

VOL. II — The Civil War to the 21st Century

All American History

Uniting America's Story, Piece by Piece



CIVIL WAR



COLD WAR



MODERN AMERICA



WORLD WARS



A full year's curriculum in 32 weekly lessons

CELESTE W. RAKES

Student Reader

*All American History, Volume II: Uniting America's Story, Piece by Piece;
The Civil War to the 21st Century — Student Reader*
by Celeste W. Rakes
Vol. II of the All American History series

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PREFACE

More than a decade ago, three other homeschooling moms and I decided to form a co-op and offer classes for our children and for other homeschooled students who would like to participate. My responsibility in the co-op was to teach American history. Although I graduated from college with a degree in history and was certified to teach it, I had never done so in a traditional classroom setting. However, after teaching my own children at home and tutoring others, I had formed some definite ideas about how I wanted to approach teaching this course.

As I began making plans for the class, I spent many hours looking through history curricula (some that I was very familiar with and some that were new to me). Although each program had aspects that I liked, none of them had everything I wanted. Finally, I decided to attempt to develop my own program to use in teaching the class. Those first feeble efforts were the seeds of *All American History, Volumes 1 and 2*.

INTRODUCTION

In developing the curriculum that became *All American History*, I had several specific goals in mind. First of all, I knew that I wanted to structure the material both chronologically and thematically. After I had completed my research, I found that I had enough information for eight distinct themes or units (Volume 1—Explorers, Colonies, American Revolution, and Period of Establishment, and Volume 2—Civil War, Gilded Age, World Wars, and Cold War). Once I had finished writing those unit studies, I found that I had produced eight lessons for each unit—enough for a two-year program! By organizing my curriculum around these thematic units, I hoped to create a simple and memorable framework for my students to “plug in” the historical information that they learned.

My second goal was to provide my students with the basic factual information that I felt they should learn for each unit. Many history curricula provide a wealth of suggestions for projects and activities but require the teacher or student to gather the information necessary to do them. Although my program offers many opportunities for further exploration, it can still be used effectively without spending countless hours looking for information at the public library or buying a large number of history books to have on hand at home. Those students who want to tackle the research projects in each lesson can easily do so using a computer with Internet access.

In addition to establishing a helpful learning structure and supplying the essential historical information, I also hoped to create a variety of educational experiences for my students to enhance their study and understanding of American history. Too often the study of history means reading a boring textbook, regurgitating the facts from that textbook on a test, and possibly writing the answers to a few homework questions and a report or two. That is not what I wanted history to mean to my children

and to my co-op students! I wanted them to experience and believe that history is not boring — that it is the story of real people through the ages.

In order to provide a diversity of educational experiences, I attempted to incorporate into my curriculum many study options beyond the mastering of basic historical information. These included:

- reading opportunities (biographies and historical fiction for each unit)
- writing projects (creative writing, as well as the compilation of fact sheets into notebooks on several topics)
- artistic and other hands-on work (original art projects, as well as flags to color, pictures of historical figures to associate with important events, maps to label, timelines to produce)

I also made a special effort to emphasize the social and cultural aspects of American history, much more so than most history curricula do. My belief is that history comes alive for students when they learn how people in past periods of history lived — what kind of clothes they wore, the houses they lived in, the foods they ate, the games they played, the schools they attended, and so forth. In developing this curriculum, I spent much time researching this aspect of history and trying to make it accessible to the students.

My final goal in creating this history program was to provide opportunities for my students to cement in their minds the important information from each unit. Again, I wanted to develop a variety of methods to accomplish this. The factual information that the students read and discuss includes impact bullets at the end of each lesson, summarizing the main points. Each lesson also has simple review questions that highlight the significant details. Finally, there are several hands-on activities and games for each unit that serve the purpose of review.

LESSON 9

Presidents of the Gilded Age 1876 — 1901 A.D.

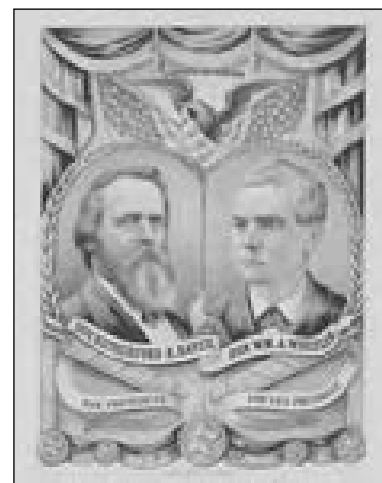
ATMOSPHERE

THE DISPUTED ELECTION OF 1876

The presidential election of 1876 was dominated by the themes of Republican corruption and economic hard times. The scandals that had been uncovered during Grant's administration had hurt the Republican Party, and many in the country had grown dissatisfied with Republican Reconstruction policies. The Panic of 1873 had led to an economic depression, which was showing no signs of lessening.

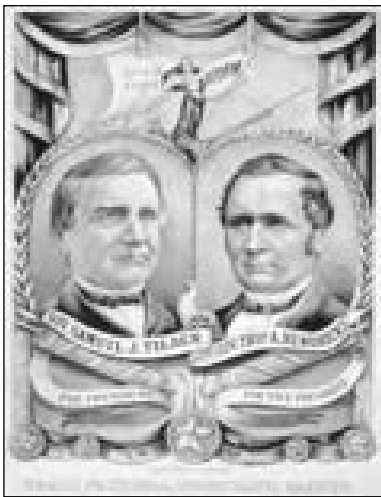
The Republicans chose Rutherford B. Hayes as their presidential candidate. Hayes, a dark horse nominee, was an Ohio native with a Harvard law degree. A major general in the Union army, he had served in the U.S. House of Representatives and as governor of Ohio after the war, with a record free from scandal. The Democrats nominated Samuel Tilden, a brilliant railroad lawyer and the former governor of New York. Tilden had become nationally known for breaking up the infamous Tweed gang, which had defrauded New York City of millions of dollars.

All signs pointed to a victory for the Democratic candidate in 1876. Even Hayes himself did not believe that he could win. However, this presidential contest evolved into one of the most extraordinary in



**Election banner for
Hayes / Wheeler**

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**Election banner for
Tilden / Hendricks**

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The Compromise of 1877

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American history. On election day, Tilden received the larger number of popular votes. However, the electoral votes of three southern states (Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina) were claimed by both parties. This left Tilden with 184 electoral votes, one short of the 185 that he needed to win the presidency. Hayes had 165 electoral votes, and 20 electoral votes were in question.

In order to deal with these disputed electoral votes, Congress set up a fifteen-member commission (five from the Supreme Court, five from the U.S. Senate, and five from the U.S. House of Representatives) to decide which candidate would receive the votes. This commission, voting along strict party lines (8 – 7), gave all the disputed votes to Hayes, thus assuring his election as president. The final electoral vote tally was 185 for Hayes and 184 for Tilden.

THE COMPROMISE OF 1877

When presented with the commission's decision, southern Democrats threatened a filibuster to hold up completion of the electoral vote count in Congress. A long series of conferences followed, in which the Democrats and the supporters of Hayes hammered out what has become known as the Compromise of 1877. As a result of these nego-



tiations, southern Democrats were promised a cabinet seat, subsidies for railroad construction, and a voice in the distribution of federal jobs in the South. Republicans also agreed to withdraw the last federal troops from the South (in South Carolina and Louisiana) if the constitutional voting and civil rights of freed slaves would be protected. After being promised these concessions, the Democrats agreed not to dispute the commission's decision.

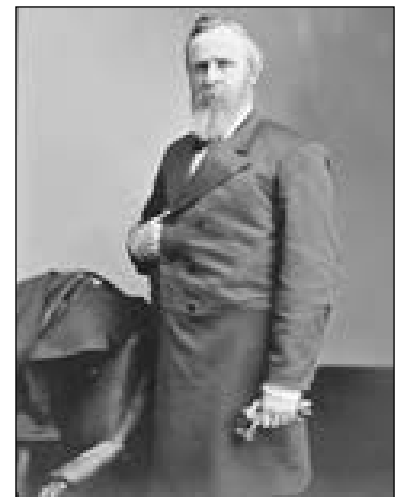
Almost all the presidential elections following Reconstruction until the turn of the century were hotly contested. Therefore, most of the presidents during this period came into office with very narrow victories and lacked a strong popular mandate for their policies. Compared to the great industrial and business magnates of the period, most presidents during the Gilded Age were not known as strong, charismatic leaders.

EVENT

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES (1877 – 1881)

During Hayes's first months as president, he was referred to as "His Fraudulency" and "Rutherfraud" B. Hayes in many newspapers. However, Hayes was a hard-working leader, who wanted to restore dignity and honesty to the office of the presidency. At the beginning of his administration, he announced that he would serve only one term in office. Hayes also moved quickly to order federal troops out of South Carolina and Louisiana, as had been promised in the Compromise of 1877.

Although Hayes had committed to protecting the rights of freed slaves, he also wanted to build a new Republican Party that southern businessmen and conservatives would support. During the first years of his presidency, the nation's economic depression continued. Hayes, however, resisted pressure from farmers and labor to increase the amount of paper money and silver coins in circulation and resumed the payment of gold for government bonds issued to finance the Civil War. These actions helped to restore the nation's financial stability.



Rutherford B. Hayes
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpbh-05116]*

Although many southern leaders approved of the president's conservative economic policies, they did not believe they could survive politically if they joined the Republican Party, known in the South as the party of Reconstruction.

During his term in office, Hayes also worked to weaken the spoils system, the use of appointments to public office as a reward for political party loyalty. When Hayes became president, he removed fewer federal employees than any president since John Quincy Adams, which angered his fellow Republicans. He insisted that appointments be made on the basis of merit and not on mere political considerations. President Hayes also used his veto power thirteen times to put down attempts by Congress to pass legislation curbing presidential powers.



