Davidson DeLay Heyrman Lytle Stoff

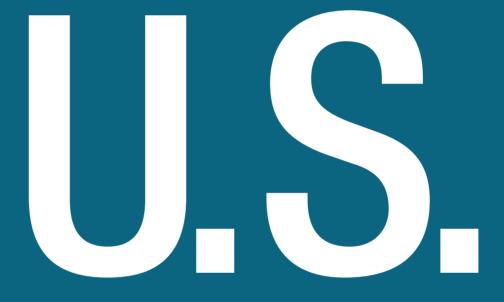
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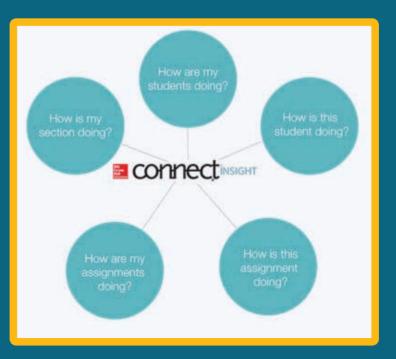
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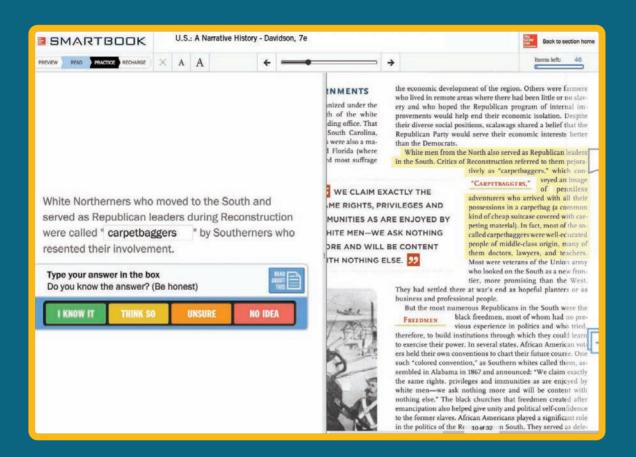
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- 1. Review the information on the following pages-the timeline, the maps, and the documents;
- 2. Identify important themes and evidence that my advisors have considered in offering their opinions;
- 3. Write your recommendation concerning whether or not I should use the atomic bomb on Japan, including themes and evidence to support your conclusion.

This is a decision that will shape the future for all humanity; consider it well!



1944

1942

- 1000 Allied soldiers killed

= 1000 Axis soldiers killed

1945

President Harry S Truman

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1943

As advisers to key historical figures, they read and analyze primary sources, interpret maps and timelines, and write recommendations.

As a follow-up activity in each Critical Mission, students learn to think like historians by conducting a retrospective analysis from a contemporary perspective.

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A NARRATIVE HISTORY VOLUME 1: TO 1877

Seventh Edition

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U.S.: A Narrative History, Seventh Edition

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This book is printed on acid-free paper.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 DOW/DOW 1 0 9 8 7 6 5 4

ISBN 978-0-07-778042-5 (complete); MHID 0-07-778042-6 (complete)

ISBN 978-0-07-351330-0 (volume 1); MHID 0-07-351330-X (volume 1)

ISBN 978-0-07-778036-4 (volume 2); MHID 0-07-778036-1 (volume 2)

Cover image credits: Miss Ting; Idaho farm; woman weaving; "Our City" lithograph of St. Louis, Janicke and Co. 1859; "Pocahantas Saving the Life of Capt. John Smith,"(detail); "Heart of the Klondike"(detail): The Library of Congress; Caesar Chavez (detail): © Arthur Schatz/Time & Life Pictures/Getty Images; Hopewell Hand: © Heritage Images/Corbis; Freedman's School: © Bettmann/Corbis; "Mandan Dog Sled," Karl Bodmer: © Free Library, Philadelphia/Bridgeman Images; "Tragic Prelude" (detail): © Kansas State Historical Society; "Mrs. Chandler" (detail): Courtesy, National Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C.; Uncle Sam with Banjo: HistoryPicks; View from Space: © NASA/ JSC; Buffalo Hunt: Courtesy, National Gallery of Art, Washington.

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WHAT'S NEW IN

SOME HIGHLIGHTS:

DUELING DOCUMENTS is a new feature box appearing in half the chapters. Each box showcases two primary sources with contrasting points of view for analysis and discussion. How did Spaniards and Aztecs remember First Contact? What was the testimony of accusers and defenders in the Salem Witch trials? Can African colonization work to end slavery? Why did the South secede? Introductions and Critical Thinking questions frame the documents.

- >> HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX, alternating with Dueling Documents, continues to showcase historical images and artifacts, asking students to focus on visual evidence and examine material culture. New items in this edition include an ancient Indian calendar from Chaco Canyon, a plantation owner's list of runaway slaves, a missionary society's lithograph, "The Printer's Angel" and an assortment of costumes worn by the Ku Klux Klan.
- SEOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS have been added to many map captions to reinforce geographic literacy and to connect the maps to the chapter's relevant themes.
- >> END-OF-CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHIES have been updated to reflect new scholarship.
- >> CHAPTER 1, FIRST CIVILIZATIONS OF NORTH AMERICA, has been revised to adopt the most recent dating of key trends, such as the rise of agriculture; and naming conventions, such as the Ancestral Pueblo (rather than the Anasazi).
- >>> CHAPTER 14, WESTERN EXPANSION AND THE RISE OF THE SLAVERY ISSUE, includes a new section drawing on recent research to explain the attempts, aided by state and federal officials, to exterminate California's Indian population.
- CHAPTER 16, TOTAL WAR AND THE REPUBLIC, features a new section on the consequences of death and suffering arising out of civil war. New material has been added on international diplomacy during the war; and the account of the pivotal battle of Gettysburg has been enlarged.



- 1 The First Civilizations of North America 1
- 2 Old Worlds, New Worlds 1400–1600 17
- **3** Colonization and Conflict in the South 1600–1750 *37*
- 4 Colonization and Conflict in the North 1600–1700 *59*
- 5 The Mosaic of Eighteenth-Century America 1689–1768 *79*
- 6 Imperial Triumph, Imperial Crisis 1754–1776 *99*
- 7 The American People and The American Revolution 1775–1783 *120*
- 8 Crisis and Constitution 1776–1789 139
- **9** The Early Republic 1789–1824 *158*
- **10** The Opening of America 1815–1850 *186*
- **11** The Rise of Democracy 1824–1840 *205*
- 12 Afire with Faith 1820–1850 224
- **13** The Old South 1820–1860 *243*
- 14 Western Expansion and the Rise of the Slavery Issue 1820–1850 *262*
- **15** The Union Broken 1850–1861 *285*
- **16** Total War and the Republic 1861–1865 *307*
- **17** Reconstructing the Union 1865–1877 *332*

Contents



1 THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS OF NORTH AMERICA

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: The Power of a Hidden Past 1

A Continent of Cultures 3

Cultures of Ancient Mexico 4 Farmers, Potters, and Builders of the Southwest 5 Chiefdoms of the Eastern Woodlands 5 HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX An Ancient Calendar 6 Life on the Great Plains 6 Survival in the Great Basin 7 The Plenty of the Pacific Northwest 8 The Frozen North 8 Innovations and Limitations 8 America's Agricultural Gifts 8 Landscapers 9

The Influence of Geography and Climate 10 Animals and Illness 10

Crisis and Transformation12Enduring Peoples12North America on the Eve of Contact13

CHAPTER SUMMARY 15 | Additional Reading 15 | Significant Events 16

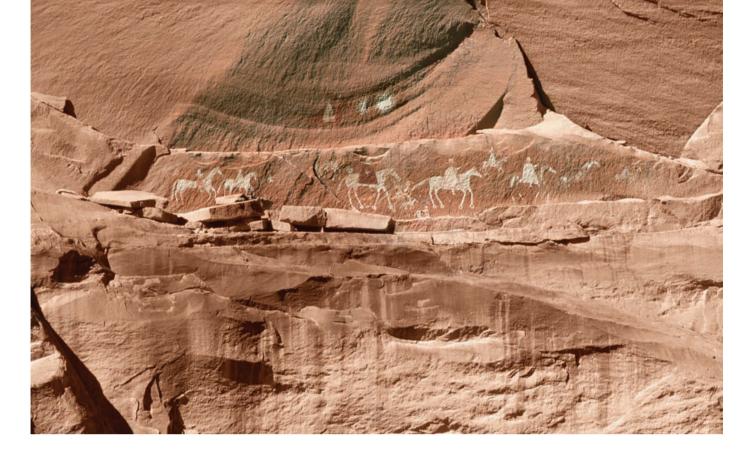
2 OLD WORLDS, NEW WORLDS 1400–1600

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: Fishing Nets and Far Horizons 17

