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Dedicated to John Bryan (1933-2020)

As John would fondly say,

What greater mission in life is there than to educate
the next generation of American citizens?

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Table of Contents

Foreword: Why Study American History? ............................................. 2

Chapter 1: Early Americans and the First Europeans .............................. 6

Chapter 2: European Exploration and Colonization of the Americas ......... 28

Chapter 3: English Colonies Take Shape ......................................... 52

Chapter 4: The American Revolution ........................................... 74

Chapter 5: Creating a Constitution for the United States ..................... 98

Chapter 6: The New Republic and the War of 1812 ............................ 122

Chapter 7: Westward Expansion Before the Civil War ....................... 144

Chapter 8: Division, Civil War, and Reconstruction .......................... 168

Chapter 9: Westward Expansion After the Civil War ......................... 194

Glossary ............................................................................. 216

Meet the Author ............................................................... 220
Where there is history children have transferred to them the advantages of old men; where history is absent, old men are as children.

Juan Vives – Spanish Philosopher, ca. 1500s

The first law for the historian is that he shall never dare utter an untruth. The second is that he shall suppress nothing that is true.

Cicero – Ancient Roman Historian

The further you look back, the farther you can see ahead.

Henry Ford – Founder, Ford Motor Company

A nation which does not know what it was yesterday, does not know what it is today, nor what it is trying to do.

Woodrow Wilson – 28th U.S. President

Think Twice
As you can see from the quotes, there are various opinions on why the study of history is essential. Why do you think knowing about the past is important?
What is the point of studying history? Who cares about all those names and faces from so many years ago, and what does any of it have to do with the times we are living in now?

No doubt these are questions you have asked or have wanted to ask your teachers at one point or another. You are not alone. Generations of students, including your grandparents and parents, have asked these questions, too. But the study of history is important. And the study of the history of this country is very important because to know our history is to know the story of how this country came to be. Knowing and understanding that story helps us better understand why things are the way they are and how we arrived at the times we live in now.

History is full of true stories about real people who were just like us, with the same emotions, motivations, and concerns. The study of history also contains a degree of mystery—of the unknown. For example, no one who is alive today can tell us what really happened when the Pilgrims first set foot on these shores. We can never know the exact or complete story. But, by piecing together the evidence we do have, and using informative clues, we can get awfully close. Some of the best clues or items of evidence that historians use to piece together a picture of the past are primary sources.

Vocabulary

primary source, n. a firsthand account of a historical event

Primary sources are firsthand accounts of historical events and can include things such as letters, diary entries, newspaper articles, and physical artifacts (remains of objects used a long time ago). When we think about history in these terms, we may find that its study can actually be quite exciting—something like piecing together a large jigsaw puzzle.
An understanding of American history benefits all Americans. Thomas Jefferson is frequently quoted as having said, “An educated citizenry is a vital requisite for our survival as a free people.” While there is no direct evidence that Jefferson said or wrote these exact words, his strong feelings about education and the ideas behind this statement are echoed in the writings that are proven to be his. The spirit and intent of many of his writings tell us that Mr. Jefferson was absolutely right. Learning about this nation’s past will help us better understand what it means to be an American and why many have risked their lives over time to become one. As Americans, one of the primary things we share is our history.

Handwriting and signature of Thomas Jefferson, 1803
Our common history, the one that reveals a struggle to live up to the ideals put forth in our founding documents, but has nevertheless continued to persevere, is what makes us a unique nation. There has been enslavement of people of African descent, displacement of Native Americans, war, poverty, and injustices of various kinds. There have been extraordinary achievements too. As Cicero pointed out, it is important to share the truth of our history so that we can learn from past mistakes. Put another way, Spanish philosopher George Santayana once said, “If one does not know history, he is doomed to repeat it.” Therefore, by earnestly examining the true events in our past, we are more able to make life better for all of our country’s citizens today and in the future. The power to make changes in our country rests with the people who vote for elected representatives.

Such power is because the United States is a democratic constitutional republic, and as such, the people have the power to elect their government. In countries in which monarchs or dictators rule, the people have little to no power. Indeed, the United States is one of the oldest and most successful democracies in the world. But the continued success of that democracy depends on having citizens who are educated, informed, and interested. Your study of American history is a very important step toward becoming a member of the educated and informed citizenry the founders of this country envisioned.

Jorge Agustín Nicolás Ruiz de Santayana y Borrás, aka George Santayana, 1863–1952; Spanish-born philosopher, essayist, poet, and novelist
Columbus mistakenly believed the people he first laid eyes on were South Asian Indians. In fact, they were members of the Arawak tribe, a group that had populated the Caribbean basin for hundreds of years. Because he thought he was in India, Columbus named the people he saw indios. The term Indian is the English derivative of this word.

The Big Question

What were some of the similarities and differences between the early indigenous or Native American groups of the Americas?
How People Came to America

The long-held explanation of how America’s indigenous peoples came to settle this part of the world is the Beringian land bridge theory. This theory proposes that Stone Age migrants from central Asia crossed a frozen land bridge from the Eastern Hemisphere. The land bridge had been formed by the geological patterns of the era. It was located in the area now known as the Bering Strait. This narrow body of water separates North America from Asia and borders Alaska on the west. Many centuries ago, this area was a land formation that people could cross on foot. It is believed that early migrants came here following the big game they hunted for food. In time, over the course of hundreds of years, groups of people with different languages and different ways of life populated what is now North, Central, and South America. More recently, scholars have proposed that people first arrived in various ways, including walking across frozen water, and by boat along the Pacific Coast.

Indigenous Society Before European Contact

As many as eighty to one hundred million people lived in the Western Hemisphere by the time Italian explorer Christopher Columbus arrived. They occupied lands throughout the North and South American continents. Their lands extended north to the Arctic—now Alaska and northern Canada—south to the Andes Mountains of South America, and to all points in between. Big game hunting may have brought some to the land, but climate patterns and the locations they settled in distinguished each group further. The Inuit, in what is now Alaska, were seal hunters. Mound-building farmers lived in the Mississippi Valley. And Peru and Ecuador were home to highly structured agricultural societies. As populations grew, societies became more complex. We will now take a closer look at the different indigenous groups that lived in South, Central, and North America.

Think Twice

Why might it be difficult to truly understand how people originally migrated to the Americas?
Three of the most highly established and organized indigenous groups of the Western Hemisphere were the Inca, the Maya, and the Aztec. The Inca lived in what is now the country of Peru, as well as in other areas along the western coast of South America. They built one of the most extensive empires the world had ever known. In fact, many of their roads, walls, and irrigation works are still in use today. The masonry, metalwork, and weaving performed by expert Inca artisans rivaled anything that could be found in Europe at the time.

The Inca were extraordinarily skilled in warfare compared to any group of their time. However, the Inca’s skills were no match for Spanish explorers who invaded their territory in the 1500s. Known as *conquistadors*, these warrior-explorers used force against indigenous groups. The warriors assaulted Inca homelands in search of gold and silver.

One of these conquistadors was Francisco Pizzaro. Intrigued by the stories of the wealth of the Inca empire, Pizzaro was determined to seize some of this wealth for himself. So he set out on an expedition. Pizzaro lured the last of the Inca emperors, Atahualpa, with an invitation to dinner. When Atahualpa arrived, he received no fine meal. Instead, Pizzaro’s men captured Atahualpa and eventually murdered him. The loss of their emperor discouraged the Incas. They struggled to fight back. Although they vastly outnumbered the invading Spanish, their empire quickly collapsed in the face of European weaponry.

**Find Out the Facts**
Research the skills practiced by Inca, Maya, and Aztec artisans.

**Find Out the Facts**
Find out more about the last Inca emperor, Atahualpa.
The Maya used complex math to create a highly accurate calendar.

The Maya occupied what is now southern Mexico, Honduras, and northern Guatemala. The most dominant society of its region and era, the Maya developed the most sophisticated system of written language anywhere in precolonial America. The Maya constructed impressive pyramids, which they used as temples where religious rites were carried out. A deeply religious people, the Maya were guided by their spiritual beliefs. Over time, they developed complex mathematical concepts. The Maya used these concepts to create an astronomically accurate calendar. They were also one of a small number of early societies to invent and use the number zero. (Historians have found evidence that the concept of zero spread in other cultures from ancient Mesopotamia to India, and then to China.)

Unlike the Inca, the causes of the Maya empire’s decline are less certain. Some historians believe that environmental changes may have been to blame. An extended drought deprived this agriculturally based society of much-needed rainwater to grow its crops. Other historians believe that constant warfare among rival city-states within the empire weakened its government from within and led to its collapse. Still other historians believe that overpopulation and a fragile environment that could not grow enough food to feed everyone was the cause of the decline. It’s possible it was a combination of all three factors. However the decline came about, and by the time Spanish invaders arrived in the area in the mid-1500s, many of the great cities that had once existed were lost in the thick vegetation of the Central American rainforest.
The Aztec lived to the north of the Maya empire. Their grand capital city was called Tenochtitlán. The Aztec controlled a vast expanse of what is now north-central Mexico. The Aztec engaged in agriculture as their primary economic activity. They also developed trading relationships with groups such as the Ancestral Pueblo and the Hopis of the American Southwest. By the time of Spanish conquest in the mid-1500s, the Aztec empire included five hundred smaller tribal communities with an estimated population between seven and eight million people.

One of the most notable features of Aztec culture was its use of human sacrifice in religious rituals. The Aztec built magnificently constructed temples, similar to those built by their Maya neighbors to the south. Aztecs performed sacred ceremonies they believed would be acceptable to their two most important gods, Huitzilopochtli (the god of the sun and the god of war) and Quetzalcoatl (the feathered serpent).

Tribes who did not trade with the Aztec justifiably feared their formidable neighbors. But the Aztec would meet their match when in the fall of 1519, Hernan Cortés and his men arrived in Tenochtitlán.

In 1519, Cortés and his men arrived in Tenochtitlán.

There they were greeted by the last Aztec emperor, Montezuma, and members of his royal court. Cortés and his men were treated like gods. The Aztec compared their light skin to the light skin of their feathered serpent god, Quetzalcoatl. Just beforehand, Montezuma had sent out messengers to confirm rumors of the Spanish arrival in the area. Their messages frightened Montezuma. His messengers described the Spanish weapons. One said, “A thing like a ball of stone comes out of its entrails, it comes out shooting sparks and raining fire.” Montezuma’s messengers went on
to inform him that those balls of stone had a “pestilent odor, like that of rotten mud.” Montezuma grew more anxious when his messengers described what Cortés and his men looked like. “Their bodies were completely covered so only their faces were seen . . . their skin is white as if made of lime.” Cortés had few men compared to the Aztec. But what Cortés and his men lacked in numbers, they made up for with advanced weapons. Like the Incas of Peru, the Aztecs of Mexico were defeated by the firepower of the Spanish. Montezuma himself died at their hands.

Think Twice
What do you think Montezuma’s messengers were describing?

Perhaps even more deadly than Cortés’s armed invasions into Aztec territory were European diseases such as smallpox, measles, and mumps. Although these diseases were common in Europe, indigenous people lacked immunity or resistance to them. One Catholic priest observed the effect these diseases had on the Aztecs: “They died in heaps . . . in many places, it happened that everyone in the house died . . . as it became impossible to bury them all because their numbers were too great, sometimes they pulled their houses down on top of them so that their houses became their tombs.” Within one year of Cortés’s arrival in Mexico, the Aztec population decreased by forty percent from smallpox deaths alone.

Vocabulary
pestilent, adj. infectious or sickly
smallpox, n. a serious disease that spreads from person to person and causes a fever and rash
Indigenous Societies in North America

When it came to daily life for the indigenous peoples of North America, their lifestyles and customs were greatly impacted by the environments they lived in. Regional areas are characterized by similar climate patterns, vegetation, and wildlife. Generally, indigenous tribes of North America lived in one of four geographic regions: the Southwest, the Southeast, the Northwest, and the Northeast.

Vocabulary

- **climate pattern**, n. the type of weather that occurs regularly in a place
- **geographic region**, n. a large area whose geographic characteristics, such as climate and physical features, set it apart from other places

The American Southwest

The American Southwest has unique geographic features, with mesas, canyons, and plateaus that stretch for miles. It has a dry, arid climate, which makes living there challenging. Because of this, native farmers spent thousands of years learning to harness the power of the region’s precious rivers. Those who lived in this region adopted diverse living practices that were as varied as they were.

The Ancestral Pueblo occupied what is known as the “Four Corners” area (the place where the states of Utah, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona meet). They lived in dwellings they carved out of cliffs. These structures could house between eight hundred and one thousand people at a time, so they looked somewhat like the apartment buildings we are used to today.

For hundreds of years, the Ancestral Pueblo lived as cliff dwellers in the American Southwest. But then suddenly they were gone. What happened? Scientists have several different theories. One idea holds that the thin soils of the region could no longer support the
We may never know exactly why the Ancestral Pueblo left their cliff dwellings.

The volume of farming that was needed to sustain life and keep it going. Prolonged periods without rain would have made it even harder for plants to grow and for animals to survive. What is known for sure is that something made the ancient Pueblo peoples of this region leave their homes.

Today, Pueblo people live in small groups throughout the Southwest and trace their roots to the Ancestral Pueblo, the cliff dwellers of long ago. The Pima and Zuni are descendants of the ancient Pueblo. When the Spanish first encountered these town dwellers, they called them Pueblos. That’s because Pima and Zuni homes reminded the Spanish of a small town, called a pueblo in the Spanish language. Pueblos believed the close quarters they lived in promoted a sense of community that helped them get along with their neighbors.

The Navajo and other members of the Apache Nation were among some of the other groups that lived in the American Southwest. Believed to have come from western Canada, the Navajo eventually settled in small villages across the Southwest and became farmers, shepherds, and silversmiths. They often got into conflicts with Pueblos, whose fields they raided from time to time. In fact, the word Navajo means “enemies of plowed fields,” likely another name given by Spanish explorers who encountered them in the 1500s. The Navajo call themselves Diné, which means “the people.”
Indigenous groups who lived in the American Northwest lived in areas that make up the modern states of Alaska, Washington, Oregon, and northern California. The people in this region farmed. They also took advantage of their natural surroundings to provide them with food and the makings for shelter and cultural artifacts. This meant that they turned to the region’s abundant lakes, rivers, and streams for fish and other aquatic animals to eat. They used the heavily forested areas to construct shelter, boats, and religious artifacts. Perhaps the two best known tribes in this region were the Haida and the Inuit. The Haida were known for the totem poles they created. Totem poles are wooden carvings that are decorated with brightly colored likenesses of animals and human figures. Totem poles were symbols of a family’s power and rank. The more elaborate the carvings were, the more powerful the family.

The Inuit were and are indigenous people who occupied the Arctic regions of Canada and the United States. In their own native language, the name Inuit means “the people,” and this is the name they used when referring to themselves. Just as with other indigenous groups who lived in other regions, the Inuit had to learn to adapt to living in their extreme environment. The Inuit had no access to typical building materials such as wood or sun-dried mud bricks. So the Inuit learned how to make warm housing from snow and ice in the winter (igloos) and from stretched animal skins, driftwood, and whalebone in the summer. Because they lived in the very cold climate of the Arctic, they needed warm, thick clothing, which they made from seal, otter, and caribou skin. They lined the coats they made from these animal skins with the furs of polar bears, rabbits, and foxes. One way in which the Inuit secured food was through ice fishing. Inuit fishermen bored holes in the ice and caught fish in the icy waters below. Upon catching the fish, they would allow it to freeze in the icy air. When they were ready to cook it, the fish tasted just as fresh as the day that it was frozen. The Inuit process of freezing their fish would inspire future generations to preserve and prepare their food in much the same way.

Writers’ Corner
Write a paragraph on the various challenges faced by indigenous people living in either a very dry environment or a frozen one.
The American Northeast expands from the north, bordering Canada, to east of the Mississippi River, to the Atlantic Coast. The indigenous people of the American Northeast had the best climate to achieve success in farming. They did not have to substantially improve their environments to farm successfully. The people of this region are also known by the general name, Eastern Woodlands Indians. One characteristic of these people is that they lived under complex systems of government. Their complex government easily shatters stereotypes that claim Native Americans were less organized and less sophisticated than Europeans. One group with a particularly sophisticated government was the Iroquois. Although they did not have a written language, the Iroquois were a remarkable group in terms of the form of government they established. Their approach to making laws and keeping the peace was so impressive that later, American colonists such as Benjamin Franklin would look to the Iroquois for inspiration when designing a government for a brand-new nation.

The Iroquois Confederacy, initially made up of the Five Nations, lived on lands in what is now New York, Vermont, and Connecticut. Each nation selected representative leaders whose job was to discuss and ultimately vote on solutions to problems. But for a decision to pass, there had to be a unanimous vote. This judicial style of government provided the ability to settle conflicts between neighbors and to regulate commerce. Most of the nations who joined the confederacy, also known as the Haudenosaunee Confederacy, lived in what is now New York State. The nations were the Mohawk, the Onondaga, the Seneca, the Oneida, and the Cayuga.

Historical evidence suggests that the Iroquois and some of their neighbors, such as the Narraganset, the Powhatan, the Algonquin, the Delaware, and the Cree, functioned in democratic societies where women were vital members of the

---

**Vocabulary**

_**judicial,** adj. having to do with courts of law or decisions of right and wrong

_**commerce,** n. the buying and selling of goods and services; trade_
decision-making process. All adults—men and women—had a voice in making decisions. The women were very skilled farmers and produced much of the food for the community.

The strength of the Haudenosaunee Confederacy earned praise from many Europeans and colonists. Some confederacy ceremonies became famous throughout North America. For example, the confederacy’s council meetings, where Haudenosaunee leaders discussed common problems, were called to order by the smoking of a pipe. The saying “smoking the peace pipe” comes from this tradition. Like “burying the hatchet,” “smoking the peace pipe” has become part of our everyday language. It means sitting down and calmly talking over a problem to reach a fair solution.

By the time Columbus landed in the Caribbean isles in 1492, many different indigenous peoples were living in the Eastern Woodlands of North America. The Eastern Woodlands stretched from Lake Superior to the Atlantic Coast. The landscape of the Eastern Woodlands was mostly forest. Most people lived in clearings within forested areas near creeks, rivers, lakes, or ponds. The forest provided plenty of wood and forest materials for building and for fuel, many large and small animals and birds to hunt, an almost year-round supply of fish, and plenty of roots, berries, and nuts to collect. Besides all of the food that was available just outside the door, the land could be cleared in order to plant crops. The soil was rich, even though in some areas the growing season was short.

Corn, beans, and squash were the main crops. The Haudenosaunee called these main crops “the three sisters.” All three crops were planted together.

Corn seeds were planted in rows of little hills, one step apart. Beans were planted
Corn, beans, and squash were the main crops grown in the Eastern Woodlands. The beans could climb up the corn stalks as they grew taller. Squash was grown in the low areas between the hills. The broad leaves of the squash plants provided shade to stop weeds from growing. The squash leaves also shaded the ground and kept it moist. This early form of sustainable agriculture would inspire farmers and gardeners centuries later.

Indigenous people lived in communal, small village settings. Around the Great Lakes, people built wigwams. A wigwam had a framework of poles pounded into the ground in a circle. The poles were tied together at the top to make a dome. Bark, reeds, or mats were used for the walls. Fires were built in the middle of the floor. Smoke escaped through a hole at the top. The Haudenosaunee lived in longhouses, which were dwellings that were also built with wooden poles. This type of house formed a long rectangle with a door at each end, and there were fire pits in the center of the room. Smoke escaped through holes in the roof. Longhouses were about twenty feet wide. They could be long or short, depending on how many families lived in the building. A typical longhouse held ten families with five fire pits.
Another group of Eastern Woodlands Native Americans was the Mahican. Their name comes from *muh-he-cn-nuk*, which means great water that is always moving, either flowing or ebbing. Stories passed down for many years tell about the Mahican crossing over the water that gave them their name. This water, said the legend, was far in the north. There, two lands were nearly connected. From there the Mahican traveled east, and they crossed many rivers. Finally, they found a place that seemed like home. It was the valley of the Hudson River. This old Mahican story closely matches the theory of the Beringian land bridge route, which archaeologists have confirmed.

**Vocabulary**

**Mound Builders**, n. prehistoric Native American people who lived in the Mississippi River Valley and were known by the huge earthen mounds they built

---

**Think Twice**

What level of cooperation would be needed for ten families to live in one home, or longhouse?

---

**The Mound Builders**

Just as the Ancestral Pueblo did, other early indigenous groups learned to live in a way that seems very mysterious to us today. One such group of people was called the *Mound Builders*. They once lived near rivers in what is now the Midwest and in the Southeast. The Mound Builders way of life began about 2,800 years ago. This was about the same time as the civilization of ancient Greece. Like the Ancestral Pueblo, the Mound Builders were farmers, growing corn, squash, and beans. Because they were farmers, the Mound Builders settled in one place. They raised so much food that they could trade with other groups. They built cities, roads, and marketplaces. The cities and towns they constructed lasted for centuries.

Though once it was a mystery, scientists have discovered the cause of the decline of Mound Builder civilizations. Like the Aztecs, the people of the Mississippi Valley were exposed to new diseases when European explorers arrived in the 1500s. In a very short time, the diseases swept through whole communities, and many died. Survivors of the Mound Builders became the Native American nations known today as the Creek, the Cherokee,
and the Choctaw. In the late 1600s, French explorers observed the last Mound Builder city in what is now Mississippi. It was ruled by a wealthy, powerful king, but by the early 1700s, this city, too, was gone.

The most prolific groups in this area were Mound Builder survivors who probably joined other Native American groups in this region and who would eventually settle in villages and small towns. Some of these groups became the Creek Confederacy, located along the Mississippi River. Creek communities were a lot like the Mound Builder communities. Creeks kept many parts of Mound Builder culture, including towns with plazas, ceremonies, and games. One popular game played by Mound Builders was trade with other indigenous groups.

Think Twice
Why would an abundance of food enable the Mound Builders to trade?

The American Southeast

Stretching from the lower Midwest to the subtropics of the Gulf plains to the Appalachian highlands, the American Southeast covers different types of geography. Indigenous tribes of this region lived in places where the growing season was longer and the vegetation was more varied.
by the Creeks was *afvcketv* (pronounced /ah*futch*kitt*uh/), which is a stickball
game similar to the Iroquois game of
lacrosse. Men used paired racquets to toss
a small ball toward a target placed atop
a tall pole, and the women threw and
catched the ball with their hands.

Most members of the Creek Confederacy
spoke the same language, and they held
the same religious ceremonies. When
a town got too big, part of the group
would split off and start a new town
nearby. In this way, the Creeks spread into
what is now North and South Carolina,
Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and
Louisiana. Creek towns and villages had
areas for farming and for living. Cattle,
hogs, and other livestock were kept in
fenced areas. Corn and potatoes were
grown on farmland between the villages.

### Think Twice

How might splitting off and creating
new communities have helped the
Creek people survive?

---

The Cherokee (/cher*uh*kee/) are
southeastern people descended from
the Mound Builders. Their homeland was
in what is now western North Carolina,
eastern Tennessee, and northern Georgia.
Some Cherokee still live in the area, but
sadly, most of the Cherokee and many
Seminoles were forced to move from their
homeland to what is now Oklahoma. Like
other southeastern Native Americans,
the Cherokee lived in small communities
on good farming land. They built wood-
frame houses with walls made of woven
vines or branches plastered with mud.
Each village had a central building, or council house, for celebrations, ceremonies, and meetings. This council house had seven sides, each representing one of the Cherokee clans. The clans were Bird, Paint, Deer, Wolf, Blue, Long Hair, and Wild Potato. Each group of Cherokee had two chiefs: one chief ruled during peacetime, the other during war. The chiefs helped guide the people and make decisions, but they did not have complete control over the people. The people had a say in how they were ruled. Like other North American indigenous groups, the Cherokee told many legends. These legends explained how their world had come into being and how people should live. In the late 1700s and early 1800s, the Cherokee became the only Native American people in the United States who kept written records in their own language.

**Sequoyah**
The written language of the Cherokee was created by a man named Sequoyah (/sɪhˈkwɔi*uh/). He was born in the 1770s in Tennessee. Sequoyah became interested in books and letters, which he had seen written in English. He invented a set of symbols for the Cherokee language. This allowed the Cherokee language to be written and read. Sequoyah taught many Cherokee people to write the new language. In fact, it is still used today.

**The Seminoles**
Members of the Seminole (/seh*muh*nole/) Nation are also descended from the Mound Builders. Today, many Seminoles live in Florida and Oklahoma. Every Seminole is a member of one of eight clans, or family groups, named Bear, Deer, Wind, Bigtown, Bird, Snake, Otter, and Panther. The Panther clan is the largest. The Seminoles believe in nature spirits, including animal spirits. The spirits guide them in terms of how to live. Seminole children belong to their mothers’ clans.
Shared Cultural Traits and Sources of Conflict

It is important for us to remember that the people we now refer to as Native Americans, or indigenous peoples, did not comprise a single group. They did not all have the same way of life, traditions, or beliefs. But there were some things that indigenous peoples had in common that made them very different from the Europeans they would later encounter. Some common practices of the indigenous cultures were the same practices that proved to be major sources of conflict between the two groups when they came into contact with each other.

Religion was one area where the two groups held very different beliefs and customs. The biggest religious difference had to do with gods. The Europeans embraced **monotheism**, which is the belief in one God. By contrast, Native American religions tended to reflect **polytheism**, the belief in many gods. Indeed, to this day, within the belief systems of many native religions,

**Vocabulary**

**monotheism**, n. the religious belief in one god  
**polytheism**, n. the religious belief in many gods
everything in the natural world possesses a spirit and is therefore entitled to some form of worship or adoration.

Europeans’ beliefs sprang from Christianity, the Christian Bible and the catechism, and the clergy, or religious leaders, who taught them. Indigenous societies, instead, almost always relied on traditions and values that were passed down orally from the elders to everyone else.

Indigenous groups also received inspiration from people known as **shamans**. A shaman was a religious leader who performed healing rites and rituals. Shamans were believed to have access to spirits that had the ability to heal or harm.

**Vocabulary**

**shaman, n.** a religious leader who performs healing rites and rituals

These belief systems also impacted the way the two groups saw the natural environment. From the viewpoint of Europeans, God put humankind in charge of the earth to shape, control, and change the environment in ways that made a preferred way of life possible. Indigenous people lived as part of their environment. They hunted and gathered for food, medicine, clothing, and materials to build houses. By and large, they did not hunt for sport. They saw such an activity as wasteful and a violation of the spirit of the animals being killed.

**Think Twice**

Why might differences in religious views have caused problems between Europeans and Native Americans?
Another point of difference was the way the two groups viewed land ownership. This was a foreign concept for Native Americans and was the source of just about every conflict between the two groups. For most indigenous tribes, the concept of ownership and private property was strange. They viewed the land as something that was the giver of life for all, not something that any one person could own. On the other hand, Europeans saw land ownership as the basis of personal wealth. In Europe, and later in America, the amount of land someone owned was one measure of how much wealth the person had. Over time, as the population in Europe grew, the desire or quest for land elsewhere grew too.

As you will discover, much conflict did ensue between the groups. Huge areas of land were taken by settlers and, much later, by the American government. Many Native Americans died of diseases that Europeans brought with them. Others fought until they were defeated or driven away from their homes. Ways could not be found to “bury the hatchet” or “smoke the peace pipe.” And in the end, thousands upon thousands of Native Americans lost their sacred spaces, traditional hunting grounds, and the land upon which their ancestors had lived for thousands of years.

Native Americans lived in harmony with nature.

Think Twice
How might the Native American view of land ownership have placed them at a disadvantage?

Find Out the Facts
Research one Native American group that you have read about in this chapter.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research on a Native American group, write a report revealing the key facts you have discovered.
Quite possibly, the first Europeans to come to America were warrior-explorers from Scandinavia called Vikings. Vikings, or Norsemen, were skilled sailors and made good soldiers. Not every Viking was a soldier or sailor, though. Most were farmers who kept cattle and sheep. Starting around the 800s and 900s, their Scandinavian homelands began to get crowded. So some set out in search of lands to settle on and new waters to fish. They also hoped to find treasures they could use to enrich themselves.

The first Viking ship arrived in America accidentally. Bjarni Herjolfsson (/bee*yar*nee/hur*yolf*sun/) was a Norse sailor who was sailing the northern Atlantic in 986 when strong winds blew him off his planned course to Greenland. He made landfall somewhere off the coast of northeastern Canada. He may have been the first European to lay eyes on North America. After finding his way back home, an excited Herjolfsson told his people what he had seen. His stories inspired other explorers to find the same land Herjolfsson had found. One of those who listened to Herjolfsson’s stories was his friend Leif Eriksson. Leif, whose nickname was Leif the Lucky, was the son...
of Erik the Red, who was believed to be the first European to discover Greenland.

Eriksson was a good sailor. He followed Herjolfsson’s route and landed in a place he called Vinland because of the wild vines he saw growing there. Vinland was probably the modern Canadian province of Nova Scotia. The vines Eriksson saw were likely berry bushes.

Eriksson’s expedition led the way for others to follow, including his brother Thorvald. As part of another Viking expedition some years later, a colony was established that is believed to have lasted roughly three years.

Find Out the Facts
Find out more about Viking culture.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research, write a report on Vikings.
Eventually, the settlers in this small Viking colony returned to their native Scandinavia, and it would be another four centuries before more Europeans would come to America.
Chapter 2
European Exploration and Colonization of the Americas

History Is the Spice of Life

History can be changed by many things. A battle, an election, an earthquake, or even a rainstorm can alter the course of events. But would you ever have thought that peppercorns and cinnamon sticks could lead to the founding of such a powerful and influential nation?

The Big Question
What were the motivations that drove the exploration of the Americas?
In medieval Europe, people relied on spices not only to flavor their food but also as a way to preserve it. Without refrigerators or other cold storage, spices extended the time period during which meats and other foods could be stored and then safely eaten. In the Middle Ages, spices were hard to get. Pepper, cinnamon, ginger, cloves, and other seasonings were grown in faraway Asia. Getting the spices to Europe took a lot of time, money, and effort. Distances were great, and travel back and forth was dangerous. As a result, spices were very expensive. Europe’s desire for cheaper spices sparked the Age of European Exploration and, ultimately, the settlement of the Americas.

During the Middle Ages, the exact location of the Spice Islands was a closely guarded secret, and the spice trade was ruled by Arab traders. They controlled the market, not only for nutmeg and cloves from the Spice Islands, but also for ginger from China and cinnamon from India. For hundreds of years, from around 1100 until 1400, the Arabs managed to keep the location of the Spice Islands a secret. They even made up stories about how dangerous it was to sail to these islands. If you had been alive then, you might have heard tales told by Arab traders of the fantastical beasts and hideous flesh-eating birds that guarded the Spice Islands. Stories such as these were designed to help the Arab traders preserve their monopoly of the spice trade.

How did the spice trade work? Arab traders sailed east to trading centers in India, Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), and the Spice Islands. After loading up their ships, they sailed west again. A typical trip took them around the Arabian Peninsula, into the Red Sea, and north to Egypt. There they sold the spices to merchants from Venice and other parts of Italy. The Arab traders made huge profits.
from this exchange. The Venetians did well, too. They negotiated with Arab traders to distribute spices throughout Europe. Europeans wanting to purchase spices had to deal with Venice. Once they had acquired the spices, the Venetian merchants could set whatever prices and taxes they pleased, as there was no other way to get the spices. This arrangement made Venice a very wealthy city. It also made the Venetians unpopular. Wealthy Europeans were used to exotic goods from the Venetian marketplace. At the same time, they resented the high cost of doing business with Venetian merchants. Similarly, the Venetian merchants dreamed of a time when they would not have to deal with the Arab traders, but instead could deal directly with merchants in the Spice Islands.

Think Twice
What goods or items used today might be considered essential things we could not live without?

The Travels of Marco Polo

Maffeo and Niccolò Polo were brothers who lived in Venice in the second half of the 1200s. The Polos were traders and travelers. They used overland trade routes to set out to find the legendary markets of the East. At the time, the Mongols controlled much of Asia and part of Europe. The Mongols made the roads safe for travelers, and many adventurers were anxious to seek their fortunes. Some went to trade for silk, gems, porcelain, and tea. Others hoped to find sources of the world’s most exotic spices. When the Polo brothers started their second journey east in 1271, they decided to take Niccolò’s young son, Marco, with them. The expedition ended up taking them twenty-four years to complete. The three spent time in the service of the Mongol ruler Kublai Khan and traveled throughout Asia by land and by sea. Marco’s father and uncle served as military advisers to the Great Khan. Kublai Khan took a liking to Marco. He sent Marco to

Vocabulary

Mongol, n. a native of the Asian nation of Mongolia
distant parts of his kingdom on diplomatic missions. Wherever he went, Marco observed, asked questions, and remembered what he had seen.

In 1295, Marco Polo returned to Venice. Soon after, he was captured during a war with a neighboring city. Polo was sent to jail. His cellmate was a writer from the city of Pisa. During his days in prison, Polo talked about his travels, and the writer wrote down what Marco said. Together, the two cellmates produced a book that helped change the world. The Travels of Marco Polo was read by people all over Europe, first in handwritten copies and later in printed editions. Polo was the first European to write about China, Thailand, the Malay Archipelago, and other Asian lands. His book inspired European mapmakers to update their maps. These later-printed editions would enjoy wider distribution and would set in motion a chain of events that would literally open a whole new world to Europeans.

Find Out the Facts
Research Marco Polo and his travels to China.
The Dark Ages No More

The need for spices continued, alongside an expansion of trade and trading relationships between Europe and other parts of the world. Europe, though still an agrarian society, began to grow into a monetary economy. In a monetary economy, currency is used to trade for things. Trading became more robust, and little-used roads started seeing growing traffic. People became curious to know more about lands farther away. Spices were a part of that trade, but soon spices would be joined by other sought-after commodities. Exposure to more kinds of goods and products was made possible by another important event, the Crusades.

Vocabulary

agrarian society, n. a society that chiefly relies on agriculture or farming
monetary economy, n. a system of trade for goods and services that uses money rather than barter, or an exchange of goods
currency, n. a system of money

Think Twice

How might exploration have fueled the expansion of trade?

The Crusades

In the Middle Ages, generations of European knights and soldiers went on Crusades to the Middle East to capture the Holy Land from Muslims. When Europeans reached the Middle East, they saw that Islamic civilization was much more advanced than they had been led to believe. In addition to spices, there were silks and other luxury items that excited their senses and imaginations. Crusaders returned home and described the goods and cultures they had encountered. This added to European curiosity about the world outside their borders.

Vocabulary

Holy Land, n. an area in the Middle East that includes the city of Jerusalem and is considered special to members of the Jewish, Christian, and Islamic faiths

Find Out the Facts

Research the Middle Ages and in particular the various Crusades that happened during that time.
The Turkish Trade Route Barrier

Just as European city-states such as Venice established trade routes into Arab and Asian lands to get valuable goods for trading, a trade barrier appeared. In 1453, the Turks captured Constantinople, a city that sat at the crossroads of some valuable trade routes. Though this did not mean the end of trade, it did mean that another go-between was added to the string of merchants that bought and sold the goods from faraway lands. Europeans would have to deal with the Turks or be forced to find a new route that avoided Turkish territory. An all-water route to the East would mean cheaper transportation and higher profits—that is, if it could be found. The idea was inviting enough to make adventurous people and enterprising governments take long chances.

The Search for a New Route

In the mid-1400s, a Portuguese prince named Henry, inspired by his brother Pedro, became particularly interested in exploration for commercial reasons. Prince Henry sponsored a number of explorations throughout the 1400s, and his ships explored the coast of Africa and the islands of the Atlantic in search of trade goods. For years, the Portuguese explored the African coast, moving farther and farther south. In 1488, Bartolomeu Dias rounded the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa. Ten years later, Vasco da Gama reached India by rounding the Cape and continuing to sail farther east. At long last, an all-water route from western Europe to southern Asia had been found. Within a few years, Eastern trade shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic and from Italy to the Iberian Peninsula.

Find Out the Facts

What countries does the United States trade with today, and what are a range of goods that are traded?

