Church bells rang out all over the city. Guns boomed from forts in New York harbor. After 14 years of construction, marred by worker injuries and deaths, New York City celebrated the opening of the Brooklyn Bridge.

President Chester A. Arthur and New York Governor Grover Cleveland joined thousands of New Yorkers in the opening ceremony. The steel bridge stretched over the East River, ready to open the way from the island of Manhattan to the borough of Brooklyn.

At the time it was opened, the bridge was the longest suspension bridge in the world. Costing nearly $15 million, the bridge was suspended by 4 cables. Each cable contained more than 5,000 small wires and could hold nearly 3,000 tons. More than 100,000 people would travel over it each day.

The Brooklyn Bridge reflected the tide of industrial progress sweeping the nation in the years following the Civil War. Factories and cities grew, while advancements in technology and communications transformed the way Americans lived. As the nation continued to push its boundaries outward, the United States emerged as one of the great powers of the 1900s.
Strollers enjoy the broad promenade above the roadway of the soaring Brooklyn Bridge.
The clock struck noon and gunshots rang out, beginning one of the most remarkable land grabs in American history. Yancey Cravat, the hero in Edna Ferber’s novel, *Cimarron*, describes the scene on April 22, 1889, when the federal government effectively gave away the almost 2 million acres (0.8 million ha) of land it had purchased from evicted Creek and Seminole.

There we were, the girl on my left, the old plainsman on my right. Eleven forty-five. Along the border were the soldiers, their guns in one hand, their watches in the other. . . . Twelve o’clock. There went up a roar that drowned the crack of the soldiers’ musketry as they fired in the air as the signal of noon and the start of the Run. You could see the puffs of smoke from their guns but you couldn’t hear a sound. The thousands surged over the Line. It was like running water going over a broken dam. The rush had started, and it was devil take the hindmost. We swept across the prairie in a cloud of black and red dust that covered our faces and hands in a minute. . . .

—Edna Ferber, *Cimarron*, 1930

More than 50,000 men, women, and children participated in the rush. Although the land was free, the settlers would have to homestead, or settle on the land, for a number of years before they could own it. Some found their stakes too dry to farm, and disease-causing conditions drove others out; but a year later, the Oklahoma Territory boasted a population of about 259,000 people.

The success of the Oklahoma rush led the government to open more land in the West. The following year
federal authorities authorized settlement on millions of acres of Sioux land in South Dakota. The government could not hold back the tide of eager settlers, and after 1900 thousands descended on the former Native American reservation.

Expanding Frontiers
Farmers, Ranchers, and Miners Go West

As the nation’s population boomed and Midwestern agricultural land filled up, farmers looked westward to the Great Plains. After completing the transcontinental railroad in 1869, the railroad companies encouraged eager farmers to buy some of their enormous land holdings. More encouragement came from the Homestead Act of 1862 that awarded 160 acres (64.8 ha) of public land free to any settler who would farm the land for at least 5 years. So enticed, many settlers, including thousands of immigrants from European countries, poured into the lands west of the Mississippi River.

The Cattle Frontier

On the eastern high-grass prairie of the Great Plains, enough rain fell to cultivate grain crops. Settlers used the drier western lands for cattle grazing. Herds of longhorn and other cattle were fattened on the open range lands of Texas, Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, Wyoming, and Montana. They were then driven to market, sold to packers, and sent east to feed beef-hungry city dwellers.

The profits from cattle ranching could be enormous. A Texas steer, purchased as a calf for $5–$6, could be set out to graze on public land and later sold for $60–$70. The “cattle kingdom” flourished for two decades after the Civil War until a drought and an oversupply of cattle in the late 1880s forced beef prices down.

Cowhands

The cattle industry in the United States developed from the livestock and horses that the Spanish introduced into the Americas. Similarly, the cowhand culture idealized in books and movies had a partly Spanish heritage. The unique way of life followed by cowhands evolved from that of the vaqueros, their Mexican counterparts. The chaps that protected a cowhand’s legs from thorny brush came from the vaqueros’ word chaparajos. The words lariat and rodeo also have Spanish origins.

The cowhands wore functional outfits. High-heeled boots kept their feet from slipping out of the stirrups. Broad-brimmed hats kept the sun, rain, and dust from their eyes. Because cowhands worked seasonally, few owned their own horses. Every cowhand, however, owned a saddle—a prized possession.

Ranchers hired cowhands for their skill at riding or roping. Cowhands branded cattle during the spring roundup and kept herds together during a trail drive, moving cattle as far as 1,000 miles (1,609 km) in 3 months. They worked hard for low wages—$40–$50 a month. As cattle rancher Joseph G. McCoy said of a cowhand in 1874: “He lives hard, works hard, has but few comforts and fewer necessities. He loves danger but abhors labor of the common kind, and never tires riding.”

Cowhand Culture
Cowhands, one-third of whom were African American or Hispanic American, worked and relaxed together. These two cowhands posed for their photograph in the 1860s. How did the cattle industry in the United States begin?

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HISTORY Online
Student Web Activity 7
Visit the American Odyssey Web site at americanodyssey.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 7—Student Web Activities for an activity relating to the western frontier.
The profession was more integrated than most walks of American life. African American, Native American, Hispanic, and Anglo cowhands, as well as those of mixed ancestry, all met and worked together. Yet discrimination existed on the frontier as elsewhere. Vaqueros earned less than Anglos and seldom became foremen or trail bosses. Some saloons discriminated against Hispanics, segregated African Americans, and excluded Chinese altogether.

Few women worked as salaried cowhands. Ranchers’ wives and daughters did help with many chores, such as tending animals and sewing leather britches. A widow sometimes took over her deceased husband’s ranch.

During free time in the bunkhouse, cowhands entertained themselves with card games, tall tales, practical jokes, and songs. In town, after several months on the trail, many of them let off steam by drinking, gambling, and fighting in local saloons. Cow towns, where cattle were loaded on trains for shipment to market, had a reputation for lawlessness. Yet the “Wild West” gained its name not so much for gunfights as for the cowhands’ rugged life.

Mountains and Valleys

West of the Great Plains, people sought their fortune from the vast mineral and forest resources of the Rocky Mountain and Sierra Nevada regions. The timberlands of California and the Northwest yielded much of the wood necessary for thousands of miles of railroad ties, fence posts, and the building of hundreds of towns.

Gold and silver provided much of the capital for an industrializing country. The Comstock Lode, a rich vein of silver in Nevada, yielded more than $292 million between 1859 and 1882. Though Western tales celebrate the lone miner toiling with pick and shovel, huge companies did most of the mining of valuable metals. These companies, in pursuit of gold, silver, lead, copper, tin, and zinc, commanded great money and power. They could build railroad lines, bring in heavy machinery, and employ armies of miners.

In California the gold discovered under the ground proved less valuable than the ground itself. As one father told his son: “Plant your lands, these be your best gold fields.” Farmland turned out to be California’s most valuable asset. Eager miners, believing the California soil unsuitable for crops, willingly paid high prices for farm produce: “watermelon at from one to five dollars each, apples from Oregon at one and two dollars each, potatoes and onions at fifty cents to one dollar a pound . . . eggs at two dollars a dozen,” according to one older resident. More often than not, provisioners in the West made money while miners did not. By 1862 California produced a surplus of some crops.

Like the cattle culture of the Great Plains, the agriculture of California had a partly Spanish heritage. Franciscan missionaries introduced grapes and citrus fruits to California’s fertile soils in the late 1700s. With the end of the mission system in the mid-1800s, however, the vineyards and orchards fell into neglect. Enterprising settlers, once in search of gold, displaced Mexican ranchers and turned the rich California valleys into cornucopias of the Far West.

Building the Railroad

Across the Continent by Rail

California’s population increased dramatically because of its gold rush and its agricultural successes. Other parts of the West remained sparsely settled, usually because they were far from transportation and markets. In the early 1860s, the federal government proposed that railroad lines should cross the entire United States.
The incredible engineering feat that provided transcontinental transportation began with the Pacific Railroad Act. Passed by Congress in 1862, the act authorized the Union Pacific Railroad to lay track westward from a point near Omaha, Nebraska, while the Central Pacific Railroad laid track eastward from Sacramento. The lines were to meet in Utah. In addition to government loans, the railroads received large land grants, 20 square miles (51.8 square km) of land for 1 mile (1.6 km) of track laid. The railroad barons made fortunes by selling this land to settlers.

