UNIT 5
1861–1877

The Nation Breaks Apart

Chapter 16 The Civil War
Chapter 17 Reconstruction
When compromise after compromise failed, the United States was divided by war. The American Civil War tested the strength of the bond between the states. During the Civil War, Americans fought each other on battlefields and in government. Ideas about slavery and sovereignty led many soldiers to fight. Eventually the nation was reunited, but deep scars remained. In the next two chapters, you will learn about the war and the period after when rebuilding the South became a priority.

**Explore the Art**

This painting is titled *Fight for the Colors*. It shows Union and Confederate troops at the Battle of Gettysburg, which began in Pennsylvania on July 1, 1863. This 3-day battle was the largest and bloodiest in the Civil War.

*What aspects of the Civil War does this picture show?*
CHAPTER 16, The Civil War, (1861–1865)

**1861: John Milton (1807–1865) becomes Florida’s Confederate governor.** At the end of 1860, Florida voters elected a long-time secessionist to lead that state as it broke away from the Union. Because Milton was elected prior to Florida’s official secession but did not take office until after secession, he was the legal governor under both federal and Confederate law. Milton tried to strengthen Florida’s militia and promote the state as a supplier of salt and food. Milton stated that he would rather die than live in a reunited Union, and he committed suicide shortly before the South surrendered.

**1861–1864: General Braxton Bragg (1817–1876) commands forces in Florida and Alabama.** Like many military and political leaders in the South, General Bragg owned a plantation and slaves. A military man his entire adult life, Bragg was known for training highly disciplined troops. However, his troops did not always support him in battle. Bragg had a reputation for being argumentative and intolerant. He led some victories during the Civil War, but Southern forces often failed under his command.

**1861–1865: Federal troops occupy Jacksonville four times.** The city of Jacksonville, named after Andrew Jackson, a governor of the Florida territory and seventh President of the United States, changed hands between Union and Confederate forces throughout the Civil War. Its location near Georgia on the northeastern coast of Florida made Jacksonville a key port. It was through Jacksonville that Florida transported artillery
supplies, timber, and livestock to other parts of the South during the war.

**EVENTS 1861: Florida secedes from the Union.** On January 10, 1861, delegates meeting as part of the Florida Convention of the People decided that Florida would join other southern states and leave the Union. This “Secession Convention” voted 62 to 7 to pass the “Ordinance of Secession.” The ordinance stated that Florida was severing its ties to the United States and declared the state to be a “Sovereign and Independent Nation.” It also stated that, “All laws...as they recognize or assent to the Union...are hereby repealed.”

**EVENTS 1865: Young volunteers held back 1,000 Union troops at the Battle of Natural Bridge.** Cadets from West Florida Seminary, now Florida State University, helped Confederate soldiers fend off a Union invasion in north Florida along the St. Marks River. This last major Confederate victory in Florida left Tallahassee as the only southern capital not overcome by Union troops.

**EVENTS 1864: Florida’s bloodiest Civil War battle is fought at Olustee.** Union troops advanced into Florida to recruit African Americans into the army and to restrict the flow of goods from the state and artillery. An army of 5,000 Confederate troops met 5,000 Union troops at Olustee, near Jacksonville. The battle left nearly forty percent of the Union troops dead, wounded, or missing. Almost twenty percent of the Confederate troops suffered similar casualties. The Union troops retreated to Jacksonville, and though the Confederates did not pursue them, their success at Olustee raised the spirits of Florida’s military.

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**Unpacking the Florida Standards**

Read the following to learn what this standard says and what it means. See FL8–FL21 to unpack all other standards related to this chapter.

**SS.8.G.1.2** Use appropriate geographic tools and terms to identify and describe significant places and regions in American history.

**What does it mean?**

Understand how to identify historically significant places and regions in the United States using maps and other geographic tools. Go to the History and Geography lesson on pages 88–89 for help.

**SPOTLIGHT ON**

**SS.8.A.2.1, SS.8.A.4.17, SS.8.A.4.18** See Spotlight on Florida History for content specifically related to these Chapter 16 standards.
CHAPTER 16

1861–1865

The Civil War

Essential Question
In what ways did the Civil War transform the nation?

Florida Next Generation Sunshine State Standards

LA.8.A.1.6.1 The student will use new vocabulary that is introduced and taught directly; LA.8.A.1.6.2 The student will listen to, read, and discuss familiar and conceptually challenging text; LA.8.A.6.2 The student will assess, organize, synthesize, and evaluate the validity and reliability of information in text, using a variety of techniques by examining several sources of information, including both primary and secondary sources; SS.8.A.1.1 Provide supporting details for an answer from text, interview for oral history, check validity of information from research/text, and identify strong vs. weak arguments. SS.8.A.1.2 Analyze charts, graphs, maps, photographs and timelines; analyze political cartoons; determine cause and effect. SS.8.A.1.3 Analyze current events relevant to American History topics through a variety of electronic and print media resources. SS.8.A.1.4 Differentiate fact from opinion, utilize appropriate historical research and fiction/nonfiction support materials. SS.8.A.1.5 Identify, within both primary and secondary sources, the author, audience, format, and purpose of significant historical documents. SS.8.A.1.7 View historic events through the eyes of those who were there as shown in their art, writings, music, and artifacts. SS.8.A.5.3 Explain major domestic and international economic, military, political, and socio-cultural events of Abraham Lincoln’s presidency. SS.8.A.5.4 Identify the division (Confederate and Union States, Border states, western territories) of the United States at the outbreak of the Civil War. SS.8.A.5.5 Compare Union and Confederate strengths and weaknesses. SS.8.A.5.6 Compare significant Civil War battles and events and their effects on civilian populations. SS.8.C.2.1 Evaluate and compare the essential ideals and principles of American constitutional government expressed in primary sources from the colonial period to Reconstruction. SS.8.G.2.1 Identify the physical elements and the human elements that define and differentiate regions as relevant to American history. SS.8.G.2.2 Use geographic terms and tools to analyze case studies of regional issues in different parts of the United States that have had critical economic, physical, or political ramifications. SS.8.G.4.6 Use political maps to describe changes in boundaries and governance throughout American history. SS.8.G.6.2 Illustrate places and events in U.S. history through the use of narratives and graphic representations.

Focus on Writing

Writing a Newspaper Article
For most of this nation’s history, newspapers have been an important way for citizens to learn about what is happening in the United States. In this chapter you will read about the main events of the Civil War. Then you will choose one of these events and write a newspaper article about it.
1862 The Monitor fights the Virginia on March 9.

1862 An imperial decree expels foreigners from Japan.

1863 The Emancipation Proclamation is issued on January 1.

1863 With the support of French troops, Archduke Maximilian of Austria becomes emperor of Mexico.

1865 General Robert E. Lee surrenders to General Ulysses S. Grant on April 9.

1864 The Taiping Rebellion in China ends after the capture of Nanjing in July.

Among those who marched off to war were these drummer boys of the Union army.
Focus on Themes  As you read this chapter about the Civil War, you will see that this was a time in our history dominated by two major concerns: politics and society and culture. You will not only read about the political decisions made during this war, but also you will see how the war affected all of American society. You will read about the causes and the key events during the war and the many consequences of this war. This chapter tells of one of the most important events in our history.

Supporting Facts and Details

Focus on Reading  Main ideas and big ideas are just that, ideas. How do we know what those ideas really mean?

Understanding Ideas and Their Support  A main idea or big idea may be a kind of summary statement, or it may be a statement of the author’s opinion. Either way, a good reader looks to see what support—facts and various kinds of details—the writer provides. If the writer doesn’t provide good support, the ideas may not be trustworthy.

Notice how the passage below uses facts and details to support the main idea.

Civil War armies fought in the ancient battlefield formation that produced massive casualties. Endless rows of troops fired directly at one another, with cannonballs landing amid them. When the order was given, soldiers would attach bayonets to their guns and rush toward their enemy. Men died to gain every inch of ground. . .

Despite the huge battlefield losses, the biggest killer in the Civil War was not the fighting. It was diseases such as typhoid, pneumonia, and tuberculosis. Nearly twice as many soldiers died of illnesses as died in combat.

From Chapter 16, p. 533

Writers support propositions with . . .

1. Facts and statistics—statements that can be proved; facts in number form
2. Examples—specific instances that illustrate the facts
3. Anecdotes—brief stories that help explain the facts
4. Definitions—explanation of unusual terms or words
5. Comments from the experts or eyewitnesses—statements from reliable sources
You Try It!

The following passage is from the chapter you are about to read. As you read it, look for the writer’s main idea and support.

In February 1862, Grant led an assault force into Tennessee. With help from navy gunboats, Grant’s Army of the Tennessee took two outposts on key rivers in the west. On February 6, he captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee River. Several days later he took Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River.

Fort Donelson’s commander asked for the terms of surrender. Grant replied, “No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted.” The fort surrendered. The North gave a new name to Grant’s initials: “Unconditional Surrender” Grant.

After you read the passage, answer the following questions.

1. Which sentence best states the writer’s main idea?
   a. The fort surrendered.
   b. In February 1862, Grant led an assault force into Tennessee.
   c. Fort Donelson’s commander asked for the terms of surrender.

2. Which method of support is not used to support the main idea?
   a. facts
   b. comments from experts or eyewitnesses
   c. anecdotes

3. Which sentence in this passage provides a comment from an expert or eyewitness?
The War Begins

If YOU were there...

You are a college student in Charleston in early 1861. Seven southern states have left the Union and formed their own government. All-out war seems unavoidable. Your friends have begun to volunteer for either the Union or the Confederate forces. You are torn between loyalty to your home state and to the United States.

Would you join the Union or the Confederate army?

BUILDING BACKGROUND The divisions within the United States reached a breaking point with the election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860. Several southern states angrily left the Union to form a new confederation. In border states such as Virginia and Kentucky, people were divided. The question now was whether the United States could survive as a disunited country.

Americans Choose Sides

Furious at Lincoln’s election and fearing a federal invasion, seven southern states had seceded. The new commander in chief tried desperately to save the Union.

In his inaugural address, Lincoln promised not to end slavery where it existed. The federal government “will not assail [attack] you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors,” he said, trying to calm southerners’ fears. However, Lincoln also stated his intention to preserve the Union. He believed that saving the Union would help to save democracy. If the Union and its government failed, then monarchs could say that people were unable to rule themselves. As a result, Lincoln refused to recognize secession, declaring the Union to be “unbroken.”

In fact, after decades of painful compromises, the Union was badly broken. From the lower South, a battle cry was arising, born out of fear, rage—and excitement. Confederate officials began seizing branches of the federal mint, arsenals, and military outposts. In a last-ditch effort to avoid war between the states, Secretary of State Seward suggested a united effort of threatening war against Spain and France for interfering in Mexico and the Caribbean. In the highly charged atmosphere, it would take only a spark to unleash the heat of war.
In 1861, that spark occurred at Fort Sumter, South Carolina, that was attacked by Confederate troops, beginning the Civil War. Determined to seize the fortress—which controlled the entrance to Charleston harbor—the Confederates ringed the harbor with heavy guns. Instead of surrendering the fort, Lincoln decided to send in ships to provide badly needed supplies to defend the fort. Confederate officials demanded that the federal troops evacuate. The fort’s commander, Major Robert Anderson, refused. Before sunrise on April 12, 1861, Confederate guns opened fire on Fort Sumter. A witness wrote that the first shots brought “every soldier in the harbor to his feet, and every man, woman, and child in the city of Charleston from their beds.” The Civil War had begun.

The fort, although massive, stood little chance. Its heavy guns faced the Atlantic Ocean, not the shore. After 34 hours of cannon blasts, Fort Sumter surrendered. “The last ray of hope for preserving the Union has expired at the assault upon Fort Sumter . . .” Lincoln wrote.

Reaction to Lincoln’s Call
The fall of Fort Sumter stunned the North. Lincoln declared the South to be in a state of rebellion and asked state governors for 75,000 militiamen to put down the rebellion. States now had to choose: Would they secede, or would they stay in the Union? Democratic Senator Stephen Douglas, speaking in support of Lincoln’s call for troops, declared, “There can be no neutrals in this war, only patriots—or traitors.”
Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and the states north of them rallied to the president’s call. The crucial slave states of the Upper South—North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Arkansas—seceded. They provided soldiers and supplies to the South. Mary Boykin Chesnut, whose husband became a Confederate congressman, wrote in her diary:

“I did not know that one could live in such days of excitement…Everybody tells you half of something, and then rushes off…to hear the last news.”

—Mary Boykin Chesnut, quoted in Mary Chesnut’s Civil War, edited by C. Vann Woodward

Wedged between the North and the South were the key border states of Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, and Missouri—slave states that did not join the Confederacy. Kentucky and Missouri controlled parts of important rivers. Maryland separated the Union capital, Washington, D.C., from the North.

People in the border states were deeply divided on the war. The president’s own wife, Mary Todd Lincoln, had four brothers from Kentucky who fought for the Confederacy. Lincoln sent federal troops into the border states to help keep them in the Union. He also sent soldiers into western Virginia, where Union loyalties were strong. West Virginia set up its own state government in 1863.

Northern Resources

Numbers tell an important story about the Civil War. Consider the North’s advantages. It could draw soldiers and workers from a population of 22 million. The South had only 5.5 million people to draw from. One of the greatest advantages in the North was the region’s network of roads, canals, and railroads. Some 22,000 miles of railroad track could move soldiers and supplies throughout the North. The South had only about 9,000 miles of track.

In the North, the Civil War stimulated economic growth. To supply the military, the production of coal, iron, wheat, and wool
increased. Also, the export of corn, wheat, beef, and pork to Europe doubled. In the South, the export of resources decreased because of the Union blockade.

Finally, the Union had money. It had a more developed economy, banking system, and a currency called greenbacks. The South had to start printing its own Confederate dollars. Some states printed their own money, too. This led to financial chaos.

Taking advantage of the Union’s strengths, General Winfield Scott developed a two-part strategy: (1) destroy the South’s economy with a naval blockade of southern ports; (2) gain control of the Mississippi River to divide the South. Other leaders urged an attack on Richmond, Virginia, the Confederate capital.

**Southern Resources**

The Confederacy had advantages as well. With its strong military tradition, the South put many brilliant officers into battle. Southern farms provided food for its armies. The South’s best advantage, however, was strategic. It needed only to defend itself until the North grew tired of fighting.

The North had to invade and control the South. To accomplish this, the Union army had to travel huge distances. For example, the distance from northern Virginia to central Georgia is about the length of Scotland and England combined. Because of distances such as this, the North had to maintain long supply lines.

In addition, wilderness covered much of the South. Armies found this land difficult to cross. Also, in Virginia, many of the rivers ran from east to west. Because of this, they formed a natural defense against an army that attacked from the north to the south. As a result, Northern generals were often forced to attack Confederate troops from the side rather than from the front. Furthermore, because southerners fought mostly on their home soil, they were often familiar with the area.

The South hoped to wear down the North and to capture Washington, D.C. Confederate president Jefferson Davis also tried to win foreign allies through **cotton diplomacy**. This was the idea that Great Britain would support the Confederacy because it needed the South’s raw cotton to supply its booming textile industry. Cotton diplomacy did not work as the South had hoped. Britain had large supplies of cotton, and it got more from India and Egypt.

**READING CHECK**

Comparing What advantages did the North and South have leading up to the war?

**ANALYZING VISUALS**

1. Do you think the North or the South could maintain better supply lines for their troops? Explain.
2. Do you think the North or the South could provide more weapons for their troops? Explain.
Preparation for War

The North and the South now rushed to war. Neither side was prepared for the tragedy to come.

Volunteer Armies

Volunteer militias had sparked the revolution that created the United States. Now they would battle for its future. At the start of the war, the Union army had only 16,000 soldiers. Within months that number had swelled to a half million. Southern men rose up to defend their land and their ways of life. Virginian Thomas Webber came to fight “against the invading foe [enemy] who now pollute the sacred soil of my beloved native state.” When Union soldiers asked one captured rebel why he was fighting, he replied, “I’m fighting because you’re down here.”

Helping the Troops

Civilians on both sides helped those in uniform. They raised money, provided aid for soldiers and their families, and ran emergency hospitals. Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell, the first woman to receive a license to practice medicine, organized a group that pressured President Lincoln to form the U.S. Sanitary Commission in June 1861. The Sanitary, as it was called, was run by clergyman Henry Bellows. Tens of thousands of volunteers worked with the U.S. Sanitary Commission to send bandages, medicines, and food to Union army camps and hospitals. Some 3,000 women served as nurses in the Union army.

Training the Soldiers

Both the Union and Confederate armies faced shortages of clothing, food, and even rifles. Most troops lacked standard uniforms and simply wore their own clothes. Eventually, each side chose a color for their uniforms. The Union chose blue. The Confederates wore gray.
The problem with volunteers was that many of them had no idea how to fight. Schoolteachers, farmers, and laborers all had to learn the combat basics of marching, shooting, and using bayonets.

In a letter to a friend, a Union soldier described life in the training camp.

“We have been wading through mud knee deep all winter ... For the last two weeks we have been drilled almost to death. Squad drill from 6 to 7 A.M. Company drill from 9 to 11 A.M. Battalion Drill from 2 to 4 1/2 P.M. Dress Parade from 5 to 5 1/2 P.M. and non-commissioned officers’ school from 7 to 8 in the evening. If we don’t soon become a well drilled Regiment, we ought to.”

—David R.P. Shoemaker, 1862

With visions of glory and action, many young soldiers were eager to fight. They would not have to wait long.

Discipline and drill were used to turn raw volunteers into an efficient fighting machine. During a battle, the success or failure of a regiment often depended on its discipline—how well it responded to orders.

Volunteers also learned how to use rifles. Eventually, soldiers were expected to be able to load, aim, and fire their rifles three times in one minute. The quality of the weapons provided varied greatly. Most soldiers favored the Springfield and Enfield rifles for their accuracy. On the other hand, soldiers often complained about their Austrian and Belgian rifles. A soldier remarked, “I don’t believe one could hit the broadside of a barn with them.”

The Union army provided the infantry with two-person tents. However, soldiers often discarded these tents in favor of more portable ones. The Confederate army did not usually issue tents. Instead, Confederates often used tents that were captured from the Union army.

**Summary and Preview**

As citizens chose sides in the Civil War, civilians and soldiers alike became involved in the war effort. In the next section you will learn about some early battles in the war, both on land and at sea.

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**Section 1 Assessment**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Identify** What event triggered the war between the Union and the Confederacy?
   **b. Contrast** How did the Union’s strategy differ from that of the Confederacy?
   **c. Evaluate** Which side do you believe was better prepared for war? Explain your answer.

2. **a. Describe** How did women take part in the war?
   **b. Summarize** In what ways were the armies of the North and South unprepared for war?
   **c. Elaborate** Why did men volunteer to fight in the war?

**Critical Thinking**

3. **Comparing and Contrasting** Review your notes on the preparations for war by the North and the South.

4. **Taking Notes on the War’s Beginning** As you read this section, take notes on the crisis at Fort Sumter and on the recruiting and training of the armies. Be sure to answer the following questions: Who? Where? When? Why? and How?
The War in the East

If YOU were there...

You live in Washington, D.C., in July 1861. You and your friends are on your way to Manassas, near Washington, to watch the battle there. Everyone expects a quick Union victory. Your wagon is loaded with food for a picnic, and people are in a holiday mood. You see some members of Congress riding toward Manassas, too. Maybe this battle will end the war!

Why would you want to watch this battle?

War in Virginia

The troops that met in the first major battle of the Civil War found that it was no picnic. In July 1861, Lincoln ordered General Irvin McDowell to lead his 35,000-man army from the Union capital, Washington, to the Confederate capital, Richmond. The soldiers were barely trained. McDowell complained that they “stopped every moment to pick blackberries or get water; they would not keep in the ranks.” The first day’s march covered only five miles.

Bull Run/Manassas

McDowell’s army was headed to Manassas, Virginia, an important railroad junction. If McDowell could seize Manassas, he would control the best route to the Confederate capital. Some 22,000 Confederate troops under the command of General Pierre G. T. Beauregard were waiting for McDowell and his troops along a creek called Bull Run. For two days, Union troops tried to find a way around the Confederates. During that time, Beauregard requested assistance, and
General Joseph E. Johnston headed toward Manassas with another 10,000 Confederate troops. By July 21, 1861, they had all arrived.

That morning, Union troops managed to cross the creek and drive back the left side of the Confederate line. Yet one unit held firmly in place.

“There is Jackson standing like a stone wall!” cried one southern officer. “Rally behind the Virginians!” At that moment, General Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson earned his famous nickname.

A steady stream of Virginia volunteers arrived to counter the attack. The Confederates surged forward, letting out their terrifying “rebel yell.” One eyewitness described the awful scene.

“There is smoke, dust, wild talking, shouting; hissings, howlings, explosions. It is a new, strange, unanticipated experience to the soldiers of both armies, far different from what they thought it would be.”

—Charles Coffin, quoted in Voices of the Civil War by Richard Wheeler

The battle raged through the day, with rebel soldiers still arriving. Finally, the weary Union troops gave out. They tried to make an orderly retreat back across the creek, but the roads were clogged with the fancy carriages of panicked spectators. The Union army scattered in the chaos.

The Confederates lacked the strength to push north and capture Washington, D.C. But clearly, the rebels had won the day. The First Battle of Bull Run was the first major battle of the Civil War, and the Confederates’ victory. The battle is also known as the First Battle of Manassas. It shattered the North’s hopes of winning the war quickly.

**More Battles in Virginia**

The shock at Bull Run persuaded Lincoln of the need for a better-trained army. He put his hopes in General George B. McClellan. The general assembled a highly disciplined force of 100,000 soldiers called the Army of the Potomac. The careful McClellan spent months training. However, because he overestimated the size of the Confederate army, McClellan hesitated to attack. Lincoln grew impatient. Finally, in the spring of 1862, McClellan launched an effort to capture Richmond called the “Peninsular Campaign.” Instead of marching south for a direct assault, McClellan slowly brought his force through the peninsula between the James and York rivers. More time slipped away.

The South feared that McClellan would receive reinforcements from Washington. To prevent this, Stonewall Jackson launched an attack toward Washington. Although the attack was pushed back, it prevented the Union from sending reinforcements to McClellan.
In June 1862, with McClellan’s force poised outside Richmond, the Confederate army in Virginia came under the command of General Robert E. Lee. A graduate of the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, Lee had served in the Mexican War and had led federal troops at Harpers Ferry. Lee was willing to take risks and make unpredictable moves to throw Union forces off balance.

During the summer of 1862, Lee strengthened his positions. On June 26, he attacked, launching a series of clashes known as the Seven Days’ Battles that forced the Union army to retreat from near Richmond. Confederate General D. H. Hill described one failed attack. “It was not war—it was murder,” he said. Lee saved Richmond and forced McClellan to retreat.

A frustrated Lincoln ordered General John Pope to march directly on Richmond from Washington. Pope told his soldiers, “Let us look before us and not behind. Success and glory are in the advance.”

Jackson wanted to defeat Pope’s army before it could join up with McClellan’s larger Army of the Potomac. Jackson’s troops met Pope’s Union forces on the battlefield in August in 1862. The three-day battle became known as the Second Battle of Bull Run, or the Second Battle of Manassas.

The first day’s fighting was savage. Captain George Fairfield of the 7th Wisconsin regiment later recalled, “What a slaughter! No one appeared to know the object of the fight, and there we stood for one hour, the men falling all around.” The fighting ended in a stalemate.

On the second day, Pope found Jackson’s troops along an unfinished railroad grade. Pope hurled his men against the Confederates. But the attacks were pushed back with heavy casualties on both sides.

On the third day, the Confederates crushed the Union army’s assault and forced it to retreat in defeat. The Confederates had won a major victory, and General Robert E. Lee decided it was time to take the war to the North.

