroying Native American culture. It tried to do this in a number of ways.

- 1 Indian nations were required to set up government structures which mirrored US ones. Minor chiefs could gain power by agreeing to co-operate with the white Indian agents when others like Sitting Bull refused. The Native American governments had to employ law enforcers to ensure that the rules were being followed by all Indians. However, in 1885, Indians lost the power to run their own courts and the Government took over.
- 2 Plains Indians were encouraged to live in houses and lodges instead of traditional tipis. Although some Indians continued to live in tipis, they became fewer in number as time went on, largely because of the lack of buffalo skins.
- 3 Most Native Americans were made to convert to Christianity. Those who continued traditional practices and rituals could be arrested and imprisoned. The loss of the buffalo made continuing many traditional Indian beliefs

impossible anyway. Indian rituals became interesting sideshows, like those at the Chicago World's Fair (see page 80).

- 4 Some children were sent away from the reservations to be educated in boarding schools run by white Americans. They were taught to speak English as their first language. Those who spoke their own languages at school were often beaten. Girls were dressed in Victorian costume and taught to sew and play the piano. Boys were taught to read and write. They learned how Indians' beliefs and rituals were backwards and outdated. Their history lessons explained how Indians had attacked and killed white farmers.
- 5 Indian children were also required to change their names. One Sioux child, Luther Standing Bear, explains how this worked: 'I was told to take a pointer and select a name for myself from the list written on the blackboard. I did, and since one was just as good as another ... I placed the pointer on the name Luther.'

▼ A group of Apache arriving at the Carlisle Indian School in 1890, and the same group four months later



### With friends like these...

In 1883, a new group (Friends of the Indian) was formed to campaign for Indian rights. Their mission was clear: to help Indians become educated and Christian citizens of the United States. By 1887, the policies of the Friends of the Indian were changing the lives of Native Americans.

- They helped root out and remove corrupt agents who took government money but did not supply reservation Indians with enough food or provide medical care.
- They set up more off-reservation boarding schools so that Indian children could 'escape' their roots. In 1889, Susan La Flesche Picotte graduated from one of these schools and became the first female Indian doctor in the USA.
- In 1887, they persuaded the Government to pass the Dawes Act. This offered individual Indians 160 acres of land and full US citizenship. In return, they had to give up their right to hold land as part of a tribe.

The Friends' actions were not all good news. The Dawes Act in particular meant that Indian tribes lost millions of acres of land which they owned as a group when they swapped it for 160 acres to own individually. In 1889, the Government offered land given up by such individuals for sale. In a single day, 1,920,000 acres of land in Indian Territory were sold to homesteaders and land speculators in what became known as the Oklahoma Land Rush. By 1900, nearly two-thirds of the land Indians had held in 1877 had been taken. With friends like these, the Indians certainly did not need any enemies.

### A final vision

Some Indians refused to accept the changes being demanded by white Americans. By the 1890s, a new religion, the Ghost Dance, was sweeping the reservations of the American West. The Ghost Dancers believed that if they danced and prayed for long enough, a saviour would come to return the buffalo and sweep whites from the land like a great flood. White Americans living near reservations became increasingly concerned as the movement spread through Dakota. A rumour even began that Sitting Bull was planning on joining the Ghost Dancers.

One Indian agent wrote to the Government saying, 'We need protection and we need it now. Indians are dancing in the snow and are wild and crazy.' The US army was sent in to arrest the Ghost Dancers. During the process, Sioux police were told to go and arrest Sitting Bull. Forty policemen burst into the chief's cabin, dragged him out into the snow and shot him through the skull.

After the death of Sitting Bull, the remaining Ghost Dancers tried to escape to safety. They were chased down by General Miles, who was now in charge of Custer's old Seventh Cavalry.

Miles found the Ghost Dancers at a place called Wounded Knee. Despite the fact that the Indians were largely defenceless, the situation soon turned violent. A shot was fired as Miles' troops tried to disarm the Indian camp. In response, Miles ordered the troops to open fire. Canon were rolled out and the Hotchkiss machine guns hurled shell after shell at the Ghost Dancers.

When the smoke cleared, a journalist noted that the group of children he had seen playing just minutes before now lay dead, cut 'like grass before the sickle'. Their bodies were loaded into a mass grave along with over 250 other men, women and children slaughtered in the massacre. On 15 January 1891, the remaining 4000 Ghost Dancers surrendered.

▼ Victims of the Wounded Knee massacre being placed into a mass grave by US soldiers, 1891



### Record

Plan the first part of the new exhibition: 'How the lives of Americans changed, 1877–1900'. This should summarise how the lives of Native Americans changed between 1877 and 1900.

- Write an introductory panel for visitors to this part of the exhibition.
- Select one picture to be the 'lead image' for this part of the exhibition. This could be a picture from pages 82–85 or one you have found from an image search. Write a short piece of text to provide visitors with the information they need to understand the image.

## The changing lives of African Americans, 1877–1900

America's economic development in the period 1877–1900 created opportunities for some African Americans, but many continued to live in poverty and to face prejudice. The 14th and 15th Amendments to the Constitution were meant to create a new era of equality, but many African Americans saw little evidence of this. To many, it seemed that the freedoms which had been won in the Civil War were slowly being eroded. In the late 1870s, the collapse of cotton prices left many black Americans living in desperate poverty. This, coupled with growing racism and violence in the South, led many people to migrate to the Northern cities or to the West.

