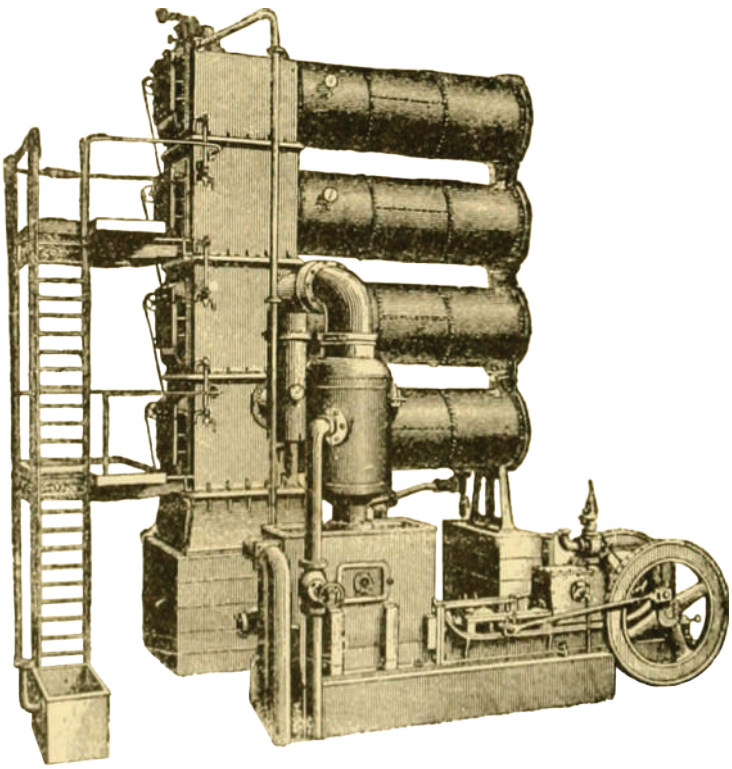
GRADE 7 LOUISIANA SOCIAL STUDIES

The Developing and Expanding Nation

Student Volume

California Gold Rush

Multiple-effect evaporator



Trail of Tears

Locomotives pulling trains

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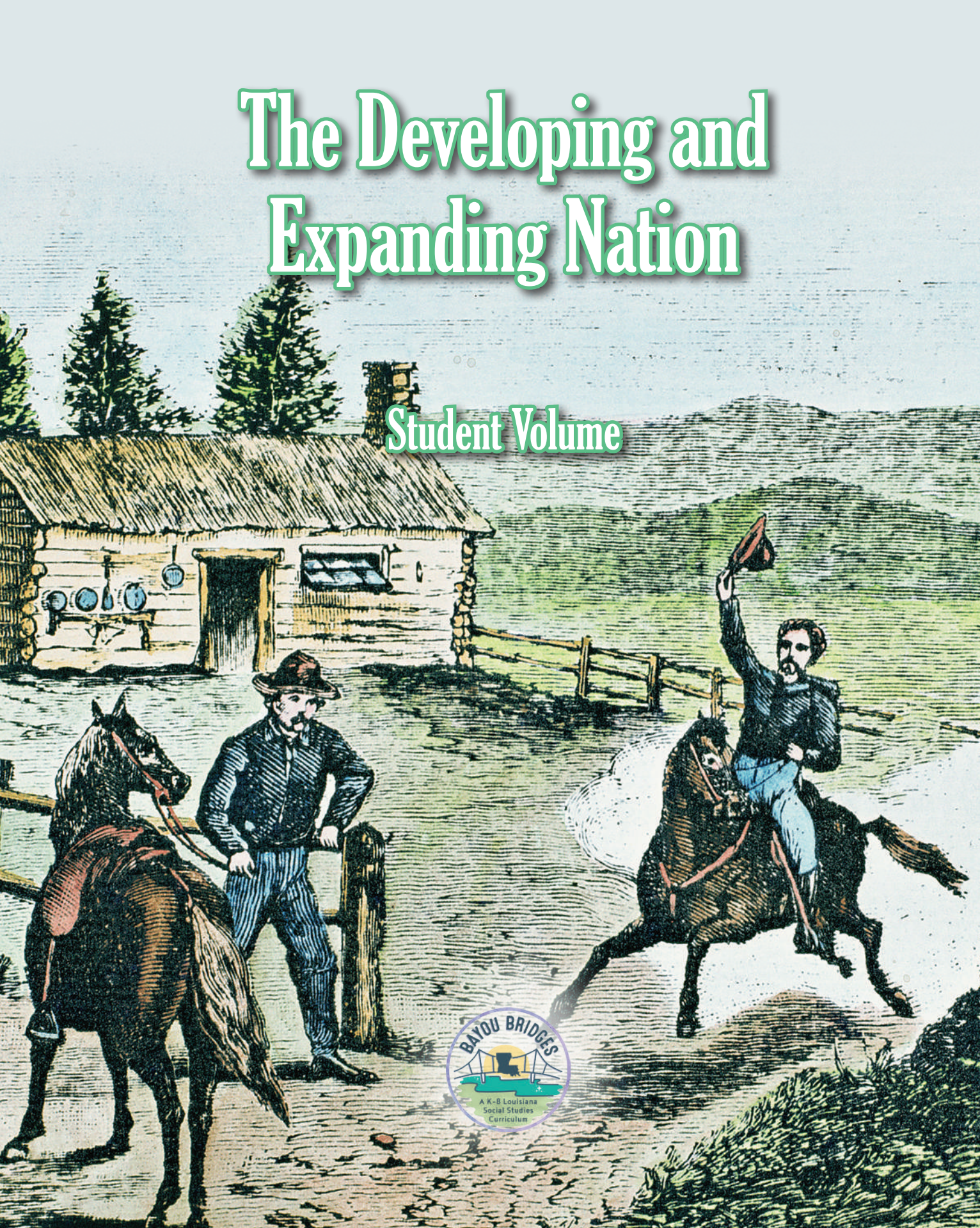

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The Developing and Expanding Nation

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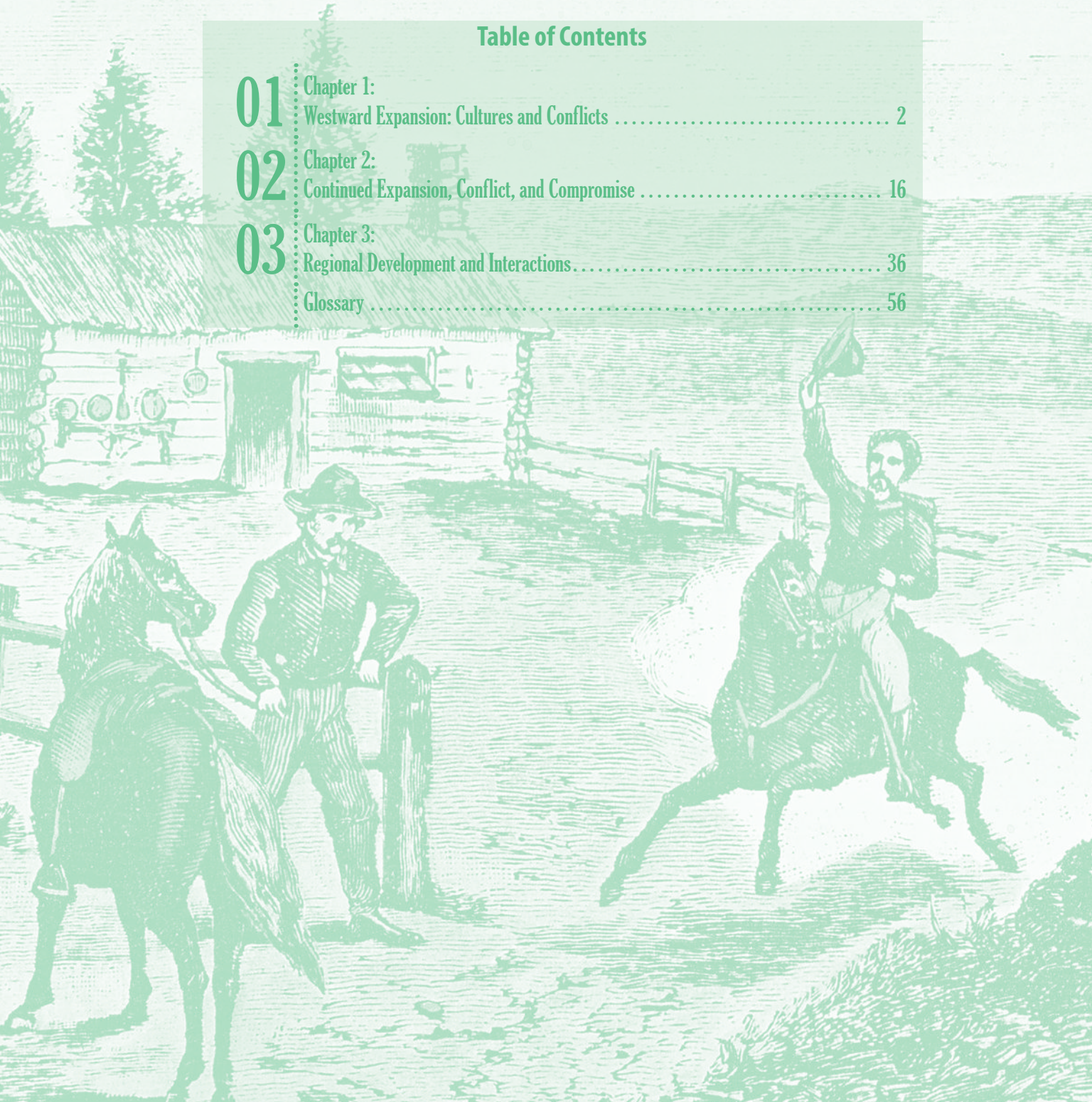


Chapter 1
Westward Expansion: Cultures and Conflicts

The Framing Question

What enabled westward expansion, and what effect did it have on Native Americans?

Throughout the 1800s, people pushed the frontier west.

Moving West

The early 1800s were a time of great change for the United States. Still a young nation, the country was growing rapidly. Not only were its borders being pushed farther and farther west, but its population was increasing as well. Some American people felt that anything was possible. They had already created the government they desired, so why not create the life they desired as well? Settlers had high hopes as they packed up their belongings and moved west in greater and greater numbers.

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 had been widened, allowing them to handle wagon traffic and horses. It was now possible to travel between the main towns by stagecoach.

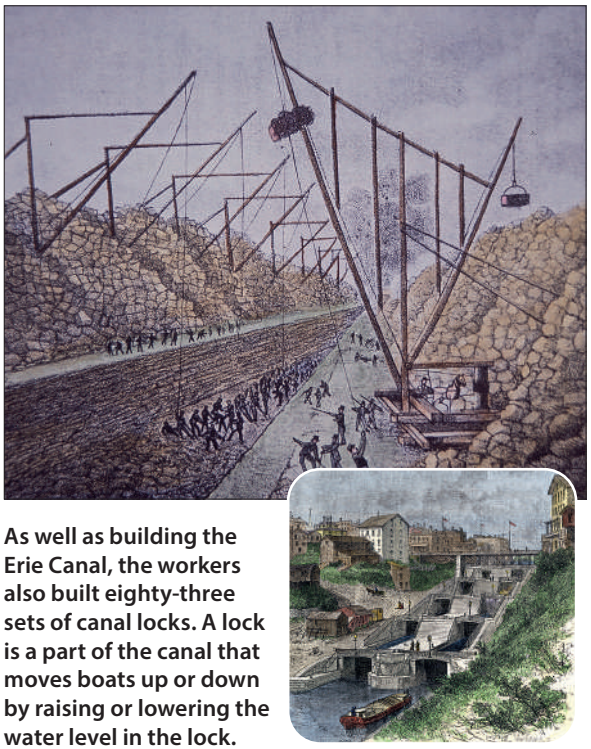
Turnpikes and Canals

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 (16 km) 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 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 solved the growing needs of people who were moving west.

Getting across the Appalachian Mountains posed a big 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 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, New York, 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 (584 km) long.

Without modern tools such as chainsaws, excavators, 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 obstacles, work on the Erie Canal began in 1817. Eight years later, the job was finished.



As well as building the Erie Canal, the workers also built eighty-three sets of canal locks. A lock is a part of the canal that moves boats up or down by raising or lowering the water level in the lock.

The Erie Canal was an instant success. Increased trade caused Buffalo, New York, 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 the success of New York with east–west canals of their own. Even though none were 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?

The Erie Canal

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.