James A. Garfield

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JAMES A. GARFIELD (1881)

Known as the “last of the log cabin presidents,” James Garfield was another dark horse nominee of the Republican Party. This Ohio native had served in the Union army, eventually being appointed a major general. After the war, he had been elected to the U.S. House of Representatives, and he received the nomination for president after being elected to his first term in the U.S. Senate. In the 1880 election, Garfield defeated the Democratic nominee, General Winfield Scott Hancock, by only ten thousand popular votes.

Garfield became president during a period when there was a great need for reform in politics. During his short time in office, he strengthened federal authority over the New York Customs House, which had been controlled by New York Senator Roscoe Conkling. Conkling was a leader of the Stalwart faction of the Republican Party, as was Garfield's vice president, Chester A. Arthur. Garfield, on the other hand belonged to the Half-Breed faction of the Republican Party. Stalwarts had received only minor posts in Garfield's administration, whereas Half-Breeds had been given the more important government jobs.

On July 2, 1881, just a few months after taking office, President Garfield was shot at a Washington, D.C., railroad station by an attor-

ney named Charles Guiteau. Obviously mentally unbalanced, Guiteau was angry with Garfield because he had not been given a diplomatic appointment in the new administration. He had been stalking the president for almost a month, believing that he had been chosen by God to kill Garfield so that Vice President Arthur could become president. Guiteau was found guilty of murder and hanged June 30, 1882, in a jail in Washington, D.C.

James Garfield spent less than two hundred days as president, and nearly half of that time he lay on his deathbed. Alexander Graham Bell was called to the president's bedside and asked to use his induction-balance electrical device in an attempt to locate the bullet still lodged in Garfield's body. Bell's efforts were not successful. Following Garfield's death, an autopsy of his body revealed that the president's doctors had misjudged the bullet's path and that none of his major organs had been damaged. However, their failure to use sterile instruments and to maintain germ-free conditions caused Garfield to develop an infection that led to an internal hemorrhage. On September 19, 1881, he became the fourth president to die in office.

**President James Garfield
on his deathbed as
Alexander Graham Bell
uses his listening device in an
attempt to locate the bullet**

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Chester A. Arthur
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [USZ62-13021]*



**Editorial depiction of
the Mongrel Tariff**
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CHESTER A. ARTHUR (1881 – 1885)

Chester Arthur was a courteous, handsome, wealthy gentleman, whom many Americans believed to be unfit to assume the presidency. Born in Vermont, Arthur had worked as a lawyer and as an administrator for the Union army. He had never been elected to a single public office before becoming vice president. However, he had worked faithfully for the Republican Party and had received important political appointments from powerful friends as a reward for helping them get elected. Thus, Arthur was strongly associated with the spoils system.

However, Chester Arthur surprised his critics by conscientiously fulfilling his presidential duties and by refusing to provide his fellow Stalwarts with special favors. In fact, his presidency became best known for civil service reform, spurred on by the circumstances of Garfield's assassination. In 1883, Congress passed the Pendleton Act, which established an independent Civil Service Commission and a merit system for many government jobs. These government positions could be obtained only through competitive written exams, and employees holding these positions were protected against removal for political reasons.

During his presidency, Arthur dealt with a very divided Congress. Both Democrats and Republicans were split into hostile factions, and questions about reforming tariffs (the tax charged on imported and exported items) highlighted these divisions. Because the federal government had been accumulating yearly surpluses, President Arthur appointed a commission to revise the tariff system. The commission called for a general tariff reduction of 20 to 25 percent. However, Congress ignored the commission's recommendations and passed a compromise measure that satisfied no one. Although duties were lowered on a few items, they were actually increased on most manufactured goods. Many amendments were also added to the bill to protect the interests of the constituents of various congressmen, which led to the tariff's being referred to as the Mongrel Tariff. By the time of the 1884 election, a divided Republican Party decided not to renominate Arthur as its candidate for president.

GROVER CLEVELAND (1885 – 1889)

Cleveland was the first Democrat to be elected president after the Civil War and the only U.S. president to serve two nonconsecutive terms. Born in New Jersey, Cleveland was raised in upstate New York as one of nine children in a pastor's family. As an adult, he worked as a lawyer and served as the mayor of Buffalo and governor of New York. He won the presidency in 1884 with the combined support of the Democrats and the Mugwumps—a group of reform Republicans who considered his opponent, Senator James Blaine, to be corrupt. Cleveland was a bachelor when he began his administration but became the first president to be married in the White House when he wed Frances Folsom a year later.

A large, outspoken individual, Grover Cleveland was a conscientious leader who was determined to do what was just and right. As president, he vetoed over 300 bills and also had over 100 pocket vetoes (compared to a total of 132 bills vetoed by the previous twenty-one presidents). The following was Cleveland's description of his philosophy of leadership: "I shall make whatever decisions I must with as much wisdom as I possess. No outcry from those around me will cause me to alter my course. No newspaper editorials or election will tell me whether I have decided correctly. For that, I shall listen to my Maker when he chooses to call me home."⁹

During his first term in office, Cleveland especially angered the railroads by forcing them to return eighty-one million acres that they held by government grant and by signing the Interstate Commerce Act. The first law placing railroads under federal regulation, the Interstate Commerce Act, required railroad rates to be fair and reasonable, forbade unfair discrimination, and gave the public the right to inspect railroad rates and schedules. An independent regulatory agency known as the Interstate Commerce Commission was established to investigate and stop abuses by railroad companies.

As Cleveland prepared to run for re-election in 1888, he decided to make the central issue of his campaign the failure of Congress to pass a tariff reduction. In December of 1877, the president devoted his entire annual message to Congress to the issue of a lower tariff—a



Grover Cleveland
*Library of Congress, Prints and
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position very popular in the South. Although Cleveland succeeded in winning the popular vote by a small margin in 1888, he lost in the Electoral College to the Republican candidate.



Benjamin Harrison

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BENJAMIN HARRISON (1889 – 1893)

The Republican candidate in 1888 was Benjamin Harrison, grandson of President William Henry Harrison. Born at his grandfather's house in Ohio, Harrison was a lawyer, Civil War hero, and U.S. senator from Indiana. The election of 1888 took place during a time of growing economic and social unrest in the United States. Small companies were finding it hard to compete with large corporations that had joined together to form trusts. Farmers were also disgruntled. Although Harrison received one hundred thousand fewer popular votes than Cleveland, he carried the Electoral College by sixty-five votes. A quiet and withdrawn man, Harrison did not possess a charismatic personality. However, he was highly intelligent, hard-working, and honest, with exceptional administrative gifts. Because of his perceived coldness and independent spirit, Harrison was never really popular with the American public.

As president, Benjamin Harrison signed substantial appropriation bills that expanded the U.S. Navy and the merchant marine. He also hoped to annex Hawaii, but his term of office ended before the Senate acted on the treaty of annexation. One of the most significant bills passed during Harrison's term in office was the Sherman Antitrust Act, which expanded the power of Congress to control business monopolies or trusts. However, the Sherman Antitrust Act had loopholes that made it difficult to enforce. It was weakened further by the Supreme Court, which used the Fourteenth Amendment to provide protection for corporations or trusts.

The most difficult issue faced by Harrison was the ongoing tariff controversy. High tariffs were still creating a surplus in the federal treasury, and supporters of low tariffs argued that this was hurting American business. Republican leaders in Congress, however, claimed that lowering duties would just flood American markets with cheap foreign goods and eventually drive down wages for

American workers. Eventually, the Republicans succeeded in gaining passage of the McKinley Tariff, which called for the highest peacetime tariff rates to date.

The Sherman Silver Purchase Act, also passed during Harrison's term in office, required the U.S. Treasury to buy 4.5 million dollars of silver each month, which was almost the total output of American silver mines. This silver was purchased with paper money that could be cashed in for gold. Very quickly, these silver purchases depleted the U.S. Treasury's reserve gold supply, which backed up the value of all U.S. currency. More money was placed in circulation, which decreased the purchasing power of the dollar. Midwest farmers, who were in deep financial trouble, were strong supporters of the silver purchase act. They believed that having more money in circulation would enable them to avoid bankruptcy.

GROVER CLEVELAND (1893 – 1897)

The 1892 presidential election was a rematch between Cleveland and Harrison. This time Cleveland won, and the Democrats also gained control of both houses of Congress. Many Americans were unhappy with the high prices brought on by the McKinley Tariff and were not convinced that President Harrison had a solid plan to keep the economy steady. When Harrison's wife of forty years died of tuberculosis two weeks before the election, he was overwhelmed with grief and no longer interested in winning re-election. He commented that "after the heavy blow that the death of my wife dealt me, I do not think I could stand the strain a re-election would have brought."¹⁰

