FIRST EDITION - 2014

U.S. History

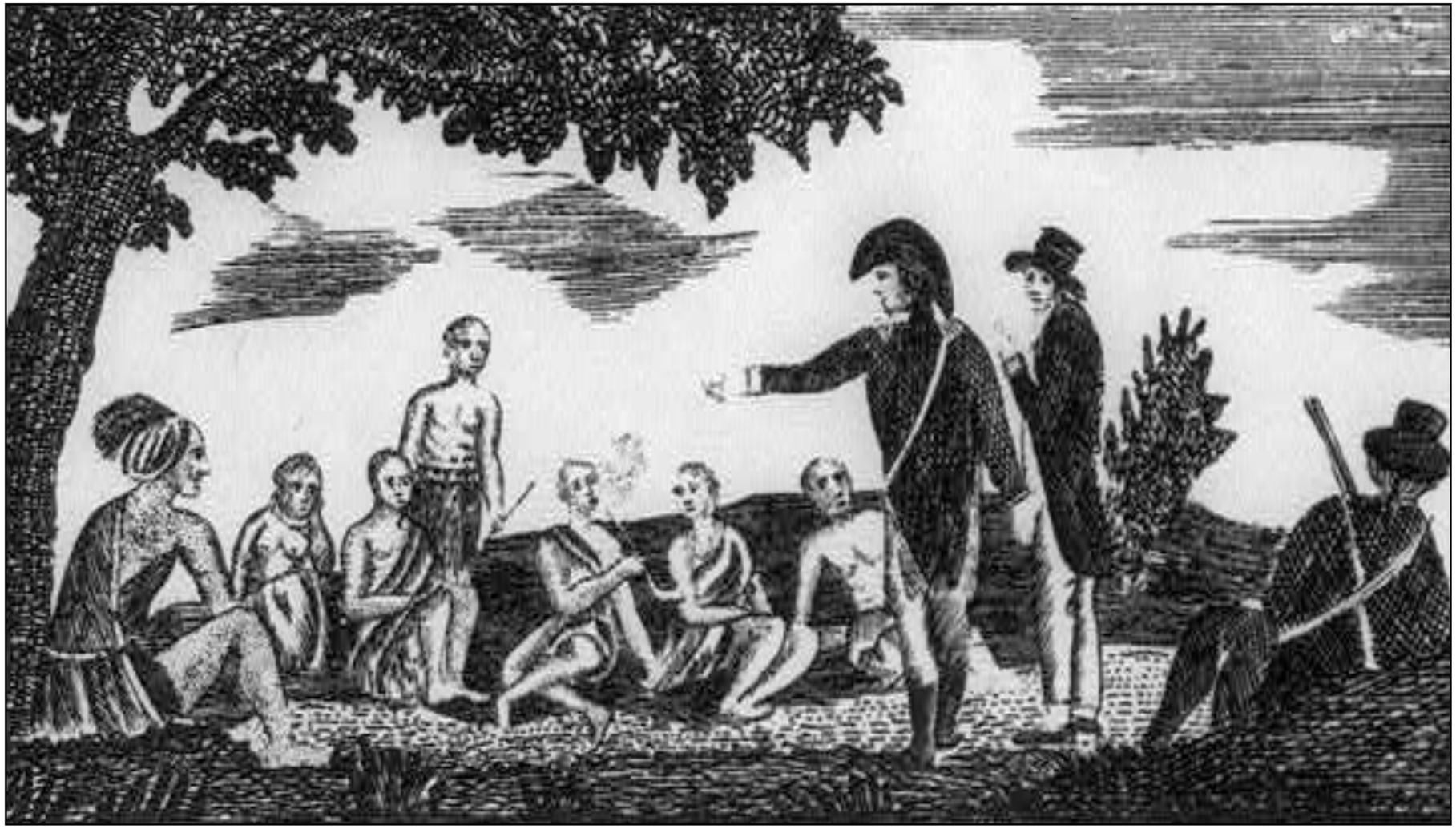
The Expanding Nation

Introduction

Between 1800 and 1854, U.S. territory had grown from the original 13 colonies to the limits of today's continental United States.

CHAPTER 1

Louisiana Purchase and Lewis & Clark



America's journey west begins with the purchase of the Louisiana Territory by Thomas Jefferson. The expedition by Lewis and Clark to explore the newly acquired land set the tone for the United States over the next several decades while establishing an "American" personality.

The Louisiana Purchase

In 1800, Spain secretly **ceded** the Louisiana territory--the area stretching from Canada to the Gulf Coast and from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains--to France, which threatened to block American access to the important port of New Orleans on the Mississippi River. New American settlements west of the Appalachian Mountains depended upon river transport to get their goods to market since land routes to the east were very expensive and impractical. Westerners exploded with anger. Many demanded war.

The thought of French control of the Mississippi River worried President Jefferson. Jefferson feared the French would establish a colonial empire in North America, blocking American expansion. The president sent negotiators to France with instructions to purchase New Orleans and as much of the Gulf Coast as they could for $2 million.

Figure 1.1 Territorial Acquisitions of the United States

Thomas Jefferson's purchase of the Louisiana Territory in 1803 — over 600 million acres at less than 4¢ an acre — was an economic as well as a political victory, as it avoided a possible war with the French.

Surprisingly, however, Napoleon offered much more. At the time the cost of France's war against Great Britain was mounting, and Napoleon desperately needed more money. Napoleon offered all of Louisiana to the U.S. for 15 million dollars. The massive territory stretched from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains and more than doubled the size of the United States.

Figure 1.2 Napoleon Bonaparte

Napoleon's asking price worked out to be about four cents an acre. The deal was struck in April 1803, but it brought a good deal of controversy. While American development in the 1800's depended on Westward Expansion, the purchase raised controversial issues that might lead to problems in the United States. Some New England Federalists, for example, began to talk of **seceding** from the U.S. since their political power was dramatically reduced by the purchase of new land. Also, Jefferson had clearly not followed his own strict interpretation of the Constitution. Federalists pointed out that nowhere in the Constitution did it permit the federal government to purchase new land. Jefferson was troubled by the inconsistency, but in the end decided that the power given to the president in the Constitution to negotiate treaties allowed him the flexibility to buy and add land to our existing country. Most of the Senate agreed, and the Louisiana Purchase easily passed the Senate 26 to 6.

The Louisiana Purchase demonstrated Jefferson's ability to make **pragmatic** political decisions. Although this purchase went against some of Jefferson's central principles, guaranteeing western expansion was so important to Jefferson's overall vision that he took bold action. The gains were dramatic, as the territory gained would in time add 13 new states to the union. In 1812, Louisiana became the first state to join the union from land bought in the purchase.

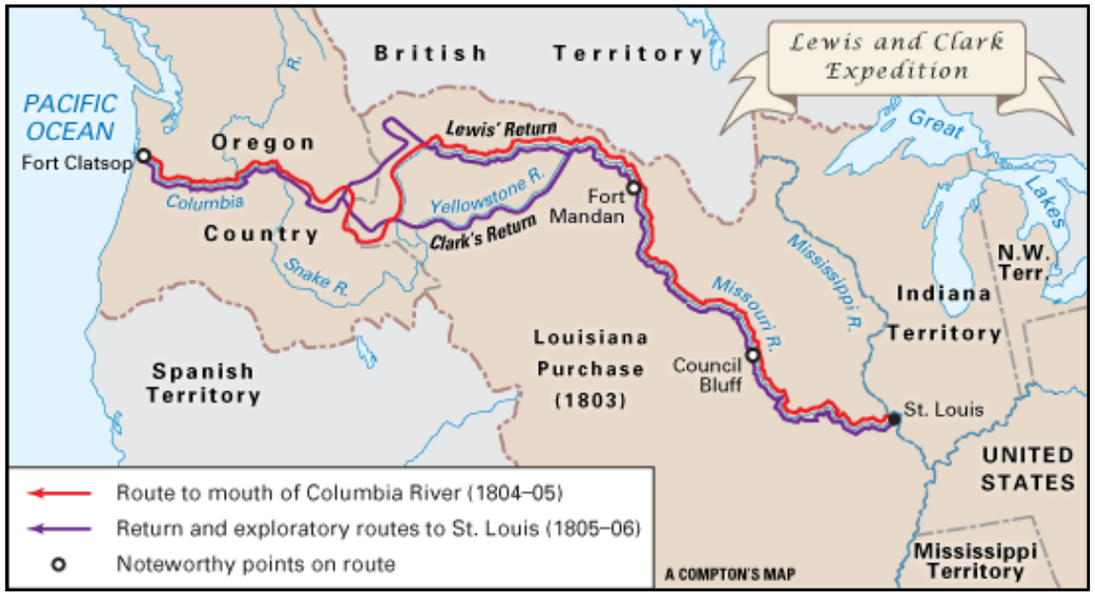
Lewis and Clark

After purchasing the Louisiana Territory, Jefferson sent Meriwether Lewis and William Clark to survey the new land. The two men, and forty or so others known as the Corps of Discovery, set out from St. Louis in 1804 and traveled northwest over the next two years. They had the the help of Sacajawea, a Shoshone Indian who served as their interpreter, and her husband Toussaint Charbonneau, a Canadian fur trapper. Along the way they traded a few goods with the Native Americans. By December 1805, the party had reached the mouth of the Columbia River as it spilled into the Pacific Ocean. The party split into two groups in 1806 -- one led by Lewis, the other by Clark -- eventually reconvening in Fort Mandan, in present-day North Dakota.

The expedition returned to St. Louis by September 1806, Lewis and Clark with journals in hand to report their findings to Jefferson. They had set up diplomatic relations with some of the people they had traded with. In their journals they recorded their native contacts, writ-

ing and drawing the shape of the landscape and the new creatures of this Western world. William Clark had also drawn a series of detailed maps, noting and naming rivers and creeks, significant points in the landscape, the shape of river shores, and describing areas where they had spent a lot of time.

Figure 1.3 Lewis and Clark Expedition



The Pike Expedition

In 1805, the soldier Zebulon Pike set out to explore the new territory. Like Lewis and Clark, Captain Pike started in St. Louis, but unlike them he traveled directly west into the Rocky Mountains. He reached Santa Fe, where he was captured briefly by Spanish soldiers who seized most of the maps and journals he was compiling. Pike returned to Washington in 1807 to report the number of Spanish forces in the region. Pike had far less data to show to the president than the Lewis and Clark expedition due to his **incarceration**. More important, however, was his description of the sparsely-vegetated territory, which he called "The Great American Desert." This name deterred settlers from "moving west" for the next thirty to forty years.

Figure 1.4 Pike's Expedition

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Lewis and Clark

http://www.humanitiestexas.org/archives/digital-repository/list-supplies-and-indian-presents-lewis-and-clark-expedition-1803

Supplies - Lewis and Clark:

http://www.pbs.org/lewisandclark/inside/idx_equ.html

Jefferson's letter to Meriwether Lewis

http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/disp_textbook_print.cfm?smtid=3&psid=3938

Louisiana Purchase

http://www.prenhall.com/divisions/hss/app/faragher6/map9.2/map9-2.swf

CHAPTER 2

Going to War with Britain Again:

The War of 1812

The War of 1812 was an early attempt to stretch the borders of the United States. While there was no clear victor in the war, it resulted in the development of America's identity and character. The Native Americans were the real losers of this conflict.

Background on the War

While western movement was reshaping the United States, European wars also presented a threat to our new country. The Napoleonic Wars (1802-1815) between Great Britain and France were raging. America had remained neutral, as George Washington had recommended. However, neither European superpower respected the neutrality of the United States. Instead, both tried to prevent U.S. ships from carrying goods to their enemy. Both Britain and France imposed blockades to limit American merchant trade with their enemy. The British blockade was more successful because of Britain's stronger navy.

In response to this denial of American independence, President Jefferson and his secretary of state James Madison crafted the Embargo Act of 1807 which stated that America would entirely stop trading with Europe until Britain and France honored American sovereignty. The plan backfired, however, as neither Britain nor France stopped their blockades, and America's economy suffered tremendously.

The Embargo Act not only failed to stop the blockade, but also caused enormous problems in the United States. Millions of dollars in trade was lost; damaging America's fragile economy. Many New England manufacturers were outraged and broke the law by continuing to trade with Europe.

When James Madison took office in 1809, he faced difficult circumstances with the increasing Indian violence in the west and the war-like conditions on the Atlantic. This forced President Madison away from Jefferson's embargo policy and towards a declaration of war with Great Britain. This was applauded by those in Congress who were in favor of going to war, nicknamed: "war hawks". The leader of them was Henry Clay of Kentucky.

Causes of the War

1. *Impressment and Freedom of the Seas*

The biggest reason cited for the United States' declaring war on Great Britain was the lack of freedom of the seas. The British were impressing American merchant sailors. In other words, British ships were forcefully taking American ships, cargo and sailors. The sailors would be made to work on English vessels for long periods or until they could escape.