Railroads

Not long after the success of the first canal systems, a greater improvement in transportation was introduced—the railroad. The world's first railroad service for passengers and freight began operating 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 (21 km) long. A team of horses pulled wooden coaches along the tracks, which were made of wood with strips of iron on top. In 1830, a young mechanic named Peter Cooper designed and built a steam engine to pull the coaches. This **locomotive**, as Cooper called it, could reach a speed of eighteen

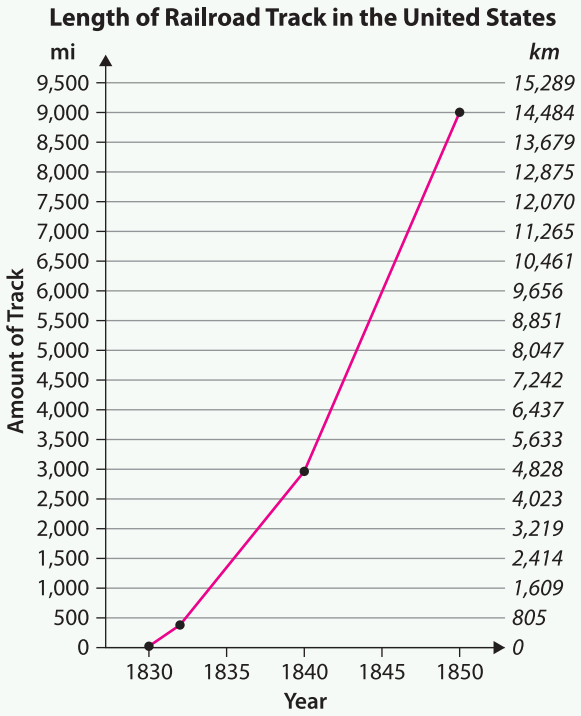
Vocabulary

locomotive, n. a railroad engine

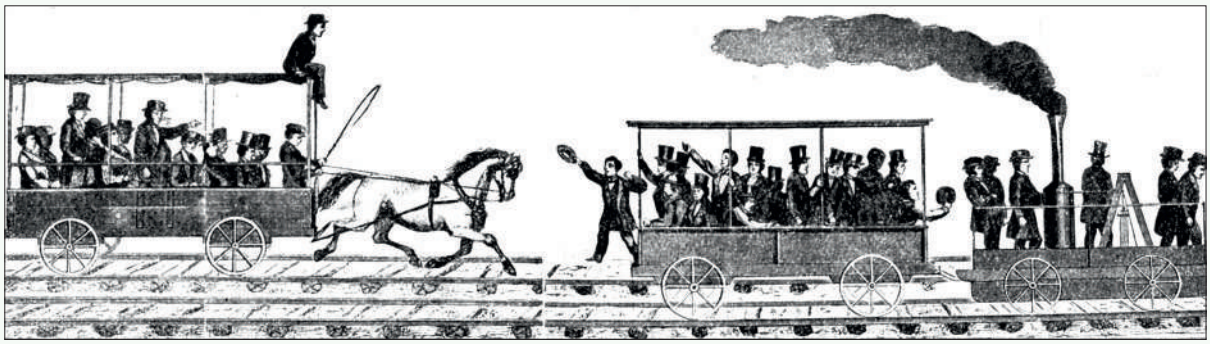
miles (29 km) per hour. In the 1840s, railroad companies started using passenger cars shaped like long boxes instead of short coaches. However, a person needed a taste for adventure to ride on one of the early railroads!

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, railroad 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 to fifty miles (65–80 km) long. At that time, there was no national railroad network. That meant each company



decided for itself how wide to make its tracks. One might build the tracks five feet (1.5 m) wide, another two inches (5 cm) wider, a third two inches (5 cm) narrower. That also meant that each company's locomotives and cars could only roll on its own tracks. Every forty to fifty miles (65–80 km), when a train reached the end of one company's line, passengers had to



People were excited about the possibilities of railroad travel. This early illustration depicts a race between Peter Cooper's locomotive, "Tom Thumb," and a horse-drawn railway carriage.

get off and walk to the next company's railroad line. Nevertheless, by the 1840s, railroads had become the most important form of transportation within the country.

Writers' Corner

Write a podcast script describing what it might have been like to travel from Baltimore, Maryland to Ellicott's Mills, Maryland on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in the 1830s.

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, canal, and railroad meant they were closer to being pushed off their land.

Most Native American peoples east of the Mississippi River had been displaced from their lands by 1830.

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 River.

Vocabulary

displacement, n. the process of removing 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 Andrew Jackson, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act in 1830 by only three votes. Afterward, some people sent petitions to Congress protesting the new law. The Indian Removal Act gave U.S. presidents extensive power to negotiate with Native American peoples east of the Mississippi River to encourage them to move westward into Indian Territory, lands that were not part of the states of Louisiana and Missouri or the Arkansas Territory. Specifically, the land set aside for tribes being removed was located in present-day Oklahoma. A few tribes, such as the Sauk and Fox in Illinois, resisted but ultimately lost the struggle. Presidents Andrew Jackson and Martin Van Buren violated the act by using coercion, fraud, and bribery to force or trick Native American peoples into moving.

Knowing that fighting against the U.S. Army was a losing battle, a group of Native American tribes that lived in the southeastern United States had 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. They farmed the land, built more permanent homes, wore the same clothing as white settlers, and even published a newspaper in English and Cherokee. Unfortunately, the efforts of the five tribes did not stop settlers from arriving and claiming their land.

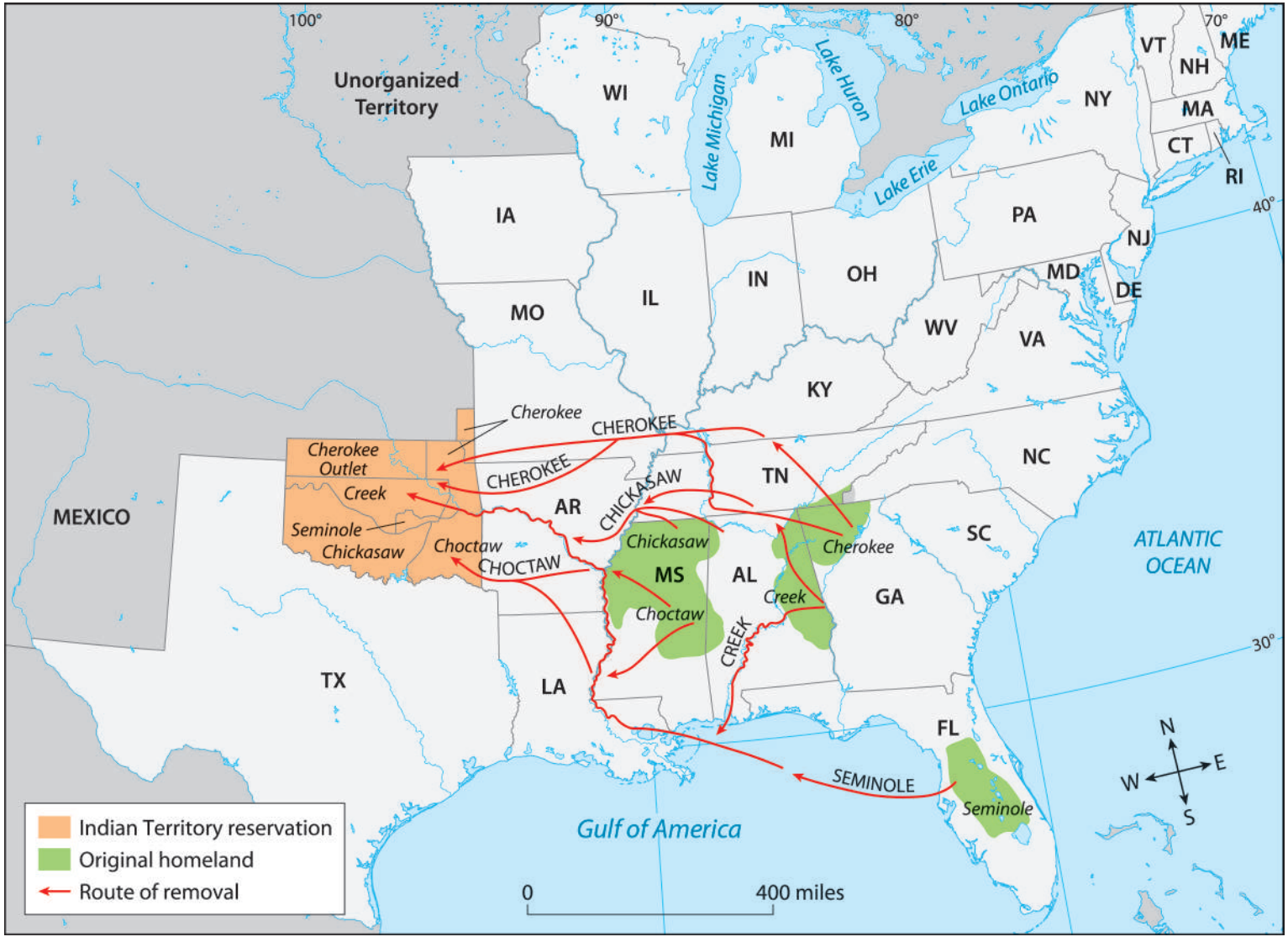
Think Twice

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?

Removal of the Five Tribes

Some Choctaw leaders decided to make a deal with the U.S. government. In 1830,

Forced Migrations of the Five Tribes



The Choctaw, Chickasaw, Creek, Cherokee, and Seminole nations were forced to leave their homelands and move west.

they signed a **treaty** with the United States. Although other Choctaw opposed this, these leaders agreed to give up Choctaw lands in Mississippi for other land in Indian Territory. The U.S. government promised to provide money and help with the move, but the government was unwilling or unable to uphold its end of the agreement. As a result, thousands of Choctaw people died on the long journey westward.

Vocabulary

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

The Chickasaw, wary of trusting the U.S. government to move them, negotiated the sale of their lands and moved themselves. They spent two years, from 1830 to 1832, working out the deal. Their journey was harsh, but they did not rely on the United States for help, so they had more freedom in choosing what route to take westward. Consequently, they suffered far less loss of life than the other nations.

Movement of the Creek did not happen all at once. In the 1820s, a Creek leader named William McIntosh negotiated the sale of Creek land for a large sum for himself. The majority of the Creek nation did not support him, and he was executed. The United States agreed to nullify the sale, but the damage had been done. American settlers began moving into Creek territory.

Clashes between the Creek and the United States escalated into a full-scale war, known as the Second Creek War (1836–37). Many Creek people were killed, and the survivors were forced out to Mobile, Alabama, and New Orleans, Louisiana. In the end, thousands of Creek people died during removal.

Of the five tribes, the Seminoles held out against the U.S. government 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 officially 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 leaders 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 to discuss peace,

Osceola, leader of the Seminoles, during their war against the United States

but it was a trick. When Osceola arrived, he was taken prisoner. Osceola was held at Fort Moultrie, in South Carolina. There, his health deteriorated, and he died. The Seminoles fought on bravely, but they were eventually defeated and sent to Indian Territory in the West during the 1850s, except for a few hundred who remained in Florida.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the experiences of the five tribes in the wake of the Indian Removal Act of 1830.

The Cherokee fought as well, but their battle was different. It began in court.

The Cherokee and the Trail of Tears

The Cherokee had made a treaty with the United States government in 1791. The treaty stated that the land where the Cherokee lived belonged to them. In the 1820s, the state of Georgia began to demand that the Cherokee nation follow new laws and regulations set by the state.

When a group of Americans, including a man named Samuel A. Worcester, moved onto Cherokee land, the state of Georgia tried to make them move off the land, claiming that they needed a **permit** from the state to live there. In fact, the government of Georgia did not want Worcester and the others on that land because they were advising the Cherokee on their legal rights and ways to enforce their treaty. Officials from Georgia arrested Worcester and the others when they refused to move off of Cherokee land.

Vocabulary

permit, n. a formal authorization to do something

The Americans were convicted and sent to prison for four years.

Worcester and the others appealed to the Supreme Court. They thought that the state of Georgia should not have the right to enforce laws within Cherokee land. They also wanted the court to weigh in on an important question—was that land Cherokee land, or was it part of the state of Georgia? The Supreme Court heard the case, called *Worcester v. Georgia*, in 1832. The court ruled in favor of Worcester, stating that the Constitution said that Native American nations were independent nations under federal supervision. Therefore, the states had no authority over Native American lands.

Think Twice

Why would the Cherokee not want Georgia to be able to require settlers to have a permit to live on Cherokee lands?

Jackson used the dispute with Georgia to put pressure on the Cherokee to sign a removal treaty. The controversial Treaty of New Echota was ratified in 1836. Two years later, President Martin Van Buren sent the US. army to force the Cherokee off their lands. The Cherokee tribe resisted removal under their leader, Tsan-Usdi, or John Ross. Chief John Ross tried many times to put a stop to removal, but he was unsuccessful, and ultimately he led his people to Oklahoma.