Eurasia and Africa in the Fifteenth Century 19

Europe's Place in the World 19





Africa and the Portuguese Wave 20 Sugar and the Origins of the Atlantic Slave Trade 21

Spain in the Americas 22

The Spanish Beachhead in the Caribbean 22

Conquest of the Aztecs 24

The Columbian Exchange 24

DUELING DOCUMENTS How Did Spaniards and Aztecs Remember First Contact? **25**

The Crown Steps In 26

The Search for North America's Indian Empires 27

Religious Reform Divides Europe 29

The Teachings of Martin Luther 29 The Contribution of John Calvin 30 French Huguenots and the Birth of Spanish Florida 30 The English Reformation 31

England's Entry into America 31

The Ambitions of Gilbert, Raleigh, and Wingina **32** A Second Roanoke—and Croatoan **33**

CHAPTER SUMMARY 34 Additional Reading 35 Significant Events 36

3 COLONIZATION AND CONFLICT IN THE SOUTH 1600–1750

AN AMERICAN STORY: Outlandish Strangers 37

Spain's North American Colonies 39

The Founding of a "New" Mexico **40** The Growth of Spanish Florida **40** Popé and the Pueblo Revolt **41**

English Society on the Chesapeake 42

The Virginia Company Reform and a Boom in Tobacco War with the Confederacy The Founding of Maryland and the Renewal of Indian Wars Changes in English Policy in the Chesapeake

Chesapeake Society in Crisis 46

Bacon's Rebellion and Coode's Rebellion **46** From Servitude to Slavery **47** Africa and the Atlantic Slave Trade **47** HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX Hip Mask from Benin 50 A Changing Chesapeake Society 51

From the Caribbean to the Carolinas 52

Paradise Lost 52 The Founding of the Carolinas 53 Carolina, Florida, and the Southeastern Slave Wars 55 White, Red, and Black: The Search for Order 55 The Founding of Georgia 56

CHAPTER SUMMARY 57 Additional Reading 58 Significant Events 58

4 COLONIZATION AND CONFLICT IN THE NORTH 1600–1700

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: Bears on Floating Islands 59

> France in North America 61 The Origins of New France 61 New Netherlands, the Iroquois, and the Beaver Wars 62 The Lure of the Mississippi 63

The Founding of New England 63

The Puritan Movement 63 The Pilgrim Settlement at Plymouth Colony 64 The Puritan Settlement at Massachusetts Bay 66

Stability and Order in Early New England 67

Communities in Conflict 69 Goodwives and Witches 69 **DUELING DOCUMENTS** Accusations and Defenses in the Salem Witchcraft Trials 70 The People in the Way 70 Metacom's War 72

The Mid-Atlantic Colonies 72 English Rule in New York 73 The Founding of New Jersey 73 Quaker Odysseys 73 Patterns of Growth 74 Quakers and Politics 74

Adjustment to Empire 75 The Dominion of New England 75 Royal Authority in America in 1700 76

CHAPTER SUMMARY 77 Additional Reading 78 Significant Events 78



5 THE MOSAIC OF EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY AMERICA 1689–1768

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: The Tale of a Tattooed Traveler 79

Crisis and Transformation in Northern New Spain 81

Defensive Expansion into Texas 81

Crisis and Rebirth in New Mexico 82

Spanish California 83

Women and the Law in New Spain and British North America $\ \ \mathbf{84}$

Eighteenth-Century New France 85

Colonial Compromises 85

France on the Gulf Coast 86

Slavery and Colonial Society in French Louisiana 86 Imperial Rivalries 87

Forces of Division in British North America 87

Immigration and Natural Increase Moving into the Backcountry Social Conflict and the Frontier Eighteenth-Century Seaports **HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX** *The Hadley Chest*

Slave Societies in the Eighteenth-Century South 91

The Slave Family and Community **91** Slave Resistance in Eighteenth-Century British North America **92**



Enlightenment and Awakening in America 93

The Enlightenment in America **93** The First Great Awakening **93** The Aftermath of the Great Awakening **94**

Anglo-American Worlds of the Eighteenth Century 94

English Economic and Social Development Inequality in England and America Politics in England and America The Imperial System before 1760

CHAPTER SUMMARY 98 | Additional Reading 98 | Significant Events 98

6 IMPERIAL TRIUMPH, IMPERIAL CRISIS 1754–1776

AN AMERICAN STORY: George Washington and the Half-King 99

The Seven Years' War101Years of Defeat101A Shift in Policy102Years of Victory104Postwar Expectations104

The Imperial Crisis 104

Pontiac's Rebellion 105 George Grenville's New Measures 106

The Beginning of Colonial Resistance **107**

Riots and Resolves 108 Repeal of the Stamp Act 109

The Townshend Acts **109**

The Resistance Organizes 110

The International Sons of Liberty 111

The Boston Massacre 111

DUELING DOCUMENTS Who Was to Blame for the Boston Massacre? 112

Resistance Revived 113 The Empire Strikes Back 114





Toward the Revolution 114

The First Continental Congress 115 The Last Days of the British Empire in America 115 The Fighting Begins 116 Common Sense 116

CHAPTER SUMMARY 118 | ADDITIONAL READING 118 | SIGNIFICANT EVENTS 119

7 THE AMERICAN PEOPLE AND THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION 1775–1783

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: "Will He Fight?" 120

The Decision for Independence 122

The Second Continental Congress 122 The Declaration 122 American Loyalists 123

The Fighting in the North 125

The Two Armies at Bay 125 Laying Strategies 127 The Campaigns in New York and New Jersey 127 Capturing Philadelphia 128 Disaster for the British at Saratoga 128

The Turning Point128The American Revolution as a Global War128



Winding Down the War in the North **129** War in the West **129** The Home Front in the North **130**

The Struggle in the South 130

The Siege of Charleston 131 The Partisan Struggle in the South 131 Greene Takes Command 132 African Americans in the Age of Revolution 133 HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX *Runaways* 134

The World Turned Upside Down 135

Surrender at Yorktown 135

CHAPTER SUMMARY 137 | Additional Reading 137 | Significant Events 138

8 CRISIS AND CONSTITUTION 1776–1789

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: "These United States" 139

Republican Experiments 140

The State Constitutions 141 From Congress to Confederation 141

The Temptations of Peace 142

The Temptations of the West 142 Foreign Intrigues 142 Disputes among the States 143 The More Democratic West 144 The Northwest Territory 144 Slavery and Sectionalism 145 Wartime Economic Disruption 146

Republican Society 147

The New Men of the Revolution 147 The New Women of the Revolution 148 Mary Wollstonecraft's Vindication 148 HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX A Woman's Compass 149 Seduction Literature and the Virtues of Women 150 Republican Motherhood and Education for Women 150 The Attack on Aristocracy 150

From Confederation to Constitution 151

The Jay-Gardoqui Treaty Shays's Rebellion Framing a Federal Constitution The Virginia and New Jersey Plans The Deadlock Broken Ratification

CHAPTER SUMMARY 156 | Additional Reading 157 | Significant Events 157

9 THE EARLY REPUBLIC 1789–1824

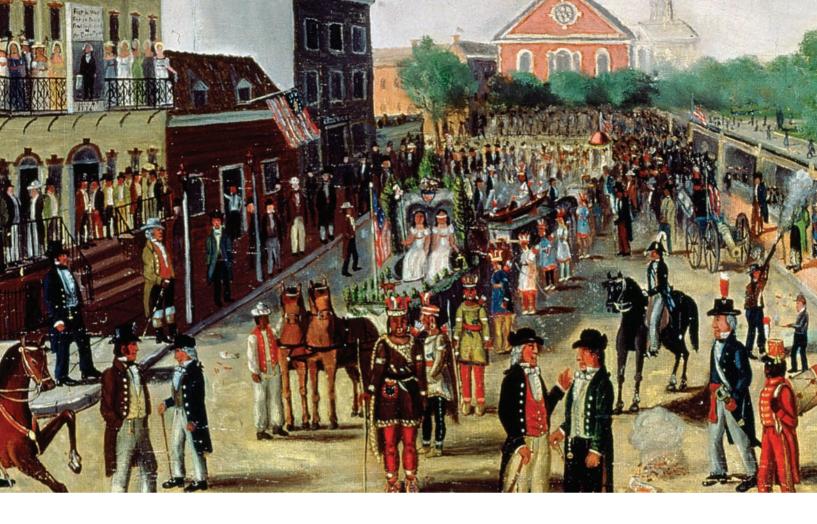
AN AMERICAN STORY: "I Felt Myself Mad with Passion" 158