In the 1890s, civil rights campaigners like Ida Wells and Frederick Douglass recognised that the situation for black Americans was taking a turn for the worse. Douglass was particularly concerned about the way the Civil War was being recast as an episode of history best forgotten. In his autobiography he asked, 'If this war is to be forgotten, I ask in the name of all things sacred, what shall men remember?' Douglass died in 1895, but Ida Wells continued her remarkable campaign for civil rights.

### Ida Wells

Born a slave in 1862, Ida Wells eventually got an education thanks to the Freedman's Bureau (see page 56). She became a teacher and moved to Tennessee.

In 1884, she was travelling first class on a train to Nashville when the train crew ordered her to move to a carriage for black Americans. She protested and even bit one of the train crew on the hand when he tried to move her. She sued the train company, but her case was overturned by the highest court in the state of Tennessee. Ida Wells was so angry that she focused all her attention on bringing the unfairness of life for black Americans to the attention of the public.

As a journalist, Ida Wells travelled up and down the country and wrote about many subjects. Her main targets were the poor quality of education received by black children and the growing problem of lynching (the murder of African Americans by white racists). However, she also wanted to highlight the great contributions black Americans were making to the USA. Ida Wells eventually became a founding member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People in 1909.

### Reflect

Over the next three pages you will find out about the changing economic, social and cultural lives of African Americans in the period 1877–1900. As you read each section, find examples of:

- 1 The ways in which the lives of some African Americans were improving
- 2 The challenges which they continued to face.



Ida Wells

## Economic changes

### Life in the South

In the period 1877–1900, the Southern states were still suffering from the effects of the Civil War. The war had led to a collapse in the demand for cotton as European nations bought their supplies from other countries. After the war, recovery was slow. Some Southern states tried to start up steel and iron industries, but these mostly proved to be a failure. In the end, the Southern economy was largely propped up by money from Northern-owned railroads. By 1900, Southern income was half that of the North. African Americans were legally free, but they were often trapped in low-paid work. A huge number ended up as poor sharecroppers on plantations owned by former slave holders.

### Opportunities in the West

When the last government troops left the South in 1877, an ex-slave known as Benjamin Singleton started trying to get slaves to move west and start their own communities away from white violence. He urged ex-slaves to claim government land promised in the Homestead Act (see page 68). The people who followed him to Kansas became known as the Exodusters. The 1879 exodus brought 6000 black Americans to Kansas where they claimed their own homesteads. By 1880, Kansas had around 15,000 black citizens.

### Challenges in the North

In the period 1877–1900, many African Americans left the Southern states to look for work in the growing industrial cities of the North. Some found jobs, but this was not always easy. Even if a black worker was more educated, they were often less likely to get a job than a less-skilled white labourer. In the North, black workers were considered to be competition for jobs and housing so there was little co-operation with white workers. Business owners sometimes used black labourers to help break strikes, which made divisions even worse.

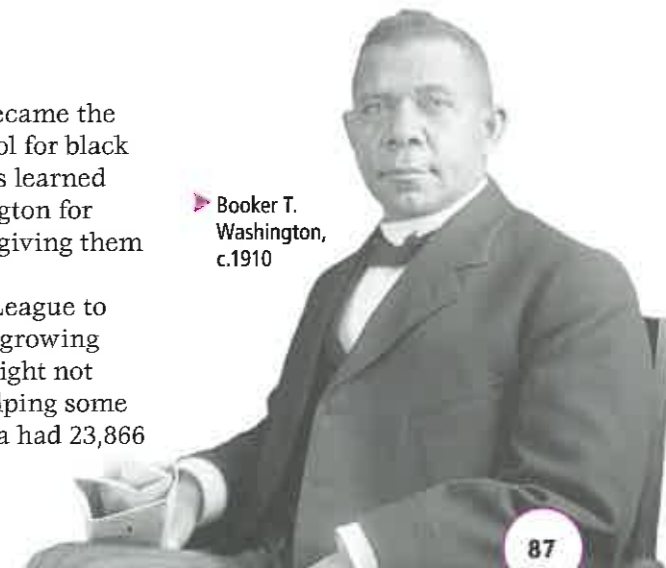
### Education and training

Booker T. Washington was an African educator and author who became the leader of African Americans in the USA. In 1882, he set up a school for black students. Boys were taught modern farming or artisan skills. Girls learned how to be good housekeepers or servants. Some criticised Washington for preparing black students for inferior jobs, but he believed he was giving them practical skills to survive in a white man's world.

In 1900, Washington established the National Negro Business League to help support black businesses. By this time there was a small but growing group of black professionals in the South. Washington's schools might not have been producing lawyers and doctors, but his support was helping some black Southerners lift themselves out of poverty. By 1900, America had 23,866 black teachers, 417 black doctors and 300 black lawyers.



An Exoduster family on their Kansas homestead, 1887



Booker T. Washington, c.1910

## Social changes

### The Jim Crow laws

In the 1890s, many Southern states introduced racial segregation laws. These laws, known as the Jim Crow laws, tried to keep black and white people separate. Many Southerners claimed the laws were needed to protect them from black Americans whom they said were violent and uneducated. The Jim Crow laws meant that black and white people were kept apart in trains, trams, stations, theatres, shops, churches, parks, restaurants and even schools. White schools received ten times as much funding as black ones. In 1896, the Supreme Court agreed that providing separate facilities for black and white citizens was legal, despite the 14th Amendment.

### Black churches

The freedoms brought by the Civil War and Reconstruction allowed black Americans to develop their own institutions in the South. By 1900, there were 26 black bishops. Black churches became incredibly popular. They were important in giving their congregations a stronger sense of identity and community. However, many preachers were unwilling to really challenge the Jim Crow laws.