But if British harassment of American shipping was truly the reason for war, why then did the pro-war majority in Congress come largely from the South, the West, and the frontier, and not from northeastern ship owners and sailors? Many New Englanders regarded war with Britain as a grave mistake. The United States, they feared, could not hope to successfully challenge British supremacy on the seas and the government could not finance a war without bankrupting the country.

2. *War Hawks believed that the United States Could Gain Land in Canada*

Southerners and westerners, in contrast, were eager to go to war against Great Britain and avenge British insults against American honor. These "War Hawks" had their eye on expansion, viewing war as an opportunity to add Canada and Spanish-held Florida to the United States.

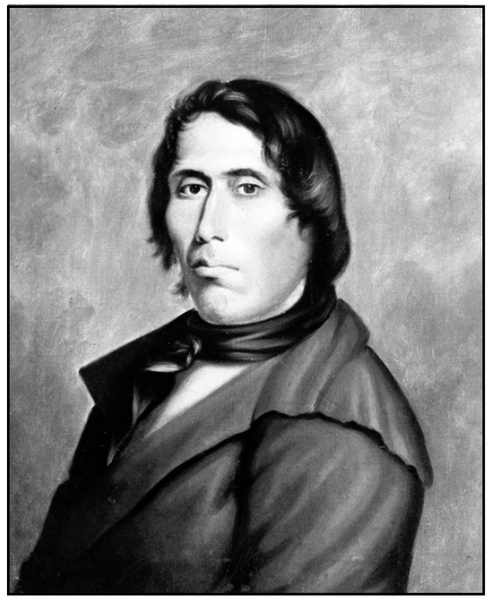
3. *Great Britain Was Arming and Encouraging Native Americans to Attack American Settlers*

War with Britain also offered another incentive: the possibility of clearing western lands of Indians by removing the Indians' strongest ally--the British. Two Native American brothers, Tecumseh and Tenskwatawa had built an alliance between tribes. They called for a widespread, united Indian resistance of the American intruders from

the east. They believed that when native peoples joined together and rejected all contact with Americans and their ways, God would restore Indian power.

Figure 2.1 Prophetstown

Figure 2.2 Tecumseh



In 1808 Tecumseh and Tenskwatawa founded Prophetstown at the sacred junction of the Tippecanoe and Wabash Rivers, from which they built their strong Indian alliance that directly challenged the U.S. government.

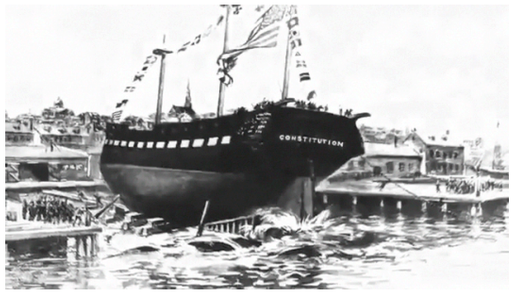
This growing Indian force threatened American plans to move west. Americans were particularly concerned because they believed the British were encouraging the Indian alliance and providing weapons for them as well. In late 1811, General William Henry Harrison provoked a fight with the Indian alliance at Tippecanoe Creek in Indiana. Since British guns were found on the battlefield, many Americans saw this as evidence that the British were behind the Native American alliance and attacks.

Fighting the War

Many historians look at the War of 1812 as a second war for American independence from Britain.

The United States was woefully unprepared for war. The army consisted of fewer than 7,000 soldiers, few trained officers, and a navy with just 6 warships. In contrast, Britain had nearly 400 warships. Despite this, occasionally the United States could take pride in a naval victory. In July of 1812, the U.S.S. Constitution engaged with the HMS Guerriere in the Atlantic Ocean. Click on Movie 2.1 to learn more about this surprising victory.

Movie 2.1



The American strategy to win the War of 1812 called for a three-pronged invasion of Canada and heavy harassment of British shipping. The attack on Canada, however, was a disastrous failure. At Detroit, 2,000 American troops surrendered to a much smaller British and Indian force. An attack across the Niagara River, near Buffalo, resulted in 900 American prisoners of war. Along Lake Champlain, a third army retreated into American territory after failing to cut undefended British supply lines.

In 1813 America suffered new failures, including the defeat and capture of the American army in the swamps west of Lake Erie. Only a series of unexpected victories at the end of the year raised American spirits.

The Battle of Lake Erie was America's first major victory of the war. It forced the British to abandon Detroit and retreat toward Niagara. On October 5, 1813, Major General William Henry Harrison overtook the retreating British army and their Indian allies at the Thames River. He

won a decisive victory in which the Indian leader Tecumseh was killed, thereby ending the fighting strength of the northwestern Indians and the Indian alliance.

In the spring of 1814, Britain finally defeated Napoleon in Europe, freeing up 18,000 British troops and allowing Great Britain to now focus on the war with the United States. The British planned to invade the United States at three points: upstate New York across the Niagara River and Lake Champlain, the Chesapeake Bay, and New Orleans. The London Times expressed the confident English mood: Oh, may no false liberality, no mistaken lenity, no weak and cowardly policy interpose to save the United States from the blow! Strike! Chastise the savages, for such they are.... Our demands may be couched in a single word--Submission!'

Movie 2.2 The Burning of Washington, D.C.

At Niagara, however, American forces, outnumbered more than three to one, halted Britain's invasion from the north. Britain then landed 4,000 soldiers on the Chesapeake Bay coast and marched on Washington, D.C., where untrained American soldiers lacking uniforms and standard equipment were protecting the capital. The result was chaos. President Madison narrowly escaped capture by British forces. On August 24, 1814, the British humiliated the nation by capturing and burning Washington, D.C. President Madison and his wife Dolley were forced to flee the capital--carrying with them many of the nation's treasures, including the Declaration of Independence and Gilbert Stuart's portrait of George Washington. The British arrived so soon after the president fled that the officers dined on a White House meal that had been prepared for the Madisons and 40 invited guests before lighting it on fire. Learn more by watching Movie 2.2.

Figure 2.3 Fort McHenry

Fort McHenry is considered the "Home of the National Anthem" because it was here, during a battle in the War of 1812, that Francis Scott Key was inspired to write his famous poem.

Britain's next objective was Baltimore. To reach the city, British warships had to pass the guns of Fort McHenry, manned by 1,000 American soldiers. On September 13, 1814, British warships began a 25-hour bombardment of Fort McHenry. British vessels anchored two miles off shore--close enough so that their guns could hit the fort, but too far for American shells to reach them. All through the night British cannons bombarded Fort McHenry, firing between 1,500 and 1,800 cannon balls at the fort. In the light of the "rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air," Francis Scott Key, a young lawyer detained on a British ship, saw the American flag waving over the fort. At dawn on September 14, he saw the flag still waving. The Americans had stopped the British attack, with only 4 soldiers killed and 24 wounded.

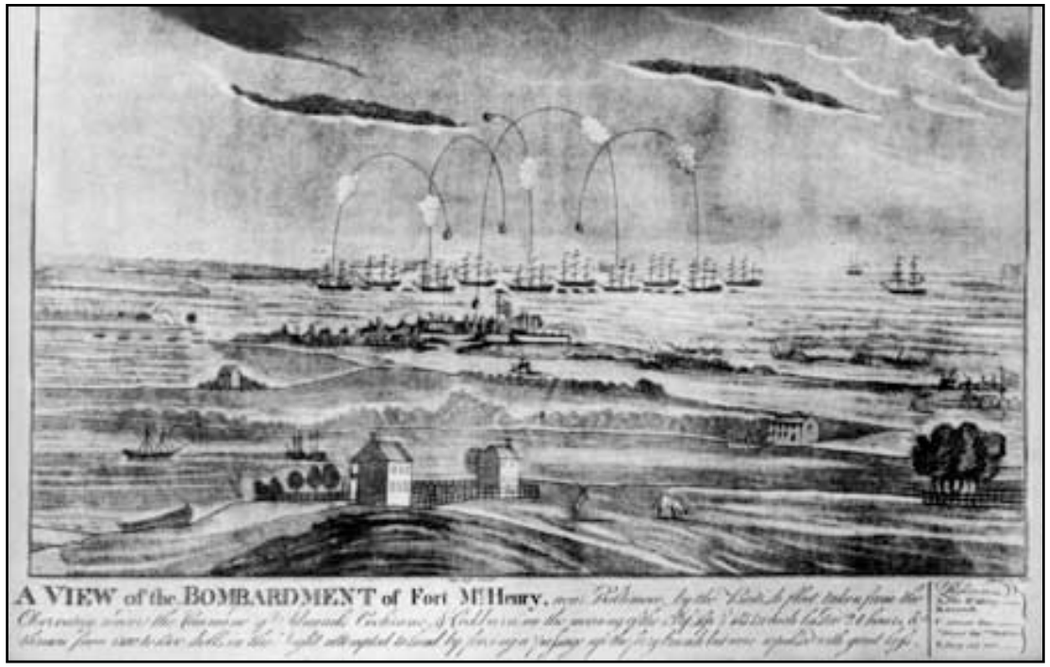
Key was so moved by the American victory that he wrote a poem entitled "The Star-Spangled Banner" on the back of an old envelope. The song was destined to become the young nation's national anthem.

Learn the whole story behind the Star Spangled Banner -

http://amhistory.si.edu/starspangledbanner/default.aspx

http://www.c-span.org/video/?319838-1/starspangled-banner

Figure 2.4 The Rockets Red Glare



The country still faced grave threats in the South. On January 8, 1815, the British fleet and a battle-tested 10,000-man army attacked New Orleans. To defend the city, Andrew Jackson assembled a ragtag army, including French pirates, Choctaw Indians, western militia, and freed slaves. Although British forces outnumbered Americans by more than 2 to 1, American artillery and sharpshooters stopped the invasion. American losses totaled only 8 dead and 13 wounded, while British casualties were 2,036. Ironically, the Battle of New Orleans had no military significance in regard to the War of 1812, since American and British negotiators in Ghent, Belgium, had signed a peace treaty ending the War of 1812 two weeks earlier. Word of the Treaty had not yet reached New Orleans. But it did give Americans the bragging rights of having a large victory at the end of the war. Furthermore, the victory launched the political career of Andrew Jackson. He was to become a new kind of American president and his policies would help shape the west.

Stop and Think 2.1

Why wouldn't word of the peace treaty have reached New Orleans?

Figure 2.5

Future President Andrew Jackson seized the day by defeating the British at the Battle of New Orleans in January, 1815. Unfortunately, neither army had learned that the War of 1812 ended on Christmas Eve, 2 weeks earlier.

Britain, convinced that the American war was so difficult and costly that nothing would be gained from further fighting, agreed in the Peace Treaty of Ghent to return to the conditions that existed before the war. Left unmentioned in the peace treaty were the issues over which Americans had fought the war--impressment and British interference with American trade.

The most critical moment of the War of 1812, however, may not have been a battle, but rather a political meeting called by the Massachusetts legislature. Beginning in December 1814, 26 Federalists representing New England states met at the Hartford Convention to discuss how to improve the decline of their party and the region. Although manufacturing was booming and contraband trade brought riches to the region, "Mr. Madison's War" and its expenses proved hard to tolerate for most New Englanders.

Holding this meeting during the war was deeply controversial. Secession was being discussed and the extremists were arguing that New England, having a different agenda and economy from the rest of the nation, had to split and consider themselves a separate country from the United States. Republicans believed that the Hartford Convention was an act of treason. If a peace treaty ending the War of 1812 had not been signed while the Hartford Convention was still meeting, New England may have continued to push for secession.

Stop and Think 2.2

How does the talk of secession illustrate some of the regional differences that are developing in the United States?

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Amendments to the Constitution Proposed by the Hartford Convention : 1814

http://avalon.law.yale.edu/19th_century/hartconv.asp

War of 1812 Timeline

http://www.nysm.nysed.gov/warof1812/timeline/index.html

Learn the whole story behind the Star Spangled Banner -

http://amhistory.si.edu/starspangledbanner/default.aspx

http://www.c-span.org/video/?319838-1/starspangled-banner

CHAPTER 3

The Industrial Revolution

As the United States expanded, people needed new and faster ways to get around and conduct business. The industrial revolution brought about new jobs and new innovations that helped America grow.

The key to American Industrialization was essentially stolen from Great Britain. Samuel Slater came to this country with the knowledge of how to build a textile mill. He stole this information from an English textile mill, memorized the plans and set aboard a ship for America.

With the backing of a Quaker merchant, Moses Brown, Slater built America's first water-powered cotton spinning mill in Pawtucket, Rhode Island. By the end of 1790, it was up and running, with workers walking a treadmill to generate power. By 1791, a waterwheel drove the machinery that carded and spun cotton into thread.