> **1789: A Social Portrait 160** Semisubsistence and Commercial Economies **161** The Constitution and Commerce **162**

The New Government 163

Washington Organizes the Government 163
Hamilton's Financial Program 163
The Emergence of Political Parties 165
Americans and the French Revolution 165
Washington's Neutral Course 166
The Federalists and the Republicans Organize 166
The 1796 Election 166
Federalist and Republican Ideologies 167

The Presidency of John Adams167The Naval War with France168Suppression at Home168Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions168



The Election of 1800 168 John Marshall and Judicial Review 169

The Political Culture of the Early Republic 170Popular Participation in Political Festivals 170DUELING DOCUMENTS Can This Marriage Be Saved? 171African American Celebrations 172Women's Civic Participation 172

Jefferson in Power 172

The New Capital City **172** Jefferson's Philosophy **173** Jefferson's Economic Policies **173**

Whites and Indians in the West 174

The Miami Confederacy Resists Doubling the Size of the Nation Pressure on Indian Lands and Culture White Frontier Society The Beginnings of the Second Great Awakening The Prophet, Tecumseh, and the Pan-Indian Movement **177**

The Second War for American Independence178The Embargo179Madison and the Young Republicans180The Decision for War180The British Invasion182America Turns Inward182Monroe's Presidency182

CHAPTER SUMMARY 184 | Additional Reading 185 | Significant Events 185

10 THE OPENING OF AMERICA 1815–1850

AN AMERICAN STORY: From Boom to Bust with One-Day Clocks 186

The National Market Economy 188

The New Nationalism 188 The Cotton Trade 188 The Transportation Revolution 189 Revolution in Communications 190 The Postal System 190



Agriculture in the Market Economy **190** John Marshall and the Promotion of Enterprise **190**

A Restless Temper 192

Population Growth 192 The Restless Movement West 192 Urbanization 193

The Rise of Factories 193

Technological Advances 194 Textile Factories 194 Lowell and the Environment 195 Industrial Work 196 The Labor Movement 197 Sam Patch and a Worker's "Art" 197

Social Structures of the Market Society 198

Economic Specialization 198

Materialism 198

Wealth and the Emerging Middle Class **DUELING DOCUMENTS** The Market and Equality: She Said, He Said Social Mobility A New Sensitivity to Time **Prosperity and Anxiety 201**

The Panic of 1819 202

CHAPTER SUMMARY 203 Additional Reading 203 Significant Events 204

11 THE RISE OF DEMOCRACY 1824–1840

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: "Wanted: Curling Tongs, Cologne, and Silk-Stockings . . ." 205

Equality, Opportunity, and the New Political Culture of Democracy 207

The Election of 1824 **208** Social Sources of the New Politics **208**

Jackson's Rise to Power 210

President of the People **211** The Political Agenda in the Market Economy **211**

Democracy and Race 211

Accommodate or Resist? 212 Trail of Tears 212 Free Blacks in the North 214

The African American Community **DUELING DOCUMENTS** African Colonization: Hoping for the Best and Suspecting the Worst Racism Strikes a Deeper Root

The Nullification Crisis216The Growing Crisis in South Carolina216The Nullifiers Nullified217

The Bank War 218

The National Bank and the Panic of 1819 The Bank Destroyed Jackson's Impact on the Presidency "Van Ruin's" Depression The Whigs Triumph

 The Jacksonian Party System 221

 Democrats, Whigs, and the Market 221

 The Social Bases of the Two Parties 221

 CHAPTER SUMMARY 222

 AbdItIonal Reading 223

 Significant Events 223

12 AFIRE WITH FAITH

12 AFIRE WITH FAITH 1820–1850

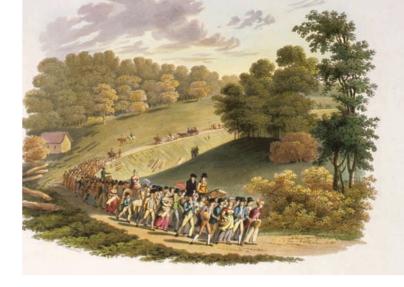
AN AMERICAN STORY: The Beechers and the Kingdom of God 224

The Transformation of American Evangelicalism 226

Charles Grandison Finney and Modern Revivalism **226**

The Appeal of Evangelicalism 226

Women, Marriage, and Conversion 227



The Significance of the Second Great Awakening 228

Revivalism and the Social Order228HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOXThe Printer's Angel229The Temperance Movement229Ideals of Women and the Family230Expanding Public Roles for Women231Protestants and Catholics232

Visionaries 233

The Unitarian Contribution 233 From Unitarianism to Transcendentalism 233 Utopian Communities 234 The Mormon Experience 235

Radical Reform236The Beginnings of the Abolitionist Movement236The Spread of Abolitionism237Opponents and Divisions237The Women's Rights Movement238The Schism of 1840239

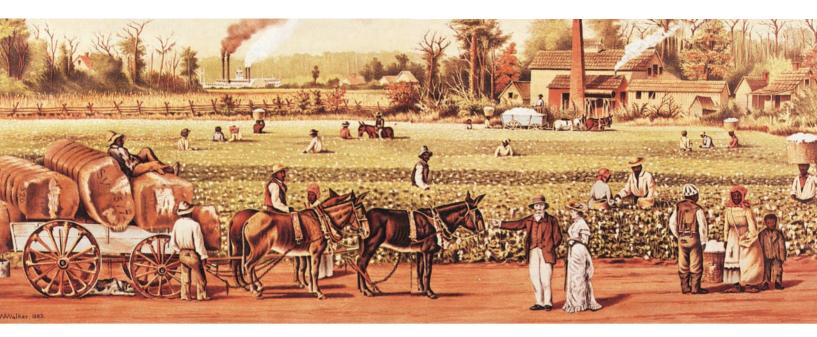
Reform Shakes the Party System239The Turn toward Politics239Abolitionism and the Party System240

CHAPTER SUMMARY 241 | ADDITIONAL READING 241 | SIGNIFICANT EVENTS 242

13 THE OLD SOUTH 1820–1860

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: Where Is the Real South? 243

The Social Structure of the Cotton Kingdom245The Cotton Environment245



The Boom Country Economy 246 The Rural South 247 Distribution of Slavery 247 Slavery as a Labor System 248

Class Structure of the White South 248

The Slaveowners 249 Tidewater and Frontier 249 The Master at Home 250 The Plantation Mistress 250 Yeoman Farmers 251 Poor Whites 252

The Peculiar Institution 252

Work and Discipline 253 Slave Maintenance 253 Resistance 253

Slave Culture 255

The Slave Family 255

Songs and Stories of Protest and Celebration **256**

The Lord Calls Us Home 256

The Slave Community 257

Free Black Southerners 257

Southern Society and the Defense of Slavery 258

The Virginia Debate of 1832 258

The Proslavery Argument Closing Ranks **HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX** *George Washington, Slaveholder*

CHAPTER SUMMARY 260 Additional Reading 261 Significant Events 261

14 WESTERN EXPANSION AND THE RISE OF THE SLAVERY ISSUE 1820–1850

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: Strangers on the Great Plains 262

Manifest (and Not So Manifest) Destiny 265

The Roots of the Doctrine265The Mexican Borderlands266The Texas Rebellion267The Texas Republic268

The Trek West 268

The Overland Trail **269** Women on the Overland Trail **269** Indians and the Trail Experience **270**

The Political Origins of Expansion270Tyler's Texas Ploy270To the Pacific271



Provoking a War 271 DUELING DOCUMENTS In What Country Did the U.S.-Mexican War Begin? 272 Indians and Mexicans 273 Opposition to the War 274 Victory and Its Price 274 The Rise of the Slavery Issue 275 New Societies in the West 276