### Living conditions

In the South the amount of land owned by African Americans tripled between 1877 and 1900. However, many families continued to live in poor-quality housing. In the North, racist landlords, and the desire to live near family, led many black migrants to group together in poor neighbourhoods. By 1900, most black workers in Northern cities lived in 90 per cent black areas. The quality of housing in these areas was often terrible.

### Black academics and artists

Between 1865 and 1893, over 100 major books and 206 journal articles were published by black authors. A number of important black academics began to emerge. One of these, William DuBois, was part of an educated, Northern black elite. DuBois gained degrees from the Universities of Harvard and Berlin, and was a history and economics professor at Atlanta University. African-American musicians, writers and artists also began to flourish.

▶ William DuBois, 1918



▼ Poor-quality housing on the edge of New York, 1890s



## Political changes

### The Redeemers

In the period 1877–1900, governments in the South were often dominated by ex-slave holders. These governments were called 'Redeemer' governments because they saw themselves as undoing the 'damage' caused by the abolition of slavery and the process of Reconstruction. Redeemers introduced laws which limited the rights of black Americans. For instance, they brought in literacy tests which people had to pass in order to be able to vote. Because many black people had not been educated, this prevented them from voting. In Louisiana, in 1896, there were 130,334 blacks registered to vote; by 1905, only 1342 were registered.

### The Ku Klux Klan

In the early 1870s, the US Government stopped much of the activity of the Ku Klux Klan (KKK), the violent, white supremacist group which operated in the South. However, by the 1890s they had secretly re-formed. The KKK tapped into the belief that the South could have won the Civil War and saw itself as continuing that fight. The KKK remained a powerful influence in the South.

### Constitutional changes

Although the South continued to ignore the rights of black Americans, the fact that the constitutional Amendments existed, allowed black campaigners like Ida Wells to demand equality. Civil rights campaigners fought to get laws changed using these Amendments. Black Americans could never again be held as slaves, and the Southern states were obliged to provide education and other facilities for African Americans.

### Lynching

After 1870, many African Americans were at risk of mob justice. According to Ida Wells, men could be lynched for striking a white man, writing an insulting letter, talking disrespectfully or simply for being too wealthy. In 1892 alone, 161 black citizens were lynched. Victims were often tortured before they were murdered. Their bones were broken, their skin was burned and their bodies were cut. Hardly any of the culprits were arrested or brought to trial.



▶ Protesters at the National Crime Conference in Washington, DC, December 1934. The leaders of the conference refused to discuss lynching as a national crime

## Record

Plan the second part of the new exhibition: 'How the lives of Americans changed, 1877–1900'. This should summarise how the lives of African Americans changed between 1877 and 1900.

- Write an introductory panel for visitors to this part of the exhibition.
- Select one picture to be the 'lead image' for this part of the exhibition. This could be a picture from pages 86–89 or one you have found from an image search. Write a short piece of text to provide visitors with the information they need to understand the image.

## Reflect

Does the fact that the photograph below is from 1934 mean it is useless to someone studying the changing lives of African Americans, 1877–1900?

## The impact of big business, cities and mass migration on America

### Big business

In 1848, thirteen-year-old Andrew Carnegie emigrated to America with his poor Scottish family. In 1901, at the age of 66, he formed the United States Steel Corporation, a company worth over \$1 billion. Carnegie's success in America had been truly remarkable.

Andrew Carnegie started work as a railroad telegraph operator in Pennsylvania. His intelligence and dedication meant that he was quickly promoted.

By the 1860s, Carnegie's investments in the railroads allowed him to buy the steel

plant in Pittsburgh which became the source of his fortune. In 1883, he took over a rival, the Homestead Steelworks, and his business boomed still further. By 1900, Carnegie was one of the richest people in America. During the last eighteen years of his life, he became a great philanthropist, giving away more than 90 per cent of his wealth to charities and universities. Carnegie's gifts amounted to about \$80 billion in today's money.

### The growth of big corporations

The period between 1877 and 1900 in America has often been seen as one in which the modern, corporate companies, like the one established by Carnegie, were created. Corporations were much larger than traditional businesses, and were run by a president and a board of shareholders, rather than a single person or family. Some of the earliest examples of these big businesses were the railroad companies. In the late nineteenth century, corporations also came to dominate America's manufacturing industry. By around 1850, there were 5300 manufacturing firms in the USA; by the end of the century they had been absorbed by just 334 corporations.




### The workers

Workers tried to protect themselves from the power of these huge companies by forming trade unions. However, the companies, backed by the US Government, were often able to defeat striking workers.

- In 1892, a dispute over pay led to a long and bitter strike at Carnegie's Homestead Steel Company. On 6 June, violence led to the deaths of seven striking steel workers and three security officers. Eventually the company defeated the strike by bringing in non-union immigrant workers. Carnegie's reputation was seriously damaged.
- In 1893, when the Pullman Railroad Car Company cut the wages of its workers in Chicago, the American Railway Union got 260,000 workers to come out on strike. Pullman turned to its political friends in Washington, and on Independence Day 1894, the President sent troops to stop the strike. Violence broke out and 26 workers were shot. The strike leaders were arrested and those involved were put on a 'black-list'. Few of them were able to find work again.