Figure 3.1 Child Labor in the Mills

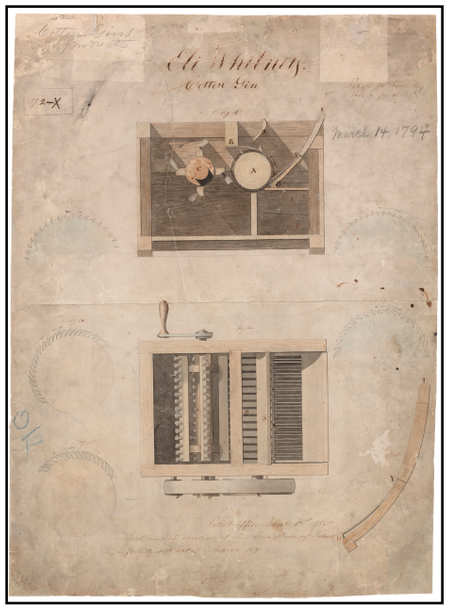
Slater employed families, including children, to live and work at the mill site. Women entered the workforce and started to earn a wage. In 1803, Slater and his brother built a mill in Rhode Island called 'Slatersville'. It included a large, modern mill, tenement houses for its workers, and a company store. Slater's factory system became known as the Rhode Island System. It was soon imitated and improved upon by innovators like Francis Cabot Lowell, who opened the Lowell Mills in Lowell, MA in 1823. The use of female factory workers brought advantages to both employer and employee. Girls could be paid less than men. These female workers, often called "LOWELL GIRLS," benefited by experiencing a new kind of independence outside of their previous lives on the farm. Children as young as seven worked in the mills. Today we view this as cruel; however, most people at the time did not see a difference between children working on the farm or in the mills.

Stop and Think 3.1

Child labor was a regular occurrence on the farm. Do you think children working in the mills should be viewed differently?

For much of the early 1800's New England flourished making finished textiles for the rest of the country and exporting their goods throughout the world.

Figure 3.2 Cotton Gin



Another invention necessary for the growth of mills in the Northeast was the Cotton Gin. Eli Whitney was among the first to develop a cotton gin (short for "engine") that separated seeds from cotton. The gin increased by fifty times the amount of cotton a single person could process in a day. This new cotton production, in turn, provided the raw material for the booming industrial textile mills of the American northeast and Great Britain. Technological innovation and geographic

expansion made the south the world's largest producer and exporter of cotton in the 19th century.

This economic triumph, however, was accompanied by an immeasurable human tragedy. By 1820 all of the northern states had outlawed slavery, but the rise of cotton production in the South because of the cotton gin made slavery very profitable. Not only did southern cotton feed northern textile mills, but northern insurers and transporters played a major part in the growth of the modern slave economy of the cotton south.

Other improvements during the 19th century led the United States toward industrialization. Eli Whitney also pioneered the method of production using interchangeable parts that became the foundation of the American System of manufacturing. Agricultural production was also transformed by the iron plow and later the mechanical reaper.

Transportation

Roads - At the start of the 1800's, the lack of reliable, low-cost transportation was a major barrier to American industrial development. The stagecoach, slow and cumbersome, was the main form of transportation. Up to twelve passengers, crowded along with their bags and parcels, traveled at just 4 miles an hour.

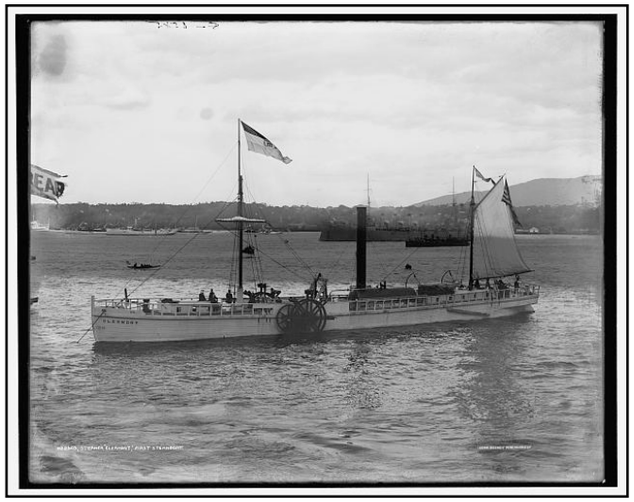
Figure 3.3 Stagecoach

Terrible road conditions plagued travelers. Larger towns had roads paved with cobblestones; and on highways potholes were filled with stones. But most roads were simply dirt paths left muddy and rutted by rain. The presence of tree stumps in the middle of many roads posed a serious obstacle to carriages.

In addition, overland transportation was expensive; tolls on "post roads" were extremely high. It cost more to transport a ton of freight 300 miles over land than to ship it from Philadelphia to Europe. This would the same distance as driving from Tolland to the Cape and back.

Steamship - Because water transportation was cheaper, farmers often shipped their produce down the Mississippi, Potomac, or Hudson rivers by flatboat or raft. Unfortunately, water transportation was slow and few vessels were capable of going very far upstream. The trip downstream from Pittsburgh to New Orleans took a month; the trip upstream against the current took four months. Steampower offered the obvious solution. In 1807, Robert Fulton sailed the first successful steam powered boat, a 160-ton side-wheeler, the Clermont, 150 miles from New York City to Albany in only 32 hours. "Fulton's folly," as critics mockingly called it, opened a new era of faster and cheaper water transportation.

Figure 3.4 Replica of Fulton's Clermont



Canals - Water transportation was further revolutionized by the building of canals. Prior to the War of 1812, construction companies had built only 100 miles of canals. Construction costs ran $25,000 to $80,000 a mile. But the spectacular success of the Erie Canal in New York touched off an enormous wave of canal construction.

Interactive 3.1

On Wednesday, October 25, 1825, the state of New York opened the Erie Canal, which connected the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. To celebrate the opening, New Yorkers fired cannons, placed at 8-mile intervals along the 364-mile length of the canal. The canal was a amazing engineering achievement. Three thousand workers, using hand labor, toiled for 8 years to build the canal. They had cut through forests, dug through rock, and built over mosquito-infested swamps. They built 84 locks, each 15 feet wide and 90 feet long, to raise or lower barges 10 feet at a time. They even raised a river 9 feet with a 900-foot dam and built 18 aqueducts, one more than 800 feet long, over rivers and valleys. Perhaps most impressive was the fact that the Erie Canal was built by four principal engineers who had never seen a canal. Lacking modern engineering tools, they designed the canal "by guess and by God."

To see how the 84 locks function, click the link below:

http://www.eriecanal.org/locks.html

The canal was built in the face of intense opposition. Thomas Jefferson said that "making a canal 350 miles through a wilderness is little short of madness," and President James Madison vetoed a bill that would have provided federal land grants to help New York with the project. Nevertheless, despite scoffing at the project known as "Clinton's Ditch"--named after the canal's chief backer, Governor DeWitt Clinton--the engineers, diggers, and political leaders and voters in New York persisted. Altogether, roughly 85 percent of the capital for the Erie Canal came from the New York state government and local governments along the route.

The "big ditch" sparked an economic revolution. Before the canal was built, it cost $100 and took 20 days to transport a ton of freight from Buffalo to New York City. After the canal was opened, the cost fell to $5 a ton and transit time was reduced to 6 days. By 1827, as a result of the canal, wheat from central New York State could be bought for less in Savannah, Georgia, than wheat grown in Georgia's interior.

The success of the Erie Canal led other states to embark on expensive programs of canal building. Pennsylvanians, aware that it cost more to

transport goods 150 miles within their state than it did for New Yorkers to ship goods 750 miles between New York City and Ohio, spent $10 million to build a canal between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. The states of Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio launched projects to connect the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to the Great Lakes. By 1840, 3326 miles of canals had been dug at a cost of $125 million.

Stop and Think 3.2

How would the use of the Erie Canal impact the economy?

Railroad - Cities like Baltimore and Boston, which were unable to reach the West with canals, experimented with the railroad, a novel form of transportation. At first, a railroad was simply a highway lined with a double track of wood rails along which a horse or mule pulled a stagecoach or wagon. In 1830 the first American-built locomotives were put into regular operation on the Baltimore and Ohio, Charleston and Hamburg, and Mohawk and Hudson railroads.

Early railroads had many problems. The first rails were simply wooden beams with a metal strip nailed to the surface. The strips frequently curled up, cutting through the train's floor. Brakes were not well designed, consisting of wooden blocks operated by a foot pedal. Boilers exploded so frequently that passengers had to be protected by bales of cotton. Engine sparks set fire to fields and burned unprotected passengers. One English traveler counted 13 holes burned in her dress after a short ride.

Opposition to railroads was widespread. Turnpike and bridge companies, stagecoaches, ferries, and canals sought laws to prohibit trains from carrying freight. A group of Boston doctors warned that bumps produced by trains traveling at 15 or 20 miles an hour would lead to many cases of "concussion of the brain."

In spite of such objections, it quickly became clear after 1830 that railroads were destined to become the nation's chief means of moving freight. During the 1830s, construction companies laid down 3,328 miles of track, roughly equal to all the miles of canals in the country. With an average speed of 10 miles an hour, railroads were faster than stagecoaches, canalboats, and steamboats, and, unlike water-going vessels, could travel in any season.

The transportation revolution sharply reduced the cost of shipping goods to market and stimulated agriculture and industry. New roads, canals, and railroads sped the pace of commerce and strengthened ties between the East and West.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Information on Lowell - Primary and Secondary Sources

http://www.nps.gov/lowe/historyculture/index.htm

Erie Canal -

http://www.eriecanal.org/

http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/era.cfm?eraID=5&smtid=1

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Koj5yGigFNU

http://www.eriecanal.org/index.html

http://www.eriecanal.org/locks.html

CHAPTER 4

Manifest Destiny and the Continued Challenges of Slavery

America's journey westward was believed to be our divine right as a nation. In 1844, that right was given a name, Manifest Destiny.

The Missouri Compromise is only one example of how America tackled its many challenges as the nation claimed land moving west.

Manifest Destiny

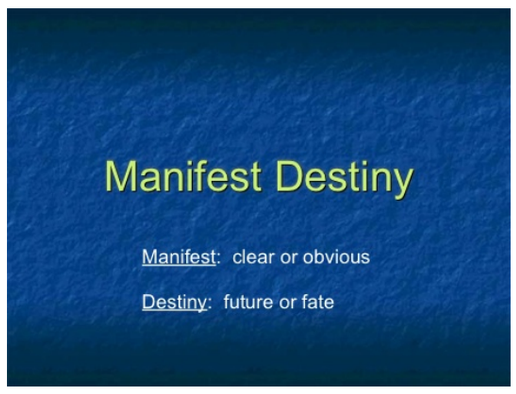
In 1845 John L. O'Sullivan, editor of the *Democratic Review*, referred in his magazine to America's "**manifest destiny** to overspread the continent allotted by **Providence** for the free development of our yearly multiplying millions." One of the most influential slogans ever coined, "manifest destiny" expressed the romantic emotion that led Americans to risk their lives to settle the Far West.

The idea that America had a special destiny to stretch across the continent motivated many people to migrate West. The very idea of manifest destiny encouraged men and women to dream big dreams. "We Americans," wrote Herman Melville, one of this country's greatest novelists, "are the peculiar, chosen people--the Israel of our time."

Manifest destiny inspired a 29-year old named Stephen F. Austin to talk grandly of colonizing the Mexican province of Texas with "North American population, enterprise and intelligence." It led expansionists, united behind the slogan "54° 40' or fight!," to demand that the United States should own the entire Pacific Northwest all the way to the southern border of Alaska.

Some Americans used the idea to justify Indian removal, war with Mexico, and American expansion into Cuba and Central America. More positively, the idea of manifest destiny inspired missionaries, farmers, and pioneers, who dreamed only of transforming plains and fertile valleys into farms and small towns.

Interactive 4.1



Interactive 4.2

"Manifest Destiny" and the Writing of John O'Sullivan (Modified)

John O'Sullivan, "The Great Nation of Futurity," 1839.
Our national birth (and the Declaration of Independence) was the beginning of a new history, which separates us from the past and connects us only with the future.
We are the nation of progress, of individual freedom, of universal enfranchisement. Our future history will be to establish on earth the moral dignity and salvation of man -- the undeniable truth and goodness of God. America has been chosen for this mission among all the nations of the world, which are shut out from the life-giving light of truth. Her high example shall put an end to the tyranny of kings, and carry the happy news of peace and good will to millions who now endure an existence hardly better than that of beasts of the field. Who, then, can doubt that our country is destined to be the great nation of the future?

John O'Sullivan, "Annexation," 1845.
It is time now for all opposition to annexation of Texas to stop. . . Texas is now ours. She is no longer to us a mere geographical space. She is no longer to us a mere country on the map....
The time has come for everyone to stop treating Texas as an alien, and to stop 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.