Farming in the West 276 The Gold Rush 276 Instant City: San Francisco 277 The Migration from China 278 California Genocide 278 The Mormons in Utah 279 Mexican American Rights and Property 280

Escape from Crisis 280

A Two-Faced Campaign 282 The Compromise of 1850 282 Away from the Brink 283

CHAPTER SUMMARY 283 | Additional Reading 284 | Significant Events 284

15 THE UNION BROKEN 1850–1861

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: The Sacking of a Kansas Town 285

Sectional Changes in American Society287The Growth of a Railroad Economy287

Railroads and the Prairie Environment 289
Railroads and the Urban Environment 289
Rising Industrialization 290
Immigration 290
Southern Complaints 291

The Political Realignment of the 1850s 292

The Kansas-Nebraska Act 292

The Collapse of the Second American Party System **293**

The Know-Nothings 294

The Republicans and Bleeding Kansas 295

The Caning of Charles Sumner 295

The Election of 1856 **295**

The Worsening Crisis 296

The *Dred Scott* Decision The Lecompton Constitution The Lincoln-Douglas Debates The Beleaguered South

The Road to War299A Sectional Election299Secession300The Outbreak of War301DUELING DOCUMENTSSlavery and Secession302The Roots of a Divided Nation303

CHAPTER SUMMARY 304 | Additional Reading 305 | Significant Events 306

16 TOTAL WAR AND THE REPUBLIC 1861–1865

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: A Rout at Bull Run 307

> The Demands of Total War 309 Political Leadership 309 The Border States 311

Opening Moves 311 Blockade and Isolate 311



Grant in the West **312** Eastern Stalemate **314**

Emancipation 315

Moving toward Freedom The Emancipation Proclamation African Americans' Civil War Black Soldiers

The Confederate Home Front 317

The New Economy New Opportunities for Southern Women **HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX** *Face Value?* Confederate Finance and Government

The Union Home Front 319

Government Finances and the Economy A Rich Man's War Women and the Workforce Civil Liberties and Dissent

Gone to Be a Soldier 321 Camp Life 321

Carnage at the Front 322 The Business of Grief 323

The Union's Triumph 324

The Battle of Gettysburg 324 Lincoln Finds His General 326 War in the Balance 327 The Twilight of the Confederacy 328

CHAPTER SUMMARY 330 Additional Reading 331 Significant Events 331



17 RECONSTRUCTING THE UNION 1865–1877

>> AN AMERICAN STORY: A Secret Sale at Davis Bend 332

Presidential Reconstruction334Lincoln's 10 Percent Plan334Reconstruction under Andrew Johnson334The Failure of Johnson's Program335Johnson's Break with Congress336The Fourteenth Amendment336The Election of 1866337

Congressional Reconstruction 337

Post-Emancipation Societies in the Americas 338 The Land Issue 338 Impeachment 338

Reconstruction in the South339Black and White Republicans339Reforms under the New State Governments339Economic Issues and Corruption340

Black Aspirations 340

Experiencing Freedom The Black Family The Schoolhouse and the Church New Working Conditions Planters and a New Way of Life

The Abandonment of Reconstruction 343

The Grant Administration Growing Northern Disillusionment The Triumph of White Supremacy The Disputed Election of 1876 **HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX** *Dressed to Kill* Racism and the Failure of Reconstruction CHAPTER SUMMARY **349** | ADDITIONAL READING **349** | SIGNIFICANT EVENTS

Primary sources help students think critically about history.

DUELING DOCUMENTS

Two primary source documents offer contrasting perspectives on key events for analysis and discussion. Introductions and Critical Thinking questions frame the documents.



WHO WAS TO BLAME FOR THE BOSTON MASSACRE?

Following the shootings in King Stores Captain Thomas Prestion and six of his men stood rish for morder. We radical patriot lawyers, Josiah Quincy Jr, and future president John Adams, served as defense courcil. Con-vinced that Bostom must prove itself in and faithful to the vale of law, both Howyers performed brillinally. The jury acquitted Preston and four of the soblers, and convicted two others of manilaughter. The depositions fit the trial provide some of our best versidence for how soldiers and Bostonian viewed the standfold differently.

DOCUMENT 1 Deposition of Captain Thomas Preston, March 1770

Deposition of Captain Thomas Preston, March 1770
The mob still increased and were more
outrageous, striking their clubs or blad
genos one against another, and calling
uses, Ged damn you, frea and keaming
the word free under those circumstances
and must fill a sarchife if their (White
that the soldiers one were upon the half cock
and charged bayonets, and they fried,
that the soldiers one me to be no direct. White
word free under those circumstances
to beyone in to be not direct. White
word free under those circumstances
tick, stepped a little on one side and
instantly efficient. White
was there solders and the mob,
preving with, and endeavouring all
itsk, stepped a little on one side and
instantly efficience. The word free diverboy dira's was transacted in
any by, but to no proyens. They advances
of the man deven the muzzles of
it, which how had it been placed on m
the pieces, and seemed to be endeavouring to closs with the soldiers. On who clied out free
med. On this agerenal takkes was made the points of the bayonets, struck ome of them and even the muzzles of ne pieces, and seemed to be endeavour-ig to close with the soldiers. On which one well-behaved persons asked me if e guns were charged. I repide yes. They are asked me if I intended to order the en to fire. I answered no, by no means, bserving to them that I was advanced

head, most probably would have destroyed me. On this ageneral attack was made on the men by a great number of heavy clubs and snowballs being thrown at them, by which all our lives were in immi-nent danger, some persons at the same time from behind calling out, damn your

diers why they fired without orders, they said they heard the word fire and sup-posed it came from me. This might be th case as many of the moto called out fire, fire, but I assured the men that I gave no such order; that my words were, don't fire stop your firing. In short, it was scarcely possible for the soldiers to know who said fire, or don't fire, or stop your firing.

DOCUMENT 2 Deposition of Robert Goddard, March 1770

Deposition of Robert Goddard, March 1770
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Preston and Goddard come to different conclusions about the shootings but describe similar details (the anovkalls, the man who struck Preston). Can details from these two accounts be account of the struck presence of the entry of the struck presence of the entry presence of the depositions must be misleading? Given the tensions these accounts relate, do you think that a violent confrontation between sol-diers and Bostonians was investable?

WITNESS

Vivid quotes from diaries, letters, and other texts provide a sense of how individuals experienced historical events.

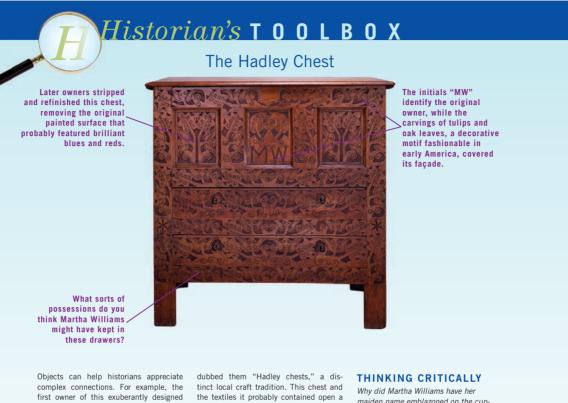


"Oh God, the time of trial has come! . . . To my smoke-house, my dairy, pantry, kitchen, and cellar, like famished wolves they come, breaking locks and whatever is in their way . . . they tore down my garden palings, made a road through my back yard and lot field, driving their stock and riding through, tearing down my fences and desolating my home—wantonly doing it when there was no necessity

– Dolly Lunt, A Woman's Wartime Journal (September 19, 1864

HISTORIAN'S TOOLBOX

These feature boxes, which alternate with Dueling Documents, showcase historical images and artifacts, asking students to focus on visual evidence and examine material culture. Introductions and Critical Thinking questions frame the images.



Objects can help historians appreciate complex connections. For example, the first owner of this exuberantly designed cupboard of white oak and pine, Martha Williams, lived in western Massachusetts during the decades around 1700, a time of chronic warfare between the English and their French and Indian allies. Most likely she received the chest as part of her dowry when she married Edward Partridge in 1707, its very solidity assuring this young couple of stability and continuity in a violent and insecure world. Items of similar design have turned up elsewhere in New England, and their first collector

dubbed them "Hadley chests," a distinct local craft tradition. This chest and the textiles it probably contained open a window into the sorts of property Anglo-American women retained in marriage and passed down to their descendants. According to historian Laurel Thatcher Ulrich, an artifact such as the Hadley chest "teaches us that material objects were not only markers of wealth but devices for building relationships and lineages over time, and it helps us to understand the cultural framework within which ordinary women became creators as well as custodians of household goods."