An Incidental “Discovery”

As it happened, an all-water route to the Far East was not the only thing that the Portuguese pioneered. Da Gama’s voyage to India put him in contact with a
flourishing trade in East Africa. Intrigued, da Gama quickly came to realize that establishing a trade presence in the name of Portugal could be a way to further enrich himself and increase his importance at home. He set a goal to dominate commerce in this area.

The African economy in general depended on farming and raising livestock. Still, trade was well established by the time the Portuguese arrived. Demand was high for African copper, iron ore, gold, ivory, salt, tools, and pottery. These goods and others were traded between the continent’s inland and coastal trade centers. From Africa, goods were transported north to Egyptian and Mediterranean trade centers. Others were transported east to trade centers in India. Historians sometimes call the East African coast the Swahili (/swuh*hee*lee/) Coast because the African language Swahili was spoken by many of the people in this area. The population of the Swahili Coast was a mixture of Africans, Arabs, and Persians. Most people in the region were Muslim. It was this level of thriving trade the Portuguese coveted. In time, they set up trading posts along the Swahili Coast in places such as Beira and Maputo Bay.

Beira was an especially valuable trade center. Gold that was mined inland was shipped down the Save River to Beira. From there, it was shipped to Portugal. Once the Portuguese were established along the Swahili Coast, they were anxious to learn more about the inland areas. For decades, the Portuguese tried to gain control of the rich resources of the interior of Africa. However, despite their efforts, they were met with strong resistance. Portugal was never able to gain full control of the African interior, and their expansion
was limited to a number of small colonies. The Portuguese did manage to break the Arab traders’ long-standing monopoly along the coast. They set up a network of trading posts not only along the Swahili Coast but also in India, the East Indies, and the Spice Islands.

Although they failed to establish significant colonies in East Africa, what the Portuguese did manage to establish was a trade in human labor. (Indeed, historians have concluded that it was actually Prince Henry who was instrumental in making this happen.) Starting in the late 1400s, the Portuguese began buying war captives whom they later sold in European markets, where they would be employed in the households of wealthy Europeans. The Portuguese introduced enslaved African labor first to Europe, and this new trade in human flesh would quickly grow.

**Columbus and Spain**

The Spanish watched Portugal’s success at exploration, and it made them willing to listen to the proposals of an Italian seafarer by the name of Christopher Columbus. Columbus proposed to find what he thought might be an even faster all-water route to Asia. He wanted to sail southwest from Europe instead of southeast, the way the Portuguese had done. After doubts and delays, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella finally gave Columbus the necessary financial support to prove his geographical theory. They instructed him to claim any new lands he found for Spain.

Like most educated people of his day, Columbus knew that the world was round, and he believed he could reach the East by sailing west. He also believed that the world was smaller than people imagined.
Therefore, he thought that the East Indies could not be very far west of the Canary Islands. Columbus was given three ships, the _Niña_, the _Pinta_, and the _Santa Maria_. In September of 1492, they left the Canary Islands and headed west into waters quite unfamiliar to Europeans. According to some who sailed with Columbus, many of the sailors were fearful of what lay ahead. Columbus comforted them with promises of riches. Columbus reached landfall on October 12, 1492, convinced that he had fulfilled his ambition to reach the Indies. Upon reaching the Caribbean island of Hispaniola, Columbus claimed the land for the Spanish crown.

**Writers’ Corner**

Imagine that you are sailing with Columbus across a vast, unexplored ocean to a land you hope to find. Write a letter to a family member describing your feelings and your fears.

**Think Twice**

What do you think of the attitude that existed at this time that land that Europeans “found” could be claimed as their own?
Columbus made subsequent voyages to America in the years following his initial venture. None of them were as successful as his first. But Columbus did manage to make a path for others to follow. The Spanish continued to expand their lands in the Americas after Columbus died. As the Spanish grew stronger, the situation of the indigenous peoples grew worse. Many of the Spaniards were ruthless colonists. Within a few years, a specific class of warriors came to the forefront. Between 1495 and 1535, Spanish conquistadors (/kon*kee*stuh*dorz/) gained control of much of South and Central America. Vasco Núñez de Balboa and Francisco Pizarro explored the Isthmus of Panama together. During their explorations, they learned about a great sea to the west. In 1513, Balboa organized an expedition to find it. He chose 190 of his toughest men, including Pizarro, as well as men to carry supplies. The party crossed swamps and fought off snakes, crocodiles, and mosquitos. They hacked their way through thick jungles and climbed mountains. Balboa and his men were rewarded for their struggles. On September 25, 1513, they stood atop a mountain and looked out over a body of water Balboa called “the South Sea.” Today, we call it the Pacific Ocean. Balboa marched down to the ocean and tasted the salt water, just to be sure. Then, as Europeans so often did, he claimed all the lands in the name of Spain.

Another Spaniard fascinated by stories of Hernán Cortés and Pizarro was Juan Ponce de León, who had traveled to the Americas with Christopher Columbus. He was made territorial governor of Puerto Rico, where he made a fortune in gold, land, and enslaved labor. Ponce de León wanted more, however. He had heard tales about a mythical spring that cured illnesses and made the elderly young again. He set out to find this Fountain of Youth. After obtaining a commission in 1512 from King Ferdinand, he sailed west and landed off the southeastern coast of what is now the United States. He landed on Easter weekend in April 1513 and
was greeted by blooming flowers so he called the land *la Florida*, or land full of flowers. Needless to say, Ponce de León did not find a Fountain of Youth. Unfortunately for him, he found indigenous Floridians who shot poisoned arrows. One entered his thigh, and the poison began to work. His men fled from Florida to Cuba, where the explorer died. He was buried under a stone that read “Here lies the bones of the brave lion.” *León* means lion in Spanish.

Word of Ponce de León’s adventures made its way back to Spain and fascinated all who heard it. Among the captivated was a Spaniard named Hernando de Soto. In 1539, de Soto organized an expedition to Florida. Over five hundred people signed up, two of whom were women. They believed de Soto’s promises about finding a city of gold; they called it Cibola. They also thought they could find a waterway that would take them to China and Japan.

After making their way across the Atlantic, de Soto’s team landed off the southwest coast of Florida in May 1539. It would be the first step in a trek that would ultimately last four years and cover a distance of over four thousand miles. De Soto’s journey would take him across the southeastern United States as far west as the Mississippi River. He is believed to have been the first European to sight the “big waters,” as the indigenous people called the Mississippi. In time, this would prove to be a valuable discovery, but de Soto was not interested in rivers. De Soto did not find gold, but he did do a lot of wandering around looking for it. He eventually died, most likely of *yellow fever*.

**Vocabulary**

*yellow fever*, n. an infection caused by a virus and spread by mosquitos in warm climates

**Think Twice**

Can you think of something considered valuable today—besides gold and silver—that people spend time looking for?
Pedro Menéndez de Avilés was one of Spain’s top naval officers in the 1500s, and he became one of the next to take up the challenge of finding gold in Florida. He set sail from Spain in July 1565 with a thousand men, breeding animals, seeds, and farming tools. He carried with him a vision of Florida becoming a great Spanish colony with an economy based on pearl diving, agriculture, and mining. Menéndez’s voyage took place in the middle of hurricane season, and ferocious rains quite literally nearly sunk his efforts. Yet, he persisted. Four weeks later, he landed off Florida’s east coast. Menéndez established a Spanish base. He named it Saint Augustine after the feast day Spanish Catholics observed on the day of the landing. A colony was built around this fort, and it would become the oldest continuously inhabited European settlement anywhere in North America.

While de Soto was exploring the eastern side of America, other Spaniards were farther west, expanding the Spanish presence on the continent. Throughout the 1540s, a conquistador named Francisco Vázquez de Coronado explored the interior of the United States in what is now Kansas. Coronado was motivated by tales of seven fabulously wealthy cities.
where streets were paved with gold. This tale, about the seven cities of Cibola, had captivated the Spanish. Coronado was one of a long list of conquistadors who set out to find Cibola.

Stubbornly persistent in their quest for gold, the Spaniards visited areas of North America that included what is now California, New Mexico, and Texas. But gold was not their only motivation. It was also their intention to convert the indigenous people to Catholicism. The Spanish created missions all over the Southwest. Santa Fe is the largest of these missions, and it grew into a full-blown settlement. In fact, today it is the oldest of its kind occupied by Europeans in the American Southwest. Soon, priests and settlers replaced gold seekers. The Franciscan order that operated these American missions claimed to have converted sixty thousand indigenous people to Christianity. However, they did note that many of these converts continued to observe their religious traditions alongside the Catholic rituals.

**Vocabulary**

**convert, v.** to change from one belief or religion to another

Although their focus on religion was serious, the glimmer of gold had not left the minds of the Spanish.

Conquistadors continued their campaigns to find gold in the American Southwest, and Juan de Oñate proved to be one of the cruelest and most ambitious of them all. Oñate became rich by mining...
gold in Mexico. The Spanish crown placed great faith in his ability to find the mythical city of Cibola, a search that was then going into its sixth decade. Oñate searched diligently, but as no such city existed, he failed. The brutal conquistador seized food from native communities, and when they protested, he slaughtered or enslaved them. Oñate’s actions were so gruesome that when word reached Mexico City, the capital of New Spain, Oñate was recalled to the capital and his title was revoked.

A Voice of Dissent

Even without Oñate’s cruel leadership, the relationship between the Spanish and indigenous Americans continued to be troubled. Years later, in 1680, Pueblo Indians mounted a massive resistance against the Spanish presence. The revolt is known as Pope’s Revolt after Popé, the medicine man of the San Juan Pueblo, who led it. The Spanish were forced to flee, and for twelve years the members of the pueblo resumed their lives without the cruel treatment of the Spanish.
The success of Pope’s Revolt was one of few bright spots for the indigenous peoples of the American Southwest. The indigenous population was much weakened by the Spanish. They suffered cruel treatment at the hands of Oñate and others like him. Many in the area also died from exposure to unfamiliar diseases. The treatment of the indigenous people at the hands of the conquistadors was not without critics. The most vocal was a Spanish cleric named Bartolomé de las Casas. In 1502, Las Casas sailed for the Americas. He settled in Hispaniola. There, he became a priest and was given a large plot of land and a number of enslaved workers. This system of a land grant and enslaved workers was called an encomienda. Although he accepted the grant, in time Las Casas decided that the encomienda system was wrong. The system was put in place to encourage Spanish settlers to establish homesteads in their new colonies, and using enslaved workers helped them become larger and wealthier. Las Casas began speaking out against the enslavement of indigenous people. He argued that the workers had souls worth saving. What was ironic about Las Casas’s opinions is that while he was against the enslavement of Native Americans, he actually supported the enslavement of Africans. So rather than speaking out against slavery, Las Casas called for replacing indigenous slaves with African ones. Las Casas was saddened by the decline of the indigenous population and believed Africans were more suitable to meet the grueling labor demands of the New World. Las Casas would come to regret his support for African enslavement as well. Toward the end of his life, he became a passionate opponent of human slavery of all kinds.
Exploration Fever Spreads

News of Spanish adventure in the Americas and the wealth that conquistadors gained from it stirred the envy of other Europeans in countries that included two of Spain’s biggest rivals: France and England. The French, not wanting to be left behind, hired an explorer of their own. Like the Spanish, the French paid an Italian sailor to help them. The sailor they hired was Giovanni da Verrazzano. Europeans suspected that there was a river passage through the American continent, and Verrazzano set out to find it. They called it the Northwest Passage and believed that whoever controlled that passage would control the route to China and its spices and jewels.

In 1524, Verrazzano sailed up the North American coast and into what would later become New York City’s harbor. He found no passageway there, so he kept sailing. His route took him farther north up the coast of Newfoundland in Canada. Verrazzano found neither the passageway to China nor gold. Verrazzano did not return to Europe because he was killed on an island in the Caribbean. The French king was sad to learn about his fate, but he was determined that France would both benefit from the riches found in the Americas and find the Northwest Passage. But who could help him achieve this goal?

This time, he turned to a Frenchman, Jacques Cartier, who made three voyages in all. On the first voyage, Cartier explored the coast of Labrador and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. At the time, he did not
realize that the Gulf of St. Lawrence was in fact the mouth of a mighty river (St. Lawrence River). Instead of exploring further, he claimed the land around the gulf for France and returned to Europe. Twice in later years Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence River. On his third journey, Cartier and his men found what they believed was gold, but when they returned to France, they found it was iron pyrite, also known as fool’s gold.

Eventually the French abandoned their earlier ambitions of finding either gold or a better trade route to China. Instead, the French decided that if they could not find gold on their own, they would simply plunder some from their Spanish rivals. In 1562, two small ships carrying about 150 Frenchmen landed off the coast of Florida. Their objective was to establish a base of operations from which to launch pirate attacks on Spanish ships. For a while, the French attempted to establish a foothold in Florida, but they were not able to break Spanish control of this area.

However, the French were not quite finished in North America. Following their defeat in Florida, they moved farther north to the region that is now Canada. There, they stuck to fishing, fur trapping, and trading. The French described the waters near Newfoundland as so thick with fish that boats had a hard time passing through. The French came in the spring, fished all summer, salted and dried their catch, and went home for the winter. Unlike their Spanish counterparts, French explorers tended to cooperate with indigenous people, not conquer them. A French explorer, Samuel de Champlain, made friends with Algonquins and Hurons and even went to war alongside them. Despite his friendship with indigenous groups, Champlain dreamed of a new nation in America where French people could live. So in 1608, Champlain founded Quebec, the second-oldest continuously occupied city in North America.
Samuel de Champlain was a key figure in the settlement of New France. The French wanted to trade with the Native Americans for furs, especially beaver skins, which were in high demand in Europe for making men’s hats. In turn, the Native Americans were eager to have the tools and other items the French offered. This trade made Quebec a successful trading center.

New France grew slowly. At first, very few settlers came. The winters were long and hard, and farming was difficult because the growing season was so short. Those who did settle in New France were mostly rugged adventurers. For a while, that suited the French government. The colony made a profit, and for the most part, the colony’s few settlers did not need a great deal of supervision.

By 1700, New France was a sizable empire with hardly any settlers. There were only about ten thousand Europeans in the entire area. The fur trade was profitable, true. But if a competitor appeared, France would have a hard time defending its vast lands. And that competitor was right next door. England and France were rivals in Europe. They would soon become rivals in North America as well.

In 1682, a French explorer with the imposing name of René-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle (/ruh*nae/roh*bayr/kah*vel*yae/syer/duh/luh/sal/) sailed down the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico. La Salle claimed all the land drained by the Mississippi for the king of France.

In 1609, the Dutch East India Company hired an English explorer named Henry Hudson. Hudson wanted to be the explorer who found the Northwest Passage that everyone was seeking. Hudson took a small crew on a ship called the Half Moon and sailed north from England, following the coast of Norway. He planned to find a passage that would take them over the North Pole and down to the Malay Archipelago. But the farther north the Half Moon traveled, the colder and icier it got, and the crew began to grumble. Conditions on the ship went from bad to worse. So Hudson changed his mind and headed west. He charted the Half Moon’s course down the Atlantic coast of North America. At the mouth of what is
now the Hudson River, he claimed land for the Netherlands. For the first few days of the voyage up the Hudson River, the water was wide and deep, with a strong current. Hudson thought surely this was the passage through the continent. The *Half Moon* sailed up the river to the site of present-day Albany, New York. But when the river grew shallow, it became clear that it would not lead to the Pacific Ocean. So Hudson turned around and returned to Europe.

The next year, Hudson returned to North America to seek the Northwest Passage again. This time he was on an English ship, the *Discovery*. He would have to sail north again to find the Northwest Passage. What he discovered was a huge inland sea, which he mistook for the Pacific Ocean. Today that Canadian body of water is called Hudson Bay. Hudson and his men soon realized they were in an inland sea.

Winter came rapidly, surprising them. The ship got stuck in the ice, and food ran low. The crew grew angry and mutinied. Hudson, his son, and some loyal sailors were forced off the ship and into a small boat. They were never heard from again. Sailors on the *Discovery* made it back to England. They were never punished for the mutiny.

**Vocabulary**

mutiny, n. the rebellion of a ship’s crew against the captain

**Writers’ Corner**

Imagine you are sailing with Henry Hudson in what we now know was the Hudson Bay. Write a journal entry describing the frozen conditions and the mood on the ship.

**Find Out the Facts**

Research more about what happened on the voyage of the *Discovery* and why Hudson’s men became mutineers.
Well before Henry Hudson’s fateful voyages, the English had had ambitions in North America. In 1490, Giovanni Caboto (/joh*vah*nee/kah*boh*toh/) moved his family from Venice to Spain. Years of experience as a Venetian spice trader had made Caboto an expert seaman, and now he became caught up in the spirit of exploration. Caboto wanted to form an expedition to search for a northwesterly route to the Spice Islands. Unfortunately, the monarchs of both Portugal and Spain had other plans. The Portuguese had established their own route to the East around the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa. When Christopher Columbus returned from his voyage, the Spanish believed that they had found another route. No one wanted to hear Caboto’s proposal for still another route, so Caboto moved with his family to the port city of Bristol, England. There, Giovanni Caboto changed his name to John Cabot. The English monarch, Henry VII, and the merchants of Bristol were happy to give the explorer their support. They hoped he would bring them great wealth.
After a failed first attempt in 1496, John Cabot set sail again in 1497. He sailed under an English flag with only one ship and a crew of eighteen. The ship crossed the North Atlantic. After five weeks of travel, the crew spotted what they called “new found land.” Cabot believed that he had found an island off the coast of Asia. He returned to England to report his findings. The sailors did not have any spices or silks to show for their journey, but they were able to describe scooping fish out of the water in baskets. The voyage was judged a success, and another trip was planned for the following year.

The next time Cabot set sail, he had a fleet of five ships. After a storm, one of the ships returned to Bristol, but Cabot and the other four ships were never seen again. To this day, nobody knows for certain what happened to them.

**The Spanish Armada**

Once the Age of Exploration was underway, the seas became crowded with European ships carrying valuable materials. That meant that adventurous men could make a lot of money as pirates. One such man was Francis Drake, an Englishman. Drake regularly, and often successfully, attacked Spanish settlements and ships to steal their gold and silver.

Spain considered itself the strongest naval power in the world. Its rulers resented England both because of the attacks by Francis Drake and others and because of England’s involvement in other Spanish affairs. So Spain put together an armada of ships loaded with soldiers and heavy cannons. In 1588, the armada set sail to invade England and overthrow the English queen, Queen Elizabeth I. The English knew that Cabot and his sailors reported finding a great abundance of fish.
they were not evenly matched with the huge Spanish fleet, so they had to rely on clever strategies. Drake commanded the English fleet. He and the other sea captains set small ships on fire and floated them into the Spanish battle formations. The Spanish ships were forced to retreat. As the Spanish ships retreated, a storm blew up and sank some of the armada. In the end, only about half of the armada’s more than 130 ships returned safely to Spain.

The defeat of the Spanish Armada marked a change in the balance of sea power. The 1500s had belonged to Spain. Over the next two centuries, English ships would rule the seas.

Think Twice
What do you think is meant by the words “a change in the balance of sea power”?
Building Colonies

In the 1500s, Spain conquered Mexico and Central and South America. The Spanish accumulated a great fortune in gold and silver from their American colonies. The English were interested in acquiring wealth too, but they also considered the possibility of setting up permanent settlements. There, people would farm, fish, cut timber, and harvest the resources of the region to sell in England. Building colonial settlements was expensive, and unlike the Spanish, the English kings and queens did not want to spend the money to colonize. Instead, they gave grants of land to well-to-do people and businesses, called joint-stock companies, to build the colonies. In 1585, Sir Walter Raleigh established the first English colony in North America. Raleigh sent a group of men to Roanoke Island, off the coast of modern-day North Carolina.

Vocabulary

joint-stock company, n. a company that raises money by selling shares, or interest in the company, in the form of stock.
But the colonists grew discouraged with the difficulty of starting a colony and returned to England.

In 1587, Raleigh sent a second group to the island. This time, women and children traveled with the men. He hoped that a community of families would stay there. The colony got off to a good start. A baby girl, Virginia Dare, was the first English child born in the land that would become the United States. But in 1590, a supply ship reached the colony and found that everyone had gone. All that was left was one word carved on a tree, “Croatoan.” Today the colony that Raleigh founded is remembered as the “Lost Colony.”

In 1607, a joint-stock company called the London Company started a colony at Jamestown, Virginia. Jamestown was the first permanent English settlement in North America.

**Find Out the Facts**
Research what we know today about the Lost Colony.

**Writers’ Corner**
Using your research about the Lost Colony, write an imaginary account of your experiences on Roanoke Island.
Chapter 3

English Colonies Take Shape

The English defeat of the Spanish Armada paved the way for the English to establish their own colonies. They hoped their new colonies would be as prosperous as the Spanish ones. In 1606, King James I issued a charter to a group of merchants. It gave them permission to establish two settlements in America. The merchants formed a joint-stock company that was named the Virginia Company. In a joint-stock company, investors buy shares in the company. This allows them to share the financial burdens of the company and also share in profits. The goals of the company were to make money for the shareholders and the English government (King James I claimed twenty percent of profits), and also to convert indigenous Americans to Christianity.
In 1607, the Virginia Company sent three tiny ships carrying a hundred men and boys to America. After four storm-tossed months at sea, they reached the Chesapeake Bay, which extends two hundred miles from north to south along the present-day states of Virginia and Maryland. To avoid Spanish raiders, the English colonists chose to settle about forty miles inland, along a large river with a northwestern bend. They called the river the James in honor of their king. They named their settlement James Fort and later Jamestown.

The sea-weary colonists built a fort with thatched houses and a church. It was located on a low-lying island surrounded by boggy salt marshes swarming with malaria-infested mosquitoes. They had come to America filled with unrealistic expectations of becoming rich. Some of the men who traveled to America were members of the “gentleman class,” with little experience of hard physical labor, while others were craftsmen and laborers. But, when they arrived in the undeveloped marshlands of eastern Virginia, they were disappointed to discover that life in the settlement was filled with disease and drought.

Find Out the Facts
Research more about the Virginia Company and what its expectations were in Virginia.

Vocabulary

gentleman class, n. a social group made up of low-level noblemen who own land and do not need to work for a living
And their arrival was not welcomed by the Powhatan people, the Native Americans whose land they built on. Before long, the English settlers were faced with starvation and death.

Summers in Virginia were much hotter and more humid than in England. There was a constant struggle to find enough to eat. What was more, the leaders of the company had assumed the Native Americans would submit to the authority of the colonists. They were wrong. The Powhatan Confederacy, fourteen thousand members strong, inhabited the coast. The members lived in an organized set of smaller villages that were united under the leadership of a powerful chief the English named Powhatan. His real name was Wahunsenacawh (/wa*hun*sen*a*cawh/). He lived in an imposing lodge on the banks of the York River, which was not far from Jamestown. The people he ruled were experienced farmers who raised corn and who lived in oval-shaped houses, the frames of which were made of saplings and covered with bark or mats. Their walled villages included forts, buildings for storing corn, and temples.

Members of the Powhatan Confederacy strongly resented the presence of the English. They viewed them as unwelcome intruders who posed a threat to the Powhatan way of life. When Powhatans discovered that a group of Englishmen were stealing their corn, they killed all seventeen of them, stuffing their mouths with ears of corn.

Between 1607 and 1614, there was a series of conflicts between colonists and Powhatans that threatened the long-term existence of the colony. The winter of 1609–1610 is referred to as the Starving Time because an influx of settlers to Jamestown put stress on the colony’s food supply, and the especially harsh winter season exposed many colonists to disease or starvation. Desperate settlers ate their horses, cats, and dogs and even caught and ate mice and rats, just to have food. A few even ate their leather shoes and boots and the starch in their shirt collars.

Think Twice

Why do you suppose the colonists assumed that they would have authority over the Native Americans whose land they had arrived on?

Many people died from the cold and hunger during the Starving Time.
The colonists might have abandoned their settlement if not for two things. First, Captain John Smith had become the leader of the colony. Captain Smith was an experienced soldier who made peace with the Powhatans. Smith’s friendship with Chief Powhatan’s daughter Pocahontas made this possible. Pocahontas convinced her father to help the colonists and provide them with food. Later, Pocahontas married an Englishman named John Rolfe and changed her name to Rebecca. After marrying Rolfe, she gave birth to a son named Thomas and moved to England, where she died before she could return to Virginia. She was twenty-eight.

With a better relationship with the Powhatans in place, Smith imposed strict military discipline on the colonists to stop the theft of Powhatan corn. An example of one of the strict rules Smith put in place was mandatory work. Once, he publicly told the colonists, “He that will not work, shall not eat,” making a reference to a scripture in the Bible. Smith’s strict rules about work stopped the theft of Powhatan food, which improved that relationship. The rules also saved the colony from starvation because now everyone did their share of work and farming.

Other leaders continued Smith’s rules, and some took Smith’s style of leadership even further. In 1611, Sir Thomas Gates took control of all Virginia settlements, including Jamestown, and established a strict system of laws. The penalties for deserting the colony included death by shooting, burning, or hanging.
The second important event in the life of Jamestown, and of other Virginia colonies, was the discovery of tobacco, a plant that had been grown on Caribbean islands for years. Smoking was becoming a popular habit in Europe. In 1614, John Rolfe introduced the crop to Jamestown. Soon after that, colonists started raising tobacco as a **cash crop**. (In the years to come, Virginia and then Maryland would ship millions of pounds of tobacco to Europe.)

Tobacco was a labor-intensive crop and needed a lot of workers to bring it from seedling to harvest. The English needed workers to make good on the huge investments in tobacco farming they were making. At first they turned to other indigenous tribes, intending to solve their labor problems by enslaving them. Their attempts to enslave Native Americans did not work, however. Many Natives died from exposure to European diseases. Native Americans also frequently escaped. If they wanted to make a big profit from growing tobacco, the English had to find another solution to their labor problem. So, they turned to another system of unpaid labor: **indentured servitude**.

Indentured servants were worker colonists who exchanged several years of labor for passage to America and a tract of land when the years were finished.

Most indentured servants were Irish, while others were English. Indentured servitude helped increase the flow of immigrants to Virginia.

Indentured servitude was the primary source of labor in English colonies during the very early colonial period. Raising cash crops was very hard work.

**Vocabulary**

- **cash crop**, n. a crop that is grown to be sold
- **indentured servitude**, n. a system in which a worker agrees to work for an employer for a certain amount of time in exchange for training or payment in land or goods at the end
Because of this, landowners indentured only the strongest and healthiest young men and women. Life was initially hard for indentured workers, but some did eventually gain their independence and become successful in the colonies. In 1629, seven members of the Virginia legislature were former indentured servants, and fifteen served in the Maryland Assembly several years later. The promise of improving their lives enticed many to leave Europe to come to America. They felt the promise of land was worth years of unpaid work.

This steady stream of new settlers to Virginia put pressure on Native American lands and created growing tensions and conflicts. Before long, the Native American population could not hold back the influx of foreigners.

**Think Twice**

Why might young and healthy indentured servants have been in high demand?

**Think Twice**

What do the words “steady stream of new settlers” reveal about this time?

**Vocabulary**

*proprietary colony*, n. a colony that is owned by an individual and not a joint-stock company

As the 1600s wore on, more English colonies were established along the Atlantic Coast. In 1634, ten years after Virginia became a royal colony, a neighboring settlement appeared on the northern shore of the Chesapeake Bay. It would be named in honor of English queen Henrietta Maria. Its twelve million acres were granted to Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, by King Charles I. It was the first *proprietary colony*. This means that it was owned by an individual and not a joint-stock company. Catholics were a persecuted minority in England, and
Maryland was meant to be a haven for English Roman Catholics. Calvert also wanted Maryland to become a profitable colony like Virginia. Colonists in Maryland turned to raising tobacco as colonists in Virginia had done.

The Carolina Colonies

On the mainland, the southernmost English colony consisted of two separated areas that eventually became North and South Carolina. Colonists who inhabited South Carolina started successful sugarcane farms. Many of them had experience raising sugarcane in Barbados, where they had lived before coming to South Carolina. In addition to sugarcane, South Carolina colonists raised rice in their coastal regions. Both crops were labor intensive.

Georgia

Georgia was the last of the English colonies to be established. It was meant to be a colony for prisoners and debtors, to relieve a prison overcrowding problem in England. It would also serve as a buffer zone between the profitable colony of South Carolina and Spanish Florida to the south. General James Oglethorpe, a prominent member of the English Parliament, was appointed to head the colony. In 1733, Oglethorpe founded Savannah on the Atlantic Coast, near the mouth of the Savannah River.

In time, the colonies of Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia would be known as the Southern colonies. Southern colonies relied heavily on cash crop agriculture and grew to be economically successful. The earliest English colonists may not have found gold the way that the Spanish had, but they still found wealth. English wealth came from the ground in the form of tobacco, sugar, rice, and a blue-dye-producing plant called indigo. But the reality behind such

Vocabulary

debtor, n. a person who owes money
buffer zone, n. a neutral area that separates rival nations or factions
growing wealth and economic success was a grim one. In truth, it did not happen because of influential English gentlemen, or adventurous Europeans willing to be indentured servants. Instead, it happened because of the enslavement of Africans who were brought to North America.

Slavery in the Americas

The system of enslavement existed before the Age of Exploration and North American colonization. For centuries, people throughout the world had enslaved those they had conquered. Slavery was part of African life before Europeans arrived. But Europeans used their power and wealth to spread the practice of slavery on a vast scale. In doing so, they dramatically changed the lives of millions of people.

European involvement in the African slave trade began to grow after the year 1415, when the Portuguese seized the city of Ceuta (/syoo*tuh/) on the North African coast. Prince Henry of Portugal financed several Atlantic voyages to West Africa with the intention of benefiting financially from the region’s rich resources. Prince Henry is also known to have played a large role in developing the Atlantic slave trade—the inhumane buying and selling of enslaved people. During the next hundred years, thousands of Africans were taken to become enslaved workers in parts of Europe and on islands in the Atlantic.

In the 1400s, Portuguese and Spanish explorers came upon several groups of islands in the Atlantic Ocean. Colonists quickly settled on these islands. Portugal built colonies on Madeira (/muh*deer*uh/), São Tomé (/sow/tuh*meh/), and the Azores (/ay*zorz/). Spain colonized the Canary Islands. Spanish and Portuguese colonists realized that the land and climate in these islands would be good for growing the cash crop sugar, which was in high demand in Europe. In order for growing sugar to be a profitable business, huge fields of sugarcane had to be planted and harvested. This required lots of workers. For Spanish and Portuguese plantation owners, large numbers of enslaved African people provided the needed labor. As sugar plantations sprang up, the demand for enslaved workers grew.

After Columbus came upon the islands of the Caribbean Sea, the Spanish colonized...
the region. Spanish colonies throughout the Americas were established to benefit Spain. In Mexico and Peru, the Spanish mined vast amounts of gold and silver. They used indigenous people to work in the mines. The islands of the Caribbean were not rich in mineral wealth, but the land and climate were well-suited for growing sugar and other crops. Experts from the Canary Islands came to Hispaniola and other islands to help the Spanish set up sugar plantations.

These plantations needed an inexpensive labor force. At first, plantation owners planned to use local people to work on the plantations. But disease and war, both of which were brought to the islands by the Europeans, killed many indigenous people. As had been the case in the Azores and the Canary Islands, enslaved people from Africa provided a cost-effective answer.

However, this practice was incredibly inhumane and caused much suffering. The Spanish were not the only Europeans who made use of this solution. Portuguese colonists found that sugar was well-suited to the coastal regions of Brazil. They imported people to use as enslaved labor to grow sugarcane there. In the 1600s, England colonized several islands in the Caribbean, including Jamaica and St. Kitts. British planters, too, used enslaved people from Africa to work on their sugar plantations. Sugar made the planters rich. But the sugar growers created another business that could make people rich—importing and trading human beings.

The Portuguese were the first Europeans involved in the Atlantic slave trade. Their explorations of the African coast had opened up new sources of people they could enslave. When Portugal’s power collapsed and the Dutch took over the spice trade, they took over much of the Atlantic slave trade as well.

In 1619, a Dutch ship sailed into the mouth of the James River in the English colony of Virginia in North America and dropped anchor. On board were Dutch pirates who had captured a shipload of enslaved Africans from a Spanish vessel heading for the Caribbean. Now the Dutch sailors were traveling north and needed supplies.
The pirates traded these people for food. These were the first Africans in the English North American colonies. Whether these Africans became indentured servants or enslaved workers remains unclear.

One of the trade centers the Dutch had taken from the Portuguese was Elmina on the west coast of Africa (in present-day Ghana). For years, Elmina had been a Portuguese trade center where ivory and gold were exchanged. As the slave trade increased, Elmina Castle became one of more than forty forts where captured Africans were imprisoned before being transported.

By 1655, the Dutch were transporting a growing number of enslaved people across the Atlantic each year. When England seized control of New Netherland, there were Dutch-speaking Africans in the colony.

Find Out the Facts
Find out more about Elmina, in present-day Ghana, during this period in time.

The slave trade was one side of a trading triangle. One segment of the triangle carried goods from Europe to Africa. Ships carried items such as iron, guns, gunpowder, knives, cloth, and beads. Another segment transported people from Africa to the Caribbean islands and later to the English colonies in North America. And another segment of the triangle made a return trip to Europe. These ships carried timber, tobacco, grain, sugar, and rice from the plantations of the Americas.
The Middle Passage

Africans typically passed through several stages in their journey into slavery. First, they were captured, sometimes by European slavers but usually during wars among African tribes. Next, they were marched to a seaport such as Elmina. There they were packed into ships for the journey across the Atlantic. Those who survived the journey were sold at the slave market in a seaport in the Americas and transported to plantations. The trip across the Atlantic Ocean was known as the Middle Passage. It was a terrible, dehumanizing experience. Slave ships usually carried between 150 and 600 Africans. Enslaved people were treated like cargo, not people. They were chained on platforms. Each person had a space about six feet long and sixteen inches wide. As the ships passed through tropical latitudes, temperatures in the hold would rise to over one hundred degrees. The journey across the ocean took between two and four months, depending on the weather and the destination. Illness and death were common occurrences. With people packed in close quarters, disease spread easily. Historians estimate that about fifteen percent of enslaved people did not survive the terrible journey. The Atlantic slave trade lasted nearly three hundred years. In that time, European slave traders made approximately fifty thousand voyages across the Atlantic.

The Growth of Slavery in the Southern Colonies

In the colonies of North America, the demand for enslaved people grew later than in other parts of the world. And the demand for enslaved labor varied according to the region. For example, the Pilgrims and Puritans settled colonies in the Northeast, where the soil was not very good and the winters were cold. These conditions were not ideal for growing cash crops, so there was no need for a large labor force. Even so, slavery did exist on a small scale in these northern colonies. In the South, the situation was very different. Initially indentured servants were used to work on the land. But it soon became clear that buying an enslaved workforce from Africa was more profitable and efficient.

Vocabulary

cargo, n. goods transported by ship, plane, or truck

tropical latitudes, n. areas around the equator that remain warm all year

Writers’ Corner

Using your research on Elmina, write a report about the conditions at the fort where captured Africans were held and how they were transported to North America.
than hiring indentured servants who would leave, and need to be paid, when their contracted time was completed. The use of enslaved labor expanded in the 1700s because Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina relied heavily on enslaved labor to grow tobacco. During the same period, South Carolinians turned to enslaved African labor to work their sugar, rice, and indigo plantations. These parts of the South had developed a slave-based economy.

Then, in the late 1700s and the 1800s, cotton became a third cash crop grown in the American South.

Find Out the Facts
Research the rise of sugar, rice, and indigo plantations.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research, write a report on the economic importance of these cash crops.

Plantation Life
A life of enslavement and hard labor began at the slave markets or auctions, where would-be owners bid against each other. As enslaved people were bought and sold, families were frequently broken up; children were separated from their parents, and husbands from wives. The life of an enslaved person was extremely hard—and not just physically. Enslaved people had no rights at all. They could not travel without permission. They could not testify in court, so they could not testify against any harsh treatment. And many colonies also had laws that made it illegal to teach enslaved people to read or write. It is important to note, however, that though they were categorized as enslaved workers, each individual who made up this labor force had once had a life in which they might have been a farmer, an engineer, an artisan, a musician, or an artist. And as a result, such skills and talents were brought to the colonies and used on the plantations. The term *slave* did not define the human being who worked in fields planting and harvesting crops, or building fences, or even caring for plantation owners’ children.