Vocabulary
Enfranchisement: the right to vote
Tyranny: cruel and oppressive government
Endure: suffer
Thwarting: opposing
Hampering: slowing down
Allotted: given
Providence: God

Source: John O'Sullivan was a writer and editor of a well-known newspaper around the time of the Mexican-American war. Most people give him the credit for coining the term "Manifest Destiny."

Questions to Consider 4.1

John O'Sullivan, "The Great Nation of Futurity," 1839

1. What does John O'Sullivan think America stands for?

2. What, according to John O'Sullivan, is America's mission?

John O'Sullivan, "Annexation," July 1845

1. What do you think John O'Sullivan means by "our manifest destiny to overspread the continent allotted by Providence for the free development of our yearly multiplying millions"?

2. Based on these two documents, how did Americans feel about expanding westward?

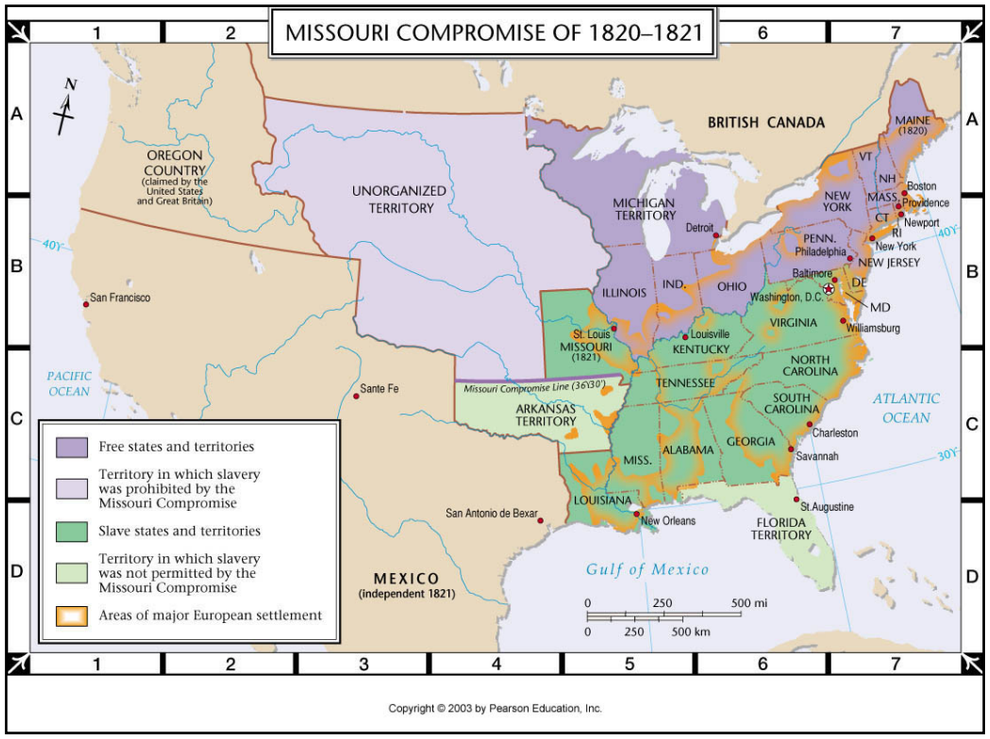
Missouri Compromise

Most white Americans agreed that western expansion was crucial to the health of the United States. But what should be done about slavery in the West?

The incorporation of new Western Territories into the United States made slavery a big issue in national politics. Balancing the interests of slave and free states had played a role from the very start of designing the federal government at the Constitutional Convention in 1787. The issue exploded once more in 1819 when Missouri petitioned to join the United States as a slave state.

In 1819, the nation contained eleven free and eleven slave states, creating a balance in the U.S. senate. Missouri's entrance as a slave state threatened to throw off this balance.

Figure 4.1



Henry Clay, a leading congressman, played an important role in brokering a two-part solution known as the Missouri Compromise. First, Missouri would be admitted to the union as a slave state, but would be balanced by the admission of Maine, a free state, that had long wanted to be separated from Massachusetts. Second, slavery was to be excluded from all new states in the Louisiana Purchase north of the southern boundary of Missouri. People on both sides of the controversy saw the compromise as deeply flawed. Nevertheless, it lasted for over thirty years. The Missouri crisis once again showed how volatile the issue of slavery was in the United States, an issue that would eventually explode into a civil war.

In an attempt to keep a balance of power between the pro- and anti-slavery groups, the Missouri Compromise drew a line on the map designating which states would be free and which would allow slavery.

The Amistad Case

Figure 4.2

In February of 1839, Portuguese slave hunters abducted a large group of Africans from Sierra Leone and shipped them to Havana, Cuba, a center for the slave trade. This abduction violated all of the treaties then in existence. Fifty-three Africans were purchased by two Spanish planters and put aboard the Cuban schooner Amistad for shipment to a Caribbean plantation. On July 1, 1839, the Africans seized the ship, killed the captain and the cook, and ordered the planters to sail to Africa. On August 24, 1839, the Amistad was seized off Long Island, NY, by the U.S. brig Washington. The planters were freed and the Africans were imprisoned in New Haven, CT, on charges of murder. Although the murder charges were dismissed, the Africans continued to be held in confinement as the focus of the case turned to salvage claims and property rights. President Van Buren was in favor of extraditing the Africans to Cuba. However, abolitionists in the North opposed extradition and raised money to defend the Africans. Claims to the Africans by the planters, the government of Spain, and the captain of the brig led the case to trial in the Federal District Court in Connecticut. The court ruled that the case fell within Federal jurisdiction and that the claims to the Africans as property were not legitimate because they were illegally held as slaves. The case went to the Supreme Court in January 1841, and former President John Quincy Adams argued the defendants' case. Adams defended the right of the accused to fight to regain their freedom. The Supreme Court decided in favor of the Africans, and 35 of them were returned to their homeland. The others died at sea or in prison while awaiting trial. The result, widely publicized court cases in the United States helped the abolitionist movement.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

http://educators.mysticseaport.org/scholars/lectures/amistad_rebellion/

http://law2.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/ftrials/amistad/AMI_LTR.HTM

http://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/amistad/

http://law2.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/ftrials/amistad/AMISTD.HTM

http://www.tms.tolland.k12.ct.us/common/pages/DisplayFile.aspx?itemId=11251549

CHAPTER 5

Moving West: A Chapter of Inquiry

Throughout this chapter, there are brief summaries designed to whet your appetite for further learning through inquiry. There is so much more to discover about all of these topics, so read on before going out on your own journey into westward expansion.

Mountain Men

When Lewis and Clark completed their expedition, they brought back reports of rivers and streams in the northern Rockies teeming with beaver and otter. Fur traders and trappers quickly followed in their footsteps. The life of the mountain men was difficult, dangerous, and violent. One trapper in five died on the trails. If the average man today requires 2000 calories, mountain men needed about 6,000 calories a day because of the physical challenges they faced.

The western fur trade lasted only until 1840. Beaver hats for gentlemen went out of style in favor of silk hats, bringing the era of the mountain man, dressed in a fringed buckskin suit, to an end. Fur bearing animals had been trapped out, and profits from trading fell steeply. Instead of hunting furs, some trappers became scouts for the United States army or pilots for the wagon trains that were beginning to carry pioneers to Oregon and California

Pioneers and the Life on the Oregon Trail

During the early 1840s, thousands of pioneers headed westward toward California and Oregon. In 1841, the first party of 69 pioneers left Missouri for California, led by an Ohio schoolteacher named John Bidwell. The members of the party knew little about western travel: "We only knew that California lay to the west." The hardships the party endured were nearly unbearable. They were forced to abandon their wagons and eat their pack animals, "half roasted, dripping with blood."

Each spring, pioneers gathered at Independence and St. Joseph, Missouri, and Council Bluffs, Iowa, to begin a 2,000 mile journey westward. For many families, the reason for heading west was economic: the financial depression of the late 1830s, accompanied by floods and epidemics in the Mississippi Valley. Said one woman: "We had nothing to lose, and we might gain a fortune." Between 1841 and 1867, more than 350,000 trekked along the overland trails.

Most pioneers traveled in family units. At first, pioneers tried to maintain the gender based division of labor that characterized early 19th century America. Men drove the wagons and livestock, stood guard duty, and hunted buffalo and antelope for extra meat. Women got up at four in the morning, collected wood and "buffalo chips" (animal dung used for fuel), hauled water, kindled campfires, kneaded dough, and milked cows. At the end of the day, men expected women to fix dinner, make up beds, air out the wagons to prevent mildew, wash the clothes, and tend the children.

The demands of the journey forced a blurring of gender role distinctions for women, who performed many chores previously reserved for men. They drove wagons, yoked cattle, and loaded wagons. Some men even did things such as cooking, they previously would have regarded as women's work.

Accidents, disease, and sudden disaster were ever-present dangers. Children fell out of wagons, oxen hauling wagons became exhausted and died, and diseases such as typhoid, dysentery, and mountain fever killed many pioneers. Pioneer parties also suffered devastation from buffalo stampedes, prairie fires, and floods. Pioneers buried at least 20,000 emigrants along the Oregon Trail. Still, despite the hardships of the experience, few pioneers ever regretted their decision to move west.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Tornadoes in the West -
http://wildwesthistory.blogspot.com/2011/05/tornadoes-in-old-west-and-tornadoes.html

Oregon - California Trails Association -

http://www.octa-trails.org/

Catherine Sager Pringle's Journal (experience on the trails, etc.)

http://www.pbs.org/weta/thewest/resources/archives/two/sager1.htm

Virtual Tour of the Oregon Trail -

http://www.historyglobe.com/ot/otmap1.htm

The Donner Party - A Cautionary Tale

Early in April, l846, 87 pioneers led by George Donner, a wealthy 62-year-old farmer, set out from Springfield, Illinois, for California. Like many pioneers, they were not well prepared for the dangerous journey ahead. Their twenty-seven wagons were loaded with fancy foods, liquor, and built-in beds and stoves.

On July 20th, at Fort Bridger, Wyoming, the party decided to take a shortcut. A guidebook had suggested that pioneers could save 400 miles by cutting south of the Great Salt Lake. Soon huge boulders, arid desert, and dangerous mountain passes slowed the expedition to a crawl. During one stretch, the party traveled only 36 miles in 2l days. A desert crossing that the guidebook said would take two days actually took six days and nights.

Twelve weeks after leaving Fort Bridger, the Donner Party reached the eastern Sierra Nevada Mountains and prepared to cross Truckee Pass, the last remaining barrier before they arrived in California's Sacramento Valley. On October 3l, they climbed the high Sierra ridges in an attempt to cross the pass, but a five foot snowfall blocked their path.

Trapped for months, the party built crude tents and tepees, covered with clothing, blankets, and animal hides. To survive, the Donner party was forced to eat mice, their rugs, and even their shoes. In the end, surviving members of the party escaped starvation only by eating the flesh of those who died.

During the winter, four successive rescue parties broke through and brought out the survivors. The situation that the rescuers found was unspeakably gruesome. Thirteen were dead. Surviving members of the Donner party were delirious from hunger and overexposure. One survivor was found in a small cabin next to a cannibalized body of a young boy. Of the original 87 members of the party, only 47 survived.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Diary of Patrick Breen, Donner Party Member -

http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/features/primary-resources/donner-diary-patrick-breen/

Interactive Map of Donner Party -

http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/features/map-widget/donner-map/

President Jackson and Native American Removal

As Americans began to expand west, two different ideas emerged as to how to treat Native Americans in the United States - assimilation and removal. Assimilation encouraged Indians to adopt the customs and practices of white Americans, to become like Americans. The government provided financial assistance to missionaries in order to Christianize and educate Native Americans and convince them to adopt a farming lifestyle. Many believed assimilation was the only way Native Americans would be able to survive in a white-dominated society.

The Cherokee were an example of a tribe that assimilated and adapted to American society. By the 1820s, Sequoyah, a leader of these people, had developed a written alphabet. Soon the Cherokee opened schools, established churches, built roads, operated printing presses, and even adopted a constitution.

The other policy--Indian removal--was first suggested by Thomas Jefferson as the only way to ensure the survival of Native American cultures. The goal of this policy was to encourage the voluntary migration of Indians westward to land where they could live free from white harassment.