Why did Martha Williams have her maiden name emblazoned on the cupboard? Might it have something to do with the restrictive English laws about what women could own in marriage? Do you think women in New Spain or New France would have done the same? What might objects such as these tell us about how women viewed property and identity in British North America?

Source: © Shelburne Museum, Shelburne, Vermont

OPINION

Ideal for class discussion or writing, these questions ask students to offer opinions on debated issues.



List of MAPS

- 1.1 Early Peoples of North America
- **1.2** Indigenous North America, ca. 1500
- 2.1 Principal Routes of European Exploration
- 2.2 Spanish America, ca. 1600
- **3.1** Spanish Missions in North America, ca. 1675
- 3.2 Colonies of the Chesapeake
- **3.3** Slave Trade along the African Coast
- **3.4** Transatlantic Slave Trade, 1450–1760
- **3.5** The Carolinas and the Caribbean
- 4.1 Early New England
- 4.2 Sudbury, Massachusetts
- **5.1** European Territorial Claims in the Eighteenth Century
- **5.2** Non-English Settlements in Eighteenth-Century British North America
- 5.3 Overseas Trade Networks
- 6.1 The Seven Years' War
- 6.2 European Claims in North America, 1750 and 1763
- 6.3 The Appalachian Frontier, 1750–1775
- 7.1 Patterns of Allegiance
- **7.2** The Fighting in the North, 1775–1777
- **7.3** The Smallpox Pandemic, 1775–1782
- **7.4** The Fighting in the South, 1780–1782
- 8.1 Western Land Claims, 1782–1802
- 8.2 The Ordinance of 1785



- **8.3** Ratification of the Constitution
- **9.1** Semisubsistence and Commercial America, 1790
- 9.2 Election of 1800
- **9.3** Exploration and Expansion: The Louisiana Purchase
- 9.4 The Indian Response to White Encroachment
- **9.5** The United States and the Barbary States, 1801–1815
- 9.6 The War of 1812
- **9.7** The Missouri Compromise and the Union's Boundaries in 1820
- **10.1** The Transportation Network of a Market Economy, 1840
- 10.2 Travel Times, 1800 and 1830
- 10.3 Development of the Lowell Mills
- 11.1 Election of 1824
- 11.2 Indian Removal
- **11.3** The Spread of White Manhood Suffrage
- 11.4 Election of 1840
- **13.1** Cotton and Other Crops of the South
- **13.2** The Spread of Slavery, 1820–1860
- **13.3** A Plantation Layout, Hopeton, Georgia
- 14.1 Sioux Expansion and the Horse and Gun Frontier
- 14.2 Mexican Borderlands

- 14.3 The Overland Trail
- 14.4 Election of 1844
- 14.5 The U.S.–Mexican War
- **14.6** Territorial Growth and the Compromise of 1850
- 15.1 Growth of the Railroad Network, 1850–1860
- 15.2 The Kansas-Nebraska Act
- **15.3** Election of 1860
- 15.4 The Pattern of Secession
- **16.1** The War in the West, 1861–1862
- **16.2** The Changing Magnitude of Battle
- 16.3 The War in the East, 1861–1862
- 16.4 The War in the East, 1863–1865
- 16.5 The War in the West, 1863–1865
- 17.1 The Southern States during Reconstruction
- **17.2** A Georgia Plantation after the War
- 17.3 Election of 1876

A map of the United States appears on the inside front cover, while a World map appears on the inside back cover.

List of PRIMARY SOURCE DOCUMENTS

The following primary source documents, carefully selected by the authors to coordinate with this program, are available in Connect History at http://connect.mheducation.com. Documents include an explanatory headnote and are followed by discussion questions.

Choose from many of these documents—or hundreds of others—to customize your print text by visiting McGraw-Hill's Create at www.mcgrawhillcreate.com.

Chapter 1

- Thoughts on Creation, from Native Peoples of New Netherlands
- 2. A Traveler from Virginia Viewing Indian Ruins in the Ohio Valley

Chapter 2

- 3. Christopher Columbus's Letter to Ferdinand and Isabella following his first journey, April 1493
- A Spanish Conquistador Visits the Aztec Marketplace in Tenochtitlán

Chapter 3

- 5. A Virginia Settler Describes the Indian War of 1622 in England
- 6. An act for the apprehension and suppression of runaways, negroes and slaves, Virginia, September 1672

Chapter 4

- Mary Rowlandson's Narrative of Being Taken Captive by the Indians
- 8. A Puritan Wrestles with Her Faith

Chapter 5

- George Whitefield Sermonizes on "The Eternity of Hell-Torments"
- **10.** Franklin Attends Whitefield's Sermon

Chapter 6

- 11. Thomas Hutchinson Recounts the Destruction of His Home during the Stamp Act Riots
- 12. Thomas Paine Attacks Monarchy

Chapter 7

- **13.** Abigail Adams Reports on the Fighting around Boston
- A North Carolina Soldier Witnesses the Partisan War in the Southern Backcountry

Chapter 8

- **15.** The Confederation Congress Passes the Northwest Ordinance
- "An Aged Matron of Connecticut" Urges Women's Education

Chapter 9

- 17. George Washington Takes his Farewell
- **18.** Tecumseh Responds to William Henry Harrison

Chapter 10

- 19. Moving On (Basil Hall)
- 20. Lowell's Female Factory Workers Voicing their Protests

Chapter 11

21. Margaret Bayard Smith on Andrew Jackson's Inauguration in 1828 22. Chief Justice Marshall Delivers the Supreme Court's Opinion in *The Cherokee Nation v. Georgia*

Chapter 12

- 23. Lyman Beecher Warns Against Roman Catholicism
- 24. Women Issue a "Declaration of Sentiments" from Seneca Falls

Chapter 13

- 25. A Southern Master Describes Disciplining His Slaves and Their Resistance
- 26. Nat Turner Explains His Motives

Chapter 14

- 27. The United States Promises to Save Mexico from Indian Raiders
- **28.** Disappointment in the Gold Diggings

Chapter 15

- 29. The Know-Nothing Case for Repeal of Naturalization Laws
- **30.** Charles Eliot Norton: I Have Seen Nothing Like the Intensity of Feeling

Chapter 16

- **31.** A Union Doctor's Diary, Jan-May, 1863
- **32.** A Georgia Plantation Mistress in Sherman's Path

Chapter 17

- **33.** An Anguished Ex-Slave Writes the Wife He'd Thought Long Dead
- 34. The Mississippi Plan in Action

We would like to express our deep appreciation to the following individuals who contributed to the development of our U.S. history programs:

Reviewers of U.S.: A Narrative History

Mary Adams, City College of San Francisco

Chris Bell, Edmonds Community College

James Blain, McNeese State University

Roger Bowerman, Glendale Community College

Jeffrey Brown, New Mexico State University

Ann Chirhart, Indiana State University

Bradley Clampitt, East Central University

Patty Colman, Moorpark College

Michael Colomaio, Alfred State University

Clarissa Confer, California University of Pennsylvania

Cara Converse, Moorpark College

William Cooley, Walsh University

Aaron Cowen, Slippery Rock University

David Cullen, Collins College, Plano

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Brandon Franke, Blinn College

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George Gastil, Grossmont College Frank Gilbert, Southeastern Oklahoma State University

Jim Good, Lone Star College, North Harris

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Jennifer Helgren, University of the Pacific

Jay Hester, Sierra College

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The First Civilizations of North America

From the air, this serpentine mound fashioned thousands of years ago still stands out in bold relief. Located in southern Ohio, it extends from the snake's coiled tail at the left of the photo to the open mouth at the top right. The snake's tail points toward the winter solstice sunrise, while the mouth is oriented to the summer solstice sunrise.