Think Twice
Why do you think there were laws that made it illegal to educate enslaved people?
Settling New England

The Southern colonies of Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia were largely founded as economic centers. In contrast, the New England colonies were founded for religious reasons. The early colonists in New England meant to build religious sanctuaries for people escaping persecution in England. The Pilgrims were the first religious group to come to New England, arriving in 1620 and the years after that. They meant to build a society that could worship in the way they believed was correct. The Puritans arrived in 1630 hoping to create a model Christian society, or in their words “a city on a hill.” Both groups had struggled with laws in England that required them to be members of the Church of England.

The first permanent settlement in New England was Plymouth. The Pilgrims were people who wanted to separate from the Church of England because they disagreed with some of its policies and practices. In September 1620, about one hundred men, women, and children crammed aboard a ship named Mayflower. After two months at sea, they landed off the coast of Cape Cod, just south of what would become Boston, Massachusetts. On the ship, the Pilgrims had written and signed the Mayflower Compact. This document was an agreement that stated that they would form a government and agree to follow its laws in their new homeland.

The Plymouth colonists settled in an abandoned Wampanoag (\textipa{/wham*puh*nahg/}) Indian village that had been deserted, likely due to smallpox. The Pilgrims named their hillside colony Plymouth after the English town their ship had sailed from. The first house the Pilgrims built was called the common house. At first, it was used as a shelter and a place to store tools. Later, it was used as a place of worship and became the center of the village. However, as in Jamestown, the colonists in Plymouth experienced great hardships when they first arrived. Many were weakened by the journey and the freezing temperatures. The winter of 1620–1621 was long, cold, and harsh. Half of the group died during the first year of the colony, including thirteen of the eighteen married women.

Vocabulary

sanctuary, n. a place that is protected from the law; a refuge
Mayflower Compact, n. an agreement for self-government signed by the Pilgrims on the ship Mayflower
The luck of the colony changed. With the approaching spring, the weather grew warmer, and a visitor arrived in the settlement, a Native American man named Samoset. Surprisingly, Samoset had learned a little of the Pilgrims’ language from English fishermen who had ventured to this land before the colonists. Samoset spoke to John Carver, the first governor of Plymouth. He told the governor that the sachem, or leader, of the Wampanoag would like to meet the Pilgrims.

Samoset told the Pilgrims about the Native Americans who used to live in the place where the Pilgrims had built their settlement. These Native Americans had cleared the fields around Plymouth. A few years before, Samoset told the Pilgrims, a strange sickness had killed every member of that nation. The only person left was a man named Squanto, who had been taken to England by fishermen before the strange sickness broke out. When Squanto returned, he was the only one of his people still alive.

A few days later, Samoset brought Massasoit (/ma*su**h**soi/**t/), the sachem of the Wampanoag, to Plymouth colony. With him were several other men, including Squanto. The Pilgrims and the Native Americans exchanged gifts, and then they ate and drank together. Afterward, Governor Carver and Massasoit made a peace treaty that would last fifty-four years. The chief and the other Native Americans left, but Squanto stayed behind with the Pilgrims. He showed the Pilgrims where to fish and pointed out which nuts and berries were safe to eat. He helped them survive. Then, in the late spring, Governor Carver died, and the Pilgrims chose William Bradford as their new governor. Bradford was governor of Plymouth for the next thirty-five years.

In the fall, Governor Bradford gathered all the Pilgrims together. He told them that they had many things to be thankful for. Among them, they had finally found a place to worship God in their own way. To celebrate, Governor Bradford sent men out to hunt birds so that the colonists could have a feast and offer prayers of thanksgiving. The Wampanoag came to feast with them and brought five deer to share. That feast was a Thanksgiving celebration that has become an American tradition.
Massachusetts Bay

The Massachusetts Bay colony began ten years later than Plymouth colony, but from the very start it overshadowed the older colony to its south. This colony was led by another religious group, who called themselves Puritans because they wanted to purify the Church of England. John Winthrop was its first governor and wrote a set of rules he thought the colonists should live under in America. The rules were written in a pamphlet called *A Modell of Christian Charity*. The rules stressed hard work, clean living, and belief in God in order to be successful. Winthrop warned that if colonists did not follow these rules, their colony would fail.

The Puritans held a strong belief in teaching everyone, boys and girls alike, to read and write. This was very unusual at the time. The Puritans supported this idea because they thought it was important that people should be able to read the Bible for themselves. The Puritans established the first schools for children in America. They also wrote the first schoolbook for children in America, called *The New England Primer*. It contained rhymes that taught the alphabet and spelling words. The primer also had many prayers, poems, and questions about the Bible. Students were expected to answer the questions and recite their lessons perfectly, or they risked punishment. Puritans believed so strongly in education that they even established the first college in America.

That college, Harvard, was founded in 1636 as a school to train ministers. The Puritans might have left England because they disagreed with the king over religious matters, but that did not mean they allowed anyone to disagree with their beliefs in their New England colony. Instead of showing religious tolerance, people who had other religious beliefs were punished, imprisoned, banished, or even executed. One of the most famous people the Puritans punished for speaking out against their religious beliefs was a woman named Anne Hutchinson.

Hutchinson was the intelligent wife of a prominent merchant who had raised thirteen children. She hosted Bible studies in her home, where she met with men and women to discuss sermons.
This was shocking to Puritan leaders as they did not encourage women to be leaders. Hutchinson’s meetings grew large, as did her reputation as a strong authority on religious topics. This made her a dangerous woman in the eyes of Puritan leaders because she undermined their authority. In 1638, colony leaders **banished** Hutchinson from the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

**Rhode Island**

Roger Williams was born in London, England. As a boy, he went to church and wrote down what the minister said. His notes helped him study the Bible. When Williams grew up, he went to Cambridge University, one of England’s most famous schools. During his time at Cambridge, he became a Puritan, and eventually he became a minister. Williams worked as a minister in the household of a member of the English Parliament who was also a Puritan. There, he met a group of Puritans who planned to join the Puritan colony in Massachusetts. Williams decided to go with them.

In 1631, Roger Williams sailed to Boston, Massachusetts, and Governor John Winthrop offered him a job as minister to Boston’s Puritan congregation. However, Williams soon found he disagreed with his fellow Puritans, their strict rules, their interpretation of the Bible, and their growing mistreatment of Native Americans.

One rule Williams disagreed with in particular was the rule that stated that people must go to church. He declared that “forced worship stinks in the nostrils of God.” He believed that it should be up to individuals whether or not they worshipped God in a church.

**Find Out the Facts**

Find out five more facts about Anne Hutchinson’s life.
Because of these views, church officials ordered Williams sent back to England. But before authorities could ship him back, he escaped the colony in a dramatic way. He left in the middle of a blizzard and found shelter among Narragansett Indians. In 1636, he bought land from the Narragansett and established a town he called Providence. The settlement he built would eventually grow and become the colony of Rhode Island, the first in America to allow complete freedom of religion. Rhode Island welcomed Anne Hutchinson as one of its early residents.

In 1636, the Reverend Thomas Hooker led three congregations from Massachusetts Bay to Connecticut, where they organized a new colony. They wrote a set of laws, called the Fundamental Orders, for a Christian colony organized much like Massachusetts Bay. The new laws commanded the governor to rule according to “the Word of God.”

Other colonists moved north to what are now the states of New Hampshire and Maine. At first, they created two more colonies. Then, for a time, the Province of New Hampshire was a part of Massachusetts, but in 1697 it became a royal colony. Massachusetts also came to control Maine. Maine was incorporated into Massachusetts in 1691 by a legal agreement called a charter.

The economy of the New England colonies centered on shipbuilding, whaling, farming, and commerce. Slavery was practiced in every New England colony, but the enslaved population in New England was far smaller than in Southern colonies, where many field workers were needed. Slave labor was used on farms,
in trades, and within people’s homes. Although it was technically illegal to teach enslaved people how to read and write, enslaved workers in New England were more likely to learn compared to those in the South. Some enslaved workers in New England gained their freedom and then lived and worked as free men and women.

The English Colonies of the Mid-Atlantic (Middle Colonies)

The area between the New England colonies and the Southern colonies of Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia consisted of the Middle Colonies of New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania. Although early on, the Netherlands and Sweden owned colonies here, by the late 1600s the Middle Colonies belonged to England.

Perhaps because of this change in ownership, the Middle Colonies had the most diversity of any of the colonial regions. Most people in the Southern and New England colonies came from England or Scotland. But people in the Middle Colonies came from other European countries. Some of these people came for religious freedom, some to trade with Native Americans, and others for farmland to grow crops. To get along, people in the Middle Colonies had to respect each other’s differences. They had to respect the different religions, cultures, and languages. The Middle Colonies had the highest number of free Black Americans of any region in colonial America. Most lived in larger cities and towns, as the Middle Colonies had some of the most populous cities in colonial America. Colonists from different countries brought unique skills with them. The Germans were skilled farmers. The Dutch were very good at building wagons and farming equipment. The Swedes built strong log houses. The colonists taught these skills to each other. This mixing of cultures helped the Middle Colonies grow and prosper, and their diversity and prosperity continued even after the colonies were controlled by the British.

Think Twice
Do you think cultural exchanges and new skills continue to be brought to America by those people coming to live here? How might these things benefit America?

Find Out the Facts
Find out about the cultural exchanges that occurred in the Middle Colonies during this time and that are still part of American life and culture today.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research on the diverse cultural features of the Middle Colonies, write a report.
Although Henry Hudson had not found a waterway to Asia, he had found Native Americans who wanted to trade valuable furs for tools, weapons, and colorful cloth. Hudson had also found dense forests and good land for farming in and around what is today called the Hudson River Valley. He claimed a large area of this land for the Dutch. The Dutch decided the territory would make a great trading post. They called the trading post New Netherland after their homeland. In 1621, a group of wealthy Dutchmen formed the Dutch West India Company. The Dutch government gave the Dutch West India Company the right to settle New Netherland and the right to trade with Native Americans. The company named a governor to run the new colony. The colony’s purpose was to make the people who owned the company rich. A smaller group settled on Manhattan, an island at the mouth of the Hudson River. This small group built a fort on the island. As more and more people came to the island of Manhattan, they built a town they called New Amsterdam, after the city of Amsterdam in the Netherlands. The governor of New Netherland, Peter Minuit, thought it was a good idea to buy the whole island from the Native Americans. The Dutch and Native Americans who made the agreement held different views on land ownership, and it is likely that the Native Americans were agreeing to allow use of the land for a limited time, while the Dutch sought permanent ownership.

As the colonies became established, the English began to realize that they wanted English colonies between their Southern and New England colonies, not colonies owned by a foreign country such as the Netherlands. In 1664, a war started between England and the Netherlands. The king of England gave his brother, the Duke of York, the job of taking New Netherland from the Dutch. The king promised the duke that if the takeover was successful, he could have the colony. The Duke of York sent warships and several hundred soldiers to New Amsterdam. As the ships sailed into the harbor, the English prepared to fight. Peter Stuyvesant, the Dutch governor, realized that he was unable to defend the Dutch colony against the English because he lacked soldiers to fight and gunpowder to fire the cannons. Short on volunteers willing to help, Stuyvesant had no choice but to surrender. The English took the colony of New Netherland without firing a single shot. New Netherland became New York, and New Amsterdam became New York City.
William Penn was a town planner and a lawyer. Tolerant and fair, he was the right kind of person to start a new colony. In 1681, the king of England gave Penn a signed charter to start a new colony where people who shared his Quaker religious beliefs would be free to worship as they pleased, even as they welcomed others to join them. The colony he established would be named Pennsylvania, which literally means “Penn’s Woods.” Penn called his colony a “holy experiment.” He wanted Pennsylvania to be a place where Quakers and other religious groups could live together in harmony. To advertise his colony, Penn printed booklets. In his booklets, he told about the beauty of the land, and he promised religious freedom for everyone who settled in Pennsylvania.

People from all over Europe settled in Pennsylvania, and they came for many reasons. They came for religious freedom. They came because they could afford to buy the rich farmland, and the climate was mild for farming. They came for the promise of good trade. They also came because the colony was at peace with Native Americans. When England took over New Netherland and renamed it New York, the king made New Jersey an English colony, too. At the beginning of the 1700s, some Pennsylvania settlers formed the new colony of Delaware.

Land in Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New Jersey was fertile, and farms prospered in all three colonies. Farmers sold their crops in Philadelphia, which had become a busy port and trading center. Ships loaded with flour, grains, and dried fruit sailed from Philadelphia to other ports in the colonies and across the Atlantic Ocean to England and Europe. Because there was so much trade in Philadelphia, there were many kinds of jobs. People worked as farmers, bakers, blacksmiths, toolmakers, tailors, and glassmakers. People also worked as teachers, printers, booksellers, and lawyers. As Philadelphia grew, the city built paved streets and raised sidewalks with curbs. At night, lamps burned whale oil to light the main streets. Because of trade and the mixing of cultures, Philadelphia became a great center for new ideas. As time went on, people in Philadelphia built a college and a theater. The city also became home to several American firsts: the first hospital, the first museum, and the first public library. Philadelphians also started a scientific society and a botanical garden.

Pennsylvania and the Delaware Valley

Think Twice
Why do you think religious beliefs drove people to travel so far and to risk so many hardships?
By 1776, when the American colonies declared their independence and prepared for war against British rule, Philadelphia was the largest city in the Thirteen Colonies. In fact, it was the second-largest English-speaking city in the whole world, smaller only than London. In many ways, it became the unofficial capital of the colonies. And it was on Philadelphia’s streets, and in the streets of Boston and New York, that the fight for American independence would begin.

Writers’ Corner
Select one region or state, and write a report on its economic and cultural development during this period in history.

Think Twice
What responsibilities do you think historians have when writing about the success of the Thirteen Colonies in relation to the colonization of indigenous peoples and the enslavement of Africans?
Dissatisfaction with decisions made thousands of miles away in England would grow within the English Colonies.
By 1750, there were thirteen English colonies on the East Coast of what would become the United States. Almost every week, a ship arrived with more immigrants. The population of the colonies was quickly climbing toward two million. Settlements had spread from the Atlantic Ocean as far west as the Appalachian Mountains. These new arrivals were mainly ordinary people—farmers and people from small towns. Most colonists were from England, but others came from Germany, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, Sweden, and the Netherlands. And at this time, many immigrants were brought to the colonies unwillingly. About one person in five was enslaved, having been forcefully removed from his or her home in Africa. Those taken by force from Africa brought with them extraordinary skills in such areas as farming, engineering, science, and the arts. These skills, like those brought by European immigrants, would help build and shape the colonies.
Almost none of the people who came from Africa were free, but a few were. Free Black Americans tended to live in the cities and towns of New England and in the Middle Colonies. The Middle Colonies were also where most Jewish people lived. The first synagogue established in North America was located in New York City. By 1750, the Middle Colonies had already established a reputation of religious toleration. It was the most diverse region in all of colonial America.

More than nine out of ten colonial families lived on farms. Many farmed their land by themselves and produced nearly everything they needed to survive. They made their own clothes and furniture. Most of them even built the houses that they lived in. Farmers sold extra food to buy the goods they did not make, such as pots, nails, needles, and sugar.

In the mid-1700s, there were still only four or five cities in all of the colonies, and just a handful of towns. These cities were small by today’s standards, but they were growing quickly. In just a few short years, Philadelphia would become the second-largest city in the British Empire. Trade within the colonies and with other countries was behind such growth. From the docks of the cities on the East Coast, merchants sent lumber, furs, salted fish, flour, rice, indigo, and tobacco to many parts of the world. To those docks, ships returned with glass, paint, tea, wine, and other goods the
colonists needed or wanted. Trade also meant jobs.

When immigrants arrived in the colonies, they preferred to settle near people who were from the same country. This made them feel more comfortable in a strange new land. They could speak their own language and follow their traditional ways of life. They wore the same kinds of clothing they had worn in their homeland and built the same kinds of houses. In time, however, something interesting and important happened. Different immigrant groups began to borrow and share ideas with each other. This was also true for those brought against their will from parts of West Africa. They too brought with them a rich cultural heritage and a range of skills that contributed enormously to the colonies.

By the 1750s, the colonists were also being brought together by roads. Although these roads were narrow, often muddy, and filled with tree stumps, they made it easier to travel through the colonies. Easier travel led to increased trade among the colonies. Better roads also improved communications because they sped up the exchange of information. In the mid-1750s, mail delivery between Philadelphia and Boston increased to once a week instead of every two weeks. That meant that newspapers printed in the cities could be delivered to colonists in the countryside more easily. Colonists in different parts of the colonies could now read the same news and stay informed about the same things.

Find Out the Facts
Research how the people who first came to the colonies helped shape American identity and culture.

Writers’ Corner
Write a report on the impact those first colonial inhabitants had on shaping American culture.

Think Twice
How might improved methods of communication have helped unite the colonists?
Even though a new identity was beginning to form as a result of immigrants living and working together, in 1750, American colonists still saw themselves as subjects of the British Crown. As citizens of Great Britain, they still practiced British customs, and they still enjoyed the rights and protections that came from their British citizenship. But as time went by, they would start to see themselves more and more as “Americans.” Ironically, it took a war with one of Britain’s hated rivals, the French, to spur this change.

Great Britain and France had been fighting each other on and off for nearly a hundred years. No one was surprised that they were at war again. The two European countries had colonies all over the world, and both wanted to control the other’s colonies. It was no surprise when the war that began in North America spread to two other continents and the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans. In Europe and Asia, the war was called the Seven Years’ War. In North America, it was called the French and Indian War. In the beginning, the French were winning key advantages in North America over the British. However, the British knew that the American colonies were very valuable, and they were determined to keep control of them.

One of the most important battles of the French and Indian War was the Battle of Quebec. The city of Quebec sat atop steep cliffs alongside the St. Lawrence River. The cliffs protected the city from attack, or at least, that’s what the French believed. One night in September 1759, British soldiers, led by General James Wolfe, climbed to the top of the cliffs. When dawn broke, the French found the British assembled on a flat area called the Plains of Abraham, ready for battle. The British defeated the French forces and took the city of Quebec. Both Wolfe and the French general, Louis Montcalm, died in the battle. The Battle of Quebec proved to be the decisive battle that contributed to the end of the French and Indian War.

The End of One War, the Start of Another

The French and Indian War strengthened Great Britain’s North American presence. Through it, Britain gained control of three-fourths of France’s North American territories. Britain’s Native American allies and the leadership of Colonel George
Washington, a colonial military officer working for the British, were key factors in the victory. The war formally ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763. The treaty set the terms for British victory and settled claims to all the disputed land the countries had warred over.

The good news for the British was that winning the war earned them access to a greater share of territory in North America. Their Atlantic Coast colonies were more secure now that the French were no longer within striking distance. Also, colonists eyed the newly gained territory as additional land they could move into. From their perspective, it was mostly unoccupied space that was prime for settlement.

**Think Twice**

Why might the British and the colonists have had different ideas about the newly gained territory?

The British government saw the matter differently. Many groups of Native Americans lived on that land. Some of them had fought with the British in the war against France. Having just ended one war with France, the British did not want to start a new one with Native Americans.
a new one with Native Americans. In fact, one conflict did break out among Native Americans, settlers, and British soldiers. This conflict was called Pontiac’s War. During this rebellion, Native Americans in the Great Lakes area tried to drive settlers off of their land. Great Britain believed that it would be best to keep colonists away from Native American lands—for now, at least. On a map of North America, the British drew a line running along the Appalachian Mountains from New York all the way south to Georgia. A royal proclamation was issued. Until further notice, no more colonists were allowed to settle west of that line. The Proclamation of 1763 angered the colonists. In addition, the British king and his government kept thousands of British soldiers along the frontier to enforce the proclamation. The Proclamation of 1763.

Trouble Brewing

Soon, the colonists would have a bigger quarrel with King George III and his government. The British had amassed huge war debts while fighting on two continents. They needed to pay back this debt. In order to raise the money they needed, they turned to the American colonies.

The British Parliament, which is the ruling government organization in Great Britain, believed the colonists should help pay for the war that had been fought and won in the colonies.

To raise the needed funds, the British government imposed new taxes in the American colonies. In 1765, King George III and his government imposed the Stamp Act. The Stamp Act was a tax on printed materials. Colonists were required to buy stamps when they bought printed items such as newspapers, pamphlets, and even playing cards. These were not gummed stamps, but rather impressions imprinted or embossed on paper. Many people were upset about the Stamp Act. They thought it was unfair that the king and his government in London were making decisions about taxes the colonists had to pay, while the colonists had no say in the matter. In fact, there weren’t any colonial representatives in the British Parliament. In response to this new tax, the colonists held protest meetings. They wrote pamphlets. They sent petitions to London.

Vocabulary

**proclamation**, n. an important official announcement that is usually made to the public

**taxes**, n. money that people are required to pay to support the workings of the government
Many of the colonists were proud British subjects. But they also felt that they had rights—"the rights of Englishmen"—that the king and his government could not take away. Opposition to the Stamp Act spread. In Virginia, the House of Burgesses passed a motion protesting the Stamp Act. The burgesses agreed that the British Parliament had no right to tax the people of Virginia.

Patrick Henry

One colonist who strongly protested the Stamp Act was a twenty-nine-year-old Virginian named Patrick Henry. Patrick Henry was a member of the Virginia assembly, known as the Virginia House of Burgesses. He gave a powerful speech against the new tax. He warned that the Stamp Act would take away the colonists’ liberty.

Patrick Henry’s speech was printed in newspapers throughout the colonies. The speech made people think. In New York, Boston, Newport, and other places throughout the colonies, people protested, debated, and formed groups called the Sons of Liberty. These groups threatened the collectors of the stamp tax. Many stamp tax collectors decided that the best thing to do was to get out of town and forget about selling tax stamps.

Think Twice

Do you think the physical distance that separated the British and the colonists contributed to the disagreements? Explain your answer.

Vocabulary

"the rights of Englishmen" (phrase), traditional legal rights that all English subjects in England were guaranteed

burgess, n. a representative to the legislature in colonial Virginia and Maryland
The Quartering Act

In addition to the Stamp Act, the British Parliament passed the **Quartering Act**. The act required colonial governments to supply quarters, or lodging, for the British soldiers still stationed in the colonies. Many colonists were opposed to housing British soldiers in their communities. They resented being forced to host them, rather than asked, and many opposed the act.

**Vocabulary**

**quartering**, v. the act of giving temporary lodging and meals to soldiers

**Think Twice**

What does the expression “no taxation without representation” mean?

Eventually, in 1766, after many protests and **boycotts**, the British government decided to **repeal** the Stamp Act. Parliament eliminated the tax on paper products. But in 1767 it replaced the Stamp Act with other taxes—including taxes on imported goods, such as glass, paint, lead, paper, and tea. These taxes were called the Townshend Acts. The British believed the colonists needed these goods, so when ships delivered them to colonial harbors, officials would be there to collect the tax. Parliament made things worse by saying that whoever was arrested for not paying the tax would be tried without a jury.

**Vocabulary**

**boycott**, n. a form of organized protest in which people refuse to buy goods or have anything to do with a particular group or country

**repeal**, v. to cancel or do away with something, such as a law

The Sons of Liberty

Some of the most passionate protests against the Stamp Act took place in Boston, Massachusetts. Angry crowds took their frustration out on tax collectors, and a new group of protestors formed in Boston. The group met under a tree that they called the Liberty Tree. They made public speeches against taxes and the British government. They cried, “No taxation without representation!” This group became known as the Sons of Liberty.

**Find Out the Facts**

Research what was involved in quartering British soldiers in the colonies.

**Writers’ Corner**

Using your research, write a report on what was involved in quartering a British soldier in the colonies.
Under the Townshend Acts, the issue was no longer simply about taxation without representation. Now, the issue was also about **trial by jury**. Denial of that right was another violation of the “rights of Englishmen” code.

**Vocabulary**

“**trial by jury**” (phrase), a case of law decided by a group of one’s fellow citizens

Once again, the Sons of Liberty swung into action. They organized a boycott of all British goods. The colonists began making their own paint, glass, and paper. The boycott lasted for nearly three years before the British backed down. Britain repealed all of the taxes except the tax on tea. In order to avoid this tax, many colonists started buying their tea from Dutch merchants who smuggled it into the colonies.

**The Boston Massacre**

Things were far from settled in the colonies. During the time when the disagreements about taxes were playing out, the British moved more and more soldiers to the colonies. As far as many colonists were concerned, the presence of British soldiers represented a threat to their freedom.

In Boston in particular, troops seemed to be everywhere—on the street corners, in front of buildings, in the parks. The citizens of Boston jeered at the soldiers and tried to make their lives miserable. Because British soldiers sometimes had regular jobs in addition to their soldiering duties, tensions grew over employment opportunities, too. In several cities, fights broke out between colonists and soldiers. On the evening of March 5, 1770, in Boston, an event worse than an average street fight occurred. There, a crowd of men and boys gathered around a lone British soldier on guard duty. They shouted insults and threw snowballs at him. Some of the snowballs had rocks inside of them. The frightened soldier called for help.

More British soldiers arrived. The crowd grew larger. Then, for reasons that are unclear, the soldiers turned their guns on the angry crowd and shot. When the smoke cleared, five colonists lay dead or wounded. Their blood stained the snow-covered street. One of them was Crispus Attucks, who had once been enslaved and now worked as a sailor. Crispus Attucks is considered to be the first American person to die for the cause of American liberty. His death for the cause of American liberty was somewhat ironic since he had once been enslaved, and slavery was still being practiced in the colonies.
A few days later, more than half of the population of Boston turned out for a funeral march for the dead men. Shops were closed, and church bells rang. Angry Bostonians called the killing a massacre. The event became known as the Boston Massacre. A Boston silversmith named Paul Revere made a copper engraving that showed soldiers firing on a group of perfectly peaceful, innocent citizens.

Revere’s engraving was used to print a picture and an account of the event.

After the Boston Massacre, some colonists wondered whether the time had come to break away from Great Britain. This change in thinking happened slowly. Most colonists were loyal to their king. They just thought it was time for the British government to stop making rules for them. A small number of colonists talked about going further. They believed that they could only keep their liberties if they were free from Britain. The colonies, they believed, must become independent. Sam Adams of Boston was one of the colonists who believed in independence. Adams came from an important Boston family. In 1765, at the time of the Stamp Act, Adams helped organize the Sons of Liberty. He was one of the leaders in the boycotts against British goods.
From that time forward, Adams worked to convince others that it was time to separate from Great Britain. In newspaper articles, he told colonists to stand up for their rights against Britain. “The liberties of our country . . . are worth defending at all risks,” he wrote. It would be a “disgrace” to allow our freedoms to be taken away “from us by violence, without a struggle, or be cheated out of them by tricks.”

After the Boston Massacre, Adams and others in Boston created a way to alert colonists if (or when) the British government threatened their liberties again. In 1772, they set up a Committee of Correspondence. If the British again took away any “rights of Englishmen,” committee members would immediately send letters across Massachusetts with the news. The idea spread quickly to other colonies. Soon there was a great network of Committees of Correspondence. They could get news out quickly within each colony and from one colony to another. Little by little, the idea of independence spread throughout the colonies.

The Tea Act and the Boston Tea Party

In 1773, realizing that the tea tax strategy was not working, Parliament came up with another plan. It passed the Tea Act. Parliament lowered the price of the tea itself, but it also kept the tax on the tea. When the new price of the tea was added to the tax, the total cost was less than what the colonists paid the Dutch for tea. Parliament thought the colonists would now buy British tea again. When they did, they would be paying the tea tax! Soon two thousand chests of tea were loaded aboard British ships bound for the American colonies.

The Tea Act of 1773 showed how poorly Parliament understood the colonists. The colonists did not care about the price of tea. They cared about “taxation without representation.” They were not going to pay that tea tax, no matter what British tea cost. Early in December 1773, three tea ships entered Boston Harbor.

Citizens gathered at a town meeting. They demanded that the governor of the colony order the ships to leave. The governor did not like Sam Adams or the Sons of Liberty.
He refused, so colonists took matters into their own hands. On the night of December 16, 1773, a group of colonists dressed as Native Americans rowed out to the ships in the harbor. They boarded the ships and dumped every chest of tea into the water. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party.

When Parliament and the king heard about the Boston Tea Party, they were outraged. Parliament passed laws to punish the people of Boston and the whole Massachusetts colony. One law closed the Port of Boston until the colonists paid for the wasted tea. For a city that depended on trading and fishing, this was a harsh punishment. Parliament hoped that Boston’s merchants and fishermen would turn in the guilty persons. Parliament thought maybe the merchants and fishermen would even pay for the tea themselves. They did neither. A second law took away most of the Massachusetts colony’s self-government. The British appointed an army general to be the governor of Massachusetts. The new governor came with thousands of British soldiers. The Quartering Act forced the colonists to house and feed the soldiers. These laws became known as the Intolerable Acts because the colonists would not tolerate or accept them. The Intolerable Acts made the people of Boston and the rest of Massachusetts suffer.

**Find Out the Facts**

Find out more about the Sons of Liberty movement and their most influential members.

**Vocabulary**

intolerable, adj. unbearable
However, Parliament didn’t expect the other colonies to come to their aid. Pennsylvania sent barrels of flour to the people of Massachusetts. New York sent sheep. South Carolina sent sacks of rice. Connecticut sent money. Virginia sent corn and wheat. Virginia’s leaders even went a step further. They set aside a day of fasting and prayer for the people of Boston.

The Virginians now took a bold step. They called for delegates from all of the colonies to meet and discuss what to do next. This would be the second time delegates met to resist an act of Parliament. The first time, the Stamp Act Congress, had been successful. This time, though, the British government seemed determined not to back down. In September 1774, fifty-six colonial leaders met in Philadelphia. They represented twelve of the thirteen British colonies in North America. Only Georgia did not send delegates. George Washington, Patrick Henry, and Thomas Jefferson represented Virginia. Sam Adams and his cousin John represented Massachusetts. New York sent John Jay, who would later serve as a justice on the Supreme Court. This meeting became known as the First Continental Congress.

The delegates discussed their common problems. They shared their anger at the British government. They issued a Declaration of Rights. The declaration said that as British colonists, they were entitled to all the “rights of Englishmen.” They listed the ways Parliament had taken their rights away since the French and Indian War. They also told King George III that the colonists were still loyal to him. They asked him to consider their complaints. The First Continental Congress and the Declaration of Rights were the most defiant actions the colonies had ever taken. But something more than defiance had happened. This “something” had no exact name but was as important as any of the resolutions passed by the First Continental Congress. Before this, each colony had thought of itself as separate from the others. The colonists thought of themselves as Virginians or New Yorkers or Georgians.

By the end of the First Continental Congress, many colonists considered themselves not part of an individual colony but as members of a group of united colonies. They were more aware that they needed each other. Patrick Henry summed up the new awareness perfectly. He told the First Continental Congress, “The distinctions [differences] between Virginians, Pennsylvanians, New Yorkers, and New Englanders, are no more. I am not a Virginian but an American.”
By the start of 1775, more and more colonists expected the quarrels with the mother country to lead to war. By spring, the militias in many colonies were preparing to fight. Each militia was made up of citizens who volunteered to be part-time soldiers. In March, members of the Virginia General Assembly debated whether their colony should prepare for war as well. Some opposed the idea, but Patrick Henry believed the time had come for action. He gave a passionate speech to the Continental Congress in which he told fellow delegates that for him, liberty was worth the steep cost that would have to be paid. He declared: “I know not what course others might take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!” Three weeks after his speech, the real fighting for American independence began.

The Shots Heard Round the World

For several months, militias in Massachusetts had been training to fight. These farmers and townspeople called themselves Minutemen because they could be ready to fight at a minute’s notice. To prepare for battle, the Minutemen had been collecting guns, gunpowder, and other supplies. They hid these supplies in the village of Concord, about fifteen miles northwest of Boston. The new governor was General Thomas Gage, a British army general. General Gage learned about those hidden supplies in Concord. He also learned that two Sons of Liberty, Sam Adams and John Hancock, were hiding in the town of Lexington. Lexington was on the way to Concord, so General Gage figured he could accomplish two goals at once. He would send his soldiers to Lexington to capture Adams and Hancock. Then the soldiers would continue on to Concord and seize the Minutemen’s guns and supplies. General Gage planned for his soldiers to leave Boston in the dead of night and take Lexington by surprise.

But the Sons of Liberty found out about his plan. Two Sons of Liberty, Paul Revere and William Dawes, got ready to ride
ahead of the British soldiers and warn citizens along the way. In the villages of Lexington and Concord, it was the British troops who were surprised, not the villagers. The warnings provided by Revere and Dawes were enough to muster some four hundred Minutemen in defense of Lexington. After brief fighting in Lexington, the British decided to retreat and return to Boston. The long march became a nightmare for the British soldiers. Marching along the road in their bright red uniforms, British soldiers made easy targets. Shots rang out all along the route. Before the British got back to Boston that night, the Minutemen killed seventy-three soldiers and wounded another two hundred. That was nearly half of the number of soldiers who had set out for Lexington and Concord earlier that day.

The colonists suffered losses too—nearly fifty men died. The Americans did not know it at the time, but the War for Independence had officially begun. Many years later, American poet Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote a poem memorializing what happened the night of April 19, 1775. He referred to Lexington and Concord’s heroes as “embattled farmers” who “fired the shot heard round the world.” A new country was on the brink of a war that would change the whole world.

**Vocabulary**

“on the brink” (phrase), very close to the start of something

**Think Twice**

What do the words “the shot heard round the world” imply?
Preparing for War

Once again, the leading men from every American colony gathered in Philadelphia for a Continental Congress. This time, though, was different. This time, men had died. On May 10, 1775, the Second Continental Congress met to discuss what to do next. Although delegates were not quite prepared to break all ties with the British government, they saw the wisdom in preparing for more fighting. John Adams of Massachusetts believed that the local militias were fine for fighting here and there. To fight a war, though, they needed to create a real American army—an “Army of the United Colonies.” But who would lead Adams’s army? The delegates believed that George Washington was the perfect candidate for this position. On July 3, 1775, Washington took command of the Continental Army, as it came to be called. He had gained his military experience in the French and Indian War. Washington’s first troops would be the Massachusetts militiamen camped around Boston because they might be needed for action soon. More British soldiers were arriving in the colonies. Before Washington’s arrival in Massachusetts, though, the American soldiers fought an important battle near Boston.

On the night of June 16, 1775, the Massachusetts militia marched to Breed’s Hill and climbed it. They were supposed to take up positions on Bunker Hill but moved onto a nearby hill by mistake. All night they dug trenches, piling the earth into walls six feet high for their protection. When the morning came, the British were surprised to see the colonial militia in control of the hill. General Gage worried that the militia would be able to fire on his troops below. They could even use cannons to fire upon the British ships in the harbor. Gage wanted to drive the militia off the hill to protect the ships. He didn’t know that the Massachusetts militia didn’t have any cannons. The next day, British soldiers marched up Breed’s Hill. The colonists had only a small amount of ammunition. They couldn’t afford to waste any, so they stood shoulder to shoulder behind their earthen walls. When the British got close, the militiamen opened fire. Hundreds of redcoats fell. The rest fled back down the hill. Once more the British marched up the hill. Once more they were driven back by a hail of bullets. After the second charge, the colonists began to run out of ammunition. When the British marched up the hill a third time, the militia retreated. The British won the hill, but at a terrible cost. More than a thousand soldiers were killed or wounded.
A British officer said that his army couldn’t stand many more “victories” like this. Even though the battle took place on Breed’s Hill, it is known as the Battle of Bunker Hill. The Battle of Bunker Hill was very important to the colonists. They lost the hill, but they won new confidence.

Think Twice
Why might the colonists have gained confidence after the Battle of Bunker Hill?

Soon after, the colonists learned that King George III had no interest in their Declaration of Rights. By the start of 1776, the argument with Great Britain had lasted more than ten years. The fighting had gone on for nearly a year already. Those who felt that the time had come to break away from Britain were known as Patriots. Those who opposed this view were called Tories or Loyalists.

Think Twice
Why might some colonists have remained loyal to the king?

Find Out the Facts
Research the life of King George III.

As the British resisted the colonists’ desire for self-determination, the number of colonists supporting independence grew. In 1776, a statesman named Thomas Paine published a pamphlet called Common Sense. Paine wrote about complex and important things in a straightforward way. His clear and logical writing made his appeals for independence even more persuasive.