One tactic the soldiers used to force the Cherokee to move was entering their homes with weapons. They rounded people up and made them stay in **stockade** camps before forcing them to travel. Disease spread through the stockades. In addition, many people did not have proper clothing or supplies, having been forced to leave all their belongings behind. Even before they began to make the trip west, many people were ill and unfit to travel.

Vocabulary

stockade, n. a prison or camp guarded by the military

The journey to Indian Territory took several months. Most of the Cherokee 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. The Cherokee called this journey *Nunna daul tsuny*, which means the Trail Where They Cried, or the Trail of Tears.

Thousands of adults 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.

The Reservation System

The removal of Native Americans from their ancestral homelands continued throughout the rest of the nineteenth century. The Indian Appropriations Act, passed by Congress in 1851, established areas known as **reservations**, where the United States pushed Native Americans to live. In 1887, the Dawes Act divided land within the reservations into small plots for individuals and families.

Vocabulary

reservation, n. an area of land set aside by the federal government for Native Americans

Over time, the U.S. government decreased the amount of land in the reservations or allowed it to be decreased through sale. It also pushed more and more nations off their homelands and into reservations. The reservation system remains in place today, although not all Native American people live on reservations.

Find Out the Facts

Research more about how the reservation system has changed since it was first introduced in 1851.

PRIMARY SOURCE: EXCERPT FROM PRESIDENT ANDREW JACKSON'S FIRST ANNUAL MESSAGE, DECEMBER 8, 1829

Our conduct toward these people is deeply interesting to our national character. Their present condition, contrasted with what they once were, makes a most powerful appeal to our sympathies. Our ancestors found them the uncontrolled possessors of these vast regions. By persuasion and force they have been made to retire from river to river and from mountain to mountain, until some of the tribes have become extinct and others have left but remnants to preserve for a while their once terrible names. . . . The fate of the Mohegan, the Narragansett, and the Delaware is fast overtaking the Choctaw, the Cherokee, and the Creek. That this fate surely awaits them if they remain within the limits of the States does not admit a doubt. Humanity and national honor demand that every effort should be made to avert so great a calamity.

Source: Jackson, Andrew. "First Annual Message to Congress, December 8, 1829." In *The Statesmanship of Andrew Jackson, as Told in His Writings and Speeches*, edited by Frances Newton Thorpe. New York: The Tandy-Thomas Company, 1909, p. 58.

PRIMARY SOURCE: MEMORIAL OF THE CHEROKEE NATION (1830)

A memorial is a letter generally written to petition or persuade a political leader. The Cherokee wrote many such memorials to Congress, asking them to recognize their right to their lands and to treat them with respect as equals.

The undersigned memorialists, humbly make known to your honorable bodies, that they are free citizens of the Cherokee nation. . . .

When the ancestors of the people of these United States first came to the shores of America, they found the red man strong. . . . They met in peace, and shook hands in token of friendship. Whatever the white man wanted and asked of the Indian, the latter willingly gave. At that time the Indian was the lord, and the white man the suppliant [beggar]. But now the scene has changed. . . .

. . . Our neighbor, the state of Georgia, is pressing hard upon us, and urging us to relinquish our possessions for her benefit. We are told, if we do not leave the country, which we dearly love, and betake ourselves to the western wilds, the laws of the state will be extended over us, and the time, 1st of June, 1830, is appointed for the execution of the edict. When we first heard of this we were grieved and appealed to our father, the president, and begged that protection might be extended over us. But we were doubly grieved when we understood . . . the president had refused us protection. . . .

The land on which we stand, we have received as an inheritance from our fathers, who possessed it from time immemorial, as a gift from our common father in heaven. We have already said, that when the white man came to the shores of America, our ancestors were found in peaceable possession of this very land. They bequeathed it to us as their children, and we have sacredly kept it as containing the remains of our beloved men. This right of inheritance we have *never ceded*, nor ever *forfeited*. Permit us to ask, what better right can a people have to a country, than the right of *inheritance* and *immemorial peaceable possession*?

Source: "Memorial of the Cherokee Indians." January 20, 1830. Reprinted in *Niles' Weekly Register*, March 13, 1830, p. 53.

Chapter 2
Continued Expansion, Conflict, and Compromise

The Framing Question

How did the United States grow in the mid-1800s?

Manifest Destiny and the Push Westward

By the 1820s, the United States had expanded its borders across a large swath of North America. At this time, roughly nine out of ten Americans made a living by farming. Agriculture took up most of the land in the East. The population was also rapidly increasing. Americans sought new land to settle, but there was more to expansion 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 was supposed to respect and protect 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.*

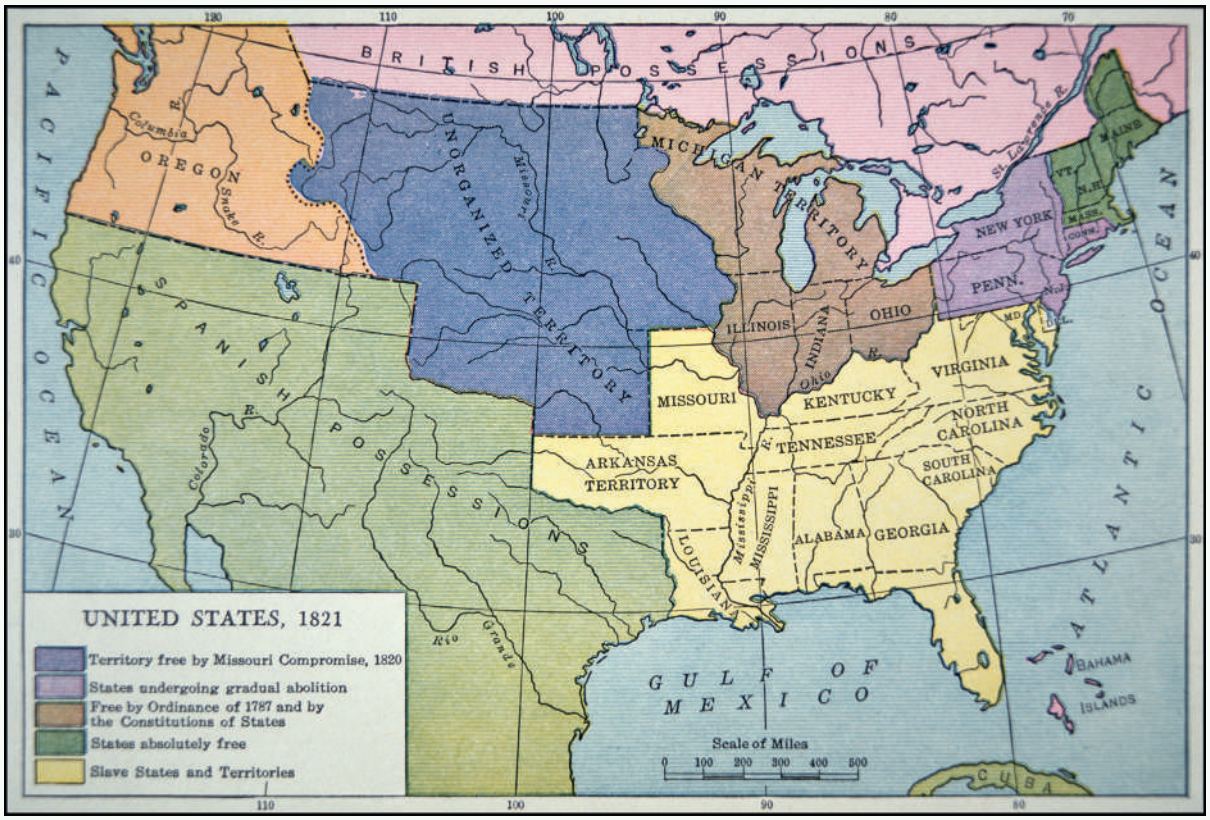
Many American artists depicted the westward expansion as progress.

At this point in history, this vision of freedom did not include Native Americans, African Americans, or women. The concept of Manifest Destiny also affected countries that controlled land along the U.S. borders. Mexico and Great Britain had claimed most of the land in these 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.

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



Even though Texas belonged to Mexico, many Americans settled there.

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 Americans had promised to adopt the Roman Catholic religion of Mexico, become loyal Mexican citizens, and free any enslaved workers they brought to Texas. The 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, far more than the five thousand Spanish-speaking Mexican residents.

Think Twice

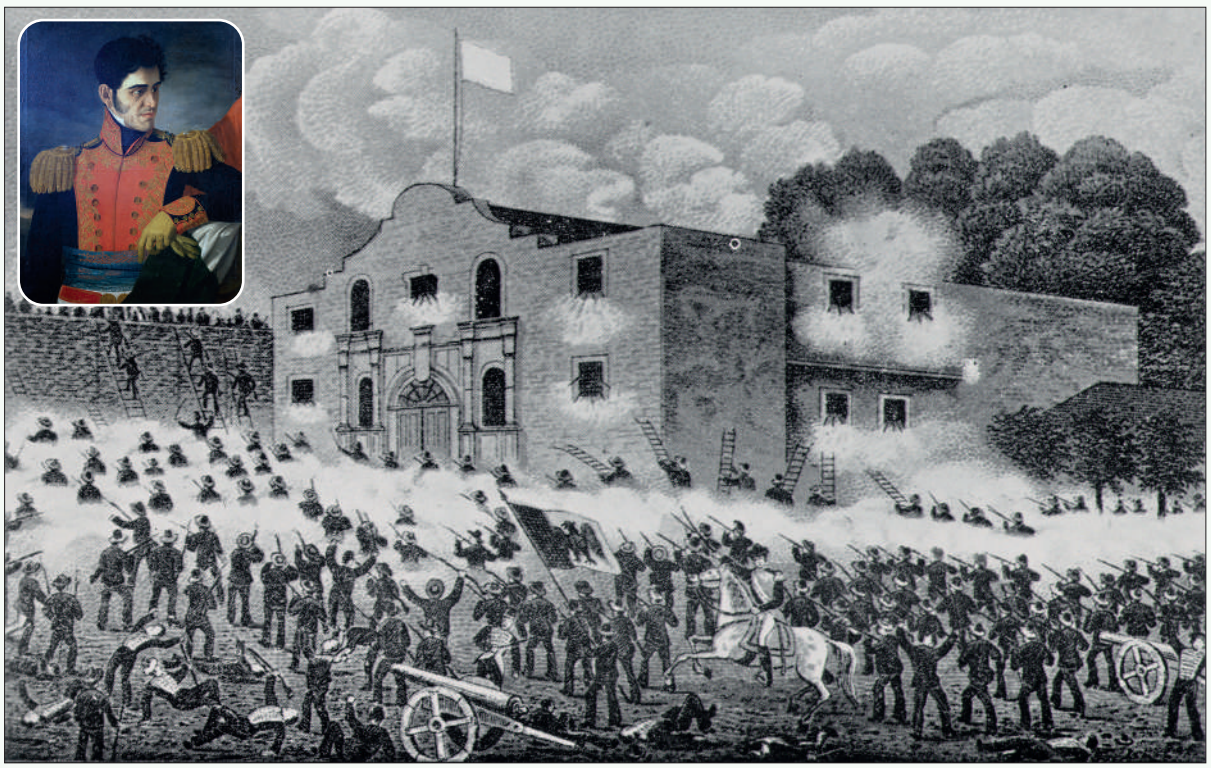
Why were Americans more willing to settle in Texas once Mexico won independence from Spain?

The Alamo

During the 1830s, the Mexican government tried to tighten its rule over Texas and eliminate slavery. Texan settlers became angry because this would mean a loss of local control and an end to their use of enslaved labor on cotton plantations. Fighting broke out with Mexican soldiers in a number of settlements. Texas leaders decided to form an army and chose Sam Houston, onetime U.S. Army officer and former governor of Tennessee, to lead it.

For 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 twenty-six-year-old William Travis. Rather than retreating, Travis and his men took shelter behind the walls of an abandoned Spanish mission known as the Alamo.

On February 23, 1836, Santa Anna gave the order to attack the Alamo. For twelve days, Mexican cannons pounded the mission. The Texans returned the fire until their



Although the Alamo fell to Santa Anna's troops, the battle there became an important symbol of resistance for Texans.

ammunition was nearly gone. In the early hours of March 6, Mexican troops stormed the walls of the Alamo and, eventually, killed its defenders. 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 forces 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 (1.6 km) away from Houston and his army. In those days, battles usually 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 soldiers to put down their guns and rest. This was Sam Houston's chance. At 4:00 p.m., Houston signaled to his troops to move out of the woods that had sheltered them and advance on the Mexican soldiers resting near the river.