Both railroads faced enormous challenges that required armies of laborers. The Central Pacific had to cross the Sierra Nevada in eastern California, while the Union Pacific had to cross the Rockies. Blasting and tunneling into rock and working through the winters, the crew suffered many injuries and deaths. In January 1865, the Central Pacific advertised for 5,000 more workers.

The quiet efficiency of Chinese laborers impressed the construction boss, and he began recruiting in China. Before the end of the year, about 7,000 Chinese laborers were at work on the line. The Union Pacific relied heavily on Irish immigrant labor, although one worker described the team as “a crowd of ex-Confederates and Federal soldiers, muleskinners, Mexicans, New York Irish, bushwackers, and ex-convicts,” with a few African Americans as well.

By 1868 the work of laying track had become a race between the two railroads. The pace quickened as the lines approached each other. When the two sets of tracks met on May 10, 1869, at Promontory, Utah, special trains carrying railroad officials and their guests arrived for the completion ceremony. Leland Stanford, governor of California, drove in a gold spike, symbolically uniting the rail lines. A telegraph message informed the nation, “It is done!” By the end of the 1800s four more transcontinental rail lines crossed the United States. Passengers and freight began to crisscross the nation.
The Second Great Removal
Native American Lands Taken

Not everyone benefited from the expansion of the railroads. In the summer of 1860, Lieutenant Henry Maynadier quoted one Sioux elder who warned about the expansion of the West, “We are glad to have the traders, but we don’t want you soldiers and roadmakers; the country is ours and we intend to keep it.”

The rapid settlement of the lands west of the Mississippi River after the Civil War led to a generation of violent conflict. Settlers fought the dozens of Native American nations that had inhabited these lands for generations.

In 1871 the federal government decreed that all Western Native American nations must agree to relocate to one of two reservation areas. The northern Plains nations were assigned to the western half of present-day South Dakota; the southern Plains nations were assigned to what is now Oklahoma. Once placed on the reservations, they would have to accept the federal government as their guardian.

Government policy, as well as military conflict with those who resisted, undermined Native American cultures. In 1871 the government ended the practice of treating each Native American nation separately. Under the new policy, Native Americans lost two rights. They could no longer negotiate treaties to protect their lands, and they could no longer vote on laws governing their fate. The Dawes Severalty Act of 1887 continued the attempt to break down Native American loyalty to their own nations. This act decreed that parcels of land be given not to nations but to individuals. Each family head was allowed 160 acres (64.8 ha). Reservation land left over was sold to white settlers.
### Section Assessment

#### Main Idea
1. In a chart like the one below show some of the causes and effects of westward expansion after the Civil War.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Westward Expansion</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### Vocabulary
2. Define: homestead, transcontinental railroad, government boarding school.

#### Checking Facts
3. How were cowhands linked to a Spanish heritage?
4. How did the federal transportation policy promote westward movement? What natural resources did settlers find in the Great Plains and in the Far West?

#### Critical Thinking
5. Recognizing Points of View How did the Native Americans’ view of westward expansion differ from that of the settlers?
An Age of Ingenuity
After the Civil War, Americans yearned to shed painful memories. They channeled their creative energy into hopes for a brighter future. Inventors filed record numbers of patent applications for everything from the dentist’s drill to the corn flake. They contrived new modes of travel and entertainment, and displayed their creations at exhibitions and fairs.

STEREO PHOTOGRAPHY
Stereoscopes filled the imaginations and parlors of Victorian viewers. In 1849 photographers began using a double-lensed camera to capture the perspectives of the left and right eyes. The resulting stereographs quickly became the most popular form of photography. Printed side by side, and seen through the little windows of the stereoscope, the two views on the stereograph merged into one and popped to life in 3-D.
CURIOSITY SEEKERS
Already famous for drawing a crowd, Phineas T. Barnum watched 10,000 spectators flock to his first circus in 1871. Three acres of tents housed the likes of Zazel the human cannonball and Alexis the horseback-riding, hoop-jumping goat.

MECHANICAL MUSIC
Wild saloons and proper parlors alike displayed the newest musical novelty, the player piano. Meanwhile, employees of the United States Patent Office saw designs for a music-playing sewing machine and a convertible piano bed.

REINVENTING THE WHEEL
The 1893 World's Columbian Exposition unveiled the first Ferris wheel. Inventor Charles Ferris designed the ride to be the United States’s answer to France’s Eiffel Tower. During the Exposition the wheel carried more than 1.5 million people in its 36 trolley-sized cars.
Andrew Carnegie learned about the meaning of hard work as a young boy. When his family fell on hard times in Scotland, he helped his mother sew shoes by threading her needles. In 1848 after the Carnegies left Scotland for the United States, 12-year-old Andrew worked with his father in a Pennsylvania cotton factory, earning $1.20 for a 72-hour week.

Little by little, Carnegie made himself a business success. At age 14 he started work in a telegraph office as a messenger and then quickly rose to the position of telegraph operator. The Pennsylvania Railroad hired Carnegie when he was 17, and his skills and hard work catapulted him in a few years to the job of assistant to the president. Through smart investments in a railroad car company and in oil wells, Carnegie made a small fortune by his early twenties and left the railroad to start his own business manufacturing iron bridges.

Carnegie was not only a shrewd investor but also a daring industrial innovator. In 1873 he began building a massive steel plant to produce railroad tracks in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Carnegie introduced the revolutionary Bessemer converter and open-hearth steelmaking method, which converted iron ore into steel with much less labor than was previously required. Carnegie’s mill also combined all stages of steel production—smelting, refining, and rolling—into one unified operation. As a result, the price of steel rails dropped from $107 per ton in 1870 to $32 per ton in 1890.

Innovation, ambition, and organizational skill made Carnegie hugely wealthy by the time he was 40 years old. Saying that hard work brought success, he also believed that those who acquired great
wealth had a responsibility to return a portion of their profits to society. “The man who dies rich, dies disgraced,” the self-made Scottish immigrant avowed.

By the time of his death in 1919, Carnegie had donated more than $350 million to worthy causes, including thousands of libraries, and another $30 million was disbursed through his last will and testament. His generosity was legendary throughout the world.

**Industrialism Triumphant**

**A New World of Manufacturing**

The era during which Andrew Carnegie built his steel empire witnessed a dramatic economic transformation. Between the end of the Civil War in 1865 and the end of the 1800s, the United States became an industrial giant. Manufacturing replaced agriculture as the main source of economic growth; growing industrialism turned the United States into a land rich with machines, factories, mines, and railroads.

**The Rise of Heavy Industry**

Before the Civil War, manufacturing in the United States had been tied to the farming economy. Factories processed the products of the farm and forest into consumer goods—turning cotton and wool into cloth; hides into shoes and boots; and trees into ships, barrels, and furniture. After the Civil War, manufacturing branched out and concentrated increased funding and labor in heavy-industry consumer goods such as railroad tracks, steam engines, and farm tractors. Factories could now produce in huge quantities what craftspersons had painstakingly been making by hand.

Steelmaking was central to the new heavy industry. Hand in hand with steel production went the intensive development of the nation’s mineral resources. Iron ore deposits in Michigan and Minnesota provided the raw substance for the steelmaking centers that sprang up in Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania. Coal was equally important because it became the fuel that powered a nation of steam-run machines.

**The Technology Boom**

In 1876 the most ingenious American inventor since Benjamin Franklin built a long wooden shed in a little town in New Jersey where he promised to produce “a minor invention every ten days and a big thing every six months or so.” Thomas Alva Edison, a brash 29-year-old at the time, was nearly as good as his word. Edison patented more than 1,000 inventions in his Menlo Park laboratory before his death in 1931. He lit up the nation through his stunning development of an incandescent lightbulb that provided a cheap and
efficient replacement for candles and oil lamps. Of equal importance was his invention of the technology for producing and distributing electrical power.

Between 1860 and 1900, thousands of other inventors pushed forward the new age of machines and electrical energy. The United States Patent Office, which had issued a total of 36,000 patents in the 70 years before 1860, granted 676,000 between 1860 and 1900. Among the most important was Alexander Graham Bell’s telephone. Patented in 1876, the telephone revolutionized communications.