>> An American Story THE POWER OF A HIDDEN PAST

tories told about the past have power over both the present and the future. Until recently most students were taught that American history began several centuries ago—with the "discovery" of America by Columbus, or with the English colonization of Jamestown and Plymouth. History books ignored or trivialized the continent's precontact history. But the reminders of that hidden past are everywhere. Scattered across the United States are thousands of ancient archaeological



A This image of a human hand, discovered in a Hopewell mound, was cut from a single sheet of mica.

sites and hundreds of examples of monumental architecture, still imposing even after centuries of erosion, looting, and destruction.

Man-made earthen mounds, some nearly 5,000 years old, exist throughout eastern North America in a bewildering variety of shapes and sizes. Many are easily mistaken for modest hills, but others evoke wonder. In present-day Louisiana an ancient town with earthworks took laborers an estimated 5 million work hours to construct. In Ohio a massive serpent effigy snakes for a quarter mile across the countryside, its head aligned to the summer solstice. In Illinois a vast, earthen construct covers 16 acres at its base and once reached as high as a 10-story building.

Observers in the colonial and revolutionary eras looked on such sites as curiosities and marvels. George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and other prominent Americans collected ancient artifacts, took a keen interest in the excavation of mounds, and speculated about the Indian civilizations that created them. Travelers explored these strange mounds, trying to imagine in their mind's eye the peoples who had built them. In 1795 the Reverend James Smith traced the boundaries of a mound wall that was strategically placed to protect a neck of land along a looping river bend in the Ohio valley. "The wall at present is so mouldered down that a man could easily ride over it. It is however about 10 feet, as near as I can judge, in perpendicular height. . . . In one place I observe a breach in the wall about 60 feet wide, where I suppose the gate formerly stood through which the people passed in and out of this stronghold." Smith was astonished by the size of the project. "Compared with this," he exclaimed, "what feeble and insignificant works are those of Fort Hamilton or Fort Washington! They are no more in comparison to it than a rail fence is to a brick wall."

But in the 1830s and 1840s, as Americans sought to drive Indians west of the Mississippi and then confine them on smaller and smaller reservations, many began thinking differently about the continent's ancient sites. Surely the simple and "savage" people just then being expelled from American life could not have constructed such inspiring monuments. Politicians. writers. and even some influential scientists dismissed the claim that North America's ancient architecture had been built by the ancestors of contemporary Indians and instead

attributed the mounds to peoples of Europe, Africa, or Asia—Hindus, perhaps, or Israelites, Egyptians, or Japanese. Many nineteenth-century Americans found special comfort in a tale about King Madoc from Wales, who supposedly shipwrecked in the Americas in the twelfth century and had left behind a small but ingenious population of Welsh pioneers who built the mysterious mounds before being overrun by Indians. The Welsh hypothesis seemed to offer poetic justice, because it implied that nineteenthcentury Indians were only receiving a fitting punishment for what their ancestors had done to the remarkable mound builders from Wales.

These fanciful tales were discredited in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In recent decades archaeologists working across the Americas have discovered in more detail how native peoples built the Western Hemisphere's ancient architecture. They have also helped to make clear the degree to which prejudice and politics have blinded European Americans to the complexity, wonder, and significance of America's history before 1492. Fifteen thousand years of human habitation in North America allowed a broad range of cultures to develop, based on agriculture as well as hunting and gathering. In North America a population in the millions spoke hundreds of languages. Cities evolved as well as towns and farms. exhibiting great diversity in their cultural, political, economic, and religious organization. <<

What's to Come

- 3 A Continent of Cultures
- 8 Innovations and Limitations
- 12 Crisis and Transformation

A CONTINENT OF CULTURES

Recent breakthroughs in archaeology and genetics have demonstrated that the first inhabitants of the Americas arrived from Siberia at least 15,500 years ago BP.* Gradually these __

nomads filtered south– ward, some likely following the Pacific coastline in small boats, others making their way down a narrow, glacier–free corridor along

pinion

nomad a member of a group of people who have no fixed home and who move about, usually seasonally, in pursuit of food, water, and other resources.

the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains and onto the northern Great Plains. There they found and hunted a stunning array of huge mammals, so-called megafauna. These animals included mammoths that were twice as heavy as elephants, giant bison, sloths that were taller than giraffes, several kinds of camels, and terrifying, 8-foot-long lions. Within a few thousand years the descendants of these Siberians, people whom Columbus would wishfully dub "Indians," had spread throughout the length and breadth of the Americas.

This first colonization of the Americas coincided with, and perhaps accelerated, profound changes in the natural world. The last Ice Age literally melted away as warmer global temperatures freed the great reservoirs of water once locked in glaciers. A rise in sea levels inundated the Bering Strait, submerging

the land bridge and creating new lakes and river systems. The emergence of new **ecosystems**—climates, waterways, and land environments in which humans interacted with other animals and plants—made

ecosystem a community and/or region studied as a system of functioning relationships between organisms and their environments.

for ever-greater diversity. The first human inhabitants of the Americas had fed, clothed, warmed, and armed themselves in part by hunting megafauna, and some combination of overhunting and climate change

> resulted in the extinction of most of these giants by the end of the Ice Age. As glaciers receded and human populations increased, the first Americans had to adapt to changing conditions. They adjusted by hunting smaller animals with new, more specialized kinds of stone tools and by learning to exploit particular places more efficiently.

So it was that between 10,000 and 2,500 years ago distinctive regional cultures developed among the peoples of the Americas. Those who remained in the Great Plains turned to hunting the much smaller descendants of the nowextinct giant bison; those in the

*Before the Present, used most commonly by archaeologists when the time spans are in multiple thousands of years. This text will also use CE for Common Era, equivalent to the Christian era or AD; BCE is Before the Common Era, equivalent to BC.

Americas before 1492?

If your outstretched arm

represented North America's

human history, contact with

Europe would happen around

the second knuckle of your index

finger, with the fingertips being

students learn so little about the

the present. Why do you think

deserts of the Great Basin survived on small game, seeds, and edible plants; those in the Pacific Northwest relied mainly on fishing; and those east of the Mississippi, besides fishing and gathering, tracked deer and bear and trapped smaller game animals and birds. Over these same centuries, what once seems to have been an original, common language evolved into regional dialects and eventually into a multitude of distinct languages. Linguistic diversity paced other sorts of divergences, in social organizations, kinship practices, politics, and religion. Technological and cultural unity gave way to striking regional diversity as the first Americans learned how to best exploit their particular environments. Glimpses of these profound changes may be found today in burials, stone tools, and some precious sites of long-term or repeated occupation.

Cultures of Ancient Mexico >> To the south,

Mesoamerica the area stretching from present-day central Mexico southward through Honduras and Nicaragua, in which pre-Columbian civilizations developed. pioneers in **Mesoamerica** began domesticating plants 10,000 years ago. Over the next several thousand years farmers added other crops, including beans, toma toes, and especially corn,

to an agricultural revolution that would transform life through much of the Americas. Because many crops could be dried and stored, agriculture allowed these first farmers to settle in one place.

By about 1500 BCE farming villages began giving way to larger societies, to richer and more advanced cultures. As the abundant food supply steadily expanded their populations, people began specializing in certain kinds of work. While most continued to labor on the land, others became craftworkers and merchants, architects and artists, warriors and priests. Their built environment reflected this social change as humble villages expanded into skillfully planned urban sites that were centers of trade, government, artistic display, and religious ceremony.

The Olmecs, the first city builders in the Americas, constructed large plazas and pyramidal structures and sculpted enormous heads chiseled from basalt. The Olmec cultural influence gradually spread throughout Mesoamerica, perhaps as a result of the Olmecs' trade with neighboring peoples. By about 100 BCE the Olmecs' example had inspired the flowering of Teotihuacán from a small town in central Mexico into a metropolis of towering pyramids. The city had bustling marketplaces, palaces decorated with mural paintings that housed elite warriors and priests, schools for their children, and sprawling suburbs for commoners. At its height, around 650 CE, Teotihuacán spanned more than 10 square miles and had a population of perhaps a guarter million—larger even than that of Rome at the time.

More impressive still were the achievements of the Mayas, who benefited from their contacts with both the Olmecs and Teotihuacán. In the lowland jungles of Mesoamerica they built cities filled with palaces, bridges, aqueducts, baths, astronomical observato—ries, and pyramids topped with temples. Their priests developed a written language, their mathematicians discovered the zero, and their astronomers devised a calendar more accurate than any then existing. In its glory, between the third and ninth century CE, the Mayan civilization boasted some 50 urban centers scattered throughout the Yucatán Peninsula, Belize, Guatemala, and Honduras.