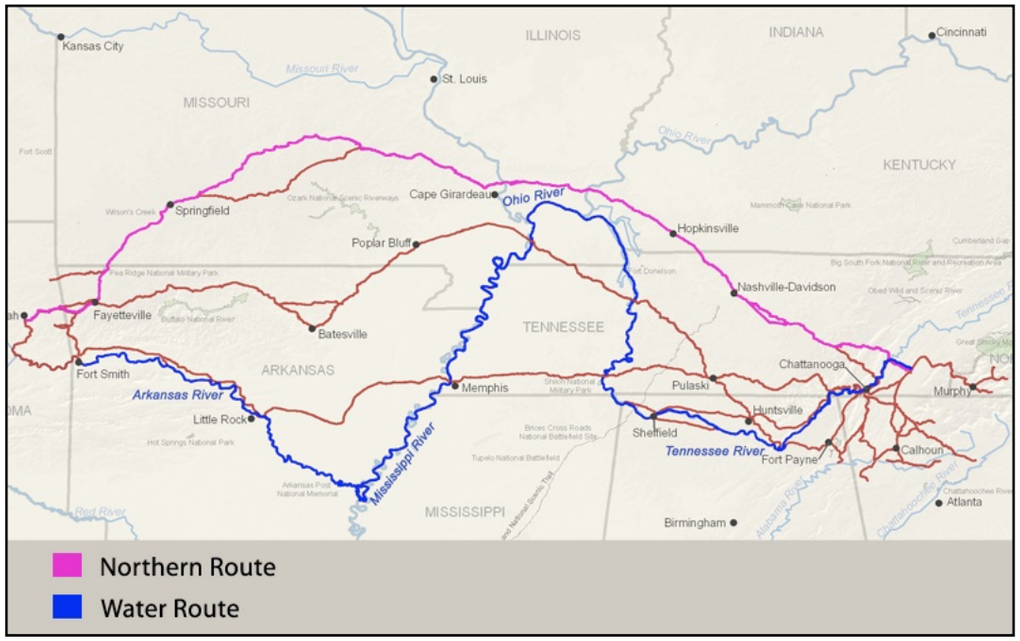
After initially supporting both policies in the 1830's, President Jackson decided that the policy of removal was the solution to the "Indian Problem". His decision was largely based on the events surrounding the Cherokee. The discovery of gold on Cherokee land triggered a land rush, and the Cherokee nation appealed all the way to the Supreme Court to keep settlers off their land. The Supreme Court ruled in favor of the Cherokee, saying that states could not pass laws conflicting with federal Indian treaties and that the federal government had to keep white intruders from Native American lands. Ignoring the ruling, Jackson moved ahead with his policy of removal and relocation.

The idea behind Jackson's policy of removal was to encourage Native Americans to sell their lands in exchange for new lands in Oklahoma and Arkansas. Such a policy, the president maintained, would open new farmland to whites while offering Indians a haven where they would be free to live as they chose. "There," he wrote, "your white brothers will not trouble you, they will have no claims to the land, and you can live upon it, you and all your children, as long as the grass grows or the water runs, in peace and plenty."

Pushmataha, a Choctaw chieftain, called on his people to reject Jackson's offer of removal and relocation. Far from being a "country of tall trees, many water courses, rich lands and high grass abounding in games of all kinds," the promised land in the West was simply a barren desert. Jackson responded by warning that if the Choctaw refused to move west, he would destroy their nation.

During the winter of 1831, the Choctaw became the first tribe to walk the "Trail of Tears" westward. Promised government assistance failed to arrive, and malnutrition, cold, and a cholera epidemic killed many members of the nation. Then, in 1836, the Creek suffered the hardships of removal. About 3,500 of the tribe's 15,000 members died along their westward journey to new land. Those who resisted removal were bound in chains and marched in double file.

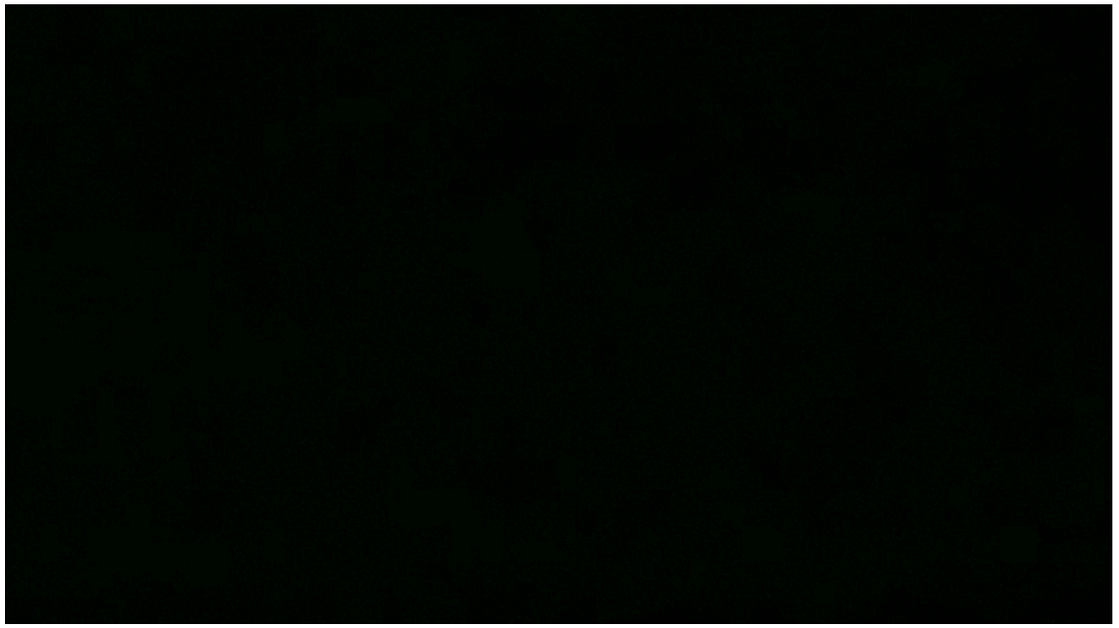
Figure 5.1



The Cherokees also resisted removal. Fifteen thousand Cherokee joined in a protest against Jackson's policy. The federal government bribed a small group of the tribe to leave the land in exchange for $5

million, but most Cherokees held out until 1838, when the army forced them from their land. All told, 4,000 of the 15,000 Cherokee died along the Trail of Tears to Indian Territory in what is now Oklahoma.

Movie 5.1 The Cherokee Trail of Tears



By twenty-first century standards, Jackson's Indian policy was both **callous** and inhumane. Why were such policies adopted?

The problem of preserving native cultures in the face of an expanding nation was not just a problem for the United States. Jackson's removal policy can only be properly understood when seen as part of the bigger picture worldwide. During the early 1800's, many nations were moving into frontier areas, including the steppes of Russia, the pampas of Argentina, the veldt of South Africa, the outback of Australia, and the American West. In each of these regions, national expansion was believed to be necessary to prevent other nations from taking the land or to open valuable land to white settlement and develoment. And in each case, expansion was accompanied by the removal or wholesale killing of native peoples.

Stop and Think 5.1

What would have been some alternatives to the relocation of the Native Americans?

Interactive 5.1

Painted by Robert Lindneux in 1942

1/5

Questions to Consider 5.1

Document #1 Jackson

1. Thinking back to the War of 1812, what do you already know about Jackson's feelings towards Indians? What types of things did you expect him to say in his speech? Did anything surprise you?
2. Why does Jackson think the U.S. was better in 1830 than back in Washington's time?
3. Why does Jackson think that the Cherokee will be better off in Indian Territory?
4. Why does Jackson think his policy is kind and generous?

Document #2 Elias Boudinot

1. Who is Elias Boudinot? What do expect him to say about removal?
2. What was Boudinot observing of Cherokee life in Georgia?
3. Why does Boudinot believe he is doing the right thing? What happens if they stay?

Document #3 Chief John Ross

1. Who does Ross represent? Who is his audience?
2. How does Ross feel he and his tribe are being disrespected?
3. How can Ross make the argument that the treaty signed is invalid?

Document 1

Doc. 2 Elias Boudinot (Modified)

I see here nothing but certain death, and at the West a probable way to escape. I will not debate on the morality of what the United States is requesting of the Cherokee Nation, that is useless. But, the Cherokees do have a right to save themselves from destruction. That bears no question in my opinion; and such is the dictate of wisdom and sound reason.

To debate whether the United States of America is doing us an ethical service is useless since we are being abused at home. Many in our country have sought out our most intelligent leaders to answer the questions of removal for us. And many of them have set us on a destructive policy. To remain here at all events until we are forced away, as though that would add credit to our character, and disgrace and infamy to the oppressors is a mistaken policy.

Taking all views under consideration, I was convinced to sign the Treaty of 1835. I was fully satisfied that it was the best that could be done for the Cherokees, and that it was far preferable that they should go, however reluctantly, with the advantages of that Treaty, than that they should be driven away degraded and impoverished.

Degraded - reduced far below ordinary standards of civilized life and conduct
Impoverished - represented by few species or individuals
Opressors – people who burden by abuse of power or authority

Source: Elias Boudinot signed the Treaty of New Echota in his home in 1835. He was representing the minority of Cherokee who favored removal / relocation. This is a letter written on August 1, 1837 to David Green, explaining why he signed the treaty.

Document 2

Doc. 1 Andrew Jackson (Modified)
It gives me great pleasure to announce to Congress that the Government's benevolent policy of Indian removal has almost been achieved.
We have wept over the fate of the natives of this country, as one by one many tribes have disappeared from the earth. However, we must accept this the way we accept when an older generation dies and makes room for the younger.
We would not want to see this continent restored to the condition in which our forefathers found it. What good man would prefer a country covered with forests and occupied by a few thousand savages to our great Republic, studded with cities, towns, and prosperous farms, decorated with art and industry, occupied by more than 12,000,000 happy people, and filled with all the blessings of liberty, civilization, and religion?
The United States will pay to send the natives to a land where they may live longer and possibly survive as a people.
Can it be cruel when this Government offers to purchase the Indian's land, give him new and extensive territory, pay the expense of his removal, and support him for the first year in his new home? How many thousands of our own people would gladly embrace the opportunity of moving West under such conditions!
The policy of the Government towards the red man is generous. The Indian is unwilling to follow the laws of the States and mingle with the population. To save him from utter annihilation, the Government kindly offers him a new home, and proposes to pay the whole expense of his removal and settlement.

Vocabulary

Benevolent - kind
Annihilation - destruction

Source: Andrew Jackson, State of the Union speech. December 30, 1830.

Document 3

Doc. 3 Chief John Ross (Modified)
By the stipulations of this instrument (treaty), we are spoiled of our private possessions and property We are stripped of every attribute of freedom and eligibility for legal self-defense. Our belongings may be plundered before our eyes; violence may be committed on our persons; even our lives may be taken away, and there is none to regard our complaints. We are denationalized; we are disfranchised. We are deprived of membership in the human family! We have neither land nor home, nor resting place that can be called our own. And these actions are being done under the name of 'treaty'.

We are overwhelmed! Our hearts are sickened, our response is paralyzed, when we reflect on the condition in which we are placed, by the audacious practices of unprincipled men, who have managed to strategize every move in the favor of the United States government against our protests of foul dealings.

The instrument (treaty) in question is not the act of our Nation; we are not in agreement with the pacts made and it has not received the sanction of our people. The makers of it sustain no office nor appointment in our Nation, under the designation of Chiefs, Head men, or any other title, by which they hold, or could acquire. They do not have the authority to enter into a bargain for the sale of our rights, our possessions, and our common country. We now see the forced acceptance of this treaty, against our will as an act of injustice and oppression, perpetrated by the United States government. We are asking the heads of this government to have compassion and negate this unfair treaty as it was signed by those who have no agency.

Audacious – a recklessly bold maneuver
Agency - a person or thing through which power is exerted or an end is achieved

Source: Despite two favorable Supreme Court decisions, the Cherokee Indians faced forced evictions from their ancestral homelands. In 1835 two commissioners appointed by President Andrew Jackson convinced a small group of Cherokees to sign the Treaty of New Echota, which gave all remaining Cherokee lands to the U.S.. The Cherokees who signed the treaty clearly did not represent the wishes of the majority of the Cherokee people in whose interest they claimed to act. Jackson nevertheless submitted the treaty to the Senate, which gave it its approval in March 1836. Months later, on September 28, 1836, the Cherokees led by John Ross went to Washington to argue their case before the House of Representatives. Ross brought with him a memorial (petition) signed by more than two thousand Cherokees.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

General Winfield Scott's Address to the Cherokee Nation - http://georgiainfo.galileo.usg.edu/topics/history/article/antebellum-era-1801-1860/gen-winfield-scotts-address-to-the-cherokee-nation

Cherokee Letter Protesting the Treaty of New Echota

http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/aia/part4/4h3083t.html

Transcript of President Jackson's Address to Congress "On Indian Removal"

http://www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=true&doc=25&page=transcript

John Burnett's (Private in the Army during removal of Cherokee) Story of Cherokee Removal

http://www.cherokee.org/AboutTheNation/History/TrailofTears/JohnBurnettsStoryoftheTrailofTears.aspx

Samuel Cloud's (Nine year old Cherokee boy on Trail of Tears) Story of Removal

http://www.wwnorton.com/college/history/america7/content/multimedia/ch11/research_02b.htm

Additional Links from Cherokee Nation on Trail of Tears

http://www.cherokee.org/AboutTheNation/History/TrailofTears.aspx

Additional Background on Native American Removal - PBS

http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/aia/part4/4p2959.html

Cherokee Alphabet and How to Use It -

http://www.native-languages.org/cherokee_alphabet.htm

Legend of the Cherokee Rose

http://americanfolklore.net/folklore/2009/02/the_cherokee_rose.html

Texas Independence

When Spain granted independence to Mexico in 1821, the land which is now the state of Texas was very sparsely populated. The Mexican government actually encouraged the settlement of the area by American pioneers. Mexico believed that more settlers would create a buffer zone between the Mexican heartland and the Comanche tribe that was harassing Mexicans. In addition, they believed that more settlers would help build a stronger economy.