▲ A cartoon commenting on how American industrialists treated their workers, 1883

Business type	Nature of business	Impact of business
<b>Cotton and tobacco factories</b> 	In the South the number of cotton mills doubled between 1880 and 1900. The Southern states could now support their own cotton-growing industry and became the major producer of cotton cloth in the USA. Tobacco and cigarette production also increased dramatically. By 1904, the American Tobacco Company controlled 90 per cent of cigarette and 75 per cent of tobacco production.	The growth of Southern cotton factories meant a slow return of the demand for cotton plantations. The increased production of cotton pushed prices down, meaning that most cotton pickers barely made ends meet by 1900. For white Southerners, new job opportunities opened up in the cotton and tobacco factories. However, these jobs were generally low-skilled and poorly paid.
<b>Fossil fuels and mineral extraction</b> 	The growth of factories and railroads led to a huge demand for resources such as coal and iron. In 1872, the Government had passed a law which allowed companies to set up mines for little cost and put few restrictions on their activities. Mining was still too costly for small companies so huge mining operations stepped in. In the South, coal production increased ten times between 1875 and 1890. Meanwhile, discoveries of copper, tin, lead and silver brought companies like Anaconda to the West. In Butte, Montana, a million dollars of copper and silver were being extracted every month. These metals were vital for use in the cables and conductors of the new electrical age.	Mining businesses caused ecological damage on an enormous scale. Huge areas of forest were cut down to create supports for mine shafts. Toxic chemicals leached into the water supply. Mining was also dangerous for the people involved. At 1000 metres underground, miners worked in temperatures above 35°C. Mine shafts were poorly constructed and sometimes there were collapses and other accidents. The workers had no breathing equipment so many miners died of lung diseases.
<b>Bonanza farms and cattle ranches</b> 	By the 1880s, small-scale farming on the Plains was dying out. In its place came the bonanza farms owned by large businesses and run by managers. The average bonanza farm was 10,000 acres in size and employed 250 workers who were paid low wages. The owners who profited from these farms were usually Eastern capitalists and investors. Bonanza cattle ranches also developed. By 1886, an over-supply of cattle meant that beef prices fell, driving small ranchers out of business. Then a harsh winter in 1886–87 killed off millions of cattle. The bigger ranches were able to weather the storm and bought up the smaller ones as they collapsed. By 1900, most ranches in the West were owned by just a handful of people.	Bonanza farms employed workers who could not afford their own homesteads. Many hoped they would eventually save enough to buy their own land. However, the bonanza farms often had access to the best land, water resources and railroad links. This made it nearly impossible for small-scale farmers to survive. Many small farmers gave up and moved to the cities or became wage workers for a distant farm owner. Both farming and ranching had an enormous impact on the environment. They used up the limited supplies of Western water, forcing many Indians off the land and onto reservations. Dry farming techniques (see page 70) eventually made some land unusable.

## The growth of cities



▲ A map showing the main American cities in 1900

In 1833, Chicago was a tiny town of only 200 inhabitants. By 1870, it was a major city with a population of nearly 300,000. By 1900, Chicago's population had grown to over 1.5 million.

Situated on Lake Michigan, and close to the Mississippi River, Chicago was a great transport hub. In the late nineteenth century the city became America's railroad centre. Chicago attracted new immigrants from Europe and the Eastern states who were keen to take up jobs in transport, manufacturing, retail and finance.

Following a huge fire in 1871, much of Chicago was rebuilt in steel and stone. It was during the rebuild that Chicago constructed what many people consider to be the world's first steel-frame skyscraper, in 1884.

Cities like Chicago had been growing in the USA since the late eighteenth century, but in the years between 1877 and 1900 they experienced remarkable growth. In 1870, there were just fourteen cities with populations over 100,000; by 1900, there were 38. You can see on the map that many of these were located in the East; however, there were an increasing number of Western cities like Chicago, San Francisco or St. Louis. These cities were magnets for everyone from new immigrants to failed homesteaders.

### The impact of cities

During the 1880s, the invention of the elevator and the skyscraper allowed cities to build ever-taller buildings. As America's cities grew, they created more demand



▲ A panoramic view of Chicago, c.1900

for iron, steel, coal, copper and other resources. Cities also created many new jobs, not only in construction, but also in manufacturing, transport and other services.

America's cities promised much to the people who migrated to them. However, many migrants were disappointed by what they found. Most workers lived in poorly designed, overcrowded apartments. In the East it was not uncommon for 32 families to share a six- to eight-storey tenement building. There was little privacy and sanitation was often poor. Death rates of children in cities were far higher than for the population as a whole. In one poor Chicago neighbourhood, nearly 60 per cent of babies died before their first birthday.



▲ A poor area of New York, c.1900

Urban life had its attractions as well as its downsides. Between 1877 and 1900, cities offered freedom and entertainment to working people across America. Theatres sprang up in nearly every district, Wild West shows entertained the whooping crowds, and public parks were enjoyed by all social classes. Citizens could choose between dozens of newspapers, attend political rallies and talk politics in the busy saloons. Public education also expanded, with nearly 70 per cent of children going to school by 1900. Women, too, had greater freedoms in the city and, in the West, became a driving force behind the campaign to give women the vote.

## Mass migration

The depression which followed the Civil War led to a slow-down in migration to America during the 1870s. However, from 1880, when the economy began to recover, there was a new surge in migration. Migrants were inspired by the 'American Dream', represented in events like the Chicago World's Fair, and were helped by the lower fares on the new steam-powered ships. The migrants who poured into America at the end of the nineteenth century were mostly from central, eastern and southern Europe. In the 1890s, 600,000 migrants came from Italy alone.

For most of the nineteenth century, the US Government had left immigration policy to individual states, but in the final decades of the nineteenth century the federal government decided to take measures to control the huge influx of newcomers. In 1890, the Government took control of immigration and two years later it opened America's main immigration station on Ellis Island, New York.