**Reading Check**  **Sequencing** List in order the events that forced Union troops out of Virginia.

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**Eyewitness at Antietam**
Battle of Antietam

Confederate leaders hoped to follow up Lee’s successes in Virginia with a major victory on northern soil. On September 4, 1862, some 40,000 Confederate soldiers began crossing into Maryland. General Robert E. Lee decided to divide his army. He sent about half of his troops, under the command of Stonewall Jackson, to Harpers Ferry. There they defeated a Union force and captured the town. Meanwhile, Lee arrived in the town of Frederick and issued a Proclamation to the People of Maryland, urging them to join the Confederates. However, his words would not be enough to convince Marylanders to abandon the Union. Union soldiers, however, found a copy of Lee’s battle plan, which had been left at an abandoned Confederate camp. General McClellan learned that Lee had divided his army in order to attack Harpers Ferry. However, McClellan hesitated to attack. As a result, the Confederates had time to reunite.

The two armies met along Antietam Creek in Maryland on September 17, 1862. The battle lasted for hours. By the end of the day, the Union had suffered more than 12,000 casualties. The Confederates endured more than 13,000 casualties. Union officer A. H. Nickerson later recalled, “It seemed that everybody near me was killed.” The Battle of Antietam, also known as the Battle of Sharpsburg, was the bloodiest single-day battle of the Civil War—and of U.S. history. More soldiers were killed and wounded at the Battle of Antietam than the deaths of all Americans in the American Revolution, War of 1812, and Mexican-American War combined.

During the battle, McClellan kept four divisions of soldiers in reserve and refused to use them to attack Lee’s devastated army. McClellan was convinced that Lee was massing reserves for a counterattack. Those reserves did not exist. Despite this blunder, Antietam was an important victory. Lee’s northward advance had been stopped.

**Reading Check** Analyzing Why was the Battle of Antietam significant?

**Biography**

**Robert E. Lee**

*(1807–1870)*

Robert E. Lee was born into a wealthy Virginia family in 1807. Lee fought in the Mexican-American War, helping to capture Veracruz. When the Civil War began, President Lincoln asked Lee to lead the Union army. Lee declined and resigned from the U.S. Army to become a general in the Confederate army.

**Drawing Conclusions** How did Lee’s choice reflect the division of the states?

**Analyze Visuals**

How is this painting different from modern war reporting?

James Hope was a professional artist who joined the Union army. Too sick to fight at Antietam, Hope was reassigned to work as a scout and a mapmaker. He sketched scenes from the battle as it happened and later used his sketches to make paintings like this one. This scene is of early morning on the battlefield. This painting doesn’t represent a particular moment, but is meant to show a series of events.
Chapter 16: Breaking the Union’s Blockade

While the two armies fought for control of the land, the Union navy controlled the sea. The North had most of the U.S. Navy’s small fleet, and many experienced naval officers had remained loyal to the Union. The North also had enough industry to build more ships. The Confederacy turned to British companies for new ships.

The Union’s Naval Strategy

The Union navy quickly mobilized to set up a blockade of southern ports. The blockade largely prevented the South from selling or receiving goods, and it seriously damaged the southern economy.

The blockade was hard to maintain because the Union navy had to patrol thousands of miles of coastline from Virginia to Texas. The South used small, fast ships to out-run the larger Union warships. Most of these blockade runners traveled to the Bahamas or Nassau to buy supplies for the Confederacy. These ships, however, could not make up for the South’s loss of trade. The Union blockade reduced the number of ships entering southern ports from 6,000 to 800 per year.

Clash of the Ironclads

Hoping to take away the Union’s advantage at sea, the Confederacy turned to a new type of warship—ironclads, or ships heavily armored with iron. The British government neglected to stop these ships from being delivered, in violation of its pledge of neutrality. The Confederates had captured a Union steamship, the Merrimack, and turned it into an ironclad, renamed the Virginia. One Union sailor described the innovation as “a huge half-submerged crocodile.” In early March 1862, the ironclad sailed into Hampton Roads, Virginia, an important waterway guarded by Union ships. Before nightfall, the Virginia easily sank two of the Union’s wooden warships, while it received minor damage.
The Union navy had already built its own ironclad, the Monitor, designed by Swedish-born engineer John Ericsson. Ericsson’s ship had unusual new features, such as a revolving gun tower. One Confederate soldier called the Monitor “a tin can on a shingle!” Although small, the Monitor carried powerful guns and had thick plating.

When the Virginia returned to Hampton Roads later that month, the Monitor was waiting. After several hours of fighting, neither ship was seriously damaged, but the Monitor forced the Virginia to withdraw. This success saved the Union fleet and continued the blockade. The clash of the ironclads also signaled a revolution in naval warfare. The days of wooden warships powered by wind and sails were drawing to a close.

**READING CHECK** Evaluating How effective was the Union blockade?

**SUMMARY AND PREVIEW** The early battles of the Civil War were centered in the East. In the next section you will read about battles in the West.
The War in the West

If YOU were there...

You live in the city of Vicksburg, set on high bluffs above the Mississippi River. Vicksburg is vital to the control of the river, and Confederate defenses are strong. But the Union general is determined to take the town. For weeks, you have been surrounded and besieged. Cannon shells burst overhead, day and night. Some have fallen on nearby homes. Supplies of food are running low.

How would you survive this siege?

Union Strategy in the West

While Lincoln fumed over the cautious, hesitant General McClellan, he had no such problems with Ulysses S. Grant. Bold and restless, Grant grew impatient when he was asked to lead defensive maneuvers. He wanted to be on the attack. As a commander of forces in the Union’s western campaign, he would get his wish.

The western campaign focused on taking control of the Mississippi River. This strategy would cut off the eastern part of the Confederacy from sources of food production in Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas. From bases on the Mississippi, the Union army could attack southern communication and transportation networks.

In February 1862, Grant led an assault force into Tennessee. With help from navy gunboats, Grant’s Army of the Tennessee took two outposts on key rivers in the west. On February 6, he captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee River. Several days later he took Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River.

Fort Donelson’s commander asked for the terms of surrender. Grant replied, “No terms except an unconditional and immediate
surrender can be accepted.” The fort surrendered. The North gave a new name to Grant’s initials: “Unconditional Surrender” Grant.

Advancing south in Tennessee, General Grant paused near Shiloh Church to await the arrival of the Army of the Ohio. Grant knew that the large rebel army of General A. S. Johnston was nearby in Corinth, Mississippi, but he did not expect an attack. Instead of setting up defenses, he worked on drilling his new recruits.

In the early morning of April 6, 1862, the rebels sprang on Grant’s sleepy camp. This began the Battle of Shiloh, in which the Union army gained greater control of the Mississippi River valley.

During the bloody two-day battle, each side gained and lost ground. Johnston was killed on the first day. The arrival of the Ohio force helped Grant regain territory and push the enemy back into Mississippi. The armies finally gave out, each with about 10,000 casualties. Both sides claimed victory, but, in fact, the victor was Grant.

The Fall of New Orleans

As Grant battled his way down the Mississippi, the Union navy prepared to blast its way upriver to meet him. The first obstacle was the port of New Orleans, the largest city in the Confederacy and the gateway to the Mississippi River.

The War in the West

BIOGRAPHY

David Farragut
(1801–1870)

David Farragut was born in Tennessee to a Spanish father and an American mother. At age seven Farragut was adopted by a family friend who agreed to train the young boy for the navy. Farragut received his first navy position—midshipman at large—at age nine and commanded his first vessel at 12. He spent the rest of his life in the U.S. Navy. Farragut led key attacks on the southern ports of Vicksburg and New Orleans.

Drawing Inferences How did Farragut help the war effort of the North?
With 18 ships and 700 men, Admiral David Farragut approached the two forts that guarded the entrance to New Orleans from the Gulf of Mexico. Unable to destroy the forts, Farragut decided to race past them. The risky operation would take place at night. Farragut had his wooden ships wrapped in heavy chains to protect them like ironclads. Sailors slapped Mississippi mud on the ships’ hulls to make them hard to see. Trees were tied to the masts to make the ships look like the forested shore.

Before dawn on April 24, 1862, the warships made their daring dash. The Confederates fired at Farragut’s ships from the shore and from gunboats. They launched burning rafts, one of which scorched Farragut’s own ship. But his fleet slipped by the twin forts and made it to New Orleans. The city fell on April 29.

Farragut sailed up the Mississippi River, taking Baton Rouge, Louisiana, and Natchez, Mississippi. He then approached the city of Vicksburg, Mississippi.

**The Siege of Vicksburg**

Vicksburg’s geography made invasion all but impossible. Perched on 200-foot-high cliffs above the Mississippi River, the city could rain down firepower on enemy ships or on soldiers trying to scale the cliffs. Deep gorges surrounded the city, turning back land assaults. Nevertheless, Farragut ordered Vicksburg to surrender.

“Mississippians don’t know, and refuse to learn, how to surrender... If Commodore Farragut... can teach them, let [him] come and try.”

—Colonel James L. Autry, military commander of Vicksburg

Farragut’s guns had trouble reaching the city above. It was up to General Grant. His solution was to starve the city into surrender.

General Grant’s troops began the Siege of Vicksburg in mid-May 1863, cutting off the city and shelling it repeatedly. As food ran out, residents and soldiers survived by eating horses, dogs, and rats. “We are utterly cut off from the world, surrounded by a circle of fire,” wrote one woman. “People do nothing
but eat what they can get, sleep when they can, and dodge the shells.”

The Confederate soldiers were also sick and hungry. In late June a group of soldiers sent their commander a warning.

“The army is now ripe for mutiny [rebellion], unless it can be fed. If you can’t feed us, you’d better surrender us, horrible as the idea is.”

—Confederate soldiers at Vicksburg to General John C. Pemberton, 1863

On July 4, Pemberton surrendered. Grant immediately sent food to the soldiers and civilians. He later claimed that “the fate of the Confederacy was sealed when Vicksburg fell.”

**Reading Check** Summarizing How did the Union gain control of the Mississippi River?

**Struggle for the Far West**

Early on in the war, the Union halted several attempts by Confederate armies to control lands west of the Mississippi. In August 1861, a Union detachment from Colorado turned back a Confederate force at Glorieta Pass. Union volunteers also defeated rebel forces at Arizona’s Pichaco Pass.

Confederate attempts to take the border state of Missouri also collapsed. Failing to seize the federal arsenal at St. Louis in mid-1861, the rebels fell back to Pea Ridge in northwest Arkansas. There, in March 1862, they attacked again, aided by some 800 Cherokee. The Indians hoped the Confederates would give them greater freedom. In addition, slavery was legal in Indian Territory, and some Native Americans who were slaveholders supported the Confederacy. Despite being outnumbered, Union forces won the Battle of Pea Ridge. The Union defense of Missouri held.

Pro-Confederate forces remained active in the region throughout the war. They attacked Union forts and raided towns in Missouri and Kansas, forcing Union commanders to keep valuable troops stationed in the area.

**Reading Check** Analyzing What was the importance of the fighting in the Far West?

**Summary and Preview** The North and the South continued their struggle with battles in the West. A number of key battles took place in the Western theater, and several important Union leaders emerged from these battles. One, Ulysses S. Grant, would soon become even more important to the Union army. In the next section you will learn about the lives of civilians, enslaved Africans, and soldiers during the war.

**Section 3 Assessment**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. a. Identify What role did Ulysses S. Grant play in the war in the West?
   b. Explain Why was the Battle of Shiloh important?
   c. Elaborate Do you think President Lincoln would have approved of Grant’s actions in the West? Why or why not?

2. a. Describe How did the Union take New Orleans, and why was it an important victory?
   b. Draw Conclusions How were civilians affected by the Siege of Vicksburg?
   c. Predict What might be some possible results of the Union victory at Vicksburg?

**Critical Thinking**

3. Identifying Cause and Effect Review your notes on Union strategy in the West. Then copy this graphic organizer and use it to show the causes and effects of each battle.

**Focus on Writing**

4. Taking Notes on the War in the West As you read this section, take notes on the fight for the Mississippi River and the Siege of Vicksburg. Be sure to answer the following questions: Who? Where? When? Why? and How?
"Vicksburg is the key!"
President Abraham Lincoln declared. “The war can never be brought to a close until that key is in our pocket.” Vicksburg was so important because of its location on the Mississippi River, a vital trade route and supply line. Union ships couldn’t get past the Confederate guns mounted on the high bluffs of Vicksburg. Capturing Vicksburg would give the Union control of the Mississippi, stealing a vital supply line and splitting the Confederacy in two. The task fell to General Ulysses S. Grant.

1. Grant Crosses into Louisiana  General Grant planned to attack Vicksburg from the North, but the swampy land made attack from that direction difficult. So, Grant crossed the Mississippi River into Louisiana and marched south.

2. Grant Moves East  Grant’s troops met up with their supply boats here and crossed back into Mississippi. In a daring gamble, Grant decided to move without a supply line, allowing his army to move quickly.

3. Port Gibson  A skirmish at Port Gibson proved that the Confederates could not defend the Mississippi line.

4. The Siege of Vicksburg  Grant now had 30,000 Confederate troops trapped in Vicksburg. After two assaults on the city failed, Grant was forced to lay siege. After six weeks of bombardment, the Confederates surrendered on July 4, 1863. Grant’s bold campaign had given the Union control of the Mississippi River.

5. Vicksburg The Strategy  President Abraham Lincoln declared, “The war can never be brought to a close until that key is in our pocket.” Vicksburg was so important because of its location on the Mississippi River, a vital trade route and supply line. Union ships couldn’t get past the Confederate guns mounted on the high bluffs of Vicksburg. Capturing Vicksburg would give the Union control of the Mississippi, stealing a vital supply line and splitting the Confederacy in two. The task fell to General Ulysses S. Grant.
Ironclads

Union ironclads were vital to the Vicksburg campaign. These gunboats protected Grant’s troops when they crossed the Mississippi. Later, they bombarded Vicksburg during the siege of the city.

Ulysses S. Grant

(1822–1885)

Ulysses S. Grant was born in April 1822 in New York. Grant attended West Point and fought in the Mexican-American War. He resigned in 1854 and worked at various jobs in farming, real estate, and retail. When the Civil War started, he joined the Union army and was quickly promoted to general. After the Civil War, Grant rode a wave of popularity to become president of the United States.

Interpreting Maps

1. Location Why was Vicksburg’s location so important?
2. Place What natural features made Vicksburg difficult to attack?
You live in Maryland in 1864. Your father and brothers are in the Union army, and you want to do your part in the war. You hear that a woman in Washington, D.C., is supplying medicines and caring for wounded soldiers on the battlefield. She is looking for volunteers. You know the work will be dangerous, for you’ll be in the line of fire. You might be shot or even killed.

Would you join the nurses on the battlefield?

The Civil War touched almost all Americans. Some 3 million men fought in the two armies. Thousands of other men and women worked behind the lines, providing food, supplies, medical care, and other necessary services. Civilians could not escape the effects of war, as the fighting destroyed farms, homes, and cities.
Emancipation Proclamation

At the heart of the nation’s bloody struggle were millions of enslaved African Americans. Abolitionists urged President Lincoln to free them.

In an 1858 speech, Lincoln declared, “There is no reason in the world why the negro is not entitled to all the natural rights numerated in the Declaration of Independence—the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.” Yet as president, Lincoln found emancipation, or the freeing of slaves, to be a difficult issue. He did not believe he had the constitutional power. He also worried about the effects of emancipation.

Lincoln Issues the Proclamation

Northerners had a range of opinions about abolishing slavery.
- The Democratic Party, which included many laborers, opposed emancipation. Laborers feared that freed slaves would come north and take their jobs at lower wages.
- Abolitionists argued that the war was pointless if it did not win freedom for African Americans. They warned that the Union would remain divided until the problem was resolved.
- Lincoln worried about losing support for the war. Previous wartime Confiscation Acts that had attempted to free the slaves had been unpopular in the border states.
- Others, including Secretary of War Edwin Stanton, agreed with Lincoln that the use of slave labor was helping the Confederacy make war. Therefore, as commander in chief, the president could free the slaves in all rebellious states. Freed African Americans could then be recruited into the Union army.

For several weeks in 1862, Lincoln worked intensely, thinking, writing, and rewriting. He finally wrote the Emancipation Proclamation, the order to free the Confederate slaves. The proclamation declared that:

“. . . all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free.”

—Emancipation Proclamation, 1862

The Emancipation Proclamation was a military order that freed slaves only in areas
controlled by the Confederacy. In fact, the proclamation had little immediate effect. It was impossible for the federal government to enforce the proclamation in the areas where it actually applied—the states in rebellion that were not under federal control. The proclamation did not stop slavery in the border states, where the federal government would have had the power to enforce it. The words written in the Emancipation Proclamation were powerful, but the impact of the document was more symbolic than real. It defined what the Union was fighting against, and discouraged Britain from aiding the Confederacy.

Lincoln wanted to be in a strong position in the war before announcing his plan. The Battle of Antietam gave him the victory he needed. He issued the Emancipation Proclamation on September 22, 1862. The proclamation went into effect on January 1, 1863.

**Reaction to the Proclamation**

New Year’s Eve, December 31, 1862: In “night watch” meetings at many African American churches, worshippers prayed, sang, and gave thanks. When the clocks struck midnight, millions were free. Abolitionists rejoiced. Frederick Douglass called January 1, 1863, “the great day which is to determine the destiny not only of the American Republic, but that of the American Continent.”

William Lloyd Garrison was quick to note, however, that “slavery, as a system” continued to exist in the loyal slave states. Yet where slavery remained, the proclamation encouraged many enslaved Africans to escape when the Union troops came near. They flocked to the Union camps and followed them for protection. The loss of slaves crippled the South’s ability to wage war.

**Reading Check**  
**Finding Main Ideas** How did northerners view the Emancipation Proclamation?
Congress began allowing the army to sign up African American volunteers as laborers in July 1862. The War Department also gave contrabands, or escaped slaves, the right to join the Union army in South Carolina. Free African Americans in Louisiana and Kansas also formed their own units in the Union army. By the spring of 1863, African American army units were proving themselves in combat. They took part in a Union attack on Port Hudson, Louisiana, in May.

One unit stood out above the others. The 54th Massachusetts Infantry consisted mostly of free African Americans. In July 1863 this regiment led a heroic charge on South Carolina’s Fort Wagner. The 54th took heavy fire and suffered huge casualties in the failed operation. About half the regiment was killed, wounded, or captured. Edward L. Pierce, a correspondent for the New York Tribune, wrote, “The Fifty-fourth did well and nobly...They moved up as gallantly as any troops could, and with their enthusiasm they deserved a better fate.” The bravery of the 54th regiment made it the most celebrated African American unit of the war.

About 180,000 African Americans served with the Union army. They received $10 a month, while white soldiers got $13. They were usually led by white officers, some from abolitionist families.

African Americans faced special horrors on the battlefield. Confederates often killed their black captives or sold them into slavery. In the 1864 election, Lincoln suggested rewarding African American soldiers by giving them the right to vote.

**Analyzing Information**

How did African Americans support the Union?

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**Primary Source**

**LETTER**

**June 23, 1863**

Joseph E. Williams, an African American soldier and recruiter from Pennsylvania, wrote this letter describing why African Americans fought for the Union.

“We are now determined to hold every step which has been offered to us as citizens of the United States for our elevation [benefit], which represent justice, the purity, the truth, and aspiration [hope] of heaven. We must learn deeply to realize the duty, the moral and political necessity for the benefit of our race...Every consideration of honor, of interest, and of duty to God and man, requires that we should be true to our trust.”

—quoted in A Grand Army of Black Men, edited by Edwin S. Redkey

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**African Americans Participate in the War**

As the war casualties climbed, the Union needed even more troops. African Americans were ready to volunteer. Not all white northerners were ready to accept them, but eventually they had to. Frederick Douglass believed that military service would help African Americans gain rights.

“Once let the black man get upon his person the brass letters, U.S.; ... and a musket on his shoulder and bullets in his pocket, and there is no power on earth which can deny that he has earned the right to citizenship.”

—Frederick Douglass, quoted in The Life and Writings of Frederick Douglass, Vol. 3
Growing Opposition

The deepening shadows in Lincoln’s face reflected the huge responsibilities he carried. Besides running the war, he had to deal with growing tensions in the North.

Copperheads

As the months rolled on and the number of dead continued to increase, a group of northern Democrats began speaking out against the war. Led by U.S. Representative Clement L. Vallandigham of Ohio, they called themselves Peace Democrats. Their enemies called them Copperheads, comparing them to a poisonous snake. The name stuck.

Many Copperheads were midwesterners that sympathized with the South and opposed abolition. They believed the war was not necessary and called for its end. Vallandigham asked what the war had gained, and then said, “Let the dead at Fredericksburg and Vicksburg answer.”

Lincoln saw the Copperheads as a threat to support of the war effort. To silence them, he suspended the right of habeas corpus.

Habeas corpus is a constitutional protection against unlawful imprisonment. Ignoring this protection, Union officials jailed their enemies, including some Copperheads, without evidence or trial. Lincoln’s action greatly angered Democrats and some Republicans.

Northern Draft

In March 1863, war critics erupted again when Congress approved a draft, or forced military service. For $300, men were allowed to buy their way out of military service. For an unskilled laborer, however, that was nearly a year’s wages. Critics of the draft called the Civil War a “rich man’s war and a poor man’s fight.”

In July 1863, riots broke out when African Americans were brought into New York City to replace striking Irish dock workers. The city happened to be holding a war draft at the same time. The two events enraged rioters, who attacked African Americans and draft offices. More than 100 people died.

In this tense situation, the northern Democrats nominated former General George McClellan for president in 1864. They called

Infantry Family

While wealthy civilians could avoid military service, poorer men were drafted to serve in the Union army. This member of the 31st Pennsylvania Infantry brought his family along with him. His wife probably helped the soldier with many daily chores such as cooking and laundry.

Why would soldiers bring their families to live with them in camp?
Battlefield Communications

The drummer was an essential member of every Civil War unit. Drummers served army commanders by drumming specific beats that directed troop movements during battle. Different beats were used to order troops to prepare to attack, to fire, to cease fire, and to signal a truce. Drummers had to stay near their commanders to hear orders. This meant that the drummers—some as young as nine years old—often saw deadly combat conditions. The Civil War gave birth to the Signal Corps, the army unit devoted to communications. Today battlefield communications are primarily electronic. Radio, e-mail, facsimile, and telephone messages, often relayed by satellites, enable orders and other information to be transmitted nearly instantaneously all over the globe.

Drum Corps of 61st New York Infantry

Modern battlefield communications

LINKING TO TODAY

Why is communication so important on the battlefield?

ANALYZING INFORMATION

Why is communication so important on the battlefield?

ANALYSIS SKILL

Why is communication so important on the battlefield?

ANALYSIS SKILL

Why is communication so important on the battlefield?

ANALYSIS SKILL

Why is communication so important on the battlefield?
Life as a Civilian
The war effort involved all levels of society. Women as well as people too young or too old for military service worked in factories and on farms. Economy in the North boomed as production and prices soared. The lack of workers caused wages to rise by 43 percent between 1860 and 1865.

Women were the backbone of civilian life. On the farms, women and children performed the daily chores usually done by men. One visitor to Iowa in 1862 reported that he “met more women . . . at work in the fields than men.” Southern women also managed farms and plantations.

One woman brought strength and comfort to countless wounded Union soldiers. Volunteer Clara Barton organized the collection of medicine and supplies for delivery to the battlefield. At the field hospitals, the “angel of the battlefield” soothed the wounded and dying and assisted doctors as bullets flew around her. Barton’s work formed the basis for the future American Red Cross.

In the South, Sally Louisa Tompkins established a small hospital in Richmond, Virginia. By the end of the war, it had grown into a major army hospital. Jefferson Davis recognized her value to the war effort by making her a captain in the Confederate army.