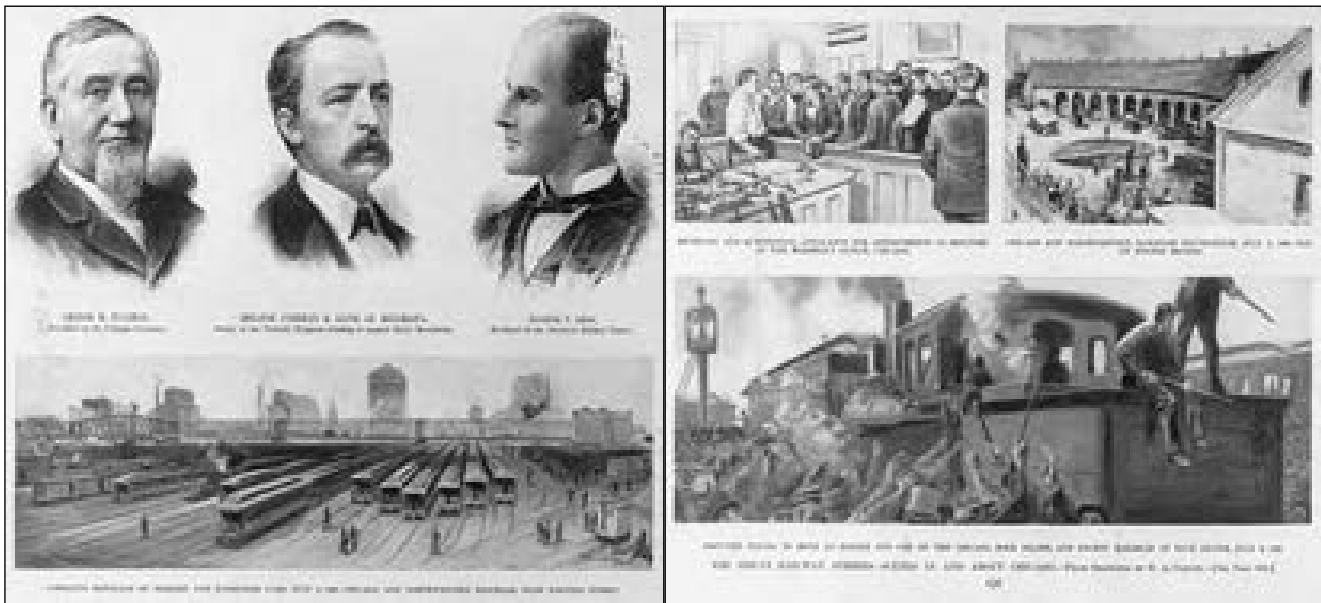
Within three months of assuming office for the second time, Cleveland was faced with the Panic of 1893, which was followed by four years of the worst depression yet in American history. In May, the stock market collapsed, and several large American companies declared bankruptcy. These financial hard times were brought on by fears concerning the depletion of the country's gold reserves, financial troubles abroad, industrial overexpansion, and agricultural difficulties. Cleveland decided to handle the nation's financial troubles by dealing directly with the treasury crisis. He maintained the gold

reserve with the help of Wall Street and obtained repeal of the Sherman Silver Purchase act. This approach was not popular with most Americans, who wanted him to offer government help to unemployed workers, businesses that had failed, and farmers forced to default on their mortgages.

During the 1894 Pullman Strike of railroad workers in Chicago, President Cleveland sent federal troops to enforce an injunction that the railroad workers had violated. He insisted that mail delivery should not be affected by the strike. Many Americans approved of Cleveland's dealings with the railroad strikers. Most of the American people also supported Cleveland's warning to the British not to intervene in a boundary dispute in Venezuela. Calling such action a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, Cleveland persuaded the British to agree to arbitration of the controversy. However, despite their support of Cleveland on some issues, many Americans continued to criticize his defense of the gold standard. In 1896, the Democratic Party reflected this popular discontent by nominating William Jennings Bryan, a strong supporter of free silver, as its presidential candidate.

The Pullman Strike in Chicago

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WILLIAM MCKINLEY (1897 – 1901)

In the 1896 presidential campaign, Ohio native William McKinley ran as the Republican nominee. A Civil War veteran and lawyer, McKinley had served several terms in the U.S. House of Representatives and as governor of Ohio. As a Republican, he favored a high tariff (the McKinley Tariff was named for him) and a single gold standard. McKinley conducted a front-porch campaign from his home in Canton, Ohio. This type of campaign, in which a candidate stayed at home and received visitors on the front porch, was the norm during this period of American history. McKinley often gave speeches to the party loyalists who came to visit him in Canton, and afterward, his wife, Ida, would serve them lemonade. His speeches were then published in special election newspapers and sent by train across the country.

The Democratic nominee, William Jennings Bryan, became the first presidential candidate known for conducting a whistle-stop campaign. This type of campaign, in which a candidate travels across the country meeting voters and giving speeches, is more familiar to us today. A “whistle stop” refers to a town or railroad station at which a train stops only if signaled by a whistle to do so. During his campaign for the presidency, Bryan crossed the United States by train, giving twenty to thirty speeches a day from the back of a train. The Democratic Party had become the refuge of American farmers and workers, and Bryan pleaded their cause for the purchase of silver. “You shall not press upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns. You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold.”¹¹

By the time McKinley became president, the depression had almost run its course. Employment rates had risen, and trade had improved. Therefore, McKinley decided that he would call Congress into special session to enact the highest tariff yet, the Dingley Tariff. During his time in office, McKinley worked well with Congress and gave the press greater access to the White House. He also traveled widely and became very popular with the American people. He was known for his impressive physical presence, as well as his genuine kindness and compassion.



William McKinley
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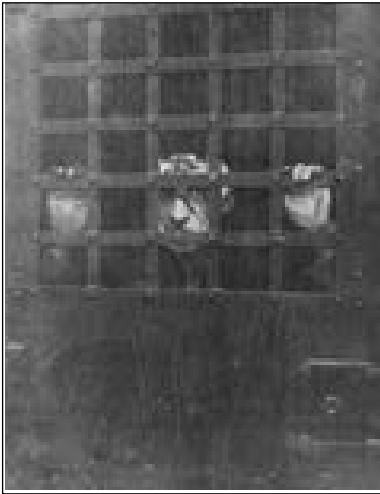


**William Jennings Bryan
on his whistle-stop campaign**
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-50422]*

The most significant event during McKinley's first term in office was the Spanish-American War in 1898. After the war was over, the United States took more interest in the Far East because of its acquisition of the Philippines. At the turn of the century, the imperial powers of the world were all seeking spheres of influence in China, a country in political and economic disarray.

The United States took the initiative and proclaimed that an "open door" policy was needed in China. This policy would maintain Chinese territorial integrity and grant all foreign nations equal trade access there. In 1899, McKinley's secretary of state, John Hay, traveled to China and circulated a written statement of this Open Door Policy among the major powers. Although no nation formally agreed to the policy, Hay simply announced that an agreement had been reached. A year later, McKinley sent U.S. troops to China to join forces with other nations in putting down the Boxer Rebellion. Their mission was to rescue the foreign diplomats and missionaries being captured and brutalized by a group of Chinese known as the Boxers.

In 1900, McKinley once again campaigned against William Jennings Bryan and won a second term with a large majority of the popular vote. Only a few months after his second inauguration, McKinley was shot twice by Leon Czolgosz, a mentally unstable anarchist, at the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo, New York. He died on September 14, 1901, eight days after the shooting. The American people were grief-stricken at the death of this popular president.



**McKinley's assassin,
Leon Czolgosz**

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IMPACT

- New states that were added to the Union during this time: North Dakota (1889), South Dakota (1889), Montana (1889), Washington (1889), Idaho (1890), Wyoming (1890), and Utah (1896).
- The presidential election of 1876 ended with disputed electoral votes in three southern states. An electoral commission,

appointed to settle the dispute, voted along partisan lines and gave all the disputed votes to the Republican nominee, Rutherford B. Hayes.

- In order to gain southern Democratic support for Hayes's presidency, Republicans agreed to withdraw the last federal troops from the South, as well as to give the Democrats a cabinet seat and a voice in the distribution of federal jobs in the South.
- During his term in office, Rutherford Hayes worked to weaken the spoils system. He also resisted pressure from farmers and labor to increase the amount of paper money and silver coins in circulation.
- The "last of the log cabin presidents," James Garfield was shot by a disappointed office-seeker after just a few months in office and died from an infection several months later.
- When Chester Arthur became president, he surprised his critics by spearheading civil service reform. The Pendleton Act, passed during his administration, established a merit system for many government jobs. The Mongrel Tariff failed to resolve the nation's ongoing tariff controversy.
- Grover Cleveland was the first Democrat to be elected president after the Civil War and the only U.S. president to serve two nonconsecutive terms. As president, he vetoed over three hundred bills. The most significant legislation passed during his first term in office was the Interstate Commerce Act.
- In the election of 1888, Cleveland was defeated by the grandson of William Henry Harrison, Benjamin Harrison. During Harrison's term, the Sherman Antitrust Act and the Sherman Silver Purchase Act were passed. The McKinley Tariff brought the highest peacetime tariff rates to date.

- In their 1892 rematch, Grover Cleveland defeated Benjamin Harrison. When the Panic of 1893 sent the nation into a depression, Cleveland worked for repeal of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act. He also sent troops to end the Pullman Strike and dealt with the British threat of intervention in Venezuela.
- William McKinley defeated William Jennings Bryan in the race for the presidency in both 1896 and 1900. The most significant event during McKinley's first term in office was the Spanish-American War. McKinley also called Congress into special session to enact the highest tariff yet, the Dingley Tariff. When William McKinley was assassinated in 1901, the American people were grief stricken at the death of this popular president.

LESSON 10

*The Spanish–American War and
Its Aftermath* 1898 – 1902 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

CUBAN REVOLT AGAINST SPANISH RULE

By the end of the nineteenth century, the islands of Cuba and Puerto Rico were all that remained of Spain’s empire in the New World. Those subjected to Spanish rule in Cuba suffered from very harsh and oppressive living conditions. They were forced to pay high taxes and had been stripped of many of their political and religious liberties. For decades, Cuban revolutionaries had attempted to overthrow Spanish rule, and Spanish leaders had carried out many executions of suspected rebels. A growing number of Cubans had moved to the United States, where they joined other exiled Cubans to form the Cuban Revolutionary Party. This group raised money for weapons and worked on plans for a revolution to free Cuba from Spanish rule once and for all.

In 1895, Cuban revolutionaries once again attempted a wide-scale revolt against Spanish rule on the island. Both the Cuban rebels and the Spanish troops burned or destroyed railroad depots, sugar plantations, tools, livestock, and anything else that might help the enemy. Spanish leaders also established a *reconrado* (reconcentration) camp system, gathering poor farmers and villagers into camps and burning



Cuban sugar plantation
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-109781]*

their farms and villages to keep them from supplying the rebels with food and supplies. Many Americans were very concerned about what was happening in Cuba because of its proximity to the United States and because of the millions of dollars that U.S. businessmen had invested in the island's sugar industry.