### The migrant experience

As migrants sailed into New York harbour their first sight was the mighty Statue of Liberty. They must have hoped that she was welcoming them to new lives of freedom and prosperity. The steamships were too big to dock at Ellis Island so migrants were brought by ferry. The photograph here shows a group of immigrants as they arrive in America.

At the Ellis Island Immigration Centre migrants faced a medical screening. Around 10 per cent of people were too unwell to enter the USA and were taken to the hospital on the island. Healthy migrants waited in the large central hall of Ellis Island for a brief legal examination. They then made their way by ferry to New York. Some stayed in the city, but most headed west where they hoped to build their new lives.

Many migrants to America in the 1880s and 1890s eventually prospered, but life in America was not always easy for newcomers from a foreign land.

- In some cities there was anti-immigrant violence. This was mainly down to the fact that businesses offered the desperate migrants lower wages. White workers were then pushed out of jobs in favour of migrants.
- Migrants sometimes faced prejudice because of their different culture and beliefs. In 1887, the American Protective Association was set up to 'protect' Protestant Americans from the 'dangers' of the Catholic, Jewish and Buddhist immigrants.

▶ Immigrants arriving in America

- The situation was even worse for Chinese immigrants in the West. During the 1870s, anti-Chinese riots led to many murders and parts of Tacoma being burnt to the ground. Chinese made up 10 per cent of the population of San Francisco, but were legally not allowed to live outside the Chinatown area. In 1882, the US Government passed the Chinese Exclusion Act which limited the number of Chinese workers entering America.

## Record

Plan the final part of the new exhibition: 'How the lives of Americans changed, 1877–90'. This should summarise the changes in big business, cities and migration to America between 1877 and 1900.

- Write an introductory panel for visitors to this part of the exhibition.
- Select one picture to be the 'lead image' for this part of the exhibition. This could be a picture from pages 90–93 or one you have found from an image search. Write a short piece of text to provide visitors with the information they need to understand the image.

## Review

Invent a title for your new exhibition that captures in a few words what you think was happening in the USA between 1877 and 1900. Explain why the title is a good choice.



## Quanah Parker – one man, many visions

This is Quanah Parker – the last chief of the Comanche. A closer look at his remarkable life reveals some fascinating aspects of American history in the second half of the nineteenth century.

### A baptism of fire

Quanah's personal history began in violence. His mother, Cynthia Ann Parker, was the daughter of a Texas homesteader. In 1836, aged nine, she had been kidnapped by the Comanche and her family had been slaughtered. A Texan search party went to look for Cynthia Ann, but she could not be found. Eventually, she adapted to life with the Comanche, marrying the chief, Peta Nocona, and giving birth to a son, Quanah, around 1850.

In 1860, the Texas Rangers ran into Peta Nocona's band. They captured Cynthia Ann and another of her daughters and returned them to a white settlement. Meanwhile the rancher Charles Goodnight and other Rangers hunted down and killed Nocona. Quanah and his brother escaped on horseback. Cynthia Ann Parker lived for ten years among her white brethren, but kept demanding that she be allowed to return to 'her people'. In 1870, she died of influenza. Quanah, meanwhile, was without a family.

### The leader of the Comanche

Following the death of his father, Quanah trained to become a Comanche warrior. After proving himself in battle, he went on to lead the Antelope Eaters, a band of the Comanche. When the Treaty of Medicine Lodge Creek (1867) sought to confine the Southern Indians to a reservation, Quanah refused to accept its terms, instead leading his people in a brutal war against the Texans. Throughout the late 1860s and early 1870s, Quanah led raids in Texas and Mexico, coming into conflict with US army general Colonel Mackenzie time and time again.

Then, in 1874, Quanah followed the advice of a medicine man and attacked some buffalo hide merchants at Adobe Walls, on the border of Texas and Oklahoma. Over 250 Comanche attacked the trading post shortly before first light. Quanah and his warriors could not penetrate the walls of the sod dwelling and were repelled by the 50 calibre buffalo rifles the traders carried. As he escaped, Quanah's horse was shot from under him and a bullet lodged in his shoulder.

The attack was the beginning of the end for the Comanche. The Government authorised a military campaign against them, and in September 1874, Mackenzie and his Tonkawa scouts destroyed a key Comanche village. They killed over 1500 Comanche horses, stopping them from continuing their nomadic lives in one fell swoop. Quanah and his Comanche were forced to surrender.

### The 'tamed' Comanche

Quanah Parker played a key role in negotiating the peace terms for his people, who were eventually relocated into Southwestern Indian Territory. Quanah was given the title of 'chief of all Comanche on the reservation'. He built himself a board house, and began using his white surname, Parker.

On the reservation, Parker told the Comanche that they should co-operate with the neighbouring whites. He learned to speak English, and even served as a judge when the Government introduced special Indian courts. However, Parker did not give up some of his traditional heritage. He continued to wear his hair in braids and refused to convert to Christianity. He also refused to give up the practice of polygamy and had five wives.

◀ Quanah Parker, c.1875

### The modern American

By the 1880s, Parker was busy ensuring the future of the Comanche in the best way he knew, by engaging fully with white visions of America. He negotiated hard with Texan cattlemen over grazing rights on the Comanche reservation, helping his people to make at least some money from the land. He also put \$40,000 into the Quanah, Acme and Pacific Railway, which would go on to make him one of the wealthiest Indians of all time.

Parker's reputation and new-found wealth brought him a good deal of attention. He counted Charles Goodnight and President Theodore Roosevelt among his close friends. He hosted these visitors at his home, Star Ranch, Oklahoma. Parker even rode in Roosevelt's inauguration parade in 1905. He used these connections to lobby the Government on behalf of the Comanche.