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, including Santa Anna. The Texans threatened to put him to death unless he signed an agreement promising to withdraw all Mexican troops from Texas and 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 accepted enslaved labor, and many in the United States, especially in the North, did not want any more states that allowed slavery. It wasn't until 1845 that Congress agreed that Texas could become a state.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the leaders in Texas who declared its independence from Mexico.

War with Mexico

After the admission of Texas to the United States, U.S. relations with Mexico

rapidly worsened. President James K. Polk strongly supported the expansion of U.S. territory along the southern border, and this desire threatened Mexico's claim to the land there. When Mexico refused to sell large territories to the United States, President Polk moved American troops into land within Texas claimed by Mexico. Mexico responded by sending troops across the Rio Grande and attacking the American army. In May 1846, President Polk told members of Congress 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 it had invaded American land. It did not believe that the Rio Grande was the border between the two countries. Mexico claimed that the border was the Nueces (/noo*ay*says/) River,

Map of War with Mexico, 1846–48

The United States acquired most of the present-day American Southwest from Mexico in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

some 150 miles (241 km) 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 rooted in the American desire to expand the size of the United States. President Polk had his eye on even more land, including Mexican-controlled California. 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 many Native Americans. However, President Polk knew that California had 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 goods.

In 1846, President Polk offered to buy California and New Mexico from Mexico. The Mexican government refused to sell, and this is why President Polk then sent General Zachary Taylor and his soldiers across the Nueces River to station them on the bank of the Rio Grande. This provocative act put American troops onto the disputed area of land between the two rivers. President Polk expected the Mexican army to oppose this move—and they did. The outcome was war.

Think Twice

Why was the decision to move American troops across the Nueces River, onto the bank of the Rio Grande, controversial?

Not all Americans were pleased that their country had gone to war with Mexico. One such person was Abraham Lincoln, who challenged the president to point to the exact "spot" on "American soil" where American blood had been shed. In Concord, Massachusetts, a writer named Henry David Thoreau protested

the war by refusing to pay his taxes. He was put in jail for doing so. Thoreau's act of **civil disobedience** demonstrated his belief that when people believe their government is doing wrong, as a matter of conscience they should peacefully refuse to join in.

Vocabulary

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

People like Lincoln and Thoreau were in the minority, however. Most Americans supported the war, and tens of thousands of young men volunteered for the army.

In September 1846, the U.S. Army quickly struck against the Mexican forces. General Taylor marched his troops into northern Mexico and captured the town of Monterrey in a three-day battle with the trapped Mexican soldiers. Soon after, Taylor defeated Mexican forces at the Battle of Buena Vista.

A second, smaller American army marched into New Mexico and captured Santa Fe. From there, the American army marched to California and found that a handful of Americans living in Northern California had already overthrown Mexican rule. Less than eight months after the war began,

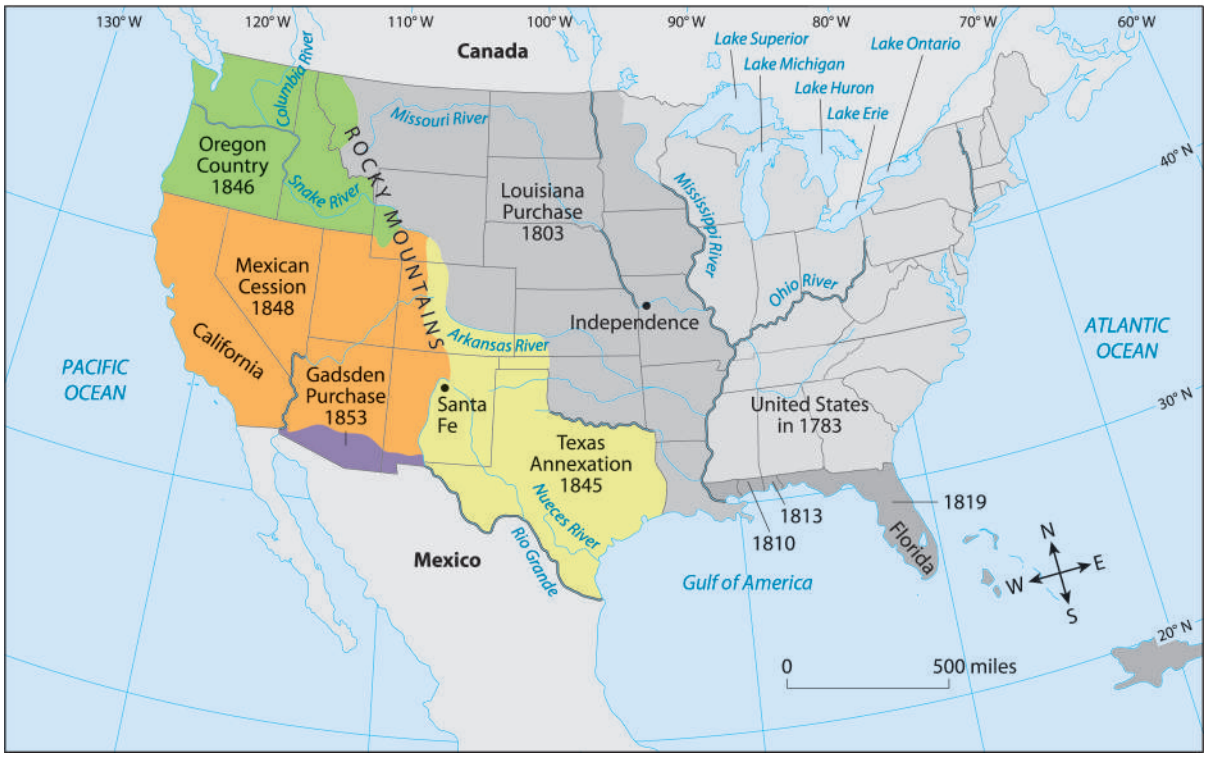
General Zachary Taylor, also known as Old Rough and Ready, led American troops to victory at the Battle of Buena Vista.

both New Mexico and California were in the hands of the United States. But there was still more fighting ahead in California.

The war finally ended after the American navy carried an American army to the shores of Mexico, where they defeated the Mexicans in several battles. Six months later, the Americans entered the Mexican capital of Mexico City in triumph.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed on February 2, 1848, officially bringing an end to the war. As part of the treaty, Mexico gave up almost all of the present-day American Southwest. California, the land that became the states of Nevada and Utah, most of what became the state of Arizona, and large parts of present-day Wyoming, New Mexico, and Colorado all became part of the United States. In return, the United States agreed to pay Mexico $15 million. This was known as the Mexican Cession.

American Expansion to the Pacific Coast



The Mexican Cession, Gadsden Purchase, and the division of Oregon Country with Britain expanded the United States' territory across the North American continent.

Five years later, the United States bought one more piece of land from Mexico. This strip of land forms the southern parts of present-day Arizona and New Mexico. It is known as the Gadsden Purchase.

In the meantime, General Zachary Taylor had become a war hero, having led American troops to important victories over Mexico. He used this popularity to enter a career in politics, running for president in 1848. He was elected and served as the twelfth president of the United States, but he became ill and died less than a year and a half later.

Oregon

Some Americans were interested in Oregon because of the animals that lived there. By 1800, beaver and otter furs had become very valuable. New England merchants sent ships around Cape Horn, the southernmost tip of South America, and up to Oregon to trade with Native Americans for furs. This journey was thousands of miles long and very dangerous. Despite this fact, many merchants were willing to risk its perils for

The Oregon Trail

The Oregon Trail began in Independence, Missouri, and ended in Oregon City, Oregon.

the profits of the fur trade. The British also set up a fur-trading company in Oregon.

Soon, both Britain and the United States had claimed the Oregon Country. Few Americans or British actually lived there. As a result, the two countries agreed to delay the issue of ownership until 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. They crossed the Rocky Mountains at South Pass and headed to Oregon. The first large group of people who traveled to Oregon set out in 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 (1.6 km) 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 (3,200-km) trip. A month or so later, when enough grass had grown along the trail for their animals to feed on, they would set out on the Oregon Trail.

Covered wagons brought settlers westward on the Oregon Trail.

Find Out the Facts

Research more about what people experienced as they traveled along the Oregon Trail.

In 1846, Britain and the United States revisited the issue of ownership of Oregon. They came to an agreement, finalized in the Oregon Treaty, which drew the border of Oregon at the forty-ninth parallel, with U.S. ownership to the south and British ownership to the north. Vancouver Island is split by this line, but the treaty gave all of Vancouver Island to Great Britain.

Searching for a New Home

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints started in western New York in 1830. Its members are known as Mormons. Its founder, a man named Joseph Smith, declared that an angel had given him a book of divine revelation that was equal to the Old and New Testaments in the Christian Bible. Because Mormon beliefs were considered a threat to a more traditional American way of life, followers of Joseph Smith faced intimidation. As a

result, they looked for a place where they could live as they wished. That place was out west.

A Mormon church leader, Brigham Young, led a small group of Mormons westward in 1846. They, too, traveled on parts of the Oregon Trail, though their route, which became known as the Mormon Trail, started in Illinois and did not end in Oregon. In July 1847, the 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 could make their own rules and live as they wished.

Within a few months, more than five hundred wagons and 1,500 of Young's followers had arrived to make a new life for themselves. Working under the direction of church leaders, the Mormons prospered. The leaders ordered that irrigation canals be dug for farming. 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.

Find Out the Facts

Research events in the life of Brigham Young.

Mormons built the City of the Saints, known today as Salt Lake City.

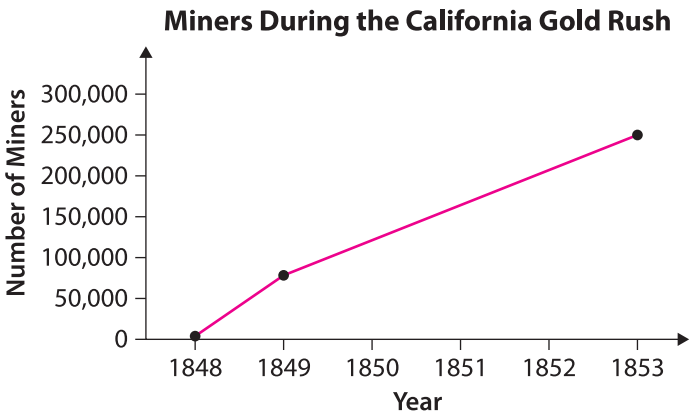
Gold in California

In January 1848, the discovery of small nuggets of gold inspired waves of settlers from across the United States and other countries to move 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. Many attacked Native Americans and seized their land. Within three decades, most of the 150,000 Native American people who had lived in California before the gold rush were dead. There would be other gold rushes in the American West, but by 1860, the great gold rush of California was just about over.

Think Twice

Why might people have been more likely to become rich by starting a business than by finding gold during this time?



Most forty-niners did not strike it rich and took on other jobs instead. Some became farmers, while others started small businesses.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about life as a forty-niner in California during this first gold rush.

Writers' Corner

Imagine you are a forty-niner. Write a letter to your family back east describing your daily life digging for gold.

Developments in Communication

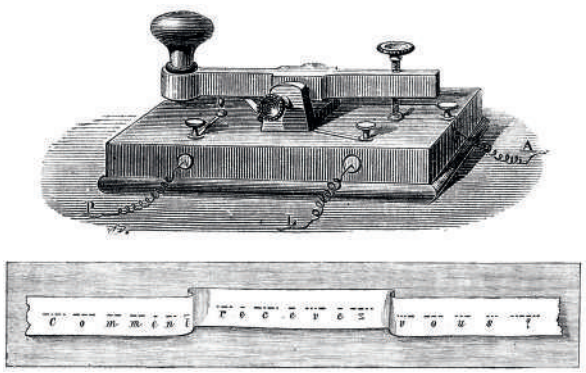
Now that the United States stretched from one side of North America to the other, people needed to be able to communicate across the vast land. Two major developments changed communication in the 1800s.

In the 1830s, two teams of inventors were granted a patent for a **telegraph** machine. One was a British group consisting of Sir William Fothergill Cooke and Sir Charles Wheatstone, while the second was an American team composed of Samuel Morse, Leonard Gale, and Alfred Vail. Their inventions sent electrical signals through a wire from a transmitter to a receiver. In 1835, Samuel Morse of New York invented a code that could be used with the telegraph machine. His system encoded all letters of the alphabet and the numbers zero through nine as dots and dashes. Using Morse code, a person could tap out a message at the transmitter that could be copied at the receiver. The message could then be translated to readable language.

Vocabulary

telegraph, n. a machine that communicates messages over long distances by sending signals through wires

Telegraph companies sprang up quickly. In 1856, the Western Union Telegraph Company was founded, and by 1861 it had laid telegraph lines across the continent. The telegraph became a major means of long-distance communication, even long after the invention of the telephone.