For more than three years, violence and chaos continued in Cuba. The Spanish confiscated property of U.S. citizens on the island and imprisoned and even killed U.S. citizens there. Trade between the United States and Cuba was affected. In May of 1897, President McKinley asked Congress to appropriate fifty thousand dollars of relief for Americans living in Cuba. More and more, Americans sympathized with the cause of the Cuban rebels.

**The mast of the sunken
USS Maine**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs
Division [LC-USZ62-92666]*



SINKING OF THE USS MAINE

On January 24, 1898, the USS *Maine* was sent to Havana harbor to protect American interests and citizens in Cuba. Less than one month later, on February 15, the *Maine* was mysteriously sunk in Havana harbor. Nearly three-fourths of the ship's crew, about 260 men, died as a result of the explosion. The cause of this tragedy was undetermined. The Spanish blamed an accidental fire for the explosion, but the American public blamed Spain and continued to sympathize with the Cuban rebels.

American war sentiment was aroused, and "Remember the *Maine*!" became the cry of many Americans. President McKinley, however, still hoped for a peaceful settlement through diplomacy, not war. He urged the American public to withhold judgment concerning the cause of the *Maine*'s explosion until the naval board of inquiry had completed its investigation.

YELLOW JOURNALISM

War might have been avoided if American newspaper journalists had shown restraint. Instead, they engaged in yellow journalism, sensational reporting that manipulated and exaggerated the situation to increase newspaper sales. Joseph Pulitzer's *New York World* and William Randolph Hearst's *New York Journal* engaged in an intense competition for dramatic headlines and bloody illustrations concerning the Cuban situation. They often misrepresented the facts and even deliberately invented stories designed to excite the American public.

On February 9, 1898, Hearst's *New York Journal* published a stolen letter that had been written by Enrique Dupuy de Lome, the Spanish minister to the United States, to a friend. In this personal letter, de Lome expressed contempt for President McKinley's weak leadership. "McKinley is weak and catering to the rabble, and, besides, a low politician, who desires to leave a door open to me and to stand well with the jingoes of his party."¹²

The assistant secretary of the navy, Theodore Roosevelt, also criticized McKinley for trying to maintain an American position of neu-



Joseph Pulitzer

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William Randolph Hearst

Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-68945]



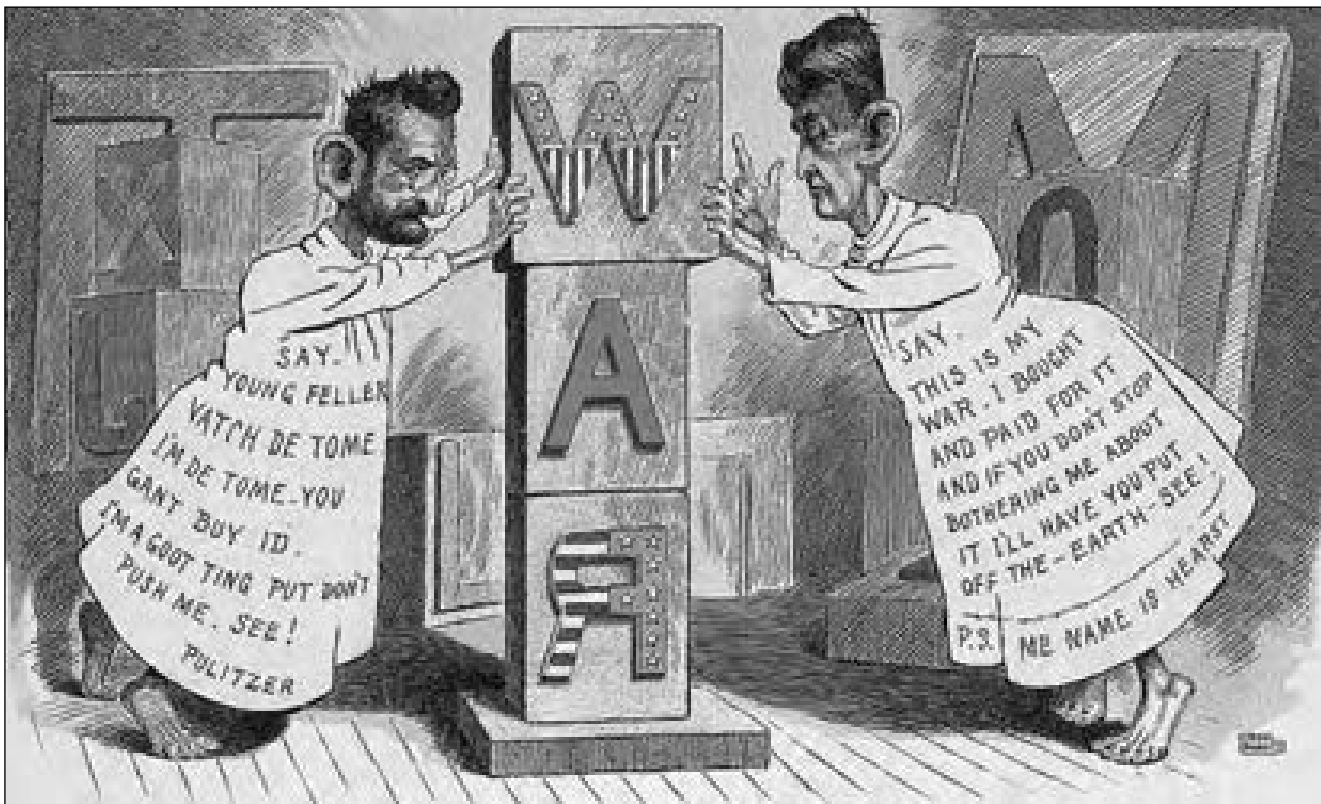
Enrique de Lome
Public Domain

Yellow journalism

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs
Division [LC-USZC4-3800]*

trality. Roosevelt had been influenced by Social Darwinism, which maintained that a nation must be competitive with other nations and build a world empire or face inevitable decline. According to Roosevelt, Cuba was too strategic for the United States to leave in Spanish hands. At the end of February, Roosevelt cabled Commodore George Dewey in the Pacific to be ready if war with Spain were to break out.

With the American press, bankers, manufacturers, and government officials clamoring for war, President McKinley received the report from the American naval board of inquiry on March 25. This report stated that the *Maine* had been lost to a mine. A day later, McKinley sent a note to the Spanish, demanding that they agree to a cease-fire with the Cuban rebels and negotiate a permanent settlement with them.



EVENT

DECLARATION OF WAR

On March 28, the report from the Spanish board of inquiry into the *Maine* incident was received in Washington, D.C. It stated that the ship's explosion was the result of an internal accident. Two days later, the U.S. minister to Spain requested that Cuba be given its independence, a request that was quickly denied. On April 10, McKinley was informed that the queen of Spain had ordered all hostilities suspended. However, the president barely referred to that fact when he addressed the U.S. Congress the following day and asked for authority to intervene in Cuba.

Congress responded to McKinley's speech with resolutions demanding Spanish withdrawal from Cuba. On April 16, the U.S. Army began mobilizing for war, and on April 22, the U.S. Navy commenced a blockade of Cuba. President McKinley issued a call for 125,000 volunteers on April 23, and Spain declared war on the United States the same day. On April 25, the United States declared war on Spain, making the declaration retroactive to April 22.

AMERICAN PREPAREDNESS FOR WAR

After the Civil War, the United States had drastically reduced its army. Most of America's troops had been stationed on the western frontier to deal with continued Native American resistance. Within a month after McKinley's call for volunteers, almost 125,000 men had responded. However, most of the volunteer units were poorly equipped and inadequately trained. Some individuals actually organized and outfitted their own regiments. Teddy Roosevelt resigned his position as assistant secretary of the navy to organize the First U.S. Volunteer Cavalry, which became known as the Rough Riders. Four African American regiments took part in the fighting in Cuba.

Major General Nelson Miles was named commander of the U.S. armed forces in Cuba by President McKinley. The main staging area for American troops headed to Cuba was Tampa, Florida. Troops arrived there by train and waited to be transported by ship to Cuba.