By 1884 telephone service from Boston to New York City began the boom in rapid long-distance communication. By 1900 more than 1.3 million telephones were in operation nationwide.

Inventions and entrepreneurial skills combined to reshape the face of American manufacturing. New cotton machinery speeded up textile production. By 1886 a worker laboring for 10 hours could turn out 3 times as much as a worker in 1840 who toiled for 14 hours. Such developments made processed goods and consumer items cheaper and more readily available.

Everywhere in the United States the new technology could be seen in the form of mechanical reapers, blast furnaces, and telegraph offices; in the camera, typewriter, electric motor, and electric light; in the high-speed rotary printing press, iron and steel ships, pressed glass, wire rope, and petroleum. All of these products combined to create a new world of manufacturing, business, and consumerism.

National Markets
Products Move Across the Nation by Rail

Closely linked to the maturing of the nation’s industrial economy was the creation of a transportation network that turned the country into a huge, unified national market. Before the Civil War, canal and river boats had carried the bulky farm and forest products from one region to another. After the Civil War, the fledgling railroad system that began in the 1830s surged forward. Soon it became the most popular way of transporting people and goods.

Across these thousands of miles of railroad track, goods could move with such year-round, on-time efficiency that entire industries were revolutionized. One example was the meatpacking industry. Before the Civil War, Americans bought meat from their local butchers, who had purchased livestock from nearby farmers. The railroads, however, allowed for far more efficient cattle raising on the wide-open ranges of the Great Plains. This in turn lowered meat prices for the consumer. From the Great Plains, cattle were shipped in cattle cars to livestock markets—Chicago was the largest—and then were distributed by the railroads to be slaughtered in Eastern and Southern cities.

Refrigerated Railroad Cars

The invention of the refrigerated railroad car further revolutionized the business. Gustavus Swift, a clever Chicago cattle dealer, recognized that if slaughtering and preparing meat for market could be done in one place, money could be saved and meat sold more cheaply. What was needed was the ability to keep meat fresh during its journey to the local butcher shops. The refrigerated railroad car was the answer.

Using the newly invented refrigerated car, Swift created a gigantic national meatpacking network in the 1880s. His wagons carried chilled meat from regional packinghouses to local butcher shops. Four other meatpackers copied Swift’s innovations, and by the 1890s these five companies completely dominated the nation’s meat business.
The refrigerated railroad car also created a national market for fruits and vegetables from the West Coast. By 1888 fresh apricots and cherries were able to survive the train ride from California to New York, and the nation’s diet was transformed. Large parts of the country that only ate locally grown fruits and vegetables during the summer months could now have a Florida orange for breakfast, an Oregon apple for lunch, and a California lettuce salad for dinner at any time of the year.

**Nationwide Businesses**

Other businesses quickly followed the move to identify or create a national market. By the 1880s the McCormick Harvesting Machine Company had a national network of dealers who not only sold mechanized farm equipment that arrived by train but also provided credit and repair services. The Singer Sewing Machine Company dotted the land with retail stores and blanketed the country with door-to-door salespeople.

City dwellers also became connected to huge nationwide chain store systems. F.W. Woolworth’s five-and-ten-cent stores sprouted in thousands of towns and cities. The Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company replaced “Ma and Pa” grocery stores all over the country because this large grocery chain could undersell the single retailer through mass purchasing. All of the products sold in chain stores moved across the nation by rail.

**The Birth of Consumerism**

The creation of a national marketplace changed the way people spent their money. In the cities people no longer purchased solely from pushcarts or small shops, but rushed to the new department stores. John Wanamaker of Philadelphia introduced fixed prices and window displays to entice customers in 1861. Macy’s in New York, Marshall Field in Chicago, and Jordan Marsh in Boston soon joined him.

These lavish consumer palaces included leaded-glass skylights, polished marble staircases, expensive carpets, and chandeliers. Such stores introduced charge accounts and trained clerks to cater to the customer. They tried to convince buyers that shopping was a great pleasure to be enjoyed. Advertising played a significant role in this buying craze. Between 1870 and 1900 the amount of money spent on advertising increased dramatically, from $50 million to $542 million.
The Growth of Big Business

Mergers Create Industrial Giants

The growth of heavy industry and the creation of vast nationwide markets brought about a fundamental change in business organization. Only large businesses gathering capital from many investors could afford to set up huge factories, install modern machinery, and employ hundreds of workers.

At the same time, the vast railroad system allowed national corporations to ship goods almost anywhere. While the typical railroad line in 1865 was only 100 miles long, by 1885 it had expanded to 1,000 miles (1,609 km) of track. Such a large enterprise, with enormous costs of construction, maintenance, and operation, demanded unprecedented amounts of capital and new methods of management.

The Managerial Revolution

In the early days of railroading, a superintendent could give his personal attention to every detail in running a 50- or 100-mile (80.45- or 160.9-km) operation. How, then, could one person oversee the operations of a business such as the Pennsylvania Railroad? By 1890 this railroad had 50,000 employees, properties spread over great distances, large amounts of capital invested, and hundreds of trains that had to be scheduled and coordinated with precision.

The answer was to separate the various functions of a business into departments and put each one under the direction of a separate manager. In a railroad, for example, one person would be in charge of people who maintained the tracks; another supervised cargo handling; another oversaw traffic. Managers reported to the central office through well-defined lines of communication.

The Merger Movement

Led by the railroads, the American industrial economy grew rapidly in the decades after the Civil War. The cutthroat competition of an uncontrolled marketplace, however, plagued businesses. Business owners feverishly overbuilt their operations in good times and cut back sharply when demand for their products slackened. In such a boom-or-bust marketplace, bankruptcy was common. In the depression of the 1870s, for example, 47,000 firms closed their doors, laying off hundreds of thousands of employees.

Some people felt that the solution to such business instability was a merger, or a combining of several competing firms under a single head. By merging companies in a particular industry, a junglelike market could become an orderly, predictable market. “I like a little competition now and then,” exclaimed J.P. Morgan, a titan of mergers in the late 1800s, “but I like combination a lot better.”

The pioneering figure in the late nineteenth-century merger movement was John D. Rockefeller. Rockefeller started out as a clerk in his boyhood town of Cleveland, Ohio. In the 1860s he founded a business that refined kerosene from petroleum and later became Standard Oil Company. Hundreds of oil refineries, mostly small and badly organized, competed fiercely in the Ohio and Pennsylvania regions.

Both wise and ruthless, Rockefeller purchased as many competing companies as possible, and by the late 1870s Standard Oil controlled almost all the oil refineries in Ohio. By 1882 Standard Oil had gobbled up most of the competition throughout the country. Rockefeller’s 40 oil companies owned 90 percent of the nation’s...
pipelines and refined 84 percent of the nation’s oil. “The day of individual competition [in the oil business] is past and gone,” Rockefeller pronounced.

Because he dominated the market, Rockefeller was able to demand rail shipping rates of ten cents a barrel as compared with his competitors’ thirty-five cents. When Rockefeller turned the business over to his son in 1911, his fortune exceeded $1 billion.

The merger of competing companies in one area of business such as occurred to form Rockefeller’s oil corporation was known as horizontal integration. It was often accompanied by vertical integration of industries, in which a firm would strive to control all aspects of production from acquisition of raw materials to final delivery of finished products. In this way a single business might gain total control over a national market, as the chart below shows. Note that when a business integrates horizontally, it merges all competing companies in one area of business. In vertical integration, one business controls all aspects of production.

In the merger movement, Swift and Armour dominated meatpacking, and the Duke family controlled tobacco. Andrew Carnegie, however, had the most success with vertical integration. Carnegie bought up coal mines and iron ore deposits for his steel mills, then bought railroads and ships to transport raw materials and send his products to market. By owning every aspect of steel production he could limit risk and guarantee profit.

When J.P. Morgan bought Carnegie’s steel company in 1901, he consolidated it with several other firms to form the U.S. Steel Corporation, which controlled 60 percent of American steel production. It was the nation’s first billion-dollar company. By 1913 J.P. Morgan controlled 314 directorships in 112 corporations, with an estimated collective worth of $22 billion.