Quanah's son became a Methodist minister and went on to star in a film about the last days of the Comanche, *Daughter of Dawn*. This film was only shown a handful of times, but Parker's story went on to inspire John Ford's classic Western, *The Searchers*.

### Controversy

In 1892, Parker signed an agreement which broke up the Comanche reservation and gave each Comanche their own small parcel of land. This split the Comanche between those who accepted Parker's view that the age of the Indian tribe was over, and those who believed that he was selling his people out to a white enemy.

Whatever the truth, the mourners at Parker's funeral were numerous. Parker's biographer summed him up neatly when he wrote, 'Not only did Quanah pass within the span of a single lifetime from a Stone Age warrior to a statesman in the age of the Industrial Revolution, but he never lost a battle to the white man and he also accepted the challenge and responsibility of leading the whole Comanche tribe on the difficult road toward their new existence.'



▼ Quanah Parker with Tonasa, one of his five wives, on the porch of their ranch in Texas, in the early 1890s

# Preparing for the examination

The world period study forms the first half of Paper 3: world history. It is worth 20 per cent of your GCSE. To succeed in the examination, you will need to think clearly about different aspects of

The Making of America, 1789–1900 and to support your ideas with accurate knowledge. This section suggests some revision strategies and explains the types of examination questions that you can expect.

## Summaries of the five issues

Your study of The Making of America, 1789–1900 has covered five important issues:

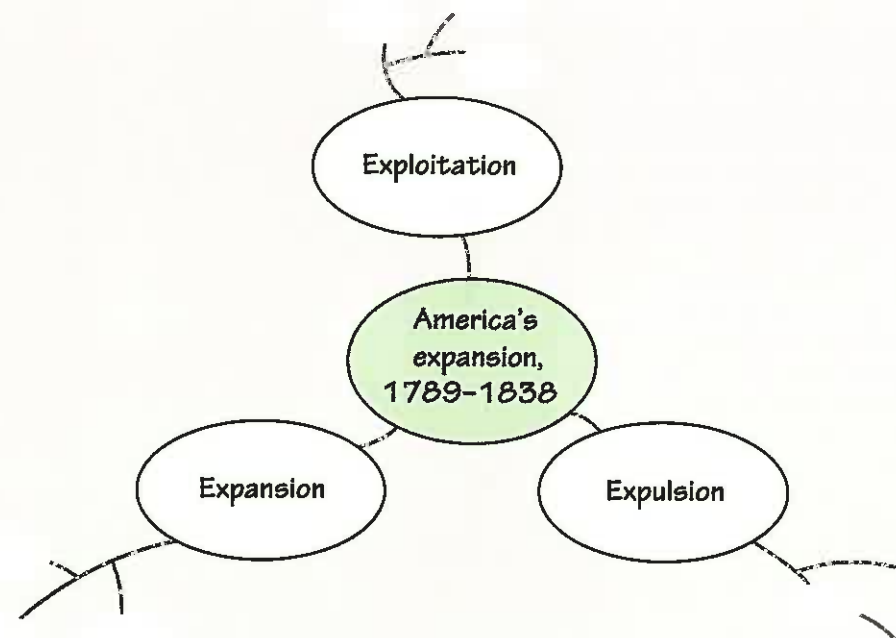
1. America's expansion, 1789–1838
2. The West, 1839–60
3. Civil War and Reconstruction, 1861–77
4. Settlement and conflict on the Plains, 1861–77
5. American cultures, 1877–1900

To prepare for the examination it will help to produce clear and accurate summary notes for each issue. In

the specification for your GCSE course, each of these five issues is divided into three sections. We divided each enquiry in this book into three stages to match these sections and to help you build your knowledge and understanding step by step. Your summary notes for each issue will need to cover each of the three sections. Here are four suggestions for structuring your revision notes. Choose the one that is best for you, or use a variety if you prefer.

### 1. Mind maps

A mind map on A3 paper is a good way to summarise each of the sections for a particular issue. You could use a different colour for each section.



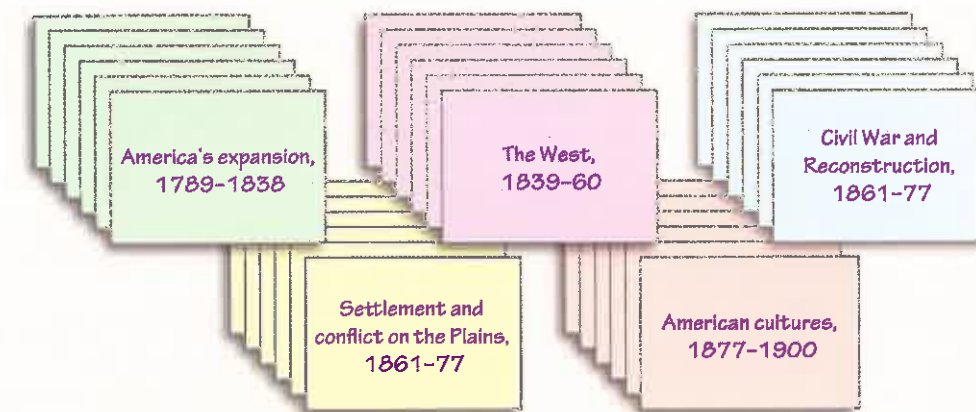
### 2. Charts

If you find it easier to learn from lists then a summary chart for each issue you have studied might be best for you. You can use the format shown here or design your own. Just make sure that you include clear summary points for each of the three sections in each enquiry you have studied.