Vocabulary
self-determination, n. the ability of the people in a country to decide their own government

In June 1776, the Second Continental Congress took up the question of independence. They agreed that the time had come to separate from Great Britain. The Continental Congress chose a committee to write a declaration that explained why the colonies were breaking away from Great Britain.

The committee chosen to write the declaration included John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson. Although Benjamin Franklin and George Washington were probably the two most famous Americans alive, John Adams was one of the first leaders to speak out in favor of independence. Thomas Jefferson was known as a fine writer, and he was chosen to write the declaration.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research on King George III, write a report about his life during this time.
What Jefferson produced became a world-famous document. Jefferson explained why the king’s actions made it right for the colonists to break away from Britain. Jefferson also stated, “That to secure these rights, governments are instituted [created].” In other words, the reason we have governments is to protect our rights. Jefferson also wrote that there were some ideas that should be obvious to everyone, the main idea being that all men were created equal by the Creator and were endowed with certain natural rights. Jefferson wrote these words though he and others owned enslaved men, women, and children. But at the time, people found inspiration in those words. In fact, Jefferson’s words became the birth certificate of a new country: the United States of America. On July 4, 1776, Congress adopted this Declaration of Independence. It was read in taverns and churches and on street corners across the country and bells rang out in celebration. It was official—America was its own country now.

A Discouraging Start

The new country’s effort to gain its independence got off to a rocky start. America did not have a permanent army because it did not have a lot of money. The new country had a lot of passion and belief in its cause, but not much of anything else. By contrast, Britain was the wealthiest country in the world with the most powerful army. In addition to their army’s nearly fifty thousand troops, the British hired thirty thousand Hessians, paid soldiers from Germany. Another name for paid soldiers is mercenaries. Britain also had the world’s largest navy, whereas the Americans did not have much of a navy at all.

The Americans did have a few things going for them, though. For one, they were fighting on their own land, which made fresh soldiers and supplies readily available. The British had to ship everything—including soldiers—from three thousand miles away. This was both a great cost and a delay. The American soldiers were also more determined than the British soldiers because they were fighting to defend their homes, land, families, and freedom.

Vocabulary

natural rights, n. rights that all people are born with and that cannot be taken away by the government

Think Twice

What possible advantage might the colonists have had in a war fought in their homeland?
Support from Women and Black Americans

Women played many roles in the American Revolution. Working in army camps, they washed, cooked, sewed, made gunpowder, and nursed the wounded. Sometimes women went into battle, even though they weren’t supposed to. In one battle, Mary Ludwig Hays brought her husband’s cannon crew water in a pitcher from a nearby stream. She used the water to cool off the cannons so they would not overheat in the battle. She carried so many pitchers that they called her Molly Pitcher.

Another woman who helped the Patriot cause was Deborah Sampson. Sampson dressed in men’s clothing and joined the army. She was a talented soldier, and it was only when she was wounded that doctors found out she was a woman. A number of other women served as messengers and spies. At home, they also did the work of the men who had gone off to fight. Many women kept their family farm or business running.

The British actively sought help from the Black American community. They were successful in recruiting Black American soldiers because they promised freedom to any enslaved person who fought for the king. In fact, during the Revolution, the majority of Black Americans supported the British.

Think Twice
Why did many Black Americans side with the British during the American Revolution?

But the Patriot side also had support from Black Americans. Some Black Americans saw their freedom as being linked to the freedom of the rest of the country. About five thousand Black Americans fought on the American side of the Revolutionary War. Most of them were free men from the Northern states. There were Black Americans in nearly every battle, including Salem Poor and Peter Salem, who fought at the Battle of Bunker Hill, among others. Several Black American regiments came from New England states.

Find Out the Facts
Research the important role of women or Black Americans during the American Revolution.

Writers’ Corner
Based on your research, write a report on the role of women or Black Americans in the American Revolution.
Things went badly for the Continental Army during the early part of the war. Hardly three months after Americans celebrated the Declaration of Independence, a large British army assembled in New York City to do battle with Washington’s still-untrained army. The British defeated the Continental Army easily. That defeat might have ended the war then and there, except Washington and some of his forces escaped. It was during that battle for New York City that a twenty-four-year-old Connecticut schoolteacher named Nathan Hale became famous. Hale was caught serving as a spy for the Americans and was hanged by the British. His last words were “I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country.”

Washington realized that the American people could tire of the war if his army kept suffering defeats. He needed a quick victory or two to raise the spirits of both his soldiers and the rest of the nation. So Washington planned a surprise attack on British mercenaries, the soldiers the British hired from other countries. The mercenaries were called Hessians because many came from the German state of Hesse. The Hessians were camped in Trenton, New Jersey, just across the Delaware River from Pennsylvania. Washington planned to take them by surprise.

On Christmas night, 1776, shivering American soldiers stepped into the rowboats that would carry them across the river. By four o’clock in the morning, all 2,400 of Washington’s men had arrived on the New Jersey side of the river.

The Continental Army marched the nine miles to Trenton hidden by the darkness of night. As day broke, they attacked the sleeping Hessians. The Hessians were surprised and confused. After a short fight, nine hundred Hessians surrendered. Washington had the victory he was looking for: the Battle of Trenton.

Think Twice
What does the expression “turning the tide” mean?
Next, the British turned their attention to the Hudson River Valley. Three of their armies planned to meet in Albany, New York. They hoped to gain control of New England and bring about a swift defeat of the upstart Americans. However, this did not happen. General William Howe, who was in charge of the main British army in New York, wanted to capture Philadelphia first before moving north along the Hudson to join other British troops.

By the time Howe captured Philadelphia, there was no time to join the others in New York. Then, in October 1777, the British and Americans fought at Saratoga, north of Albany. The Americans won, and six thousand of Great Britain’s best soldiers surrendered.

After the victory at Saratoga, the Americans gained a new ally—France. Several months after the Battle of Saratoga, the French entered the war on the side of the Americans. France sent money, equipment, and soldiers. Most importantly, France also sent a large naval fleet to help the Americans. It’s quite possible that without help from the French, the Americans would not have won the war. Then Spain and the Netherlands also declared war against the British. These important allies turned the course of the war in the Americans’ favor.

The brutal winter at Valley Forge, Pennsylvania, is considered the lowest point of the war for the Continental Army. Many members of the Continental Army died from starvation or exposure to the brutal cold, yet they continued to train to prepare themselves for the final stretch of fighting with the British. Inspired by the fortitude of the American troops, Baron Frederick von Steuben (/stoo*bun/), an experienced military leader, offered to help the American army. Washington hired von Steuben. The German officer taught the men about soldiering. He drilled them over and over. By spring, General Washington had a well-trained army for the very first time.

The tiny American navy, of course, was no match for the great British fleet. Still, American warships put up a good fight when they met one British ship at a time.

Think Twice
Why do you think the French came to the aid of the Americans?

The French entered the war on the side of the Americans because they coveted the resources of the New World and were concerned about the British influence in the region. They hoped to gain control of the trade routes and establish a foothold in the Americas. Additionally, the French might have been influenced by the idea of spreading their influence and power globally, much like the British were doing with their empire.
John Paul Jones was the commander of the American ship *Bonhomme (bahn*um/)* *Richard* when it came upon the British warship *Serapis* off the coast of Great Britain. The two ships opened fire on one another. Soon the deck of the American ship was in flames. The British commander then demanded that Jones surrender. Jones replied, “I have not yet begun to fight!” And fight he did. His own ship sank, but not before Jones and his men climbed aboard the *Serapis* and took it over.

**Benedict Arnold**

During this time, George Washington suffered one of his greatest disappointments. It was not a defeat on the battlefield; rather, it was a defeat of the spirit. One of the Patriots’ bravest and finest generals, and one of Washington’s favorites, went over to the enemy. His name was Benedict Arnold, and he had helped win the Battle of Saratoga. Arnold had been promoted to general, and his future in the American army was bright. In 1780, General Washington placed Benedict Arnold in command of West Point, a fort on the Hudson River. Despite his success and promotion, Benedict Arnold did not feel appreciated by the army. In exchange for a large sum of money, Arnold agreed to turn over West Point to the British. The plot was discovered in time, but Arnold himself escaped and joined the British forces.

In 1781, Great Britain made a mistake that cost it the war. The general in charge of the British armies in the South was Lord Charles Cornwallis. The general spent a year chasing the Continental Army in the South. Then came the Battle of Kings Mountain, along the border between North and South Carolina. The Continental Army defeated a large Loyalist force, and Cornwallis realized the British plan for the South would not work. He decided to move his army to Virginia. If he could defeat the Continental Army in Virginia, he believed he would crush the rebellion.

In the summer of 1781, Cornwallis chose a small Virginia town called Yorktown for his base. Yorktown is located on the York River, which flows into the sea. At Yorktown, the British navy could bring Cornwallis troops and supplies. Despite Yorktown’s risky location on the banks of a river, Cornwallis felt safe there. He had one-third of all the British soldiers in America with him, and the British navy would bring him more troops if he needed them.
While Cornwallis set up his base at Yorktown, George Washington was meeting with a French general in Rhode Island. General Rochambeau (/row*sham*bow/) had brought an army to help the Americans, and a large French naval fleet was on its way. Washington and Rochambeau were planning to attack the British armies in New York City when the news about Yorktown reached them. They realized that if their forces could trap Cornwallis’s men in Yorktown by controlling the river that surrounded it, Washington’s men could keep the British navy from helping Cornwallis. Then Cornwallis would have to surrender.

It took more than a month for the American and French armies to take the five-hundred mile journey to Yorktown. It took a few more days to dig a great half-ring of trenches around the town. On October 9, at five o’clock in the afternoon, the first cannon was fired. The Battle of Yorktown had begun. For once, General Washington had more guns and cannons than the British.

General Washington also had more men. Cornwallis looked to the sea for help, but none came. The French fleet had driven off the British ships. Cornwallis’s army was on its own.
Each day, Washington moved his army closer, tightening the half-ring around Yorktown. Washington rode among his men, despite the risk that a bullet might strike him. His soldiers cheered and pressed on. Cornwallis was trapped. For several more days, American cannons roared. Finally, the British general saw that it was useless to continue. On October 17, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered.

**Think Twice**
Why did the location that Cornwallis chose to fight put him and his soldiers at a disadvantage?

**Find Out the Facts**
Select one of the major battles described in this chapter, and research it in more detail.

**Writers’ Corner**
Write a report on the key causes of the American Revolution and the reasons why in the end the British were defeated.
Chapter 5
Creating a Constitution for the United States

The Big Question
What were some of the conflicting opinions that had to be resolved in order to create the U.S. Constitution?

The Enlightened Ideas of the Founding Fathers

America had gained its freedom, but what form or shape would the government of this new nation take? American leaders pondered this question during the Revolutionary War. Fortunately for those in charge of figuring this out, some new and revolutionary ideas about how to govern had already been considered by great thinkers thousands of miles across an ocean.

John Locke, 1632–1704, English philosopher and physician
Starting in the late 1600s, a new set of ideas held by those actively involved in what became known as **The Age of Enlightenment** swept through England and France. The Enlightenment was a new way of looking at how rulers should govern. The ideas of the Enlightenment had an impact on how people viewed their rights as human beings in society. John Locke was an English thinker who wrote that all men were born free and equal in rights. He believed that people had natural rights that belonged to them, simply because they were born as human beings. Another philosopher, a Frenchman named Jean Jacques Rousseau, believed that any ruler or government only had the authority over people that it had because people permitted or granted this authority. Rousseau called this idea “the consent of the governed.” At the time they wrote them, these men had no way of knowing that their ideas would have a profound impact on the formation of a new government an ocean away.

**Vocabulary**

“The Age of Enlightenment” (phrase), a period from the late 1600s through the 1700s in which philosophers and intellectuals suggested that people should live by reason and intelligence rather than superstition and traditional beliefs.

**Find Out the Facts**

Research the writings of Enlightenment thinkers such as John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau.

**Think Twice**

What government do you think the author is referring to when she states that Enlightenment ideas “would have a profound impact on the formation of a new government an ocean away”?

**Writers’ Corner**

Select an Enlightenment thinker and write a report on their life and philosophical views.
One of the ideas of the Enlightenment was the idea of self-determination. Self-determination was the belief that people did not actually need a big government with a lot of rules to tell them how they should live their lives. This idea was further developed by Thomas Jefferson when he wrote the Declaration of Independence. In his words, all people “are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights,” and “among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.” The idea of any ruler or government restricting any of these rights, he believed, would amount to oppression. These were the very ideas Americans fought for during the American Revolution. These revolutionary ideas were then set down in the Constitution of the United States. Of course, at the time, thousands of Africans were held in bondage. But Jefferson’s words would later be used by the descendants of enslaved Americans to challenge unjust laws.

With the drafting of the Declaration of Independence, Jefferson set the foundation for the Constitution that would follow it later. Jefferson had three important ideas about government.

1. The main purpose of government—the reason we have government in the first place—is to protect the rights of the people.

2. If a government fails to protect those rights or, even worse, takes them away, the people have the right to get rid of that government and create another one.

3. Governments get “their just powers from the consent of the governed.” In other words, the power of government comes from the people themselves—they are “the governed.” It is the people who decide what powers their government should have. If the people do not give their consent for the government to have this or that power, then the government does not have it. This idea is based on what is known as social contract theory. The people enter into a contract, or agreement, to give power to government. If government misuses that power, the contract is broken and the power returns to the people. The people can then change the contract or enter into a new one. This idea is one of the most powerful ideas in American history.

Think Twice
Why might nations ruled by monarchs have disagreed with Thomas Jefferson’s views about the rights of the individual?

Think Twice
How do people today in the United States legally demonstrate their power in relation to a government that they are not happy with?

Vocabulary
consent, n. approval or agreement
The idea of limited government was the idea that people should have the right to limit, or restrict, the power of their government. In 1776, when Jefferson wrote the Declaration, this was not a brand new idea. A few nations had even taken steps toward limited government. For the most part, however, the idea had not been put into practice. Kings, conquerors, and tyrants of all kinds had been ruling governments for hundreds of years without asking ordinary people for their consent. Some rulers even claimed their power was granted to them by God. These were called *divine right rulers*. The needs and wants of ordinary people simply were not important to these rulers. But in the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson made clear that the people do count. The Declaration of Independence listed all the things the British king and his Parliament had done wrong. As a result, the contract was broken, and the American colonies were no longer a part of Great Britain. Each colony became an independent state, and each state had to create a new government for itself. What followed was unprecedented. In every state, ordinary people discussed and debated what that new government should look like and what it should be able to do.
After 1776, Americans had a chance to take the idea of limited government to a whole new level. Jefferson wholeheartedly believed in the wisdom of individuals to act in their own best interest without imposing on the rights of others. Jefferson believed that when given the choice, people would choose freedom over oppressive government. Jefferson wasn’t the only one to hold these views. Framers of America’s early government tended to agree with Jefferson’s opinions. James Madison wrote, “It is the first instance, [since] the creation of the world . . . that free inhabitants have been seen deliberating on a form of government.” Americans soon became aware that they were doing something that had never been done before. They knew that they were engaged in a “great experiment.” They were also aware that the world was watching. They held a deep desire to make the experiment work, because they felt they could be an example for the world to follow.

Vocabulary

deliberate, v. to carefully discuss and consider issues
provisions, n. items in a legal document that state conditions or requirements

Think Twice

Why might what happened in the United States after the American Revolution be described as a “great experiment”?

Making a New Government:
From the Declaration to the Constitution

One year after the Declaration of Independence, all but one American state had a brand-new written constitution. Each of these documents had provisions protecting individual freedoms. In each of the thirteen states, the first decision made about the new constitution was to put it in writing. That made it a firm contract between the people and the new government. It was how the people—“the governed”—gave their consent. It was like the people saying, “These are the things we agree that the government may do. And these are the things it may not do.” That is the idea of limited government.

Actually, it was quite easy for the writers of the state constitutions to list what the new state governments could not do. The British king and Parliament had practically written the list for them. The governments could not search a person’s home without good reason. They could not put a person in jail without a trial. And they could not keep a person in jail without a trial.
They most certainly could not take away a person’s right to trial by jury. Finally, they could not stop people from assembling peaceably, and they could not take away the people’s right to ask or even demand that their government do something they wanted done. Do all these sound familiar? They should. They are the “rights of Englishmen” that colonists were fighting a war over at that very time. The idea of those rights developed in England over many years, starting in 1215 with a document called Magna Carta, which limited the power of the monarch. Many of these state constitutions added still more rights. One was freedom of speech. That means that people in those states were free to speak their mind and criticize the government without fear of being arrested. To give you an idea of how revolutionary an idea that was, there was no other country in the world at that time in which the right of free speech was guaranteed.

Another key right these state constitutions protected was freedom of religion. Nearly every state passed a law to protect religious freedom. The most famous of these laws was Virginia’s Statute for Religious Freedom, written by Thomas Jefferson. The statute said that the state government could not interfere in any way with the religious beliefs of its citizens. As Jefferson said later, “It does me no injury for my neighbor to say there are twenty gods or no god. It neither picks my pocket, nor breaks my leg.” Because it does no one any injury, and because the right to religious freedom was not able to be taken away, the state should not concern itself with a person’s religious beliefs. Today, we call this idea the separation of church and state. It means that the government—the state—has no power to establish an official state religion. A related basic right is called freedom of conscience. This means that government cannot tell people what church they should belong to or what they should believe.

In the process of building and confirming state constitutions, many Americans realized that the enslavement of people contradicted their belief that all humans were equal and had unalienable rights. As a result, five Northern states passed laws to end slavery immediately. In the years that followed, other states would
gradually free their enslaved people. But no Southern state was willing to do that, and the consequences of that would play out later in a monumental way.

Aside from this one large difference in the new state constitutions, on the whole, state constitution-making was remarkably successful. As it turned out, it was much more successful than the first try at making a national constitution.

**Think Twice**

Why do you think Southern states were unwilling to give up the practice of enslaving people?

**Vocabulary**

- **infringe**, v. to limit or take away some of the rights of others

**The Second Continental Congress**

The delegates attending the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia had taken on the task of trying to agree on a government for the entire United States of America. Most members of the Congress agreed that the new nation needed *some* kind of a central government—a government for the whole nation. Every time they began to consider what *kind* of government, though, they ran into a problem. The delegates feared a central government with too much power. They couldn’t be blamed for this fear since their experiences with Parliament and all its unfair rules and policies had shown them that a very powerful government would infringe on individual rights and liberties. The delegates believed strongly in the concepts of self-rule and government by consent. Therefore, they could not in good conscience conceive of creating a government that would not embrace either of these principles.

**Vocabulary**

- **confederation**, n. a group of states joined together by a formal agreement

**The Articles of Confederation**

Even before the American Revolution was over, in 1777, the Congress had voted to approve a plan for a new central government. The plan was called the Articles of Confederation, and it was sent to the states for approval. A confederation is a loose association of states bound together by a weak centralized government. After being debated in each state, the Articles of Confederation finally went into effect four years later, in 1781.
The Articles of Confederation were very different from the constitutions the states had adopted for themselves. Like the state constitutions, the Articles created a law-making body, which was called Congress. That’s where the similarities ended. The people didn’t elect the members of Congress the way they elected their state legislatures. Members of Congress were appointed by the states. In fact, the people of the United States had no direct connection with this new central government at all. Under the Articles of Confederation, the new government didn’t represent the people; it represented the states, and the states had their own political independence.

There was another important difference between the Articles of Confederation and the state constitutions. State constitutions gave their legislatures power to do a great many things. The Articles, though, gave Congress power to do very few things. These were some of the main powers: Congress could declare war and make peace. The Congress could make treaties and alliances with other nations. It could settle arguments between the states about their boundaries—about where one state’s land ended and another’s began. It could borrow money, set up a postal service, and create a currency, or money system. That was about it. To make sure the Congress didn’t try to do more than it was supposed to, the Articles of Confederation added this: unless the Articles specifically gave a power to the new Congress, Congress did not have it.

Too Little Power

New American leaders soon learned that a central government with too little power wasn’t a good thing either. During the war, the Continental Congress had borrowed from other countries and from individual Americans to buy supplies and pay the American army. With the war over, it was time to start paying the money back. But the Articles of Confederation did not give the central government the power to collect taxes.

Find Out the Facts

Research which nations the Continental Congress borrowed money from in order to fund the American Revolution.

Congress relied on voluntary compliance from the states to collect the revenue it needed for the war debts it had accumulated.

Vocabulary

compliance, n. the act of doing what is expected or what is ordered by law
Not surprisingly, this was not a viable plan. For every one hundred dollars Congress asked for, the states contributed just five dollars, and not too many debts could be paid off that way. Even when it became clear that the central government had to have at least some power to raise money, there was not much that could be done about it. That’s because of another weakness of the Articles of Confederation: to amend, or change, this constitution, all thirteen states had to give their agreement. Twice, those who favored giving the government a way to raise money tried to amend the Articles to allow Congress to tax. Each time, twelve states said yes, but one state refused. The amendment failed.

While the Articles of Confederation gave Congress the power to declare war, Congress had no power to raise an army. It could ask each state to contribute its fair share of men, but again, it was up to each state to decide whether it would do so. This was a big problem when in 1786, Massachusetts farmers staged an armed revolt against what they considered to be unfair taxes and harsh economic conditions. The governor had to organize a military group to stop the rebels. This event became known as Shays’s Rebellion. There were other problems, too. The government of the United States of America had no one at its head. After their experience with a king, Americans decided against giving power to any single person. Each year, Congress elected one of its members to be president of the Congress, but that wasn’t the same thing as being the head of the whole government. With such a weak central government, states often did whatever they wanted, even though they weren’t supposed to. For example, the Articles of Confederation said that Congress had the right to raise a navy, but nine states went ahead and had navies of their own instead. The central government seemed so unimportant that state legislatures took their time electing delegates to Congress. So while Americans had been understandably afraid of creating a central government with too much power, after six years under the Articles of Confederation, it seemed clear they had created one with too little power.

Planning a New Constitution

In spite of the weak Congress that existed under the Articles of Confederation, in 1787, Congress would pass one of the most important laws in all of American history. This 1787 law is known as the Northwest Ordinance. At that time, the United States had claimed a huge triangle of land in the northwest. It was bordered by the
Ohio River, the Mississippi River, and the Great Lakes. Right after the United States became independent, settlers began to pour into this territory. In those days, the usual thing for a country to do was to turn such an area into colonies for its own benefit. That’s what Great Britain did. It’s what France and Spain did. It’s what the Netherlands and Portugal and other European countries did. It’s not what the United States did, though. First, Congress guaranteed white settlers of this vast territory the same rights that white people in the thirteen states had, including trial by jury and freedom of religion. Then, Congress divided the territory into smaller ones. When there were five thousand male inhabitants, in a now smaller territory, who were eligible to vote, then it could apply to become a state—not a colony of a mother country, but a full-fledged state, equal to all the other states. From that time on, that plan was used to create nearly all the other states in today’s United States. There was one more very important part of the Northwest Ordinance. Earlier you read that five Northern states had taken steps to end slavery. People in other states, too, were coming to admit that slavery was unacceptable. Congress could not do anything about slavery in the states where it already existed. But the Northwest Ordinance did prohibit slavery anywhere in the Northwest Territory.

Find Out the Facts
Research which areas of the United States fell under the guidelines contained within the Northwest Ordinance.
Passing one law, however—even a law as important as the Northwest Ordinance—didn’t change the fact that the Articles of Confederation were not working very well. A growing number of people began to feel that Congress needed more power, more authority, to be effective. Many, though, wanted to keep the Articles of Confederation. They thought that an amendment here or there would be enough to do the trick. Everyone more or less believed this, except for James Madison. He had spent most of his life studying government and politics. When he was still in his twenties, he helped write the new Virginia constitution.

Now in his mid-thirties, Madison served as one of Virginia’s delegates to Congress. There, he witnessed firsthand the problems of the struggling young nation. After a few years, Madison decided that no amount of fixing could make the Articles of Confederation work well. There was only one thing to do: scrap the Articles and start over.

Alexander Hamilton reached the same conclusion. Hamilton was born on the island of Nevis, in the British West Indies. His father was a Scottish immigrant who had gone to the islands to make his fortune. When Hamilton was still quite young, his mother died. And as his father had already abandoned the family, he became an orphan. Sometime later, Hamilton was working as a clerk when a hurricane swept across his island. He wrote a letter describing the hurricane damage. It was printed in the local newspaper. Several wealthy island plantation owners were impressed by Hamilton’s letter. They decided to
pay for him to attend King’s College in New York. A strong believer in the Patriot cause, Hamilton joined General Washington’s army soon after the fighting started. In a short time, he became one of Washington’s closest aides. Now, as one of New York’s delegates to Congress, he too saw how weak the new government was under the Articles of Confederation.

Like Madison and Hamilton, George Washington felt that the central government had to have more power. In 1787, he wrote to a friend, “To be fearful of giving Congress . . . [enough] authority for national purposes appears to me . . . madness. What then is to be done? Things cannot go on [this way] forever.” Washington feared that people would become so frustrated with the government that they might even start believing the country would be better off with a king.

**Find Out the Facts**

Research the life of Alexander Hamilton.

**Writers’ Corner**

Using your research on Alexander Hamilton, write a report on his life and extraordinary achievements.

In 1786, Madison, Hamilton, and several others persuaded Congress to call for a special convention of all the states in Philadelphia in May 1787. The invitations to the convention went out as news was spreading about Shays’s Rebellion in Massachusetts. That news helped convince the states that the convention was necessary. They decided to participate, and they selected very experienced delegates to attend. The purpose of this convention, Congress said, was to recommend changes for improving the Articles of Confederation. But for Hamilton and Madison, the real purpose of the convention was not to improve the Articles of Confederation but to replace them with an entirely new constitution.

**Madison’s Ideas**

What should that new constitution look like? For more than a year, Madison had been pondering that question. He pored over books on the history of ancient Greece and Rome. He studied the writings of important thinkers on government and politics, especially those from the Enlightenment. A big question for Madison was, how do you create a government with enough power to act but not so much power that it threatens the people’s liberties? As he studied and thought, his ideas for a plan of such a government gradually began to take shape.

**Think Twice**

Why might James Madison have gone as far back as ancient Greece and Rome in his research on thinkers, governments, and politics?
One thing Madison had already figured out was that a central government had to be able to raise its own money and enlist its own soldiers. It should not have to ask the states if they would please contribute. That was the great weakness of the Articles of the Confederation. Meanwhile, as the starting date of the Philadelphia convention drew near, newspapers all over America were filled with stories about what they were calling the “Grand Convention of the States.” To us it has become known as the Constitutional Convention. Readers of those newspapers fully understood that whatever happened in Philadelphia—or didn’t happen, if the delegates could not agree—would have a great effect on the future of their country.

And not just their own country. One newspaper said, “The Grand Convention of the States will settle forever the fate of republican government.” A republican government is the kind of government where people elect representatives to speak for them, or to represent their interests in a law-making body. European governments did not expect the United States to last. They had a hard time believing that ordinary people could govern themselves.

The Constitutional Convention

From May 25 to September 16, 1787, fifty-five of the ablest men in America convened in Philadelphia to draft a new plan of government to ultimately replace the Articles of Confederation. Right at the start, the delegates made two important decisions. The first was choosing George Washington as chairman of the convention. The second was to keep all discussions secret. That way, each person could express his ideas freely. He could even change his mind about an issue without having to face public disapproval. The delegates would not have to worry about newspapers or citizens looking over their shoulders and criticizing this or that proposal. Instead, the convention would present its final plan to the people and say, “This is the result of our best efforts. Now it is for you, the people, to say yes or no.” In an era when there was no cable television or social media, this was no doubt much easier to do.

Think Twice

Why might it be more difficult today to keep secret the views being put forward in an important convention?

Though the meetings were held in secret, several delegates, including James Madison, took careful notes throughout.
We have those delegates to thank for everything we know about what went on there. “I was not absent a single day,” Madison wrote later. “Nor more than a . . . fraction of any hour in any day.” Using his own system of abbreviations and symbols, he wrote down in a private journal nearly everything that went on in the secret meetings.

**The Virginia Plan**

Almost from the start, disagreements arose between delegates representing large states such as Virginia and smaller states such as New Jersey. Virginia governor Edmund Randolph led the Virginia delegation in his role as governor. It was his job to present the ideas that Madison and the others had been working on. These ideas came to be called the Virginia Plan, or the large state plan. Some important parts of the plan included the idea that a strong central government must be able to deal directly with the people, instead of depending on the kindness of the state governments. In certain areas, it must have powers *higher* than those of the states. In those areas, the central government must have *supreme powers*.

Many delegates were uncomfortable with this proposal because they thought the purpose of the convention they were attending was to *revise* the Articles of Confederation, not *replace* them. Yet, in the Convention’s very first week, this appeared to be precisely what the Virginia delegation was promoting. Delegates were also very uncomfortable with the idea of a strong central government. To say that a central government would have power over the states unnerved many. Wasn’t this precisely what the Revolutionary War had been about?

**Think Twice**

Why might some states have been suspicious of a more powerful central government?
After a number of heated debates, New Jersey delegate William Patterson put forth an alternate plan. Called the New Jersey Plan, or small state plan, Patterson’s plan called for adding amendments to the Articles instead of replacing them. In response, Randolph argued that amending the Articles would not fix the long-term problems. Finally, after another day of meetings and speeches, delegates decided to draft a brand-new constitution for the United States of America. The new constitution would totally replace the Articles of Confederation. No one wanted to see an all-powerful central government with no power left for the states. So the delegates designed a government where some powers were held by the national government and some were held by the states. This kind of system is called a federal system. To make a successful federal system, it is important to create just the right balance between the national and state governments.

**Vocabulary**

**federal**, adj. relating to a system of government in which the national government shares power with other levels of government, such as the states; can also refer to national government

**Think Twice**

What advantages would a more powerful central government bring to the United States?
The Virginia Plan offered an answer to the problem of balance. It proposed to separate the new national government into three equal branches: legislative, executive, and judicial. Each branch would have its own separate duties and powers. This idea is known as the *separation of powers*. The separation of powers is part of our Constitution today. Here is how power is separated among the three branches of government:

- **The legislative** branch is Congress. Congress is a legislature, or group of people who make the laws for the country. Its members are called legislators.
- **The executive** branch is headed by the president of the United States. The president sees that the laws are carried out and is responsible for running the government. The president also deals with other countries and serves as commander in chief of the armed forces.
- **The judicial** branch, or judiciary (it comes from the same word as *judge*), is made up of the Supreme Court and other federal, or national, courts. These courts decide cases involving the Constitution and the laws that Congress passes.

**Vocabulary**

- **legislative**, adj. having the power to make laws
- **executive**, adj. having the power to carry out and enforce laws
- **judicial**, adj. having to do with courts of law or decisions of right or wrong

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**The Constitution**

- We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

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**The Congress**

- Passes laws

**The President**

- Carries out the laws of Congress
- Suggests new laws

**The Supreme Court**

- Settles arguments about the law
Checks and Balances

Although each of these branches has a lot of power, none is completely free to do what it pleases. Each branch can check, which means stop, the others. For example, Congress can pass any law it wants, but the president has the right to veto, or disapprove it. Congress has the ability to override, or reject, a presidential veto. The Supreme Court may strike down a law passed by Congress if the court believes it to be unconstitutional. The president can make a treaty with another country, but the treaty only goes into effect if the Congress approves it. The president is commander in chief of the armed forces, but only Congress can declare war.

The Constitution:
A Document of Compromises

In any important work where groups of people have to engage in long-range planning to solve problems or to get things done, **compromise** is often needed. No one side or group can expect to get everything it wants all the time. This was the case during the Constitutional Convention, too. For the first month, the Constitutional Convention made great progress. However, every delegate knew there were several issues certain to cause trouble. The first of these was the issue of representation in Congress.

Before that question could be resolved, the delegates had to agree on whether there would be one house of Congress or two. The Virginia Plan called for two houses and the New Jersey Plan, one.

The delegates agreed on two. Then they disagreed about how many representatives—that is, how many votes—each state would have in both houses. The Articles of Confederation said, “One state, one vote”—that is, each state had one vote, no matter how big the state or how many people lived in it. Of course, the big states didn’t like that. So now the Virginia Plan proposed that representation be based on population. In other words, the more people a state had, the more votes it would have. The New Jersey Plan wanted to retain the Articles’ one vote per state.

**Vocabulary**

*compromise*, n. when each side in a disagreement gives up some of what they want to reach an agreement
It wasn’t surprising that Virginia favored representation based on population. Virginia, after all, was the largest state. And it wasn’t surprising that small states like Delaware and New Jersey wanted to keep the one-state-one-vote rule. They said the Virginia Plan would give the large states too many votes in Congress. The argument between big states and small states grew more and more heated. For a time, it looked like this would be the rock on which the Constitutional Convention would crash. Then Roger Sherman, a delegate from Connecticut, came forward with a solution. Why not base the membership of one house of Congress on population? That one would be called the House of Representatives. In the other house, each state, whether big or small, would have an equal vote. That house would be called the Senate. That way, both the large states and the small ones would each get something. A workable compromise seemed to have been reached.

The kind of legislative system Sherman proposed is known as a **bicameral system**. In a bicameral system, there are two chambers (groups of people) that are responsible for making laws for a country. Under the Articles of Confederation, the national government had a unicameral system, where there was just one chamber making laws for the country. By accepting Sherman’s plan, our government established a bicameral legislative system. Congress would be made up of two chambers: the House of Representatives and the Senate. In the House of Representatives, each state would have a number of representatives that was determined by the state’s population. In contrast, the Senate would have two senators from each state.

Another tough issue facing the delegates was the issue of slavery. It was not a question of getting rid of slavery. Northern states did want to get rid of it, but they knew several Southern states would walk out of the convention if they tried, so they didn’t even propose abolishing it. Instead, the convention tried to deal with the question: should states be allowed to count enslaved workers as a part of their population? If enslaved workers were included in a state’s population, then that state would have more votes in Congress. The Northern states argued that enslaved workers were considered property in the South. How could property be counted as part

**Vocabulary**

“**bicameral system**” (phrase), a type of organization in which two related parts work together
of the population? But Southern states insisted that enslaved workers should be counted.

Another compromise was reached. It was agreed that in figuring the number of representatives each state would have in the House of Representatives, five enslaved workers would count as three free white persons. This became known as the Three-Fifths Compromise.

There was one more compromise between Northern and Southern states about slavery. Northern states wanted to end the slave trade and stop any more enslaved workers from being brought into the country. But Georgia and South Carolina threatened to walk out if the convention insisted on stopping the slave trade. In the end, the two sides compromised. Enslaved workers could be imported for another twenty years, but after that, Congress could prohibit bringing in any more. (Twenty years later, Congress did just that.)

Perhaps those parts of the Constitution that dealt with the enslavement of human beings represented the biggest compromises of all. Making these compromises on slavery was not a proud moment for the Constitutional Convention. Yet most of the delegates believed that without them, there would be no new constitution and no new, stronger central government. Slavery would continue in the new nation, even though many were against it. The young nation would continue to grapple with the issue of slavery in the coming years.

Think Twice

What were the motivations driving the Northern and Southern states in relation to the issue of counting enslaved people as part of the population?

Think Twice

What does the author mean by the words “making these compromises on slavery was not a proud moment for the Constitutional Convention”?

The Convention Completes Its Work

With compromises in place, the convention moved steadily forward to complete its work. Several important questions remained. Here are some of them, along with the answers the delegates decided upon.

- What should the term of office be for a member of the House of Representatives?

Answer: Two years
• What should the term of office be for a member of the Senate?
  Answer: Six years
• How many senators should each state have?
  Answer: Two
• How many presidents should there be?
  Yes, that’s right—how many presidents at one time? For a while, the delegates considered dividing the powers of the president among three people. They feared giving all that power (again!) to just one person.
  Answer: One president, with a term of four years

Once the outstanding questions had been answered, the convention had to decide on a way for the new Constitution to be amended. While amending a constitution should be harder than passing an ordinary law, it shouldn’t be impossible. That was one of the problems of the Articles of Confederation, which required all thirteen states to agree on an amendment. The Constitutional Convention’s answer was to require two-thirds of each house of Congress and three-fourths of all the states to approve an amendment before it could become a part of the Constitution.