Reading Check  Analyzing  How did women help the war effort on both sides?

Summary and Preview  Many lives were changed by the war. In the next section you will learn about the end of the war.

Critical Thinking
5. Identifying Effects  Review your notes. Then copy the graphic organizer below. Use it to summarize the reasons for the Emancipation Proclamation, its main points, and its effects on different people.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for the Emancipation Proclamation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main points of the Proclamation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect on People’s Lives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Focus on Writing
6. Taking Notes on Life During the War  As you read this section, take notes on the emancipation of the slaves, African American soldiers, and women who provided medical care for soldiers. Answer the following questions: Who? Where? When? Why? and How?

Section 4 Assessment
Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People
1. a. Recall  Why did some Americans want to end slavery?
   b. Contrast  How did reactions to the Emancipation Proclamation differ?
   c. Elaborate  Do you think that the emancipation of slaves should have extended to the border states? Explain your answer.

2. a. Recall  Why did some northerners want to recruit African Americans into the Union army?
   b. Contrast  In what ways did African American soldiers face more difficulties than white soldiers did?

3. a. Identify  Who were Copperheads, and why did they oppose the war?
   b. Evaluate  Should President Lincoln have suspended the right to habeas corpus? Why?

4. a. Describe  What were conditions like in military camps?
   b. Draw Conclusions  How did the war change life on the home front?
Abraham Lincoln

What would you do to save the struggling Union?

When did he live? 1809–1865

Where did he live? Abraham Lincoln was born in a log cabin to a poor family in Kentucky. Growing up in Kentucky and Illinois, Lincoln went to school for less than a year. He taught himself law and settled in Springfield, where he practiced law and politics. As president he lived in Washington, D.C. There, at age 56, his life was cut short by an assassin, John Wilkes Booth.

What did he do? The issue of slavery defined Lincoln’s political career. He was not an abolitionist, but he strongly opposed extending slavery into the territories. In a series of famous debates against Senator Stephen Douglas of Illinois, Lincoln championed his views on slavery and made a brilliant defense of democracy and the Union. As president, Lincoln led the nation through the Civil War.

Why is he important? Lincoln is one of the great symbols of American democracy. “A house divided against itself cannot stand,” he declared in a debate with Douglas. In 1863 Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation. His address to commemorate the bloody battlefield at Gettysburg is widely considered to be one of the best political speeches in American history.

Summarizing Why is Lincoln such an important figure in American history?

Lincoln’s address at the dedication of the Gettysburg National Cemetery.
CHAPTER 16

What You Will Learn…

Main Ideas
1. The Union tried to divide the Confederate Army at Fredericksburg, but the attempt failed.
2. The Battle of Gettysburg in 1863 was a major turning point in the war.
3. During 1864, Union campaigns in the East and South dealt crippling blows to the Confederacy.
4. Union troops forced the South to surrender in 1865, ending the Civil War.

The Big Idea
Union victories in 1863, 1864, and 1865 ended the Civil War.

Key Terms and People
Battle of Gettysburg, p. 537
George Pickett, p. 539
Pickett’s Charge, p. 539
Gettysburg Address, p. 540
Wilderness Campaign, p. 540
William Tecumseh Sherman, p. 541
total war, p. 542
Appomattox Courthouse, p. 542

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the events that led to the end of the Civil War.

The Tide of War Turns

If YOU were there…

You live in southern Pennsylvania in 1863, near a battlefield where thousands died. Now people have come from miles around to dedicate a cemetery here. You are near the front of the crowd. The first speaker impresses everyone with two hours of dramatic words and gestures. Then President Lincoln speaks—just a few minutes of simple words. Many people are disappointed.

Why do you think the president’s speech was so short?

Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville

Frustrated by McClellan’s lack of aggression, Lincoln replaced him with General Ambrose E. Burnside as leader of the Army of the Potomac. Burnside favored a swift, decisive attack on Richmond by way of Fredericksburg. In November 1862, he set out with 120,000 troops.

Burnside’s tactics surprised General Lee. The Confederate commander had divided his force of 78,000 men. Neither section of the Confederate army was in a good position to defend Fredericksburg. However, Burnside’s army experienced delays in crossing the Rappahannock River. These delays allowed Lee’s army to reunite and entrench themselves around Fredericksburg. Finally, the Union army crossed the Rappahannock and launched a series of charges. These attacks had heavy casualties and failed to break the Confederate line. Eventually, after suffering about 12,600 casualties, Burnside ordered a retreat. The Confederates had about 5,300 casualties.

Soon Burnside stepped down from his position. Lincoln made General Joseph Hooker the commander of the Army of the Potomac. At the end of April 1863, Hooker and his army of about 138,000 men launched a frontal attack on Fredericksburg. Then Hooker
ordered about 115,000 of his troops to split off and approach the Confederate’s flank, or side. Hooker’s strategy seemed about to work. But for some reason he hesitated and had his flanking troops take a defensive position at Chancellorsville. This town was located a few miles west of Fredericksburg.

The following day, Lee used most of his army (about 60,000 men) to attack Hooker’s troops at Chancellorsville. Stonewall Jackson led an attack on Hooker’s flank while Lee commanded an assault on the Union front. The Union army was almost cut in two. They managed to form a defensive line, which they held for three days. Then Hooker ordered a retreat.

Lee’s army won a major victory. But this victory had severe casualties. During the battle, Lee’s trusted general, Stonewall Jackson, was accidentally shot by his own troops. He died a few days later.

**Battle of Gettysburg**

General Lee launched more attacks within Union territory. As before, his goal was to break the North’s will to fight. He also hoped that a victory would convince other nations to recognize the Confederacy.

**First Day**

In early June 1863, Lee cut across northern Maryland into southern Pennsylvania. His forces gathered west of a small town called Gettysburg. Lee was unaware that Union soldiers were encamped closer to town. He had been suffering from lack of enemy information for three days because his cavalry chief “Jeb” Stuart was not performing his duties. Stuart and his cavalry had gone off on their own raiding party, disobeying Lee’s orders.

Another Confederate raiding party went to Gettysburg for boots and other supplies. There, Lee’s troops ran right into Union general George G. Meade’s cavalry, triggering the **Battle of Gettysburg**, a key battle that finally turned the tide against the Confederates. The battle began on July 1, 1863, when the
Confederate raiding party and the Union forces began exchanging fire. The larger Confederate forces began to push the Union troops back through Gettysburg.

The Union soldiers regrouped along the high ground of Cemetery Ridge and Culp’s Hill. General Lee wanted to prevent the Union forces from entrenching themselves. He therefore ordered General Ewell to attack immediately. However, Ewell hesitated and thereby gave the Federals time to establish an excellent defensive position.

In fact, Confederate General James Longstreet thought that the Union position was almost impossible to overrun. Instead of attacking, he felt that the Confederate army should move east, take a strong defensive position themselves, and wait for the Union forces to attack them. However, General Lee was not convinced. He believed that his troops were invincible.

The Confederates camped at Seminary Ridge, which ran parallel to the Union forces. Both camps called for their main forces to reinforce them and prepare for combat the next day.

**Second Day**

On July 2, Lee ordered an attack on the left side of the Union line. Lee knew that he could win the battle if his troops captured Little Round Top from the Union forces. From this hill, Lee’s troops could easily fire down on the line of Union forces. Union forces and Confederate troops fought viciously for control of Little Round Top. The fighting was particularly fierce on the south side of the hill. There the 20th Maine led by Colonel Joshua Chamberlain battled the 15th Alabama led by Colonel William Oates. Later, when describing the conflict, Oates said, “The blood stood in puddles in some places in the rocks.” Eventually, the Union forced the Confederates to pull back from Little Round Top.

Then the Confederates attacked Cemetery Hill and Culp’s Hill. The fighting lasted until nightfall. The assault on Cemetery Hill was unsuccessful. The Confederates did manage to take a few trenches on Culp’s Hill. Even so, the Union forces still held a strong defensive position by the day’s end.
Pickett’s Charge

On the third day of battle, Longstreet again tried to convince Lee not to attack. But Lee thought that the Union forces were severely battered and ready to break. Because of this, he planned to attack the center of the Union line on Cemetery Ridge. Such a tactic, he felt, would not be expected. Indeed, General Meade left only about 5,750 troops to defend the center.

For over an hour, the Confederates shelled Cemetery Ridge with cannon fire. For a while, the Union cannons fired back. Then they slacked off. The Confederates assumed that they had seriously damaged the Union artillery. In reality, the Confederate barrage did little damage.

The task of charging the Union center fell to three divisions of Confederate soldiers. General George Pickett commanded the largest unit. In late afternoon, nearly 15,000 men took part in Pickett’s Charge. For one mile, the Confederates marched slowly up toward Cemetery Ridge. Showered with cannon and rifle fire, they suffered severe losses. But eventually, some of them almost reached their destination. Then Union reinforcements added to the barrage on the rebels. Soon the Pickett’s Charge proved a disaster for the Confederate attackers. Fewer than half of them survived.

**Day Three: July 3, 1863**

Pickett’s Charge proved a disaster for the Confederate attackers. Fewer than half of them survived.
Confederates retreated, leaving about 7,500 casualties on the field of battle. Distressed by this defeat, General Lee rode among the survivors and told them, “It is all my fault.”

On the fourth day, Lee began to retreat to Virginia. In all, nearly 75,000 Confederate soldiers and 90,000 Union troops had fought during the Battle of Gettysburg.

General Meade decided not to follow Lee’s army. This decision angered Lincoln. He felt that Meade had missed an opportunity to crush the Confederates and possibly end the war.

**Aftermath of Gettysburg**

Gettysburg was a turning point in the war. Lee’s troops would never again launch an attack in the North. The Union victory at Gettysburg took place on the day before Grant’s capture of Vicksburg, Mississippi. These victories made northerners believe that the war could be won.

In addition, the Union win at Gettysburg helped to end the South’s search for foreign influence in the war. After Gettysburg, Great Britain and France refused to provide aid to the Confederacy. The South’s attempt at cotton diplomacy failed.

**The Gettysburg Address**

On November 19, 1863, at the dedicating ceremony of the Gettysburg battlefield cemetery, President Lincoln gave a speech called the Gettysburg Address, in which he praised the bravery of Union soldiers and renewed his commitment to winning the Civil War. This short but moving speech is one of the most famous in American history. In one of its frequently quoted lines, Lincoln referenced the Declaration of Independence and its ideals of liberty, equality, and democracy. He reminded listeners that the war was being fought for those reasons.

Lincoln rededicated himself to winning the war and preserving the Union. A difficult road still lay ahead.

**Union Campaigns Cripple the Confederacy**

Lincoln had been impressed with General Grant’s successes in capturing Vicksburg. He transferred Grant to the East and gave him command of the Union army. In early 1864, Grant forced Lee to fight a series of battles in Virginia that stretched Confederate soldiers and supplies to their limits.

**Wilderness Campaign in the East**

From May through June, the armies fought in northern and central Virginia. Union troops launched the Wilderness Campaign—a series of battles designed to capture the Confederate capital at Richmond, Virginia. The first battle took place in early May, in woods about 50 miles outside of Richmond. Grant then ordered General Meade to Spotsylvania, where the fighting raged for five days.

Over the next month, Union soldiers moved the Confederate troops back toward Richmond. However, Grant experienced his worst defeat at the Battle of Cold Harbor in early June, just 10 miles northeast of Richmond. In only a few hours the Union army suffered 7,000 casualties. The battle delayed Grant’s plans to take the Confederate capital.

Union forces had suffered twice as many casualties as the Confederates had, yet Grant continued his strategy. He knew he would be getting additional soldiers, and Lee could not. Grant slowly but surely advanced his troops through Virginia. He told another officer, “I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer.”

After Cold Harbor, General Grant moved south of Richmond. He had hoped to take control of the key railroad junction at Petersburg, Virginia. Lee’s army, however, formed a solid defense, and Grant could not execute his attack. Grant was winning the war, but he still had not captured Richmond. Facing re-election, Lincoln was especially discouraged by this failure.
Sherman Strikes the South

Lincoln needed a victory for the Union army to help him win re-election in 1864. The bold campaign of General William Tecumseh Sherman provided this key victory. Sherman carried out the Union plan to destroy southern railroads and industries.

In the spring of 1864, Sherman marched south from Tennessee with 100,000 troops. His goal was to take Atlanta, Georgia, and knock out an important railroad link. From May through August, Sherman's army moved steadily through the Appalachian Mountains toward Atlanta. Several times, Sherman avoided defenses set up by Confederate general Joseph Johnston.

In July, Sherman was within sight of Atlanta. Confederate president Jefferson Davis gave General John Hood command of Confederate forces in the region. Hood repeatedly attacked Sherman in a final attempt to save Atlanta, but the Union troops proved stronger. The Confederate troops retreated as Sherman held Atlanta under siege.

Atlanta fell to Sherman's troops on September 2, 1864. Much of the city was destroyed by artillery and fire. Sherman ordered the residents who still remained to leave. Responding to his critics, Sherman later wrote, “War is war, and not popularity-seeking.” The loss of Atlanta cost the South an important railroad link and its center of industry.

Many people in the North had been upset with the length of the war. However, the capture of Atlanta showed that progress was being made in defeating the South. This success helped to convince Union voters to re-elect Lincoln in a landslide.

Sherman did not wait long to begin his next campaign. His goal was the port city of Savannah, Georgia. In mid-November 1864,
Sherman left Atlanta with a force of about 60,000 men. He said he would “make Georgia howl!”

During his March to the Sea, Sherman practiced total war—destroying civilian and economic resources. Sherman believed that total war would ruin the South’s economy and its ability to fight. He ordered his troops to destroy railways, bridges, crops, livestock, and other resources. They burned plantations and freed slaves.

Sherman’s army reached Savannah on December 10, 1864. They left behind a path of destruction 60 miles wide. Sherman believed that this march would speed the end of the war. He wanted to break the South’s will to fight by marching Union troops through the heart of the Confederacy. In the end, Sherman’s destruction of the South led to anger and resentment toward the people of the North that would last for generations.

**Reading Check**

**Drawing Conclusions**
How did Sherman hope to help the Union with his total-war strategy?

**The South Surrenders**

In early April, Sherman closed in on the last Confederate defenders in North Carolina. At the same time, Grant finally broke through the Confederate defenses at Petersburg. On April 2, Lee was forced to retreat from Richmond.

**Fighting Ends**

By the second week of April 1865, Grant had surrounded Lee’s army and demanded the soldiers’ surrender. Lee hoped to join other Confederates in fighting in North Carolina, but Grant cut off his escape just west of Richmond. Lee tried some last-minute attacks but could not break the Union line. Lee’s forces were running low on supplies. General James Longstreet told about the condition of Confederate troops. “Many weary soldiers were picked up . . . some with, many without, arms [weapons],—all asking for food.”

Trapped by the Union army, Lee recognized that the situation was hopeless. “There is nothing left for me to do but go and see General Grant,” Lee said, “and I would rather die a thousand deaths.”

On April 9, 1865, the Union and Confederate leaders met at a home in the small town of Appomattox Courthouse where Lee surrendered to Grant, thus ending the Civil War.

During the meeting, Grant assured Lee that his troops would be fed and allowed to keep their horses, and they would not be tried for treason. Then Lee signed the surrender documents. The long, bloody war had finally ended. Grant later wrote that he found the scene at Appomattox Courthouse more tragic than joyful.

“I felt . . . sad and depressed at the downfall of a foe [enemy] who had fought so long and valiantly [bravely], and had suffered so much for a cause, though that cause was, I believe, one of the worst for which a people ever fought.”

—Ulysses S. Grant, *Battle Cry of Freedom*
As General Lee returned to his troops, General Grant stopped Union forces from cheering their victory. “The war is over,” Grant said with relief. “The rebels are our countrymen again.”

The Effects of the War

The Civil War had deep and long-lasting effects. Almost 620,000 Americans lost their lives during the four years of fighting.

The defeat of the South ended slavery there. The majority of former slaves, however, had no homes or jobs. The southern economy was in ruins.

A tremendous amount of hostility remained, even after the fighting had ceased. The war was over, but the question remained: How could the United States be united once more?

READING CHECK Predicting What problems might the Union face following the Civil War?

SUMMARY AND PREVIEW After four long years of battles, the Civil War ended with General Lee’s surrender at Appomattox Courthouse. In the next chapter you will read about the consequences of the war in the South.
**Define the Skill**

*Political cartoons* are drawings that express views on important issues. They have been used throughout history to influence public opinion. The ability to interpret political cartoons will help you understand issues and people’s attitudes about them.

**Learn the Skill**

Political cartoons use both words and images to convey their message. They often contain caricatures or symbolism. A caricature is a drawing that exaggerates the features of a person or object. Symbolism is the use of one thing to represent something else. Cartoonists use these techniques to help make their point clear. They also use titles, labels, and captions to get their message across.

Use these steps to interpret political cartoons.

1. Read any title, labels, and caption to identify the cartoon’s general topic.
2. Identify the people and objects. Determine if they are exaggerated and, if so, why. Identify any symbols and analyze their meaning.
3. Draw conclusions about the message the cartoonist is trying to convey.

The following cartoon was published in the North in 1863. The cartoonist has used symbols to make his point. Lady Liberty, representing the Union, is being threatened by the Copperheads. The cartoonist has expressed his opinion of these people by drawing them as the poisonous snake for which they were named. This cartoon clearly supports the Union’s continuing to fight the war.

**Practice the Skill**

Apply the guidelines to interpret the cartoon below and answer the questions that follow.

1. What do the two men on either side of Lincoln represent?
2. What message do you think the artist was trying to convey?
**Visual Summary**

Use the visual summary below to help you review the main ideas of the chapter.

**Quick Facts**

1861

Union

Confederacy

**History’s Impact**

Review the video to answer the closing question:

*How do you think the age of a country relates to its citizens’ national pride?*

**Chapter Review**

**Reviewing Vocabulary, Terms, and People**

Match the numbered definitions with the correct terms from the list below.

a. contrabands
b. cotton diplomacy
c. Second Battle of Bull Run
d. Siege of Vicksburg
e. Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson

1. Attack by Union general Ulysses S. Grant that gave the North control of the Mississippi River
2. Confederate general who held off Union attacks and helped the South win the First Battle of Bull Run
3. Important Confederate victory in which General Robert E. Lee defeated Union troops and pushed into Union territory for the first time
4. Southern strategy of using cotton exports to gain Britain’s support in the Civil War
5. Term given to escaped slaves from the South

**Comprehension and Critical Thinking**

**SECTION 1** (Pages 510–515)

6. a. **Identify** When and where did fighting in the U.S. Civil War begin?
   b. **Analyze** How did civilians help the war effort in both the North and the South?
   c. **Elaborate** Why do you think the border states chose to remain in the Union despite their support of slavery?

**SECTION 2** (Pages 516–521)

7. a. **Identify** What was the first major battle of the war? What was the outcome of the battle?
   b. **Analyze** What was the Union army hoping to accomplish when it marched into Virginia at the start of the war?
   c. **Evaluate** Was the Union’s naval blockade of the South successful? Why or why not?
SECTION 3 (Pages 522–525)

8. **a. Identify** Which side did the Cherokee support in the fighting at Pea Ridge? Why?
   **b. Draw Conclusions** What progress did Union leaders make in the war in the West?
   **c. Evaluate** Which victory in the West was most valuable to the Union? Why?

SECTION 4 (Pages 528–534)

9. **a. Describe** What responsibilities did women take on during the war?
   **b. Analyze** What opposition to the war did President Lincoln face, and how did he deal with that opposition?
   **c. Predict** What might be some possible problems that the newly freed slaves in the South might face?

SECTION 5 (Pages 536–543)

10. **a. Recall** When and where did the war finally end?
    **b. Compare and Contrast** How were the efforts of Generals Grant and Sherman at the end of the war similar and different?
    **c. Elaborate** What do you think led to the South’s defeat in the Civil War? Explain.

Reading Skills

**Supporting Facts and Details** Use the Reading Skills taught in this chapter to answer the question about the reading selection below.

Lee was unaware that Union soldiers were encamped closer to town. He had been suffering from lack of enemy information for three days because his cavalry chief “Jeb” Stuart was not performing his duties. Stuart and his cavalry had gone off on their own raiding party, disobeying Lee’s orders. (p. 537)

12. What is the main idea of the above reading selection?
   **a. “Jeb” Stuart was not performing his duties.**
   **b. Stuart and his cavalry had gone off on their own.**
   **c. Stuart and his cavalry disobeyed Lee’s orders.**
   **d. Lee was suffering from a lack of enemy information.**

Reviewing Themes

13. **Society and Culture** What effects did the Civil War have on American society?
14. **Politics** What political difficulties did the Emancipation Proclamation cause for President Lincoln?

Using the Internet

15. **Activity: Writing a Poem** Soldiers in the Civil War came from all walks of life. Despite hoping for glory and adventure, many encountered dangerous and uncomfortable conditions. Through your online textbook, learn more about Civil War soldiers. After viewing photographs and reading letters, write a poem describing the life of a soldier. Your poem should reflect on the soldier’s emotions and experiences.

Social Studies Skills

**Interpreting Political Cartoons** Use the Social Studies Skills taught in this chapter to answer the question about the political cartoon below.

11. What do you think the artist is saying about politicians with this cartoon?

Focus on Writing

16. **Write Your Newspaper Article** Review your notes. Then choose the subject you think would make the best newspaper article. Write an attention-grabbing headline. Then write your article, giving as many facts as possible.
DIRECTIONS: Read each question and write the letter of the best response.

1 Use the map below to answer the following question.

The place where two major battles of the Civil War were fought is indicated on the map by which letter?
A W
B X
C Y
D Z

2 The Battle of Gettysburg was an important battle of the Civil War because
A it was an overwhelming Confederate victory.
B the Union army’s advance on the Confederate capital was stopped.
C it ended Lee’s hopes of advancing into northern territory.
D it enabled the Union to control the Mississippi River.

3 Overall command of Confederate forces in Virginia during most of the Civil War was held by
A Jefferson Davis.
B William Tecumseh Sherman.
C Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson.
D Robert E. Lee.

4 Which of Lincoln’s speeches and writings praised the efforts of Union soldiers?
A the Emancipation Proclamation
B the first inaugural address (1861)
C the second inaugural address (1865)
D the Gettysburg Address

5 The tactics that Sherman used against Confederate armies in the South were based on what strategy?
A cutting off troops from their officers
B a naval blockade of southern ports
C destroying the South’s resources and economy
D hit-and-run attacks on major southern cities

6 In the War of 1812 the British navy blockaded American seaports in the hope that the U.S. economy would suffer and the United States would surrender. Which Civil War strategy was similar?
A Scott’s plan to destroy the southern economy
B Sherman’s March to the Sea
C General Ulysses S. Grant’s capture of Vicksburg
D Admiral David Farragut’s defeat of New Orleans

7 Read the following quote from Grant about Lee’s surrender and use it to answer the question below.

“What General Lee’s feelings were I do not know. He was a man of much dignity, without expression on his face. It was impossible to say whether he felt inwardly glad that the end had finally come, or felt sad over the result, and was too manly to show it. Whatever his feelings, they were entirely hidden from me.”
—Ulysses S. Grant, adapted from Personal Memoirs of U.S. Grant, Vol. 2

Document-Based Question What is your opinion about what Lee might have been feeling during his surrender?
Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, was a sleepy agricultural town of about 2,400 residents when the Civil War arrived on its doorstep in the early summer of 1863. Many of the town’s men were elsewhere, either fighting in the war or guarding their livestock in the countryside. This left mostly women and children to endure the battle. For three terrifying days they hid in basements or in tightly shuttered houses. Even after the battle finally ended the horrors continued, as the Gettysburg civilians emerged to find a scene of unimaginable death and destruction.