In 1821, Stephen Austin led 300 American families onto land granted to his father by the Mexican government. There were, however, strings attached. The American settlers were expected to become Mexican.

Stop and Think 5.2

Was it wise for Mexico to allow Americans to settle their land?

All immigrants from the United States were by law forced to become Catholic.

Many of the new settlers came from the Southeast United States, bringing their cotton farming with them. Some built large plantations and brought in slaves to work the land. By 1830, 20,000 Americans had moved to Texas.

American settlers didn't follow the rules set forth by Mexico. Most were Protestant and spoke little or no Spanish. They felt no loyalty to

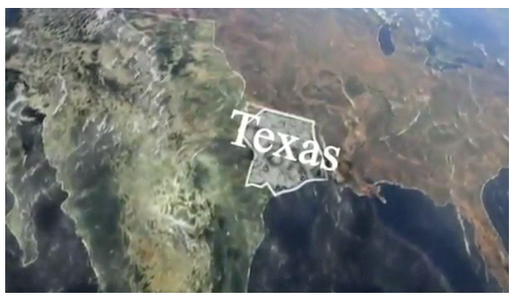
Mexico. This led to a conflict between the settlers and the Mexican government. Mexico feared they would lose Texas to America.

In an attempt to hold on to Texas, Mexico outlawed slavery in 1829 and stopped all American immigration in 1830. It also sent troops to enforce Mexican laws in Texas, which caused increased resentment with the settlers.

In 1833, General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna took power in Mexico. Two years later, he threw out the Mexican Constitution and became a dictator. Rumors spread that Santa Anna would throw Americans out of Texas. Texans were moved to action. They wanted to be free of Santa Anna and they wanted an independent Texas.

On March 2, 1836, representatives from Texas formally declared Texas independence from Mexico. They put Sam Houston in control of the Texas army. Texan-Americans were not the only ones fighting for independence. The Tejano people, Spanish-speaking settlers of Texas, also supported the Texas Revolution.

Movie 5.2



The Alamo - Soon, ominous news reached Texas that Santa Anna himself was marching north with 7,000 soldiers to crush the Texas revolution for freedom. When Sam Houston learned that Santa Anna's initial goal was to recapture San Antonio, he ordered all Texans out of San Antonio. But, 150 Texas rebels decided to defend the city and made their stand at an abandoned Spanish mission, the Alamo. The Texans at the Alamo were led by Col. William Travis and Jim Bowie, and frontier hero David Crockett.

For twelve days, Mexican forces lay siege to the Alamo. Travis issued an appeal for reinforcements, but only 32 men were able to cross Mexican lines to help the men in the Alamo. Legend has it that on the evening of March 5, 1836, Travis, realizing that defense of the Alamo was futile, drew a line in the dirt with his sword. Only those willing to die for Texas independence, Travis announced to the garrison, should step across the line and defend the Alamo. All but two men did. One refused to cross the line, and another, Jim Bowie, too sick to move from his cot, called over some friends and had them carry him across Travis's line.

At 5 a.m., March 6, Mexican troops scaled the mission's walls. By 8 a.m., the fighting was over. 183 Texas defenders lay dead. (Seven defenders surrendered and were immediately executed, and approximately 15 persons survived, including an American woman and her child). Mexican forces soaked the defenders' bodies in oil, stacked them like cordwood outside the mission, and set them ablaze.

If the Alamo was a military defeat, it was a psychological victory. Santa Anna's troops suffered l,550 casualties--eight Mexican soldiers died for every one Texas defender. "Remember the Alamo" became the battle cry of the Texas War of Independence.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Col. Travis' Letter from the Alamo -

http://texasheritagesociety.org/The-Travis-Letter-Victory-or-Death-.html

More information about the Travis Letter

http://www.travisletter.com/index.html

Goliad - Two weeks after the defeat at the Alamo, a group of Texas surrendered to Mexican forces outside of Goliad with the understanding that they would be treated as prisoners of war. But Santa Anna set aside the agreement. Instead, he ordered more than 350 Texans shot.

San Jacinto - The defeats gave Sam Houston time to raise and train an army. Volunteers from the American South flocked to help. On April 21, his army of less than 800 men surprised Santa Anna's army as it camped out on the San Jacinto River, east of present-day Houston. The next day, Houston's army captured Santa Anna himself and forced him to sign a treaty granting Texas its independence--a treaty that was never recognized by the Mexican government because it was signed while Santa Ana was being held hostage.

Most Texan-Americans wanted to be annexed by the United States. They feared that the Mexican government might soon try to recapture Texas, which it attempted unsuccessfully twice. Many had originally come from the American south and had great interest in becoming a southern state. President Andrew Jackson saw trouble. Many Whigs and Abolitionists in the North refused to admit another slave state to the Union. Rather than risk tearing the nation apart over this controversial issue, Jackson did not pursue Texas **annexation**. The Lone Star flag flew proudly over the Lone Star Republic for nine years. Texas was an independent country.

Texas Annexation - The annexation question became one of the most controversial issues in American politics in the late 1830s and early 1840s. The issue was not whether America wanted Texas but instead the issue was centered around the question of slavery. The admission of Texas to the Union would upset the balance of power in the United States Senate between slave states and free states, just as the admission of Missouri threatened 15 years earlier. In 1838, John Quincy Adams, then a member of the House of Representatives, staged a 22-day filibuster (stalling tactic) that successfully blocked annexation. It appeared that Congress had settled the Texas question. Texas would remain an independent republic for the time being.

It would take some considerable politcal trickery to bring Texas into the Union as a slave state. In 1841, John Tyler, who supported slavery, became president when William Henry Harrison died. Tyler and his Secretary of State, John C. Calhoun, argued that Great Britain was going to annex Texas if the United States did not and transform it into a haven for runaway slaves. Sam Houston played along with this ploy by conducting highly visible negotiations with the British government. If the United States would not annex Texas, Houston warned, Texas would seek the support of "some other friend" - namely Great Britain.

The Texas question was the major political issue in the Presidential campaign of 1844. James Polk, the Democratic candidate, strongly supported annexation. His victory encouraged Tyler to submit a resolution to Congress calling for annexation and Congress narrowly approved the resolution in 1845, making Texas the 28th state.

Figure 5.2

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

The Story of Texas Independence -

http://www.txindependence.org/

Interactive map of the fight for Texas independence

http://glencoe.com/sites/common_assets/socialstudies/in_motion_10/tav/TAV_268.swf

Oregon Territory

The southern boundary of the United States with Mexico was not the only western territory under dispute. The Oregon Territory spanned the modern states of Oregon, Idaho, and Washington, as well as the western coast of Canada up to the border of Russian Alaska. Both Great Britain and America claimed the territory. The Treaty of 1818 called for joint occupation of Oregon — a solution that was only temporary. Led by missionaries, American settlers began to outnumber British settlers by the late 1830s. But Britain was not Mexico. Its powerful navy was still the largest in the world. Twice before had Americans taken up arms against Great Britain at great expense to each side. It appeared that a negotiated settlement with Great Britain would be best, but the spirit of manifest destiny dominated American thought.

In 1844 the Democrats nominated James K. Polk, an unknown candidate from Tennessee. Polk was an excellent strategist. He tapped into the public mood and realized that manifest destiny was the very issue that could lead him to victory. Polk called for expansion that included Texas, California, and the entire Oregon territory. The northern boundary of Oregon was the latitude line of 54 degrees, 40 minutes. "Fifty-four forty or fight!" was the popular slogan that led Polk to victory against all odds.

Claiming the territory in an election campaign was one thing. Acquiring it from the powerful British was another. Although Polk talked about taking the entire territory from Britain, he was secretly willing to compromise. In June of that year, Britain proposed splitting Oregon at the 49th parallel. Polk agreed to the compromise, and conflict was avoided.

Figure 5.3 Territorial Acquisitions - Oregon Territory

Mexican War

Beginning in 1846, fifteen years before the United States fought the Civil War, the U.S. fought a war against Mexico that added half a million square miles of territory to the United States. It was a controversial war that bitterly divided American public opinion. And it was the war that gave young officers named Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, Thomas ("Stonewall") Jackson, William Tecumseh Sherman, and

George McClellan (future heros of the Civil War) their first experience in a major conflict.

The underlying cause of the Mexican War was the movement of American pioneers into lands claimed by Mexico. The immediate reason for the conflict was the annexation of Texas in 1845. Mexico refused to recognize Texan independence and warned the United States that the annexation of Texas would essentially be a declaration of war.

In early 1845, when Congress voted to annex Texas, Mexico threw-out the American ambassador and cut diplomatic relations, but it did not declare war.

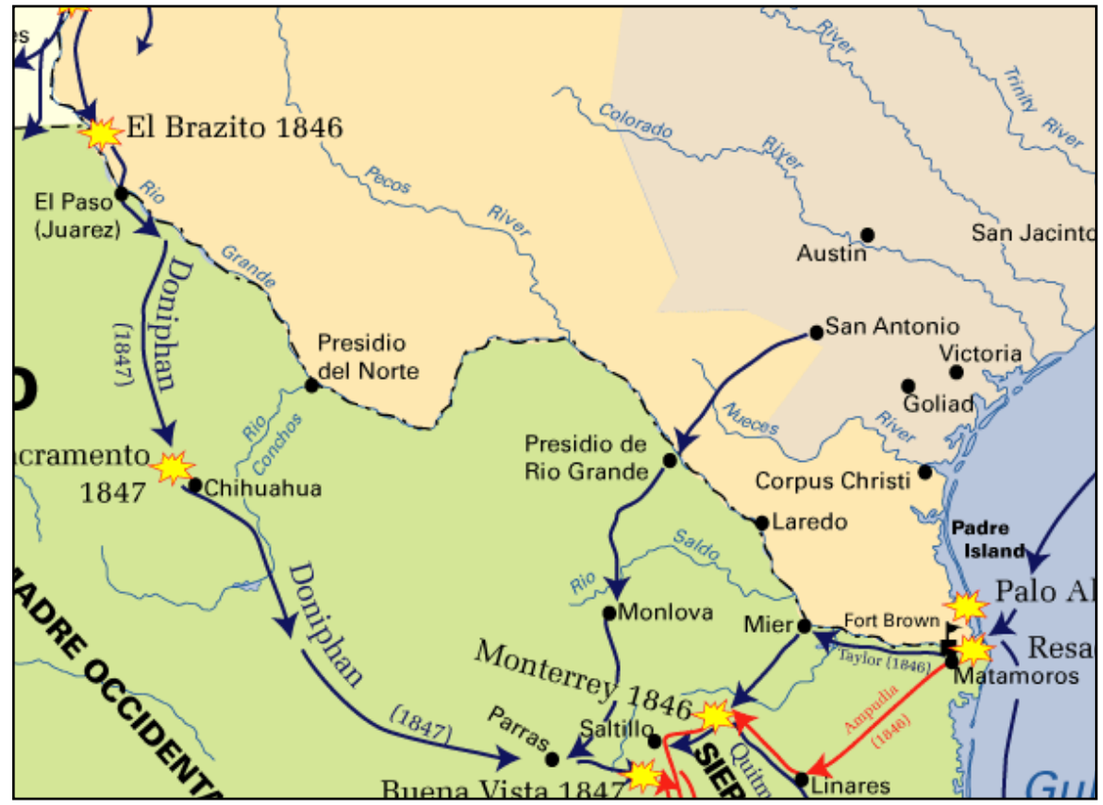
President Polk told his commanders to prepare for the possibility of war. He ordered American naval vessels to position themselves outside Mexican ports and he dispatched American forces in the Southwest to Corpus Christi, Texas.

None-the-less, a peaceful settlement of the two countries' differences still seemed possible. In the fall of 1845, the President offered $5 million if Mexico agreed to recognize the Rio Grande River as the southwestern boundary of Texas. Earlier, the Spanish government had defined the Texas boundary as the Nueces River, 130 miles north and east of the Rio Grande. No Americans lived between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, although many Hispanics lived in the region.