The Spirit of the Gilded Age
Lavish Spending and Ruthless Competition

The wealth generated by industrial capitalism and big business led to the growth of a “nouveau riche” class with its own philosophy. Many of these self-made people proclaimed their importance with showy displays of wealth, leading humorist Mark Twain to call the late 1800s the Gilded Age.

| Raw Materials: mines, oil fields, farms, companies that extract or harvest a natural resource |
| Production: refineries, mills, factories, companies that manufacture a product |
| Distribution: railroads, ships, trucks, companies that transport a product to market |

The chart above illustrates horizontal and vertical business integration. When a business integrates horizontally, it merges all competing companies in one area of business. In vertical integration, one business controls all aspects of production. What kind of business integration does U.S. Steel represent in the chart? What did it own?
Some of these people, known as robber barons, built lavish mansions in New York City complete with solid gold bathroom fixtures. For the summer months many built castlelike estates in Newport, Rhode Island, which they dubbed their “cottages.” Railroad tycoon William Vanderbilt’s summer home cost $11 million. Outrageous displays of wealth were popular. At one debutante ball in Philadelphia, a young woman’s parents ordered thousands of live butterflies (many of which drowned in champagne glasses) as decorations at the $75,000 party.

**Social Darwinism**

In the heady, expensive atmosphere of the Gilded Age, the struggle for wealth became a way of life for the most ambitious Americans. How did business leaders, bent on killing off competition in order to increase their control of the marketplace and make as much money as possible, justify their activities to a public raised on the ideology of a fair and open society? A new theory of human behavior provided an answer. It rested on the scientific theories of Charles Darwin about the origin of species and the evolution of humankind. Darwin argued that the plant and animal world had reached its present state through a long process of “natural selection” in which only the fittest had survived. Herbert Spencer, an English philosopher, loosely adapted these ideas, in a theory known as Social Darwinism, to explain the evolution of human society.

Progress, Spencer argued, occurred through competition in which the weak fell and the strong forged ahead. His strongest American supporter, William G. Sumner, put it this way: “If we do not like the survival of the fittest, we have only one possible alternative, and that is the survival of the unfittest.”

American business leaders flocked to honor Spencer when he visited the United States in 1882. Here was a man whose theories justified their aggressive business practices and their attempts to eliminate weaker competitors. They praised his notion that government interference with the separation of the weak from the strong would only hold back progress.

**Concern for the Less Fortunate**

Despite their seeming lack of regard for common people, many of the robber barons who had embraced Social Darwinism also believed that the more fortunate should give back to society to benefit the public at large. Carnegie was but one of a host of powerful, rich patrons who supported the arts, education, and culture; funded public works; and established foundations.

These individual efforts had their limitations, however. As Jane Addams, a reformer of this time, commented concerning her native city of Chicago, “Private beneficence [charity] is totally inadequate to deal with vast numbers of the city’s disinherited.” Americans would have to learn new ways to cope with and solve the enormous problems created by population growth and industrialization in the United States between the Civil War and the end of the nineteenth century.
### Learning the Skill

Tables present statistical information by organizing it into categories. A statistical table can help you to identify patterns in employment in the United States.

### Finding Information in a Table

To find the answers to statistical questions:

- **a.** Read the title; then make sure that you understand the headings. There are three major headings: Total Labor Force, Labor Force, and Employment. Two of these heads are divided into smaller categories or heads; and of these, Manufacturing, Transport, and Service are subdivided again.

- **b.** The lefthand column, the stub, lists another category of information, in this case, years. Find out which years the stub lists.

- **c.** The columns of figures are the body of the table. They give data, by category, for each year.

- **d.** Read down from one column heading and across from the corresponding year to find a measure of the labor force employed in a trade for that year.

### Practicing the Skill

Study the table below, then answer the following questions:

1. In 1900 the Total Labor Force was 29,070,000. Why are there no figures in the next 2 columns?
2. What percentage worked in Trade in 1900?
3. Which category lost the most workers between 1800 and 1900?
4. By what percentage did employment in this field change?
5. Which categories gained the most workers?

### Applying the Skill

Using another table, write 10 questions that can be answered from the table, and their answers.

---

#### Labor Force and Employment, 1800–1900

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Labor Force (in Thousands)</th>
<th>Labor Force (Percent)</th>
<th>Employment (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free</td>
<td>Slave</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800</td>
<td>1,900</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
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<td>1810</td>
<td>2,330</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1820</td>
<td>3,135</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>4,200</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>5,660</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1850</td>
<td>8,250</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>11,110</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>12,930</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>17,390</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>23,320</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>29,070</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The United States Bureau of the Census compiled the statistical data for this table on labor and employment during the 1800s. How many different fields of employment are represented? What are they?
In July 1892, the delegates of a new political party met in Omaha to cement their alliance:

We have witnessed for more than a quarter of a century the struggles of the two great political parties for power and plunder, while grievous wrongs have been inflicted upon the suffering people. . . . Assembled on the anniversary of the birthday of the nation . . . we seek to restore the government of the Republic to the hands of “the plain people.”

—Omaha Platform, July 1892

The delegates adopted the platform of the People’s party, also called the Populist party, with great enthusiasm. The platform not only denounced the existing ills of society but also proposed a third-party remedy. The Populists represented a grand coalition of farmers, laborers, and reformers, which aimed to put government back into the hands of the people.

Populist leaders were as colorful and diverse as the causes they represented. Ignatius Donnelly of Minnesota, who had written the preamble to the party platform, was considered the greatest orator of Populism. Mary E. Lease, who forcefully represented farmers’ interests, once advised Kansas farmers to “raise less corn and more hell.” “Sockless Jerry” Simpson earned his nickname when he told a Kansas audience that he wore no silk socks like his “princely” Republican opponent. Georgia’s Thomas E. Watson left the Democratic party to campaign for Populist ideals.

Guide to Reading

Main Idea
The economic imbalances caused by rapid industrialization and the power of big business led to the birth of the Populist movement among farmers and the rise of the labor movement among workers.

Vocabulary
- union
- strike
- injunction

Read to Find Out . . .
- the development of the Populist party.
- the problems facing farmers and their efforts to improve their situation.
- the development of labor unions in the late 1800s.
The Populists chose their candidates amid calls for restricted immigration and a shorter workday for industrial laborers. The party also aimed to convince the government to allow the free coinage of silver, a measure that would make silver, not just gold, legal tender. Many farmers thought this would cause inflation, thereby raising prices for farm goods, and would breathe new life into the faltering economy. The nomination for President in 1892 went to James B. Weaver, a seasoned campaigner from Iowa, who had been the candidate of the Greenback party in 1880. Second place on the ticket went to James G. Field, a former Confederate general from Virginia. As one historian observed, “Whether they knew it or not, the delegates were beginning the last phase of a long and perhaps losing struggle—the struggle to save agricultural America from the devouring jaws of industrial America.”

Farmers Beleaguered
Falling Prices, Rising Debts

The rapid development of the agricultural West and the reorganization of Southern agriculture after the Civil War provided new opportunities for millions of American families. The changes also exposed these families to the financial hardships of rural life. The result was the first mass organization of farmers in American history.

Ironically the farmers’ problem was rooted in their ability to produce so much. Immigrants as well as American-born farmers were tilling huge tracts of the Great Plains for the first time. Larger acreage, coupled with improved farming methods, meant bumper crops in most years. By the 1870s farmers produced more than the country—or the world—demanded. Prices dropped, as the graph shows. In addition two factors contributed to the farmers’ financial problems: many farmers borrowed money to put more land under cultivation, and most of them had to pay high transportation costs to get crops to market.

Falling farm prices brought widespread rural suffering. On the Great Plains, many farmers had to borrow more money to keep afloat financially. In the South many lost their farms and became debt-ridden sharecroppers. When Eastern bankers began to foreclose on farm loans, thousands abandoned their homesteads.

Homesteaders in the late 1800s also faced nature’s wrath. In 1874 a plague of grasshoppers devoured crops, clothes, and even plow handles. Droughts parched the earth in 1886. In January 1888, in the northern Plains the School Children’s Storm killed more than 200 youngsters who were stranded at school or starting home.

Loneliness could be just as tormenting. One farm mother, who had not seen another woman for a year, walked across the prairie with her small children to see a woman who had come to live several miles away. The two strangers threw their arms around each other and wept.