Assistant Secretary of the Navy Teddy Roosevelt

Courtesy of Harvard



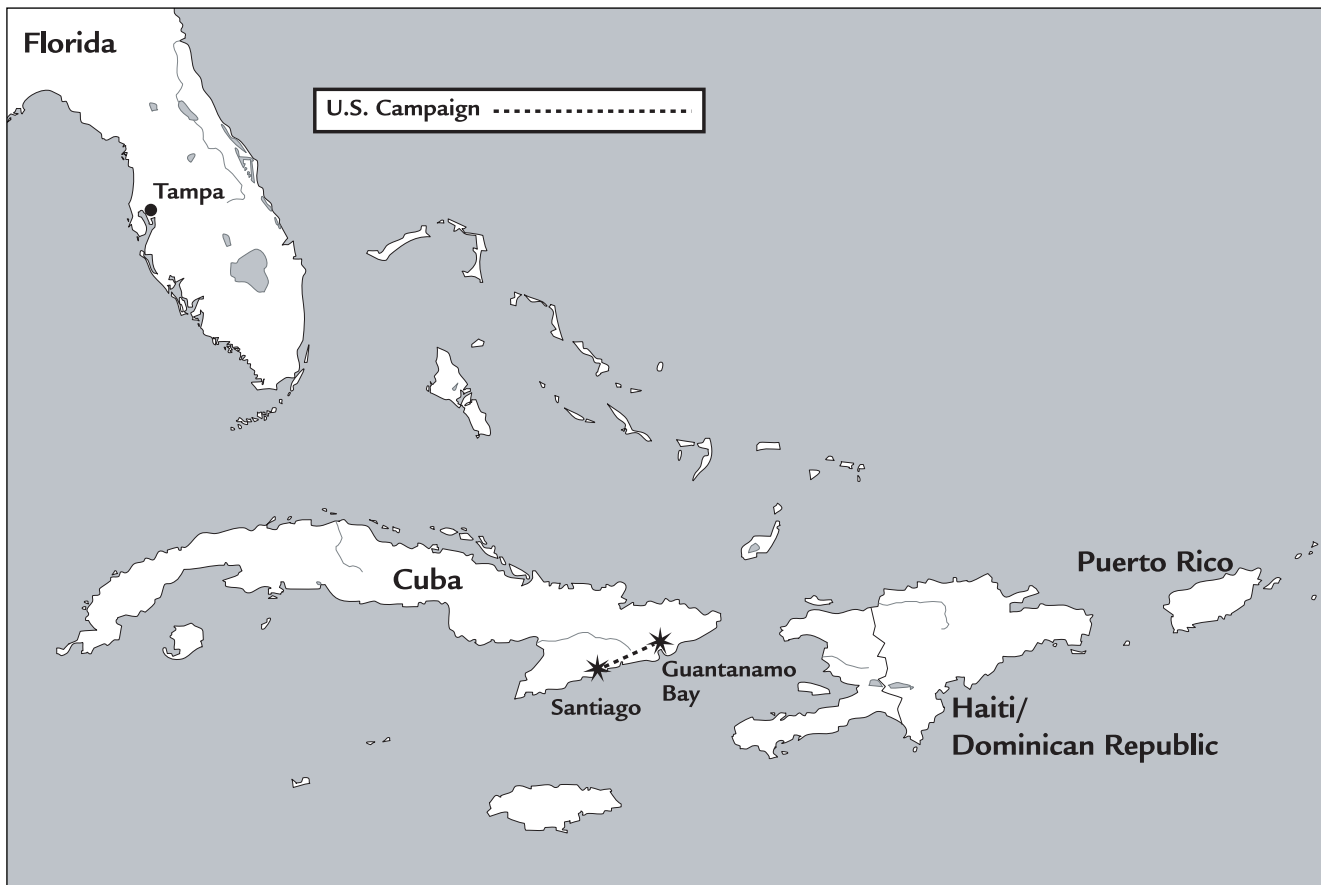
Staging of U.S. troops for Cuba

Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC2-6217]

Miles had hoped to delay sending the men into combat on the island until fall. This would have provided an opportunity for some training and would have kept Americans out of Cuba during the months when malaria, typhoid fever, and diphtheria were rampant.

Unfortunately, the order came for U.S. troops to start shipping out of Tampa on June 7. As a result, large numbers of American soldiers sent to fight died from disease, not battle. Also, the summer temperatures in the Cuban jungle were stifling to American soldiers in their wool uniforms. Many mistakes were made by the inexperienced supply staff organizing the men and equipment. American military leaders were not well informed about the enemy that their men would be

Cuban battle sites in the Spanish-American War



facing, and Spanish forces were equipped with more advanced weapons than were the U.S. troops.

The U.S. Navy, on the other hand, was ready for the conflict with Spain. During the 1880s and 1890s, the United States had begun to build a modern steel navy and to establish naval stations at home and around the world. The U.S. Navy had four battleships to every one owned by the Spanish. Within a short period of time, American naval victories in the Pacific and the Caribbean would lead to the end of the war.

BATTLE OF MANILA BAY (MAY 1, 1898)

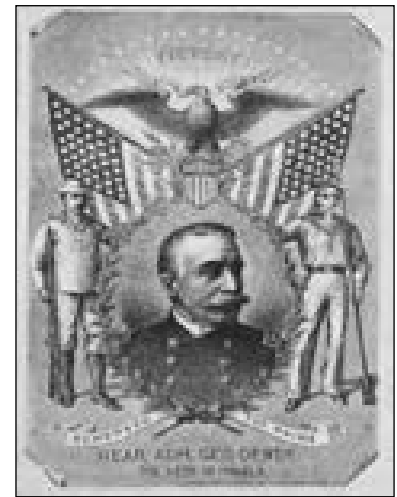
The first major action of the Spanish-American War was not in Cuba but in the Pacific. American Commodore George Dewey was commanded to lead his six-ship squadron from Hong Kong to Manila Bay in the Philippines, which was still under Spanish rule. In Manila harbor on May 1, U.S. naval forces destroyed the larger but outgunned Spanish fleet, pounding all ten ships to pieces. This prevented the Spanish fleet at Manila from sailing to Cuba, and George Dewey became an instant national hero.

LANDINGS AT GUANTANAMO BAY AND DAIQUIRI (JUNE 10 AND 22, 1898)

The first fighting for American troops in Cuba occurred when U.S. Marines captured Guantanamo Bay in southeast Cuba, on June 10, 1898. Twelve days later, U.S. soldiers landed at Daiquiri, about eighteen miles east of Santiago. In order to win the Spanish-American War, the Americans had to capture the city of Santiago. To accomplish this, U.S. forces would have to make their way through a dense jungle, cross the San Juan River, and get past the fortified city of El Caney. Upon landing at Daiquiri, American troops immediately began the march to Santiago.

BATTLE OF LAS GUASIMAS (JUNE 24, 1898)

Two days later, U.S. troops took control of Las Guasimas, located six miles from Santiago. Although the Spanish engaged the Americans in skirmishes as they moved toward Santiago, they did not plan to make



**Commodore (Admiral)
George Dewey**

*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-105269]*

a determined stand until the Americans reached the outer defenses of Santiago. The most important of these defenses were the village of El Caney to the north of Santiago and a series of ridges known as San Juan Hill and Kettle Hill.

BATTLES OF EL CANEY, KETTLE HILL, AND SAN JUAN HILL (JULY 1, 1898)

The Americans decided to attack the village of El Caney first. On July 1, the most vicious fighting of the war occurred, but U.S. forces succeeded in taking El Caney, as well as Kettle Hill and San Juan Hill. The Rough Riders participated in the capture of Kettle Hill and then charged across a valley to assist in the seizure of the highest point of San Juan Hill.

Battle of San Juan Hill

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Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-17689]*



There were heavy casualties on both sides. The Spanish ran out of ammunition and began to retreat. By the time San Juan Hill had been taken by the United States, some 205 Americans lay dead and 1180 were wounded. The Spanish had 215 dead and about 375 wounded. On July 2, American forces controlled all the territory around Santiago.

BATTLE OF SANTIAGO (JULY 3 – 17, 1898)

When the Spanish governor of Cuba received America's demand for surrender, he responded by ordering the Spanish fleet to attack the U.S. ships blockading Santiago harbor. Admiral Pascual Cervera obeyed these orders, although it meant attacking a force four times the size of his own. On July 3, the Americans destroyed every Spanish ship, ending all hope of Spanish victory. By July 17, the Spanish general in charge of Santiago had also surrendered to the Americans.

INVASION OF PUERTO RICO (JULY 25, 1898)

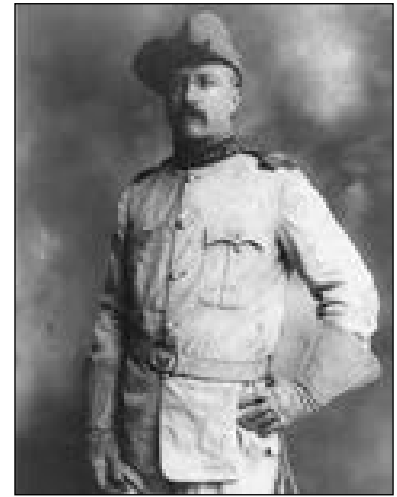
By the end of July, the U.S. Army had invaded and occupied Puerto Rico, another Spanish colony. The Spanish leaders there offered little resistance.

FALL OF MANILA (AUGUST 13, 1898)

The victory at Manila Bay cleared the way for the arrival of a U.S. expeditionary force from San Francisco on August 13. The goal of its mission was the capture of the city of Manila. Total U.S. losses during hostilities in the Philippines were 18 killed and 109 wounded. On June 21, Guam, one of the Mariana Islands in the Pacific, had also surrendered to the Americans. The Spanish commander on Guam had not even heard about the outbreak of the Spanish-American War and had no supply of ammunition on the island.

PARIS PEACE TREATY AND CONTINUED CONFLICT IN THE PHILIPPINES

After 113 days of fighting, the United States had lost only 379 troops in combat but over 5,000 to disease. This short war cost about 250 million dollars. An armistice ending the Spanish-American War was



Rough Rider Teddy Roosevelt
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-94051]*



Admiral Pascual Cervera
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ggbain-0689]*

signed on August 12, 1898. Commissioners from Spain and the United States met in Paris on October 1, 1898, to draw up a peace treaty that would bring an end to the war.

The major issue in the peace negotiations concerned the Philippines. Admiral Dewey's victory there had come as a great surprise, and Spain did not want to give the United States a foothold in the Pacific. Ultimately, the Spanish had no choice and gave the Philippines to the United States for twenty million dollars. Puerto

Pacific region of the Spanish-American War



Rico and Guam were also placed under American control. Spain gave Cuba its independence and assumed its debt.

The Paris Peace Treaty was signed on December 10, 1898, and was ratified by the U.S. Congress in early February of 1899. An American military government ruled Cuba until May 20, 1902, when a republic was established there. However, Cuba was required to sell or lease land to the United States for use as naval stations and coaling bases.

In the years following the Spanish-American War, the United States paid a heavy price to subdue the nationalist guerillas in the Philippines and bring that country under American rule. More than 126,000 American soldiers were sent to the Philippines to fight in the conflict against the Filipino nationalists led by Emilio Aguinaldo, and as many as forty-two hundred Americans and eighteen thousand Filipinos were killed before the hostilities ended.

AMERICAN IMPERIALISM

The Spanish-American War was significant in American history for several reasons. The brief four-month conflict, which became known as a “splendid little war,” was popular with many Americans. Fighting and winning this war led to a new sense of national unity, which had been shattered by the Civil War. It provoked widespread feelings of American nationalism, giving northerners and southerners a common enemy to fight.