The telegraph machine sent electrical pulses in short and long bursts representing dots and dashes, which corresponded to a code developed by Samuel Morse.

Think Twice

Why do you think people continued to use telegraph machines even after the telephone had been invented?

Yet not everyone lived near a telegraph office. Since its founding, the United States has had a postal system to deliver letters and packages. It used riders on horses or runners on foot at first, and then later used stagecoaches and steamboats. But the now vast land was too large for this to remain a good solution.

In 1860, William Russell, Alexander Majors, and William Waddell began the Pony Express. This private company used riders on fast horses to take mail quickly along long routes. Riders stopped at stations at times to change horses and eventually to hand off the mail to new riders, relay-style.

Experienced riders on fast horses carried mail along long routes.

Unfortunately, this setup cost far too much money to last very long. In addition, the telegraph line laid by Western Union prompted many people to send messages by telegraph rather than by mail. In 1861, after only eighteen months, the Pony Express closed. Mail was thereafter delivered by train and stagecoach, and then ultimately by automobile.

The Transcontinental Railroad

In 1862, Congress passed the first Pacific Railway Act 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 (2,900 km)—longer than any railroad line ever yet built! Congress selected 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.

Vocabulary

transcontinental railroad, n. a railroad that stretches across an entire continent

The two lines would connect somewhere in between. As an incentive, the U.S. government gave each company a gift of ten square miles (26 km^2) of land alongside each mile (1.6 km) of track they laid. 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.

Such plans were indeed spectacular, but they came at a very high price for Native Americans, who continued to be displaced. The two companies building the railroad hired thousands of workers. The task was enormously difficult, as tall mountains stood in the way, and gathering the supplies to get started was a challenge. Supplies had to be brought in, often from the East. The workers had to labor in all weather. One winter, there were forty-four storms.

Most of the workers on the Central Pacific line were Chinese immigrants. They had come to California hoping to find riches in the gold fields. Now they

Without Chinese and Irish workers, it would have been impossible to complete the transcontinental railroad on time.

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*, or beams to which the rails are fastened. They built railroad bridges. Using simple tools such as hammers, chisels, pickaxes, shovels, and wheelbarrows, they cut through mountains. They used explosives, too, but they were sometimes very dangerous, and accidents and deaths occurred. You will learn more about the Chinese immigrant experience in the next chapter.

At first, the people working on the Union Pacific line were mainly Irish immigrants, but the railroad company also hired some African American, Latino, and Native American workers. Later, Civil War army veterans joined the work crews. While these workers also had to lay track across some mountains, most of their railroad 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 Great Plains can be brutally cold. Just to stay alive, the shivering workers sometimes used precious railroad ties to build bonfires.

Year after year, under the blazing summer sun and in below-zero winter cold, the work carried on. 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.

Think Twice

Why would the U.S. government have been motivated to build the transcontinental railroad?

"Free" Land

In 1862, Congress passed the Homestead Act. This law gave 160 acres (65 hectares) 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 U.S. government gave away eighty million acres (thirty million hectares) of land under the Homestead Act. The land was not really the government's to give, as it was taken from Native Americans. 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 Great Plains were already farmers who had saved some money. Still, some poor people did manage to homestead. Among them were thousands of African Americans from the South. Many of them were formerly enslaved people who 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 rest of the 1880s.

Think Twice

Why did the U.S. government have to give away land to encourage people to settle the Great Plains?

African American homesteaders, 1887

PRIMARY SOURCE: JOHN O'SULLIVAN'S EDITORIAL ON MANIFEST DESTINY (1845)

John O'Sullivan was an editor who supported the annexation of Texas. He was the first to use the term manifest destiny*, which appears in this editorial he wrote in the* United States Magazine and Democratic Review.

Texas is now ours. . . . The next session of Congress will see the representatives of the new young State in their places in both our halls of national legislation, side by side with those of the old Thirteen. Let their reception into "the family" be frank, kindly, and cheerful, as befits such an occasion, as comports not less with our own self-respect than patriotic duty towards them. . . .

Why, were other reasoning wanting, in favor of now elevating this question of the reception of Texas into the Union, . . . it surely is to be found, found abundantly, in the manner in which other nations have undertaken to intrude themselves into it, between us and the proper parties to the case, in a spirit of hostile interference against us, for the avowed object of thwarting our policy and hampering our power, limiting our greatness and checking the fulfillment of our manifest destiny to overspread the continent allotted by Providence for the free development of our yearly multiplying millions. . . .

. . . The day is not distant when the Empires of the Atlantic and Pacific would again flow together into one, as soon as their inland border should approach each other. But that great work [of a transcontinental railroad], colossal as appears the plan on its first suggestion, cannot remain long unbuilt. Its necessity for this very purpose of binding and holding together in its iron clasp our fast settling Pacific region with that of the Mississippi valley—the natural facility of the route—the ease with which any amount of labor for the construction can be drawn in from the overcrowded populations of Europe, to be paid in the lands made valuable by the progress of the work itself—and its immense utility to the commerce of the world with the whole eastern coast of Asia, alone almost sufficient for the support of such a road. . . .

Source: *United States Magazine and Democratic Review*, July–August 1845, pp. 5–10.

PRIMARY SOURCE: SAMUEL BOWLES TRAVELS ON THE UNION PACIFIC

We witnessed here the fabulous speed with which the Railroad was built. Through the two or three hundred miles beyond were scattered ten to fifteen thousand men in great gangs preparing the road bed; plows, scrapers, shovels, picks and carts; and, among the rocks, drills and powder were doing the grading as rapidly as men could stand and move with their tools. Long trains brought up to the end of the completed track loads of ties and rails; the former were transferred to teams, sent one or two miles ahead, and put in place upon the grade. Then rails and spikes were reloaded on platform cars, these pushed up to the last previously laid rail, and with an automatic movement and a celerity that were wonderful, practiced hands dropped the fresh rails one after another on the ties exactly in line, huge sledges sent the spikes home, the car rolled on, and the operation was repeated; while every few minutes the long heavy train behind sent out a puff from its locomotive, and caught up with its load of material the advancing work. The only limit, inside of eight miles in twenty-four hours, to the rapidity with which the track could thus be laid, was the power of the road behind to bring forward the materials.

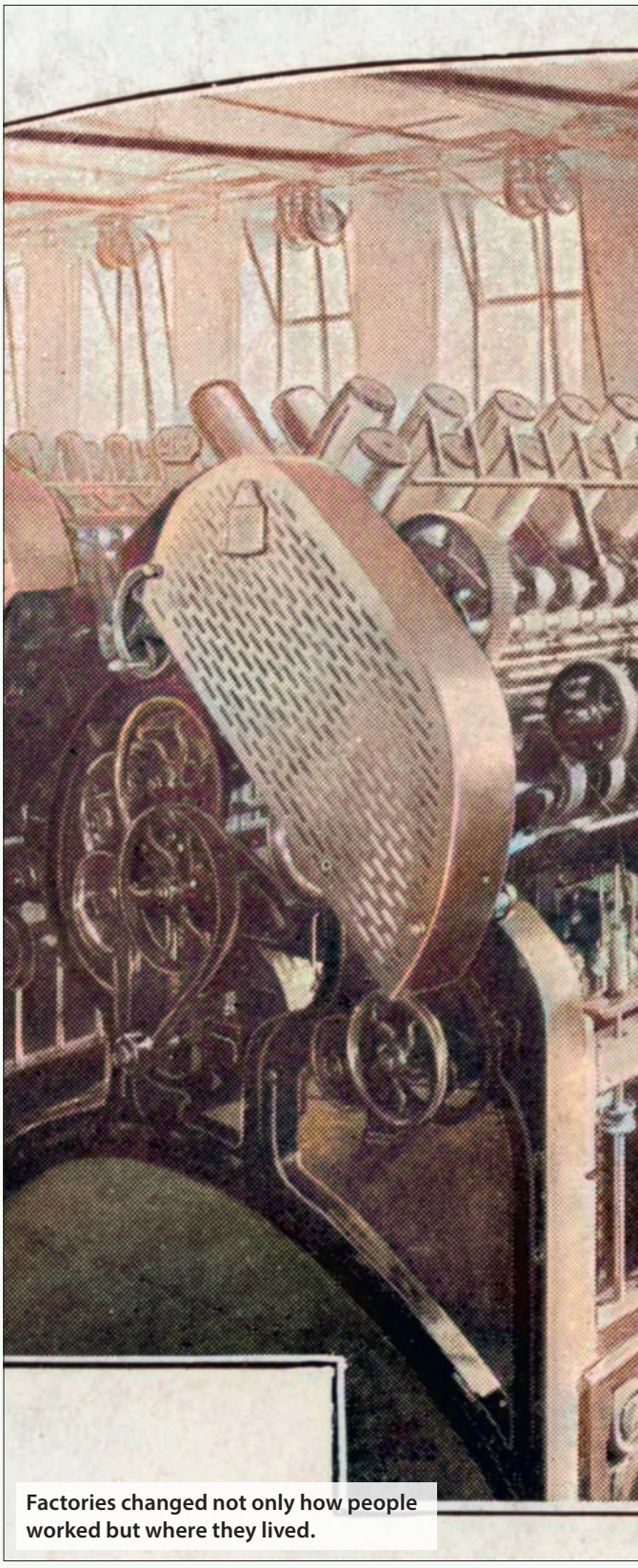
As the Railroad marched thus rapidly across the broad Continent of plain and mountain, there was improvised a rough and temporary town at its every public stopping-place. As this was changed every thirty or forty days, these settlements were of the most perishable materials—canvas tents, plain board shanties, and turf-hovels—pulled down and sent forward for a new career, or deserted as worthless, at every grand movement of the Railroad company. Only a small proportion of their populations had aught to do with the road, or any legitimate occupation. Most were the hangers-on around the disbursements of such a gigantic work, catching the drippings from the feast in any and every form that it was possible to reach them. Restaurant and saloon keepers, gamblers, desperadoes of every grade, the vilest of men and of women made up this "Hell on Wheels," as it was most aptly termed.

Source: Morris, Richard B., and James Woodress, ed. *The Westward Movement, 1832–1889*. Webster Publishing, 1961, pp. 33–34.

Chapter 3
Regional Development and Interactions

The Framing Question

How did technology and immigration shape the early United States?



Factories changed not only how people worked but where they lived.

A Changing Nation

The first half of the 1800s was a time of great change for the United States. This was not only because the country's borders expanded dramatically. The people who moved into the new regions changed the land. New technologies shaped how people worked, lived, and played. And many, many people from all over the world moved to the United States, bringing with them their own cultural influences.

Changing Technology

Some of the new technologies that transformed the United States were first developed over three thousand miles (4,800 km) away, in Great Britain. At this time in Great Britain, the invention of new machinery was transforming cloth-making. One machine spun cotton into thread two hundred times faster than a person using a spinning wheel, and another wove the thread into hundreds of yards of cloth in a single day. Before long, British **manufacturers** had constructed large mills to house the machines and produce cloth in large quantities. Fast-moving water from nearby streams turned wheels attached to the machines to power them.

Vocabulary

manufacturer, n. a person or company that makes or produces an item to be sold

With this technology, British manufacturers soon cornered the market by producing cloth faster and cheaper than their competitors.

Merchants were soon selling British **textiles** all over the world, bringing riches to the country. To keep this advantage, the British government tried to prohibit anyone from selling a spinning or weaving machine to another country or transporting plans for making one out of Great Britain.

Vocabulary

textile, n. cloth or fabric

In 1789, a young mill worker by the name of Samuel Slater defied these laws and boarded a ship bound for America, intending to share his knowledge of the spinning machine with American manufacturers. In 1793, in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, Slater and two American partners opened the first **cotton-spinning mill** in the United States. Over the next two decades, dozens of other spinning mills sprang up in New England, where fast-flowing streams and rivers provided the power to run the machines.

Vocabulary

cotton-spinning mill, n. a factory that makes thread or yarn from cotton

Think Twice

Why was it so important to Great Britain to keep the knowledge of how to make spinning and weaving machines a secret?

Industrialization of the North

These early mills in America produced only cotton thread, not cloth. That still had to be made the old way—by people weaving on their handlooms (weaving devices operated by hand) at home. A trip to Great Britain in 1810 by a Boston merchant named Francis Lowell changed that. While visiting a weaving factory, Lowell quickly grasped the principles on which the power looms worked. Back home, he persuaded several wealthy Boston friends to join him in building a factory that would do even more. In 1814, the Waltham Associates, as they were called, opened their factory in the town of Waltham, Massachusetts, not far from Boston. There, under one roof, machines spun cotton into thread, workers dyed the thread, and other machines wove it into finished cloth. Lowell and his friends soon built more factories nearby, as did other investors.