Some families gave up and headed back East. They left behind bitter slogans: “In God we trusted, in Kansas we busted.” The farmers who stayed began to seek political relief. The governor of Kansas received the following letter from a farm woman in 1894:

I take my pen in hand to let you know we are starving. . . . My husband went away to find work and came home last night and told me that he would have to starve. He had been in 10 counties and did not get no work. . . . I haven’t had nothing to eat today and it is 3 o’clock.

Farmers United

Farmers, like other beleaguered groups in society, realized that there is strength in numbers. As early as 1867 farmers banded together to form the Patrons of Husbandry, also known as the Grange. By 1875 there were about 1 million Grange members spread from New England to Texas, concentrated mainly in the South and the Great Plains. The Grangers wanted the government to

The graph on the left shows an increase in wheat production during the late 1800s. The graph on the right shows the price of wheat declining during this same period. What conclusion can you draw from these two graphs?
regulate railroad freight rates and to fund agricultural colleges. They also formed sales cooperatives, pooling their products and dividing profits.

In the 1880s farmers stepped up their political activism by forming groups known as Farmers’ Alliances—one in the South, another on the Plains. The Alliances pooled the credit resources of their members to free themselves from the high interest rates banks charged. They formed marketing cooperatives to sell directly to large merchants and thus avoided paying extra costs to brokers. Such cooperatives could also buy bulk quantities of the supplies and machinery farmers needed.

### The Populist Crusade

Despite action by the Farmers’ Alliances and the Grangers, the plight of thousands of farmers worsened. By the 1890s they had become politically active as never before. The platform of the Populist party called for extensive reforms. Reformers believed that farmers and workers should be freed from the exploitative practices of banks, railroads, and merchants. Although James Weaver, the Populist candidate for President, soundly lost to Democrat Grover Cleveland in the election of 1892, his party made headway. The Populists gained 14 seats in Congress, won 2 governorships, and received the largest number of popular votes cast for any third party in the 1800s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Populist candidates for President and Vice President in 1892 received varying support from one state to the next. In which states or regions did the Populists gain the most votes?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Shortly after the election of 1892, the nation plunged into the deepest depression the country had yet known. In 1893 more than 2.5 million Americans, about 20 percent of the labor force, were unemployed. By the following year, the ranks of the unemployed had swollen to 4 million.

President Cleveland’s seeming indifference to the economic problems caused by the depression created a popular revolt. Jacob S. Coxey, a quiet Ohio business owner, led a march of about 500 people from Ohio to Washington, D.C., to dramatize the plight of the jobless. Leaders read their grievances on the steps of the Capitol and were arrested for unlawfully trying to enter the building.

By the time of the 1896 election, the Populist party itself had declined, but some of its ideas entered the mainstream. The continuing depression forced the Democratic party into a more radical position on one key issue—unlimited coinage of silver. This stance led many Populists to support the Democratic candidate, William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska. Bryan waged a campaign in favor of “free silver,” and secured endorsement by the Populist party. He traveled extensively, logging 18,000 miles (28,962 km) on the campaign trail.

The Republican nominee, William McKinley, took a more relaxed approach. McKinley had the support of big business. Standard Oil’s $250,000 donation to the Republicans nearly exceeded the total amount in the Democrats’ treasury. McKinley merely warned voters of the dangers of radicalism.

McKinley won by a comfortable 600,000 votes, suggesting that Americans in towns and cities heeded his warning. The discovery of gold in Alaska in 1898 increased the nation’s gold reserves and eased more money into circulation, stemming the money crisis for many farmers. Populism began to decline as a political force.

### The South Withholds Support

One factor limited Populism’s strength in the South. By 1890 more than 1 million farmers belonged to the Southern Alliance—the Southern branch of the two Farmers’ Alliances. In December the Southern Alliance met with other farmers’ groups at Ocala, Florida, and drew up a list of concerns. These included cheap currency, the abolition of national banks, and the restriction of land ownership to American citizens.
Although this list resembled the Populist platform of 1892, the People’s party failed to gain wide support in the South. The Southern Alliance advised its members to support major party candidates who favored agricultural interests.

The underlying reason for the failure of Populism in the South was the issue of white supremacy. The Southern Alliance feared that Populism might lead to gains for African Americans. Populist leader Thomas Watson tried to form an alliance of poor white and African American farmers. He argued that social class was more important than race. He urged citizens of both races to unite against the financial oppression that enslaved them.

Watson’s career, however, mirrored the fate of Populism in the South. He was elected to Congress in 1890 but was defeated two years later as Democratic candidates who promised to exclude African Americans from political power gained support. Watson ran for President on the Populist ticket in 1904 and 1908. Embittered by his defeats, he turned against many who had supported him. He became racist, anti-Catholic, and anti-Semitic.

### Labor Organizes

#### Unions for Skilled Workers

As early as the 1810s, skilled workers such as carpenters, printers, and tailors had formed citywide organizations to try to get better pay. Construction workers in many Eastern cities succeeded in getting a 10-hour day in 1834. As the workplace changed, however, so did the labor movement. After the Civil War, factory production replaced skilled labor. Employers often cut the cost of wages by hiring women and children. Workers, like farmers, decided to organize to maintain control over their wages and working conditions.

The first nationwide labor organizations developed during the mid-1800s. In 1867 bootmakers and shoemakers, whose wares were being undersold by machine-made products, formed the Knights of St. Crispin to try to block competition from unskilled workers. By 1870 this union, an organization for mutual benefit, had nearly 50,000 members. Like most early unions, however, the Knights of St. Crispin could not survive the high unemployment of the 1870s.

In 1877 a national railroad strike, or work stoppage, was the first of many violent confrontations between labor and the large corporations in the post–Civil War era. Clashes between railroad workers and state militias or federal troops sent in to break the strikes recurred in the 1880s. Then in 1885 successful negotiations with railroad magnate Jay Gould helped workers in all fields by convincing millions that they needed stronger unions.

### The Knights of Labor

The first national labor union to remain active for more than a few years was the Knights of Labor. Tailors in Philadelphia formed it as a secret society in 1869, and it grew to national proportions in the 1880s. The Knights of Labor differed from other labor unions by accepting all gainfully employed persons, including farmers, merchants, and unskilled workers. The union proposed new laws, including one to cut the workday to eight hours and one to authorize equal pay for men and women doing the same work. Both of these were radical propositions at the time.

Women workers played a role in this growing labor movement. When Irish immigrant Mary Harris Jones lost her husband and children to yellow fever in 1867, she moved to Chicago to work as a seamstress. After losing everything else in a fire, she turned to the Knights of Labor for help. Soon she was one of its strongest campaigners. She traveled on behalf of labor for nearly 50 years—later organizing for the United Mine Workers. Beloved by her followers, she became known as “Mother Jones.” The bosses, however, feared her. A West Virginia lawyer working for the mining companies called her “the most dangerous woman in America.”
The American Federation of Labor

In 1886 the Knights of Labor reached its peak with more than 700,000 members. A less reform-minded group, the American Federation of Labor (AFL), soon replaced it as the leading union. Led by Samuel Gompers, a cigar maker born in England, the AFL concentrated on organizing skilled workers. It advocated using strikes to improve wages and hours.

Gompers was willing to accept the new industrial system as it was, but only if labor got greater rewards. He also advocated boycotts—organized agreements to refuse to buy specific products—as one means of peaceful protest. This tactic had only limited success.

Protests and Violence
The Labor Movement Meets Resistance

Workers in the late 1800s customarily worked 10 hours a day, 6 days a week. A strike for an 8-hour workday at the huge McCormick Harvester factory in Chicago led to violent confrontation on May 3, 1886. After police killed 4 strikers in a scuffle outside the plant, about 1,000 workers turned out for a rally at Haymarket Square.

The Haymarket Riot

Someone in the crowd threw a bomb during the Haymarket protest, killing 7 police officers and injuring 67 bystanders. The police then fired into the crowd, killing 10 and wounding 50. Uproar over the Haymarket riot continued when 8 radical strike leaders were put on trial for murder. Although no direct evidence that any of them had thrown the bomb could be found, 7 of the 8 were sentenced to death, and 4 eventually were hanged. The public outcry against labor organizers helped employers defeat the 8-hour workday reform.

The Homestead Strike

In 1892 another violent dispute took place in Homestead, Pennsylvania. The steelworkers' union called a strike when the Carnegie Steel Company reduced wages. The company hired 300 guards from the Pinkerton Detective Agency to protect its factories. Several people were killed when violence broke out between the strikers and the guards. The Homestead strike failed when most workers quit the union and returned to work.