Explore some of the personal stories and recollections of the Gettysburg civilians online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at hmhsocialstudies.com.
A Young Woman’s Account
Read the document to witness the arrival of Confederate troops through the eyes of a Gettysburg teenager.

“I had scarcely reached the front door, when, on looking up the street, I saw some of the men on horseback... What a horrible sight!... I was fully persuaded that the Rebels had actually come at last. What they would do with us was a fearful question to my young mind...”

— Tillie Pierce, age 15

A Citizen-Soldier
Watch the video to meet John Burns, the man who would come to be called the “Citizen Hero of Gettysburg.”

A Family’s Story
Watch the video to discover the story of courage and commitment exhibited by one Gettysburg family.

The National Cemetery
Watch the video to learn about the Soldiers’ National Cemetery and the speech President Lincoln gave there.
CHAPTER 17, Reconstruction, (1865–1877)

1868: Jonathan Gibbs (1827–1874), an African American, serves as Florida’s secretary of state. Jonathan Gibbs was born in Pennsylvania and studied at two prestigious schools: Dartmouth College and Princeton University. As a free man and a Presbyterian minister, Gibbs worked for equal rights for African Americans before and after the Civil War. He moved to Florida in 1865, joined the Republican Party, and was a delegate to the Florida State Constitutional Convention in 1868. After serving as secretary of state for four years, he became Florida’s superintendent of public education in 1872.

1866: Freed slaves begin to build Lincolnville. After the Civil War, African Americans settled in an area of St. Augustine that, in 1878, was named Lincolnville. The neighborhood’s residents built homes and churches, established businesses, and engaged in local politics. Nevertheless, over the next several decades, St. Augustine became one of the most segregated cities in the nation. During the 1960s, civil rights demonstrations in Lincolnville helped spur passage of the U.S. Civil Rights Act of 1964. Lincolnville was listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1991. With its numerous examples of 19th and 20th century architecture and its history of segregation, Lincolnville today stands as an important reminder of the legacy of Reconstruction and civil rights in the American south.

1865–1866: Southern states adopt Black Codes. After the Civil War, states of the former Confederacy states drew up laws known as Black Codes. These statutes prohibited
African Americans from securing the same rights and freedoms white people enjoyed. By requiring one-year contracts between workers and employers, Black Codes addressed Southern landowners’ fears that African Americans would leave their plantation jobs. Florida codes allowed beatings of African Americans if they broke their contracts by not working, not showing up for work, or by swearing. The Black Codes also defined who would be considered a black person and prohibited African Americans from voting, serving on juries, serving in militias, holding political office, and marrying white people.

**EVENTS 1866: Landowners and African Americans resort to sharecropping to survive.** After the Civil War, freed slaves needed to support themselves. Plantation owners needed workers to farm their land but had no money to pay them. As a result, the two parties engaged in sharecropping. In this arrangement, African Americans rented land and raised crops—mainly cotton and tobacco—on plantations in exchange for a share of the harvest, which they sold for money. As sharecroppers, blacks made little or no money because of the high cost of seed and equipment they needed and reduced prices for crops.

**EVENTS 1868: Florida is readmitted to the Union.** During Reconstruction, the federal government imposed certain standards on southern states before they could rejoin the Union. Florida initially rejected some of the requirements and was placed under federal military rule. After taking legislative action to insure rights for African Americans, Florida was permitted to rejoin the Union.

**Unpacking the Florida Standards**

Read the following to learn what this standard says and what it means. See FL8–FL21 to unpack all other standards related to this chapter.

**SS.8.A.1.6** Compare interpretations of key events and issues throughout American History.

**What does it mean?**
Understand that historians often reach different conclusions when they interpret events of American history and identify different interpretations of key events and issues from American history. Go to the Social Studies Skills lessons that appear at the end of Chapters 4, 5, 9, and 15 for help.

**SPOTLIGHT ON**

**SS.8.A.2.1, SS.8.A.4.17, SS.8.A.4.18** See Spotlight on Florida History for content specifically related to these Chapter 17 standards.
CHAPTER 17 1865–1877

Reconstruction

Essential Question How did a deeply divided nation move forward after the Civil War?

Florida Next Generation Sunshine State Standards
LA.8.1.6.1 The student will use new vocabulary that is introduced and taught directly; LA.8.1.6.2 The student will listen to, read, and discuss familiar and conceptually challenging text; LA.8.1.6.2 The student will assess, organize, synthesize, and evaluate the validity and reliability of information in text, using a variety of techniques by examining several sources of information, including both primary and secondary sources; SS.8.A.1.1 Provide supporting details for an answer from text, interview for oral history, check validity of information from research/text, and identify strong vs. weak arguments. SS.8.A.1.3 Analyze current events relevant to American History topics through a variety of electronic and print media resources. SS.8.A.1.4 Differentiate fact from opinion, utilize appropriate historical research and fiction/nonfiction support materials. SS.8.A.1.6 Compare interpretations of key events and issues throughout American History. SS.8.A.1.7 View historic events through the eyes of those who were there as shown in their art, writings, music, and artifacts. SS.8.A.5.3 Explain major domestic and international economic, military, political, and socio-cultural events of Abraham Lincoln's presidency. SS.8.A.5.8 Explain and evaluate the policies, practices, and consequences of Reconstruction (presidential and congressional reconstruction, Johnson’s impeachment, Civil Rights Act of 1866, the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments, opposition of Southern whites to Reconstruction, accomplishments and failures of Radical Reconstruction, presidential election of 1876, end of Reconstruction, rise of Jim Crow laws, rise of Ku Klux Klan). SS.8.A.6.3 Explain and evaluate the policies, practices, and consequences of Reconstruction (presidential and congressional reconstruction, Johnson’s impeachment, Civil Rights Act of 1866, the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments, opposition of Southern whites to Reconstruction, accomplishments and failures of Radical Reconstruction, presidential election of 1876, end of Reconstruction, rise of Jim Crow laws, rise of Ku Klux Klan). SS.8.A.6.4 Identify the physical elements and the human elements that define and differentiate regions as relevant to American history. SS.8.G.4.6 Use political maps to describe changes in boundaries and governance throughout American history. SS.8.G.5.1 Describe human dependence on the physical environment and natural resources to satisfy basic needs in local environments in the United States.

Focus on Writing
Job History When the Civil War ended, it was time to rebuild. People were ready to get back to work. But life had changed for many people and would continue to change. As you read this chapter, think about jobs people may have had during Reconstruction.
Lincoln’s Legacy

RECONSTRUCTION

1868
President Andrew Johnson is impeached and almost removed from office.

1868
The Meiji dynasty returns to power in Japan.

1869
The Suez Canal opens, linking the Mediterranean and Red seas.

1870
Hiram Revels becomes the first African American to serve in the U.S. Senate.

1871
Otto von Bismarck and Wilhelm I unite Germany.

1875
The Meiji dynasty returns to power in Japan.

1880
The Compromise of 1877 ends Reconstruction.

The ruins of this Virginia plantation stand as a bleak reminder of the changes brought to the South by the Civil War.
Focus on Themes In this chapter you will read about the time immediately after the Civil War. You will see how the government tried to rebuild the South and will learn about how life changed for African Americans after slavery was declared illegal.

You will read about the political conflicts that emerged as southern leadership worked to gain control of Reconstruction efforts. Throughout the chapter, you will read how the culture of the South changed after the War.

Evaluating Historical Information

Focus on Reading History books are full of information. As you read, you are confronted with names, dates, places, terms, and descriptions on every page. You don’t want to have to deal with anything unimportant or untrue.

Identifying Relevant and Essential Information

Information in a history book should be relevant to the topic you’re studying. It should also be essential to understanding the topic and be verifiable. Anything else distracts from the material you are studying.

The first passage below includes several pieces of irrelevant and nonessential information. In the second, this information has been removed. Note how much easier the revised passage is to comprehend.

First Passage

President Abraham Lincoln, who was very tall, wanted to reunite the nation as quickly and painlessly as possible. He had proposed a plan for readmitting the southern states even before the war ended, which happened on a Sunday. Called the Ten Percent Plan, it offered southerners amnesty, or official pardon, for all illegal acts supporting the rebellion. Today a group called Amnesty International works to protect the rights of prisoners. Lincoln’s plan certainly would have worked if it would have been implemented.

Revised Passage

President Abraham Lincoln wanted to reunite the nation as quickly and painlessly as possible. He had proposed a plan for readmitting the southern states even before the war ended. Called the Ten Percent Plan, it offered southerners amnesty, or official pardon, for all illegal acts supporting the rebellion.

From Chapter 17, p. 553

SS.8.A.1.1 Provide supporting details for an answer from text, interview for oral history, check validity of information from research/text, and identify strong vs. weak arguments. SS.8.A.1.4 Differentiate fact from opinion, utilize appropriate historical research and fiction/nonfiction support materials.
You Try It!

The following passage is adapted from the chapter you are about to read. As you read, look for irrelevant, nonessential, or unverifiable information.

The Freedmen’s Bureau

In 1865 Congress established the Freedmen’s Bureau, an agency providing relief for freedpeople and certain poor people in the South. The Bureau had a difficult job. It may have been one of the most difficult jobs ever. At its high point, about 900 agents served the entire South. All 900 people could fit into one hotel ballroom today. Bureau commissioner Oliver O. Howard eventually decided to use the Bureau’s limited budget to distribute food to the poor and to provide education and legal help for freedpeople. One common food in the South at that time was salted meat. The Bureau also helped African American war veterans. Today the Department of Veterans’ Affairs assists American war veterans.

After you read the passage, answer the following questions.

1. Which sentence in this passage is unverifiable and should be cut?

2. Find two sentences in this passage that are irrelevant to the discussion of the Freedmen’s Bureau. What makes those sentences irrelevant?

3. Look at the last sentence of the passage. Do you think this sentence is essential to the discussion? Why or why not?
You are a young soldier who has been fighting in the Civil War for many months. Now that the war is over, you are on your way home. During your journey, you pass plantation manor homes, houses, and barns that have been burned down. No one is doing spring planting in the fields. As you near your family’s farm, you see that fences and sheds have been destroyed. You wonder what is left of your home and family.

What would you think your future on the farm would be like?

**Building Background**

When the Civil War ended, much of the South lay in ruins. Like the young soldier above, many people returned to destroyed homes and farms. Harvests of corn, cotton, rice, and other crops fell far below normal. Many farm animals had been killed or were roaming free. These were some of the challenges in restoring the nation.

**Reconstruction Begins**

After the Civil War ended in 1865, the U.S. government faced the problem of dealing with the defeated southern states. The challenges of Reconstruction, the process of readmitting the former Confederate states to the Union, lasted from 1865 to 1877.
**Damaged South**

Tired southern soldiers returned home to find that the world they had known before the war was gone. Cities, towns, and farms had been ruined. Because of high food prices and widespread crop failures, many southerners faced starvation. The Confederate money held by most southerners was now worthless. Banks failed, and merchants had gone bankrupt because people could not pay their debts.

Former Confederate general Braxton Bragg was one of many southerners who faced economic hardship. He found that “all, all was lost, except my debts.” In South Carolina, Mary Boykin Chesnut wrote in her diary about the isolation she experienced after the war. “We are shut in here . . . All RR's [railroads] destroyed—bridges gone. We are cut off from the world.”

**Lincoln’s Plan**

President Abraham Lincoln wanted to reunite the nation as quickly and painlessly as possible. He had proposed a plan for readmitting the southern states even before the war ended. Called the Ten Percent Plan, it offered southerners amnesty, or official pardon, for all illegal acts supporting the rebellion. To receive amnesty, southerners had to do two things. They had to swear an oath of loyalty to the United States. They also had to agree that slavery was illegal. Once 10 percent of voters in a state made these pledges, they could form a new government. The state then could be readmitted to the Union.

Louisiana quickly elected a new state legislature under the Ten Percent Plan. Other southern states that had been occupied by Union troops soon followed Louisiana back into the United States.

**Wade-Davis Bill**

Some politicians argued that Congress, not the president, should control the southern states’ return to the Union. They believed that Congress had the power to admit new states. Also, many Republican members of Congress thought the Ten Percent Plan did not go far enough. A senator from Michigan expressed their views.

> “The people of the North are not such fools as to . . . turn around and say to the traitors, ‘all you have to do [to return] is . . . take an oath that henceforth you will be true to the Government.’”

—Senator Jacob Howard, quoted in Reconstruction: America’s Unfinished Revolution, 1863–1877, by Eric Foner

Two Republicans—Senator Benjamin Wade and Representative Henry Davis—had an alternative to Lincoln’s plan. Following procedures of the Wade-Davis bill, a state had to meet two conditions before it could rejoin the Union. First, it had to ban slavery. Second, a majority of adult males in the state had to take the loyalty oath.

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*War destroyed Richmond, Virginia, once the capital of the Confederacy.*
Under the Wade-Davis bill, only southerners who swore that they had never supported the Confederacy could vote or hold office. In general, the bill was much stricter than the Ten Percent Plan. Its provisions would make it harder for southern states to rejoin the Union quickly.

President Lincoln therefore refused to sign the bill into law. He thought that few southern states would agree to meet its requirements. He believed that his plan would help restore order more quickly.

**READING CHECK**  
Contrasting How was the Ten Percent Plan different from the Wade-Davis bill?

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**Freedom for African Americans**

One thing Republicans agreed on was abolishing slavery. The Emancipation Proclamation had freed slaves only in areas that had not been occupied by Union forces, not in the border states. Many people feared that the federal courts might someday declare the proclamation unconstitutional.

**Slavery Ends**

On January 31, 1865, at President Lincoln’s urging, Congress proposed the Thirteenth Amendment. This amendment made slavery illegal throughout the United States.
The freedpeople at left have packed their household belongings and are leaving Richmond. Many people traveled in search of relatives. Others placed newspaper advertisements looking for long-lost relatives. For other freedpeople, like the couple above, freedom brought the right to marry.

In what ways did former slaves react to freedom?

The amendment was ratified and took effect on December 18, 1865. When abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison heard the news, he declared that his work was now finished. He called for the American Anti-Slavery Society to break up. Not all abolitionists agreed that their work was done, however. Frederick Douglass insisted that “slavery is not abolished until the black man has the ballot [vote].”

Freedom brought important changes to newly freed slaves. Many couples held ceremonies to legalize marriages that had not been recognized under slavery. Many freedpeople searched for relatives who had been sold away from their families years earlier. Others placed newspaper ads seeking information about their children. Many women began to work at home instead of in the fields. Still others adopted children of dead relatives to keep families together. Church members established voluntary associations and mutual-aid societies to help those in need.

Now that they could travel without a pass, many freedpeople moved from mostly white counties to places with more African Americans. Other freedpeople traveled simply to test their new freedom of movement. A South Carolina woman explained this need. “I must go, if I stay here I’ll never know I’m free.”

For most former slaves, freedom to travel was just the first step on a long road toward equal rights and new ways of life. Adults took new last names and began to insist on being called Mr. or Mrs. as a sign of respect, rather than by their first names or by nicknames. Freedpeople began to demand the same economic and political rights as white citizens. Henry Adams, a former slave, argued that “if I cannot do like a white man I am not free.”

Forty Acres to Farm?

Many former slaves wanted their own land to farm. Near the end of the Civil War, Union general William Tecumseh Sherman had issued an order to break up plantations in coastal South Carolina and Georgia. He wanted to divide the land into 40-acre plots and give them to former slaves as compensation for their forced labor before the war.

Many white planters refused to surrender their land. Some freedpeople pointed out that it was only fair that they receive some of this land because their labor had made the plantations prosper. In the end, the U.S. government returned the land to its original owners. At this time, many freedpeople were unsure about where they would live, what kind of work they would do, and what rights they had. Freedoms that were theirs by law were difficult to enforce.
**Freedmen’s Bureau**

In 1865 Congress established the **Freedmen’s Bureau**, an agency providing relief for freedpeople and certain poor people in the South. The Bureau had a difficult job. At its high point, about 900 agents served the entire South. Bureau commissioner Oliver O. Howard eventually decided to use the Bureau’s limited budget to distribute food to the poor and to provide education and legal help for freedpeople. The Bureau also helped African American war veterans.

The Freedmen’s Bureau played an important role in establishing more schools in the South. Laws against educating slaves meant that most freedpeople had never learned to read or write. Before the war ended, however, northern groups, such as the American Missionary Association, began providing books and teachers to African Americans. The teachers were mostly women who were committed to helping freedpeople. One teacher said of her students, “I never before saw children so eager to learn... It is wonderful how [they]... can have so great a desire for knowledge, and such a capacity for attaining [reaching] it.”

After the war, some freedpeople organized their own education efforts. For example, Freedmen’s Bureau agents found that some African Americans had opened schools in abandoned buildings. Many white southerners continued to believe that African Americans should not be educated. Despite opposition, by 1869 more than 150,000 African American students were attending more than 3,000 schools. The Freedmen’s Bureau also helped establish a number of universities for African Americans, including Howard and Fisk universities.

Students quickly filled the new classrooms. Working adults attended classes in the evening. African Americans hoped that education would help them to understand and protect their rights and to enable them to find better jobs. Both black and white southerners benefited from the effort to provide greater access to education in the South.

**READING CHECK**

Analyzing How did the Freedmen’s Bureau help reform education in the South?

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**Helping the Freedpeople**

Congress created the Freedmen’s Bureau to help freedpeople and poor southerners recover from the Civil War. The Bureau assisted people by:

- providing supplies and medical services
- establishing schools
- supervising contracts between freedpeople and employers
- taking care of lands abandoned or captured during the war

What role did the Freedmen’s Bureau play during Reconstruction?
**President Johnson’s Reconstruction Plan**

While the Freedmen’s Bureau was helping African Americans, the issue of how the South would politically rejoin the Union remained unresolved. Soon, however, a tragic event ended Lincoln’s dream of peacefully reuniting the country.

**A New President**

On the evening of April 14, 1865, President Lincoln and his wife attended a play at Ford’s Theater in Washington, D.C. During the play, John Wilkes Booth, a southerner who opposed Lincoln’s policies, sneaked into the president’s theater box and shot him. Lincoln was rushed to a boardinghouse across the street, where he died early the next morning. Vice President Andrew Johnson was sworn into office quickly. Reconstruction had now become his responsibility. He would have to win the trust of a nation shocked at its leader’s death.

Johnson’s plan for bringing southern states back into the Union was similar to Lincoln’s plan. However, he decided that wealthy southerners and former Confederate officials would need a presidential pardon to receive amnesty. Johnson shocked Radical Republicans by eventually pardoning more than 7,000 people by 1866.

**New State Governments**

Johnson was a Democrat whom Republicans had put on the ticket in 1864 to appeal to the border states. A former slaveholder, he was a stubborn man who would soon face a hostile Congress.

Johnson offered a mild program for setting up new southern state governments. First, he appointed a temporary governor for each state. Then he required that the states revise their constitutions. Next, voters elected state and federal representatives. The new state government had to declare that secession was illegal. It also had to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment and refuse to pay Confederate debts.

By the end of 1865, all the southern states except Texas had created new governments. Johnson approved them all and declared that the United States was restored. Newly elected representatives came to Washington from each reconstructed southern state. However, Republicans complained that many new representatives had been leaders of the Confederacy. Congress therefore refused to readmit the southern states into the Union. Clearly, the nation was still divided.

**READING CHECK**

**Summarizing** What was President Johnson’s plan for Reconstruction?

**Summary and Preview** In this section you learned about early plans for Reconstruction. In the next section, you will learn that disagreements about Reconstruction became so serious that the president was almost removed from office.

**Section 1 Assessment**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Identify** What does Reconstruction mean?
   **b. Summarize** What was President Lincoln’s plan for Reconstruction?

2. **a. Recall** What is the Thirteenth Amendment?
   **b. Elaborate** In your opinion, what was the most important accomplishment of the Freedmen’s Bureau? Explain.

3. **a. Recall** Why was President Lincoln killed?
   **b. Analyze** Why did some Americans oppose President Johnson’s Reconstruction plan?

**Critical Thinking**

4. **Summarizing** Review your notes on Reconstruction. Then copy the graphic organizer below and use it to show how African Americans were affected by the end of the war.

5. **Considering Historical Context** Many people planned to continue doing what they had done before the war. Others planned to start a new life. How do you think events and conditions you just read about might have affected their plans?
CHAPTER 17

The Fight over Reconstruction

If YOU were there...

A member of Congress, you belong to the same political party as the president. But you strongly disagree with his ideas about Reconstruction and civil rights for African Americans. Now some of the president’s opponents are trying to remove him from office. You do not think he is a good president. On the other hand, you think removing him would be bad for the unity of the country.

Will you vote to remove the president?

Building Background

Americans were bitterly divided about what should happen in the South during Reconstruction. They disagreed about ending racial inequality and guaranteeing civil rights for African Americans. These conflicts split political parties. They led to showdowns between Congress and the president. Political fights even threatened the president’s job.

Opposition to President Johnson

In 1866 Congress continued to debate the rules for restoring the Union. Meanwhile, new state legislatures approved by President Johnson had already begun passing laws to deny African Americans’ civil rights. “This is a white man’s government, and intended for white men only,” declared Governor Benjamin F. Perry of South Carolina.

Black Codes

Soon, every southern state passed Black Codes, or laws that greatly limited the freedom of African Americans. They required African Americans to sign work contracts, creating working conditions similar to those under slavery. In most southern states, any African Americans who could not prove they were employed could be arrested. Their punishment might be one year of work without pay. African Americans were also prevented from owning guns. In addition, they were not allowed to rent property except in cities.

The Black Codes alarmed many Americans. As one Civil War veteran asked, “If you call this freedom, what do you call slavery?”
African Americans organized to oppose the codes. One group sent a petition to officials in South Carolina.

“We simply ask . . . that the same laws which govern white men shall govern black men . . . that, in short, we be dealt with as others are—in equity [equality] and justice.”

—Petition from an African American convention held in South Carolina, quoted in There Is a River: The Black Struggle for Freedom in America by Vincent Harding

**Radical Republicans**

The Black Codes angered many Republicans. They thought the South was returning to its old ways. Most Republicans were moderates who wanted the South to have loyal state governments. They also believed that African Americans should have rights as citizens. They hoped that the government would not have to force the South to follow federal laws.

**Radical Republicans**, on the other hand, took a harsher stance. They wanted the federal government to force change in the South. Like the moderates, they thought the Black Codes were cruel and unjust. The Radicals, however, wanted the federal government to be much more involved in Reconstruction. They feared that too many southern leaders remained loyal to the former Confederacy and would not enforce the new laws. Thaddeus Stevens

**POLITICAL CARTOON**

Supporting Radical Republican Ideas

Republicans were outraged to see former Confederates return to power as leaders of the Democratic Party. This 1868 political cartoon shows former Confederates Raphael Semmes and Nathan Bedford Forrest. Semmes was a Confederate admiral who had captured 62 Union merchant ships during the Civil War. Forrest was a cavalry officer known for brutality who later founded the Ku Klux Klan.

How do the actions of the people in these illustrations support the artist’s point of view?

How do events in the background of these illustrations support the artist’s point of view?

**ANALYSIS SKILL**

**ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES**

Why do you think that the men are shown in their Confederate uniforms?
of Pennsylvania and Charles Sumner of Massachusetts were the leaders of the Radical Republicans.

A harsh critic of President Johnson, Stevens was known for his honesty and sharp tongue. He wanted economic and political justice for both African Americans and poor white southerners. Sumner had been a strong opponent of slavery before the Civil War. He continued to argue tirelessly for African Americans’ civil rights, including the right to vote and the right to fair laws.

Both Stevens and Sumner believed that President Johnson’s Reconstruction plan was a failure. Although the Radicals did not control Congress, they began to gain support among moderates when President Johnson ignored criticism of the Black Codes. Stevens believed the federal government could not allow racial inequality to survive.