With the opening of these mills, **industrialization** greatly accelerated in

Vocabulary

industrialization, n. a shift to the widespread use of machines and factories to produce goods

America. By the 1820s and 1830s, factories were producing other goods as well. There were mills that turned wheat into flour and others that turned trees into lumber. Factories did not depend on machines alone, however. There were factories in which people worked to make products by hand, such as shoes, clocks, kitchen pots and pans, and many other goods, in hundreds of such bustling workshops. The goods traveled from the factories to hundreds of thousands of family farms in the North and West. Farmers paid for the goods by shipping their wheat, corn, barley, and other crops to markets in the East. From there, many of those crops were sent by ship to other countries.

All this new manufacturing and trade led to the rapid growth of cities in the North. At the time of the Revolutionary War, there were only five cities in the whole country, including the largest city, Philadelphia, with about forty thousand residents. By 1850, there were over one hundred cities, located mostly in the North and Midwest. People flocked to the cities because they could find work there, which led to an increase in their populations. New York City alone had half a million people. Philadelphia was not far behind. Pittsburgh, Chicago, and Cincinnati were also growing rapidly. This period of rapid change because of industrialization is known as the first Industrial Revolution.

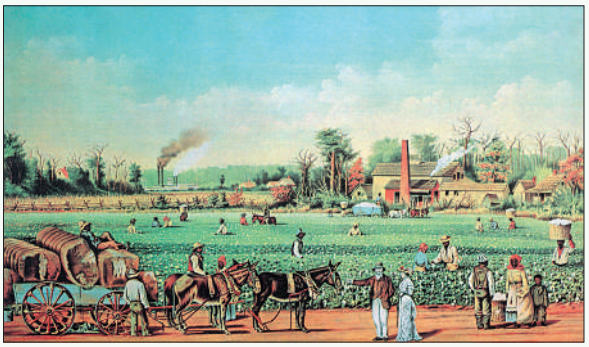
Find Out the Facts

Research more about the first factories in the United States.

The Agrarian South

While the North was gradually becoming more urban, the South remained rural. There were far fewer large cities and factories in the South, as people concentrated their efforts on agriculture.

A small percentage of these farmers owned plantations, or very large farms. Plantation owners lived in extravagant mansions and had large numbers of enslaved African American workers. Most of the money the plantation owners made from farming came from growing cash crops such as tobacco, rice, indigo, sugar, and cotton. Cotton in particular 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, and northern textile mills were the largest customers for southern cotton. Textile mills in Britain and France bought



Plantations required a lot of labor, most of which was done by enslaved people.

southern cotton, too. Southern cotton was king!

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. However, growing more cotton inexpensively required more enslaved workers. The plantation owners grew wealthy at the expense of those they enslaved.

Vocabulary

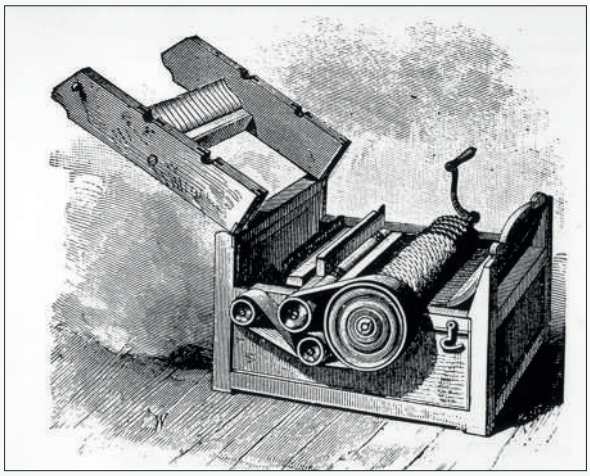
cotton gin, n. a machine that extracts cotton seeds from fibers

Think Twice

Why did plantation owners still use large numbers of enslaved workers even after the invention of the cotton gin?

Changing Regions, Changing Laws

Changes were also happening in terms of laws that governed how people lived and worked. The first few decades of the 1800s saw the Supreme Court make decisions in several important cases that affected the regions of the country. In *Marbury v. Madison* (1803), the court established the principle of judicial review. This means that it established the court's ability to declare a law unconstitutional. In *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819), the court determined that states could not interfere with Congress in conducting business, and that Congress could take actions to fulfill its duties even if those actions are not mentioned in the Constitution. In *Gibbons v. Ogden* (1824), the court determined that interstate commerce was regulated by the federal, not state, government, and that states could not create laws that interfered with federal ones. All of these cases established important precedents that would determine the course of many laws and rulings later on.



The cotton gin, invented by Eli Whitney, made the work of separating cotton from seeds much faster.

Louisiana and Sugar

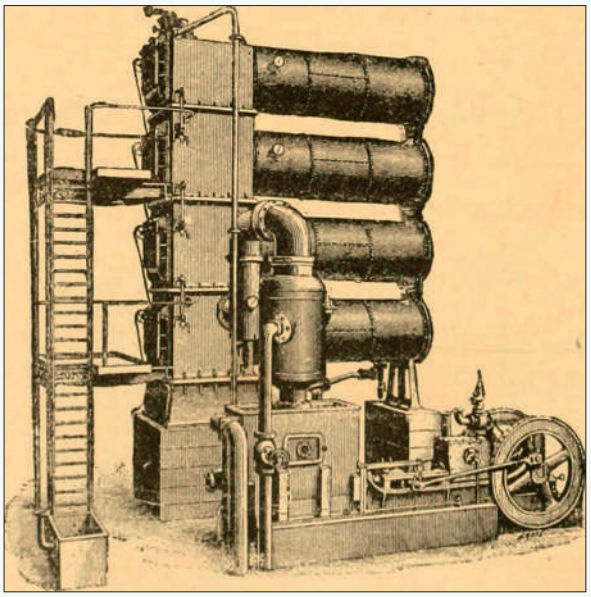
The cotton gin wasn't the only invention that revolutionized an industry. In the 1830s, Norbert Rillieux, a New Orleans resident who was the free son of an enslaved African American woman, developed a device called the **multiple-effect evaporator**. This machine improved the production of sugar, an important crop in Louisiana. Before its invention, the process of refining sugar from sugarcane was long and involved the precise work of many enslaved people. The process began by grinding sugarcane to obtain its juice, which was then boiled in a series of kettles. As each kettle boiled off steam, the juice was transferred to the next one, until finally enough water had boiled off that crystals began to form. It would then be moved to a vat to cool.

The timing of the transfer between the kettles had to be exact, or the sugar would be ruined. In addition, the work was dangerous, often causing burns. Rillieux wanted to find a way to refine sugar that was safer and more efficient.

His invention did just that. Rather than boiling sugar four different times, the multiple-effect evaporator captured the

Vocabulary

multiple-effect evaporator, n. a system that refines materials by removing water in a series of steps under a vacuum



The multiple-effect evaporator, invented by Norbert Rillieux, revolutionized the process of refining sugar similarly to the way the cotton gin revolutionized the process of picking seeds from cotton.

steam from each stage of the process and used it to heat the next stage. It also used a partial vacuum on the setup to lower the boiling point of the sugar. Not only did this keep the dangerously hot steam contained, it also saved on fuel because only the first stage had to be heated. This lowered the production cost of sugar.

Rillieux's invention revolutionized the sugar industry. But that wasn't the end of its usefulness. Eventually, it became clear that the evaporator could be used to condense other substances as well, such as milk, soap, and glue. It is still widely used in many industries today.

Find Out the Facts

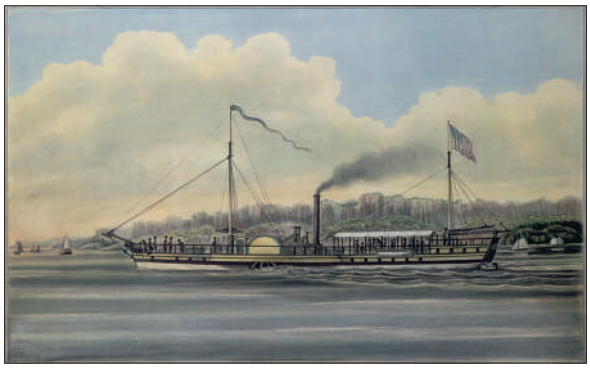
Find out more about how the multiple-effect evaporator is still used today.

The Steamboat

As the economy and size of the United States grew, a new challenge appeared: how to move products over long distances. While some transportation improvements had been made in the North and East, it was difficult for westerners to transport their products to market over land. Rivers provided a better way to do that. Most of the streams west of the Appalachian Mountains emptied into the Ohio River, which, in turn, emptied into the Mississippi River. Farmers established their farms along these waterways so they could transport goods downstream to the port of New Orleans via flatboats. Then their goods could be loaded onto ships destined for other countries or ports in the East.

Unfortunately, it was very difficult to steer a flatboat upstream against the current to make the return trip. Robert Fulton, the son of Irish immigrants, had an idea to remedy this situation. He invented the steamboat. Essentially, he 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 functioned like oars and propelled the boat through the water. In August 1807, Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made the 150-mile trip from New York City to Albany in only thirty-two hours. This was far less time than a horse-drawn wagon would take—and the steamboat carried a much larger cargo. Soon, steamboats were carrying passengers and goods on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers.

One steamboat captain was named Henry Miller Shreve. Shreve began working on boats on the Monongahela, Ohio, and



Robert Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made the trip from New York City to Albany much faster than a horse-drawn wagon could.

Mississippi Rivers at the age of fourteen, after his father died. Shreve soon became captain of his own boat.

But there was a problem. Fulton claimed a **monopoly** on steamboat trade on the lower Mississippi. When the War of 1812 began, Shreve saw an opportunity. He invested money in a new, powerful steamboat called the *Enterprise* and offered to captain the vessel on its first journey from Pittsburgh to New Orleans.

Vocabulary

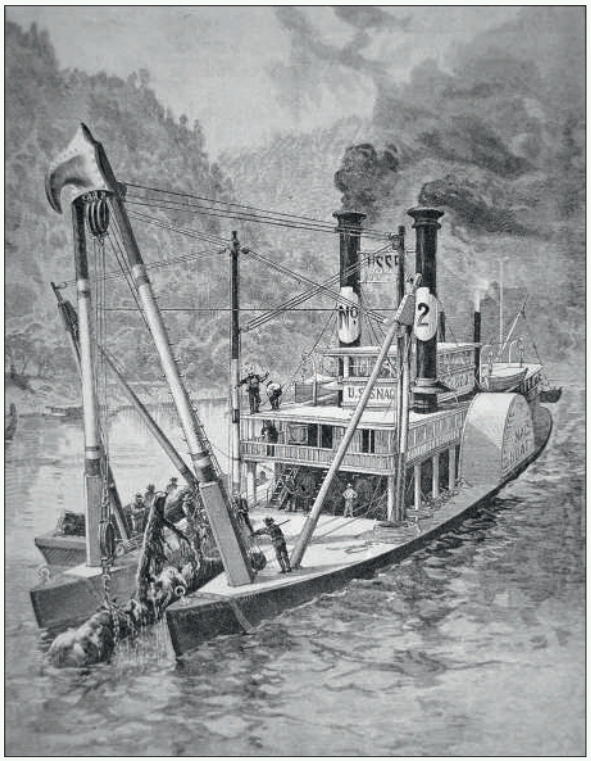
monopoly, n. the complete control of the supply of a good or service by one person, country, or company

In 1814, Shreve left Pittsburgh aboard the *Enterprise*, bound for New Orleans, which was currently under attack. Andrew Jackson and his army needed supplies, and Shreve brought them to him, despite the monopoly held by Fulton's company. Shreve reached New Orleans and delivered the supplies to Jackson, but Jackson still needed help. Shreve placed the *Enterprise* in Jackson's service, ferrying supplies and troops to the forts downriver, as well as fetching more supplies and reinforcements. Jackson's success in the battle helped Shreve end the monopoly on trade on the lower Mississippi.

Find Out the Facts

Find out about the role Shreve played in the War of 1812.

In 1826, Shreve was appointed superintendent of western river improvement, a government job that tasked him with improving navigation on the Mississippi. To that end, he tackled the problem of "snags," fallen logs that blocked the river. He designed a special boat that could get rid of the snags, even when they blocked the rivers so completely that someone could ride a horse across them. This was the situation on the Red River in upper Louisiana, which had made water travel there impossible. Shreve opened the river for travel and trade, bringing commerce to the region. His camp on the river grew into a city, which is today the city of Shreveport.



Henry Miller Shreve's design allowed boats to remove "snags," opening upper Louisiana for river travel.

Coming to America

In the earliest days of the United States, from the 1770s through the 1820s, not many people **immigrated** to it. There were two main reasons why. One was that during many of those years, European countries were at war with each other. They fought each other on the seas as well as on land, and they didn't much care about anyone who got in the way. That made traveling on the oceans dangerous. Anyone thinking of moving to America would have to think twice before making that voyage.