Blue and grey are one.
Hurrah for the East and the West!
The nation is one, individual and free,
And all of its sons are the best.

— William Lightfoot Visscher¹³

The United States emerged from the Spanish-American War as an imperial power equal to any in Europe. As a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States acquired the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Guam. Many Americans believed that the manifest destiny of the United States was to spread its civilization around the world.



Filipino nationalist Emilio Aguinaldo

Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-93263]



Jane Addams
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ61-144]*

They were encouraged by Social Darwinists to justify expansionism as merely survival of the fittest. However, acquiring the Philippines as an American colony was a direct violation of the Monroe Doctrine. Its acquisition proved irresistible because it provided the United States with a base in the Pacific and access to new markets, enhancing the nation's position as a new world power.

Others in the United States were deeply troubled by the nation's involvement in the Spanish-American War and its emergence as an imperial power. They believed that the country was compromising the very principles upon which it had been founded — the ideals of independence and self-determination. In 1898, the Anti-Imperialist League was founded in Boston, with membership soon growing to as many as twenty-five thousand. Well-known anti-imperialists included Mark Twain, Grover Cleveland, Jane Addams, and Andrew Carnegie.

IMPACT

- By the end of the nineteenth century, Cuba and Puerto Rico were all that remained of Spain's empire in the New World. For decades, Cuban revolutionaries had been trying to overthrow harsh Spanish rule. In 1895, they once again attempted a wide-scale revolt against Spain.
- Many Americans were concerned about the Cuban revolution because of the island's proximity to Florida and U.S. business investments there. As the revolt continued, American trade with Cuba was affected, and American sympathy for the Cuban rebels was intensified.
- On February 15, 1898, an American battleship, the USS *Maine*, was mysteriously sunk in Havana harbor. Nearly three-fourths of its crew died as a result of the explosion. American war sen-

timent against the Spanish was aroused, and “Remember the *Maine*” became the rallying cry of many Americans.

- War might have been avoided if American journalists, such as William Randolph Hearst and Joseph Pulitzer, had not engaged in yellow journalism. Hearst’s *New York Journal* published a stolen letter in which the Spanish minister to the United States expressed contempt for McKinley’s leadership.
- By late April of 1898, war had been declared between the United States and Spain. The size of the American army had been drastically reduced after the Civil War, but almost 125,000 Americans answered the president’s call for volunteers. Major General Nelson Miles was named commander of the U.S. troops in Cuba.
- The U.S. Navy was well prepared for war. During the 1880s and 1890s, the United States had begun building a modern steel navy and establishing naval stations at home and around the world.
- The first major action of the Spanish-American War took place in the Philippines. On May 1, 1898, Commodore George Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. In mid-August, a U.S. expeditionary force arrived and captured the city of Manila.
- On June 10, 1898, U.S. Marines captured Guantanamo Bay. Less than two weeks later, U.S. soldiers had landed at Daiquiri. Victories at the battles of Las Guasimas, El Caney, Kettle Hill, and San Juan Hill in late June and early July led to the fall of Santiago. Puerto Rico was occupied by U.S. forces on July 25.
- The Paris Peace Treaty placed Puerto Rico and Guam under American control. Spain was forced to give the Philippines to the United States for twenty million dollars and to assent to the

independence of Cuba. The United States sent troops to the Philippines to put down an insurrection led by Emilio Aguinaldo.

- The Spanish-American War led to a new sense of national unity among Americans, who had been divided by the Civil War. It also made the United States an imperial power, equal to any in Europe. Some Americans, troubled by this development, established the Anti-Imperialist League.

LESSON II

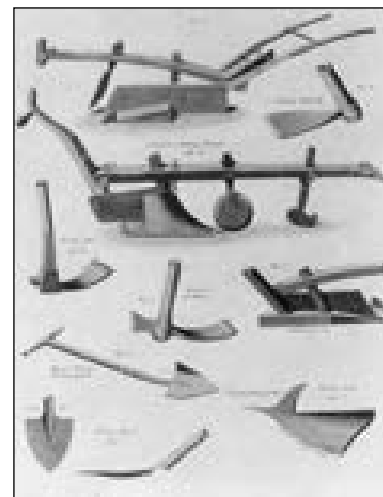
The Last Western Frontier. 1859 — 1900 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

THE GREAT AMERICAN DESERT

By the end of the Civil War, inexpensive land of good quality was scarce in the East. However, as much as one-third of the United States was still considered frontier. The American central plains, stretching from Texas north to Canada and from Kansas and Iowa west to the Rockies, had not been settled by earlier pioneers because they believed that it would not be suitable for farming. They considered its sod too hard to plow and its climate too harsh for cultivating crops. In fact, they called the region the “Great American Desert.”

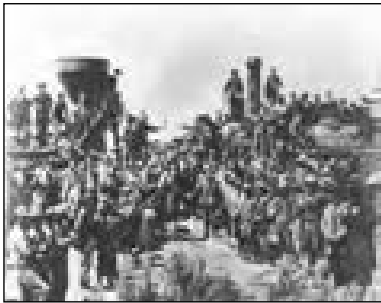
However, by the Gilded Age, even the Great Plains looked appealing to those Americans who dreamed of owning their own land. This group included freed slaves ready to leave the South, newly arrived immigrants fleeing starvation in Europe, and eastern farmers needing to start over. Ironically, the Great Plains would actually end up becoming one of the best agricultural regions in the world due to the richness of much of its soil. New steel plows that could cut through the sod were now available, and new types of wheat that could survive the harsh winters had been developed. Because of its large pro-



Common farming tools
*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-55168]*

duction of wheat, the Great Plains would eventually be called the “bread basket” of the nation.

Between 1870 and 1900, large groups of pioneers would rapidly settle this last western frontier. In addition to farmers, miners continued searching the Rockies for silver and gold. Cowboys spent months each year herding thousands of longhorns north from Texas to midwestern cow towns. By the time these cattle drives ended in 1885, large permanent ranches had been established in Texas, and great profits continued to be made from beef. During this period the lives of Native Americans living in the Great Plains were changed forever. The influx of large numbers of white settlers led to the virtual extinction of the buffalo and eventually to the relocation of nearly all tribes to reservations.



**Joining of the Central Pacific
and the Union Pacific rail lines
at Promontory Point, Utah**

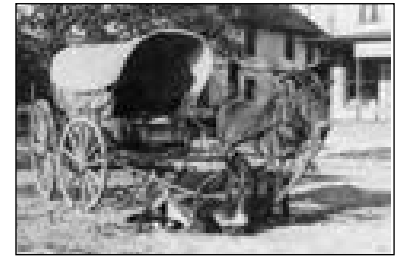
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Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-116354]*

TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROADS

The burst of railroad building in the American West during the 1860s and 1870s and the completion of the first transcontinental railroad helped to promote migration to the Great Plains. On May 10, 1869, at Promontory Point, Utah, the Central Pacific and Union Pacific railroads met, making it possible for Americans to travel coast to coast in ten days. The federal government had given the two companies subsidies for each mile of track they laid, creating a competition between them. No one knew exactly when and where the two railroads would eventually meet. Those who worked to build these railroads often risked their lives to do so. They faced parched deserts, harsh winters, Indian attacks, and avalanches as they raced to finish as many miles of track as possible.

With the completion of the transcontinental railroad, pioneers heading west could travel on special railroad cars for about forty dollars. These coaches had hard wooden seats and stopped for meals at railroad stations along the way. Americans who were well-to-do could travel in Pullman Palace cars for about eighty dollars a night. Pullman Palace cars had seats that converted into beds, mirrors, reading lamps, wooden paneling, carpeting, and good food served by

attendants. However, even those traveling first class faced danger from rain, floods, blizzards, tornadoes, and bandits like Jesse James.



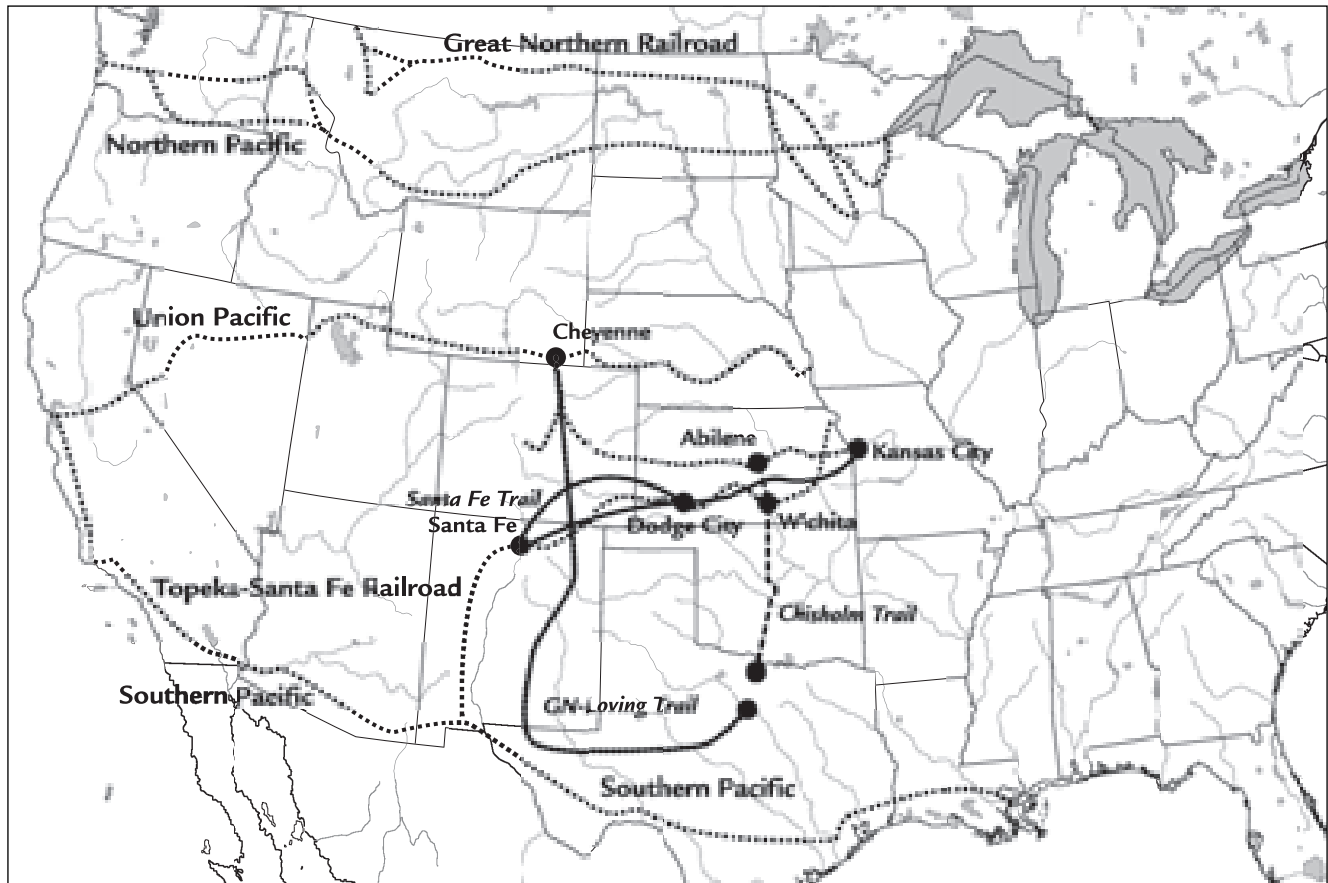
Conestoga wagon
*Library of Congress, Prints and
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EVENT