Two more questions had to do with ratifying the Constitution. To ratify means to approve or accept. Everyone agreed that before the new Constitution could go into effect, it had to be ratified by the states. But by how many states? And who would speak for each state? Here again, the Articles of Confederation provided an example of what not to do. The Articles had let the state legislatures decide for each state and had required all thirteen of them to give their approval. It had taken four years to get all thirteen states to ratify!

The delegates to the Constitutional Convention knew they couldn’t let that happen again. So this is what the convention decided:

Each state would call a special ratifying convention. That way, the people would have a direct say in deciding whether to approve the new Constitution. The people would choose the members of these conventions as representatives of the people. The ratifying conventions’ only job would be to decide whether to approve the new Constitution. When nine of them approved, the new Constitution would go into effect.

On September 17—nearly four months after the Constitutional Convention opened—the final document was ready to be signed. All but three delegates
signed it. After the Constitutional Convention approved it, the Constitution was printed for Americans to read it for their approval. Those who were able to read it, analyzed it, discussed it, and debated it. It quickly became clear that some Americans wanted the Constitution very much, while others didn’t want it at all. Those who wanted to approve it came to be called Federalists. Those who opposed it became known as Anti-Federalists.

Anti-Federalists were not happy that the original intent of the Constitutional Convention had been abandoned. The original idea was to revise the Articles of Confederation, not replace them. Anti-Federalists were alarmed that the central government appeared to have a lot of power, and there was, as yet, no Bill of Rights protecting individual liberties. Anti-Federalists believed that if state constitutions had clauses and provisions protecting people’s individual rights, the national constitution needed those too.

The Federalists wanted to get the Constitution ratified quickly in states where there was strong support and to put off votes in states where there was strong opposition. Among the leading supporters on the Federalist side were Alexander Hamilton and James Madison. Those two, plus John Jay from New York, wrote eighty-five separate newspaper articles in which they discussed every part, practically every sentence, of the new Constitution. They explained to the American people why each part was important. They explained how the new government would work.

**The Ratification Process**

Constitutional Convention → State Conventions → Approval by 9 of 13 States
They also explained why the Articles of Confederation needed to be replaced. These essays became known as The Federalist Papers.

Leading Virginians, some of whom played an important role in the Constitutional Convention, were very wary of any constitution that did not include a bill of rights and threatened to withhold support for ratification until one was added. In response, James Madison promised to lead the efforts to draft a slate of provisions protecting individual liberties. Once Virginia threw its support behind ratification, the new Constitution became the law of the land.

The Bill of Rights

Madison was true to his word. He was elected to the House of Representatives in the new government, and he set to work putting together a bill of rights. He introduced his proposed amendments in June 1789. After debate in the House and the Senate, most of them were adopted and sent to the states for their approval. (Remember, amending the Constitution requires a two-thirds majority in each house of Congress and then approval by three-fourths of the states.) In 1791, ten of these amendments were ratified by the states and added to the Constitution. These first ten amendments are known as the Bill of Rights, and they protect each American’s individual freedoms, as well as protecting the power of the states.

The addition of the Bill of Rights made the Constitution complete. With ratification finalized, celebrations broke out across the country. The biggest one was in Philadelphia, where bells rung, a parade was held, and people gathered in the streets. One leading citizen of the city said, “Now we are a nation.”
There is no doubt that today the country looks a lot different than it looked in the 1780s when the Constitution was first written. However, its strong guiding principles have survived the invention of electric lights, telephones, televisions, skyscrapers, and computers. Today’s American citizens can still be heard debating about who to vote for, as well as the issues of the day. Choosing our own representatives, meeting publicly to have a say about laws we will live under, exercising our rights to free speech and free press—surely any visitor from the 1780s would find these quite familiar. Chances are, they would smile, congratulate each other, and say, “The Constitution we wrote more than two hundred years ago is alive and well in twenty-first-century America.”

Why has this Constitution lasted so long? One reason is that it does not try to do more than a constitution should. In fact, after tacking on the Bill of Rights—the first ten amendments—in 1791, Americans have amended our Constitution only seventeen more times.

The Constitution has served the American people well for another reason: It is built on four strong guiding principles. The first of these guiding principles is the one that Thomas Jefferson stated in the Declaration of Independence: Governments get “their just powers from the consent of the governed.” This means that “we the people” rule. We rule by choosing the people who represent us in government. We do this on the national level. We do it on the state level. We do it in the towns and cities in which we live. If we like the job our representatives have done, we can reelect them. If we don’t, we can choose others to represent us. If we don’t like the job the president has done in running our government, we can elect a new one.

The second guiding principle is limited government. The Constitution lists many things the national government may do. It can collect taxes and borrow money. It can control trade between the United States and other countries. It can make laws about immigration and citizenship. It can coin and print money, run a postal service, and create new courts. It can create an army and a navy, and it can declare war and make peace. Those are a lot of powers, to be sure. But the Constitution prevents the government from interfering with the freedoms and liberties of the people. The Bill of Rights spells out still other limits on the federal government.
The principle of limited government is what guarantees our freedoms and guards against the possibility of government becoming too powerful.

The third guiding principle built into our Constitution is the separation of powers. The responsibility for government in the United States is split among three branches of government. Each branch has its own specific function.

The fourth guiding principle is federalism. As you have learned, federalism is the system of dividing the powers of government between the national government and the state governments. The trick to making a federal system work well is to give each level of government the jobs it does best.

There is, however, one other reason for the success of the U.S. Constitution. It is the American people. We have respected the Constitution, and we have taken care to preserve it. And in return, the Constitution has taken care of us. Shortly after the Constitutional Convention ended, someone asked Ben Franklin what kind of government had just been created for the young country. He quipped, “A republic, if you can keep it.”

Writers’ Corner
Imagine you have become a castaway on an uninhabited desert island with a number of other people. You can decide how many people are with you and what resources are on the island. You have been charged with writing a constitution, outlining the rules you must all agree to follow. Write your constitutional proposal and present it. Be open to discussion and debate.
Idealists had toiled in the sweltering heat of a hot Philadelphia convention hall to write the Constitution. Now they would get a chance to see if the words they had so eloquently and skillfully put on paper would actually work in the real world. The new Constitution was ratified in September of 1788, and Philadelphia prepared to welcome the first chief executive of the United States. That chief executive was none other than George Washington. He was the first and only president unanimously elected by the electoral college, a system laid out by the Constitution. The electoral college has been an important part of the process of how presidents have been chosen ever since.

**The Big Question**

What were the main events that occurred in the United States from the time that George Washington became the first president to the seventh president, Andrew Jackson?

**Vocabulary**

- **electoral college**, n. a group of representatives who elect the president and vice president based on the popular vote in each state.
The electoral college is a process that is used to elect the president of the United States. People in every state register and vote for who they want as president. Then, after they have voted, electors, or members of the electoral college, cast a vote for president on the voters’ behalf. Each state gets a certain number of electors, and that number is based on the population. The person with the most electoral college votes wins the presidency.

At this point, you may be wondering why the electoral college was formed in the first place. Why didn’t the framers of the Constitution just allow the presidential candidate with the highest number of votes to win the office? The answer is that many of the Founding Fathers believed that most ordinary people would not be informed enough to choose the best person for the job. The other, and perhaps more significant, reason was the idea that if the candidate with the most popular votes won, the only thing that candidate would need to do would be to win the majority of the vote in the most populous states. People who lived in the least populated states would rarely if ever get a say in who would lead the country. Considering this, using the basis of congressional representation to decide the number of electors seemed to be the fairest system.

Think Twice
What is your opinion on the reasons behind the establishment of the electoral college?

The population of enslaved people was one factor that complicated this system. Remember the Three-Fifths Compromise? The non-voting enslaved population was factored into the population of slaveholding states such as Virginia. Just as was the case with the House of Representatives, for which five enslaved workers would count as three free white persons, the same formula was applied in setting the number of electors each state received. The creation of the electoral college is another instance where a compromise was reached so that support for the Constitution could be established.
At the time of George Washington’s selection, since there were only thirteen states, there were only sixty-nine available electoral college votes. George Washington received all sixty-nine of those votes, including the ten from his home state of Virginia. Having received the unanimous support of his fellow countrymen did not give George Washington cause to jump for joy. He knew the young country was faced with enormous challenges, and he doubted his ability to resolve them. He expressed these feelings in letters he shared with some of his friends. In one such letter, he wrote, “I greatly apprehend [worry] that my countrymen will expect too much from me.” He was so unsure about the new role he had been chosen to play that he insisted on a simple **inaugural ceremony** to make his new job official rather than a grand one.

The desire for a simple inaugural ceremony was one that his countrymen seemed determined to ignore. However, there was one fight that Washington did win: the name the new chief executive should answer to.

In keeping with the desire to establish a new style of government, Washington did not want to resemble a king or an emperor. After all, fighting to be free from a king was what the Revolutionary War had been all about! Nevertheless, some in Congress wanted to give the new president titles such as “His Highness the President of the United States of America and the Protector of Their Liberties.” Washington insisted on something much simpler—the title the president goes by to this day: “Mr. President.” In the event that a woman is elected president, she will be known as “Madame President.”

**Find Out the Facts**

How many women have tried to become president, and who were they?

Mr. President, George Washington, made the long and winding journey from his beloved home at Mount Vernon, Virginia, to New York City to take the oath that would make his new job official. In every village and town he traveled through, he attended speeches, parades, and dinners in his honor. Citizens lined the streets to cheer as his carriage passed by. On the country roads, men on horseback rode with Washington’s carriage. The traffic filled the country air with dust as the journey became one long parade.
After eight long days, Washington finally arrived in New York. Inauguration Day—April 30, 1789—dawned bright and sunny in New York City. A crowd of thousands assembled in front of the building known as Federal Hall. Shortly after noon, George Washington and a small group of officials stepped out on the balcony. Placing his hand on a Bible, Washington repeated the oath of office written in the new Constitution: “I do solemnly swear that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.” Because there were no loudspeakers in 1789, few people on the street below could hear the words. Nevertheless, they knew they had witnessed a historic moment. After Washington spoke the final words of the oath, an official called out, “Long live George Washington, president of the United States!” The crowd cheered wildly. Washington’s real work, and the work of the Constitution, was about to begin.

Vocabulary

oath of office, n. a promise made by a government official to obey the law and fulfill the responsibilities of his or her job

Writers’ Corner

Using your research on the first inauguration, write a descriptive account of what happened on the day that George Washington became president.
President Washington and Congress wanted to proceed carefully because, as the first president said, “I walk on untrodden ground.” That is, every action that was taken would be new but might set a pattern that would be followed in the future. Washington wanted to set the right **precedents** by closely following the Constitution.

**Vocabulary**

**precedent**, n. an example for future actions or decisions

**Think Twice**

What might be the differences between inheriting a royal throne and being elected as the leader of a new country?

Now Congress and the new president had to decide how Washington would carry out his duties. The Constitution did not set out clearly how things were to be done. For example, the Constitution set up three branches of government: the legislative, judicial, and executive branches—that was clear. The Constitution also said there would be “departments” in the executive branch to help the president. But it did not say what those departments would be or how many of them there should be.

Congress decided to create three executive departments. One was the Department of State. This department would help the president deal with foreign countries. Another department was the Department of War. Its role was to take charge of defending the country. A third department, the Department of the Treasury, was expected to collect taxes, pay bills, and take care of the government’s money. The head of each department was called a secretary.

Creating these departments led to a precedent. The Constitution says the president may seek advice from his department heads. At first, Washington just talked to each secretary separately about the work his department was doing. After a while, though, President Washington felt he needed advice on many other matters. He began having all the secretaries meet with him at the same time to get their advice as a group. The department heads came to be called the president’s cabinet, which means a group of advisers. The first cabinet also included an attorney general, who gave the president legal advice, and a postmaster general, who ran the post office. The meetings came to be known as cabinet meetings.
Although the Constitution did not say anything about a cabinet or cabinet meetings, every president since Washington has had one. Over the years, Congress has added departments to the executive branch, and the president’s cabinet has grown. Members of the president’s cabinet and the vice president make up what is known as the president’s administration.

Washington had quite an impressive administration. John Adams was his vice president. Although John Jay was Washington’s very first secretary of state, Thomas Jefferson replaced him when Jay was appointed by Washington to become the country’s first chief justice. As secretary of state, Jefferson was in charge of managing the new country’s relationships with foreign countries such as Britain and France. Washington’s secretary of the treasury was Alexander Hamilton, and he was in charge of supervising the new country’s finances. Henry Knox was the secretary of war. Knox had been one of Washington’s military leaders during the Revolutionary War and was placed in charge of the military. Under his leadership, the military established training facilities and manufacturing plants for new weapons.

The judicial system was another area where the Constitution was vague. The Constitution said that there would be a Supreme Court but did not say how many judges there should be. It left all of that up to Congress. Therefore, in that very first year under the new government, Congress passed a law filling in details about courts and judges. It said the Supreme Court of
the United States should have six judges. Congress has changed that number several times over the years. It was seven, then eight, then nine, then ten, then eight again, and finally nine again! Although there have been nine judges for over 130 years, there is nothing in the Constitution that says that number cannot change. If the number of judges were to change, it would be up to Congress to decide on the change.

The Supreme Court, of course, is the top court in the country. However, Congress created other courts so that people in every part of the country could use the court system. These courts were organized according to where in the country they would exist. This established what are known as judicial circuits, and several judicial circuits can be found all over the country. Judges for both the Supreme Court and all of the courts in each of the judicial circuits are nominated by the president but must be confirmed by the Senate. This process of Senate confirmation of a president’s judicial nomination is known as advice and consent. It is a role that is spelled out in the Constitution and is also used to confirm a president’s nominations for cabinet positions.

During that first year, Congress passed another important law regarding the government. The new Constitution gave the central government the power to tax. In 1789, Congress placed a tax on about eighty imported products, or products that had been produced in other countries that were sold in America. While the new tax affected only a few imported items, the money it brought in was enough to make it possible for the new government to start paying its bills for the first time.

Congress passed a number of other laws during its first session. One of these laws designated Washington, D.C., as the nation’s capital. In 1790, the Residence Act was passed, approving the creation of a capital city that would be the site where the federal government would be headquartered. President Washington chose as the location land that was situated along the banks of the Potomac

Vocabulary

- **judicial circuit**, n. lower courts that are organized according to region
- **confirm**, v. to formally approve

Think Twice

What is your opinion on the number of judges who sit on the Supreme Court of the United States?

Why do you think the newly granted ability of the federal government to levy taxes is described as important?
and Anacostia Rivers. The states of Maryland and Virginia *ceded* land from their territories for the creation of this capital city. Plans to begin construction of the new city, named after the country’s first president, started shortly after Congress passed the law creating it. The new city was to be its own distinct district, one that was not a part of any state. This is why Washington is located within the District of Columbia.

A Baltimore businessman named Andrew Ellicott was appointed surveyor general of the United States and was given the responsibility to oversee the planning of the new city. A French town planner named Pierre L’Enfant was hired to design a map of how the new city’s streets would be arranged. L’Enfant’s design was inspired by his native Paris, France.

**Vocabulary**

*d: v. to grant or transfer*

**Think Twice**

Why do you think it was decided that the capital city would not be part of any state?

Plan of the City of Washington as originally laid out in 1793 by Pierre Charles L’Enfant (1754–1825), a French-born American architect and urban planner
Another important hire Ellicott made was of a Black American who had never had the experience of enslavement. Benjamin Banneker was born to parents who at the time of his birth were free people. They owned a one-hundred-acre farm in Maryland and had their young son educated. Young Banneker developed an intense interest in math, science, engineering, and the natural world. When he was twenty-two years old, he developed what was quite possibly the first striking clock created in America. As an older adult, he used his interest in and knowledge of astronomy to accurately predict lunar and solar events. This included the solar eclipse of 1789. Banneker applied his mathematical skills to land planning, and it was these skills that caught Ellicott’s attention. In 1791, Ellicott appointed Banneker to work as an assistant on the important task of developing plans for the new capital city. Banneker worked closely with L’Enfant and his team, a team that included Ellicott’s two brothers. When L’Enfant was fired from the project in 1792 after a disagreement with Ellicott, he took the plans he had drawn on paper with him. The layout plans for the new capital could have been lost forever were it not for Benjamin Banneker. His memory of L’Enfant’s plans saved the project.

Among Banneker’s many accomplishments was the publication of his own *almanac*. Before the days of cable television and the Internet, people turned to almanacs for useful information. Fishermen, farmers, and businessmen relied on the information provided in almanacs. In 1792, Banneker sent a copy of his almanac to Thomas Jefferson. Although Jefferson penned the words to the Declaration of Independence that stated that “all men were created equal,” he still had some harmful opinions about racial equality. Along with his almanac, Banneker included a letter urging Jefferson to reconsider some of his views. After reading Banneker’s letter and his almanac, Jefferson was moved. The man who would become the third president of the United States wrote to Banneker and praised him for his work. Banneker’s correspondence is considered to be one of the first documented examples of a civil rights protest letter in America.

**Find Out the Facts**
Research the life of Benjamin Banneker.

**Writers’ Corner**
Using your research on the life of Benjamin Banneker, write a report.

**Vocabulary**
*almanac*, n. a yearly publication that contained information about astronomy, meteorology, and other things such as weather predictions and general information.
The Peaceful Transfer of Power

George Washington was reelected for another four-year term in 1792. He ended his eight-year presidency in 1796, after turning down requests from his countrymen to serve another four years as president. At that time, there was nothing in the Constitution that stated how many four-year terms a president could have. That meant George Washington could have had as many terms as he wanted, but he believed that no one person should have too much power. (Today the Twenty-Second Amendment to the Constitution limits a president to two terms in office.)

Washington was very concerned about some of the growing divisions he saw in politics as his second term came to a close. In a speech entitled “Washington’s Farewell Address,” he warned of the dangerous divisions between political parties that could ultimately divide Americans. He urged Americans to embrace the things they had in common. He said in his speech, “With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together. The independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint councils and joint efforts—of common dangers, sufferings, and successes.” Washington issued a serious warning to future Americans and urged that people focus on the things that they have in common rather than the things that divide them.

Think Twice
What is your opinion on the two-term limit for the office of president?

Think Twice
How might Washington’s words be extremely relevant today?
With Washington out of the picture, the United States had its first real contest for the presidency. John Adams, who had been Washington’s vice president, was the candidate of the Federalist Party. The Democratic-Republicans named Thomas Jefferson as their choice for president. John Adams won, but just barely. In those days, the person who came in second became the vice president, even though he might be from another political party. So, Thomas Jefferson became vice president of the United States. (This method of election was soon changed by the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution.) John Adams was respected, but he was not especially popular. While he was president, he had to make a decision that made him even less popular.

Think Twice

What do you think are the possible benefits of having a vice president in office who belongs to another political party?
The problem had actually begun while Washington was still president. Those old enemies, France and Great Britain, were at war again. During the American Revolution, France had come to America’s aid. Now the French thought that it was America’s turn to help them. Some Americans agreed. Many favored France because the French people had just had a revolution of their own. They had overthrown their king and set up a republic. Many of the Americans who wanted to help France were Democratic-Republicans. Others thought the United States should side with Great Britain. Most people who felt this way were Federalists.

President Washington decided that the United States would not take sides. Even before John Adams became president, the British navy had begun seizing American ships and sailors carrying goods to France. Still, Washington had kept the United States out of war. However, by the time John Adams became president, things were worse. Now, the French navy was seizing American merchant ships, too. At the same time, the French government was threatening the United States. President Adams sent three personal representatives to France to ask the French to stop. But before they would even agree to talk, French officials insisted the Americans grant them a large loan.

In response to the French, Congress created a navy department and paid for the building of a number of ships. It looked like war for sure. President Adams knew that taking military action would make him popular, but he decided he must try once more to find another solution. He sent a new ambassador to France. This time the French government talked with the American ambassador, and the two nations reached an agreement. President Adams had done the right thing, but in doing so, he lost a lot of popular support.

International political problems were not the only issue facing Adams during his presidency. He also had the task of building the people’s capital and the President’s House, the official residence of the president and his family. (The President’s House later became the White House.) President Adams and his family moved into the President’s House in November 1800. Abigail Adams, the president’s wife, wrote to members of her family about their experiences in the President’s House. She reported that on the day they arrived, not a single room had been completely finished. In some rooms, the plaster walls were still damp. Abigail Adams turned one of the large unfinished rooms into a laundry room. Before the days of furnaces, people depended on fireplaces for warmth.
There was a fireplace in each room, but no one had thought to supply firewood. It turned out that the president was responsible for supplying his own. There was also no well for water, so servants had to carry water from a distance of five city blocks.

Still, Abigail Adams found much to like about the house and could see its possibilities. Abigail was sure the new house, like the new nation, would become great. She knew this house was not built for only a year or a decade. She wrote to her sister, “This House is built for ages to come.”

The Third President: Thomas Jefferson and Partisan Fighting

When Adams ran for reelection to the presidency, he lost. The new president was none other than the leader of the Democratic-Republicans, Thomas Jefferson. The Democratic-Republicans were the old Anti-Federalists who opposed ratifying the U.S. Constitution without the addition of a Bill of Rights. They believed it was needed to protect individual and states’ rights. The other party represented in the election of 1800 was the Federalists. This was the party of John Adams. As much as he despised parties, George Washington was a Federalist, too. Federalists believed in strong central government and were the driving force behind the drafting and ratification of the Constitution.

The role and size of government weren’t the only things the two parties disagreed about. Each group had different ideas of what kind of country the United States should be. Democratic-Republicans, such as Thomas Jefferson, believed that the ideal country would be more rural and agrarian. A country like this would be made up of independent-minded farmers who would take an interest in local affairs. A smaller central government would provide the structure to guide them. Federalists such as John Adams and Alexander Hamilton, Washington’s treasury secretary, believed that the country’s economy should be more industrial, with larger cities. They also believed that a stronger central government should be in place to offer the structure society needed. Hamilton and other Federalists believed that without a strong central government and a range of laws, people might not naturally act in the best interests of society. Jefferson and the Anti-Federalists, later Democratic-Republicans, believed that if left alone, people would generally do the right thing and did not need a big government involved in their lives. It was these competing views that
influenced the election of 1800. Thomas Jefferson won that election with more votes than John Adams, but he also had to preside over a more divided country.

Jefferson’s faith in ordinary people and their ability to do the right thing came with one very big condition: that people must be educated. He believed an ignorant and uneducated people would never remain free for long. Years before Jefferson became president, he tried to get his state of Virginia to provide free education. But this idea was too advanced for people at that time, and Jefferson’s attempt was unsuccessful. Of course, at the time, only free, white, property-owning males were in a position to benefit from Jefferson’s beliefs, but the idea of educated citizens is one that would eventually take hold.

Unlike Adams, Jefferson served as president for two terms. During his time in office, the country grew even as it experienced great challenges. Jefferson’s Democratic-Republican administration moved quickly to undo a lot of what the Federalists established during their time at the head of government. They got rid of the hated whiskey tax, cut government spending, and reduced the size of the army and the navy. However, perhaps most notable was the fact that President Jefferson was able to double the size of the United States.

Back in the 1700s, France had claimed all the land between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. France called this area Louisiana, after King Louis of France. After one of its wars with Great Britain, France “gave” Louisiana to Spain. To American farmers who lived in the West, the most important part of Louisiana was the port city of New Orleans, near the mouth of the Mississippi River. A quick look at a map shows why this was true. Western farmers growing corn or wheat needed a quick and cheap way to get their crops to markets. Using rivers was the best way to transport crops, and the Mississippi River was the most important river of them all. Most rivers in the populated parts of the country eventually flowed into the Mississippi River, so New Orleans was the obvious place to send those crops. From there, the crops would be sold to a merchant who would then put them on ships bound for the eastern cities, Europe, or perhaps the West Indies. If American
farmers no longer had access to New Orleans, they would not be able to sell their crops and they would face financial ruin.

In 1802, it looked like access to New Orleans would be blocked. Spain suddenly announced that western farmers could no longer use the port of New Orleans. Even worse, President Jefferson learned that Spain had secretly given all of Louisiana, including New Orleans, back to France. So Jefferson sent two representatives to France and instructed them to offer ten million dollars to buy New Orleans. Jefferson’s timing was perfect. France needed money to fight Great Britain. The French were not interested in selling New Orleans by itself. However, if Americans wanted all of the Louisiana Territory, including New Orleans, a deal could be made for an additional five million dollars. Jefferson realized that this acquisition was an incredible deal, but he faced a dilemma: where was the money going to come from to pay for it? In a decision that made Jefferson go against some of his own ideas on the role and function of government, Jefferson asked for the money from an institution whose creation he had once opposed: the Bank of the United States. Created in 1791, the Bank of the United States was the first central bank in American history. A central bank controls the money supply of a country. When Alexander Hamilton first proposed a central bank for the United States, Jefferson opposed it because he felt a central bank would make the central government even more powerful. But now Jefferson was willing to set aside his own personal beliefs to do something he believed was in the country’s best interest. The Louisiana Purchase, as it was called, doubled America’s territory.
Jefferson’s government celebrated this purchase. But the continued quest for land, the attitude to land use or land ownership, had long-term, harmful consequences. In the buying and selling of this land, little consideration was given to the rights of the indigenous population, the Native Americans, who had lived on and worked the land for hundreds, even thousands of years.

International Crisis in Jefferson’s Second Term

By the end of Jefferson’s second term, the United States had already become an important trading nation. Britain and France were at war, and Jefferson was determined to keep America out of the conflict. However, America’s trading interests with both Britain and France would make this an increasingly difficult thing to do. The British and French continued the practice of seizing American ships, but Britain, from time to time, took American sailors off American merchant ships, claiming they were British subjects, and forced them to serve in the British navy. This practice was known as impressment. Even in the face of impressment, Congress took steps to avoid going to war. It passed the Embargo Act of 1807, which prohibited trade with both Britain and France. This move made Jefferson extremely unpopular because New England merchants were hurt financially by this policy.

The Fourth President and the War of 1812

In 1809, James Madison became the fourth president. Like Thomas Jefferson, James Madison was from Virginia and a member of the Democratic-Republican Party. He brought a lot of experience in government with him to the presidency; in fact, he actually created the office through the work he did in framing the Constitution. Known as the “Father of the Constitution,” Madison had served as Jefferson’s secretary of state and believed that the United States should work hard to find a peaceful way of dealing with the conflict between France and Britain. This was becoming harder and harder to do.

The issue of impressment angered Americans. They were further upset at the British because Native Americans were attacking American settlers who were on their land.
in the Northwest Territories and were using weapons that the British had sold them. Leaders in Congress were calling for serious armed action against Britain. Known as “war hawks,” most were younger men who had not fought in the American Revolution. These men did not know how terrible war could be.

In the end, the pressure from his own party was too much for President Madison. In 1812, he asked Congress to declare war against Great Britain.

The great fervor to go to war was not matched by the country’s readiness for it. American leaders talked about taking on the British navy’s six hundred ships, but the U.S. Navy had only sixteen. U.S. leaders talked about driving the British out of Canada, but the U.S. Army had only seven thousand soldiers. It is not surprising, then, that at first things did not go well for Americans in the West. American troops not only failed to take Canada but were also forced to surrender some American land. Then came a big surprise: America’s first victory was won on water. The United States had a small fleet on Lake Erie, one of the Great Lakes. Great Britain had a larger one. The American fleet was commanded by Oliver H. Perry. In September 1813, Perry’s fleet defeated a British naval force on Lake Erie, forcing it to surrender.

But Perry’s victory was one of very few things that went the Americans’ way in the early stages of the war. In the summer of 1814, a British fleet sailed into Chesapeake Bay in Maryland with several thousand troops. Their mission was to destroy the American capital city, Washington, D.C.

Residents of Washington fled into the countryside ahead of the arrival of the British troops. Unlike many others, First Lady Dolley Madison refused to leave the White House before ensuring that important government records and a portrait of George Washington were brought to safety. She enlisted the help of enslaved workers and servants and left just hours before the redcoats arrived. When British soldiers burst into the empty White House, the troops went through the place, destroying everything in their path, setting fire to the White House, the Capitol, and many other government buildings.

The next day, a hurricane hit Washington, adding to the damage. Luckily, the heavy rainstorm that followed put out most of the fires. From Washington, the British
marched to Baltimore. At the same time, the British fleet bombarded Fort McHenry, at the entrance to Baltimore’s harbor. The attack lasted all day and all night. But the Americans held out. That attack inspired Francis Scott Key to write the U.S. national anthem, “The Star-Spangled Banner.”

The Battle of New Orleans

Near the end of 1814, the British tried to capture the city of New Orleans at the mouth of the Mississippi River. A British fleet landed 7,500 soldiers near the city. General Andrew Jackson, commanding a tough band of five thousand militia and frontiersmen, was waiting to meet them. Fighting alongside Jackson’s men were pirates who were under the leadership of a local pirate named Jean Lafitte. Jackson used both the pirates and their cannons to assist him in his fight against the British in New Orleans. By defeating waves of British redcoats with the force he had assembled, Jackson saved New Orleans from British capture.

Find Out the Facts
Research the events that occurred at Fort McHenry that led to the writing of “The Star-Spangled Banner” by Francis Scott Key.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research, write a report on the battle that took place at and around Fort McHenry.

Andrew Jackson at the Battle of New Orleans, January 1815
The war ended in what was essentially a draw. The one major advantage the Americans won was the halting of British arm sales to Native Americans in the West. This had been one of the Americans’ goals all along, so in that respect, they were successful. However, this halt hurt the Native Americans in the West, and their attempts to protect their lands from encroaching settlers. British harassment of American ships ended as well, making an end to impressment and leaving America free to pursue trade on the open seas.

The Fifth and Sixth Presidents: James Monroe and John Quincy Adams

James Monroe was the last of the Founding Fathers generation. He was the fourth of the first five presidents to hail from Virginia. He is also the only president in American history to seek reelection unopposed. This is because by the time his first term as president ended in 1820, the country had entered into a calm and prosperous period. That period has come to be known as the Era of Good Feelings. Of course, things were not wonderful for all Americans. Many Black Americans were still enslaved, and Native Americans were still losing vast amounts of their lands. For others, however, the decade between the years 1815 and 1825 seemed a welcome relief from the last few years of harsh partisanship and international war. Shortly after winning reelection in 1821, the Monroe administration bought Florida from Spain for five million dollars. This purchase added Florida to the list of territories the United States owned and controlled.

Also at this time, several Spanish colonies were gaining their independence. These former colonies looked to the United States as an example of how to achieve this. Many of them, such as Bolivia and Argentina, even used language from the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution to write constitutions of their own. The newly gained respect many of these South American countries had for America alarmed European countries. Countries such as France and Britain did not want their colonies to get ambitious ideas about independence. As far as Britain and France were concerned, the best way to prevent such problems occurring was to help Spain regain its colonies.

In response to this idea, President Monroe’s secretary of state, John Quincy Adams, issued a document known as the Monroe
Doctrine. It stated that Europe should adopt a “hands-off” policy when it came to interfering in the affairs of colonies or countries in the Western Hemisphere. The Monroe Doctrine was issued in 1823 and served as a stern warning to European countries that the United States intended to be the dominant power in the Western Hemisphere.

By the early 1820s, the Federalist Party had declined so badly that it no longer existed. The Democratic-Republican Party was the only formally recognized party in the United States by the time of the 1824 election. Most people referred to the party simply as the Republican Party. In the election of 1824, the party split into two groups: the group that would eventually become the modern Democratic Party and the Whig (/wig/) Party. In that election, four candidates competed for the presidency. Two of them were Andrew Jackson and John Quincy Adams. The election was very close, but Adams won. Many of Jackson’s supporters charged—wrongly—that Adams had won unfairly. John Quincy Adams certainly was well-trained for the presidency. His parents, John and Abigail Adams, saw to it that he was well educated. When he was only fourteen years old, he was already serving his country as the U.S. ambassador to Russia. As you have already read, he served as Monroe’s secretary of state.

Despite all of his advantages, though, John Quincy Adams had a hard time politically. Like his father, he was not well liked. Another reason it was hard for him to get anything done was the fact that many members of Congress still supported Andrew Jackson. Finally, Adams’s presidency was doomed because he did not believe the president should try to persuade members of Congress to follow him. He believed the president should just present ideas, and then it was up to Congress to consider them. In the end, like his father, he was unable to win reelection. When he ran for a second term, he was defeated by Andrew Jackson.

The Seventh President: Andrew Jackson and His Mixed Legacy

In March 1829, thousands of “ordinary Americans” flocked to the nation’s capital to witness a man they felt was one of their own being sworn in as president. After Jackson took the oath at the Capitol, the crowds followed him to the White House.
went, walking across the carpeted floors in muddy boots, standing on chairs and furniture to get a good look at their president.

What happened at the White House that day was a result of an important change that had occurred in the United States. The American people had long been choosing representatives to make their laws and to carry them out. In the early years, however, only adult white males who owned property could vote. As time went on, Americans began to ask why it was necessary to own property to vote. Those questions were part of a larger democratic spirit that had been sweeping America since the early 1800s. In cities and rural areas alike, Americans began to challenge the idea that only property holders should have a say in government. As a result, by the late 1820s, in all but a handful of states, the laws had been changed. All adult white males could vote, whether they owned property or not. Of course, if only white males could vote, that still left out a lot of people. It left out women, Native Americans, and, for the most part, Black Americans—although five states did allow free Black American men to vote. With all those people left out, the changes of the early 1800s do not seem so great today. Nevertheless, it was regarded as a step in the right direction. A spirit of equality accompanied the growth of democracy. Earlier, when Americans voted for their representatives in government, they usually chose well-educated, wealthy people who owned property. Now, though, citizens began to ask why ordinary Americans like themselves could not do just as good a job running the country.

For many Americans, Andrew Jackson was that ordinary person. He was born in a log cabin on the frontier. His father died two months before he was born. His mother died when he was fourteen. Andrew had to make his own way in life. He had a little schooling. As an adult, however, he became a lawyer. Jackson also served as a judge, and for a short time, he was a member of Congress. And, of course, he was known as the hero of the Battle of New Orleans.

President Jackson got to work. He vetoed a congressional bill for a renewal of the national bank because he thought it was unconstitutional.

**Vocabulary**

veto, v. to reject or refuse to approve a law
He was a successful president in some ways, but his treatment of Native Americans was so terrible that many criticized him for his ruthlessness. Although most eastern Native Americans had already been forced to move west across the Mississippi River, a number of nations remained in the East. Settlers wanted Native American land for farming, and Jackson and Congress were determined that they should have it. During Jackson’s presidency the Indian Removal Act was passed, eventually leading to the forced removal to the west of the majority of the remaining Native Americans.
Chapter 7
Westward Expansion
Before the Civil War

The Big Question
What were the main events that occurred as people moved west before the Civil War?

Moving West

In the 1700s, the United States was a growing nation in terms of both land and population. Travel was difficult at the time, and most people didn’t travel more than a few miles from their farms or villages. Even so, there were some who, despite all the hardships, were willing to search for new beginnings out west.

Much of the land coveted by settlers was already inhabited by Native Americans who had lived there for thousands of years.
Hunters and trappers first led the way into the lesser-known areas. One of the most famous was Daniel Boone. The western **frontier** marked the end of the area settled by Americans and the beginning of what most Americans considered wilderness. Of course, Native Americans had known these areas well for thousands of years. Many years later, in the 1890s, an American historian named Frederick Jackson Turner would write an essay telling people how important this physical space known as the frontier was in the development of American history. He wrote that the frontier represented freedom and new opportunities for many Americans. They would move farther and farther westward in pursuit of these two things. Turner’s essay was called “The Significance of the Frontier in American History,” and it offered a good explanation of the importance of the western frontier in the development of America’s identity. By the 1760s, the frontier reached the Appalachian Mountains. But there it stopped. The mountains formed a physical barrier to the West. In addition, the British issued an order that prevented settlers from moving beyond the mountain range. They did this to prevent possible conflicts with Native Americans who inhabited these lands.
The Wilderness Road

In 1769, Daniel Boone and a group of five companions found a gap, or narrow pass, through the mountains by way of a path known as the Warrior’s Path, which was used by Native Americans. At the other end of the pass, they came upon land that would become the state of Kentucky. This mountain pass came to be called the Cumberland Gap. In 1775, Boone was hired to widen the path so that settlers with wagons and animals could use it. Boone and a crew of forty men chopped down trees and cleared away the underbrush. In just a few months, the new road, now called the Wilderness Road, was ready for use. Over time, thousands of people moved onto the rich land south of the Ohio River.