Vocabulary

immigrate, v. to move into a country from a different one

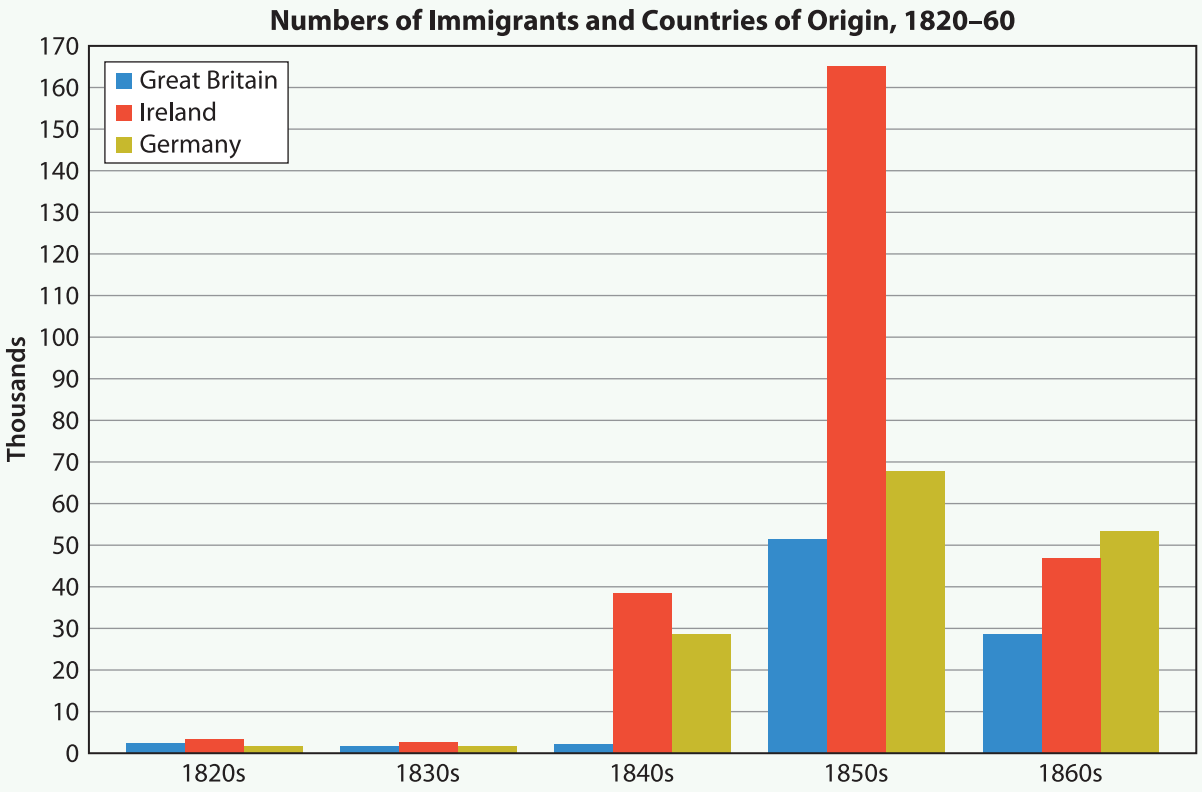
The second reason was that those same warring nations made it difficult for their citizens to leave. Their governments believed that losing population would weaken their ability to carry on the wars. Several European governments tried to stop **emigration** altogether.

Vocabulary

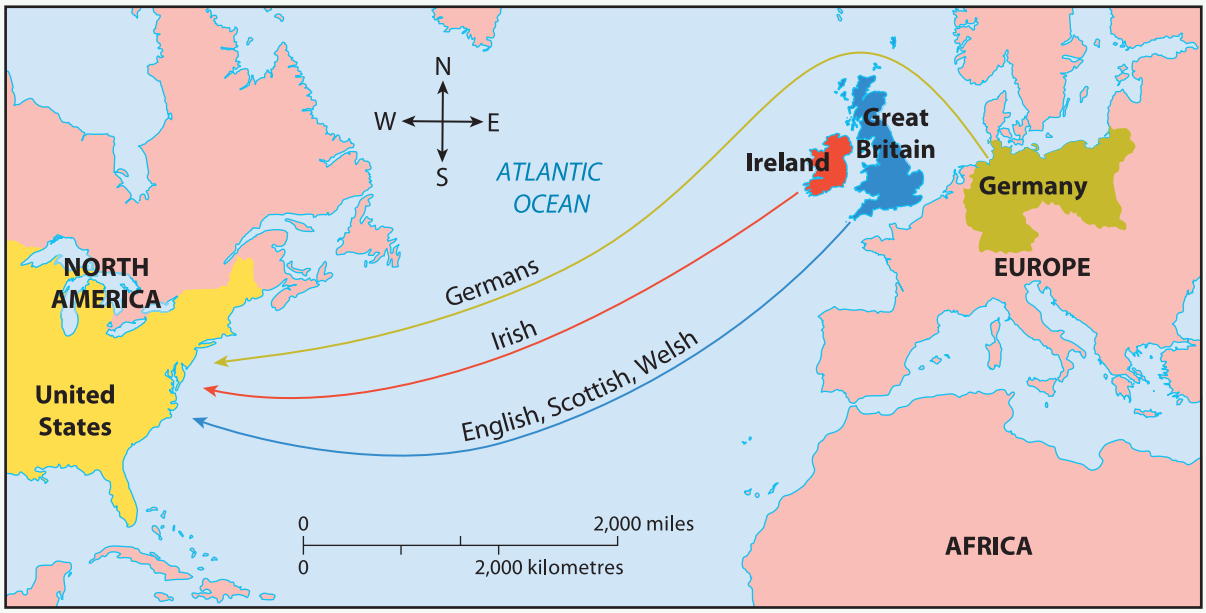
emigration, n. the movement of people out of a country

Eventually, though, both of those barriers fell. By the 1830s, the movement of immigrants to America had become a steady stream. In the twenty years after that, it became a mighty river. By 1860, just before the start of the Civil War, more than one out of every eight people living in the United States was born somewhere else.

Why were so many people ready to give up everything familiar—their hometowns and villages, often their families, and almost always their friends—for life in a strange new land? Obviously, the reasons were not the same for all who came.



Immigration, 1820–60



In the mid-nineteenth century, most immigrants to the United States came from Ireland and Germany.

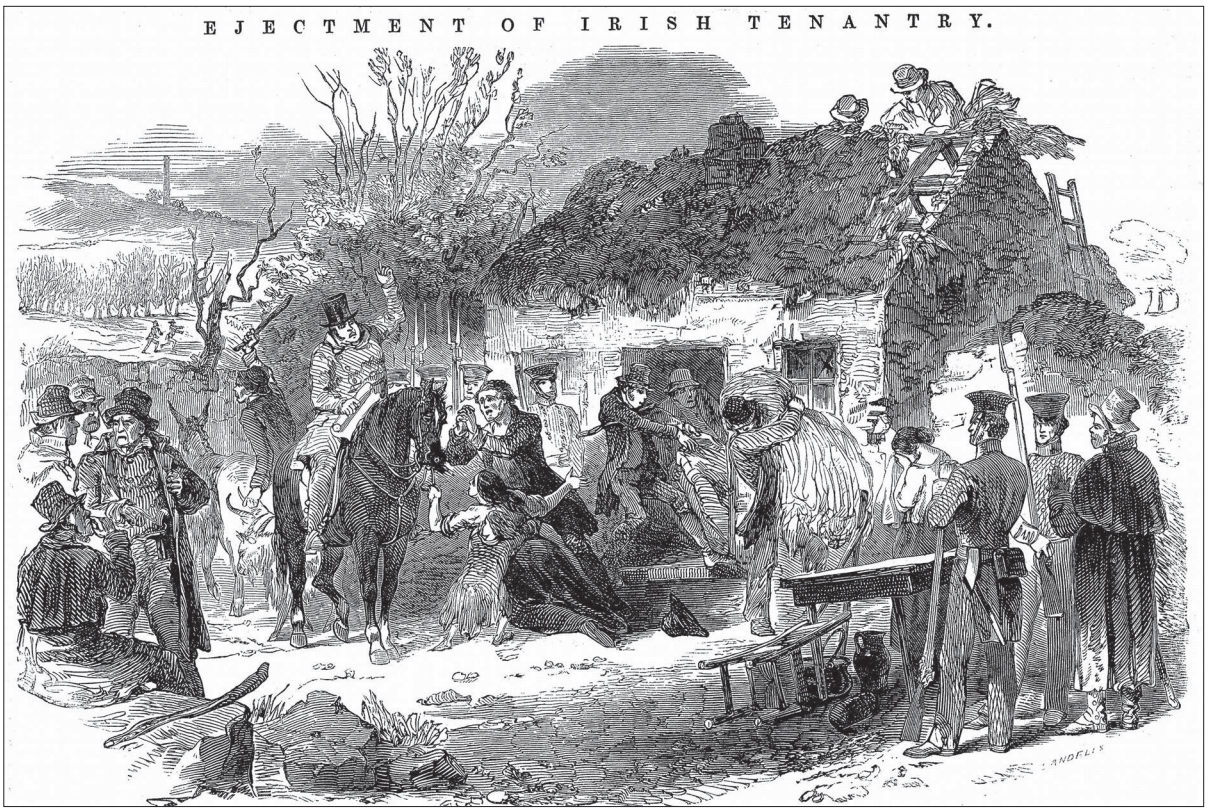
In general, there was a "push" and a "pull" in each person's decision to set off for America.

Think Twice

Why was the United States such an attractive place for people to move to, rather than other countries?

The Push to Emigrate

The main push for most immigrants was economic. At that time, most people in every European country, as well as everywhere else in the world, made a living by farming. Between 1750 and 1850, the population in western Europe doubled, but the amount of farmland did not. That meant that farming families had to make do with less land. Working on smaller plot, without the aid of modern fertilizers and farming equipment, families with farms found it increasingly difficult to grow enough food for their needs, even under the best of conditions. A bad turn in the weather, a crop disease, or anything that reduced the harvest could spell disaster for them.



One million Irish people died of starvation and disease during a famine caused in large part by potato blight.

Hundreds of thousands of Germans moved to America because of crop failures. And in Ireland, a disease known as potato **blight** wiped out nearly the entire crop between 1845 and 1849. Starvation was everywhere. Over the next several years, more than a million Irish people left for America.

Vocabulary

blight, n. a disease that causes plants to dry up and die

Think Twice

What factors discouraged European farmers from continuing to live in Europe?

In a few countries, there was another economic push factor. In Great Britain and in some of the German lands, industrialization had begun. In time, factories would mean more jobs, not fewer. But in the early stages of the factory system, machines replaced skilled workers, leaving them without jobs. Some took jobs in the new factories, but many others chose to leave their homeland.

Religious and political persecution were, for some, also push factors. Protestant groups, such as the Mennonites and the Amish, were eager to flee religious persecution in Germany. In addition, liberals who had supported the revolutions for more political rights that swept through Europe in 1830 and 1848 often felt they had to leave after those revolutions failed.

The Pull of America

What about those pull factors that attracted so many people to America? What ideas did these future immigrants have about America, and where did they get them?

Newspapers and books were two important sources of information. Europeans were extremely curious about this newest of nations, and their newspapers regularly carried stories about life in the United States, as well as ads posted by American businesspeople who hoped to attract cheap European labor. Hundreds of European visitors returned to write books about their travels. They even published guidebooks about the new land in half a dozen languages.

Most important, though, were the letters written by relatives and friends who had already moved to America. They were passed from one member of a family to another, published in local newspapers,

Wages were higher in American textile factories, and that encouraged European workers to set off for better opportunities there. This meant that there would be fewer workers in places such as Great Britain.

and read aloud to groups that assembled in the village centers. These letters led to the outbreak of what came to be called American fever. Sometimes the fever struck an entire village and carried away many of its residents to America. People from all over the world looked to this new country, and many did whatever they could to get there. And so by 1860, America had become the new home for so many.

Of course, not all the letters home were so positive about America. Some immigrants reported not finding work or being disappointed with the reality of life in the new country. This might have dampened enthusiasm for immigrating. But then a letter might come with money, maybe more than a European relative would see in years of hard work. American fever would rise all over again.

Writers' Corner

Imagine you are an immigrant to the United States in the early 1800s. Write a letter to your family in another country describing your new life in the United States.

Moving On

Most of the ships that brought immigrants from Europe did business with the East Coast ports of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Baltimore, so that is where most European immigrants first landed. But a large number traveled on freighters bound for New Orleans. For them, that city was their introduction to America.