Issue: American cultures, 1877–1900		
Issue: Settlement and conflict on the Plains, 1861–77		
Issue: Civil War and Reconstruction, 1861–77		
Issue: The West, 1839–60		
Issue: America's expansion, 1789–1900		
Expansion	Exploitation	Expulsion
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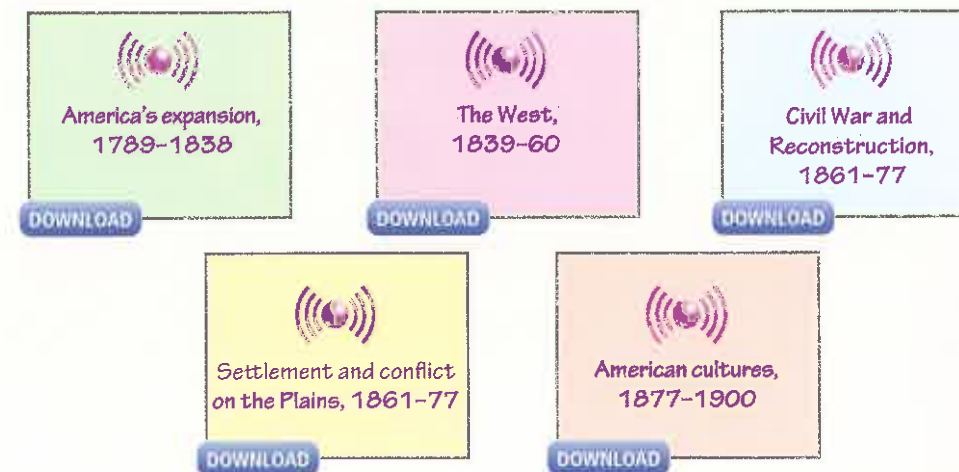
### 3. Small cards

Small cards are a flexible way to make revision notes. You could create a set of revision cards for each of the five main issues/enquiries you have studied. It would be good to use a different colour for each set of cards.



### 4. Podcasts

If you learn best by listening to information, you could record your knowledge and understanding by producing podcasts to summarise what you have learned about each of the five main issues. You could produce your podcast with a friend using a question-and-answer format.



**Memory maps**

It may help you to remember what happened in The Making of America, 1789–1900 if you can visualise when and where events and developments occurred. Annotate four maps like the ones below to show the main changes in each period. An annotation has been included for each map to get you started. Your annotations don't have to be very precise – a rough idea of where events took place will be enough to help you remember.