But neither the earliest urban centers of the Olmecs nor the glittering city-state of Teotihuacán survived. Even the glories of the Maya had stalled by 900 CE. Like the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome, they

> thrived for centuries and then declined. Scholars still debate the reasons for their collapse. Military attack may have brought about their ruin, or perhaps their large populations exhausted local resources.

> Mayan grandeur was eventually rivaled in the Valley of Mexico. In the middle of the thirteenth century the Aztecs, a people who had originally lived on Mesoamerica's northern frontiers, swept south and settled in central Mexico. By the end of the fifteenth century they ruled over a vast empire from their capital at Tenochtitlán, an island metropolis of perhaps a quarter of a million people. At its center lay a large plaza bordered by sumptuous palaces and the Great Temple of the Sun. Beyond stood three broad causeways connecting the island to the mainland, many other



☆ Aztec merchants, or pochtecas, spoke many languages and traveled on foot great distances throughout Mesoamerica and parts of North America. Pictured at left is Yacatecuhtli, Lord Nose, the patron god of merchants. He carries a symbol of the crossroads, with bare footprints. The merchant on the right carries a cargo of quetzal birds.

tall temples adorned with brightly painted carved images of the gods, zoological and botanical gardens, and well-stocked marketplaces. Through Tenochtitlán's canals flowed gold, silver, exotic feathers and jewels, cocoa, and millions of pounds of maize—all trade goods and tribute from the several million other peoples in the region subjugated by the Aztecs.

Unsurpassed in power and wealth, in technological and artistic attainments, theirs was also a highly strat ified society. The Aztec ruler, or Chief Speaker, shared governing power with the aristocrats who monopo lized all positions of religious, military, and political leadership, while the commoners—merchants, farmers, and craftworkers—performed all manual labor. There were slaves as well, some captives taken in war, others from the ranks of commoners forced by poverty to sell themselves or their children.

Farmers, Potters, and Builders of the

Southwest >> Recent discoveries suggest that Mesoamerican crops and farming techniques began making their way north to the American Southwest as early as 2100 BCE, though it would be nearly two millennia before regional communities fully adopted sedentary agricultural lifestyles. The most successful full-time farmers in the region were the Mogollon and Hohokam peoples, two cultures that flourished in New Mexico and southern Arizona during the first millennium CE. Both tended to cluster their dwellings near streams, which allowed them to adopt the systems of irrigation as well as the maize cultivation of central Mexico. The Mogollon came to be the master potters of the Southwest. The Hohokam pioneered vast and complex irrigation systems in arid southern Arizona that allowed them to support one of the largest populations in precontact North America.

Their neighbors to the north in what is now known as the Four Corners Region of Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, and Utah, commonly referred to by the term Anasazi, are today more properly known as the Ancestral Pueblo peoples. The Ancestral Puebloans adapted corn, beans, and squash to the relatively high altitude of the Colorado Plateau and soon parlayed their growing surplus and prosperity into societies of considerable complexity. Their most stunning achievements were villages of exquisitely executed masonry buildingsapartment-like structures up to four stories high and containing hundreds of rooms at such places as Mesa Verde (Colorado) and Canyon de Chelly (Arizona). Villages in Chaco Canyon (New Mexico), the largest center of Ancestral Puebloan settlement, were linked to the wider region by hundreds of miles of wide, straight roads.

Besides their impressive dwellings, the Ancestral Puebloans filled their towns with religious shrines,

astronomical observatories, and stations for sending signals to other villages. Their craftworkers fashioned delicate woven baskets, beautiful feather and hide sashes, decorated pottery, and turquoise jewelry that they traded throughout the region and beyond. For nearly a thousand years this civilization prospered, reaching its zenith between about 900 and 1100 CE. During those three centuries the population grew to approximately 30,000 spread over 50,000 square miles, a total area larger than present—day California.

Chiefdoms of the Eastern Woodlands >>East of the Mississippi, Indian societies prospered in valleys near great rivers (Mississippi, Ohio, Tennessee, and Cumberland), the shores of the Great Lakes, and the coast of the Atlantic. Everywhere the earliest inhabitants depended on a combination of fishing, gathering, and hunting-mainly deer but also bear, raccoon, and a variety of birds. Around 2500 BCE some groups in the temperate, fertile Southeast began growing the gourds and pumpkins first cultivated by Mesoamerican farmers, and later they also adopted the cultivation of maize. Like the ancient farmers of the Southwest, most Eastern Woodland peoples continued to subsist largely on animals, fish, and nuts, all of which were abundant enough to meet their needs and even to expand their numbers.

Indeed, many of the mysterious earthen mounds that would so fascinate Europeans were built by peoples who did not farm. About 1000 BCE residents of a place now known as Poverty Point in northeastern Louisiana fashioned spectacular earthworkssix semicircular rings that rose 9 feet in height and covered more than half a mile in diameter. Although these structures might have been sites for studying the planets and stars, hundreds of other mounds—built about 2,000 years ago by the Adena and the Hopewell cultures of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys—served as the burial places of their leading men and women. Alongside the corpses mourners heaped their richest goods—headdresses of antlers, necklaces of copper, troves of shells and pearls-rare and precious items imported from as far north as Canada, as far west as Wyoming, and as far east as Florida. All these mounds attest powerfully not only to the skill and sheer numbers of their builders but also to the complexity of these ancient societies, their elaborate religious practices, and the wide scope of their trading networks.

Even so, the most magnificent culture of the ancient Eastern Woodlands, the Mississippian, owed much of its prominence to farming. By the twelfth century CE Mississippians had emerged as the premier city-builders north of the Rio Grande, and their towns radiated for hundreds of miles in every direction from the hub of their trading network at Cahokia, a port city of several thousand located directly across

Historian's тоосвох

An Ancient Calendar



During summer solstice, the spiral is bisected by a single shaft of light.

On a blazing hot summer day in 1977, Anna Sofaer climbed up to the top of Fajada Butte in Chaco Canyon, New Mexico, spotted three sandstone slabs resting carefully against a wall, and walked over to investigate. What she saw against the wall astounded her: a spiral glyph, bisected by a pure shaft of light. An artist and amateur archaeologist, Sofaer had keen interest in how indigenous American cultures harnessed light and shadow in their architecture. Knowing that it was nearly the summer solstice, she recognized instantly that she'd discovered an ancient Anasazi calendar. Later research revealed that the device also marked the winter solstice, the summer and winter equinoxes, and the extremes of the moon's 18–19 year cycle (the major and minor standstills). These discoveries prompted still more research, and scholars now believe that there are structures

Why might the Chacoans have used a spiral rather than another image to make this

throughout Chaco Canyon aligned to solar and lunar events.

THINKING CRITICALLY

What practical reasons might there have been to build these sorts of sun and moon calendars? Might there have been cultural, religious, or social purposes to track accurately the movements of the sun and moon?

from present—day St. Louis at the confluence of the Missouri and the Mississippi Rivers. Cahokia's many broad plazas teemed with farmers hauling their corn, squash, and beans and with craftworkers and mer—chants plying their wares. But what commanded every eye were the structures surrounding the plazas—more than 100 flat—topped pyramidal mounds crowned by religious temples and elite dwellings.

Life on the Great Plains >> Cahokia's size and power depended on consistent agricultural sur– pluses. Outside the Southwest and the river valleys of the East, agriculture played a smaller role in shap– ing North American societies. On the Great Plains, for example, some people did cultivate corn, beans, squash, and sunflowers, near reliable rivers and streams. But more typically Plains communities depended on hunt ing and foraging, migrating to exploit seasonally vari able resources. Plains hunters pursued game on foot; the horses that had once roamed the Americas became extinct after the last Ice Age. Sometimes large groups of people worked together to drive bison over cliffs or to trap them in corrals. The aridity of the plains made it a dynamic and unpredictable place to live. During times of reliable rainfall, bison populations boomed, hunters flocked to the region, and agricultural commu nities blossomed alongside major rivers. But sometimes centuries passed with lower—than—average precipi tation, and families abandoned the plains for eastern river valleys or the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. Survival in the Great Basin >> Some peoples west of the Great Plains also kept to older ways of subsistence. Among them were the Numic-speaking peoples of the Great Basin, which includes presentday Nevada and Utah, eastern California, and western Wyoming and Colorado. Small family groups scoured their stark, arid landscape for the limited supplies of food it yielded, moving with each passing season to make the most of their environment. Men tracked elk and antelope and trapped smaller animals, birds, even toads, rattlesnakes, and insects. But the staples of their diet were edible seeds, nuts, and plants, which women gathered and stored in woven baskets to consume in times of scarcity. Several families occasionally hunted together or wintered in common quarters, but because the desert heat and soil defied farming, these bands usually numbered no more than about 50 people.