Many immigrants planned from the beginning to move on from the port where they landed. Just where they would move depended on the city they arrived in, the amount of money in their pockets when they arrived, their skills, and especially the locations where others of their nationality had already settled.

Many of the German immigrants who arrived during the decades before the Civil War entered the United States through New Orleans. Many of them came with enough money to buy farmland. Most made their way up the Mississippi River and carved out farms in Missouri, Ohio, Illinois, and Wisconsin.

Immigrants with special work skills often went where there was a demand for those skills. A Welsh coal miner, for example, would head for the coal mines of eastern Pennsylvania. A British textile worker would go to a town where cottons or woolens were being manufactured—usually in Massachusetts, New York, or Pennsylvania. And of course, it was natural for immigrants to settle where relatives, friends, and others from their country were already living. Living among their own made their adjustment to America a bit easier.

Think Twice

Why was New Orleans a common port for immigrants to enter the United States?

Remaining in the Cities

A good number of immigrants who came in this wave of immigration in the 1830s, 1840s, and 1850s remained in the cities where they landed. About one in every five people who arrived before the Civil War was a skilled worker who had lived in a town or city in Europe. They included cabinetmakers, tailors, carpenters, weavers, shoemakers, printers, and bookbinders. Those were still the days before machines replaced such skills in the United States. Skilled workers settled in

American cities because that's where they could find customers for their services.

As for the other four-fifths, who had made their living from the land, most were too poor to travel beyond the cities where they landed. They had to find work quickly. Without skills, they had nothing to sell but their muscle power and their time. They took whatever work they could get, at whatever pay they were offered.

Cities had plenty of jobs that needed doing. There were streets to be swept, ships to be loaded and unloaded, stables to be cleaned, garbage and trash to be hauled, ditches to be dug, and heavy loads to be carried. In the 1850s, there were thousands of such jobs in New York City alone—and most of them were held by immigrants! Another kind of job open to immigrant women in the cities was domestic work—that is, working as a maid or a house cleaner.

Living conditions for most immigrants in American cities were simply dreadful. After it rained, the upper floors of many tenements were completely flooded. Also, living areas were crowded. Six people might live in a room the size of a large closet!

Find Out the Facts

Research more about the life of immigrants in New York City in the mid-1800s.

Jacob Riis was a powerful writer and photographer who exposed the poor living conditions of immigrants in New York City. This photograph, taken by Riis in 1890, shows a place known as Bandit's Roost on Mulberry Street in New York City's lower Manhattan area. It was crime ridden and dangerous, with a great deal of poverty.

Immigration in the West

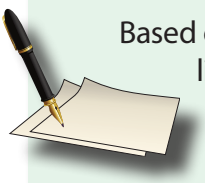
As you have learned, in addition to European immigrants, people came to America from Asia. When news of gold in California reached China and Hong Kong in 1849, Chinese people traveled to the West Coast of America, often entering the country through the city of San Francisco. About twenty-five thousand people had emigrated from China to America by 1851, and another twenty thousand arrived in 1852. Many of the earliest Chinese immigrants came from the southern Chinese province of Guangdong.

Men often came to work in the gold mines, hoping to become rich. This was not what happened for most Chinese laborers, though, and they faced immense challenges securing work and supporting themselves. Many immigrants from China were young, without formal education or work experience. The expanding railroads provided an opportunity for these laborers, and more than ten thousand Chinese men worked to build the Central Pacific Railroad in the 1860s. The pay was low, the work was physically demanding, and many workers were killed or injured on the job. Still, it was an opportunity that many Chinese immigrants could not turn down. Others started new businesses in mining towns, agricultural areas, and cities throughout the West.

Think Twice

Why did so many Chinese immigrants work on the Central Pacific Railroad?

Writers' Corner



Based on your research of immigrant life in various parts of the United States during the mid-1800s, write a paragraph about what you would do if you were a person living in another country at the time. Would you make the move to America? Why or why not? Where in the country would you try to go?

The Rise of Nativism

As more and more immigrants arrived, many people born in the United States became wary of them. They feared that immigrants were changing America—and changing it for the worse. They were no longer confident that these newcomers would become American quickly, or that they would become American at all. Such strong anti-immigrant feeling is called **nativism**.

Vocabulary

nativism, n. a preference for people born in one's own country rather than immigrants

In the American West, a current of nativism ran strong against Chinese immigrants. They were ridiculed and discriminated against wherever they went. They were also victims of robbery, beatings, and even murder, and those responsible were rarely punished.

State governments contributed to nativist sentiment as well. The California government issued a tax in 1850 that required noncitizen miners to pay twenty dollars each month for the right to mine. People resisted, and the law was taken off

Anti-Chinese Discrimination

The U.S. Congress passed two laws that later legalized anti-Chinese discrimination. The first, in 1870, was designed to make it impossible for any Chinese immigrant, even one who had lived in the United States for years, to become an American citizen. The second, in 1882, prohibited Chinese laborers from immigrating to the United States. This law was known as the Chinese Exclusion Act. It remained an American law for more than sixty years.

the books in 1851, only to be replaced in 1852 with yet another tax of four dollars a month for foreign miners.

The United States changed as it grew. As the nation expanded across the continent, different regional identities emerged. These regions were defined by many factors, especially the local economy and the cultures of the people who lived and worked there. Over time, these regions became more distinct. The North was relatively urban and industrialized, home to 81 percent of the nation's factories in 1861. It became wealthy through the creation of goods from raw materials. Slavery was illegal there. By contrast, the South was rural, and enslaved labor was widely used in the agrarian economy. Southern wealth came from growing cash crops, especially cotton bound for factories. Although their economies were linked, the cultures of North and South drifted apart. People of each region took increasing pride in their regional identity—and hostility to other regions grew alongside this pride.

Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the Chinese Exclusion Act and why it was eventually repealed.

PRIMARY SOURCE: RECOLLECTIONS OF A EUROPEAN IMMIGRANT

This excerpt is from a book by Norwegian immigrant Andreas Ueland. He was the son of a farmer and politician, and he immigrated to the United States in 1871 as a teenager.

It was still Whitsunday when I reached the village tavern, as country-town hotels were then called. I had not been there an hour when in comes a farmer who could see I was a newcomer and spoke to me in Norwegian. Would I like to work for him grubbing, fifty cents a day and board [housing]? Yes, indeed, I would like that kind of work very much. So off at once, emigrant chest and all, in his farm wagon, to his log house a mile from town; up early next morning, with ax and grubbing hoe, into the brush and timber of the hottest bluffs in Minnesota, grubbing away for dear life. And sweated—I came near saying like an ox, but that is inapt here, as no ox ever sweated as I did. . . .

No telling what my future might have been had I continued to work on that farm. . . .

But the hired man, besides teaching me English, told me about Minneapolis, the biggest city in the state, and how it was then booming, and he made me believe that there I ought to be. . . .

The change taught me how much better it is for a newcomer to stay in the country among farmers of his nationality until he has learned a little English. I was safe and felt almost at home on that farm. . . . The situation became very different in a boarding house in Minneapolis for workers in the saw-mills and in the lumber yards. Their work was very heavy, too heavy for a boy of my years. The board was good enough but the rooms poor and not too clean. . . . In the log house they thought I was a rather interesting young man, but at the boarding house I was a common newcomer-greenhorn, in whom nobody felt interested, and to whom none suggested where to go and look for work.

Source: Ueland, Andreas. *Recollections of an Immigrant*. New York: Minton, Balch, & Company, 1929, pp. 26–28.

PRIMARY SOURCE: RECOLLECTIONS OF A CHINESE IMMIGRANT

When I went to work for that American family I could not speak a word of English, and I did not know anything about housework. The family consisted of husband, wife and two children. They were very good to me and paid me $3.50 a week, of which I could save $3. . . .

In six months I had learned how to do the work of our house quite well, and I was getting $5 a week and board, and putting away about $4.25 a week. I had also learned some English, and by going to a Sunday school I learned more English and something about Jesus, who was a great Sage, and whose precepts are like those of Kong-foo-tsze [Confucius].

It was twenty years ago when I came to this country, and I worked for two years as a servant, getting at the last $35 a month. I sent money home to comfort my parents. . . .

When I first opened a laundry it was in company with a partner, who had been in the business for some years. We went to a town about 500 miles inland, where a railroad was building. We got a board shanty and worked for the men employed by the railroads. . . .

We were three years with the railroad, and then went to the mines, where we made plenty of money in gold dust, but had a hard time, for many of the miners were wild men who carried revolvers and after drinking would come into our place to shoot and steal shirts, for which we had to pay. One of these men hit his head hard against a flat iron and all the miners came and broke up our laundry, chasing us out of town. They were going to hang us. We lost all our property and $365 in money. . . .

The ordinary laundry shop is generally divided into three rooms. In front is the room where the customers are received, behind that a bedroom and in the back the work shop, which is also the dining room and kitchen. The stove and cooking utensils are the same as those of the Americans.

Work in a laundry begins early on Monday morning—about seven o'clock. There are generally two men, one of whom washes while the other does the ironing. . . . Each works only five days a week, but those are long days—from seven o'clock in the morning till midnight. . . .

The reason why so many Chinese go into the laundry business in this country is because it requires little capital and is one of the few opportunities that are open.

Source: Chew, Lee. "Biography of a Chinaman." *The Independent*, February 19, 1903, pp. 420–422.

Glossary

B

blight, n. a disease that causes plants to dry up and die **(47)**

C

civil disobedience, n. a refusal to follow the law or government because it goes against one's conscience; an act of protest **(23)**

cotton gin, n. a machine that extracts cotton seeds from fibers **(40)**

cotton-spinning mill, n. a factory that makes thread or yarn from cotton **(38)**

D

displacement, n. the process of removing from the usual place or land **(8)**

E

emigration, n. the movement of people out of a country **(44)**

I

immigrate, v. to move into a country from a different one **(44)**

industrialization, n. a shift to the widespread use of machines and factories to produce goods **(38)**

L

locomotive, n. a railroad engine **(5)**

M

manufacturer, n. a person or company that makes or produces an item to be sold **(37)**

monopoly, n. the complete control of the supply of a good or service by one person, country, or company **(43)**

multiple-effect evaporator, n. a system that refines materials by removing water in a series of steps under a vacuum **(41)**

N

nativism, n. a preference for people born in one's own country rather than immigrants **(51)**

P

permit, n. a formal authorization to do something **(11)**

R

reservation, n. an area of land set aside by the federal government for Native Americans **(13)**

S

stockade, n. a prison or camp guarded by the military **(12)**

T

telegraph, n. a machine that communicates messages over long distances by sending signals through wires **(29)**

textile, n. cloth or fabric **(38)**

transcontinental railroad, n. a railroad that stretches across an entire continent **(30)**

treaty, n. a formal agreement between two or more groups, especially countries **(10)**

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'Across the Continent, Westward the Course of Empire takes its way', 1868 (colour litho)/Palmer, Frances Flora Bond (Fanny) (c.1812–76) (after) / American/Newberry Library, Chicago, Illinois, USA/© Newberry Library / Bridgeman Images: 2–3

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Government snagboat removing logs or snags from the Mississippi, c.1870 (engraving)/American School, (19th century) / American/Private Collection/Peter Newark American Pictures / Bridgeman Images: 44

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Race between Peter Cooper's locomotive 'Tom Thumb' and a horse-drawn railway carriage: Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 1829. / Universal History Archive/UIG / Bridgeman Images: Cover D, 6

Reading Room 2020 / Alamy Stock Photo: Cover B, 41b

Salt Lake City in 1850, from 'American Pictures', published by The Religious Tract Society, 1876 (engraving), English School, (19th century) / Private Collection / Photo © Ken Welsh / Bridgeman Images: 27

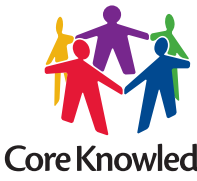
Science History Images / Alamy Stock Photo: 40

THE LURE OF AMERICAN WAGES. John Bull (personification of England) restrains a female emigrant, heading for steam ships to the United States. In the 1840s and 50's U.S. wages were higher than Europe's and the expanding textile industry attracted women. c. 1855/Everett Collection / Bridgeman Images: 48

The Siege of the Alamo, 6th March 1836, from 'Texas, an Epitome of Texas History, 1897', by William H. Brooker (engraving) (b&w photo), American School, (19th century) / Private Collection / Bridgeman Images: 19b

Track-layers gang-building the Union Pacific Railroad through American wilderness, 1860s (b/w photo), American Photographer, (19th century) / Private Collection / Peter Newark American Pictures / Bridgeman Images: 31a

Trail of Tears, forced relocation of the Cherokee Nation, 1836–1839 (colour litho) / Embleton, Ron (1930–88) / British / Private Collection / © Look and Learn / Bridgeman Images: Cover C, 13



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