**1789–1833**



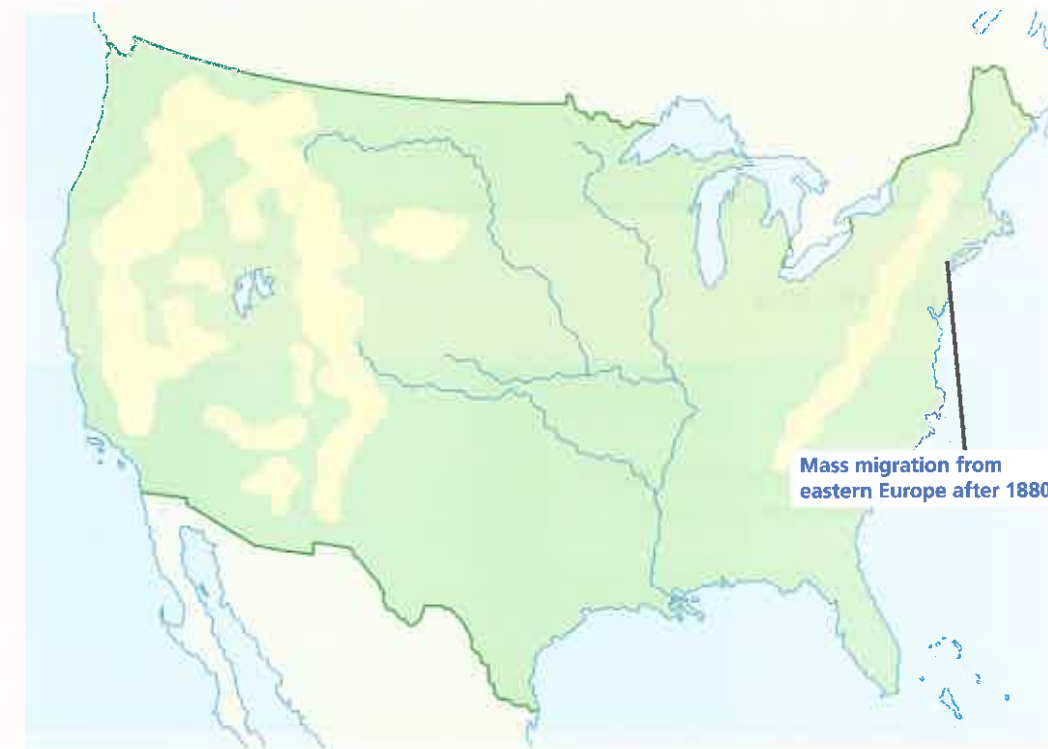
**1839–60**



**1861–77**



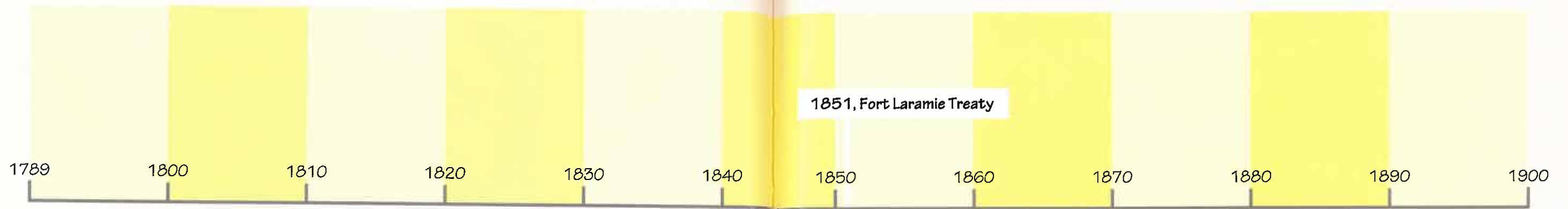
**1877–1900**



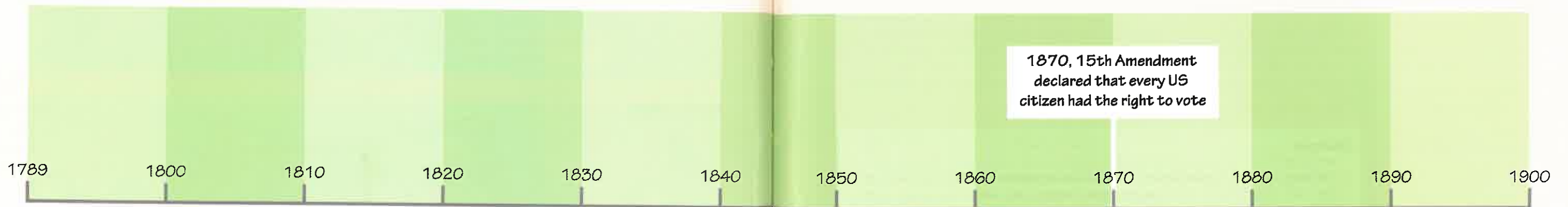
## Timelines

Your study of The Making of America, 1789–1900 has focused on the changes experienced by three groups of people during this period: native Americans, black Americans and white Americans. To prepare for the examination you will need to be clear about the events and developments which shaped the history of each group. Use the notes you have made for each enquiry to produce your own timeline summary for each group of people.

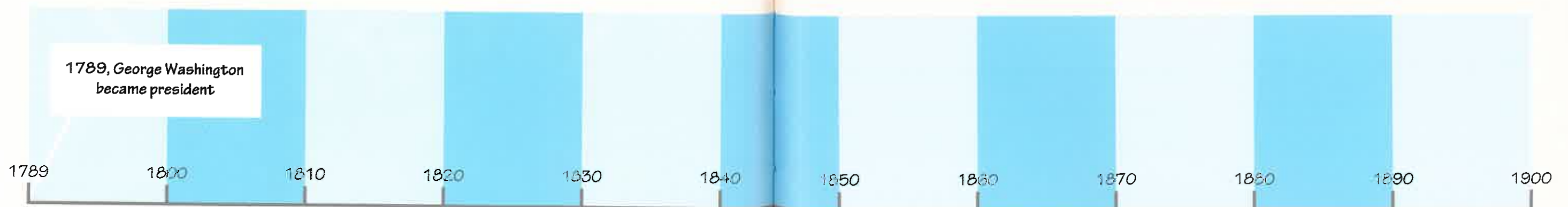
### Native Americans



### Black Americans



### White Americans



## Exam guidance

The world period study forms the first half of Paper 3: world history. It is worth 20 per cent of your GCSE. The whole exam lasts for 1 hour 45 minutes so you will have just over 50 minutes to answer the four questions on The Making of America, 1789–1900.

### Question 1

You will be asked three quick questions, each worth one mark. Question 1 requires you to show factual knowledge about The Making of America, 1789–1900. The questions will usually begin 'Give **one** example of...', 'Name **one**...', 'Which...?', 'Name the...', 'What was...?'

#### Example

- 1 a Name **one** of the states that were added to the USA between 1789 and 1838. (1)
- b Name **one** of the Indian wars fought between 1861 and 1876. (1)
- c Name **one** of the main industries that provided employment for large numbers of African Americans in the South after 1877. (1)

Make a list of ten questions which would make a good Question 1.

### Question 2

This question is worth nine marks. It will always begin 'Write a clear and organised summary of...'. You might be asked to write a narrative account of how an aspect of The Making of America, 1789–1900 changed over time or a description of an aspect of The Making of America, 1789–1900 at a particular time.

#### Example

- 2 Write a clear and organised summary that analyses the difficulties faced by early migrants on their journeys to Oregon and California in the 1840s and 1850s. Support your summary with examples. (9)

Think of five more good questions for the summary task.

### Question 3

This is an explanation task worth ten marks. Typical questions will begin 'Why...', 'Why did...?', 'What was the impact of...?', 'What caused...?', 'Why do you think...?'

#### Example

- 3 What was the impact of the Californian gold rush, 1848–49? Explain your answer. (10)

Think of five more good questions for the explanation task.

### Question 4/5

The last question in the first part of Paper 1 is the most challenging because it asks you to make a judgement about an aspect of The Making of America, 1789–1900. You need to save enough time for this question because it is worth eighteen marks. You have a choice of two questions. The question will always ask you 'how far' you agree with a given statement.

#### Examples

- 4 How far do you agree that the building of railroads across the Plains was the main reason for the destruction of the Plains Indians' culture after 1877? Give reasons for your answer. (18)
- 5 'The period of Reconstruction from 1863 to 1877 was a period of progress for former slaves in America's southern states.' How far do you agree with this statement? Give reasons for your answer. (18)

Think of five more good questions for the judgement task.