**Fourteenth Amendment**

Urged on by the Radicals in 1866, Congress proposed a new bill. It would give the Freedmen’s Bureau more powers. The law would allow the Freedmen’s Bureau to use military courts to try people accused of violating African Americans’ rights. The bill’s supporters hoped that these courts would be fairer than local courts in the South.

**Johnson versus Congress**

Surprising many members of Congress, Johnson vetoed the Freedmen’s Bureau Bill. He insisted that Congress could not pass any new laws until the southern states were represented in Congress. Johnson also argued that the Freedmen’s Bureau was unconstitutional.

Republicans responded with the **Civil Rights Act of 1866**. This act provided African Americans with the same legal rights as white Americans. President Johnson once again used his veto power. He argued that the act gave too much power to the federal government. He also rejected the principle of equal
rights for African Americans. Congress, however, overrode Johnson’s veto.

Many Republicans worried about what would happen when the southern states were readmitted. Fearing that the Civil Rights Act might be overturned, the Republicans proposed the Fourteenth Amendment in the summer of 1866. The Fourteenth Amendment included the following provisions.

1. It defined all people born or naturalized within the United States, except Native Americans, as citizens.
2. It guaranteed citizens the equal protection of the laws.
3. It said that states could not “deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law.”
4. It banned many former Confederate officials from holding state or federal offices.
5. It made state laws subject to federal court review.
6. It gave Congress the power to pass any laws needed to enforce it.

1866 Elections

President Johnson and most Democrats opposed the Fourteenth Amendment. As a result, civil rights for African Americans became a key issue in the 1866 congressional elections. To help the Democrats, Johnson traveled around the country defending his Reconstruction plan. Johnson’s speaking tour was a disaster. It did little to win votes for the Democratic Party. Johnson even got into arguments with people in the audiences of some of his speaking engagements.

Two major riots in the South also hurt Johnson’s campaign. On May 1, 1866, a dispute in Memphis, Tennessee, took place between local police and black Union soldiers. The dispute turned into a three-day wave of violence against African Americans. About three months later, another riot took place during a political demonstration in New Orleans. During that dispute, 34 African Americans and three white Republicans were killed.

**Congress Takes Control of Reconstruction**

The 1866 elections gave the Republican Party a commanding two-thirds majority in both the House and the Senate. This majority gave the Republicans the power to override any presidential veto. In addition, the Republicans became united as the moderates joined with the Radicals. Together, they called for a new form of Reconstruction.

**Reconstruction Acts**

In March 1867, Congress passed the first of several Reconstruction Acts. These laws divided the South into five districts. A U.S. military commander controlled each district.
The military would remain in control of the South until the southern states rejoined the Union. To be readmitted, a state had to write a new state constitution supporting the Fourteenth Amendment. Finally, the state had to give African American men the right to vote.

Thaddeus Stevens was one of the new Reconstruction Acts’ most enthusiastic supporters. He spoke in Congress to defend the acts.

“Have not loyal blacks quite as good a right to choose rulers and make laws as rebel whites? Every man, no matter what his race or color . . . has an equal right to justice, honesty, and fair play with every other man; and the law should secure him those rights.”

—Thaddeus Stevens, quoted in Sources of the American Republic, edited by Marvin Meyers et al.

President on Trial

President Johnson strongly disagreed with Stevens. He argued that African Americans did not deserve the same treatment as white people. The Reconstruction Acts, he said, used “powers not granted to the federal government or any one of its branches.” Knowing that Johnson did not support its Reconstruction policies, Congress passed a law limiting his power. This law prevented the president from removing cabinet officials without Senate approval. Johnson quickly broke the law by firing Edwin Stanton, the secretary of war.

For the first time in United States history, the House of Representatives responded by voting to impeach the president. Impeachment is the process used by a legislative body to bring charges of wrongdoing against a public official. The next step, under Article I of the Constitution, was a trial in the Senate. A two-thirds majority was required to find Johnson guilty and remove him from office.

Although Johnson was unpopular with Republicans, some of them believed he was being judged unfairly. Others did not trust the president pro tempore of the Senate, Benjamin Wade. He would become president if Johnson were removed from office. By a single vote, Senate Republicans failed to convict Johnson. Even so, the trial weakened his power as president.

Election of 1868

Johnson did not run for another term in 1868. The Democrats chose
former New York governor Horatio Seymour as their presidential candidate. The Republicans chose Ulysses S. Grant. As a war hero, Grant appealed to many northern voters. He had no political experience but supported the congressional Reconstruction plan. He ran under the slogan “Let Us Have Peace.”

Shortly after Grant was nominated, Congress readmitted seven southern states—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina. (Tennessee had already been readmitted in 1866.) Under the terms of readmission, these seven states approved the Fourteenth Amendment. They also agreed to let African American men vote. However, white southerners used violence to try to keep African Americans away from the polls.

Despite such tactics, hundreds of thousands of African Americans voted for Grant and the “party of Lincoln.” The New Orleans Tribune reported that many former slaves “see clearly enough that the Republican party [is] their political life boat.” African American votes helped Grant to win a narrow victory.

**Fifteenth Amendment**

After Grant’s victory, Congressional Republicans wanted to protect their Reconstruction plan. They worried that the southern states might try to keep black voters from the polls in future elections. Also, some Radical Republicans argued that it was not fair that many northern states still had laws preventing African Americans from voting. After all, every southern state was required to grant suffrage to African American men.

In 1869 Congress proposed the **Fifteenth Amendment**, which gave African American men the right to vote. Abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison praised what he saw as “this wonderful, quiet, sudden transformation of four millions of human beings from . . . the auction block to the ballot-box.” The amendment went into effect in 1870 as one of the last Reconstruction laws passed at the federal level.

The Fifteenth Amendment did not please every reformer, however. Many women were angry because the amendment did not also grant them the right to vote.
Reconstruction in the South

If YOU were there...
You live on a farm in the South in the 1870s. Times are hard because you do not own your farm. Instead, you and your family work in a landowner’s cotton fields. You never seem to earn enough to buy land of your own. Some of your neighbors have decided to give up farming and move to the city. Others are going to work in the textile mills. But you have always been a farmer.

Will you decide to change your way of life?

Building Background
Reconstruction affected politics and economics in the South. Republican and Democratic politicians fought over policies and programs. New state governments began reforms, but later leaders ended many of them. Some parts of the southern economy improved. However, many farmers, like the family above, went through hard times.

Reconstruction Governments
After Grant became president in 1869, the Republicans seemed stronger than ever. They controlled most southern governments, partly because of the support of African American voters. However, most of the Republican officeholders were unpopular with white southerners.

Carpetbaggers and Scalawags
Some of these office-holders were northern-born Republicans who had moved to the South after the war. Many white southerners called them carpetbaggers. Supposedly, they had rushed there carrying all their possessions in bags made from carpeting. Many southerners resented these northerners, accusing them—often unfairly—of trying to profit from Reconstruction.

Southern Democrats cared even less for white southern Republicans. They referred to them as scalawags, or greedy rascals. Democrats believed that these southerners had betrayed the South by...
voting for the Republican Party. Many southern Republicans were small farmers who had supported the Union during the war. Others, like Mississippi governor James Alcorn, were former members of the Whig Party. They preferred to become Republicans rather than join the Democrats.

**African American Leaders**

African Americans were the largest group of southern Republican voters. During Reconstruction, more than 600 African Americans won election to state legislatures. Some 16 of these politicians were elected to Congress. Other African Americans held local offices in counties throughout the South.

African American politicians came from many backgrounds. **Hiram Revels** was born free in North Carolina and went to college in Illinois. He became a Methodist minister and served as a chaplain in the Union army. In 1870 Revels became the first African American in the U.S. Senate. He took over the seat previously held by Confederate president Jefferson Davis. Unlike Revels, Blanche K. Bruce grew up in slavery in Virginia. Bruce became an important Republican in Mississippi and served one term as a U.S. senator.

**State Governments Change Direction**

Reconstruction governments provided money for many new programs and organizations in the South. They helped to establish some of the first state-funded public school systems in the South. They also built new hospitals, prisons, and orphanages and passed laws prohibiting discrimination against African Americans.

Southern states under Republican control spent large amounts of money. They aided the construction of railroads, bridges, and public buildings. These improvements were intended to help the southern economy recover from the war. To get the money for these projects, the Reconstruction governments raised taxes and issued bonds.

**Focus on Reading**

How does the heading of this section tell you about what you will learn?
Ku Klux Klan

As more African Americans took office, resistance to Reconstruction increased among white southerners. Democrats claimed that the Reconstruction governments were corrupt, illegal, and unjust. They also disliked having federal soldiers stationed in their states. Many white southerners disapproved of African American officeholders. One Democrat noted, “A white man’s government [is] the most popular rallying cry we have.” In 1866 a group of white southerners in Tennessee created the Ku Klux Klan. This secret society opposed civil rights, particularly suffrage, for African Americans. The Klan used violence and terror against African Americans. The group’s membership grew rapidly as it spread throughout the South.

Klan members wore robes and disguises to hide their identities. They attacked—and even murdered—African Americans, white Republican voters, and public officials, usually at night.

Local governments did little to stop the violence. Many officials feared the Klan or were sympathetic to its activities. In 1870 and 1871 the federal government took action. Congress passed laws that made it a federal crime to interfere with elections or to deny citizens equal protection under the law.

Within a few years, the Klan was no longer an organized threat. But groups of whites continued to assault African Americans and Republicans throughout the 1870s.

**Reading Check**  
**Drawing Conclusions**  
Why did southerners join the Ku Klux Klan?
Reconstruction Ends

The violence of the Ku Klux Klan was not the only challenge to Reconstruction. Republicans slowly lost control of southern state governments to the Democratic Party. The General Amnesty Act of 1872 allowed former Confederates, except those who had held high ranks, to serve in public office. Many of these former Confederates, most of whom were Democrats, were soon elected to southern governments.

The Republican Party also began losing its power in the North. Although President Grant was re-elected in 1872, financial and political scandals in his administration upset voters. In his first term, a gold-buying scheme in which Grant’s cousin took a leading role led to a brief crisis on the stock market called Black Friday. During his second term, his personal secretary was involved in the Whiskey Ring scandal, in which whiskey distillers and public officials worked together to steal liquor taxes from the federal government. Furthermore, people blamed Republican policies for the Panic of 1873.

Panic of 1873

This severe economic downturn began in September 1873 when Jay Cooke and Company, a major investor in railroads and the largest financier of the Union’s Civil War effort, declared bankruptcy. The company had lied about the value of land along the side of the Northern Pacific Railroad that it owned and was trying to sell. When the truth leaked out, the company failed.

The failure of such an important business sent panic through the stock market, and investors began selling shares of stock more rapidly than people wanted to buy them. Companies had to buy their shares back from the investors. Soon, 89 of the nation’s 364 railroads had failed as well. The failure of almost 18,000 other businesses followed within two years, leaving the nation in an economic crisis. By 1876 unemployment had risen to 14 percent, with an estimated 2 million people out of work. The high unemployment rate set off numerous strikes and protests around the nation, many involving railroad workers. In 1874 the Democrats gained control of the House of Representatives. Northerners were becoming less concerned about southern racism and more concerned about their financial well-being.

Election of 1876

Republicans could tell that northern support for Reconstruction was fading. Voters’ attention was shifting to economic problems. In 1874 the Republican Party lost control of the House of Representatives to the Democrats. The Republicans in Congress managed to pass one last civil rights law. The Civil Rights Act of 1875 guaranteed African Americans equal rights in public places, such as theaters and public transportation. But as Americans became increasingly worried about economic problems and government corruption, the Republican Party began to abandon Reconstruction.

Republicans selected Ohio governor Rutherford B. Hayes as their 1876 presidential candidate. He believed in ending federal support of the Reconstruction governments. The Democrats nominated New York governor Samuel J. Tilden. During the election, Democrats in the South again used violence at the polls to keep Republican voters away.

The election between Hayes and Tilden was close. Tilden appeared to have won. Republicans challenged the electoral votes in Oregon and three southern states. A special commission of members of Congress and Supreme Court justices was appointed to settle the issue.

The commission narrowly decided to give all the disputed votes to Hayes. Hayes thus won the presidency by one electoral vote. In the Compromise of 1877, the Democrats agreed to accept Hayes’s victory. In return, they wanted all remaining federal troops removed from the South. They also asked for funding for internal improvements in the South and
the appointment of a southern Democrat to the president’s cabinet. Shortly after he took office in 1877, President Hayes removed the last of the federal troops from the South.

**Redeemers**

Gradually, Democrats regained control of state governments in the South. In each state, they moved quickly to get rid of the Reconstruction reforms.

Democrats who brought their party back to power in the South were called Redeemers. They came from a variety of backgrounds. For instance, U.S. senator John T. Morgan of Alabama was a former general in the Confederate army. Newspaper editor Henry Grady of Georgia was interested in promoting southern industry.

Redeemers wanted to reduce the size of state government and limit the rights of African Americans. They lowered state budgets and got rid of a variety of social programs. The Redeemers cut property taxes and cut public funding for schools. They also succeeded in limiting African Americans’ civil rights.

**African Americans’ Rights Restricted**

Redeemers set up the poll tax in an effort to deny the vote to African Americans. The poll tax was a special tax people had to pay before they could vote.

Some states also targeted African American voters by requiring them to pass a literacy test. A so-called grandfather clause written into law affected men whose fathers or grandfathers could vote before 1867. In those cases, a voter did not have to pay a poll tax or pass a literacy test. As a result, almost every white man could escape the voting restrictions.

Redeemer governments also introduced legal segregation, the forced separation of whites and African Americans in public places. Jim Crow laws—laws that enforced segregation—became common in southern states in the 1880s.

African Americans challenged Jim Crow laws in court. In 1883, however, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the Civil Rights Act of 1875 was unconstitutional. The Court

**Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)**

**Background of the Case** In 1892, Homer Plessy took a seat in the “whites only” car of a train in Louisiana. He was arrested, put on trial, and convicted of violating Louisiana’s segregation law. Plessy argued that the Louisiana law violated the Thirteenth Amendment and denied him the equal protection of the law as guaranteed.

**The Court’s Ruling**

The Court ruled that the Louisiana “separate-but-equal” law was constitutional.

**The Court’s Reasoning**

The Court stated that the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments did not apply. The Court decided that the case had nothing to do with the abolition of slavery mentioned in the Thirteenth Amendment. The justices also ruled that the Fourteenth Amendment was not designed to eliminate social barriers to equality between the races, only political barriers.

Justice John Marshall Harlan disagreed with the Court’s ruling. In a dissenting opinion, he wrote that “in respect of civil rights, all citizens are equal before the law.”

**Why It Matters**

_Plessy_ was important because it approved the idea of separate-but-equal facilities for people based on race. The doctrine of separate-but-equal led to segregation in trains, buses, schools, restaurants, and many other social institutions.

The separate-but-equal doctrine led to unequal treatment of minority groups for decades. It was finally struck down by another Supreme Court ruling, _Brown v. Board of Education_, in 1954.

**ANALYZING INFORMATION**

1. Why did the Court reject Plessy’s arguments?
2. Why was _Plessy v. Ferguson_ an important Supreme Court case?
also ruled that the Fourteenth Amendment applied only to the actions of state governments. This ruling allowed private individuals and businesses to practice segregation.

**Plessy v. Ferguson**

In 1896 the U.S. Supreme Court returned to the issue of segregation. When Homer Plessy, an African American, refused to leave the whites-only Louisiana train car he was riding on, he was arrested and accused of breaking a state law requiring separate cars for blacks and whites. Plessy sued the railroad company and lost. His lawyers argued that the law violated his right to equal treatment under the Fourteenth Amendment. He then appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. The Supreme Court ruled against Plessy in *Plessy v. Ferguson*. Segregation was allowed, said the Court, if “separate-but-equal” facilities were provided. Among the justices, only John Marshall Harlan disagreed with the Court’s decision. He explained his disagreement in a dissenting opinion:

“In the eye of the law, there is in the country no superior, dominant [controlling], ruling class of citizens … Our constitution is color-blind, and neither knows nor tolerates classes among citizens. In respect of civil rights, all citizens are equal before the law.”

—John Marshall Harlan, quoted in *A Brief History with Documents*, edited by Brook Thomas

Despite Harlan’s view, segregation became widespread across the country. African Americans were forced to use separate public schools, libraries, and parks. When they existed, these facilities were usually of poorer quality than those created for whites. In practice, these so-called separate-but-equal facilities were separate and unequal.

**Farming in the South**

Few African Americans in the South could afford to buy or even rent farms. Moving to the West also was costly. Many African Americans therefore remained on plantations. Others tried to make a living in the cities.

African Americans who stayed on plantations often became part of a system known as **sharecropping**, or sharing the crop. Landowners provided the land, tools, and supplies, and sharecroppers provided the labor. At harvest time, the sharecropper usually had to give most of the crop to the landowner. Whatever remained belonged to the sharecropper. Many sharecroppers hoped to save enough money from selling their share of the crops to one day be able to buy a farm. Unfortunately, only a few ever achieved this dream.

Instead, most sharecroppers lived in a cycle of debt. When they needed food, clothing, or supplies, most families had to buy goods on credit because they had little cash.

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**Slavery**
- No rights
- Forced labor
- No freedom of movement without permission
- Family members sold away from one another
- No representation in government

**Freedom**
- Slavery banned
- Free to work for wages
- Could move and live anywhere
- Many families reunited
- Could serve in political office

**Rights Denied**
- Sharecropping system put in place
- Ability to vote and hold office restricted
- White leadership regained control of southern state governments

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**Hopes Raised and Denied Quick Facts**
When sharecroppers sold their crops, they hoped to be able to pay off these debts. However, bad weather, poor harvests, or low crop prices often made this dream impossible.

Sharecroppers usually grew cotton, one of the South’s most important cash crops. When too many farmers planted cotton, however, the supply became excessive. As a result, the price per bale of cotton dropped. Many farmers understood the drawbacks of planting cotton. However, farmers felt pressure from banks and others to keep raising cotton. A southern farmer explained why so many sharecroppers depended on cotton:

“The thing to get credit on in this country … You can always sell cotton … [Y]ou load up your wagon with wheat or corn … and I doubt some days whether you could sell it.”

—Anonymous farmer quoted in *The Promise of the New South*, by Edward L. Ayers

**Rebuilding Southern Industry**

The southern economy suffered through cycles of good and bad years as cotton prices went up and down. Some business leaders hoped industry would strengthen the southern economy and create a New South.

**Southern Industry**

Henry Grady, an Atlanta newspaper editor, was a leader of the New South movement. “The new South presents . . . a diversified [varied] industry that meets the complex needs of this complex age,” he wrote. Grady and his supporters felt that with its cheap and abundant labor, the South could build factories and provide a workforce for them.

The most successful industrial development in the South involved textile production. Businesspeople built textile mills in many small towns to produce cotton fabric. Many people from rural areas came to work in the mills, but African Americans were not allowed to work in most of them.
“The New South...is stirred with the breath of a new life.”
—Henry Grady

Atlanta rebuilt quickly after the war, becoming a leading railroad and industrial center. Newspaper editor Henry Grady gave stirring speeches about the need for industry in the South. He became one of the best-known spokesmen of the “New South.”

Why might Grady point to Atlanta as a model for economic change?

Southern Mill Life
Work in the cotton mills appealed to farm families who had trouble making ends meet. As one mill worker explained, “It was a necessity to move and get a job, rather than depend on the farm.” Recruiters sent out by the mills promised good wages and steady work.

Entire families often worked in the same cotton mill. Mills employed large numbers of women and children. Many children started working at about the age of 12. Some children started working at an even earlier age. Women did most of the spinning and were valued workers. However, few women had the opportunity to advance within the company.

Many mill workers were proud of the skills they used, but they did not enjoy their work. One unhappy worker described it as “the same thing over and over again...The more you do, the more they want done.” Workers often labored 12 hours a day, six days a week. Cotton dust and lint filled the air, causing asthma and an illness known as brown-lung disease. Fast-moving machinery caused injuries and even deaths. Despite the long hours and dangerous working conditions, wages remained low. However, mill work did offer an alternative to farming.

Reading Check
Finding Main Ideas
What did southern business leaders hope industry would do?

Summary and Preview
In this section you learned about the end of Reconstruction. In the next chapter you will learn about America’s continued westward expansion.

Section 3 Assessment
Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People
1. a. Identify Who were some prominent African American leaders during Reconstruction?
   b. Evaluate What do you think was the most important change made by Reconstruction state governments? Explain your answer.
2. a. Recall For what reasons did some local governments not stop the Ku Klux Klan?
   b. Draw Conclusions How did the Ku Klux Klan’s use of terror interfere with elections in the South?
3. a. Recall How did Reconstruction come to an end?
   b. Explain What was the relationship between Jim Crow laws and segregation?
4. a. Identify Who was Henry Grady, and why was he important?
   b. Predict What are some possible results of the rise of the “New South”?

Critical Thinking
5. Identifying Causes and Effects Review your notes on Reconstruction governments. Then copy the graphic organizer below and use it to show why Reconstruction ended, as well as the results of its end.

| Causes | Effect/Cause End of Reconstruction | Effects |

Focus on Writing
6. Relating Historical Change to Individual Choice Despite the difficulties of Reconstruction, the Freedmen’s Bureau and plans to bring industry to the “New South” did create new jobs. What might have led people to leave their jobs for new ones?
Social Studies Skills

Chance, Oversight, and Error in History

Understand the Skill

Sometimes, history can seem very routine. One event leads to others which, in turn, lead to still others. You learn to look for cause-and-effect relationships among events. You learn how point of view and bias can influence decisions and actions. These approaches to the study of history imply that the events of the past are orderly and predictable.

In fact, many of the events of the past are orderly and predictable! They may seem even more so since they’re over and done with, and we know how things turned out. Yet, predictable patterns of behavior do exist throughout history. Recognizing them is one of the great values and rewards of studying the past. As the philosopher George Santayana once famously said, “Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it.”

At its most basic level, however, history is people, and people are “human.” They make mistakes. Unexpected things happen to them, both good things and bad. This is the unpredictable element of history. The current phrase “stuff happens” is just as true of the past as it is today. Mistakes, oversights, and just plain “dumb luck” have shaped the course of history—and have helped to make the study of it so exciting.

Learn the Skill

California merchant John Sutter decided to build a sawmill along a nearby American river in 1848. He planned to sell the lumber it produced to settlers who were moving into the area. Sutter put James W. Marshall to work building the mill. To install the large water wheel that would power the saw, Marshall first had to deepen the river bed next to the mill. During his digging, he noticed some shiny bits of yellow metal in the water. The result of this accidental find was the California gold rush, which sent thousands of Americans to California, and speeded settlement of the West.

In 1863 the army of Confederate General Robert E. Lee invaded Maryland. The Civil War had been going well for the South. Lee hoped a southern victory on Union soil would convince the British to aid the South in the war. However, a Confederate officer forgot his cigars as his unit left its camp in the Maryland countryside. Wrapped around the cigars was a copy of Lee’s battle plans. When a Union soldier came upon the abandoned camp, he spotted the cigars. This chance discovery enabled the Union army to defeat Lee at the Battle of Antietam. The Union victory helped keep the British out of the war. More important, it allowed President Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation and begin the process of ending slavery in the United States.

Practice the Skill

In April 1865 President Lincoln was assassinated while attending the theater in Washington, D.C. Bodyguard John Parker was stationed outside the door of the president’s box. However, Parker left his post to find a seat from which he could watch the play. This allowed the killer to enter the box and shoot the unprotected president.