The United States also offered up to $5 million for the province of New Mexico--which included Nevada and Utah and parts of four other states--and up to $25 million for California. Polk was anxious to acquire California.

The Mexican government, already angered over the annexation of Texas, refused negotiate with the United States. The failure of the negotiations led Polk to order Brigadier General Zachary Taylor to march

Figure 5.4



3,000 troops southwest from Corpus Christi, Texas, to "defend the Rio Grande" River. Late in March of 1846, Taylor and his men set up camp along the Rio Grande, directly across from the Mexican city of Matamoros, on a stretch of land claimed by both Mexico and the United States.

On April 25, 1846, a Mexican cavalry force crossed the Rio Grande and clashed with a small American squadron, forcing the Americans to surrender after the loss of several lives. On May 11, after he received word of the border clash, Polk asked Congress to acknowledge that a state of war already existed "by the act of Mexico herself...notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it." "Mexico," the President announced, "has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory

and shed American blood upon the American soil." Congress responded with a declaration of war.

The Mexican War was extremely controversial. Its supporters blamed Mexico for the war because it had broken relations with the United States, threatened war, and had "invaded our territory and shed American blood on American soil." Opponents of the war believed the war as a land grab by an expanding power (the United States) and claimed that Polk deliberately provoked Mexico into war by ordering American troops into disputed territory. A Delaware Senator declared that ordering Taylor to the Rio Grande was "as much an act of aggression on our part as is a man's pointing a pistol at another's breast." Critics also argued that the war was a power play by aggressive Southern slave owners intent on gaining more slave states in the U.S. Watch movies 5.3 and 5.4 for more information.

Stop and Think 5.3

Were we right to go to war against Mexico?

Movie 5.3

Movie 5.4

The Mexican-American War was formally ended by the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo. The United States Army had won a grand victory. Although 13,000 soldiers were killed, the U.S. military won every engagement of the war.The United States received the disputed Texan territory, as well as New Mexico territory and California. The Mexican government was paid $15 million — the same sum issued to France for the Louisiana Territory. Mexico was stripped of half of its territory.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Mexican War video

http://www.pbs.org/kera/usmexicanwar/index_flash.html

California Gold Rush

Figure 5.5

This photograph of Sutter's Mill was taken in 1852, four years after the discovery that began the gold rush.

In January of 1848, a man named James Marshall innocently noticed a few shiny flecks in a California stream at Sutter's Mill. Word spread of gold and soon people from all over California flocked inland seeking instant fortune. By autumn, word had reached the east. During the year that followed, over 80,000 "forty-niners" flocked to California in the hopes of finding gold. Some would actually strike it rich, but most would not.

Life in a mining town was not easy. Often the towns consisted of one main street. It is in these towns that the mythical "Old American West" was born. The social center of these new communities was the saloon. Here, miners might spend some of their meager earnings after a hard day's work. Gambling, drinking, and fighting were widespread, and justice was often determined by the hardest punch or the fastest draw. About 95% of the mining population was young and male. Some women were shopkeepers and businesswomen, and some were panning for gold side by side with the men.

Although mostly young and male, the population of California was very diverse. In addition to the white American settlers, free African-Americans could also be found among their ranks. There were many Mexicans who were hoping to strike it rich as well. Word reached European shores and immigrants headed to America's west. German-Jewish immigrant Levi Strauss invented trousers for the miners — his blue jeans became an American mainstay. Another significant segment of the population was the Chinese, who hoped to find gold and return to their homeland. Over 45,000 immigrants swelled the population between 1849 and 1854. Diversity did not bring harmony. The white majority often attacked the Mexican and Chinese minorities. The miners ruthlessly forced the California Native Americans off their lands. Laws were passed to restrict new land claims to white Americans.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

People of the Gold Rush

http://www.calgoldrush.com/lb_sets/03women.html

'49er S. Shufelt's Letter on the Gold Rush

http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/californiagoldrush.htm

CA Goldrush Primary Sources - Letters and Images

http://glittering.com/letters/index.html

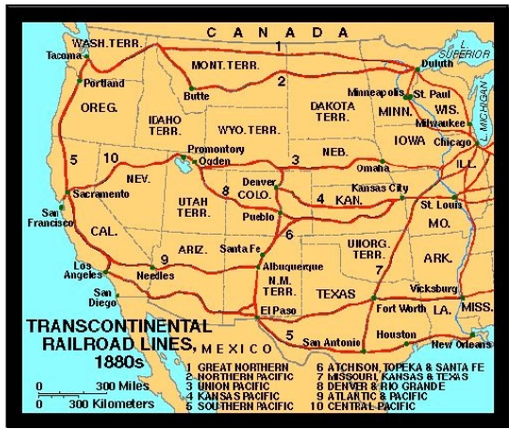
Transcontinental Railroad

Soon after the railroad made its appearance in the U.S. in the 1830s, Americans dreamed of linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by rail. A transcontinental railroad would allow for settlement of the west, open new markets for eastern manufacturers, and bring relief to overcrowded eastern cities. Also, remember, many Americans believed it was divinely intended that America's Manifest Destiny was to control the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific Oceans.

Steaming locomotives would quicken western settlement, spread democratic values, and increase the size of the United States (Arizona, Oklahoma, New Mexico etc., were not yet states, only territories). The federal government awarded the contract to link the coasts by rail to two companies, the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific.

Union Pacific workers, many of whom were Irish and Chinese immigrants, started at Omaha, Nebraska, and hammered their way westward. From Sacramento, California, the Central Pacific made its way eastward with the assistance of thousands of Chinese immigrants.

Figure 5.6



Those working on the railroad gave their sweat and sometimes their lives blasting through the often unforgiving terrain. Other dangers that workers faced were disease, searing summer heat, freezing temperatures in the mountains, Native American raids and the lawlessness and violence of pioneer towns.

The Golden Spike - The government declared that the two lines would merge at Promontory Summit near Ogden, Utah. On May 10, 1869, Leland Stanford, representing the Central Pacific Railroad, was provided the honor to hammer a golden spike into the ground that marked the completion of the coast-to-coast line. Celebrations erupted across the land. Even the Liberty Bell tolled once again to commemorate the occasion.

Figure 5.7 Golden Spike Ceremony

The Chinese workers present that day were excluded from the picture above.

Soon, other transcontinental lines were constructed and travel across the continent became worlds simpler, less expensive, and much faster, than by the old Conestoga wagon.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Learn more about the Transcontinental Railroad

http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/goldenspike.htm

http://www.history.com/topics/inventions/transcontinental-railroad

Primary Sources from the Transcontinental Railroad

http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/features/primary-resources/tcrr-reports/

interactive map of the Transcontinental Railroad

http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/features/flash-interactive/tcrr/

interesting reading on the T.R.

http://www.calisphere.universityofcalifornia.edu/themed_collections/subtopic2b.html

Homesteading

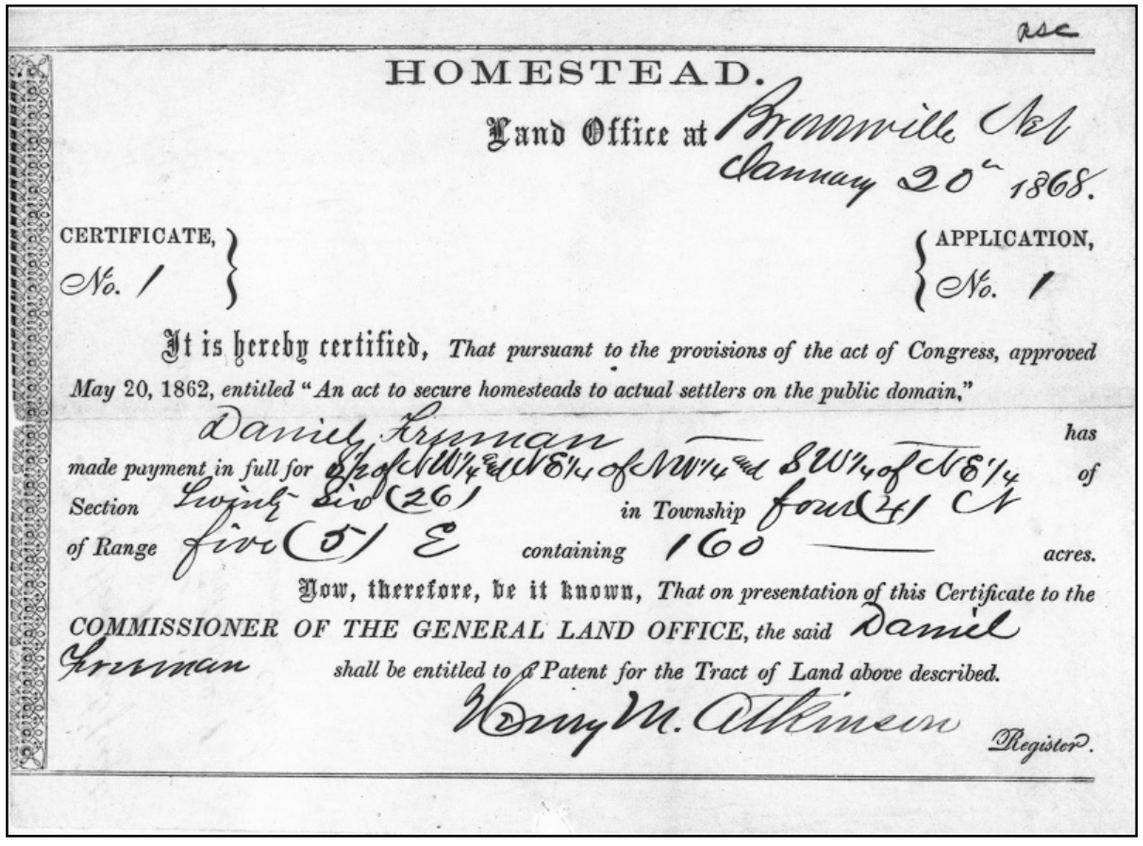
In 1862 Congress passed a law which gave 160 acres of free land to any citizen (or person intending citizenship) as long as they met the following requirements:

- improve the land (essentially farm the land)
- build a house
- live on the land for five years
- pay a total of $18 in fees

- be 21 years or older (This included women and African Americans who were allowed to be homesteaders.)
- must not have "born arms against the United States" - In other words, homesteaders could not have fought on the side of the Confederacy during the Civil War.

The Homestead Act was passed as an attempt to have pioneers settle some of the dry and arid plains to the east of the Rocky Mountains. By 1900, about half a million Americans had set up farms under the Homestead Act.

Figure 5.8 Daniel Freeman's Certificate of Land Acquisition



HOMESTEAD.

Land Office at Brownville Neb
January 20th 1868.

CERTIFICATE, No. 1

APPLICATION, No. 1

It is hereby certified, That pursuant to the provisions of the act of Congress, approved May 20, 1862, entitled "An act to secure homesteads to actual settlers on the public domain," Daniel Freeman has made payment in full for E½ of NW¼ and W½ of NE¼ of NW¼ and SW¼ of NE¼ of Section twenty six (26) in Township four (4) N of Range five (5) E containing 160 acres.

Now, therefore, be it known, That on presentation of this Certificate to the COMMISSIONER OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE, the said Daniel Freeman shall be entitled to a Patent for the Tract of Land above described.

Henry M. Atkinson Register.

While the requirements of the Homestead Act may seem small, actually only between 50- 60% of the claimants were successfully able to take possession of the land. Farming the 160 acres in the plains was quite challenging. The sod of the plains was very hard to farm. Pioneers in this area of the United States often had to live in sod (or essentially dirt) houses. Experience and money were required to be successful. In addition, there were large amounts of corruption as people claimed free land with no intention of living on it. Instead they turned around and sold the land to make a profit.

None-the-less, the Homestead Act did play a large role in encouraging settlement in the plains.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Homestead Act with Primary Sources

http://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/homestead-act/

The Impact of Westward Expansion on the Plains Indians

Beginning in the 1860s, a 30 year conflict arose as the government sought to move the Plains tribes of Indians onto reservations. Philip Sheridan, a Civil War general who led many campaigns against the Plains Indians, is famous for saying "the only good Indian is a dead Indian." But even he recognized the injustice that lay behind the late 19th century warfare:

We took away their country and their means of support, broke up their mode of living, their habits of life, introduced disease and decay among them, and it was for this and against this that they made war. Could anyone expect less?

Santee Sioux - Violence erupted first in Minnesota, where, by 1862, the Santee Sioux were confined to a territory 150 miles long and just 10 miles wide. The federal government did not give the yearly payment and agricultural aid promised by a treaty, and the Santee Sioux rose up in August 1862 and killed 500 white settlers at New Ulm, Minnesota.