Coeur d'Alene

Labor unrest spread to the West as well. Disputes arose between miners and mine owners over pay and conditions. Disputes also flared between nonunion miners and members of the Western Federation of Miners. Strikes plagued the Coeur d'Alene mining region of Idaho during the 1890s. Twice the strikes were broken when the governor called in federal troops.

The Pullman Strike

The depression that lasted from 1893 to 1897 brought further setbacks for labor. In 1894 Eugene V. Debs, the founder of the new American Railway Union, led a labor action against the Pullman sleeping car works near Chicago.

George Pullman saw his company town as a model industrial village where workers were paid decently and were also disciplined. “We are born in a Pullman house,” said one worker, “fed from the Pullman shop, taught in the Pullman school, catechized in the Pullman church, and when we die we shall be buried in the Pullman cemetery and go to the Pullman hell.”

As the depression of 1893 worsened, Pullman cut wages by one-third and fired many workers. Prices in the company stores and rents for the company houses, however, stayed the same. Angry Pullman workers joined Debs’s railroad union in droves and went on strike in the spring of 1894.

Debs then led a strike of all American Railway Union members across
the country in sympathy with the Pullman workers. Debs promised to "use no violence" and to "stop no trains." Instead workers refused to handle trains with Pullman sleeping cars.

Determined to break the growing union movement, 24 railroad owners persuaded President Cleveland to order United States Army troops to disperse the strikers. Violence once again centered in Chicago where strikers fought troops and railroad company guards. Strikers set boxcars on fire and brought rail traffic in the Midwest to a dead halt.

Labor did not stand united, however. Samuel Gompers refused to swing his powerful AFL behind the strike, causing it to collapse. The government arrested Debs and other union leaders and sentenced Debs to 6 months in prison. In 1895 the Supreme Court upheld the President’s right to issue an injunction, an order to end a strike. Corporations thereby gained a powerful legal weapon that they used against unions for years.

Obstacles to Unity

Government intervention during major strikes repeatedly thwarted the nation’s industrial unions. The unions, however, also tended to cripple themselves by largely excluding three important groups: women, members of minority groups, and unskilled workers. By 1900 only about 1 in every 33 American workers belonged to a union, and fewer than 100,000 of the 5.3 million working women belonged to unions.

In the South the great majority of African American workers could join only separate, segregated local unions. In the North and west white unionists feared the competition of African American workers, knowing that many bosses would pay them less.

The hostility of American-born workers toward immigrants also kept the unions weak. Suspicion often centered on German, British, or Russian immigrants, some of whom had more radical ideas about society and labor than Americans usually heard.

American-born workers strongly expressed their resentment of immigrants during the anti-Chinese movement in the West during the 1870s and 1880s. Angry mobs rampaged through Chinese areas in San Francisco, Tacoma, Seattle, and Denver in the 1870s. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 reflected the widespread hostility against immigrant workers. The law halted immigration of Chinese workers and gained wide support from American labor unions.

By the turn of the century, big business had cast its shadow across most of the American economy, and in the turbulent labor struggles of the era, government took its place on the side of the employers against the workers.
Shouts of “Hurrah!” welcomed Teddy Roosevelt and his band of American soldiers as they battled their way up San Juan Hill near Santiago, Cuba. Nonetheless Roosevelt barked at his troops: “Don’t cheer, but fight. Now’s the time to fight.”

As the weary force struggled one last time to overpower the Spanish forces at the top of the hill, American wagons appeared, heaped with weapons. Grabbing rapid-fire rifles, American troops and the Cuban freedom fighters they supported finally captured the hill. The American and Cuban fighters won the battle, but the war continued. Finally, 16 days later, the Spanish garrison at Santiago surrendered.

Roosevelt was but one of more than 250,000 Americans who served in the Spanish-American War. When the United States declared war on Spain, Teddy Roosevelt was assistant secretary of the navy. Eager to fight, he resigned his government post, ordered a well-tailored uniform, and rushed to volunteer for military service. The secretary of the navy had mixed feelings about Roosevelt, saying, “He means to be thoroughly loyal, but the very devil seemed to possess him. . . . He has gone at things like a bull in a china shop.”

Roosevelt proved to be a popular war figure. He organized the First Voluntary Cavalry Regiment, known as the Rough Riders. This odd collection of cowhands, college students, ranchers, and rich aristocrats fascinated the press. Roosevelt attracted a large following of wartime newspaper reporters with his colorful style and “bully” spirit. Reporters peppered their articles with Roosevelt’s colorful quotes about the war.

The brief war with Spain was the climax of an era marked by the United States’s growing involvement with foreign nations. In the late 1800s, the American people were in a mood for expansion as they pushed their boundaries westward, gained new lands, and created new businesses and markets in faraway places for American products.
The United States had a long and complex relationship with its neighbors in the Western Hemisphere. President James Monroe’s address to Congress in 1823 had a significant impact on this relationship. Monroe’s message to the European powers was loud and clear: no more European colonies in the Western Hemisphere.

Any foreign military expeditions sent to the Western Hemisphere for whatever reason would be seen as a threat to the United States, Monroe warned. No European country should interfere in United States affairs, at home or abroad, he continued.

Spain’s interest in regaining control over former colonies spurred the President into action. Yet Monroe did have some assurance as he made these bold statements. He knew that Britain was also determined to prevent Spain from gaining any new colonies in the Western Hemisphere.

The President, relying on this information, decided to seize the moment and chart American foreign policy with his strong words. This was a bold move, to volunteer to be the “police force” protecting emerging nations in the entire hemisphere.

At the time there was little discussion of Monroe’s ground-breaking pronouncement. It was neither widely liked nor sharply contested. More than 20 years passed before President James K. Polk implemented this so-called Monroe Doctrine and laid a cornerstone for American foreign policy.

From Sea to Shining Sea

American settlers were flooding into territories throughout the country. Settlers in foreign-owned territories such as Oregon, Texas, and California wanted a government of their own, and they wanted to be part of the United States. Taking over these lands, however, would create conflicts with Britain, which owned part of Oregon, and with Mexico, which held Texas and California and much of today’s southwestern United States.

James K. Polk was the settlers’ champion. When Polk ran for President in 1844, he warmly supported expansionism, the process of increasing the territory of the United States. After his election, Polk set out to gain Oregon as well as the Southwest. Polk and many other Americans supported the concept of Manifest Destiny—the notion that the United States was a superior country and had a right to invade, conquer, and occupy the North American continent and beyond.

In 1845 Polk declared that no European colony could occupy the North American continent. When the British insisted that they would continue to share in the rich Northwest Territory, Polk decided to drive the British out.

In a compromise move in 1846, Britain claimed land above the forty-ninth parallel, and the United States retained what has today become the states of Oregon and Washington. War was avoided on the northern border as the United States prepared for battle with Mexico.

Mexico had broken diplomatic relations with the United States when Congress annexed Texas in 1845. In that same year Polk sent negotiators to Mexico in an attempt to buy other Mexican lands, such as California and the area known as New Mexico. Mexico refused the United States’s $30 million offer. Shortly after, following a border dispute, war erupted. After 2 years of fighting, the 2 governments negotiated a peace, and the United States laid claim to nearly half of Mexico for the bargain price of $15 million, with an additional $3.25 million to compensate American citizens with claims against Mexico.

Policing the Hemisphere

The Civil War years, 1861 through 1865, considerably limited American dreams of expansion. The war so consumed American arms and energy that during the long conflict, European nations tried to gain control of weak nations south of the Mexican border.

In 1861, despite warnings by Secretary of State William Seward, Spain seized an opportunity to reclaim its former colony, the Dominican Republic, an island in the Caribbean.
At the same time that Spain sailed into the Caribbean, Britain and France sent troops to Mexico, pretending to collect war debts. The British soon retreated, but in 1864 the French leader Napoleon III installed Austrian Archduke Ferdinand Maximilian on the Mexican throne.

After the Union victory in the Civil War, however, American troops massed on the Mexican border, and Secretary of State Seward, citing the Monroe Doctrine, threatened war with France if its troops did not withdraw. By 1867 France complied, bringing new life to the Monroe Doctrine.