Write an essay about how this chance event altered the course of history. How might Reconstruction, North–South relations, and African Americans’ struggle for equality have been different had Lincoln lived?
During Reconstruction, the Freedmen's Bureau opened schools for former slaves and performed other services to help the poorest southerners. Differing ideas about how to govern the South led to conflicts between African Americans and white southerners, as well as between Republicans and Democrats. After the Compromise of 1877 ended Reconstruction, segregation laws were enacted by southern governments and upheld by the U.S. Supreme Court.

Reviewing Vocabulary, Terms, and People

1. _______________ were laws that allowed racial segregation in public places.
2. The Radical Republicans were led by ________, a member of Congress from Pennsylvania.
3. The period from 1865 to 1877 that focused on reuniting the nation is known as ________.
4. Following the Civil War, many African Americans in the South made a living by participating in the __________ system.
5. After opposing Congress, Andrew Johnson became the first president to face _____ proceedings.
6. The _____ Amendment made slavery in the United States illegal.
7. In 1870 ________ became the first African American to serve in the U.S. Senate.

Comprehension and Critical Thinking

SECTION 1 (Pages 552–557)

8. a. Describe How did the lives of African Americans change after the Civil War?
   b. Compare and Contrast How was President Johnson’s Reconstruction plan similar and different from President Lincoln’s Ten Percent Plan?
   c. Evaluate Which of the three Reconstruction plans that were originally proposed do you think would have been the most successful? Why?

SECTION 2 (Pages 558–563)

9. a. Identify Who were the Radical Republicans, and how did they change Reconstruction?
   b. Analyze How did the debate over the Fourteenth Amendment affect the election of 1866?
   c. Elaborate Do you think Congress was right to impeach President Andrew Johnson? Explain.
SECTION 3 (Pages 564–571)

10. **Describe**  What reforms did Reconstruction governments in the South support?
   - **a.** Describe What reforms did Reconstruction governments in the South support?
   - **b.** **Draw Conclusions** In what ways did southern governments attempt to reverse the accomplishments of Reconstruction?
   - **c.** **Evaluate** Do you think the South was successful or unsuccessful in its rebuilding efforts? Explain your answer.

**Reviewing Themes**

11. **Politics** Explain the political struggles that took place during Reconstruction.
12. **Society and Culture** How were the lives of ordinary southerners affected in the years after Reconstruction?

**Using the Internet**

13. **Activity: Drawing Conclusions** A challenge for anyone trying to understand Reconstruction is drawing conclusions from primary and secondary sources from the time period. In addition to your online textbook, use articles, editorials, journals, periodicals, reports and other media to research and rate the credibility of the sources provided. Make sure you explain whether the source is a primary or secondary source, whether you think the source is credible or not, and the reasons for your thoughts.

**Reading Skills**

**Analyzing Historical Information** Use the Reading Skills taught in this chapter to answer the question about the reading selection below.

Radical Republicans, on the other hand, took a harsher stance. They wanted the federal government to force change in the South. Like the moderates, they thought the Black Codes were cruel and unjust. (p. 559)

14. Which of the following is relevant information for the passage above?
   - **a.** Thaddeus Stevens was a Radical Republican.
   - **b.** Andrew Johnson was a Democrat.
   - **c.** Radical Republicans wanted the federal government to make major changes in the South.
   - **d.** Radical Republicans were eventually removed from power.

**Social Studies Skills**

**Chance, Oversight, and Error in History** Use the Social Studies Skills taught in this chapter to answer the question about the reading selection below.

Johnson’s speaking tour was a disaster. It did little to win votes for the Democratic Party. Johnson even got into arguments with people in the audiences of some of his speaking engagements. (p. 561)

15. Which of the following is an example of chance, oversight, or error that affected history?
   - **a.** Johnson got into arguments with audiences.
   - **b.** The tour was a disaster.
   - **c.** The tour did not win votes.
   - **d.** Johnson spoke for the Democratic Party.

**Focus on Writing**

16. **Writing a Job History** Review your notes about the changing job scene during Reconstruction. Put yourself in the shoes of a person living then. It could be anyone—a returning soldier, a shopkeeper, a schoolteacher, or a politician. What jobs would that person seek? Why would he or she leave one job for another?

Write a brief job history for that person during Reconstruction. Include at least four jobs. Make each job description two to four sentences long. End each one with a sentence or two about why the person left that job. Add one sentence explaining why he or she took the next job. Be sure to include specific historical details.
DIRECTIONS: Read each question and write the letter of the best response.

1. Use the map below to answer the following question.

Which military district contained the largest number of states?
- A Military District 2
- B Military District 3
- C Military District 4
- D Military District 5

2. What can you infer from the map information?
- A South Carolina was difficult to reconstruct.
- B The largest number of troops was in Military District 1.
- C Military District 5 was the last district to end Reconstruction.
- D Tennessee was readmitted to the Union before the other southern states.

3. The quickest approach to reuniting the nation was proposed by the
- A Ten Percent Plan.
- B Wade-Davis Bill.
- C Civil Rights Act of 1866.
- D Compromise of 1877.

4. What development convinced Republicans in Congress to take control of Reconstruction from the president?
- A President Abraham Lincoln was assassinated by a southern sympathizer.
- B President Andrew Johnson vetoed the Wade-Davis bill.
- C Southern states began passing Black Codes to restrict African Americans’ freedoms.
- D White southern women refused to support the Fifteenth Amendment.

5. Which of the following limited opportunities for African Americans in the South after Reconstruction ended?
- A Ten Percent plan
- B Radical Republicans
- C Jim Crow laws
- D carpetbaggers

6. Examine the following passage from a northern schoolteacher’s letter home and then use it to answer the question.

"Wishing to work where there was the most need—there are so many places where nothing has been done for the freedmen, and where they are sorely persecuted—we came here. A schoolhouse built by the soldiers had just been destroyed by the citizens. The feeling is intensely bitter against anything northern. The affairs of the [Freedmen’s] Bureau have been very much mismanaged in Columbus, and our government has been disgraced by the troops who were stationed here."

—Sarah Chase, from Dear Ones at Home

Document-Based Question What were some of the problems facing the Freedmen’s Bureau in the South?
Assignment
Collect information and write an informative report on a topic related to the Civil War.

A Social Studies Report

All research begins with a question. Why did the North win the Civil War? Why did Abraham Lincoln choose Ulysses S. Grant? In a research report, you find answers to questions like these and share what you learn with your reader.

1. Prewrite
Choosing a Subject
Since you will spend a lot of time researching and writing about your topic, pick one that interests you. First, think of several topics related to the Civil War. Narrow your list to one topic by thinking about what interests you and where you can find information about the topic.

Developing a Research Question
A guiding question related to your topic will help focus your research. For example, here is a research question for the topic “Robert E. Lee’s Role in the Civil War”:
How did Lee’s decision to turn down the leadership of the Union army affect the Civil War? The answer to this question becomes the thesis, or the big idea of your report.

Finding Historical Information
Use at least three sources of historical information besides your textbook. Good sources include
- books, maps, magazines, newspapers
- television programs, movies, Internet sites, CD-ROMs.

For each source, write down the kinds of information shown below. When taking notes, put a circled number next to each source.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Encyclopedia article</th>
<th>1 “Title of Article,” Name of Encyclopedia, Edition or year published.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book</td>
<td>2 Author: Title. City of Publication: Publisher, year published.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine or newspaper article</td>
<td>3 Author: “Title of Article.” Publication name. Date: page number(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet site</td>
<td>4 Author (if known). “Document title,” Web site. Date of electronic publication. Date information was accessed &lt;url&gt;.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Taking Notes
As you read the source material, take thorough notes on facts, statistics, comparisons, and quotations. Take special care to spell names correctly and to record dates and facts accurately. If you use a direct quotation from a source, copy it word for word and enclose it in quotation marks. Along with each note, include the number of its source and its page number.

Organizing Your Ideas and Information
Informative research reports are usually organized in one of these ways:
- Chronological order (the order in which events occurred)
- Order of importance
- Causes (actions or situations that make something else happen) and effects (what happened as a result of something else).

Use one of these orders to organize your notes in an outline. Here is a partial outline for a paper on Robert E. Lee.

The Thesis/Big Idea: Robert E. Lee’s decision to decline the leadership of the Union army had serious consequences for the path of the Civil War.

I. Lee’s Military Expertise
   A. Achievements at the U.S. Military Academy
   B. Achievements during the Mexican War

II. Lee’s Personality and Character
   A. Intelligence and strength
   B. Honesty and fairness
   C. Daring and courage

III. Lee’s Military Victories
   A. Battle of Fredericksburg
   B. Battle of Chancellorsville

2. Write
You can use this framework to help you write your first draft.

A Writer’s Framework

Introduction
- Start with a quote or an interesting historical detail to grab your reader’s attention.
- State the main idea of your report.
- Provide any historical background readers need to understand your main idea.

Body
- Present your information under at least three main ideas, using logical order.
- Write at least one paragraph for each of these main ideas.
- Add supporting details, facts, or examples to each paragraph.

Conclusion
- Restate your main idea, using slightly different words.
- Include a general comment about your topic.
- You might comment on how the historical information in your report relates to later historical events.

TIP Seeing Different Viewpoints
Consult a variety of sources, including those with different points of view on the topic. Reading sources with different opinions will give you a more complete picture of your subject. For example, reading articles about Robert E. Lee written by a southern writer as well as a northern writer may give you a more balanced view of Lee.

TIP Recording Others’ Ideas
You will be taking three types of notes.
Paraphrases Restatements of all the ideas in your own words.
Summaries Brief restatements of only the most important parts.
Direct quotations The writer’s exact words inside quotation marks.
Studying a Model

Here is a model of a research report. Study it to see how one student developed a paper. The first and the concluding paragraphs are shown in full. The paragraphs in the body of the paper are summarized.

"I cannot raise my hand against my birthplace, my home, my children." With these words, Robert E. Lee changed the course of the Civil War. Abraham Lincoln had turned to Lee as his first choice for commander of the Union army. However, Lee turned Lincoln down, choosing instead to side with his home state of Virginia and take command of the Confederate army. Lee’s decision to turn Lincoln down weakened the North and strengthened the Confederates, turning what might have been an easy victory for the North into a long, costly war.

In the first part of the body, the student points out that Lee graduated from the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, served in the Mexican War, and was a member of the Union army. She goes on to explain that he would have been a strong leader for the North, and his absence made the North weaker.

In the middle of the report, the writer discusses Lee’s personality and character. She includes information about the strength of character he showed while in the military academy and while leading the Confederate army. She discusses and gives examples of his intelligence, his daring, his courage, and his honesty.

In the last part of the body of the report, the student provides examples of Lee leading the outnumbered Confederate army to a series of victories. The student provides details of the battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville and explains how a lesser general than Lee may have lost both battles.

Lee’s brilliant and resourceful leadership bedeviled a series of Union generals. He won battles that most generals would have lost. If Lee had used these skills to lead the larger and more powerful Union army, the Civil War might have ended in months instead of years.
3. Evaluate and Revise

Evaluating and Revising Your Draft
Evaluate your first draft by carefully reading it twice. Ask the questions below to decide which parts of your first draft should be revised.

Evaluation Questions for an Informative Report

- Does the introduction attract the readers’ interest and state the big idea/thesis of your report?
- Does the body of your report have at least three paragraphs that develop your big idea? Is the main idea in each paragraph clearly stated?
- Have you included enough information to support each of your main ideas? Are all facts, details, and examples accurate? Are all of them clearly related to the main ideas they support?
- Is the report clearly organized? Does it use chronological order, order of importance, or cause and effect?
- Does the conclusion restate the big idea of your report? Does it end with a general comment about the importance or significance of your topic?
- Have you included at least three sources in your bibliography? Have you included all the sources you used and not any you did not use?

4. Proofread and Publish

Proofreading
To improve your report before sharing it, check the following:
- The spelling and capitalization of all proper names for people, places, things, and events.
- Punctuation marks around any direct quotation.
- Your list of sources (Works Cited or Bibliography) against a guide to writing research papers. Make sure you follow the examples in the guide when punctuating and capitalizing your source listings.

Publishing
Choose one or more of these ideas to publish your report.
- Share your report with your classmates by turning it into an informative speech.
- Submit your report to an online discussion group that focuses on the Civil War and ask for feedback.
- With your classmates, create a magazine that includes reports on several different topics or post the reports on your school Web site.

5. Practice and Apply

Use the steps and strategies outlined in this workshop to research and write an informative report on the Civil War.
America Since 1877

The United States of America is a very different place today than it was in 1877. The nation is now bigger, more powerful, and more involved in world affairs. It has changed from a nation where most people lived in small towns to one in which most people live in cities, many with populations of more than 1 million people. The nation is also a more democratic place today—more Americans have access to the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship than at any other time in the country’s history.

Despite these differences, America faces many of the same challenges that it faced in 1877. For example, Americans still debate questions about civil rights, religion, taxes, and the role of government in their lives. They also worry about the health of the environment, children, and the poor.

Americans do not always agree on these issues. But they do believe strongly in their right to debate and to disagree. The freedom to do so—in peaceful and productive ways—is an indication of the fundamental health of the nation.

America as a Global Power

After the Civil War, the United States increasingly came into conflict with Native Americans. After the last major battle at Wounded Knee in 1890, American settlers began moving west in even greater numbers.

The United States and Spain went to war in 1898. The two countries battled each other in the Caribbean and the Philippines. The Spanish-American War began a period of American expansionism during which U.S. influence spread throughout Latin America and the world.

In 1914 World War I began in Europe. By 1917 the United States had entered the war, and American soldiers fought and died on the battlefields of Europe. That experience forever changed the United States. America had stepped onto the world stage with its military and industrial might.

War tore Europe apart again in the 1930s and 1940s during World War II. When Japan attacked the United States at Pearl Harbor in late 1941, the United States entered the global struggle.
The Civil Rights Era

The U.S. victory in World War II had other consequences as well. Millions of World War II veterans returned home ready to start new lives in peacetime. These veterans enrolled in college in record numbers, settled into the nation’s cities and new suburbs, and started families.

Soldiers who had fought on the side of democracy abroad also fought for democracy at home. This was especially true of the nation’s African-American and Mexican-American soldiers. Their efforts to seek greater access to the rights of citizenship helped invigorate the civil rights movement. They were joined in these efforts by Americans from all walks of life—people who believed that America worked best when the promises of freedom were open to all.

By the 1960s, the push for greater civil rights had become a true social movement in America. It was a grassroots effort on the part of ordinary Americans to change both people’s attitudes and federal laws. César Chávez, for example, led the fight to win more rights for migrant workers. This movement for greater civil, educational, and political rights among racial and ethnic groups helped spur the women’s rights movement of the 1960s and 1970s as well.
Economic Changes and Challenges

The U.S. economy has also changed dramatically since 1877. Changes in technology led to a second industrial revolution in which manufacturing processes became more focused on machinery than on workers. In the 1930s, millions of Americans were affected by the huge economic collapse known as the Great Depression. After World War II, the U.S. economy recovered, and the nation enjoyed a long period of prosperity. Many Americans joined the middle class for the first time, buying homes, televisions and appliances, and cars in record numbers.

Since the 1970s, the U.S. economy has had more ups and downs. Many American companies have moved their factories overseas where wages are lower, causing hardship for many American workers. Technology and housing booms during the 1990s and early 2000s created prosperity. In the late 2000s, however, a severe economic crisis emerged. The banking system nearly collapsed, houses and stocks plummeted in value, and millions of people lost their jobs. Many economists think it may take a decade or more for the U.S. economy to fully recover.

Immigration and Democracy

Immigration has always been important to the United States. Since 1877, this strong tradition of immigration has continued. During the 1900s, people from every corner of the world came to America to settle. These new immigrants were Buddhists, Christians, Muslims, and Sikhs. They came from Latin America, Africa, Asia, and Europe. They came in search of a brighter future, greater freedom, and a chance to start their lives over again—and they came to become Americans.
Immigrants also came to the United States to enjoy the benefits of democracy. The United States was the world's first modern democracy, and many people around the world today look to America as an example of a democratic, free, and open society.

Since 1877, American democracy has grown even stronger. More people participate in the democratic process than ever before, and there is a healthy debate over the many issues the country faces now and will face in the coming years.

**America Then and Now**

In the years since 1877, the United States has faced challenges and experienced triumphs. The threat of terrorism—made clear by the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001—remains an ongoing challenge. And for many Americans, especially those who toiled to achieve the gains of the civil rights movement, a triumph came with the election of Barack Obama, our nation's first African-American president, in 2008.

Challenges and triumphs alike highlight the importance of our nation's founding principles. More than 200 years ago, the Founding Fathers insisted that the United States was an experiment—a new nation devoted to the possibility that the ideals of equality and freedom could be supported by democracy, justice, and the rule of law. Today, just as then, this experiment works best when Americans exercise their rights seriously.

America today is connected to the America of the past through the enduring meaning of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. These documents remain as important today as when they were created. They express what America stands for and where America is going.

Cities such as St. Louis, shown here, are part of America’s past, present, and future. Once a small town known as the Gateway to the West, St. Louis has grown into a large and modern American city.

The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, marked the beginning of a new challenge in American history—the war against terrorism.
References

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Available @

hmhsocialstudies.com

- Reading Like a Historian
- Geography and Map Skills Handbook
- Supreme Court Decisions
- Historical Documents
To understand the relative locations of Alaska and Hawaii, as well as the vast distances separating them from the rest of the United States, see the world map.
To understand the relative locations of Alaska and Hawaii, as well as the vast distances separating them from the rest of the United States, see the world map.

From the map, we can observe the following:

- Alaska is located in the northernmost part of the United States, near the Arctic Circle.
- Hawaii is located in the Pacific Ocean, far from the mainland, making it one of the most isolated states in the U.S.
- The map shows the distances separating Alaska and Hawaii from the rest of the United States, emphasizing the vastness of the Pacific Ocean.

The map also highlights the coastal regions of the United States, including the Gulf of Mexico, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Pacific Ocean, providing a comprehensive view of the country's geographical diversity.
North America: Political

Projection: Azimuthal Equal-Area

0 300 600 Miles

0 300 600 Kilometers

National capital
Other city
**The Republican Party of the third through sixth presidents is not the party of Abraham Lincoln, which was founded in 1854.**
9 William Henry Harrison
Born: 1773  Died: 1841
Years in Office: 1841
Political Party: Whig
Home State: Ohio
Vice President: John Tyler

10 John Tyler
Born: 1790  Died: 1862
Years in Office: 1841–45
Political Party: Whig
Home State: Virginia
Vice President: None

11 James K. Polk
Born: 1795  Died: 1849
Years in Office: 1845–49
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Tennessee
Vice President: George M. Dallas

12 Zachary Taylor
Born: 1784  Died: 1850
Years in Office: 1849–50
Political Party: Whig
Home State: Louisiana
Vice President: Millard Fillmore

13 Millard Fillmore
Born: 1800  Died: 1874
Years in Office: 1850–53
Political Party: Whig
Home State: New York
Vice President: None

14 Franklin Pierce
Born: 1804  Died: 1869
Years in Office: 1853–57
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: New Hampshire
Vice President: William R. King

15 James Buchanan
Born: 1791  Died: 1868
Years in Office: 1857–61
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Pennsylvania
Vice President: John C. Breckinridge

16 Abraham Lincoln
Born: 1809  Died: 1865
Years in Office: 1861–65
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Illinois
Vice Presidents: Hannibal Hamlin, Andrew Johnson

17 Andrew Johnson
Born: 1808  Died: 1875
Years in Office: 1865–69
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Tennessee
Vice President: None
18 Ulysses S. Grant
Born: 1822  Died: 1885
Years in Office: 1869–77
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Illinois
Vice Presidents: Schuyler Colfax, Henry Wilson

19 Rutherford B. Hayes
Born: 1822  Died: 1893
Years in Office: 1877–81
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Ohio
Vice President: William A. Wheeler

20 James A. Garfield
Born: 1831  Died: 1881
Years in Office: 1881
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Ohio
Vice President: Chester A. Arthur

21 Chester A. Arthur
Born: 1829  Died: 1886
Years in Office: 1881–85
Political Party: Republican
Home State: New York
Vice President: None

22 Grover Cleveland
Born: 1837  Died: 1908
Years in Office: 1885–89
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: New York
Vice President: Thomas A. Hendricks

23 Benjamin Harrison
Born: 1833  Died: 1901
Years in Office: 1889–93
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Indiana
Vice President: Levi P. Morton

24 Grover Cleveland
Born: 1837  Died: 1908
Years in Office: 1893–97
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: New York
Vice President: Adlai E. Stevenson

25 William McKinley
Born: 1843  Died: 1901
Years in Office: 1897–1901
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Ohio
Vice Presidents: Garret A. Hobart, Theodore Roosevelt

26 Theodore Roosevelt
Born: 1858  Died: 1919
Years in Office: 1901–09
Political Party: Republican
Home State: New York
Vice President: Charles W. Fairbanks
27 **William Howard Taft**  
Born: 1857  Died: 1930  
Years in Office: 1909–13  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice President: James S. Sherman

28 **Woodrow Wilson**  
Born: 1856  Died: 1924  
Years in Office: 1913–21  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New Jersey  
Vice President: Thomas R. Marshall

29 **Warren G. Harding**  
Born: 1865  Died: 1923  
Years in Office: 1921–23  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Ohio  
Vice President: Calvin Coolidge

30 **Calvin Coolidge**  
Born: 1872  Died: 1933  
Years in Office: 1923–29  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Massachusetts  
Vice President: Charles G. Dawes

31 **Herbert Hoover**  
Born: 1874  Died: 1964  
Years in Office: 1929–33  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: California  
Vice President: Charles Curtis

32 **Franklin D. Roosevelt**  
Born: 1882  Died: 1945  
Years in Office: 1933–45  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: New York  
Vice Presidents: John Nance Garner, Henry Wallace, Harry S Truman

33 **Harry S Truman**  
Born: 1884  Died: 1972  
Years in Office: 1945–53  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: Missouri  
Vice President: Alben W. Barkley

34 **Dwight D. Eisenhower**  
Born: 1890  Died: 1969  
Years in Office: 1953–61  
Political Party: Republican  
Home State: Kansas  
Vice President: Richard M. Nixon

35 **John F. Kennedy**  
Born: 1917  Died: 1963  
Years in Office: 1961–63  
Political Party: Democratic  
Home State: Massachusetts  
Vice President: Lyndon B. Johnson
36 Lyndon B. Johnson
Born: 1908  Died: 1973
Years in Office: 1963–69
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Texas
Vice President: Hubert H. Humphrey

37 Richard M. Nixon
Born: 1913  Died: 1994
Years in Office: 1969–74
Political Party: Republican
Home State: California
Vice Presidents: Spiro T. Agnew, Gerald R. Ford

38 Gerald R. Ford
Born: 1913  Died: 2006
Years in Office: 1974–77
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Michigan
Vice President: Nelson A. Rockefeller

39 Jimmy Carter
Born: 1924
Years in Office: 1977–81
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Georgia
Vice President: Walter F. Mondale

40 Ronald Reagan
Born: 1911  Died: 2004
Years in Office: 1981–89
Political Party: Republican
Home State: California
Vice President: George Bush

41 George Bush
Born: 1924
Years in Office: 1989–93
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Texas
Vice President: J. Danforth Quayle

42 Bill Clinton
Born: 1946
Years in Office: 1993–2001
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Arkansas
Vice President: Albert Gore Jr.