Exploring the Louisiana Purchase

President Thomas Jefferson was eager to explore the Louisiana Territory, a vast area of land between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. He wanted to know if there was a way to cross the Rocky Mountains, and he wondered if the land out there contained a way to reach the Pacific Ocean entirely by water—the long-dreamed-of Northwest Passage.

He decided to send an expedition to find the answers to these and many other questions. Jefferson chose his twenty-nine-year-old private secretary, Meriwether Lewis, to lead the expedition. Lewis had also served as an army captain on the frontier, and he was an experienced explorer. Lewis asked a friend from his army days, William Clark, to lead the expedition with him.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the life of Daniel Boone.

Vocabulary

expedition, n. a special journey taken by a group that has a clear purpose or goal
The two expedition leaders prepared for the long journey. They hired strong men to make the trip with them. They bought large amounts of clothing, tools, and medical supplies. They also bought plenty of ammunition. Even though the explorers were bringing several tons of food, they would have to hunt for most of what they would eat. Knowing they would be interacting with many groups of Native Americans, Lewis and Clark also put together a list of goods to trade and to give as gifts, including 2,800 fish hooks and 4,600 needles. Finally, the Lewis and Clark expedition was ready to depart. The men began to paddle the boats upstream. Several months later, the group reached what is now North Dakota, where they stopped to spend the winter in a village of the Mandan people.

Realizing they would need more people who understood Native American languages, Lewis and Clark added two new people to their company. One was a French Canadian trapper named Charbonneau (/shar*bah*noh/), who had lived among Native Americans for many years. The other was Charbonneau’s sixteen-year-old wife, Sacagawea (/sak*uh*juh*wee*uh/), who was expecting a child. (Sacagawea had been kidnapped by a Hidatsa war party at twelve and later became Charbonneau’s wife.)

**Vocabulary**

*interpreter*, n. a person who translates from one language to another

On a clear morning in May 1804, the explorers—along with soldiers, several experienced frontiersmen, and three interpreters who spoke various Native American languages—climbed into their boats on the Missouri River near the town of St. Louis.
With the arrival of spring, the expedition, which they called the “Corps of Discovery,” set out once more. They paddled up the Missouri River in their new canoes. The exploring party was now smaller, for this was as far as the extra men from St. Louis would go. But the expedition had also added a new passenger: Sacagawea’s baby boy.

In the summer of 1805, the explorers reached the source, or starting point, of the Missouri River, in present-day Montana. They were entering the country of the Shoshones—Sacagawea’s people. By mid-August, the Lewis and Clark party had made it to the Continental Divide. This is the line high in the Rockies from which all the rivers flow to the east on one side and to the west on the other. It was an exciting moment for the group. But dangerous rocky trails lay ahead as they began their climb down the western slopes. In October, the men lowered their canoes into the waters of the Snake River. They paddled down the Snake River into the Columbia River until, in November 1805, they sighted the Pacific Ocean. William Clark wrote in his journal entry for November 7, 1805, “Ocean in view! O! the joy.”

Some of the explorers returned to St. Louis in September 1806. From there, Meriwether Lewis continued on to Washington, D.C., to report to President Jefferson about this newest U.S. territory. Both Lewis and Clark had kept detailed accounts of the expedition and their findings. This information greatly helped the United States government. The Lewis and Clark expedition traveled more than seven thousand miles in just under two-and-a-half years. They had crossed the North American continent from one side to the other. For the first time, Americans began to think of themselves as having a continental presence—one that would stretch from one ocean to another.

Find Out the Facts
Find out more about the Lewis and Clark expedition, including the role that Sacagawea played.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research, write a report about Sacagawea’s role in the Lewis and Clark expedition.

Vocabulary

Continental Divide, n. the high line in the Rockies from which water flows east on one side and west on the other
Less than a year after the Lewis and Clark expedition started on its westward trek toward the Pacific, a young army lieutenant named Zebulon Pike led another expedition. About twenty men went to explore the headwaters of the Mississippi River. Hired by the American government, Pike was a skilled mountaineer, explorer, and soldier. Over the course of his initial travels to find the source of the Mississippi River, Pike traveled more than two thousand miles from St. Louis to what is now northern Minnesota. There, he inaccurately tagged Lake Leech as the source of the Mississippi River. It would be many years before the real source of the Mississippi would be identified as another Minnesota lake—Lake Itasca.

In July 1806, Pike was dispatched to the Southwest to explore the Arkansas and Red Rivers. He was also charged with obtaining information about the adjacent Spanish territory. Pike established an outpost near the site of present-day Pueblo, Colorado. When he led his party northwest, they encountered the Front Range of the Rocky Mountains. They tried unsuccessfully to scale a mountain peak that now bears Pike’s name. Finally, the party proceeded southward to northern New Mexico. Pike’s report on Santa Fe included information that noted the military weakness of the capital and the promise of a lucrative overland trade with Mexico. This stimulated the expansionist movement into Texas.

Some settlers moving west liked to say they were moving to “empty land.” The land, however, was far from empty. Much of it was inhabited. With every new push westward by the pioneers, the resentment of the Native American inhabitants grew.

From time to time, organized fighting broke out. Native Americans attacked groups of pioneers traveling on the Wilderness Road. They raided settlements in new states and territories. They fired arrows at settlers traveling on flatboats on the Ohio River. The settlers and U.S. Army troops attacked and killed Native Americans in return.

Many conflicts occurred, and many lives were lost. Native American nations in the Ohio Territory managed to win several victories against the U.S. Army.
In particular, the Battle of the Wabash, in 1791, brought about one of the worst defeats of the U.S. Army by Native Americans. For Native Americans, this was their biggest victory. However, they were unable to stop the constant flow of settlers. They were also unable to prevent the American government from passing laws that allowed people to settle on what was Native American land.

In 1794, several Native American tribes were finally defeated at the Battle of Fallen Timbers near the present-day city of Toledo, Ohio. They were forced to give up nearly all of Ohio and move farther west. As the Native Americans left the Ohio Territory, settlers poured in. In 1803, there were enough settlers living there for Ohio to become a state. Before long, settlers began to push into the Indiana Territory, right next door. The governor of the Indiana Territory was William Henry Harrison, a man who would later become president of the United States.

Governor Harrison did not try to drive the Native Americans out by force. Instead, he pressured and tricked several of their chiefs into signing agreements. The chiefs gave up huge amounts of their lands in exchange for small amounts of money—sometimes as little as a halfpenny an acre.

![Governor Harrison pressured and tricked Native Americans into signing agreements to leave their land.](image)
A Shawnee chief named Tecumseh watched with rising anger as one piece of Native American land after another was handed over to settlers. Tecumseh had been fighting against settlement since boyhood, when his father was killed by settlers. He had seen the remains of Shawnee villages after army troops had destroyed them. He had tasted the bitterness of being forced to leave the tribe’s lands in Ohio after its defeat at Fallen Timbers.

Now, in the Indiana Territory, he was determined to stop the loss of Native American land. “These lands are ours,” he declared. “No one has the right to remove us because we are the first owners. The Great Spirit above has appointed this place for us, on which to light our fires, and here we will remain.” After learning of another Native American “sale” of land, Tecumseh proclaimed: “Sell a country! Why not sell the air, the clouds, and the great sea, as well as the earth? Did not the Great Spirit make them all for the use of his children?”

Governor Harrison watched Tecumseh’s successes with growing concern. In 1811, while Tecumseh was in southern Indiana urging more chiefs to join him, Harrison sent nine hundred American soldiers to the site of a Shawnee village on the Tippecanoe River.

The soldiers camped near the Native American settlement. While Tecumseh was gone, his brother Tenskwatawa ordered the Shawnee to attack the American soldiers. The Shawnee attack began the Battle of Tippecanoe. Harrison’s forces defeated the Shawnee and burned their village to the ground. Tecumseh returned to find his home in ruins.

Tecumseh promised revenge. For the next year, Native Americans in the Northwest Territories attacked settlers. When the United States went to war against Great Britain in 1812, Tecumseh joined with British forces and led several Native American tribes into battle against the Americans. His anger toward the Americans knew no limits. “We gave them forest-clad mountains and valleys full of game,” Tecumseh told the British general, “and in return what did they give our warriors and our women? Rum and trinkets and a grave.” In 1813, however, Tecumseh was killed. His dream of protecting Native American lands died, but other Native American leaders continued the fight.

**Find Out the Facts**
Find out more about the life of Tecumseh.

**Writers’ Corner**
Using your research on Tecumseh, write a report on his life.
As America’s population grew and spread out, one thing became clear: the United States needed to improve its transportation system. By 1800, some improvements had already taken place. Many of the roads that connected the growing cities and towns of the East were widened, allowing them to handle wagon traffic and horses. It was now possible to travel between the main towns by stagecoach.

Another transportation improvement, which began in the Northeast, was the development of roads called turnpikes. Just before 1800, some people decided that if they could build good roads, they could charge people for using them. Every ten miles or so, the road’s owners would collect a toll, or fee. They did this by placing a pike, or pole, across the road. This prevented the travelers from passing until they paid the toll. That is how the turnpike got its name: when the toll was paid, the pike would be turned, allowing the traveler to pass. Unfortunately, none of the turnpikes answered the growing needs of people who were moving west.

Improved roads were a help in places, but they were still a very slow and expensive way for Westerners in particular to transport their farm products to market. Rivers provided a better way to do that. Most of the streams west of the Appalachian Mountains emptied into the Ohio River. The Ohio, in turn, emptied into the Mississippi River. Many settlers chose to farm the land along these waterways. They could load their goods on flatboats and float them downstream all the way to the port of New Orleans. From there, their goods could be sent by ship around the world.

Find Out the Facts

Find out how the stagecoach got its name.
Though flatboats were helpful in sending goods downstream, they could not return upstream against the current without great human effort. What people living in the region really needed was a way to easily travel upstream. American inventor Robert Fulton built a boat with two large paddle wheels on its sides and installed a steam engine. The power from the steam engine turned the paddle wheels, which worked like oars and pushed the boat through the water. Fulton named his boat the *Clermont*. In August 1807, the *Clermont* steamed up the Hudson River against the current. It made the 150-mile trip from New York City to Albany in only thirty-two hours. Fulton’s steamboat made the trip in far less time than a horse-drawn wagon could, and it carried a much larger cargo. Not much later, steamboats made their appearance on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, carrying passengers and goods up and down the water highways.

**Canals and Railroads**

Though the steamboat was an important invention, it could only travel where the rivers ran. This posed a problem for people settling in the area between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River, where the rivers run mainly north and south. Anyone wishing to send goods east or west still had to rely on overland travel. Getting across the Appalachian Mountains posed an even bigger problem. Other than the Cumberland Gap, there are only a few lowland areas that pass through the mountains. One such place is in the northern part of New York State. Rather than build a road there, however, DeWitt Clinton, who was the mayor of New York City and the lieutenant governor of the state, had another idea: a canal or a waterway that would connect Lake Erie with the Hudson River.

A canal would allow farmers near the Great Lakes to ship their corn, wheat, and hogs to Albany by water. From Albany, the goods could be shipped down the Hudson River to New York City. Clinton’s canal, later called the Erie Canal, would be 363 miles long. Without modern tools, such as chainsaws, steam shovels, and bulldozers, the canal was a challenge to build. Every tree along the route had to be cut down by hand. All of the dirt had to be dug by thousands of workers, one shovelful at a time. It seemed an impossible task. Despite such opinions, work on the Erie Canal began in 1817. Eight years later, the job was finished.

The Erie Canal was an instant success. Increased trade caused Buffalo to grow from a small town into a large city. New York City became the largest city in the young nation. Other states rushed to copy
Because of the Erie Canal, goods that had previously cost one dollar to ship overland from Buffalo to New York City could now be sent for less than a dime—and in half the time.

the success of New York with east–west canals of their own. Even though none was as successful as the Erie Canal, these canals also encouraged settlement in the West.

Think Twice

Why was the building of the Erie Canal an extraordinary achievement?

Railroads

Not long after the success of the canal systems, a greater improvement in transportation was introduced—the railroad. The world’s first railroad was built in England in 1825. Three years later, the first railroad in the United States was built in Baltimore, Maryland. The whole railroad track was just thirteen miles long. A team of horses pulled the wooden coaches along the tracks, which were made of wood with a strip of iron on top. In 1830, a young mechanic named Peter Cooper designed and built a steam engine to pull the train. This locomotive, as Cooper called it, could reach a speed of eighteen miles per hour. However, a person needed a taste for adventure to ride on one of the early railroads! In the 1840s, railroad companies started using passenger cars shaped like long boxes instead of short coaches.

Vocabulary

locomotive, n. a railroad engine
The cars had seats on each side and an aisle down the middle. That was a bit better for passengers, but not much—the seats were very uncomfortable. In the winter, the companies put a stove at the end of each long car for warmth. Unfortunately, the stoves helped very little. The cars were drafty, and only those sitting close to the stoves could warm their toes!

Despite all these discomforts, the railroad quickly became a popular way to travel. In the 1830s and 1840s, hundreds of railroad companies sprang up. Nearly all of them were small companies, with tracks only forty or fifty miles long. At that time, there was no national railroad network. That meant each company decided for itself how far apart to set its tracks. One might set the tracks five feet apart, another two inches wider, a third two inches narrower. That also meant that each company’s locomotives and cars could only roll on its own tracks. Every forty or fifty miles, when the train reached the end of one company’s line, passengers had to get off and walk to the next company’s railroad line. Nevertheless, by the 1840s, railroads had become the most important form of transportation in the country.

**Progress for Some, Pain for Others**

Settlers applauded each improvement in transportation because it helped them move farther west more easily. For Native Americans, however, each new road, steamboat, canal, and railroad meant they were closer to being pushed off their land. The displacement of Native Americans during the late 1700s and early 1800s was catastrophic. By 1830, most Native Americans in the East had been forced to move west of the Mississippi.

**Vocabulary**

*displacement*, n. the process of being removed from the usual place or land
Still, nearly one hundred tribes remained on land in the East that settlers wanted. It is important to note that some people did understand just how unfair the taking of Native American land was. After a bitter fight, under President Jackson, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act in 1830—even if it was by only three votes. Afterward, some people sent petitions to Congress protesting the new law. The Indian Removal Act stated that the Native Americans must leave their homes and move west of the Mississippi. They would make their new homes in an “Indian Territory” set aside for them in present-day Oklahoma. A few tribes, such as the Sauk and Fox in Illinois, resisted but ultimately lost the struggle.

Knowing that fighting against the U.S. Army was a losing battle, five Native American tribes that lived in the southeastern United States decided on a different strategy. These five tribes—the Choctaw, Creek (or Muscogee), Cherokee, Chickasaw, and Seminoles—believed that their best chance to keep their land was to adopt the ways of the settlers. The five tribes farmed and built more permanent homes. Unfortunately, the efforts of the five tribes did not stop settlers from arriving. When gold was discovered on Cherokee land in Georgia in 1828, their fate was sealed.

It made no difference that the Cherokee had made a treaty with the United States government in 1791. The treaty stated that the land belonged to the Cherokee. Some Americans, including the Supreme Court, members of Congress, and others, agreed that the treaty should be honored. President Andrew Jackson, however, sided with Georgia and other states. He chose to break the treaty and sent the army to help remove the Cherokee.

**Vocabulary**

*treaty*, n. a formal agreement between two or more groups, especially countries

Of the five tribes, the Seminoles held out against the U.S. Army the longest. The Seminoles had originally lived in the southern part of present-day Georgia. When the British colonists in Georgia tried to enslave them in the mid-1700s, the Seminoles fled south to Florida. Florida was owned by Spain at the time. In 1821, the United States gained Florida from Spain. Within a few years, the government took measures to remove the Seminoles and send them to Indian Territory. One of the Seminole chiefs who fought against removal was Osceola (/ahs*ee*oh*luh/). Osceola and his warriors defeated troops from the U.S. Army in several battles. The army commander invited Osceola to meet
Osceola, leader of the Seminoles, during their war against the United States

Think Twice

What advantages did the settlers and the U.S. Army and government have that made it impossible for Native Americans to prevent their land being taken from them?

The journey to Indian Territory took several months. Most of the Native Americans walked the whole way. They suffered from disease, hunger, and bitter cold. About fifteen thousand people started out on the long trek. Only eleven thousand arrived in Indian Territory alive. Native Americans called this journey *Nuna-da-ut-sun’y*, which means “The Trail Where They Cried,” or “The Trail of Tears.”

Thousands of men, women, and children died on the journey to Indian Territory.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about what Native Americans experienced on the Trail of Tears.

Writers’ Corner

Using your research on the Trail of Tears, write a report about the realities of this journey.
A New Nation Grows Rapidly

By the 1820s and 1830s, some Americans were wondering about other parts of the North American continent. In particular, the Mexican territories of California, Texas, and New Mexico were of great interest to Americans who were looking for land to settle. Another area of interest was the Oregon Country, the area north of California, between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean.

Manifest Destiny

The search for more and more farmland was certainly behind this push for land. At this time, roughly nine out of ten Americans made a living by farming. Growing tobacco, as well as other crops, took up most of the land in the East. The population was also rapidly increasing. But there was more to it than that. Some Americans believed that they had created a special nation unlike any other. In the United States, citizens chose their own government. In turn, the government respected and protected the rights of its citizens. By expanding their country’s boundaries, Americans said, they would be “extending the area of freedom” and bringing the blessings of liberty to the people who would live there. Some believed that it was America’s Manifest Destiny to expand to the Pacific Ocean.

Sadly, at this point in history, this vision of freedom did not extend to Native Americans, Black Americans, or women. The concept of Manifest Destiny also affected countries that controlled land along the U.S. borders. Mexico and Great Britain claimed most of the land in the border areas. They did not think that America’s march to the Pacific was inevitable. In fact, they were determined to prevent it.

Conflict with Mexico

In the early 1800s, the people of Mexico rebelled against Spain, which had ruled their country for nearly three hundred years. Mexico won its independence in 1821 and took over all the Spanish lands in North America, including Texas. At that time, few Mexicans actually lived in Texas. The new government of Mexico wanted to build up the area, but it was unable to persuade many Mexicans to move there.

Think Twice

What is your view of the notion of Manifest Destiny? Explain your answer.
When Stephen Austin, an American, offered to start a settlement inhabited by American settlers in Texas in exchange for land, the Mexican government gladly accepted. In the early 1820s, Austin brought three hundred settlers from the United States into Texas. Later, he brought several hundred more. The Mexican government soon made a similar deal with other Americans, and like Stephen Austin, they too started settlements in Texas.

It wasn’t long before the Mexican government realized it had made a big mistake. Before settling in Texas, the settlers had made a number of promises. They promised to adopt the Roman Catholic religion of Mexico and to become loyal Mexican citizens. They also promised to free any enslaved workers they brought to Texas. The American settlers did not keep any of these promises. Instead, they ignored some of Mexico’s laws and asked for more self-government. Some even talked about making Texas independent from Mexico.

In 1830, the Mexican government announced it would not allow any more Americans to settle in Texas. But it was too late. There were already more than sixteen thousand Americans living there. That was far more than the five thousand Spanish-speaking Mexicans living there.

Because it was easy to cross the border into Texas, more American settlers came every year, regardless of what the Mexican government said.
The Alamo

During the early 1830s, the Mexican government took measures to tighten its rule over Texas. In response, Texans became angry. Fighting broke out between Texans and Mexican soldiers in a number of settlements. Texas leaders decided to form an army. To lead the army, they chose a one-time U.S. Army officer and former governor of Tennessee, Sam Houston.

To Mexico’s new ruler, General Antonio López de Santa Anna, that was the last straw. Early in 1836, General Santa Anna led an army of four thousand soldiers toward the settlement of San Antonio. San Antonio was defended by a small group of Texans under the command of seventeen-year-old William Travis. Travis and his men could have safely retreated from San Antonio. Instead, they decided to take shelter behind the thick walls of an abandoned Spanish mission known as the Alamo.

On February 23, 1836, Santa Anna gave the order to attack the Alamo. Day after day, Mexican cannons pounded the mission. The Texan rebels returned the fire. After twelve days, however, the Texans’ ammunition was nearly gone. In the early hours of March 6, Mexican troops stormed the walls of the Alamo. Twice they were beaten back.

Finally, however, the Mexican soldiers made it over and through the walls. All of the Alamo’s defenders were killed. By the time the Alamo fell, Texans had already declared their independence from Mexico. They formed their own country and called it the Republic of Texas.

However, it is one thing to declare independence; it’s another to actually win it. To do this, Texans had to defeat the Mexican army. In 1836, Mexico was a country of millions of people. Texas barely had thirty thousand. The strategy that General Sam Houston took was to avoid fighting the larger Mexican army. Instead, he and his men retreated.

Houston wasn’t simply retreating, though. At this time, he was also building up and training a small army. On April 21, 1836, the Mexican army was camped near the banks of the San Jacinto (/san/juh*sihn*toh/) River, less than a mile away from Houston and his army. In those days, battles always began in the morning and ended at nightfall. At 3:30 p.m., believing there would be no fighting until the next day, General Santa Anna allowed his men to put down their guns and rest. This was Sam Houston’s chance to move on the Mexican force near the river. At 4:00 p.m., Houston signaled to his men to move out of the woods that had sheltered them and advance.
The Battle of San Jacinto was over in less than twenty minutes. Half of the Mexican army was killed during this surprise attack. The rest were captured. The Texans captured Santa Anna at the end of the battle. They threatened to put him to death unless he signed an agreement promising to withdraw all Mexican troops from Texas and to accept Texan independence. Santa Anna signed the agreement and was released. Sam Houston became the first president of this new country. Houston, and most other Texans, actually wanted Texas to become a state in the United States. However, Texas allowed the enslavement of people, and many in the United States, especially in the North, did not want any more states that allowed slavery. Texas waited nine years before Congress agreed that it could become a state. In 1845, Texas became the twenty-eighth state.

Believing there would be no fighting until the next day, General Santa Anna allowed his men to put down their guns and rest. This was Sam Houston’s chance to move on the Mexican force near the river.

After the admission of Texas to the United States, relations with Mexico continued to worsen. President James K. Polk strongly supported the expansion of U.S. territory along the southern border, and this desire threatened Mexico’s claim to land they believed was theirs. When Mexican troops crossed the Rio Grande onto what Americans believed was American soil and attacked American troops, this was seen as an act of war. In May 1846, President Polk spoke to members of Congress about Mexico. He stated that Mexico had invaded America and shed American blood on American soil. The president wanted Congress to declare war on Mexico. On May 13, 1846, Congress did just that. The United States and Mexico were now officially at war.
It is important to note that Mexico did not agree that they had invaded American land. They did not believe that the Rio Grande was the border between the two countries. Mexico claimed that the border was the Nueces (/noo\*ay*sayz/) River, some 150 miles north of the Rio Grande. Mexico and the United States disagreed about ownership of the territory between the two rivers.

How had relations between Mexico and the United States become so bad? The reasons for the disagreement were based on the American desire to expand the size of the United States. President Polk had his eye on more than the land between the Rio Grande and the Nueces River. He also had his eye on California, which was under Mexican control. When Mexico won its independence from Spain, it had gained all of the Spanish-owned land in North America, including California. Early in the 1800s, a number of Americans arrived in California.

Still, as late as the 1840s, there were fewer than one thousand Americans living there. There were ten times that many Californios, or Spanish-speaking people from Spain and Mexico. And there were many Native Americans. However, President Polk knew that California had many harbors that could be used for trade with China and the rest of Asia. He also suspected that Great Britain had its eye on California and might take it if the United States did not. President Polk also wanted New Mexico, the territory located between California and the western part of the United States. About 220,000 Spaniards and Mexicans lived there, and the territory had very few Americans. However, Americans had long traded at the territory’s only town, Santa Fe. Each spring, traders made the journey there from Independence, Missouri, along the Santa Fe Trail. In Santa Fe, they traded their goods for silver, furs, and other frontier products.

In 1846, President Polk offered to buy California and New Mexico from Mexico. The Mexican government refused to sell. So, President Polk looked for another way to get this land. He ordered the American commander in Texas, General Zachary Taylor, to move troops across the Nueces River and to station them on the bank of the Rio Grande. This put American troops onto the disputed area of land between the two rivers. This was really an act of aggression by America. President Polk expected the Mexican army to oppose this move—and they did. The outcome was war.

Think Twice

Why is the decision to move American troops across the Nueces River, onto the bank of the Rio Grande, described as an act of aggression?
Not all Americans were pleased that their country had gone to war with Mexico. One such person was Abraham Lincoln. Lincoln challenged the president to point to the exact “spot” on “American soil” where American blood had been shed. Many Northerners and abolitionists, or people who opposed slavery, were against the Mexican-American War. They also feared that any territory gained during the war would become a slave state. In Concord, Massachusetts, a writer named Henry David Thoreau decided to protest the war by refusing to pay his taxes. He was put in jail overnight, but then his aunt paid the tax for him. While in jail, Thoreau was supposedly visited by his friend Ralph Waldo Emerson, a famous minister and author who also opposed the war with Mexico. “Henry!” exclaimed his friend. “Why are you here?” “Waldo,” replied Henry Thoreau, “why are you not here?” Thoreau meant that when people believe their government is doing wrong, as a matter of conscience they should peacefully refuse to join in. This kind of behavior based on one’s conscience is called **civil disobedience**.

**Vocabulary**

**civil disobedience**, n. a refusal to follow the law or government because it goes against one’s conscience; an act of protest

**Find Out the Facts**

Find out more about the life of Henry David Thoreau.
Some Americans were interested in Oregon because of the animals that lived there. By 1800, beaver and otter furs had become very valuable. They were used to make hats and fine coats on the East Coast and in Europe. New England merchants sent sailing ships around Cape Horn in South America and up to Oregon to trade with Native Americans for furs. This journey to Oregon was thousands of miles long and very dangerous. Cape Horn, at the southernmost tip of South America, was known for its wild storms and rough water. Despite this fact, many merchants were willing to risk its perils for the fur trade. The British also set up a fur-trading company in Oregon.

Soon, both Britain and the United States claimed the Oregon Country as their own. Few Americans or British actually lived there. As a result, the two countries agreed to delay the issue of ownership for a later time.

While British ships continued to make the long and difficult journey to Oregon, American fur traders found a way to carry on the fur trade over land. In the Rocky Mountains, there lived a number of trappers known as Mountain Men. These Mountain Men became important in the story of Oregon. It was Mountain Man Jed Smith who discovered South Pass, the best route through the Rocky Mountains for people headed to Oregon.

Some of these strong, tough Mountain Men were Black Americans. One Black American Mountain Man was Jim Beckwourth. He was born in Virginia, probably into an enslaved family, but he grew up in St. Louis as a free man. For eleven years, he lived with the Crow Nation, who called him Morning Star. Later in his life, he became an army scout and found a pass through the Sierra Nevada to California. Today this pass is called Beckwourth Pass.

The first really large group of people who traveled to Oregon, however, did not set out until 1843. They were quickly followed by many more. These settlers, who were interested in acquiring land to farm, traveled in wagon trains that sometimes stretched a mile or longer. A team of mules or oxen pulled each covered wagon in the slow-moving columns. Domestic animals moved alongside or behind wagons. In the early spring, the families would gather in Independence, Missouri, and make preparations for the six-month, two-thousand-mile trip. A month or so later, when enough grass had grown along the trail for their animals to feed on, they set out on the Oregon Trail.
The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints started in western New York in 1830. Its members are known as Mormons. Because Mormon beliefs were considered to be a threat to a more traditional American way of life, members of this church faced intimidation. As a result, they looked for a place where they could live as they wished. That place was out west.

Having experienced mob violence, a new Mormon church leader, Brigham Young, led a small group of Mormons westward in 1846. They, too, traveled on the Oregon Trail. In July 1847, Young and his exploring group reached the top of a range of mountains near the Great Salt Lake, in present-day Utah. The area around the lake was very dry, and most people would not have chosen it as a place to farm. But Young knew that the soil was rich and that if the Mormons irrigated it and worked hard, they could succeed there. In addition, the land at that time was not part of the United States. It belonged to Mexico. This meant the Mormons would not be subject to the laws of the United States. They would be left alone to make their own rules and to live as they wished.

Within a few months, more than five hundred wagons and fifteen hundred of Young’s followers arrived to make a new life for themselves. Working under the direction of church leaders, the Mormons prospered. Knowing that the salty water of the Great Salt Lake was not suitable for farming, the leaders ordered that irrigation canals be dug between mountain streams and the desert plain. Soon, Mormon farmers were producing fine crops of wheat, vegetables, and other foods. Mormons also sold supplies to pioneers headed west to California. Most of the Mormon settlers lived in the City of the Saints, which later was called Salt Lake City. Others moved into the valleys of what would eventually become the states of Utah and Idaho.

At night, the settlers stopped to make camp, to eat, and to rest.
In January 1848, the discovery of small nuggets of gold inspired waves of settlers from across the United States, and from as far away as Europe, to come to California with dreams of striking it rich. Thousands of people journeyed to California in 1849 to seek their fortune. They became known as the “forty-niners.” Most forty-niners went to find gold, but some went to make a living by selling goods to the miners. Merchants became rich by buying picks and shovels back east, shipping them to California, and selling them for ten or twenty times the original cost. A German immigrant named Levi Strauss made work pants for the miners. These “Levis” caught on, and Strauss made a small fortune. As for the miners, the earliest to arrive quickly scooped up most of the gold that lay in the beds of shallow streams and on or near the surface of the earth. After that, it took a lot of digging and even more luck to find the precious yellow metal. A few miners did strike it rich. Most miners, though, barely found enough gold to make a living. In time, many of them gave up mining and raised crops or livestock instead. There would be other gold rushes in the American West, but by 1860, the great gold rush of California was just about over.
Most forty-niners did not strike it rich and took on other jobs instead. Some became farmers, while others started small businesses.
Chapter 8
Division, Civil War, and Reconstruction

The Importance of Cotton

The story of the 1800s in America is the story of a nation trying to figure out how to live under a unified government. In the North, the economy was made up of small family farms, and an expanding Industrial Revolution. The South was dependent on cash crops.

Northern cities grew as factories were built and attracted workers from many locations. These Northern cities had large populations of immigrants and also Black Americans who lived in freedom. Although their lives were still hard and they faced discrimination, Black Americans at least enjoyed a life free of enslavement. By contrast, life in the South included an economy that was still largely agrarian, with cash crop agriculture at the center of it. Most of the money made from farming came from tobacco, rice, indigo, and cotton crops that were raised on large plantations by an enslaved labor force. However, cotton was not just important to the South’s economy, it was also very important to the North’s economy. The textile industry was the number-one industry in the North.
Northern textile mills were the largest customers for Southern cotton. Textile mills in Britain and France bought Southern cotton, too. Southern cotton was king!

**Cotton Gin**

The success of the cotton industry grew because of the invention of the cotton gin. This tool extracted the sticky green seeds from the fluffy cotton fibers. Before Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1793, the seeds had to be removed by hand. It took a single person, usually an enslaved worker, a whole day to remove the seeds from just one pound of cotton. A system of combs and rollers within the cotton gin removed the seeds far more quickly. The tool made it possible for Southern planters to grow and sell enormous amounts of cotton. The big problem with this technological advancement was that Southern plantation owners used an enslaved labor force to grow cotton. And growing more cotton inexpensively required more enslaved workers. The plantation owners grew wealthy at the expense of those enslaved.

💡 **Think Twice**

Why did the invention of the cotton gin increase the need for an enslaved workforce?
The Life of an Enslaved Person

Although slaveholding was largely concentrated in the hands of the wealthy and powerful minority in the South, many ordinary white Southerners accepted the social order that the system of slavery established. For those living in slavery, the quality of their life depended on who owned them and where they worked.

Those who lived on small farms usually worked in the fields alongside their owners and also did a range of other chores. On large plantations, however, enslaved workers usually did only one task. Mostly they worked in the fields, planting and harvesting crops. A small number worked in the great house with the “master’s” family. Whether they lived on a small farm or a great plantation, slaves worked from dawn until dusk. However, what made slavery so terrible was that these were people who were owned, like livestock, by other human beings. In a country said to be built on freedom, they were not free. Enslaved workers could be whipped for not working enough, or for not showing proper respect to members of their owner’s family—and sometimes for no reason at all. Family members, including children, could be sold at will.
There was resistance to the practice of enslavement, and that resistance came in various forms. A number of enslaved people organized rebellions. One such notable person was Nat Turner. Turner was enslaved and lived in Virginia. In 1831, he led an uprising. The uprising he organized lasted for about three days, but in the end, all who took part in Turner’s Rebellion were executed. Unlike Nat Turner, many enslaved people believed that armed rebellion was bound to fail, and they chose to attempt to escape to Northern states instead. They understood that freedom lay hundreds of miles away and risked fleeing, knowing they would be chased by slave catchers and their dogs.

Some effective ways to rebel were subtler and harder to detect. Acts such as working slowly, becoming suddenly unwell, or “accidentally” breaking tools would cause frustration but could not be clearly identified as rebellion. Enslaved people resisted spiritually, too. They expressed the pain of their existence through songs called spirituals. Most spirituals told of the weariness of the slaves and their hope for a better world to come. Their message was clear in words such as these:

   *Nobody knows my sorrow*
   *Nobody knows the trouble I’ve seen*
   *Glory hallelujah!*
   *Sometimes I’m up, sometimes I’m down*
   *Oh, yes, Lord*
   *Sometimes I’m almost to the ground*
   *Oh, yes, Lord*
   *Although you see me going ‘long so*
   *Oh, yes, Lord*
   *I have my trials here below*
   *Oh, yes, Lord*
   *If you get there before I do*
   *Oh, yes, Lord*
   *Tell all-a my friends I’m coming to Heaven!*
   *Oh, yes, Lord*

**Think Twice**
Why might the subtler ways to rebel have been effective?

**Find Out the Facts**
Find out more about spirituals and their influence on the development of music in America.

**Writers’ Corner**
Using your research on spirituals, write a report on their influence on the development of American music.

Working in the fields from sunup to sundown was not the only thing enslaved people did, however. After work, they returned to their cabins in the slave quarters.
There, they raised small gardens or hunted and fished for more variety in their diet. In the slave quarters, people created their own community. They told and retold stories and folktales handed down from earlier generations. In many of these stories, a weak character outwits a strong one. They kept African music and dance alive, and some continued to hold on to the religious beliefs and practices of their ancestors in Africa. Even enslaved people who became Christians, as most did, often mixed in some African religious beliefs and customs with their new beliefs. And as they blended elements of African cultures with American culture, they created something new and different—the beginnings of a unique Black American culture.

The Missouri Compromise

By the early 1800s, Southern slaveholders wanted the government to allow slavery to spread into America’s western lands. Most Northerners were against this idea, largely because they wanted to reserve these territories for white settlers. This disagreement between the North and the South would become one of the major issues that led to the Civil War. Before then, however, the two sections of the country tried to settle their disagreement through compromise.

Early in the history of the United States, Congress wisely decided to set up a three-step process for turning land into new states. In the first step, Congress created a territory, or sometimes several territories. As a part of this first step, Congress made the laws for the territory. The second step came when the population of a territory reached five thousand adult males. Then the men were allowed to elect their own representatives and make many of their own laws. When a territory’s population reached sixty thousand free inhabitants, it could ask Congress to be admitted into the Union with its own state constitution. That was the third and final step—the step that allowed a territory to become a state.
At the time, each state decided for itself whether to allow slavery within its borders. Southern states did. Most Northern states did not. But for territories, the issue of slavery was a different matter. During a territory’s first step toward statehood, it was Congress that made all the rules, including whether or not to allow slavery.