President Lincoln appointed John Pope, who had commanded Union forces at the second Battle of Bull Run, to crush the uprising. The general announced that he would deal with the Sioux "as maniacs or wild beasts, and by no means as people with whom treaties or compromises can be made." When the Sioux surrendered in September 1862, about 1,800 were taken prisoner and 303 were condemned to death. Lincoln commuted the sentences of most, but he authorized the hanging of 38, the largest mass execution in American history.

Cheyenne - In 1864, warfare spread to Colorado after the discovery of gold led to an influx of whites. Because the regular army was fighting the Confederacy in the Civil War, the Colorado territorial militia was responsible for maintaining order. On November 29, 1864, a group of Colorado volunteers, under the command of Colonel John M. Chivington, fell on Chief Black Kettle's unsuspecting band of Cheyennes at Sand Creek in eastern Colorado, where they had gathered under the protection of the governor. "We must kill them big and little," he told his men. "Nits make lice" (nits are the eggs of lice). The militia slaughtered about 150 Cheyenne, mostly women and children.

These conflicts sparked a national debate over Indian policy. In 1867, Congress created a Peace Commission to recommend ways to reduce conflict with Native Americans on the Plains. The commission recommended that Native Americans be moved to small reservations, where they would be Christianized, educated, and taught to farm.

The federal government demanded that the Plains Indians give up their lands and move to reservations. In return for supplies and annual payment of money, the southern Plains Indians were told to move to poor, unproductive lands in Oklahoma and the northern tribes to the Black Hills of the Dakotas. If they did not accept, they were told there would be war. Many whites regarded the Plains Indians as an obstacle to westward expansion.

Leaders of several tribes agreed to move onto reservations. But many Indians rejected the land cessions made by their chiefs.

In the Southwest, war broke out in 1871 in New Mexico and Arizona with the massacre of more than 100 Indians at Camp Grant. The Apache War did not end until 1886, when their leader, Geronimo was captured. On the southern Plains, war erupted when the Cheyennes, Comanches, and Kiowas staged raids into the Texas panhandle. The Red River War ended only after federal troops destroyed Native American food supplies and killed a hundred Cheyenne warriors near the Sappa River in Kansas. This essentially ended the Native American resistance on the Southern Plains.

Nez Perce - In the Pacific Northwest, the Nez Perce of Oregon and Idaho rebelled against the federal reservation policy and then attempted to escape to Canada, covering 1,300 miles in just 75 days. They were forced to surrender in Montana, just 40 miles short of the Canadian border. Chief Joseph, the Nez Perce leader, offered a poignant explanation for why he had surrendered:

I am tired of fighting....The old men are all killed.... The little children are freezing to death....From where the sun now stands, I will fight no more forever.

After their surrender, the Nez Perce were taken to Oklahoma, where most died of disease.

Sioux - The best-known episode of Indian resistance took place after miners discovered gold in the Black Hills--land that had been set aside as a reservation "in perpetuity." When thousands of miners staked claims on Sioux lands, war erupted, in which an Indian force led by Crazy Horse and Sitting Bull killed General George Custer and his 264 men at the Battle of the Little Big Horn. "Custer's Last Stand" was fol-

lowed by five years of warfare in Montana that confined the Sioux to their reservations.

Causes of the Plains Indians Defeat - Several factors contributed to the defeat of the Plains Indians. One was a shift in the military balance of power. Before the Civil War, an Indian could shoot 30 arrows in the time it took a soldier to load and shoot his rifle once. The introduction of the Colt six-shooter and the repeating rifle after the Civil War, undercut this Indian advantage. During the 1870s, the army also introduced a military tactic--winter campaigning. The army attacked Plains Indians during the winter when they divided into small bands, making it difficult for Indians effectively to resist.

Another key factor was the destruction of the Indian food supply, especially the buffalo. In 1860, about 13 million roamed the Plains. These animals provided Plains Indians with many basic necessities. They ate buffalo meat, made clothing and tipi coverings out of hides, used fats for grease, fashioned the bones into tools and fishhooks, made thread and bowstrings from the sinews, and even burned dried buffalo droppings ("chips") as fuel. Buffalo also figured prominently in Plains Indians' religious life. After the Civil War, the herds were cut down by professional hunters, who shot 100 an hour to feed railroad workers, and by wealthy easterners who killed them for sport. By 1890, only about 1,000 bison remained alive. Government officials quite openly viewed the destruction of the buffalo as a tool for controlling the Plains Indians.

LINKS TO FURTHER INQUIRY

Nez Perce Tribe

http://www.army.mil/article/28124/The_Nez_Perce_War_of_1877/

http://www.pbs.org/weta/thewest/people/a_c/chiefjoseph.htm

Chief Joseph - Selected Speeches and Statements

http://www.pbs.org/weta/thewest/people/a_c/chiefjoseph.htm

The Battle of Little Big Horn and Custer's Last Stand

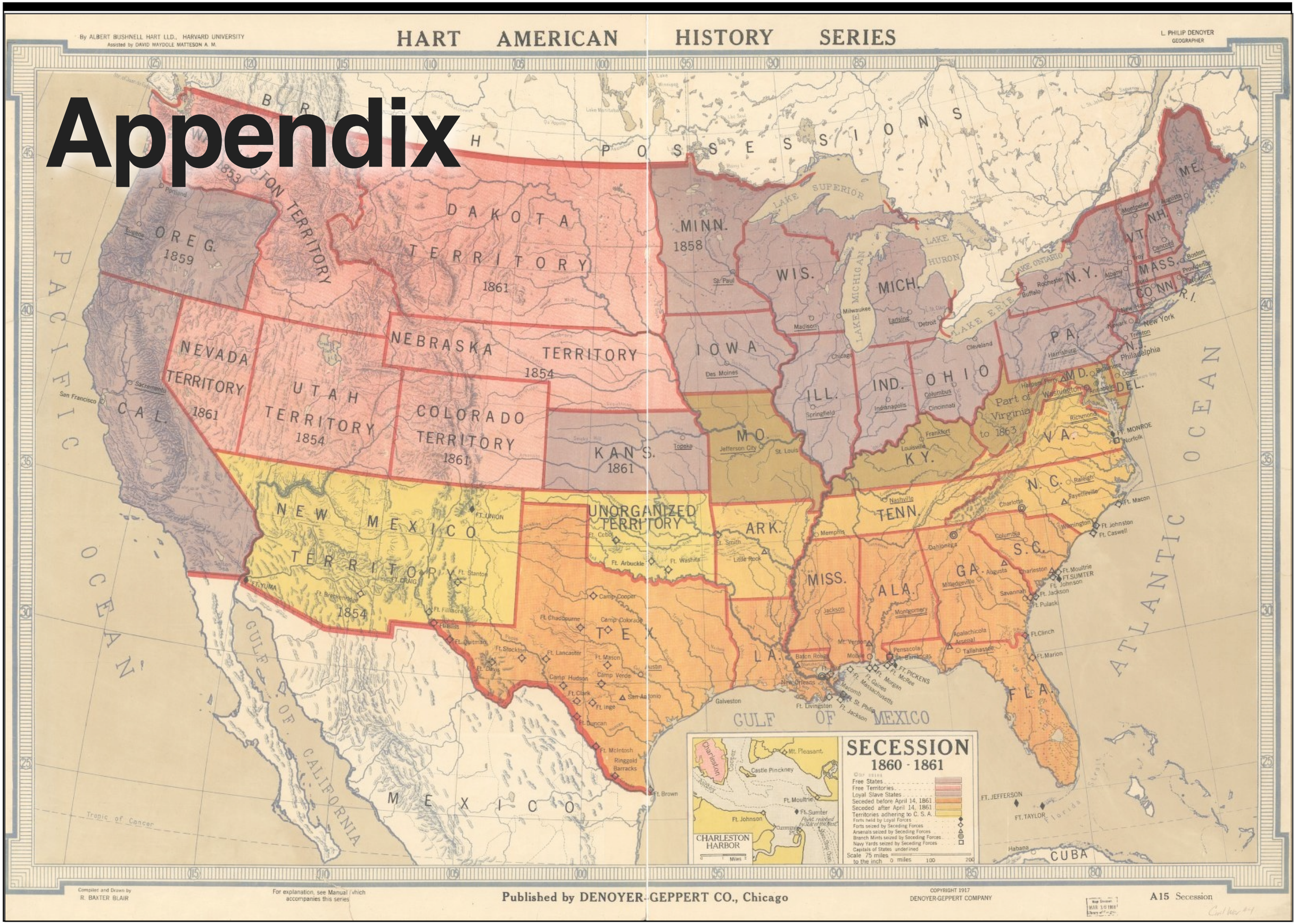
http://www.nps.gov/libi/index.htm

http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/custer.htm

http://www.history.com/topics/native-american-history/battle-of-the-little-bighorn

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q2UzKRUgzJo

Appendix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PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
GULF OF MEXICO
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
CUBA
Tropic of Cancer
SECESSION
1860 - 1861
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Free Territories
Loyal Slave States
Seceded before April 14, 1861
Seceded after April 14, 1861
Territories adhering to C. S. A.
Forts held by Loyal Forces
Forts seized by Seceding Forces
Arsenals seized by Seceding Forces
Branch Mints seized by Seceding Forces
Navy Yards seized by Seceding Forces
Capitals of States underlined
Scale 75 miles to the inch
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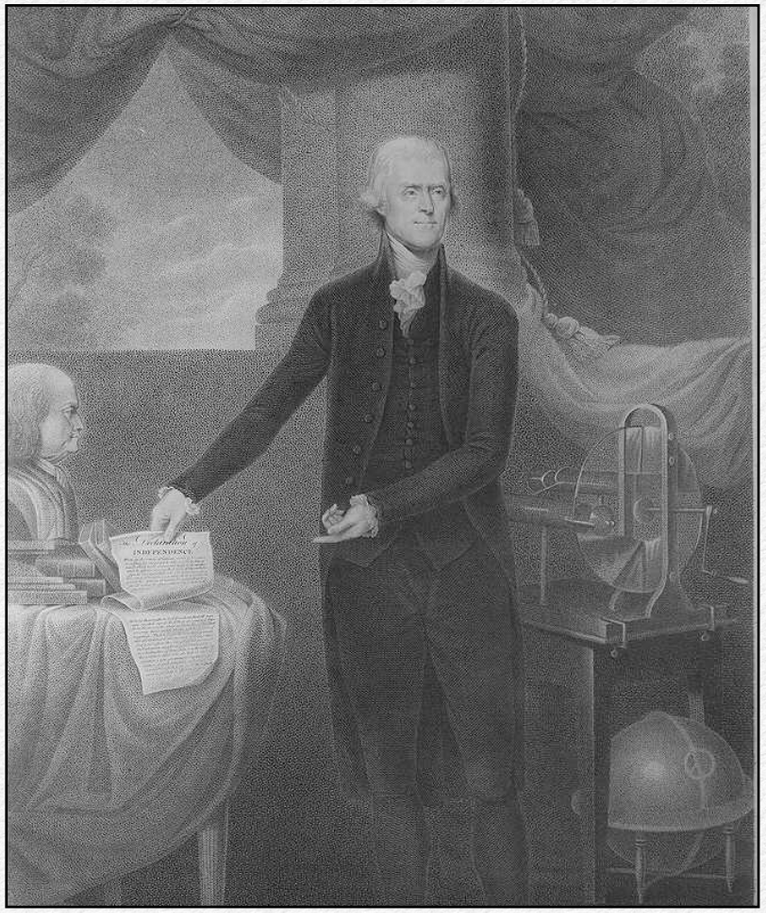

- ushistory.org - http://www.ushistory.org/
- national parks website - http://www.nps.gov/index.htm
- wikibooks - http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/US_History/Civil_War
- Sage American History - http://www.sageamericanhistory.net
- Digital History - http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/disp
- Library of Congress - http://www.loc.gov/

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Annexation

the act of adding territtory to the nation

Related Glossary Terms

Drag related terms here

Index Find Term

Chapter 5 - Moving West: A Chapter of Inquiry

Callous

cruel and harsh

Related Glossary Terms

Drag related terms here

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Chapter 5 - Moving West: A Chapter of Inquiry

Ceded

to give up land as part of an agreement

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Chapter 1 - Louisiana Purchase and Lewis & Clark

Incarceration

put in jail or prison

Related Glossary Terms

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Chapter 1 - Louisiana Purchase and Lewis & Clark

Invoked

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Manifest destiny

the term referring to the belief that the expansion of the United States was right and unavoidable

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Chapter 4 - Manifest Destiny and the Continued Challenges of Slavery

Pragmatic

reasonable and sensible

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Providence

a term referring to the will and desire of God

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Chapter 4 - Manifest Destiny and the Continued Challenges of Slavery

Seceding

the act of separating from a nation or state and becoming independent

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