Worldwide Ambitions
Markets, Trade Routes, and Territories

Many factors contributed to the spread of expansionist fever in the United States after the Civil War. A patriotic fervor motivated many Americans. They felt that the acquisition of new lands would increase American glory and prestige throughout the world. Others saw the United States as a model country and felt a moral obligation to expand. They wanted to spread the American ideals of democracy and Protestant Christian values to people in other lands. Missionaries, or religious teachers, went to foreign lands to convert natives to Christianity. A new brand of American foreign policy maker supported these expansionist sentiments. These newly established foreign policy professionals wanted to make the United States a world power through trade, diplomacy, and conquest.

Perhaps the greatest motivation for expansion was the need for new economic markets. As settlers filled the Western frontier, farms and businesses produced more goods than Americans could buy. Henry Demarest Lloyd, a popular political writer at the time, wrote, “American production has outrun American consumption and we must seek markets for the surplus abroad.”

Opening Closed Doors

The United States looked especially to Asia. American involvement in Asia actually began long before the Civil War. In 1844 the United States negotiated trade agreements with China and began to export cloth, iron, and fur to the Chinese in exchange for tea, silk, porcelain, and jade. Far Eastern trade became a boon to New England merchants and expanded naval production, especially after Commodore Matthew Perry “opened” Japan in 1854.

The Japanese had steadfastly refused contact with Western merchants and had closed their ports to European and American traders and missionaries for 250 years. Yet reports of Japan’s great coal deposits had filtered out. Coal was an increasingly important resource for American steam-powered transportation and machinery. When Perry was sent to negotiate trade, it was important to the United States to be the first of the Western nations to access this resource. As he sailed into Tokyo’s harbor under steam power, he so impressed the authorities that Japan began doing business with the United States.

By the 1880s the United States had made further inroads in the Far East by negotiating commercial treaties with Korea. The growth of these Asian markets stimulated the American economy and became a key factor in the United States’s bid for world power.

Acquiring New Lands

Under the leadership of Secretary of State William Seward, foreign policy after the Civil War became more aggressive. Seward dreamed of an American empire that would include Canada, the Caribbean, Mexico, and Central America as well as Hawaii and other Pacific islands.
In 1867 Seward attempted to purchase Danish islands in the Caribbean for $7.5 million—a move that the Senate rejected. Congress also refused to approve Seward's plans for a United States naval base in the Dominican Republic.

He succeeded elsewhere, however. In 1867 the United States seized the Midway Islands in the Pacific Ocean, strategically located along the trade route to China and Japan. In the same year, Seward bought Alaska from Russia for $7.2 million.

Newspapers mocked Seward, and Alaska became known as “Seward’s folly” and a worthless “polar bear garden.” Seward, however, was wiser than his critics realized. Alaska paid for itself many times over with the gold that was discovered in the Yukon Valley, and its rich copper and oil resources, as well as seal and whale trade.

**Moving into the Pacific**

Expansionist ambitions continued in the Pacific in the last three decades of the 1800s. In 1878 the United States seized the Midway Islands in the Pacific Ocean, strategically located along the trade route to China and Japan. In the same year, Seward bought Alaska from Russia for $7.2 million.

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### War With Spain

Reports Become Real

The Hawaiian Islands were another Pacific prize. American planters and missionaries had thrived there after 1875 when the Senate allowed Hawaiian sugar to enter the United States duty-free. By 1881 the secretary of state declared the islands “essentially a part of the American system.” In 1887, under strong pressure, King Kalakaua granted the United States rights to build a naval base at Pearl Harbor to protect American interests in the Pacific. Finally in 1893 American sugar planters in Hawaii staged a rebellion, determined to wrest control from Kalakaua’s sister, Queen Liliuokalani. The queen had resisted American control with the slogan “Hawaii for the Hawaiians.”

The United States Marines surrounded the palace, and the American minister cabled Washington: “The Hawaiian pear is now fully ripe, and this is the golden hour for the United States to pluck it.” The palace coup succeeded, leaving American sugar planters and missionaries in political control of the islands. Congress moved toward official annexation, but this process would take another five years to complete.

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as well as support for Cuban independence. He had no desire for war with Spain, however, and in 1897 the President took encouragement from a new Spanish government that promised reforms in Cuba as well as some independence for Cubans.

Headline Wars

Dramatic events early in 1898 ruined McKinley’s desire to avoid war. In February an explosion blew up the battleship Maine, killing 260 officers and men. Headlines screamed for revenge: “Remember the Maine! To Hell With Spain!” Two days later, a New York newspaper proclaimed: “Whole Country Thrills With the War Fever/Yet President Says ‘It Was An Accident.’” Most Americans believed the Spanish had blown up the Maine, and a naval board of investigation soon concluded that a Spanish mine had caused the explosions.

Against his conscience, President McKinley took action. On April 11, 1898, he sent a message to Congress that called for the use of troops to bring about “a national compromise between the contestants.” Congress responded with a more warlike declaration that gave the President authority to use troops to end Spanish control of Cuba and declared the island independent. These acts amounted to a declaration of war against Spain. Spain responded with its own declaration of war on April 24, 1898.

Critics believed that journalists, with their sensational headlines and stories, pressed politicians into declaring war following the explosion of the Maine. Their views were justified 78 years later when Admiral Hyman Rickover conducted a study of the sinking of the Maine. Rickover concluded that an accident, probably a faulty boiler, caused the explosion—not a mine.

From Havana to Manila

Although most American citizens focused on Cuba as the primary target for United States military might, others concentrated on the Philippines, a group of Pacific islands also under Spanish control. One reformer asked: “Why should Cuba with its 1.6 million people have a right to freedom and self-government and the 8 million people who dwell in the Philippine Islands be denied the same right?” Also, gaining a foothold in the Philippines would help the United States protect Asian business connections.

Shortly after the Maine explosion, Assistant Secretary of the Navy Teddy Roosevelt, anticipating war, instructed Commodore George Dewey to prepare to remove his squadron of six ships from the neutral port of Hong Kong and to attack the Spanish fleet in the Philippines.

Dewey confirmed this plan with President McKinley by cable and steamed across the China Sea to enemy waters more than 600 miles (965 km) away. The commodore sailed into Manila Bay on May 1, 1898, and demolished the old Spanish fleet protecting the city. Before noon every Spanish ship was sunk.

After Dewey’s triumph, soldiers training in Florida felt eager to launch their attack in Cuba. The battle began on June 22 with great fanfare.

Within days most of the troops were under fire, wading through waist-deep swamps and dodging shrapnel day and night. American troops finally took San Juan Hill, near the city of Santiago, on July 1, but a strong Spanish naval force remained in the harbor.

On July 3, however, the United States Navy chased Spanish cruisers and defeated their fleet in a dramatic battle that left only 1 American sailor killed and another wounded. By contrast almost 500 Spanish were killed or wounded and 1,700 taken prisoner.

By July 17 the United States had secured Cuba, and only Puerto Rico remained under Spanish control. It fell to the United States in a few days. The United States stepped up the pace of the war in order to bring home the thousands of soldiers who were suffering from yellow fever and malaria. Occupation had proved more deadly than battle. By the end of 1898, the death toll exceeded 5,400 soldiers, fewer than 400 of whom had died in combat.

United States Victorious

On August 12, with two fleets and their colonial armies devastated, Spain signed an armistice, or ceasefire. Diplomats met in Paris in October to negotiate a permanent settlement. It took two months to iron out their differences. Spain granted independence to Cuba and ceded Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines to the United States for $20 million.

Although the United States had claimed it was fighting to liberate the Philippines, the American gov-
The government refused to accept the pleas of Filipino nationalists for independence. The leader of the Filipino rebels against Spain, Emilio Aguinaldo, was deported from the islands when he refused to recognize American rule. President McKinley felt it would be “cowardly and dishonorable” to return the islands to the Spanish and argued that the Filipinos were “unfit for self-government.” To keep Europeans from taking over the Philippines, many Americans said that possession of the islands would uplift and Christianize the Filipinos, overlooking the fact that the majority of Filipinos were already Catholic. Actually business interests outweighed all other considerations, as an editor at the Chicago Times-Herald wrote: “The commercial and industrial interests of Americans, learning that the islands lie in the gateway of the vast and undeveloped markets of the Orient, say ‘Keep the Philippines. . . .’”