43 George W. Bush
Born: 1946
Years in Office: 2001–2009
Political Party: Republican
Home State: Texas
Vice President: Richard B. Cheney

44 Barack Obama
Born: 1961
Years in Office: 2009–
Political Party: Democratic
Home State: Illinois
Vice President: Joe Biden
# Facts About the States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Year of Statehood</th>
<th>2010 Population</th>
<th>Area (Sq. Mi.)</th>
<th>Population Density (per Sq. Mi.)</th>
<th>Capital</th>
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<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>1819</td>
<td>4,779,736</td>
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<td>State</td>
<td>Year of Statehood</td>
<td>2010 Population</td>
<td>Area (Sq. Mi.)</td>
<td>Population Density (per Sq. Mi.)</td>
<td>Capital</td>
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<td>563,626</td>
<td>97,100</td>
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American Flag

The American flag is a symbol of the nation. It is recognized instantly, whether as a big banner waving in the wind or a tiny emblem worn on a lapel. The flag is so important that it is a major theme of the national anthem, “The Star-Spangled Banner.” One of the most popular names for the flag is the Stars and Stripes. It is also known as Old Glory.

THE MEANING OF THE FLAG

The American flag has 13 stripes—7 red and 6 white. In the upper-left corner of the flag is the union—50 white five-pointed stars against a blue background.

The 13 stripes stand for the original 13 American states, and the 50 stars represent the states of the nation today. According to the U.S. Department of State, the colors of the flag also are symbolic:

- **Red stands for courage.**
- **White symbolizes purity.**
- **Blue is the color of vigilance, perseverance, and justice.**

DISPLAYING THE FLAG

It is customary not to display the American flag in bad weather. It is also customary for the flag to be displayed outdoors only from sunrise to sunset, except on certain occasions. In a few special places, however, the flag is always flown day and night. When flown at night, the flag should be illuminated.

Near a speaker's platform, the flag should occupy the place of honor at the speaker's right. When carried in a parade with other flags, the American flag should be on the marching right or in front at the center. When flying with the flags of the 50 states, the national flag must be at the center and the highest point. In a group of national flags, all should be of equal size and all should be flown from staffs, or flagpoles, of equal height.

The flag should never touch the ground or the floor. It should not be marked with any insignia, pictures, or words. Nor should it be used in any disrespectful way—as an advertising decoration, for instance. The flag should never be dipped to honor any person or thing.

SALUTING THE FLAG

The United States, like other countries, has a flag code, or rules for displaying and honoring the flag. For example, all those present should stand at attention facing the flag and salute it when it is being raised or lowered or when it is carried past them in a parade or procession. A man wearing a hat should take it off and hold it with his right hand over his heart. All women and hatless men should stand with their right hands over their hearts to show their respect for the flag. The flag should also receive these honors during the playing of the national anthem and the reciting of the Pledge of Allegiance.

THE PLEDGE OF ALLEGIANCE

The Pledge of Allegiance was written in 1892 by Massachusetts magazine (*Youth’s Companion*) editor Francis Bellamy. (Congress added the words “under God” in 1954.)

> I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the republic for which it stands, one nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.

Civilians should say the Pledge of Allegiance with their right hands placed over their hearts. People in the armed forces give the military salute. By saying the Pledge of Allegiance, we promise loyalty (“pledge allegiance”) to the United States and its ideals.
**“THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER”**

“The Star-Spangled Banner” is the national anthem of the United States. It was written by Francis Scott Key during the War of 1812. While being detained by the British aboard a ship on September 13–14, 1814, Key watched the British bombardment of Fort McHenry at Baltimore. The attack lasted 25 hours. The smoke was so thick that Key could not tell who had won. When the air cleared, Key saw the American flag that was still flying over the fort. “The Star-Spangled Banner” is sung to music written by British composer John Stafford Smith. In 1931 Congress designated “The Star-Spangled Banner” as the national anthem.

Oh, say, can you see, by the dawn’s early light,
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight’s last gleaming,
Whose broad stripes and bright stars through the perilous fight,
O’er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?
And the rockets’ red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.
Oh, say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O’er the land of the free, and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen through the mists of the deep,
Where the foe’s haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o’er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning’s first beam,
In full glory reflected, now shines on the stream.
’Tis the star-spangled banner; oh, long may it wave
O’er the land of the free, and the home of the brave!

And where is that band who so vauntingly swore
That the havoc of war and the battle’s confusion
A home and a country should leave us no more?
Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps’ pollution.
No refuge could save the hireling and slave
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave:
And the star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave
O’er the land of the free, and the home of the brave!

Oh! thus be it ever when freemen shall stand
Between their loved homes and the war’s desolation!
Blest with victory and peace, may the heaven-rescued land
Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation!
Then conquer we must, for our cause is just,
And this be our motto: “In God is our trust!”
And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave,
O’er the land of the free, and the home of the brave!

**“AMERICA, THE BEAUTIFUL”**

One of the most beloved songs celebrating our nation is “America, the Beautiful.” Katharine Lee Bates first wrote the lyrics to the song in 1893 after visiting Colorado. The version of the song we know today is set to music by Samuel A. Ward. The first and last stanzas of “America, the Beautiful” are shown below.

O beautiful for spacious skies,
For amber waves of grain,
For purple mountain majesties
Above the fruited plain!
America! America!
God shed his grace on thee
And crown thy good with brotherhood
From sea to shining sea!

O beautiful for patriot dream
That sees beyond the years
Thine alabaster cities gleam
Undimmed by human tears!
America! America!
God shed his grace on thee
And crown thy good with brotherhood
From sea to shining sea!
abolition  an end to slavery (p. 454)
abolición  fin de la esclavitud (pág. 454)

Adams-Onís Treaty  (1819) an agreement in which Spain gave East Florida to the United States (p. 299)
tratado de Adams y Onís  (1819) acuerdo en el que España cedió el territorio del este de Florida a Estados Unidos (pág. 299)

African Diaspora  the population of displaced Africans and their descendants around the world (p. 60)
Diáspora africana  población de africanos desplazados y sus descendientes en todo el mundo (pág. 60)

Alamo  Spanish mission in San Antonio, Texas, that was the site of a famous battle of the Texas Revolution in 1836 (p. 352)
El Álamo  misión española en San Antonio, Texas; escenario de una famosa batalla durante la Revolución texana de 1836 (pág. 352)

Alien and Sedition Acts  (1798) laws passed by a Federalist-dominated Congress aimed at protecting the government from treasonous ideas, actions, and people (p. 253)

Leyes de No Intervención Extranjera  (1798) leyes aprobadas por un Congreso mayormente federalista con el fin de proteger al gobierno de la influencia de ideas, acciones y personas desleales (pág. 253)

amendment  official change, correction, or addition to a law or constitution (p. 173)
enmienda  cambio, corrección o adición realizado de manera oficial a una ley o constitución (pág. 173)

American Anti-Slavery Society  an organization started by William Lloyd Garrison whose members wanted immediate emancipation and racial equality for African Americans (p. 455)
Sociedad Americana contra la Esclavitud  organización fundada por William Lloyd Garrison cuyos miembros pedían la emancipación inmediata y la igualdad racial de los afroamericanos (pág. 455)

American System  Henry Clay’s plan for raising tariffs to pay for internal improvements such as better roads and canals (p. 302)
Sistema estadounidense  plan de alza de impuestos creado por Henry Clay para realizar mejoras internas como la reparación de caminos y canales (pág. 302)

Antifederalists  people who opposed ratification of the Constitution (p. 170)
antifederalistas  personas que se oponen a la aprobación de la Constitución (pág. 170)
**Appomattox Courthouse** Virginia town where General Robert E. Lee was forced to surrender, thus ending the Civil War (p. 542)

**Appomattox Courthouse** poblado de Virginia donde el general Robert E. Lee fue obligado a rendirse, dando fin a la Guerra Civil (pág. 542)

**Articles of Confederation** (1777) the document that created the first central government for the United States; was replaced by the Constitution in 1789 (p. 154)

**Artículos de la Confederación** (1777) documento que creó el primer gobierno central en Estados Unidos; fue reemplazado por la Constitución en 1789 (pág. 154)

**Astrolabe** a device that enabled navigators to learn their ship’s location by charting the position of the stars (p. 40)

**Astrolabio** instrumento que permitía a los navegantes determinar la posición de una embarcación según la posición de las estrellas (pág. 40)

**Bacon’s Rebellion** (1676) an attack led by Nathaniel Bacon against American Indians and the colonial government in Virginia (p. 74)

**Rebelión de Bacon** (1676) ataque encabezado por Nathaniel Bacon contra los indígenas norteamericanos y el gobierno colonial en Virginia (pág. 74)

**Bank of the United States** a national bank chartered by Congress in 1791 to provide security for the U.S. economy (p. 242)

**Banco de Estados Unidos** banco nacional constituido por el Congreso en 1791 para dar estabilidad a la economía de Estados Unidos (pág. 242)

**Battle of Antietam** (1862) a Union victory in the Civil War that marked the bloodiest single-day battle in U.S. military history (p. 519)

**Batalla de Antietam** (1862) victoria del ejército de la Unión durante la Guerra Civil en la batalla de un solo día más sangrienta en la historia militar de Estados Unidos (pág. 519)

**Battle of Bunker Hill** (1775) a Revolutionary War battle in Boston that demonstrated that the colonists could fight well against the British army (p. 115)

**Batalla de Bunker Hill** (1775) batalla de la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense que tuvo lugar en Boston; en ésta se demostró que los colonos podían luchar bien contra el ejército británico (pág. 115)

**Battle of Fallen Timbers** (1794) a battle between U.S. troops and an American Indian confederation that ended Indian efforts to halt white settlement in the Northwest Territory (p. 247)

**Batalla de Fallen Timbers** (1794) batalla entre las tropas estadounidenses y una confederación de indígenas norteamericanos que puso fin a los intentos de los indígenas para detener la emigración de personas de raza blanca al Territorio del Noroeste (pág. 247)

**Battle of Gettysburg** (1863) a Union Civil War victory that turned the tide against the Confederates at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania (p. 537)

**Batalla de Gettysburg** (1863) victoria del ejército de la Unión durante la Guerra Civil que cambió el curso de la guerra en contra de los confederados en Gettysburg, Pensilvania (pág. 537)

**Battle of Lake Erie** (1813) U.S. victory in the War of 1812, led by Oliver Hazard Perry; broke Britain’s control of Lake Erie (p. 285)

**Batalla del lago Erie** (1813) victoria en la Guerra de 1812 en la que el ejército estadounidense, comandado por Oliver Hazard Perry, puso fin al control británico del lago Erie (pág. 285)

**Battle of New Orleans** (1815) the greatest U.S. victory in the War of 1812; actually took place two weeks after a peace treaty had been signed ending the war (p. 286)

**Batalla de Nueva Orleans** (1815) la mayor victoria del ejército estadounidense en la Guerra de 1812; tuvo lugar dos semanas después de la firma de un tratado de paz en el que se declaraba el final de la guerra (pág. 286)

**Battle of San Jacinto** (1836) the final battle of the Texas Revolution; resulted in the defeat of the Mexican army and independence for Texas (p. 352)

**Batalla de San Jacinto** (1836) batalla final de la Revolución texana en la que fue derrotado el ejército mexicano y Texas obtuvo su independencia (pág. 352)

**Battle of Saratoga** (1777) a Revolutionary War battle in New York that resulted in a major defeat of British troops; marked the Patriots’ greatest victory up to that point in the war (p. 130)

**Batalla de Saratoga** (1777) batalla de la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense que tuvo lugar en Nueva York y en la que las fuerzas británicas sufrieron una de sus mayores derrotas; los patriotas obtuvieron su mayor victoria hasta ese momento (pág. 130)

**Battle of Shiloh** (1862) a Civil War battle in Tennessee in which the Union army gained greater control over the Mississippi River valley (p. 523)

**Batalla de Shiloh** (1862) batalla de la Guerra Civil en Tennessee en la que el ejército de la Unión adquirió mayor control sobre el valle del río Mississippi (pág. 523)

**Battle of Tippecanoe** (1811) U.S. victory over an Indian confederation that wanted to stop white settlement in the Northwest Territory; increased tensions between Great Britain and the United States (p. 282)

**Batalla de Tippecanoe** (1811) victoria del ejército estadounidense sobre la confederación indígena que intentaba evitar el establecimiento de poblaciones de blancos en el Territorio del Noroeste; esta batalla aumentó las hostilidades entre Gran Bretaña y Estados Unidos (pág. 282)

**Battle of Trenton** (1776) a Revolutionary War battle in New Jersey in which Patriot forces captured more than 900 Hessian troops (p. 129)
Battle of Trenton/batalla de Trenton (1776) batalla de la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense que tuvo lugar en Nueva Jersey; en esta batalla las fuerzas de los patriotas capturaron a más de 900 soldados mercenarios hessianos (pág. 129)

Battle of Yorktown (1781) the last major battle of the Revolutionary War; site of British general Charles Cornwallis's surrender to the Patriots in Virginia (p. 137)

Black Codes laws passed in the southern states during Reconstruction that greatly limited the freedom and rights of African Americans (p. 558)

caravels ships that used triangular sails to sail against the wind, and had rudders to improve steering (p. 40)

cartella documento real que da a una persona el derecho a establecer una colonia (pág. 54)

civil law a system established by the Constitution that prevents any branch of government from becoming too powerful (p. 167)

debate to travel all the way around (p. 44)

denounce to travel all the way around (p. 44)

Boston Massacre (1770) an incident in which British soldiers fired into a crowd of colonists, killing five people (p. 101)

Boston Tea Party (1773) a protest against the Tea Act in which a group of colonists boarded British tea ships and dumped more than 340 chests of tea into Boston Harbor (p. 102)

Boston Massacre (1770) incidente en el que los soldados británicos dispararon entre una multitud de colonos, ocasionando la muerte a cinco personas (pág. 101)

Bureau of Indian Affairs a government agency created in the 1800s to oversee federal policy toward Native Americans (p. 332)

Californios Spanish colonists in California in the 1800s (p. 357)

californios colonos españoles que vivían en California en el siglo XIX (pág. 357)

Californios Spanish colonists in California in the 1800s (p. 357)

californios colonos españoles que vivían en California en el siglo XIX (pág. 357)

caravellas barcos que usaban velas triangulares para navegar contra el viento y que tenían timones para mejorar la dirección (pág. 40)

charter an official document that gives a person the right to establish a colony (p. 54)

cartilla documento real que da a una persona el derecho a establecer una colonia (pág. 54)

circumnavigate to travel all the way around (p. 44)

circunnavegar viajar rodeando por completo (pág. 44)

Bill of Rights the first 10 amendments to the Constitution; ratified in 1791 (p. 173)

Boston Massacre (1770) incidente en el que los soldados británicos dispararon entre una multitud de colonos, ocasionando la muerte a cinco personas (pág. 101)

Bureau of Indian Affairs a government agency created in the 1800s to oversee federal policy toward Native Americans (p. 332)

Boston Tea Party (1773) a protest against the Tea Act in which a group of colonists boarded British tea ships and dumped more than 340 chests of tea into Boston Harbor (p. 102)

Bureau of Indian Affairs a government agency created in the 1800s to oversee federal policy toward Native Americans (p. 332)

Circumnavigate to travel all the way around (p. 44)

Circunnavegar viajar rodeando por completo (pág. 44)
Civil Rights Act of 1866  a law that gave African Americans legal rights equal to those of white Americans (p. 560)

Ley de Derechos Civiles de 1866  ley que daba a los afroamericanos derechos legales similares a los que tenían los ciudadanos de raza blanca (pág. 560)

Clermont  the first full-sized U.S. commercial steamboat; developed by Robert Fulton and tested in 1807 (p. 397)

Clermont  primer barco comercial de vapor de grandes dimensiones, diseñado por Robert Fulton y probado en 1807 (pág. 397)

Columbian Exchange  the transfer of plants, animals, and diseases between the Americas and Europe, Asia, and Africa (p. 45)

intercambio colombino  intercambio de plantas y animales entre el Nuevo Mundo y el Viejo Mundo que tuvo lugar tras el viaje de Colón (pág. 45)

Committees of Correspondence  committees created by the Massachusetts House of Representatives in the 1760s to help towns and colonies share information about resisting British laws (p. 99)

comités de correspondencia  comités creados por la Cámara de Representantes de Massachusetts en la década de 1760 para que poblados y colonias compartieran información que los ayudara a resistirse a las leyes británicas (pág. 99)

common-school movement  a social reform effort that began in the mid-1800s and promoted the idea of having all children educated in a common place regardless of social class or background (p. 450)

movimiento de escuelas comunes  reforma social iniciada a mediados del siglo XIX para fomentar la idea de que todos los niños debían recibir educación en un mismo lugar sin importar su origen o clase social (pág. 450)

Common Sense  (1776) a pamphlet written by Thomas Paine that criticized monarchies and convinced many American colonists of the need to break away from Britain (p. 118)

Sentido común  (1776) folleto escrito por Thomas Paine en el que criticaba a las monarquías con el fin de convencer a los colonos estadounidenses de la necesidad de independizarse de Gran Bretaña (pág. 118)

Compromise of 1850  Henry Clay’s proposed agreement that allowed California to enter the Union as a free state and divided the rest of the Mexican Cession into two territories where slavery would be decided by popular sovereignty (p. 479)

Acuerdo de 1850  acuerdo redactado por Henry Clay en que se permitía a California ingresar en la Unión como estado libre y se proponía la división del resto del territorio cedido por México en dos partes donde la esclavitud sería reglamentada por soberanía popular (pág. 479)

Compromise of 1877  an agreement to settle the disputed presidential election of 1876; Democrats agreed to accept Republican Rutherford B. Hayes as president in return for the removal of federal troops from the South (p. 567)

Acuerdo de 1877  acuerdo en el que se resolvió la disputa de las elecciones presidenciales de 1876; los demócratas aceptaron al republicano Rutherford B. Hayes como presidente a cambio del retiro de las tropas federales del Sur (pág. 567)

Confederate States of America  the nation formed by the southern states when they seceded from the Union; also known as the Confederacy (p. 497)

Estados Confederados de América  nación formada por los estados del Sur cuando se separaron de la Unión; también conocida como Confederación (pág. 497)

conquistador  a Spanish soldier and explorer who led military expeditions in the Americas and captured land for Spain (p. 46)

conquistador  soldado y explorador español que encabezó expediciones militares en América y capturó territorios en nombre de España (pág. 46)

constitution  a set of basic principles that determines the powers and duties of a government (p. 153)

constitución  conjunto de principios básicos que determina los poderes y las obligaciones de un gobierno (pág. 153)

Constitutional Convention  (1787) a meeting held in Philadelphia at which delegates from the states wrote the Constitution (p. 164)

Convención Constitucional  (1787) encuentro realizado en Filadelfia en el que delegados de los estados redactaron la Constitución (pág. 164)

Constitutional Union Party  a political party formed in 1860 by a group of northerners and southerners who supported the Union, its laws, and the Constitution (p. 495)

Partido Constitucional por la Unión  partido político formado en 1860 por habitantes del Norte y del Sur en apoyo de la Unión, sus leyes y la Constitución (pág. 495)

Continental Army  the army created by the Second Continental Congress in 1775 to defend the American colonies from Britain (p. 114)

Ejército Continental  ejército creado por el Segundo Congreso Continental en 1775 para defender las colonias estadounidenses del dominio británico (pág. 114)

contraband  an escaped slave who joined the Union army during the Civil War (p. 531)

contrabando  bienes introducidos en un país de forma ilegal; esclavo que escapó y que se unió al ejército de la Unión durante la Guerra Civil (pág. 531)

Convention of 1818  an agreement between the United States and Great Britain that settled fishing rights and established new North American borders (p. 298)
Convention of 1818 / Convención de 1818

Declaration of Independence (1776) the document written to declare the colonies free from British rule (p. 119)

Copperheads a group of northern Democrats who opposed abolition and sympathized with the South during the Civil War (p. 532)
copperheads grupo de demócratas del Norte que se oponían a la abolición de la esclavitud y simpatizaban con las creencias sureñas durante la Guerra Civil (pág. 532)
cotton belt a region stretching from South Carolina to east Texas where most U.S. cotton was produced during the mid-1800s (p. 416)
región algodonera zona que se extendía desde Carolina del Sur hasta el este de Texas, en la que se producía la mayor parte del algodón cosechado en Estados Unidos a mediados del siglo XIX (pág. 416)
cotton diplomacy Confederate efforts to use the importance of southern cotton to Britain's textile industry to persuade the British to support the Confederacy in the Civil War (p. 513)
diplomacia del algodón esfuerzos de la Confederación por aprovechar la influencia del algodón del Sur en la industria textil británica para convencer a Gran Bretaña de apoyar su causa durante la Guerra Civil (pág. 513)
cotton gin a machine invented by Eli Whitney in 1793 to remove seeds from short-staple cotton; revolutionized the cotton industry (p. 415)
desmotadora de algodón máquina inventada por Eli Whitney en 1793 para separar las fibras de algodón de las semillas; revolucionó la industria del algodón (pág. 415)
culture the common values and traditions of a society, such as language, government, and family relationships (p. 7)
cultura valores y tradiciones comunes de una sociedad, como el lenguaje, el gobierno y las relaciones familiares (pág. 7)

Cumberland Road the first federal road project, construction of which began in 1815; ran from Cumberland, Maryland, to present-day Wheeling, West Virginia (p. 303)
camino de Cumberland primer proyecto federal de construcción de carreteras, iniciado en 1815 para crear un camino entre Cumberland, Maryland y el poblado que actualmente lleva el nombre de Wheeling, en Virginia Occidental (pág. 303)

declaration of sentiments (1848) a statement written and signed by women's rights supporters at the Seneca Falls Convention; detailed their beliefs about social injustice against women (p. 464)
decisión de sentimientos declaración redactada y firmada por una serie de personas en apoyo de los derechos de la mujer durante la Convención de Seneca Falls, en la que se describía con detalle su punto de vista sobre las injusticias sociales que afectaban a las mujeres (pág. 464)
democracy a government in which people rule themselves (p. 23)
democracia gobierno en el que el pueblo se gobierna a sí mismo (pág. 23)

Democratic Party a political party formed by supporters of Andrew Jackson after the presidential election of 1824 (p. 323)
Partido Demócrata partido político formado por partidarios de Andrew Jackson después de las elecciones presidenciales de 1824 (pág. 323)

Democratic-Republican Party a political party founded in the 1790s by Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and other leaders who wanted to preserve the power of the state governments and promote agriculture (p. 250)
Partido Demócrata Republicano partido político formado en la década de 1790 por Thomas Jefferson, James Madison y otros líderes políticos con el fin de preservar el poder de los gobiernos estatales y promover la agricultura (pág. 250)
deport to send an immigrant back to his or her country of origin (p. 222)
deportar enviar a un inmigrante de regreso a su país de origen (pág. 222)
depression a steep drop in economic activity combined with rising unemployment (p. 161)
depresión descenso considerable en la actividad económica, combinado con un alza en el desempleo (pág. 161)