MAP 1.1: EARLY PEOPLES OF NORTH AMERICA

Migration routes across the Bering Strait from Asia were taken by peoples whose descendants created the major civilizations of ancient Americans. The influence of Mesoamerica is most striking among the cultures of the Southwest and the Mississippians. *How would the presence or absence of the ice cap affect the timing of migration over the Bering land bridge?*

The Plenty of the Pacific Northwest >> The rugged stretch of coast from the southern banks of present-day British Columbia to northern California has always been an extraordinarily rich natural environment. Its mild climate and abundant rainfall yield forests lush with plants and game; its bays and rivers teem with salmon and halibut, its oceans with whales and porpoises, and its rocky beaches with seals, otters, abalone, mussels, and clams. Agriculture was unnecessary in such a bountiful place. From their villages on the banks of rivers, the shores of bays, and the beaches of low-lying offshore islands, the ancestors of the Nootkans, Makahs, Tlingits, Tshimshians, and Kwakiutls speared or netted salmon, trapped sea mammals, gathered shellfish, and launched canoes. The largest of these craft, from which they harpooned whales, measured 45 feet bow to stern and nearly 6 feet wide.

By the fifteenth century these fecund lands supported a population of perhaps 130,000. They also permitted a culture with the leisure time needed to create works of art as well as an elaborate social and ceremonial life. The peoples of the Northwest built houses and canoes from red cedar; carved bowls and dishes from red alder; crafted paddles and harpoon shafts, bows, and clubs from Pacific vew; and wove baskets from bark and blankets from mountain goat wool. They evolved a society with sharp distinctions among nobles, commoners, and slaves, the last group being mainly women and children captured in raids on other villages. Nonslaves devoted their lives to accumulating and then redistributing their wealth among other villagers in elaborate potlatch ceremonies in order to confirm or enhance their social prestige.

The Frozen North >> Most of present-day Canada and Alaska was inhospitable to agriculture. In the farthest northern reaches—a treeless belt of Arctic tundra-temperatures fell below freezing for most of the year. The Subarctic, although densely forested, had only about 100 frost-free days each year. As a result, the peoples of both regions survived by fishing and hunting. The Inuit, or Eskimos, of northern Alaska harvested whales from their umiaks, boats made by stretching walrus skin over a driftwood frame and that could bear more than a ton of weight. In the central Arctic they tracked seals. The inhabitants of the Subarctic, both Algonquian-speaking peoples in the East and Athapaskan speakers of the West, moved from their summer fishing camps to berry patches in the fall to moose and caribou hunting grounds in the winter.

🗸 REVIEW

How did native cultures differ region to region, and what accounts for these differences?

INNOVATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The first Americans therefore expressed, governed, and supported themselves in a broad variety of ways. And yet they shared certain core characteristics, including the desire and ability to reshape their world. Whether they lived in forests, coastal regions, jungles, or prairies, whether they inhabited high mountains or low deserts, native communities experimented constantly with the resources around them. Over the course of millennia nearly all the Western Hemi– sphere's peoples found ways to change the natural world in order to improve and enrich their lives.

America's Agricultural Gifts >> No innovation proved more crucial to human history than native manipulation of plants. Like all first farmers, agricultural pioneers in the Americas began experimenting accidentally. Modern-day species of corn, for example, probably derive from a Mesoamerican grass known as teosinte. It seems that ancient peoples gathered teosinte to collect its small grains. By selecting the grains that best suited them and bringing them back to their settlements, and by returning the grains to the soil through spillage or waste disposal, they unintentionally began the process of domestic cultivation. Soon these first farmers began deliberately saving seeds from the best plants and sowing them in gardens. In this way over hundreds of generations, American farmers transformed the modest teosinte grass into a staple crop that would give rise to the hemisphere's mightiest civilizations.

Indeed, ever since contact with Europe, the great breakthroughs in Native American farming have sus tained peoples around the world. In addition to corn, the first Americans gave humanity scores of variet ies of squash, potatoes, beans, and other basic foods. Today plants domesticated by indigenous Americans account for three—fifths of the world's crops, includ ing many that have revolutionized the global diet. For good or ill, a handful of corn species occupies the cen ter of the contemporary American diet. In addition to its traditional forms, corn is consumed in chips, breads, and breakfast cereals; corn syrup sweeteners are added to many of our processed foods and nearly all soft drinks; and corn is fed to almost all animals grown to be consumed, even farmed fish.

Other Native American crops have become integral to diets all over the world. Potatoes revolutionized northern European life in the centuries after contact, helping to avert famine and boost populations in several countries. Ireland's population tripled in



A Theodore de Bry, *Florida Indians Planting Maize*. De Bry claimed that this image, produced and published in 1591, was based on a colonist's direct observation. Recently, however, scholars have noted that the image likely contains a variety of inaccuracies. Except for the digging stick, the baskets and tools are all European in design. Moreover, the image suggests that men and women shared agricultural labor, whereas in most American societies this work fell primarily to women and children.

the century after the introduction of potatoes. Beans and peanuts became prized for their protein content in Asia. And in Africa, corn, manioc, and other New World crops so improved diets and overall health that the resulting rise in population may have offset the population lost to the Atlantic slave trade.

Landscapers >> Plant domestication requires the smallest of changes, changes farmers slowly encourage at the genetic level. But native peoples in the pre– contact Americas transformed their world on grand scales as well. In the Andes, Peruvian engineers put people to work by the tens of thousands, creating an astonishing patchwork of terraces, dykes, and canals designed to maximize agricultural productivity. Similar public–works projects transformed large parts of cen– tral Mexico and the Yucatán. Even today, after several centuries of disuse, overgrowth, and even deliberate destruction, human–shaped landscapes dating from the precontact period still cover thousands of square miles of the Americas.

Recently scholars have begun to find evidence of incredible manipulation of landscapes and environments in the least likely places. The vast Amazon rainforest has long been seen by Westerners as an imposing symbol of untouched nature. But it now seems that much of the Amazon was in fact made by people. Whereas farmers elsewhere in the world domesticated plants for their gardens and fields, farmers in the Amazon cultivated food bearing trees for thousands of years, cutting down less use ful species and replacing them with ones that better suited human needs. All told there are more than 70 different species of domesticated trees throughout the Amazon.

At least one—eighth of the nonflooded rain forest was directly or indirectly created by humans. Likewise, native peoples labori ously improved the soil across as much as a tenth of the Amazon, mixing it with charcoal and a variety of organic materials. These managed soils are more than 10 times as productive as untreated soils in the Amazon. Today farmers in the region still eagerly search for the places where precontact peoples enriched the earth.

Native North Americans likewise transformed their local environments. Sometimes they

moved forests. Ancestral Puebloans cut down and transported more than 200,000 trees to construct the floors and the roofs of the monumental buildings in Chaco Canyon. Sometimes they moved rivers. By taming the waters of the Salt and the Gila Rivers in present—day Arizona with the most extensive sys tem of irrigation canals anywhere in precontact North America, the Hohokam were able to support large populations in a desert environment. And sometimes they moved the land itself. Twenty—two million cubic feet of earth were moved to construct just one building in the Mississippian city of Cahokia.

Indians also employed fire to systematically reshape landscapes across the continent. Throughout North America's great eastern and western forests, native peoples periodically set low fires to consume undergrowth and fallen trees. In this way the continent's first inhabitants managed forests and also animals. Burning enriched the soil and encouraged the growth of grasses and bushes prized by game animals such as deer, elk, beaver, rabbit, grouse, and turkey. The systematic use of fire to reshape forests helped hunters in multiple ways: it increased the overall food supply for grazing animals, it attracted those animal species hunters valued most, and, by clearing forests of ground debris, fire made it easier to track, kill, and transport game. Deliberate burns transformed forests in eastern North America to such an extent that bison migrated