In 1820, the North and the South had a major disagreement about the expansion of slavery. The argument concerned slavery in the area of land that had been acquired as a result of the Louisiana Purchase. When Congress began to form new territories in this region, it failed to make any laws about slavery. Southern slaveholders felt free to move there with their enslaved workers. The first of these new territories to become a state was Louisiana, which entered the Union in 1812 as a slave state. Seven years later, a second territory was ready for statehood. This was the Missouri Territory, which also asked to come into the Union as a slave state. At that time, there were eleven slave states and eleven free states in the Union. The Northern free states were against adding more slave states. For more than a year, Congress angrily debated the Missouri question. Finally, in 1820, a compromise was reached. At this time, Maine, in northern New England, was also ready for statehood. Congress admitted Maine, and just over a year later, Missouri was admitted. Maine was admitted as a free state and Missouri as a slave state. At the same time, Congress drew a line starting at Missouri’s southern border, which was at 36°30´ north latitude, straight across the rest of the Louisiana Purchase. Congress prohibited slavery in territories north of that line and permitted slavery in territories south of it. This came to be known as the Missouri Compromise.

The Abolitionist Movement

In the 1800s, a small group of people known as abolitionists were beginning to make their voices heard on the issue of slavery. One such abolitionist was William Lloyd Garrison. In 1831, Garrison started a newspaper called The Liberator to carry his message to other Americans. In issue after issue of The Liberator, Garrison described the cruelty of slavery and urged his readers to take steps to end it. Garrison also helped organize the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1833. Another important abolitionist leader was Frederick Douglass. Douglass had once been enslaved himself. While still enslaved, he learned to read and craved freedom. He escaped to the North and gained his freedom.

Vocabulary

abolitionist, n. a person who worked to end slavery during the 1700s and 1800s
Douglass described the experience of enslavement: “In the deep, still darkness of midnight,” said Douglass, “I have been often aroused by the dead, heavy footsteps, and the piteous cries of the chained gangs that passed our door . . . on the way to the slave markets, where the victims are to be sold like horses, sheep, and swine. . . . My soul sickens at the sight.”

Sojourner Truth was a notable abolitionist. Born into slavery with the name Isabella Baumfree, she changed her name to Sojourner Truth. In 1851, she gave a powerful speech called “Ain’t I a Woman?” in which she called attention to the special problems women endured in slavery.

Although abolitionists never actually became a large group, Frederick Douglass’s words and these attacks on slavery and the Southern way of life, angered Southerners. And they angered many people in the North, too. Many Northerners were not yet ready to hear the abolitionist message. To them, Garrison, Douglass, and Truth were troublemakers.

The Underground Railroad

The Underground Railroad was a network of people who helped enslaved workers who ran away escape to free states in the North or to Canada. These people offered safe places to hide. At each such “station” on the railroad, the runaways rested and received instructions for getting to the next station. The people who hid these enslaved people and guided them on their journey were known as “conductors.” One of the most famous conductors was Harriet Tubman. In 1849, Harriet Tubman escaped from a plantation in Maryland and successfully crossed the border between Maryland and Pennsylvania. This border was also known as the Mason-Dixon line. After successfully escaping, Harriet Tubman joined the Underground Railroad. Over the next ten years, she made nineteen trips into the South to “conduct” enslaved people to freedom. One famous passenger on the Underground Railroad was Frederick Douglass.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the abolitionist movement, including the writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe and the work of Sojourner Truth.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the Underground Railroad.

Writers’ Corner

Using your research, write an essay in which you imagine you are an enslaved person attempting to escape with the help of the Underground Railroad.
After the United States won the Mexican-American War, the issue of slavery presented itself once more. California, one of the states looking to gain admission after the war, requested entrance as a free state. Southerners feared that free states would soon greatly outnumber slave states, especially if Congress did not allow slavery in the new territories. If that happened, they asked, might the Northerners manage to change the Constitution and make all slavery illegal, even in the Southern states where it already existed?

Northerners and Westerners who argued that the western territories should be free of slavery came to be called “free soilers.” Free soilers would eventually start a new political party that would be known as the Republican Party. Southern senators such as John C. Calhoun argued that the issue of allowing slavery in these new states and territories had already been settled by the Missouri Compromise. Also, Calhoun asserted, Northerners had a responsibility to help Southerners recover their runaway slaves. If Northerners couldn’t accept these conditions, he argued, maybe it would be best if the Southern states seceded, or separated from the rest of the country.

Vocabulary

secede, v. to formally withdraw membership

A network of people helped hide those fleeing enslavement.
Another compromise, called the Compromise of 1850, was eventually reached in order to avoid such a drastic step. California was admitted to the Union as a free state, and the slave trade was banned in Washington, D.C. These rules satisfied the North. The rest of the land gained from Mexico was divided into two territories, forming New Mexico and Utah. The federal government did not place any restrictions on slavery in the new territories. Instead, the people of each territory would decide the issue for themselves. That satisfied the South. Undoubtedly, the most controversial part of the compromise was the Fugitive Slave Law. This stated that if an enslaved person made it to freedom in the North and was caught, they had to be returned to their “owner” in the South.

The Crisis Deepens

Despite compromises in Congress, slavery continued to be an issue of heated debate and action in the United States. In 1854, Congress passed a law called the Kansas-Nebraska Act, allowing settlers, not Congress, to determine if slavery would be allowed in a new state. In 1857, a Black American man named Dred Scott sued for his freedom, and the lawsuit went all the way to the Supreme Court. He was told by the Supreme Court that he was not a citizen, and thus he did not have the right to use the American justice system to gain his freedom. This became known as the Dred Scott case. In 1859, an antislavery crusader named John Brown attacked a federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry, West Virginia. He hoped to seize the weapons and give them to enslaved people in the area. Brown and his co-conspirators were eventually executed, but he became a hero to many Northern abolitionists.

In 1858, heated debates between two men wanting to be senators represented the conflict over slavery. One of these men was Stephen A. Douglas, the incumbent senator from Illinois who was running for reelection. His opponent was a Republican named Abraham Lincoln, who few people outside of Illinois even knew. Although from a humble background, Lincoln had become a lawyer, and then a representative in the Illinois General Assembly.

Vocabulary

arsenal, n. a place where weapons and other military equipment are stored
incumbent, adj. holding a position or political office

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the early life of Abraham Lincoln.
At first, Lincoln was not an abolitionist. He was simply opposed to allowing slavery to be expanded into areas where it did not already exist. Lincoln feared that the issue of slavery would tear the country apart. He said, “A house divided against itself cannot stand.”

In the heated political debates between Douglas and Lincoln, Douglas pointed to the fact that his opponent had disagreed with the Court’s decision in the Dred Scott case. He said that Lincoln openly supported freedom and equality for Black Americans. Lincoln went on to lose the election to Douglas, but when he ran for president two years later, he was well known to many Americans.

The Election of 1860

In the election of 1860, Lincoln was chosen to be the Republican Party candidate for president of the United States. Lincoln and the Republicans guaranteed slavery wherever it existed, but they also promised to keep slavery out of the territories. The South did not trust the Republicans or Abraham Lincoln to honor their promises. Several Southern states said that if a Republican were elected president, they would secede.

And that is exactly what happened. In November 1860, Abraham Lincoln was elected president. One month later, South Carolina seceded from the Union. Over the next six weeks, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas also voted to leave. The future of the United States of America looked grim.

Events moved swiftly. Abraham Lincoln’s term as president did not officially begin until March 4, 1861. One month before then, on February 4, representatives from the seven seceding states met in Montgomery, Alabama. Three days later, the seceding states announced the creation of a new nation, the Confederate States of America. The new nation was called the Confederacy for short.

The Confederacy adopted a constitution guaranteeing the future of slavery. Then
the representatives from the seven seceding states chose Jefferson Davis as the first president of the Confederate States of America.

Even before the new Confederate States of America was declared, each of the states that seceded had begun to take over forts, arsenals, post offices, and other U.S. government property in their states. By the time Lincoln took over as president, only two forts in the seven Confederate states remained under the control of the United States.

President Lincoln faced a massive problem as he began his term in office. Seven Southern states had already left the Union. Eight other slave states remained in the Union, but four of them had already warned Lincoln: if you use force against the seven states that seceded, we will join them. That would make the new Confederate States of America bigger and stronger. Yet Lincoln knew that if he did not use force, he could not make the seceding states return to the Union.

Lincoln decided to make one last appeal to the Southern states that had seceded. At the start of each new term of office, presidents take an oath of office and then deliver a speech, called the inaugural address. Lincoln used his inaugural address to appeal to the South to stay in the Union. He reassured the South, as he had done before, that he did not intend “to interfere with . . . slavery in the states where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so, and I have no inclination [desire] to do so.”

**Think Twice**
In what ways was Lincoln strategic in his approach to the existence of slavery in America?

When it came to secession, however, Lincoln said that he had no choice. As president, he had a duty to preserve the Union, to enforce its laws, and to protect its property. But, Lincoln told the South, “There will be no invasion, no using of force against or among the people anywhere.”

Confederates at Fort Moultrie fired on Union troops in Fort Sumter.
And he urged the South not to do anything hasty. “We are not enemies, but friends,” said Lincoln in closing. “We must not be enemies.”

For many in the South, Lincoln’s carefully chosen words came too late to cause a change in anything. When Confederates stormed the federally controlled Fort Sumter, in South Carolina, they demanded that its commander turn over control to them. The commander, Major Robert Anderson, refused. When he refused, Confederates started firing on the fort. Anderson eventually surrendered the fort, and the Civil War had officially begun. The date was April 12, 1861.

Advantages and Disadvantages

At the start of the war, the North had many advantages over the South. The North’s population was about twice as large as the South’s. And since the South had no intention of arming enslaved men, the North actually had four times as many men who could fight on the battlefields. The North was equipped to produce more iron, more railroad equipment, and many more guns than the South. Northern factories produced clothing, blankets, tents, and medical supplies, but the South had to rely on European factories for those goods. The North also had many more miles of railroad track, which helped the North easily move its troops and supplies.

But there is more to winning a war than supplies and transportation. Southern soldiers had an extra reason to fight hard because they believed they were fighting to defend their own land and homes.

Think Twice

What does the author mean when she says that “Southern soldiers had an extra reason to fight hard because they believed they were fighting to defend their own land and homes”? 
Leadership

Both sides had the benefit of solid military leadership. Robert E. Lee was a capable military leader who had been approached by Abraham Lincoln to lead the Union army. Lee refused to do so out of loyalty to his native state of Virginia. Another important Confederate general was Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson. Jackson was Lee’s closest advisor. He got his nickname in the first battle of the war, at Bull Run.

The most important and tactically skillful Union general in the Civil War was Ulysses S. Grant. He stood in contrast to the ever-cautious Union leader, General George McClellan, who at times exasperated President Lincoln. Grant would eventually take charge of all of the Union armies. Grant’s confidence and knowledge of the art of warfare brought him to the attention of Lincoln. Grant once explained his ideas about warfare this way: “The art of war is simple enough. Find out where your enemy is. Get at him as soon as you can. Strike at him as hard as you can, and keep moving on.”

Find Out the Facts

Find out exactly how “Stonewall” Jackson earned his name.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the military leadership of Robert E. Lee and Ulysses S. Grant during the Civil War.

Writers’ Corner

Using your research on Lee and Grant, select one subject and write a report.
The War for Everyone Else

At the start of the war, volunteers on both sides rushed to join the fight because they believed in the cause their side was fighting for. And they expected the war to end quickly. Northerners called Southerners “Rebels,” and they nicknamed the Southern soldier “Johnny Reb.” Southerners had long called Northerners “Yankees,” and they nicknamed Northern soldiers “Billy Yank.”

The early enthusiasm for joining the army did not last. Many young men quickly learned that a soldier’s life meant marching in the worst kind of weather without enough food and water, all the while carrying many pounds of equipment on their backs. As news of the trials of a soldier’s life reached home through letters, the number of volunteers started to drop. Eventually, each side had to turn to the draft.

And of course, an important, and frequently untold, story is the burden that women took on as war raged. They managed farms, families, and businesses as their husbands, sons, and even fathers fought. They planted and harvested crops. They made clothes. In addition, they contributed to the war effort on their respective sides by housing, feeding, and tending to wounded soldiers. Some became full-time nurses, or even spies, and a few were able to disguise themselves as men to serve as soldiers.

Vocabulary

draft, n. a system that requires individuals to serve in the military

Important Battles of the War

The first major battle of the Civil War took place near a small stream in northern Virginia called Bull Run. The tide of battle that day went back and forth, with neither side able to get the upper hand at first. Late in the afternoon, it appeared that the Union forces might be winning. Then thousands of fresh Confederate troops arrived by train and quickly joined the battle. That was enough to turn the tide. The half-trained Union soldiers dropped their guns and ran in panic toward spectators who had gathered to watch the battle.

Vocabulary

“tide of battle” (phrase), a metaphor that describes how the advantage of one side or another can change over the course of the fighting

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about what life was like for women on both sides of the conflict during the Civil War.

Draft, n. a system that requires individuals to serve in the military

“tide of battle” (phrase), a metaphor that describes how the advantage of one side or another can change over the course of the fighting
Wars are not only fought on land; they are also fought at sea. At the beginning of the war, the South took on the Union naval ships with a mighty weapon they had created themselves. In the first days of the war, the U.S. Navy had to leave its base in Norfolk, Virginia, because Confederate forces were closing in. As the Union warships hurried out of port, one of them, the *Merrimack*, caught fire and sank in shallow waters. The Confederates raised the ship, cut off its burned top, and covered its sides with a double layer of two-inch-thick iron plates. Each side had holes for five large naval guns. On its bow (the front of the ship) was a 1,500-pound iron battering ram. Renovations completed, the Confederacy was ready to use this new weapon.

On March 8, 1862, the ironclad ship, now renamed the *Virginia*, took on two large Union warships. Cannonballs simply bounced off the *Virginia*’s slanted sides and fell harmlessly into the water. The *Virginia* sank both Union ships and scattered several others before anchoring for the night. Fortunately, the Union had been upgrading and expanding their navy and had built their own ironclad ship, called the *Monitor*. The next day, as the *Virginia* steamed out to destroy more Union ships, the *Monitor* lay in wait. For four hours, a battle raged as hundreds watched from the shore. Although each side claimed victory, neither ship could sink the other.

For the next two months, though, fearful of the *Virginia*, Union ships steered clear of the waters off Norfolk. Then in May, as Union troops advanced on Norfolk, it was the Confederacy’s turn to abandon the port. Rather than allow the *Virginia* to fall into the Union’s hands, they destroyed it.

At the beginning of the Civil War, General Winfield Scott presented a plan, known as the Anaconda Plan, to win the war to President Lincoln. His plan involved gaining control of the Mississippi River and the three Confederate states on the western side of the river, then using the navy to set up a naval blockade to prevent sales of cotton and incoming Confederate supplies. Finally, the Union army would advance, cutting the Confederacy into still smaller parts.
The Confederacy unsuccessfully tried to buy other ironclad warships from European countries. Without such ships, the Confederacy had no chance of breaking the naval blockade that President Lincoln had imposed on the South at the very beginning of the war.

**Vocabulary**

blockade, n. a military strategy aimed at preventing people and goods from entering or leaving an area

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**The Battle of Antietam**

Throughout the spring and summer of 1862, the war was going better for the Union on the western front, which included the Mississippi River and the city of New Orleans. The Union gained control of the port city of New Orleans. They also escaped a near loss at Shiloh, near the Tennessee-Mississippi border. Though the Union was not able to capture full control of the Mississippi River, it was able to deal a major blow to the Confederacy. New Orleans was second only to Charleston, South Carolina, as the South’s most important port. In losing New Orleans, the Confederacy lost the ability to quickly transport men and goods through the city. Elsewhere on the eastern front, the South was having more success. Generals Robert E. Lee and Stonewall Jackson led a successful campaign that kept Richmond, Virginia, the Confederacy’s capital city, from falling into Union hands. The successful defense of their capital city was starting to convince Southerners that victory was possible. Lee decided to take the fight into Union territory. He sent his troops across the Potomac River into Maryland, one of the slave states that had remained in the Union. If Lee could defeat the Union army there, then perhaps Maryland would join the Confederacy.

Lee might have succeeded, but a Union soldier discovered a piece of paper discarded at an abandoned campsite. The paper, which was rushed to the headquarters of Union General McClellan, revealed General Lee’s battle plans. Lee had divided his army, sending Stonewall Jackson’s men on another mission. After Jackson completed that mission, he was to join Lee. McClellan now knew exactly where the enemy would be. He knew he would be able to hit Lee’s smaller force before Jackson could return.

On September 17, 1862, Union and Confederate soldiers met in battle at Antietam Creek. The conflict became known as the Battle of Sharpsburg. The fighting at Antietam Creek was fierce. The Union soldiers made progress, but when the rest of Jackson’s troops arrived, they
turned the Union forces back. Even so, McClellan still had twenty thousand fresh troops. Had McClellan attacked the next day, he might have finished off Lee’s army. Instead, McClellan held back, allowing the Confederate troops to cross the Potomac River and get back to Virginia. The Union succeeded in stopping Lee’s drive into the North, and Maryland remained in the Union. But the Battle of Antietam brought a terrible price. Altogether, twenty-three thousand Union and Confederate soldiers were killed. As a result, President Lincoln removed McClellan from command and assigned the general to Trenton, New Jersey, to recruit volunteers for the army.

The Battle of Antietam was the bloodiest single day in American history.

The Emancipation Proclamation

It is true to say that Lincoln opposed slavery. But he did not initially state that the reason for the Civil War was to end slavery. Why was that? Lincoln had several reasons. Four slave states—Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware—remained in the Union. They came to be called the border states because they were located on the border of the North and the South. If they believed the Union’s goal was to end slavery, they would almost certainly join the Confederacy. That would mean their population and resources would leave the Union and become a part of the Confederacy. Furthermore, Union armies would have to conquer that much more land to win the war. Lincoln also knew that the millions of Democrats and some Republicans would support a war to restore the Union but not one to achieve emancipation. Keeping Kentucky and Maryland on the Union side was especially important.

Lincoln had another reason for saying that the Union’s goal was only to preserve the Union. Most Northerners agreed that saving the Union was a worthy war. They did not all necessarily agree that freeing enslaved people was worth fighting for. Being against slavery was one thing; being willing to go to war to end it was another. Lincoln needed the antislavery sentiment to grow. And it did!
By the summer of 1862, President Lincoln felt that the time had come to take a stand. That was the summer that President Lincoln wrote the Emancipation Proclamation. On September 22, 1862, five days after Antietam, Lincoln issued his preliminary Emancipation Proclamation. In it, he stated that if the rebels did not rejoin the Union by January 1863, all enslaved people in the rebellious states would be set free. When the Confederacy did not act by January 1, 1863, President Lincoln signed the final Emancipation Proclamation. If Lincoln had freed enslaved people in the border states, they would have immediately left the Union. The proclamation freed only the slaves in the eleven Confederate states that continued to rebel against the United States.
Although the proclamation did not free all enslaved people, it was an essential first step. There was now little doubt that if the Union won the war, the enslavement of people would be finished. President Lincoln understood that to actually abolish slavery in America, a constitutional amendment would be needed, and first he had to win the war.

**Fighting for Freedom**

Soon after Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, Black American soldiers from slaveholding states joined the Union army. Northern Black Americans had been volunteering to serve in the army since the war began. However, the army had always turned them down. Now things were different. Lincoln’s proclamation had also announced that Black American men could serve in the Union army and navy.

Several Northern states formed all-Black American units. Two of Frederick Douglass’s own sons served in one of these units: the Massachusetts Fifty-Fifth Regiment. The most famous regiment was the Massachusetts Fifty-Fourth Regiment, commanded by Colonel Robert Gould Shaw. In the summer of 1863, the Fifty-Fourth Regiment led an attack on Fort Wagner, a Confederate fort on an island in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina. In spite of heavy cannon fire by Confederate troops, nearly one hundred soldiers forced their way into the fort. There, they fought hand-to-hand against Confederate troops. The bravery of the Fifty-Fourth Regiment in the face of terrible losses won acceptance for Black American soldiers everywhere. Almost one out of every eleven Union soldiers was Black. More than 2,800 gave their lives.

**Find Out the Facts**

Find out more about the Massachusetts Fifty-Fourth Regiment.

**Writers’ Corner**

Using your research on the Massachusetts Fifty-Fourth Regiment, write a report that includes information about their extraordinary bravery.
The Beginning of the End

Thanks in part to the addition of Black American units to the Union war effort, the tide of the war began turning in the North’s favor as 1863 wore on. Earlier in that year, at the Battle of Chancellorsville, Lee’s right-hand man, Stonewall Jackson, died. A wound he received from being shot by one of his own men became infected.

The Union was gaining ground, and Lee needed a plan. Lee decided to march across Maryland and into Pennsylvania. Robert E. Lee and his Army of Northern Virginia arrived in the town of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, on July 1, 1863. As it happened, General George Meade and a Union army division were already in the area.

No one had planned for a battle to take place in Gettysburg, but there they were, face to face. For the next three days—July 1, 2, and 3—a battle raged between the Confederate and Union armies. Again and again, Lee’s forces attacked. Again and again, Union forces threw them back. On July 3, Lee decided on one final attack that he hoped would break the Union’s resistance. At about 2:00 p.m., 12,500 men under the command of General George Pickett emerged from the woods and began their advance across an open field toward the Union’s line. The attack failed, and Lee was forced to retreat. Meanwhile, in the West, Vicksburg surrendered to Grant on July 4, giving the Union control of the entire Mississippi River.

Some months later, President Lincoln delivered a speech at Gettysburg. The two-minute speech, known as the Gettysburg Address, has become one of the most famous in American history. In it, Lincoln reminded those who were there what the war itself was about and what the country stood for.

Find Out the Facts

Find out what President Lincoln said in his Gettysburg Address.

The Last Full Year of the War—1864

The most important Union victory came in the fall of 1864, when a new general named William Tecumseh Sherman laid siege to Atlanta, Georgia, and burned much of it to the ground. In December, the coastal city of Savannah, Georgia, fell. By January, Sherman was in South Carolina. By March, he was in North Carolina. Everywhere his armies went, they left behind destruction. These victories helped Abraham Lincoln be reelected.
By the time Lincoln’s second term began in March 1865, it was clear that the Confederacy was doomed. Lincoln realized that it was time to focus Americans on uniting the nation. Many Northerners talked of revenge. Lincoln wanted none of this. The Union was preserved; slavery was ended. For Lincoln, that was enough. The job now was to return to being one nation, the United States of America. President Lincoln announced his plan for restoring the Union. It was a plan to bring the Southern states back into the Union quickly and without harsh punishment.

In his second inaugural address, on March 4, 1865, he urged Americans to adopt a forgiving spirit as they set about this task.

A month after Lincoln’s speech, Petersburg and Richmond fell. Lee tried to gather his weary and hungry army once more, but Union forces followed them. There was, finally, no way out. On April 9, Lee sent an officer with a white flag of surrender to the Union army and asked to meet with General Grant.

The surrender took place at a house in the village of Appomattox Court House, Virginia. Grant wrote out the terms of surrender and treated the defeated enemy with great respect. The Confederates would turn in their weapons, except for the officers’ small guns. All were free to leave. It was a generous offer, and Lee thanked Grant for it. The two generals saluted each other. Then Lee climbed on his horse, Traveller, and rode away.

On April 11, in celebration of the end of the war, a crowd gathered at the White House and called for President Lincoln to make a speech. President Lincoln did so. In the crowd was a man named John Wilkes Booth. During the war, Booth had served as a secret agent for the Confederacy. He was also an actor.
On Friday, April 14—three days after his speech—the president went to Ford’s Theater in Washington, D.C., to see a performance. There, Booth shot President Lincoln in the head. Booth avoided capture for nearly two weeks, but he was finally found hiding in a barn and was shot. As for the wounded president, he was carried to a house across the street, where friends and a doctor tried to make him comfortable. But there was no hope that he would live. The following morning, he breathed his last. “Now,” said his secretary of war, Edwin Stanton, “he belongs to the ages.”

The South in Ruins

At the end of the Civil War, the South was a devastated land. Many people were without food, clothing, or any way to make a living. For the formerly enslaved, the war brought them freedom. In the first months after the war, a good many Black Americans left their old plantations just so they could experience their newfound freedom. Many freed people had an even more important reason for taking to the road. They hoped to find family members who had been sold and separated from them. But aside from building families on their own terms, the newly freed had some big challenges, with the main one being how to survive.

Congress had understood the challenges the South would face after the war. Just a month before the war’s end, Congress created the Freedmen’s Bureau. The Freedmen’s Bureau had its greatest success in education. It set up more than four thousand schools where once-enslaved people could learn to read and write. Northern churches sent thousands of dedicated women and men to teach in these schools. One thing the Freedmen’s Bureau did not do, however, was give the former enslaved people their own land. Had this been done, they would have had a chance to support themselves and become truly independent.

Sharecropping

Instead, many of the previously enslaved continued to farm the lands of their former masters. However, a big problem had to be worked out first. When the Confederacy collapsed, all of its money immediately became worthless. Southern banks also went out of business. Owners of the land had no money to pay wages to their workers, and the freedmen who wanted to rent land had no money to pay for it. The problem was solved by developing a system called sharecropping, in which the owners let the freedmen use some of their land, gave them seed, and
lent them plows, tools, and mules to work with. In return, the freedmen gave the owners a share of the crops they raised. Usually they split the crops half and half. Nine out of ten former enslaved families became sharecroppers in the South, and many poor white families did, too.

Who’s in Charge?

After the assassination of President Lincoln, Andrew Johnson of Tennessee became the next president. Although a native of Tennessee, Johnson had remained loyal to the Union. This did not mean, however, that Johnson was a champion for the equal rights of Black Americans. Johnson did support the Thirteenth Amendment, which abolished slavery and was passed eight months after the death of President Lincoln. But he did not believe that Southern states needed to make any other social or political changes that would lead to equality. Johnson proposed a simple plan that would allow for unification quickly and simply. His plan became known as Presidential Reconstruction.

President Johnson’s plan was not supported by everyone in Congress. There were some congressmen, sometimes called “Radical Republicans,” who embraced it. But at the time, few people believed that all people should be treated equally within society.

Congress and President Johnson fought over the role that each would play in relation to the reunification of the South. Congress believed that there could be no reunification until they said so, and on certain terms and conditions. Congress wanted Reconstruction to be much harder on the South. They felt that the South should be punished for causing so much death and destruction. Beyond all this, members of Congress didn’t believe that Southerners were remorseful. They pointed to the fact that Southern states, one after the other, were passing a series of racist laws that were designed to limit the freedom of the formerly enslaved. Called Black Codes, these laws were intended to keep Black Americans as close to enslavement as possible. Disagreement over the Reconstruction process was at the heart of the conflict between Johnson and Congress for his brief time in office.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the Black Codes and what restrictions they placed on Black Americans in the South.

Think Twice

Would you have wanted to treat the South more harshly after the war ended, or would you have wanted an easier path to reunification?

Think Twice

If freed Black Americans had been given their own land, rather than turning to sharecropping, how might their lives have been different?
Johnson's Impeachment

Because of its distrust of President Andrew Johnson, Congress, led by Republicans such as Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, passed a series of laws to limit the powers of the presidency. President Johnson believed those laws were unconstitutional. He decided to ignore them. When he did that, the House of Representatives voted to **impeach** him. To impeach means to accuse an officeholder of wrongdoing. It’s a way of getting rid of officeholders before their term is over if an officeholder has committed a serious offense. Under the U.S. Constitution, it is the job of the House of Representatives to impeach a president who is thought to be guilty of serious wrongdoing, or “**high crimes and misdemeanors**.” If the House of Representatives votes to impeach, or bring charges against the president, then the president is put on trial before the U.S. Senate. If two-thirds of the senators find the president guilty of the charges, the president is removed from office. The impeachment and trial of President Johnson lasted for two months in early 1868. To no one’s surprise, the House of Representatives voted to impeach the president. The case then moved to the Senate. There, it would take two-thirds of the Senate, or thirty-six senators, to vote “guilty as charged” in order to remove Johnson from office. The vote was extremely close. But the final count was thirty-five in favor of guilty, nineteen in favor of not guilty—one vote short of the number needed to remove the president from office. So, by that slim margin, Andrew Johnson was able to finish his term.

Vocabulary

**impeach**, v. to accuse a government official of doing something wrong or improper

“**high crimes and misdemeanors**” (phrase), actions of misconduct by a government official, such as lying, abuse of power, or failing to perform job responsibilities

The Reconstruction Amendments

When Congress started to dictate the terms of Reconstruction, the process moved into a phase known as Congressional Reconstruction. Under Congressional Reconstruction, Southern states had to draw up new state constitutions.
The new constitutions threw out the horribly unfair Black Codes and replaced them with laws that guaranteed rights and freedoms for Black Americans. In addition, two new amendments were added to the U.S. Constitution to make civil rights and citizenship for Black Americans more permanent. In all, three amendments were added to the Constitution between the years 1865 and 1870, and all three of them moved Black Americans one step closer to full citizenship in America. They were as follows:

The Thirteenth Amendment: Ratified in 1865, this amendment banned private ownership of enslaved individuals, also known as chattel slavery.

The Fourteenth Amendment: Ratified in 1868, this amendment extended citizenship to Black Americans born on American soil. Also known as the “due process amendment,” this amendment extends citizenship and all of its related rights to anyone born on American soil, regardless of racial identity.

The Fifteenth Amendment: Ratified in 1870, this amendment gave Black American men the right to vote. Because of the ratification of these three constitutional amendments, Black Americans, especially men, became full participants in the political process. Many voted, and a few even held elected office, including seats in Congress and the U.S. Senate. In fact, a man named Blanche K. Bruce was elected to hold the Mississippi Senate seat once held by Jefferson Davis. Although there were now a number of Black officials and lawmakers in the Southern states, most officeholders in the South continued to be white men. The very fact that there were elected Black officials angered some members of the Southern white population. Some of the white lawmakers and officials in the new Southern governments were actually Northerners who had gone south after the war. White Southerners disliked these Northern whites. They had an insulting name for them: carpetbaggers. For a while, though, while serving together, Black and white officials began the process of rebuilding the South. One of the most significant steps was to create the first public school system in the South.

Backlash and Reaction

The goodwill embedded in the Congressional Reconstruction plan lasted for only a few years because many white Southerners opposed the new state governments. Many were outraged that
people who were once enslaved were now voting, holding office, and making laws. They opposed paying taxes for public schools that would educate Black children, even though public schools also educated their own children. A number of people formed secret societies, such as the Ku Klux Klan. Wearing white sheets and hoods, members of the Ku Klux Klan rode through the countryside on horseback. They terrorized Black people and were extremely violent. In the late 1860s and early 1870s, the federal government sent troops to stop the Ku Klux Klan and other secret groups like it. The government was successful, and the Klan almost disappeared. But it would appear again more than forty years later, when it would preach its message of hatred against even more groups of Americans. Putting an end to the Klan—even temporarily, as it still exists today—did not stop white resistance to Congressional Reconstruction. Some Southerners formed other groups to keep Black Americans from voting. These groups operated right out in the open. They warned that Black men who voted would lose their jobs and would not be able to buy goods on credit in the farm stores. They also threatened violence.

**Think Twice**

Why do you think some people in the South aimed to prevent free Black American men from voting?

Those who were determined to get rid of the Reconstruction governments in the South finally succeeded. Gradually, in one Southern state after another, Black Americans were voted out of office. These issues came to a head in the election of 1876. Controversy over election results in some Southern states forced Congress to decide the election. Congress made a deal to give the presidency to the Republican candidate. As part of the deal, the U.S. government removed the last troops from the South. With that, Reconstruction was over.

Over the next several years, Black Americans in the South lost many of the rights they had won during Reconstruction. And as the white-controlled South continued to rebuild its roads, bridges, and towns, it did so using a cheap labor force often made up of incarcerated Black American men. The struggle for racial equality was clearly not over.

**Writers’ Corner**

Select one Civil War battle and write a report. The battle you select does not have to be one mentioned in this chapter.
Open Skies

A Pennsylvania doctor named Brewster Higley packed his bags and headed west to become a homesteader in Kansas. He wrote a poem about it called “The Western Home.” A neighbor set the poem to music and gave it a new name—“Home on the Range.” Before long, everyone was singing it. Kansas adopted it as its state song in the 1940s.

The Big Question

What happened to Native American homelands and culture after the Civil War?

Find Out the Facts

Listen to the song “Home on the Range,” and pay attention to the lyrics.

More and more, Native Americans struggled to hold on to their ancestral homelands.
Promises captured in songs such as “Home on the Range,” of clear, open skies and an opportunity to build a fresh start in open spaces, motivated millions of Americans to move westward both during and after the American Civil War. Favorable government policies also encouraged Americans to move west of the Mississippi River, and west of the Rocky Mountains. Many people imagined vast areas of unsettled frontier wilderness was theirs simply for the taking. Consequently, as more and more people moved into the West, Native Americans saw their ancestral homelands threatened, along with their way of life. After the Civil War, the speed of westward migration accelerated because of two factors: mining and ranching.

The discovery of gold in California in the 1840s brought an influx of settlers into the area, which led to its admission as a state in 1849. Less than ten years later, gold was discovered in Pikes Peak, Colorado. In less than a year, about one hundred thousand people, most of them from California, rushed into the Rocky Mountains. Most of the miners failed to find gold.

Among the disappointed miners at Pikes Peak were two Irish immigrants, Pete O’Reilly and Pat McLaughlin. The next year, 1859, these two fortune hunters moved
on to the Sierra Nevada Mountains in present-day Nevada. There, they staked a claim to land in a place called Six Mile Canyon. A man named Henry Comstock talked the two immigrants into making him their partner. One day, Pete O’Reilly and Pat McLaughlin dug up a chunk of heavy, blue rock. They had never seen anything like it before, so they showed the rock to a couple of rich Californians. The Californians, who knew something about mining, quickly realized that this rock was silver ore. That’s not what they told O’Reilly, McLaughlin, and Comstock, though. Instead, they offered to buy the land. The men sold it for $11,000, which seemed like a lot of money. But the men had been duped. Over the next twenty years, that piece of land and the area around it produced $500 million worth of silver and gold for its owners! The rich silver deposit was named the Comstock Lode, after the partner who had made the deal.

Cattle Ranches

While many Americans were hoping to seek their fortune through the discovery of silver and gold in the American West, others looked to something far more common and ordinary to make them rich: grass. Grass made the rise of a great cattle industry in the West possible. The story of that industry began nearly three hundred years earlier, when ships from Spain brought cattle to the colony of Mexico. Unlike in Spain, where they had been fenced in, the cattle in Mexico were allowed to roam freely. Over the centuries that followed, the cattle wandered through northern Mexico and into South Texas. And they multiplied.

By 1860, there were about five million cattle in the small corner of Texas that lies between the Rio Grande and the town of San Antonio. They were called longhorns because their horns could be as large as seven feet across. These longhorns belonged to no one. They were anyone’s for the taking. Yet few Texans bothered to do so. The cattle were so numerous that no one in Texas would pay more than three or four dollars for one cow. That was hardly enough to pay the cost of rounding them up and keeping them on a ranch.

As U.S. cities continued to develop, especially in the East, things changed. Texans realized there was a profitable beef market back East. If they could find a way to get their cattle to the customers, they could easily make money. The obvious solution to their problem was the railroad. But there was no railroad line between southern Texas and the East, and building a line would take
time and money. The nearest railroad line that traveled east was in Sedalia, Missouri, a good thousand miles away.

Soon after the end of the Civil War, several ranchers decided that if they couldn’t bring the railroad to the cattle, maybe they could bring the cattle to the railroad. They would herd the cattle to Sedalia, letting them graze on grass as they went. It would take about three months to get there.

From this idea sprang the “long drive.” In spring 1866, ranchers brought their herds together and set out for Sedalia. This was the first organized drive and included 260,000 heads of cattle. Unfortunately for the ranchers, they chose a poor route. Much of the trail led through wooded areas. Parts of the trail crossed fenced-in farms, and other parts ran through Native American territory.

The large herd of longhorns caused damage and spread disease as they moved across the land, making farmers angry. At times, heavy rains turned the trail into mud. Most of the cattle that started on the long drive died or were lost or stolen along the way. Still, for every animal that made it to Sedalia, the owners got thirty-five dollars.

The next year, the Texas cattle ranchers chose a western route that led across open plains. This route was called the Chisholm Trail. Here, there were no trees or farms or mud—only endless acres of grass. At the end of the trail lay Abilene, Kansas. From Abilene, a new railroad line ran directly to Chicago. This time, nearly all the animals made it. The long drive to Abilene was a huge success. Over the years, as railroads
pushed westward, cattle ranchers set out on trails farther west, and new cow towns with railroad access rose up along the way.