The war also gave the nation glory and many new heroes. Although Dewey’s command to his subordinate, “You may fire when ready,” was hardly stirring, the admiral became a cult figure. Eager for a hero, businesses capitalized on the naval commander’s exploits: a song celebrated his bravery and a chewing gum was marketed as “Dewey’s Chewies.”

Teddy Roosevelt reveled in his image as a Rough Rider charging up San Juan Hill. He effectively used his military adventures during his political career, first as governor of New York and then as President. Roosevelt, like many Americans, believed the Spanish-American War had given the United States a new status. In 1898 he wrote, “the nation now stands as the peer of any of the Great Powers of the world.”

By 1899 the United States had expanded its dominion to include Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and many Pacific islands, including the Philippines. The effects of global expansion would shape the course of United States’s history well into the future.

### Section Assessment

#### Main Idea
1. Use a diagram like this one to support the following generalization: “Expansionism formed a key theme in United States history during the 1800s.”

#### Vocabulary
2. Define: expansionism, missionary, armistice.

#### Checking Facts
3. How did the United States respond when Europeans tried to create new colonies in the Americas during the Civil War?
4. Why did Japan open its doors to United States trade?

#### Critical Thinking
5. Drawing Conclusions: How did the small nations of the Pacific play a big role in United States plans for expansion?
Reviewing Key Terms
Choose the vocabulary term that best answers the questions below. Write your answers on a separate sheet of paper.

- **homestead**
- **union**
- **industrialism**
- **injunction**
- **merger**
- **expansionism**

1. If a corporation hoped to prohibit or end a strike, what kind of order might it ask a court to issue?
2. A settler who wanted to claim free land and who was willing to farm it for a number of years might do what?
3. What kind of foreign policy was the United States following when it set out to acquire new lands such as Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska?
4. What kind of economic and social system is marked by the large-scale industries centered in urban factories?
5. If a company’s managers thought that market competition was too fierce in their industry, what solution might they choose?

Recalling Facts
1. How did cattle ranching and the work of cowhands promote the settlement of the Plains?
2. How did the early railroad lines influence where people settled on the Plains and in the Far West?
3. Which groups of people benefited from the settlement of the West? Which groups did not benefit? Why not?
4. Identify three important inventions from the era of 1865 to 1900. What effect did these and other inventions have on the productivity of workers?
5. John D. Rockefeller once said, “The day of individual competition is past and gone.” How did Rockefeller’s own business practices illustrate his statement?
6. Why was the term **robber barons** applied to people such as Andrew Carnegie and J.P. Morgan?
7. What were the main goals of the Populist party? Whose interests did the party represent?
8. How could labor unions have dramatically increased their size and power? What prevented them from doing so?
9. What was the Monroe Doctrine? Why was it important to the United States after the Civil War?
10. Why did the United States decide to keep control of the Philippines?

Critical Thinking
1. **Making Inferences** Wannemaker’s, Macy’s, and other department stores had marble staircases, expensive carpets, and chandeliers. Why do you think the owners spent so much money to decorate their stores? What values were they trying to appeal to in customers?
2. **Making Comparisons** Explain the difference between horizontal and vertical integration of industry. Why did Carnegie and other business leaders try to achieve both?
3. **Supporting Generalizations** Reread the material on the labor movements in Section 2. Then use a diagram like this one to record and support a generalization about efforts to organize laborers in the late 1800s.

Cooperative Learning
Form several groups to discuss the lives of Carnegie, Rockefeller, and other robber barons. Groups should consider the following questions: Do you admire that kind of success? What was its impact on ordinary citizens? How do the robber barons compare with today’s wealthy industrialists? Choose a representative to present your group’s conclusions to the rest of the class.

Reinforcing Skills
**Reading Statistical Tables** The **Statistical Abstract of the United States** publishes annual statistics from the Bureau of the Census and other governmental agencies. Look at the latest edition in the library for information on a topic discussed in this chapter—for example, labor union membership by state, mergers of corporations, or income levels of households. Pick one table and photocopy it. What information is given in the table’s title and subtitle? According to the headings, in what categories and subcategories is the information grouped? Look at the column on the left side of the table to find out how items in the table are organized. Describe any changes or patterns shown by the statistics in the table.
Study the map to answer the following questions:

1. What Native American lands lay along the two transcontinental railroads shown on the map?

2. What battle took place in South Dakota? What Native American nation was involved?

3. What Native American peoples inhabited the lands that are now Arizona and New Mexico?

4. Where did the Battle of the Little Bighorn—sometimes known as Custer’s Last Stand—take place? What Native American nation fought there?

Portfolio Project

The history of United States expansionism in the 1800s includes efforts to acquire or at least to influence Cuba, Hawaii, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. Choose one of these places and investigate the history of United States involvement there, carrying your research up to the present. Use your research notes to build a time line showing the major events in that involvement. Keep your time line in your portfolio.

Technology Activity

Using a Spreadsheet Use library resources or the Internet to locate information about federal policies that affected Native Americans from 1860 to 1910. Create a spreadsheet to organize your information. Include headings such as Name of Policy, Year, Native Americans Affected, and Summary of Events.

Standardized Test Practice

1. Which of the following was NOT a result of the westward expansion of the railroad?

A. improved living conditions for Native Americans
B. increased immigration from Ireland and China
C. settlement of lands along the railroad lines
D. increased movement of freight across the country

Test-Taking Tip: Pay attention to the words NOT or EXCEPT in a question. These words tell you to look for an answer that does NOT fit. For example, you may recall that railroad owners recruited Irish and Chinese immigrants as workers. You can use this information to eliminate answer B.

2. “I like a little competition every now and then, but I like combination a lot better.” When J.P. Morgan made this remark, he was talking about

A. labor unions.
B. business mergers.
C. transcontinental railroads.
D. Farmers’ Alliances.

Test-Taking Tip: Make sure your answer strongly matches the main idea in the quote and reflects the thinking of J.P. Morgan. Only one answer is the kind of “combination” that Morgan liked.
Then...

Levi’s Riveted Waist Overalls

One day businessman Levi Strauss received a letter from a customer, Jacob Davis, describing a new way to make pants. Davis, a tailor, could not afford to patent the process. Instead, he persuaded Strauss to become his partner. In 1873 the two men received a joint patent for riveted clothing.

1. The word *denim* comes from the French “de Nimes,” or “of Nimes,” but the denim used by Strauss came from New Hampshire.

2. The pants all had button closings. The zipper was invented in 1891, but the Levi Strauss company did not use zippers in jeans until 1954.

Fun Facts

SELLING STRENGTH

A leather patch was added to the design in 1886 depicting two workhorses attempting unsuccessfully to pull apart a pair of Levi pants. The company never tried the stunt, but rather used the patch as a symbol of strength.
In Buttenheim, Bavaria, Hirsch Strauss taught his peddler’s business to his youngest son, Levi. Upon Hirsch’s death in 1847, 18-year-old Levi immigrated to New York City. Hoping prospectors’ gold would end up in his cash register, Levi took his dry goods business to San Francisco, where he brought his four nephews on board as partners.

With the success of riveted clothing, Strauss became active in San Francisco’s business and cultural community, serving on boards of both utility companies and orphanages. He belonged to San Francisco’s first synagogue and helped to fund a gold medal for students of its Sabbath School.

Levi Strauss & Co. sold riveted clothing to stores. In 1879, the catalog advertised:

Riveted XXExtra Heavy blue denim pants........$17.50 /doz

Originally the most popular blue dyes for fabrics like denim came from the indigo plant, first grown in the United States on plantations in South Carolina. In the 1880s a chemical version, indigotin, became available.

Copper rivets reinforced pocket corners and the base of the fly. The fly rivet, however, fell by the wayside during World War II when the government ordered conservation of precious metals.

Consult the Readers’ Guide to Periodical Literature to obtain information about Levi’s clothing of today. Then draw or paste a picture of a pair of jeans in the center of a sheet of paper. Beside the left leg list the similarities between the Levi’s jeans of 1873 and today’s jeans. List differences beside the right leg. Include information on manufacturing, profitability, business, fashion, or culture.

WHAT’S IN A NAME?
The patented pants were called waist overalls in the Old West. The term jeans was not used until the 1900s, and the name “Levi’s” meaning riveted denim pants did not emerge in advertising until the 1960s.