HOMESTEADERS

The Homestead Act of 1862 permitted settlers to claim 160 acres of public land in the West by living on it for five years, cultivating it, and paying a small fee of about ten dollars. Land could also be purchased for \$1.25 an acre after living on it for six months. These conditions applied to any U.S. citizen (and anyone declaring his

Railroads and major cow trails



intention to become a citizen) who was the head of a household or an unmarried adult. Railroads were also eager to sell the large tracts of land they owned, given to them by the federal government as bonuses for construction.

American settlers who moved westward migrated as families in groups or trains of Conestoga wagons. These wagons were also referred to as prairie schooners because their white canvas tops gave the appearance of sailing ships as they traveled through the prairie grass. During their travels these pioneer families faced the possibility of being attacked by hostile Native Americans or bandits, as well as having to endure extremes of weather and other hardships along the way.

**Pioneer family in front
of a soddie**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs
Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0837]*



Usually choosing to locate along the rivers of the West, they often settled among other families who came from the same areas of the East or who shared similar customs and religion. There was a strong sense of cooperation and community among these pioneer families. They enjoyed helping each other with barn raisings and haying and corn-husking parties. There was also a sense of rivalry between these pioneers and Americans living in the East. Easterners often considered those living in the West to be crude and uncivilized, whereas westerners criticized easterners for having a soft and luxurious lifestyle.

As pioneer families began to settle into their new homes, they faced a number of obstacles. There were few trees in the Great Plains, which meant that many families first had to live in dugouts or sod houses (called soddies) until they could afford to purchase lumber to build homes. Those having large steel plows, called grasshopper plows, were able to cut the tough prairie ground in order to plant their crops. However, after planting their fields, they often encountered locust and grasshopper invasions, droughts, blights, and weather extremes. At least at the beginning, many of these pioneer families also had to face isolation and loneliness. Some of them were unprepared for the roller-coaster economic conditions of the frontier, and about one-third of them eventually turned around and went back East.

One of the best sources of information about the lives of these homesteaders is the *Little House on the Prairie* series, written by Laura Ingalls Wilder. Born in Wisconsin, Laura headed west with her family during the 1870s and 1880s. The Ingalls lived in Independence, Kansas; Walnut Grove, Minnesota; and De Smet in the Dakota Territory. In 1932, Laura began writing *Little House in the Big Woods*, and by 1943, she had completed the eight-volume series about her growing-up years on the midwestern frontier. Her books provide a detailed and delightful picture of pioneer life during the Gilded Age. According to Laura, “I wanted the children now to understand more about the beginning of things, to know what is behind the things they see — what it is that made America as they know it.”¹⁴



Laura Ingalls Wilder and husband, Almanzo
Courtesy of Laura Ingalls Wilder Home Association Mansfield, MO

MINERS

During the Gilded Age, there were still restless, independent miners roaming the American West and Central Plains. Mining fever had begun with the discovery of gold in the mountains of California in 1848 and reached its peak during the Civil War. From 1849 until the mid-1850s, thousands of prospectors traveled to California in search of gold—a phenomenon that became known as the California gold rush. Many of these prospectors, nicknamed the “Forty-Niners,” did not discover any gold but stayed in the area and started businesses or farms.

The Comstock Lode

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs
Division [LC-USZC4-2343]*

The discovery of gold near Pikes Peak in 1858 drew thousands of prospectors to what is now the state of Colorado and led to the cre-



ation of the cities of Denver and Boulder. A year later, the richest known deposit of silver ore in the United States was discovered at the Comstock Lode, under what is now Virginia City, Nevada. Over a period of three decades, a number of additional big mining strikes occurred in Colorado, Nevada, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, and Washington, yielding more than two billion dollars. The last great gold rush of this period was the Alaska gold rush in 1898.

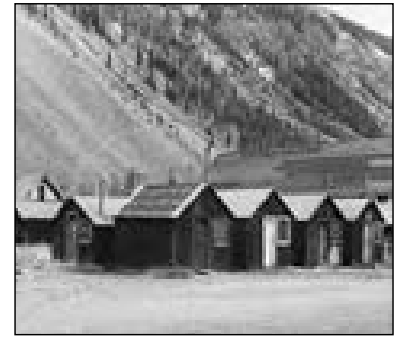
Boomtowns sprang up whenever there were mineral discoveries that promised sudden wealth. These rambunctious frontier mining settlements attracted not only prospectors but also cowboys, professional gamblers, and desperadoes. During the time these towns flourished, they made legends of men like Wyatt Earp, Bat Masterson, and Wild Bill Hickok. Eventually, many of these boomtowns became ghost towns as miners moved on to other potential mining sites.

COWBOYS

In the twenty years following the end of the Civil War, the immense territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Missouri River became feeding grounds for millions of longhorn cattle. Wealthy ranchers hired cowboys to take care of their cattle and then round them up and move them north for sale. From 1865 until 1885, during the era of the long cattle drive, huge herds of Texas cattle were gathered each year and driven north.

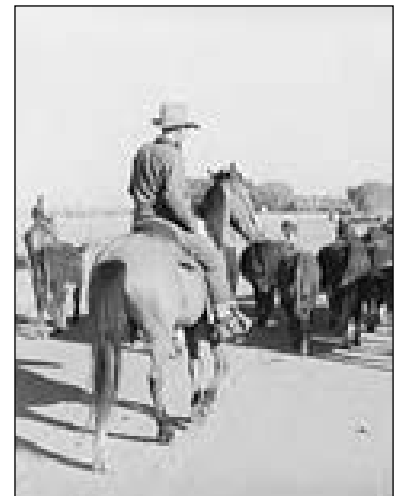
Three of the most important cow trails used for these drives were the Chisholm Trail, the Santa Fe Trail, and the Goodnight-Loving Trail. (See the map on page 157.) Popular destinations included Abilene, Dodge City, Kansas City, and Wichita. Once the cows came to the end of the trail, they were fattened, shipped by railroad to packing houses to be slaughtered, and then sent east in “refrigerator” cars for sale. (These well-insulated railroad cars had an ice compartment at the top that produced a flow of chilled air to keep the meat from spoiling.) The cattle ranchers controlled this entire operation and quickly accumulated huge fortunes from it.

Herds of two to three thousand cattle were moved along the trail by just a dozen or so cowboys. These cowboys, the “knights of the



Mining town

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Cowboy on the cattle trail

*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USF34-008805-D]*



Cowboy and chuck wagon

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Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0734]*



Joseph Glidden's barbed wire

*Library of Congress, Prints and
Photographs Division [LC-USF34-062431-D]*

prairie,” became American folk heroes. White, black, and Mexican cowboys worked long hours (sixteen per day) under difficult conditions for little pay (typically, ninety dollars per drive). Chuck wagons accompanied cowboys on the trail to provide them with food, and trail bosses kept order, while scouts looked out for cattle rustlers and hostile Indians. In the evenings everyone spent time around the campfire, telling tall tales and singing songs like “Git Along, Little Dogies” and “Bury Me Not on the Lonesome Prairie.” Cowboys generally spent up to four months on the trail. Once they reached their destination and received their pay, they often bought new clothes, threw away their old ones, and spent time gambling and drinking in the town’s saloons.

As I went a-walkin’ one mornin’ for pleasure;
I spied a cowpuncher come ridin’ along;
His hat was throwed back, and his spurs was a-jinglin’
And as he approached, he was singin’ this song.
It’s early in spring that we round up the dogies,
And mark ‘em and brand ‘em and bob off their tails;
We round up our horses and load the chuck wagon,
And then throw them dogies out onto the trail.
Chorus: Whoopee ti yi yo, git along, little dogies,
It’s your misfortune, and none of my own;
Whoopee ti yi yo, git along, little dogies,
You know that Wyoming will be your new home.
— excerpted lyrics of “Git Along, Little Dogies”

The days of the cowboy and open range did not last long. With the expansion of western railroads, long drives were no longer necessary. Also, the invention of barbed-wire fencing by Joseph Glidden made it possible for farmers to enclose their property to protect it from free-ranging cattle. Fences were built across the cow trails, and streams that had been used by cattle for watering were dammed up for irrigation. Permanent ranches began to be established in large numbers in Texas and in the Great Plains, and ranching became a big business.