### Find Out the Facts
Find out what was involved for cowboys herding cattle on the Chisholm Trail.

### Writers’ Corner
Using your research on the Chisholm Trail, imagine you are a cowboy on a cattle drive. Write a journal entry about a particular day.

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### The Cattle Kingdom Moves North

In time, cattle ranchers learned that the animals could survive the colder winters farther north. The northern grasslands were much closer to the railroad line, and the U.S. government, which now owned the land, allowed cattle to graze for free. Many ranchers took their herds north to save the cost of the long drive. Soon, the cattle kingdom stretched from Texas northward to Montana and from Kansas westward to the Rocky Mountains. For a time, cattle ranchers made huge fortunes. But the good times did not last. The cattle ranchers soon faced competition from shepherders for the use of the free grass. Sheep nibble grass close to the roots, leaving little or nothing for cattle. Bitter warfare between cattle ranchers and shepherders often flared up. Then, farmers began to arrive on the open range in large numbers, plowing up the land and fencing it off. Cattle ranchers added to their own problems by increasing the size of their herds too much. They raised more cattle than the buyers wanted. Prices began to fall. All this, and the fact that longhorn cattle carried a tick-borne disease that devastated other breeds, made raising cattle very challenging. Nature delivered the final blow in the winter of 1886–1887. Two terrible winters and a hot, dry summer that killed grass and dried up streams destroyed more than eighty percent of the cattle. After that, ranchers saw they could no longer depend so completely on the grass of the open range to feed their herds. So, they fenced in their cattle and raised enough feed to take care of them through the winter.

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### The Cowboy

The cattle kingdom gave birth to the colorful character of the cowboy. At the time, one in every three or four cowboys was Mexican. (It was the Mexican vaquero, or cowboy, who taught the American cowboy all his skills, from riding to roping.)
There were many Black American cowboys who had left the South after the Civil War. Others were Native Americans. Many cowboys were teenagers. A cowboy’s job was pretty much what the name says it was: to herd cows. He was a hired hand, not an independent hero who rode where he wished and did what he wanted. For many months of the year, he would “ride the line” between his boss’s ranch and the neighbor’s, trying to keep his cattle from wandering away. Twice a year, cowboys from all the ranches joined in a cattle roundup. In the spring, they branded newborn calves with the owner’s special mark. After that, the animals were allowed to graze on the open plains. In the fall, cowboys separated those cattle ready for market from the rest of the herd.

The hardest part of a cowboy’s job was the long drive. For two or three months, seven days a week, in all kinds of weather, cowboys spent up to eighteen hours a day in the saddle, driving the cattle forward. Only mealtimes broke up their long, weary days. At night, they bedded down on the hard prairie. The cowboy’s greatest worry was a cattle stampede, which might kill or wound cattle, cowboys, and horses.

Vocabulary

**stampede, n.** the rushed movement of a large group of animals

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Nat Love was born into slavery in 1854 in Tennessee. As a young boy, he learned the skills of roping, herding, and branding cattle and horses. After the Civil War, Love became a cowboy. His skills as a herdsman on long cattle drives became legendary.
Sometimes, stampedes took place in the dark of night, perhaps with neither moon nor stars to help the rider see the ground ahead of him. The great age of the cowboy lasted only about twenty-five years, from the late 1860s to 1890. But the mark they made on American culture was deep and long-lasting.

The Growth of the Railroads

Soon after the Civil War started, Congress passed a law to build the transcontinental railroad. At the time, railroads already reached as far west as Omaha, Nebraska, so the new line would only have to go from there to the Pacific Coast. This was still a distance of 1,800 miles—longer than any railroad line ever built! Congress named two companies to construct this railroad line. The Union Pacific Railroad Company would build westward from Omaha. The Central Pacific Railroad would build eastward from Sacramento, California.

The two lines would connect somewhere in between. To help these companies, the U.S. government gave each company a gift of ten square miles of land alongside each mile of track they built. The idea was that once the railroad was built, that land would become valuable, and the railroad could sell it. The government also loaned each company money to help pay for the construction. With that kind of encouragement, each company raced to build as many miles of track as it could. Such plans were indeed spectacular, but they came at a very high price for Native Americans who continued to be displaced.

Vocabulary

transcontinental railroad, n. a railroad that stretches across an entire continent
They had come to California hoping to find riches in the gold fields. Now they did the backbreaking and dangerous work of laying railroad tracks through the Sierra Nevada. Working in gangs of thirty each, they labored twelve hours a day, six days a week. They chopped trees and cut them into railroad ties. They built railroad bridges. Using simple tools such as hammers, chisels, pickaxes, shovels, and wheelbarrows, they cut through mountains. They used dynamite, too, but it was sometimes very dangerous, and accidents and deaths occurred.

At first, the men working on the Union Pacific line were mainly Irish immigrants, but the railroad company also hired some Black American, Hispanic, and Native American workers. After the Civil War ended in 1865, army veterans from both the North and the South joined the work crews. While these workers also had to lay track across some mountains, most of their building stretched across the Great Plains. Laying track across flat prairie land was certainly easier than cutting through mountains, but it had its own difficulties. Winter temperatures on the Plains can be brutally cold. Just to stay alive, the shivering men sometimes used precious railroad ties to build bonfires.

Year after year, under the blazing summer sun and in below-zero winter cold, the work went forward. Finally, on May 10, 1869, the two lines met at Promontory Point, Utah. Leland Stanford Jr., president of the Central Pacific, was given the honor of driving the final spike into the last railroad tie. To celebrate the occasion, the spike was made of gold. The telegraph flashed the news to a waiting nation.

Promontory Point, Utah, May 10, 1869

Think Twice
How would you describe the contribution that immigrants made in building the transcontinental railroad?

Find Out the Facts
Find out what was involved in building the transcontinental railroad.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research on the transcontinental railroad, write a report that includes facts about how difficult the work was and what life was like for the men involved.
Trains and People

The new transcontinental railroads helped open the West to more and more settlement. It’s easy to understand why. After the golden spike was driven into the track in Utah that day in May 1869, you could make the trip from Omaha to San Francisco, California, in less than four days! Railroad companies did everything they could to encourage people to move west. More settlers meant more crops, and that meant more business for the railroads that carried the crops to the East. The Western farmers now fed millions of people living in massive Eastern cities. The railroads and telegraphs linked all the sections of the country together. Railroads also helped cities grow. News that a railroad company was going to build its line through a town brought cheers from the townspeople. New jobs were created in countless ways. Farmers from nearby areas rented storage space for their grain until it could be loaded onto railroad cars. Cattle ranchers bought feed for animals waiting for shipment to market. Passengers spending the night ate in restaurants and slept in hotels. Towns where two or more railroad lines met became especially prosperous. That’s why many towns did all they could to persuade railroad companies to choose them for one of these crossing points.

Think Twice

What was the connection between the expansion of the railroad and the development of American cities and towns?

The Heartlands

Across the middle of the country stretches a vast area of relatively flat land. From the Rio Grande in the South, the Great Plains reach more than three thousand miles north into Canada. At their widest, the Great Plains extend more than one thousand miles from the Appalachian Mountains to the Rocky Mountains. In the 1840s, before modern development, the wide, open, grassy plains were open country as far as the eye could see. After the Civil War, American settlers and European immigrants looked toward these grassy plains and swarmed onto them. Despite the fact that the rich soil was hard to till or turn, they started farms. From 1870 to 1890, farmers claimed more land on the Great Plains than the land area of England and France combined. What drew them to the Great Plains in the late 1860s? First, the weather patterns changed. For eight years, the Great Plains received higher than normal rainfall. Many believed that the climate itself had changed. They trusted that the Great Plains would continue to enjoy higher rainfall. (They were wrong, but they would not find that out until some years later.)
Second, new technologies made it easier to farm, build, and get water on the open plains. Steel plows were better able to turn the sticky soil. Windmills pumped up groundwater from wells. Barbed wire made it possible to fence large areas, and railroads brought other needed supplies. Farmers also learned to grow wheat and other grains that were well-suited to the climate. Finally, great land bargains made it less expensive to buy land. Across the United States and in Europe, railroads advertised cheap land to settlers. One poster read, “MILLIONS OF ACRES—IOWA AND NEBRASKA LANDS FOR SALE ON 10 YEARS CREDIT.”

In 1862, Congress passed the Homestead Act. This law gave 160 acres of land free to anyone who would settle on it and farm for at least five years. These homesteads were available to Americans and to immigrants. Over the next forty years, the United States “gave away” eighty million acres of land under the Homestead Act. The Homestead Act aimed in part to help poor people start family farms. However, even with free land, poor families could not afford other farm costs, such as fencing, plows, animals, barns, and seed. Therefore, most people able to “homestead” on the Plains were already farmers who had saved some money. Still, some poor people did manage to homestead. Among them were Black Americans from the South. After the Civil War, thousands of formerly enslaved people set out for Kansas. Borrowing a term from the Bible, they called themselves Exodusters because they were making an exodus, or departure, from their homes.
Many Americans continued to see westward settlement—including the forced relocation of Native Americans—as part of the country’s Manifest Destiny. The West also came to mean the frontier—that line that marked the farthest edge of American settlement. Americans watched with pride and wonder as that line moved steadily, relentlessly westward all through the 1880s.

**The Myth of the West**

Many Easterners imagined the West as a place of gunfighters, rugged cowboys, and endless adventures—the “Wild West.” They got these ideas from newspapers, which carried many stories about real-life Western characters, stories that were often wildly exaggerated. The newspapers made outlaws such as Billy the Kid and Jesse James seem heroic. In reality, they were not. Billy the Kid began his career stealing horses and committing jailbreak, and he even killed someone at age fifteen. Jesse James, who had fought with the Confederates in the Civil War, held up banks, stagecoaches, and trains. Just like today, some newspapers exaggerated the stories. Why? Exciting stories sold, and still sell, newspapers.

The real story of the West was about the day-to-day struggle of farmers, ranchers, and others. It was also about Native Americans trying to hold on to their lands and their ways of life. Newspapers weren’t the only ones to profit from the myth of the Wild West. In the last part of the 1800s, the “dime novel” became very popular. People could read exciting tales of cowboys and outlaws. Publishers produced thousands of these books about fictional heroes. A new form of entertainment called the Wild West show also shaped ideas about the West. The most popular Wild West show belonged to William F. “Buffalo Bill” Cody. In 1883, Cody created an outdoor Western show that had riding and shooting contests, a stagecoach robbery, and gunfighting. Annie Oakley was a performer in the show. She was such an excellent markswoman, she was known as “Little Sure Shot.” Wild West shows helped America develop an independent identity that was different from that of any European nation.

**Find Out the Facts**

Find out more about Jesse James and Billy the Kid.

The real story of the West was about the day-to-day struggle of farmers, ranchers, and others. It was also about Native Americans trying to hold on to their lands and their ways of life. Newspapers weren’t the only ones to profit from the myth of the Wild West. In the last part of the 1800s, the “dime novel” became very popular. People could read exciting tales of cowboys and outlaws. Publishers produced thousands of these books about fictional heroes. A new form of entertainment called the Wild West show also shaped ideas about the West. The most popular Wild West show belonged to William F. “Buffalo Bill” Cody. In 1883, Cody created an outdoor Western show that had riding and shooting contests, a stagecoach robbery, and gunfighting. Annie Oakley was a performer in the show. She was such an excellent markswoman, she was known as “Little Sure Shot.” Wild West shows helped America develop an independent identity that was different from that of any European nation.

**Think Twice**

What do you think the author means by America’s “independent identity”?
The Alaska Purchase

Even after the Civil War, the United States was not finished expanding. Far to the north, and west of Canada, lay the huge area of land known as Alaska. In 1867, most Americans knew less about Alaska than we know about Antarctica today. How, then, did Alaska become part of the United States? The story begins in the early 1700s, when Russia sent a handful of explorers to the area and claimed the territory as its own.

The Russian government started a company to trade with indigenous peoples in Alaska for fur. Although the company made a lot of money for a while, the overhunting of fur-bearing animals caused them to disappear, and the company began to lose money. At the same time, war between Russia and Great Britain seemed likely. In 1867, to raise money, Czar Alexander II of Russia decided that he would offer the territory to America for $7.2 million. At less than two cents an acre, it seemed a very good bargain indeed. Both houses of Congress voted in favor of the Alaska Purchase by large margins. On October 18, 1867, the U.S. flag went up over Alaska, and it became part of the United States.

Broken Treaties

During the 1800s, Native Americans living on lands west of the Mississippi River faced dramatic changes, eventually leading to the decline of many Native American cultures. Throughout the 1800s, as settlers moved west, the U.S. government adopted many treaties and agreements with Native American groups. Most of these treaties and agreements were later discarded. Over time, it became clear to many Native American groups that there was no
stopping the pursuit of land—treaty or no treaty. Furthermore, diplomacy often failed because Americans did not understand tribal leadership. Native American groups did not belong to one central government. They could not be treated like independent nations, such as Great Britain or France. As a result, an agreement made, for example, with one group of Sioux had no meaning to other Sioux, and it certainly had no meaning to the Cheyenne. Nor did Americans understand how fiercely independent most Native American individuals were—they often ignored their own leaders’ words. If a tribe had chiefs at all (some did not), they were not like a U.S. president who represents all Americans. A Native American might be a chief because he had shown bravery or good sense, or had respect from others in the group. But that did not mean his word was law. Many Native American nations simply did not empower leaders in that way.

As the settlement on Native American land continued, many Americans assumed that Native Americans would eventually give up and live as they did. However, as you have read, indigenous Americans had different ideas about property ownership, ideas that other Americans disregarded. As time went by, the U.S. government came to believe that there were only two possible ways forward to control the Native American population. One was to promote the idea of assimilation, in which Native Americans would simply agree to follow the American way of life. The other was to force Native Americans onto land reserved, or set aside, for them only. And so the government adopted a policy of forcefully moving Native Americans to reservations across the Mississippi River. By 1860, a great majority of Native Americans had been relocated and isolated. But it did not happen without a struggle. When Native Americans would not sign treaties that sent them to reservations, or when they signed treaties but would not move, the U.S. Army forced them to move. Sometimes Native Americans moved peacefully; sometimes they did not. In every case, with each move, their ways of life continued to disappear.

Vocabulary

assimilation, n. adoption of the ways of another culture

Clash of Cultures

Most Americans at this time were Christians who either farmed or worked in the growing cities. Most had homes they lived in all the time. Most believed land could and should be owned by individuals and used in certain ways—such as to grow food or to develop towns and cities on.
The government created agencies to handle relations between the United States and Native tribes. For example, in March 1824, the Bureau of Indian Affairs was created to place an emphasis on assimilation practices and to introduce rules forbidding Native Americans from speaking traditional languages, wearing their traditional clothes, and practicing their native religions.

By the late 1800s, government officials had turned their attention to younger Native Americans. In 1879, an Army officer named Richard Henry Pratt opened Carlisle Industrial School, in Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Into this school they placed eighty-two Native American children who had been taken from their homes. School life was modeled after military life. Boys wore army-style uniforms, and girls wore dresses. Children wore shoes, not moccasins. Against tradition, their hair was cut short. Students marched to and from classes and dining halls. Only English was allowed to be spoken. Reading, writing, and mathematics in the morning were followed by an afternoon of metalworking and carpentry (for the boys) or cooking and laundry (for the girls). Music was also taught. Native American children were not allowed to practice their traditional religions. To speed up assimilation, students were not allowed to go home for vacations. Instead, they worked in American homes so they could continue learning new ways. Pratt said, “Kill the Indian, save the man.” Although Native American children may have learned skills and gained knowledge, the experience was anything but a positive one. Other schools were created based on this model. All of the schools, including Carlisle, exposed the Native American children to germs their bodies were not always able to fight. After taking in twelve thousand Native American children over a thirty-nine-year period, Carlisle School closed. Most of the other schools modeled after Carlisle failed, too.

Think Twice
What do you think the statement “Kill the Indian, save the man” means?

Find Out the Facts
Find out more about life for Native American children in the Carlisle Industrial School.
The Plight of the Bison

Continuous migration by settlers to the Great Plains and beyond endangered another aspect of Native American culture and livelihood—the American bison. Plains peoples depended on bison for many of their needs. Many parts of a single bison could be used for food, clothing, tools, and even shelter. But the forceful arrival of new Native American tribes, as well as American settlers, had a dramatic impact on the bison population. Bison were overhunted. Americans killed thousands and thousands of bison for their hides, which, as leather, sold for great profit. Some even killed these animals for sport, shooting them from trains. Whatever the reason, the bison population declined. Estimates place the bison population at forty million in 1800. By 1850, that number had been cut in half. By 1875, the number of bison had been reduced to about one million. By 1895, there were fewer than one thousand bison in the United States. But many Native Americans depended on this food source. Less food, and more competition for the food, led to intertribal wars.

Find Out the Facts
Find out more about the decimation of the bison and the impact that had on Native American peoples or tribes living on the Great Plains.

Writers’ Corner
Using your research on the decimation of the American bison, write a report or narrative poem on the impact.

The massacre of bison herds caused tremendous hardship for Native Americans.
In November of 1864, the United States was still being torn apart by the Civil War, but if you lived in the thriving city of Denver, Colorado, you were far removed from the ravages of such a distant event. But one day, an incident occurred that would shatter that peace and lead to one of the worst slayings of Native peoples in American history.

The murder of a mining family prompted wild speculation that nearby Native Americans may have been behind the killings. A zealous army colonel named J. M. Chivington was intent on exacting revenge. Colonel Chivington’s vow to “contain the dangerous Native Americans” made him an instant hero, but only briefly. Within the year, the U.S. Congress ordered an investigation into what people called the Sand Creek Massacre. Not until the investigation did citizens find out what happened on that November day. From then on, Colonel Chivington would be considered a villain rather than a hero.

In the summer of 1864, Governor Evans of the Colorado Territory had asked all Native Americans who were willing to accept settlers to go to the nearest military post for protection. Then soldiers would be sent out to deal with Native Americans who were still resisting settlers. Any Native Americans who were not under the protection of a military post would be considered unfriendly and could be attacked. Two groups of Cheyenne, led by Black Kettle and White Antelope, and one group of Arapaho, led by Left Hand, voluntarily entered Fort Lyon and declared their friendliness to settlers. They gave up their weapons and in return received protection and food.

After a while, these leaders were told that they would no longer receive food. They must leave the fort to hunt and find their own food. Major Anthony, commander of Fort Lyon, recommended that Black Kettle, White Antelope, and Left Hand leave with their people and head for Sand Creek, some thirty-five miles away. Major Anthony returned the Native Americans’ weapons to them. On the morning of November 28, 1864, Colonel Chivington arrived at Fort Lyon with seven hundred mounted soldiers and two cannons. He joined Major Anthony, who had 125 soldiers and two cannons. They left for Sand Creek that evening. Just after daybreak, Chivington, Anthony, and their troops approached Sand Creek. They counted one hundred Cheyenne lodges and eight to ten Arapaho lodges.
Chivington and Anthony estimated there were about 550 Native Americans and, grazing nearby, five to six hundred horses. Chivington sent some troops to capture the Native American horses, as he knew how fearsome the warriors were on horseback. Some of the horses broke away and ran into the village, alerting the sleeping Native Americans. The people ran from their lodges. Chief Black Kettle quickly hung an American flag along with a white flag of truce on his lodge. He wanted to make sure the soldiers understood that he and his people were friendly. Chivington and Anthony ordered an attack. Within two hours, 123 Native Americans were dead. One hundred of them were women and children, including infants. In his final report to Congress, the head of the investigation, Senator Benjamin F. Wade, wrote, “The truth is that he [Chivington] surprised and murdered, in cold blood, the unsuspecting men, women, and children on Sand Creek, who had every reason to believe they were under the protection of the United States authorities.” The report ends by recommending severe punishment for Chivington and others, including removal from office. Tragically, these men were never punished.

After the massacre at Sand Creek, conflict became part of life for Native Americans and soldiers. Although their records were incomplete, the Bureau of Indian Affairs reported sixty-five clashes and wars between 1782 and 1890. This bloody period has become known as the Indian Wars period.

**Think Twice**

How would you describe the events at Sand Creek?

**Find Out the Facts**

Find out more about the Sand Creek Massacre.

**Writers’ Corner**

Using your research on the Sand Creek Massacre, write a report detailing your findings.
Resistance

In much of the Southwest (Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Mexico), the Apache had long resisted Spanish and American colonization of their homelands. One of the Apache’s most notable warriors was Geronimo. Native Americans on the Plains fought hard to keep their lands, too. Their enemies praised them as “the best fighters the sun ever shone on.” The Sioux in Minnesota killed hundreds of settlers before army forces stopped them. In the 1860s, Chief Red Cloud and other strong chiefs chased away settlers who dared to enter Sioux territory. Sitting Bull was a Hunkpapa Sioux, respected for his courage and wisdom. In 1866, he became a leader of the northern Sioux. In 1868, he and some of the Sioux agreed to the Second Treaty of Fort Laramie, making peace with the U.S. government. This treaty guaranteed the Sioux a reservation until the end of time in what is now southwestern South Dakota. The treaty recognized the nearby Black Hills as the sacred hunting grounds of the Sioux and Cheyenne.

The peace lasted only a few years. In 1874, the discovery of gold in the Black Hills caused a rush of prospectors and miners who invaded the sacred hunting grounds of the Sioux and Cheyenne. The Siouxs, under Chiefs Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse, fought back against the prospectors and miners. The U.S. government directed that all Native Americans must move onto reservations by January 31, 1876. Otherwise, they would be thought of as unfriendly. Officials sent regiments under the direction of General George F. Crook, General Alfred H. Terry, and Lieutenant Colonel George A. Custer to stop the warfare. They were to make sure Native Americans went to the reservations.

Think Twice

Why did the discovery of gold put an end to the peace treaty?

The soldiers were also there to protect the miners. The Sioux were disheartened to discover that the troops were not sent to enforce the U.S. treaty with them but to protect the encroaching gold miners. Outraged by attacks from U.S. forces, Chief Sitting Bull and Chief Crazy Horse fought back. On June 17, 1876, Sioux warriors surprised Crook’s troops and defeated them in the Battle of Rosebud in southeastern Montana.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about Chief Sitting Bull and Chief Crazy Horse.
A week later, on June 24, Lieutenant Colonel George A. Custer and his regiment spotted a group of Sioux and Cheyenne warriors on the Little Bighorn River. Custer led one column of a planned two-part attack under the command of General Terry. Terry’s column was to join him in two days. Instead of waiting for Terry, “Long Hair” (as the Native Americans called Custer) decided to attack the warriors. Unknowingly, Custer was up against the largest fighting force ever assembled on the Plains. Of the more than two hundred men who followed Custer into battle, not one lived to tell the story of what happened during that one hour on June 25. A single horse named Comanche survived.

In reaction to Custer’s death, the defeat at the Little Bighorn, and Crook’s losses, Americans demanded more military action. The Sioux continued to win their battles against U.S. troops. But even though they won battle after battle, the Native Americans could not stop the flow of settlers. With bison dwindling in numbers, hunger led more and more Sioux to surrender. In May 1877, Sitting Bull led his remaining followers across the border into Canada. However, the Canadian government decided they could not be responsible for taking care of Native Americans from the United States. After four years, Sitting Bull returned to the United States. Although he had a promise of amnesty for his people, he served two years in South Dakota’s Fort Randall for being the leader of the Sioux resistance and for killing American soldiers. When he was released from prison, he returned to the reservation.

**Vocabulary**

*amnesty*, n. a decision, usually by a government, not to punish a person or group who has committed a crime

![Native American art depicting the Battle of Little Bighorn, June 1876](image)

**Think Twice**

What do you notice about the Native American art showing the Battle of Little Bighorn?
More than lives were lost in the conflict between Native Americans and settlers. The Native Americans lost homelands. Their parents and ancestors were buried on lands they could no longer visit. Those lands were the life source for all their worldly needs. The reservations they were forced to live on were often barren and inhospitable and did not provide for their needs. On the Plains reservations, insects and drought prevented Native Americans from growing gardens. Treaties promised subsistence (just enough food to survive), but many times, the promises were not honored. Sometimes, Native Americans received only half of the food they needed to survive.

Traditional Native American cultures valued spirituality. Native Americans relied on a Great Spirit to speak to them through signs and symbols, even dreams and visions. In 1889, a Paiute leader in the Great Basin by the name of Wovoka claimed to have had a vision of hope. He claimed that in his vision, he had seen his dead ancestors, who were happy and young again. He claimed that he had also been given a dance that, if performed, would bring dead and living Native Americans together in their old homelands. The bison would return as well. The settlers would go back to the land where the sun rose. The dance he spoke of came to be called the Ghost Dance. In order for these visions to come true, though, Wovoka told his people, they must live quietly and honestly. He spoke of nonviolence.

By the fall of 1889, leaders of other tribes had journeyed to the Great Basin to hear Wovoka’s message and to dance the large circle dances he taught them. They took his message and his dances back to their people. Some tribes danced the Ghost Dance nightly. But some tribes—such as the Sioux—heard things a certain way: the good days will return, yes, but only if the settlers go away. In less than a year, the Ghost Dance was embraced by many Plains Native Americans. They even wore Ghost Shirts—cotton shirts decorated with feathers and drawings of eagles and bison—that they hoped would protect them from soldiers’ bullets.

The Ghost Dance inspired some Native Americans, but it made many settlers fearful. Officials in Washington were informed that Native Americans “are dancing in the snow and are wild and crazy. . . . We need protection and we need it now. The leaders should be arrested and confined at some military post until the matter is quieted, and this should be done now.” Finally, in November 1890, American officials banned the Ghost Dance in Dakota Territory. When the dances continued, troops were called into the area. The military was sure that trouble was brewing. Suspecting that the
great Sioux leader Sitting Bull might be the one to lead a rebellion, the Bureau of Indian Affairs agent at the Standing Rock Reservation wrote, “[Sitting Bull] is the chief mischief-maker . . . and if he were not here this craze, so general among the [Native Americans], would never have gotten a foothold at this agency.”

Orders came for Sitting Bull’s arrest. Police representing the Bureau of Indian Affairs tried to arrest the former leader, but his followers tried to protect him. A fight broke out, and Sitting Bull was killed. Big Foot, Sitting Bull’s half brother, was next on the soldiers’ arrest list.

Wounded Knee

When Big Foot heard of his half brother’s death, he and a group fled south to the Pine Ridge Reservation. Many of Sitting Bull’s followers fled to join Chief Big Foot, who was a leader of the Ghost Dancers. On December 28, 1890, a group of about five hundred soldiers caught up with Big Foot’s group of 106 warriors and about 250 women and children. Ill and facing terrible odds, Big Foot was persuaded to lead his people to Wounded Knee Creek. There, they would be disarmed before proceeding to the Pine Ridge Reservation. The next morning, December 29, soldiers under the direction of General Nelson A. Miles entered Big Foot’s camp to gather all firearms. Only a few of the Native Americans agreed to this. The soldiers searched the tepees and found about thirty-eight rifles. Then, they asked the Native Americans to open the blankets draped about them against the cold. A young warrior, Black Coyote, raised his hidden rifle over his head and shouted that he would not give it up. As soldiers wrestled with Black Coyote, the rifle fired.

It began with a dance and ended in blood that stained the snows of Dakota. The Ghost Dance was only a shuffle, but to the Native Americans, it seemed to spell salvation.
The soldiers were already extremely nervous and feared that they would be killed. They opened fire immediately. From above the camp, the army fired its cannon into the camp. The Sioux men, women, and children ran for their lives. By noon, three hundred Native Americans, including Big Foot and many women and children, lay dead. Fifty were wounded. Troops continued hunting those Native Americans who had fled. The army casualties were twenty-five dead, thirty-nine wounded. Many army deaths were from “friendly crossfire”—one soldier shooting at a Native American but hitting a soldier on the other side of the camp. Viewing the scene later in the day, the Oglala Sioux holy man Black Elk said, “I wished that I had died too, but I was not sorry for the women and children. It was better for them to be happy in the other world.” Later, an army investigator concluded, “There is nothing to conceal or apologize for in the Wounded Knee Battle. The [Native Americans] brought on their own destruction as surely as any people ever did.” Nineteen soldiers who fought at the Battle of Wounded Knee received the Congressional Medal of Honor, the country’s most distinguished military honor. Scattered fighting between U.S. forces and the Native Americans continued. But the Battle of Wounded Knee stopped the Ghost Dance Indian Wars. Wounded Knee was also the last full-scale armed attack against Native Americans on U.S. soil.

Colonel Forsyth (1835-1906) was in command of the army at the massacre.

Think Twice

Why do you think Black Elk said he was not sorry for the dead women and children?

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the events at Wounded Knee.

Writers’ Corner

Using your research on Wounded Knee, write a narrative poem.
Glossary

A
abolitionist, n. a person who worked to end slavery during the 1700s and 1800s (173)

“The Age of Enlightenment” (phrase), a period from the late 1600s through the 1700s in which philosophers and intellectuals suggested that people should live by reason and intelligence rather than superstition and traditional beliefs (99)

agrarian society, n. a society that chiefly relies on agriculture or farming (32)
almanac, n. a yearly publication that contained information about astronomy, meteorology, and other things such as weather predictions and general information (130)
amend, v. to change or add to a law or document (117)
amnesty, n. a decision, usually by a government, not to punish a person or group who has committed a crime (212)
armada, n. a large fleet of ships (48)
arсенал, n. a place where weapons and other military equipment are stored (176)
assemble, v. to gather together (103)
assimilation, n. adoption of the ways of another culture (206)

B
banish, v. to force someone to leave a country, a colony, or another location (67)

“bicameral system” (phrase), a type of organization in which two related parts work together (115)

blockade, n. a military strategy aimed at preventing people and goods from entering or leaving an area (183)

boycott, n. a form of organized protest in which people refuse to buy goods or have anything to do with a particular group or country (81)

buffer zone, n. a neutral area that separates rival nations or factions (58)

burgess, n. a representative to the legislature in colonial Virginia and Maryland (80)

cargo, n. goods transported by ship, plane, or truck (62)
cash crop, n. a crop that is grown to be sold (56)
cede, v. to grant or transfer (129)
chattel slavery, n. private ownership of enslaved people (192)
chief justice, n. the highest judge on a court (127)
civil disobedience, n. a refusal to follow the law or government because it goes against one’s conscience; an act of protest (163)
climate pattern, n. the type of weather that occurs regularly in a place (12)
commerce, n. the buying and selling of goods and services; trade (15)
compliance, n. the act of doing what is expected or what is ordered by law (105)
compromise, n. when each side in a disagreement gives up some of what they want to reach an agreement (114)
confederation, n. a group of states joined together by a formal agreement (104)
confirm, v. to formally approve (128)
congregation, n. a religious community that worships together (68)
conquistador, n. the Spanish word for conqueror (37)
conscience, n. a sense or belief a person has that a certain action is right or wrong (103)
consent, n. approval or agreement (100)
Continental Divide, n. the high line in the Rockies from which water flows east on one side and west on the other (148)
convert, v. to change from one belief or religion to another (40)
cultural artifact, n. an object that reflects the life, beliefs, and society of a group of people (14)
currency, n. a system of money (32)

debtor, n. a person who owes money (58)
deliberate, v. to carefully discuss and consider issues (102)
diplomatic mission, n. an official journey to speak with the government of another country (31)
displacement, n. the process of being removed from the usual place or land (155)
draft, n. a system that requires individuals to serve in the military (181)
electoral college, n. a group of representatives who elect the president and vice president based on the popular vote in each state (122)
executive, adj. having the power to carry out and enforce laws (113)
expedition, n. a special journey taken by a group that has a clear purpose or goal (146)
federal, adj. relating to a system of government in which the national government shares power with other levels of government, such as the states; can also refer to national government (112)
frontier, n. where newly settled areas meet unsettled, but not necessarily uninhabited, areas (145)

gentleman class, n. a social group made up of low-level noblemen who own land and do not need to work for a living (53)
geographic region, n. a large area whose geographic characteristics, such as climate and physical features, set it apart from other places (12)

“high crimes and misdemeanors” (phrase), actions of misconduct by a government official, such as lying, abuse of power, or failing to perform job responsibilities (191)
Holy Land, n. an area in the Middle East that includes the city of Jerusalem and is considered special to members of the Jewish, Christian, and Islamic faiths (32)
impeach, v. to accuse a government official of doing something wrong or improper (191)
impressment, n. the act of seizing seamen to serve against their will as sailors in a navy (137)

“inaugural ceremony” (phrase), the series of official events in which a newly elected candidate is installed in office (124)

incumbent, adj. holding a position or political office (176)

indentured servitude, n. a system in which a worker agrees to work for an employer or a certain amount of time in exchange for training or payment in land or goods at the end (56)

infringe, v. to limit or take away some of the rights of others (104)

inhumane, adj. cruel, unacceptable (59)

interpreter, n. a person who translates from one language to another (147)

intolerable, adj. unbearable (85)

Isthmus, n. a narrow piece of land that connects two larger land masses (37)

J

joint-stock company, n. a company that raises money by selling shares, or interest in the company, in the form of stock (50)

judicial, adj. having to do with courts of law or decisions of right and wrong (15, 113)

judicial circuit, n. lower courts that are organized according to region (128)

K

legislative, adj. having the power to make laws (113)

locomotive, n. a railroad engine (154)

L

massacre, n. the violent killing of defenseless people (83)

Mayflower Compact, n. an agreement for self-government signed by the Pilgrims on the ship Mayflower (64)

medieval, adj. relating to the Middle Ages in Europe (29)

monetary economy, n. a system of trade for goods and services that uses money rather than barter, or an exchange of goods (32)

Mongol, n. a native of the Asian nation of Mongolia (30)

monopoly, n. complete ownership or control of a resource or industry (29)

monotheism, n. the religious belief in one god (22)

Mound Builders, n. prehistoric Native American people who lived in the Mississippi River Valley and were known by the huge earthen mounds they built (18)

mutiny, n. the rebellion of a ship’s crew against the captain (46)

N

natural rights, n. rights that all people are born with and that cannot be taken away by the government (91)

O

oath of office, n. a promise made by a government official to obey the law and fulfill the responsibilities of his or her job (125)

“on the brink” (phrase), very close to the start of something (88)
**P**
pestilent, adj. infectious or sickly (11)
polytheism, n. the religious belief in many gods (22)
precedent, n. an example for future actions or decisions (126)
primary source, n. a firsthand account of a historical event (3)
proclamation, n. an important official announcement that is usually made to the public (79)
proprietary colony, n. a colony that is owned by an individual and not a joint-stock company (57)
provisions, n. items in a legal document that state conditions or requirements (102)

**Q**
quartering, v. the act of giving temporary lodging and meals to soldiers (81)

**R**
repeal, v. to cancel or do away with something, such as a law (81)
resolution, n. a final decision usually meant to solve a problem or create a course of action (86)
“the rights of Englishmen” (phrase), traditional legal rights that all English subjects in England were guaranteed (80)

**S**
sanctuary, n. a place that is protected from the law; a refuge (64)
secede, v. to formally withdraw membership (175)

self-determination, n. the ability of the people in a country to decide their own government (90)
shaman, n. a religious leader who performs healing rites and rituals (23)
smallpox, n. a serious disease that spreads from person to person and causes a fever and rash (11)
stampede, n. the rushed movement of a large group of animals (199)

**T**
taxes, n. money that people are required to pay to support the workings of the government (79)
“tide of battle” (phrase), a metaphor that describes how the advantage of one side or another can change over the course of the fighting (181)
transcontinental railroad, n. a railroad that stretches across an entire continent (200)
treaty, n. a formal agreement between two or more groups, especially countries (156)
“trial by jury” (phrase), a case of law decided by a group of one’s fellow citizens (82)
tropical latitudes, n. areas around the equator that remain warm all year (62)

**V**
veto, v. to reject or refuse to approve a law (142)

**Y**
yellow fever, n. an infection caused by a virus and spread by mosquitoes in warm climates (38)
Dr. Oliver is a native of Greenville, Florida. She obtained from Florida State University a Bachelor of Science in Political Communications in 1993, a Master of Science in Social Science Education in 1995, and a doctorate in history with a concentration on Twentieth Century Intellectual and African American History in 2010.

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Kristin Kwan: 159, 165

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