NATIVE AMERICANS

In 1865, there were approximately 225,000 Great Plains Indians in the United States, including tribes such as the Apache, Arapaho, Blackfoot, Cheyenne, Crow, Hopi, Navajo, and Sioux. These Native Americans lived as their ancestors had lived for hundreds of years, as nomadic horsemen always on the move. The Great Plains teemed with deer, elk, antelope, bear, and most importantly, buffalo. Buffalo fed, clothed, and warmed these Indians and provided them with fuel, tools, and weapons. Within two decades, however, almost all the buffalo on the Great Plains had been slaughtered by white men, and almost all the Great Plains Indians had been forced onto reservations.

During the 1870s and 1880s, the land promised to Native Americans on the Great Plains by U.S. government treaties had been taken over by homesteaders, ranchers, and miners. As many as 250,000 federal troops were stationed in the region to protect white settlers facing resistance from angry Native Americans. These soldiers were housed in small garrisons and given machine guns and cannon to fight the Indians. They were commanded by a number of former Civil War generals, including Philip Sheridan.

In 1873, the discovery of gold in the Black Hills led to a rush of white miners to the Dakota Territory. Only five years before, the U.S. government had signed a treaty promising that the Black Hills, sacred to the Lakota and many other tribes, would remain off-limits to the white man. When government efforts to purchase the Black Hills from the Indians failed, the 1868 treaty was set aside. The commissioner of Indian affairs decreed that all Lakota not settled on reservations by the end of January 1876, would be considered hostile. Sitting Bull, leader of the Lakota, formed an alliance with the Cheyenne in an attempt to prevent these white men from stealing their land.

On June 25, 1876, army troops of the 7th Cavalry, led by Lieutenant Colonel George Armstrong Custer, were massacred by Sitting Bull and his allies near the Little Big Horn River in Montana. Custer, a Civil War hero known for his reckless bravery, had been warned by his officers that the Indian camp was too strong to attack without more troops. Despite this warning, Custer led a force of over two hundred



Buffalo on the Great Plains

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Chief Sitting Bull

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**Lieutenant Colonel George
Armstrong Custer**

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**Buffalo Bill (far left)
and captains at Wounded Knee**

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men into an ambush of waiting native warriors commanded by Sitting Bull. These crafty fighters killed Custer and all his soldiers in a day of fighting that has become known as “Custer’s Last Stand.”

The American public was outraged over this military disaster, and thousands more cavalymen were sent to the area. During the following year, these soldiers relentlessly pursued the Lakota and forced chief after chief to surrender. Sitting Bull, who by now had become a household name in much of the nation, remained defiant. However, in May of 1877, Sitting Bull decided to lead his people across the border into Canada, out of reach of the U.S. army.

For four years, Sitting Bull remained in Canada, but he found it increasingly difficult to feed, clothe, and shelter his people. Finally, he made the decision to bring his people back to the United States, and he surrendered to government authorities. Sitting Bull was taken first to Standing Rock Reservation but was soon sent to Fort Randall, where he was held for nearly two years as a prisoner of war. Finally, in May of 1883, Sitting Bull rejoined his tribe at Standing Rock, and in 1885, he was allowed to leave the reservation to join Buffalo Bill’s Wild West Show.

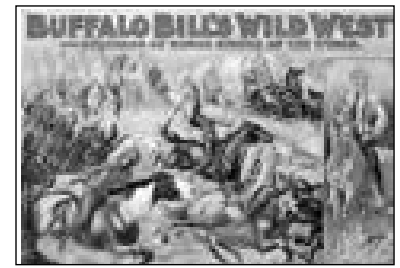


In the fall of 1890, the authorities at Standing Rock became fearful that Sitting Bull would lend his support to the Ghost Dance movement, a movement that emphasized the resurrection of past Native American customs and rejection of the white man's culture. More than forty Lakota policemen were sent to bring Sitting Bull in. When the chief's followers gathered to protect him, a gunfight erupted. Sitting Bull was shot and killed by one of the Lakota policemen. Two weeks later, the Sioux chief, Big Foot, and over three hundred of his followers were massacred by U.S. troops at their encampment on the banks of Wounded Knee Creek in South Dakota. The Ghost Dance movement, as well as the long years of the Indian Wars, were brought to an end with this massacre.

In 1887, the U.S. Congress passed the Dawes Act, which gave the president authority to break up reservation land, held in common by the members of a tribe, and divide it into 160-acre individual plots. These allotments of land would be distributed among individual Indians, who would acquire American citizenship with their land grants. Unfortunately, much of the land given to these Native Americans was of very poor quality—land that white men did not want.

IMPACT

- The last western frontier in the United States was the Great Plains. This area had not been settled by earlier pioneers because they believed that its land was not suitable for farming. However, the Great Plains would become one of the best agricultural regions in the world.
- The burst of railroad building in the American West during the 1860s and 1870s and the completion of the first transcontinental railroad in 1869 helped to promote migration to the Great Plains.



Buffalo Bill's Wild West Show

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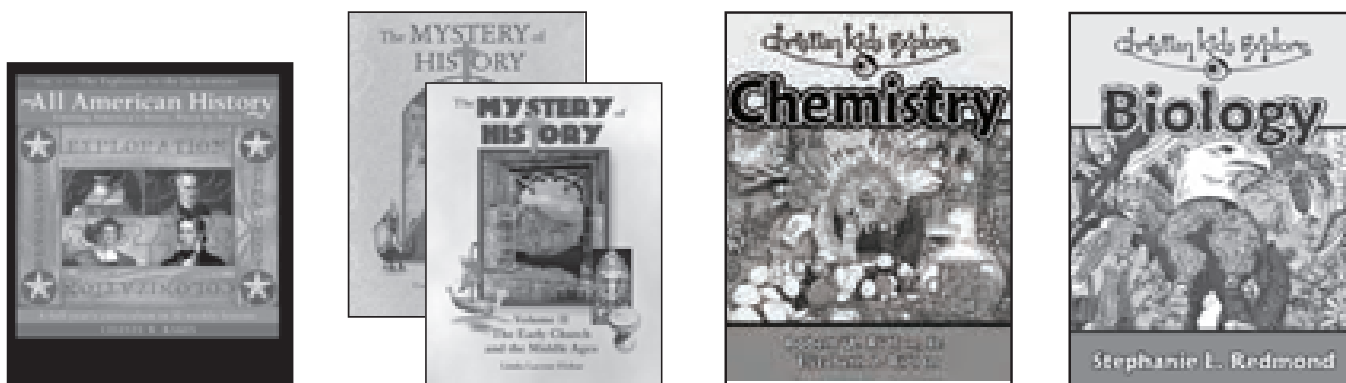
- The Homestead Act of 1862 permitted settlers to claim 160 acres of public land in the West by living on it for five years and paying a small fee. Pioneer families, migrating westward in trains of Conestoga wagons, faced many hardships.
- During the Gilded Age, there were still restless, independent miners roaming the American West. Boomtowns sprang up wherever there were mineral discoveries. Eventually, miners moved on to other potential mining sites, and most of these towns turned into ghost towns.
- The period from 1865 to 1885 became known as the era of the long cattle drive. Cowboys herded thousands of longhorns from Texas to midwestern towns, where they were fattened, slaughtered, and sent east for sale. The expansion of railroads in the Great Plains soon eliminated the need for these cattle drives, and Glidden's invention of barbed wire led to the enclosure of much of the open range.
- In the years after the Civil War, thousands of Great Plains Indians lived as they had for hundreds of years. They hunted buffalo and other wild animals that roamed the plains. Twenty years later, nearly all the buffalo had been slaughtered by white men, and almost all the Native Americans had been forced onto reservations.
- U.S. troops were sent to protect white Americans in the Great Plains from Native Americans. In 1876, Sitting Bull and his allies massacred Lieutenant Colonel George Custer and his men near the Little Big Horn River. Eventually, Sitting Bull surrendered to federal authorities. Upon his release from prison, he was allowed to travel with Buffalo Bill's Wild West Show.
- Federal authorities feared that Sitting Bull would join the Ghost Dance movement, which was seen as a threat to white

settlers living in the Great Plains. The chief was killed during an attempt to place him in custody. Two weeks later, U.S. troops massacred several hundred Sioux at Wounded Knee Creek in South Dakota. These events marked the end of the Indian Wars.

- The Dawes Act of 1887 gave the president authority to break up reservation land, held in common by members of a tribe, and divide it into 160-acre plots to be given to individual Indians.



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A Little About Us...

Although we really hadn't a clue, Bob and I began homeschooling our two sons in 1991. The first years were thrilling—we watched our boys grow in every possible way. With few supplies available for homeschoolers, we wrote our own curriculum and cobbled together other materials. As we found or developed resources that worked well for us and our friends, we began to publish them. Time went on and both boys successfully graduated from high school and went on to college. God has amazed and blessed us in this wonderful adventure called the homeschooling life.

Fast forward: Our oldest son, JB, is now 27. He enlisted in the Army in 2001 and served five years with the 3rd Infantry Division. Out of his experiences in Iraq came his first book, *From Basic to Baghdad: A Soldier Writes Home*. Brilliant, witty, and slightly eccentric, he also put his writing gifts to work for our e-book, *Writer's Co-op: Step-by-Step*. He works for Pella Windows, and is married to Christy Barr Hogan, a marvelous, funny, animal-loving, Tolkien fanatic whom we've known since she was a teeny little five-year-old!

Tyler, 22, is a graduate of Belhaven University holding a degree in Theatre Ministry. Tyler is now the office manager for Bright Ideas Press. We're so glad to see how the Lord is using him here! Tyler is married to Helen Spann Hogan, a quiet, kind, artistic, gentle soul who also happens to have her first-degree black-belt. Their adorable and beautiful little girl, Kaylee Renva Hogan, is 1-year-old this year. We are so blessed!

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