Donner party a group of western travelers who were stranded in the Sierra Nevada during the winter of 1846–47; only 45 of the party's 87 members survived (p. 365)
grupo Donner grupo de viajeros del Oeste extraviados en la Sierra Nevada durante el invierno de 1846–47; sólo 45 de los 87 viajeros sobrevivieron (pág. 365)
double jeopardy the act of trying a person twice for the same crime (p. 218)
doble proceso acto de juzgar a una persona dos veces por el mismo delito (pág. 218)
draft a system of required service in the armed forces (p. 223)
conscripción sistema de servicio obligatorio en las fuerzas armadas (pág. 223)
due process  the fair application of the law (p. 218)
debido proceso  aplicación justa de la ley (pág. 218)
electoral college  a group of people selected from each of the states to cast votes in presidential elections (p. 234)
colegio electoral  grupo de personas elegido en cada estado para votar en las elecciones presidenciales (pág. 234)
emancipation  freeing of the slaves (p. 529)
emancipación  liberación de los esclavos (pág. 529)
Emancipation Proclamation  (1862) an order issued by President Abraham Lincoln freeing the slaves in areas rebelling against the Union; took effect January 1, 1863 (p. 529)
Proclamación de Emancipación  (1862) decreto emitido por el presidente Abraham Lincoln para liberar a los esclavos en las áreas que luchaban contra la Unión; entró en vigor el primero de enero de 1863 (pág. 529)
embargo  the banning of trade with a country (p. 279)
embargo  prohibición del comercio con un país (pág. 279)
Embargo Act  (1807) a law that prohibited American merchants from trading with other countries (p. 279)
Ley de Embargo  (1807) ley que prohibía a los comerciantes estadounidenses comerciar con otros países (pág. 279)
eminent domain  the government’s power to take personal property to benefit the public (p. 218)
derecho de expropiación  poder otorgado al gobierno para tomar propiedades particulares por el bien común (pág. 218)
emperors  agents who were contracted by the Mexican republic to bring settlers to Texas in the early 1800s (p. 350)
emperadores  personas contratadas por la República Mexicana para reclutar personas que desearan establecer poblaciones en Texas a principios del siglo XIX (pág. 350)
encomienda system  a system in Spanish America that gave settlers the right to tax local Indians or to demand their labor in exchange for protecting them and converting them to Christianity (p. 50)
sistema de encomienda  sistema adoptado en la América española que permitía a los colonos cobrar impuestos a los indígenas o exigirles trabajo a cambio de su protección y de convertirlos al cristianismo (pág. 50)
English Bill of Rights  (1689) a shift of political power from the British monarchy to Parliament (pp. 91, 152)
Declaración de Derechos inglesa  (1689) cambio del poder político de la monarquía británica al Parlamento inglés (pág. 91, 152)
Enlightenment  the Age of Reason; movement that began in Europe in the 1700s as people began examining the natural world, society, and government (p. 95)
Ilustración  Era de la Razón; movimiento iniciado en Europa en el siglo XVIII cuando las personas empezaron a adquirir más conocimientos sobre la naturaleza, la sociedad y el gobierno (pág. 95)
environment  the climate and landscape that surrounds living things (p. 7)
medio ambiente  el clima y paisaje donde habitan seres vivos (pág. 7)
Era of Good Feelings  a period of peace, pride, and progress for the United States from 1815 to 1825 (p. 303)
Era de los buenos sentimientos  periodo de paz, orgullo y progreso de los Estados Unidos de 1815 a 1825 (pág. 303)
Erie Canal  the canal that runs from Albany to Buffalo, New York; completed in 1825 (p. 303)
canal de Erie  canal que va de Albany a Búfalo, en el estado de Nueva York; completado en 1825 (pág. 303)
executive branch  the division of the federal government that includes the president and the administrative departments; enforces the nation’s laws (p. 167)
poder ejecutivo  división del gobierno federal que incluye al presidente y a los departamentos administrativos; vigila el cumplimiento de las leyes de la nación (pág. 167)
executive orders  nonlegislative directives issued by the U.S. president in certain circumstances; executive orders have the force of congressional law (p. 185)
órdenes ejecutivas  órdenes no legislativas dictadas por el presidente de Estados Unidos en circunstancias específicas; tienen la misma validez que las leyes del Congreso (pág. 185)
factor  a crop broker who managed the trade between southern planters and their customers (p. 417)
comisionado  intermediario que administraba el intercambio comercial entre las plantaciones del Sur y sus clientes (pág. 417)
federal system  a system that divided powers between the states and the federal government (p. 182)
sistema federal  sistema en el que se distribuye el poder entre los estados y el gobierno federal (pág. 182)
federalism  U.S. system of government in which power is distributed between a central government and individual states (p. 167)
federalismo  sistema de gobierno de Estados Unidos en el que el poder está distribuido entre una autoridad centralizada y varios estados (pág. 167)
**Federalist Papers** a series of essays that defended and explained the Constitution and tried to reassure Americans that the states would not be overpowered by the proposed national government (p. 171)  
**Federalist Papers** serie de ensayos que defienden y explican la Constitución con el propósito de que los ciudadanos quedarán convencidos de que el gobierno nacional propuesto no tendría supremacía sobre el gobierno de los estados (pág. 171)  
**Federalist Party** a political party created in the 1790s and influenced by Alexander Hamilton that wanted to strengthen the federal government and promote industry and trade (p. 250)  
**Partido Federalista** partido político creado en la década de 1790 siguiendo las ideas de Alexander Hamilton para fortalecer al gobierno federal y fomentar la industria y el intercambio comercial (pág. 250)  
**Federalists** people who supported ratification of the Constitution (p. 170)  
**federalistas** personas que apoyaban la ratificación de la Constitución (pág. 170)  
**Fifteenth Amendment** (1870) a constitutional amendment that gave African American men the right to vote (p. 563)  
**Decimoquinta Enmienda** (1870) enmienda constitucional que otorgaba derechos totales de ciudadanía a todos los hombres nacidos en Estados Unidos o naturalizados estadounidenses, con excepción de los indígenas (pág. 561)  
**Freedmen’s Bureau** an agency established by Congress in 1865 to help poor people throughout the South (p. 556)  
**Fuerza Sumter** fuerte federal en Charleston, South Carolina, que fue atacado por parte de los confederados en abril de 1861 dando origen a la Guerra Civil (pág. 511)  
**forty-niner** a gold-seeker who moved to California during the gold rush (p. 365)  
**gambúsino** buscador de oro que emigró a California durante la fiebre del oro (pág. 365)  
**Fourteenth Amendment** (1866) a constitutional amendment giving full rights of citizenship to all people born or naturalized in the United States, except for American Indians (p. 561)  
**Doctrina de Freeport** (1858) declaración hecha por Stephen Douglas durante los debates Lincoln-Douglas que señalaba que el pueblo podía usar la soberanía popular para decidir si su estado o territorio debía permitir la esclavitud (pág. 492)  
**Free-Soil Party** a political party formed in 1848 by anti-slavery northerners who left the Whig and Democratic parties because neither addressed the slavery issue (p. 477)  
**French Revolution** French rebellion that began in 1789 in which the French people overthrew the monarchy and made their country a republic (p. 243)  
**folktales** a story that often provides a moral lesson (p. 427)  
**cuento popular** narración que con frecuencia ofrece una moraleja (pág. 427)  
**First Battle of Bull Run** (1861) the first major battle of the Civil War, resulting in a Confederate victory; showed that the Civil War would not be won easily (p. 517)  
**la primera batalla de Bull Run** (1861) primera batalla importante de la Guerra Civil, en la cual el ejército confederado obtuvo la victoria; en esta batalla se demostró que ninguno de los bandos ganaría la guerra con facilidad (pág. 517)  
**First Continental Congress** (1774) a meeting of colonial delegates in Philadelphia to decide how to respond to the closing of Boston Harbor, increased taxes, and abuses of authority by the British government; delegates petitioned King George III, listing the freedoms they believed colonists should enjoy (p. 112)  
**Primer Congreso Continental** (1774) encuentro de delegados de las colonias en Filadelfia para decidir cómo respondían al cierre del puerto de Boston, al alza de impuestos y a los abusos de la autoridad británica; los delegados hicieron una serie de peticiones al rey Jorge III, incluyendo los derechos que consideraban justos para los colonos (pág. 112)  
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Fugitive Slave Act (1850) a law that made it a crime to help runaway slaves; allowed for the arrest of escaped slaves in areas where slavery was illegal and required their return to slaveholders (p. 479)

Ley de Esclavos Fugitivos (1850) ley que calificaba como delito el ayudar a un esclavo a escapar de su amo, además de permitir la captura de esclavos fugitivos en zonas donde la esclavitud era ilegal para devolverlos a sus dueños (pág. 479)

Gadsden Purchase (1853) U.S. purchase of land from Mexico that included the southern parts of present-day Arizona and New Mexico (p. 361)

Compra de Gadsden (1853) compra por parte del gobierno de Estados Unidos de territorio mexicano que incluía la región ocupada actualmente por el sur de Arizona y Nuevo México (pág. 361)

Gettysburg Address (1863) a speech given by Abraham Lincoln in which he praised the bravery of Union soldiers and renewed his commitment to winning the Civil War (p. 540)

Discurso de Gettysburg (1863) discurso presentado por Abraham Lincoln en el que alababa la valentía de las tropas de la Unión y renovaba su compromiso de triunfar en la Guerra Civil (pág. 540)

Gibbons v. Ogden (1824) a Supreme Court ruling that reinforced the federal government's authority over the states (p. 397)

Gibbons contra Ogden (1824) decreto de la Corte Suprema que reforzó la autoridad del gobierno federal sobre los estados (pág. 397)

Great Awakening a religious movement that became widespread in the American colonies in the 1730s and 1740s (p. 94)

Gran Despertar movimiento religioso que tuvo gran popularidad en las colonias estadounidenses en las décadas de 1730 y 1740 (pág. 94)

Great Compromise (1787) an agreement worked out at the Constitutional Convention establishing that a state's population would determine representation in the lower house of the legislature, while each state would have equal representation in the upper house of the legislature (p. 165)

Gran Acuerdo (1787) acuerdo redactado durante la Convención Constitucional en el que se establece que la población de un estado debe determinar su representación en la cámara baja de la asamblea legislativa y que cada estado debe tener igual representación en la cámara alta de ésta (pág. 165)

habeas corpus the constitutional protection against unlawful imprisonment (p. 532)

Hábeas corpus protección constitucional contra el encarcelamiento ilegal (pág. 532)

hajj a pilgrimage to Mecca made by devout Muslims (p. 18)

Hajj peregrinaje a la Meca que realizan los musulmanes devotos (pág. 18)

Hartford Convention (1815) a meeting of Federalists at Hartford, Connecticut, to protest the War of 1812 (p. 287)

Convención de Hartford (1815) encuentro de federa- listas en Hartford, Connecticut, para protestar por la Guerra de 1812 (pág. 287)

Hudson River school a group of American artists in the mid-1800s whose paintings focused on the American landscape (p. 310)

Escuela del Río Hudson grupo de artistas norteamericanos a mediados del siglo XIX cuya obra muestra diversos paisajes del territorio estadounidense (pág. 310)

hunter-gatherer a person who hunts animals and gathers wild plants to provide for his or her needs (p. 6)

Cazador y recolector persona que caza animales y recolecta plantas para satisfacer sus necesidades (pág. 6)

Immigrant a person who moves to another country after leaving his or her homeland (p. 78)

Inmigrante persona que abandona su país para establecerse en un país diferente (pág. 78)

Immune having a natural resistance to disease (p. 58)

Inmune la condición de tener resistencia natural contra la enfermedad (pág. 58)

Impeach to bring charges against (p. 184)

Someter a juicio político presentar cargos en contra de un funcionario (pág. 184)

Impeachment the process used by a legislative body to bring charges of wrongdoing against a public official (p. 562)

Juicio político proceso por el cual se presentan cargos en contra de un funcionario público (pág. 562)

Impressment the practice of forcing people to serve in the army or navy; led to increased tensions between Great Britain and the United States in the early 1800s (p. 279)

Leva práctica que obligaba a las personas a servir en el ejército o la marina; aumentó las fricciones entre Gran Bretaña y Estados Unidos a principios del siglo XIX (pág. 279)
indentured servant / serviente por contrato

**indentured servant** a colonist who received free passage to North America in exchange for working without pay for a certain number of years (p. 74)

**serviente por contrato** colono que recibía un pasaje gratuito a Norteamérica a cambio de trabajar sin salario por varios años (pág. 74)

**Indian Removal Act** (1830) a congressional act that authorized the removal of Native Americans who lived east of the Mississippi River (p. 332)

**Ley de Expulsión de Indígenas** (1830) ley redactada por el Congreso que autorizaba la expulsión de los indígenas norteamericanos que habitaban al este del río Mississippi (pág. 332)

**-interest group** a group of people who share common interests for political action (p. 224)

**grupo de interés** grupo de personas que comparten intereses comunes en lo que respecta a iniciativas políticas (pág. 224)

**interchangeable parts** a process developed by Eli Whitney in the 1790s that called for making each part of a machine exactly the same (p. 387)

**piezas intercambiables** proceso desarrollado por Eli Whitney en la década de 1790 para que las piezas de todas las máquinas similares fueran exactamente iguales (pág. 387)

**inflation** increased prices for goods and services combined with the reduced value of money (p. 161)

**inflación** alza en los precios de los bienes al mismo tiempo que se produce una devaluación del dinero (p. 161)

**joint-stock company** a business formed by a group of people who jointly make an investment and share in the profits and losses (p. 27)

**sociedad por acciones** negocio formado por un grupo de personas que realizan una inversión conjuntamente y comparten las ganancias y las pérdidas (pág. 27)

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**Ironclad** a warship that is heavily armored with iron (p. 520)

**acorazado** buque de guerra fuertemente protegido con hierro (pág. 520)

**Iroquois League** a political confederation of five northeastern Native American nations of the Seneca, Oneida, Mohawk, Cayuga, and Onondaga that made decisions concerning war and peace (p. 14)

**Liga de Iroqueses** confederación política formada por cinco naciones indígenas del noreste de Estados Unidos (los senecas, los oneidas, los mohawks, los cayugas y los onondagas) para tomar decisiones relacionadas con asuntos de guerra y de paz (pág. 14)

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**Jacksonian Democracy** an expansion of voting rights during the popular Andrew Jackson administration (p. 323)

**democracia jacksoniana** ampliación del derecho al voto durante el popular gobierno del presidente Andrew Jackson (pág. 323)

**James Town** the first colony in America; set up in 1607 along the James River in Virginia (p. 72)

**Jamestown** primera colonia estadounidense; fundada en 1607 a lo largo del río James en Virginia (pág. 72)

**Jay's Treaty** (1794) an agreement negotiated by John Jay to work out problems between Britain and the United States over northwestern lands, British seizure of U.S. ships, and U.S. debts owed to the British (p. 245)

**Tratado de Jay** (1794) acuerdo negociado por John Jay para resolver los problemas entre Gran Bretaña y Estados Unidos por los territorios del noroeste, por la incautación británica de barcos estadounidenses, y por las deudas estadounidenses con los británicos (pág. 245)

**Jim Crow law** a law that enforced segregation in the southern states (p. 568)

**ley de Jim Crow** ley que fomentaba la segregación en los estados del Sur (pág. 568)

**John Brown's raid** (1859) an incident in which abolitionist John Brown and 21 other men captured a federal arsenal in Harpers Ferry, Virginia, in hope of starting a slave rebellion (p. 493)

**ataque de John Brown** (1859) incidente en el que el abolicionista John Brown y otros 21 hombres se apropiaron de un arsenal federal en Harpers Ferry, Virginia, con la esperanza de iniciar una rebelión de esclavos (pág. 493)

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**Industrial Revolution** a period of rapid growth in the use of machines in manufacturing and production that began in the mid-1700s (p. 385)

**revolución industrial** período de rápido desarrollo debido al uso de maquinaria en la fabricación y producción; comenzó a mediados del siglo XVIII (pág. 385)

**interest group** a group of people who share common interests for political action (p. 224)

**grupo de interés** grupo de personas que comparten intereses comunes en lo que respecta a iniciativas políticas (pág. 224)

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**interstate commerce** trade between two or more states (p. 160)

**comercio interestatal** intercambio comercial entre dos o más estados (pág. 160)

**Intolerable Acts** (1774) laws passed by Parliament to punish the colonists for the Boston Tea Party and to tighten government control of the colonies (p. 102)

**Ley de Asuntos Intolerables** (1774) serie de decretos aprobados por el Parlamento para castigar a los colonos que participaron en el Motín del Té de Boston y para aumentar su control sobre las colonias (pág. 102)
judicial branch/poder judicial

judicial branch the division of the federal government that is made up of the national courts; interprets laws, punishes criminals, and settles disputes between states (p. 167)
poder judicial división del gobierno federal conformada por las cortes de justicia; interpreta las leyes, castiga a los delincuentes y resuelve las disputas entre estados (pág. 167)
judicial review the Supreme Court’s power to declare acts of Congress unconstitutional (p. 270)
recurso de inconstitucionalidad poder de la Corte Suprema para declarar inconstitucionales las acciones del Congreso (pág. 270)
Judiciary Act of 1789 legislation passed by Congress that created the federal court system (p. 236)
Ley de Judicatura de 1789 decreto aprobado por el Congreso para crear el sistema federal de tribunales (pág. 236)

K

Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854) a law that allowed voters in Kansas and Nebraska to choose whether to allow slavery (p. 485)
Ley de Kansas y Nebraska (1854) ley que permitía a los votantes de Kansas y Nebraska decidir la aproba-ción o abolición de la esclavitud (pág. 485)
Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions (1798–99) Republican documents that argued that the Alien and Sedition Acts were unconstitutional (p. 253)
Resoluciones de Kentucky y Virginia (1798–99) documentos republicanos que argumentaban el carácter inconstitucional de las Leyes de No Intervención Extranjera (pág. 253)
Kitchen Cabinet President Andrew Jackson’s group of informal advisers; so called because they often met in the White House kitchen (p. 324)
gabinete de la cocina grupo informal de conse-jeros del presidente Andrew Jackson; llamado así porque solían reunirse en la cocina de la Casa Blanca (pág. 324)
kivas underground ceremonial chambers at the center of Anasazi communities (p. 11)
kivas cámaras ceremoniales subterráneas en el centro de las comunidades anasazi (pág. 11)
knights warriors who fought on horseback in return for land from nobles (p. 24)
caballeros guerreros que luchaban a caballo a cambio de tierras que les proporcionaban los nobles (pág. 24)
Know-Nothing Party a political organization founded in 1849 by nativists who supported measures making it difficult for foreigners to become citizens and to hold office (p. 440)
Partido de los Ignorantes organización política fundada en 1849 por un grupo de nativistas; apoyaba medidas que dificultaban a los inmigrantes de otros países la adquisición de la ciudadanía estadounidense y su nombramiento en cargos públicos (pág. 440)
Ku Klux Klan a secret society created by white southerners in 1866 that used terror and violence to keep African Americans from obtaining their civil rights (p. 566)
Ku Klux Klan sociedad secreta creada en 1866 por personas de raza blanca del Sur que usaba el terror y la violencia para impedir que los afroamericanos obtuvieran derechos civiles (pág. 566)

L

Land Ordinance of 1785 legislation passed by Congress authorizing surveys and the division of public lands in the western region of the country (p. 155)
Ordenanza de Territorios de 1785 decreto aprobado por el Congreso en el que se autorizaban las medicio-nes de terreno y la división de territorios públicos en el oeste del país (pág. 155)
legislative branch the division of the government that proposes bills and passes them into laws (p. 167)
poder legislativo división del gobierno federal que propone proyectos de ley y los somete a aprobación para convertirlos en leyes (pág. 167)
Lewis and Clark expedition an expedition led by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark that began in 1804 to explore the Louisiana Purchase (p. 275)
expedición de Lewis y Clark expedición encabezada por Meriwether Lewis y William Clark que partió en 1804 para explorar el territorio adquirido en la Com-pra de Louisiana (pág. 275)
Lincoln-Douglas debates a series of debates between Republican Abraham Lincoln and Democrat Stephen Douglas during the 1858 U.S. Senate campaign in Illinois (p. 491)
debates Lincoln-Douglas serie de debates entre el republicano Abraham Lincoln y el demócrata Ste-phen Douglas durante la campaña de 1858 para el Senado estadounidense en Illinois (pág. 491)
Line of Demarcation boundary between Spanish and Portuguese territories in the New World (p. 44)
Línea de Demarcación límite entre los territorios espa-ñoles y portugueses en el Nuevo Mundo (pág. 44)
loose construction a way of interpreting the Constitution that allows the federal government to take actions that the Constitution does not specifically forbid it from taking (p. 242)
interpretación flexible interpretación de la Constitu-tución que permite al gobierno federal tomar acciones que el mismo documento no prohíbe de manera específica (pág. 242)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Terms</th>
<th>Spanish Terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Louisiana Purchase</strong> (1803) the purchase of French land between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains that doubled the size of the United States (p. 274)</td>
<td><strong>Compra de Luisiana</strong> (1803) adquisición del territorio francés localizado entre el río Mississippi y las montañas Rocallosas, que duplicó el tamaño del territorio de Estados Unidos (pág. 274)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lowell system</strong> the use of waterpowered textile mills that employed young, unmarried women in the 1800s (p. 392)</td>
<td><strong>sistema de Lowell</strong> el uso de molinos de agua en la industria textil, medida que dio empleo a muchas mujeres jóvenes solteras en el siglo XIX (pág. 392)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loyalists</strong> colonists who sided with Britain in the American Revolution (p. 119)</td>
<td><strong>leales</strong> colonos que apoyaron la causa británica durante la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense (pág. 119)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Magna Carta</strong> (1215) a charter of liberties agreed to by King John of England, it made the king obey the same laws as citizens (p. 152)</td>
<td><strong>Carta Magna</strong> (1215) carta de libertades, firmada por el rey Juan de Inglaterra, que establecía que el rey debía obedecer las mismas leyes que el resto de los ciudadanos (pág. 152)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>majority rule</strong> the idea that policies are decided by the greatest number of people (p. 216)</td>
<td><strong>principio de la mayoría</strong> idea de que las políticas se adoptan en función de lo que decida el mayor número de personas (pág. 216)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>manifest destiny</strong> a belief shared by many Americans in the mid-1800s that the United States should expand across the continent to the Pacific Ocean (p. 354)</td>
<td><strong>destino manifiesto</strong> creencia de muchos ciudadanos estadounidenses a mediados del siglo XIX de que Estados Unidos debía expandirse por todo el continente hasta el océano Pacífico (pág. 354)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marbury v. Madison</strong> (1803) U.S. Supreme Court case that established the principle of judicial review (p. 270)</td>
<td><strong>Marbury contra Madison</strong> (1803) caso de la Corte Suprema que dio origen al recurso de inconstitucionalidad (pág. 270)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>mass production</strong> the efficient production of large numbers of identical goods (p. 387)</td>
<td><strong>producción en masa</strong> producción eficiente de grandes cantidades de productos idénticos (pág. 387)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>matrilineal</strong> related to ancestry traced through the maternal, or mother’s, line (p. 14)</td>
<td><strong>materno</strong> basado en linaje seguido por línea materna, o de la madre (pág. 14)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mayflower Compact** (1620) a document written by the Pilgrims establishing themselves as a political society and setting guidelines for self-government (p. 79)

**Pacto del Mayflower** (1620) documento redactado por los peregrinos en el que se constituían en una sociedad política y establecían los principios para gobernarse a sí mismos (pág. 79)

**McCulloch v. Maryland** (1819) U.S. Supreme Court case that declared the Second Bank of the United States was constitutional and that Maryland could not interfere with it (p. 330)

**McCulloch contra Maryland** (1819) caso de la Corte Suprema que declaraba que el Segundo Banco de la Nación era constitucional y que Maryland no podía intervenir en sus operaciones (pág. 330)

**mercenaries** hired foreign soldiers (p. 128)

**mercenarios** soldados extranjeros a sueldo (pág. 128)

**middle class** the social and economic level between the wealthy and the poor (p. 440)

**clase media** nivel social y económico ubicado entre la clase rica y la clase pobre (pág. 440)

**Middle Passage** a voyage that brought enslaved Africans across the Atlantic Ocean to North America and the West Indies (pp. 59, 94)

**Paso Central** viaje a través del océano Atlántico para transportar esclavos africanos a Norteamérica y a las Antillas (pág. 59, 94)

**migration** the movement of people from one region to another (p. 6)

**migración** desplazamiento de personas de una región a otra (pág. 6)

** minutemen** American colonial militia members ready to fight at a minute’s notice (p. 114)

**milicianos** miembros de la milicia norteamericana en la época colonial que estaban preparados para combatir en cualquier momento si la situación lo requiría (pág. 114)

**Missouri Compromise** (1820) an agreement proposed by Henry Clay that allowed Missouri to enter the Union as a slave state and Maine to enter as a free state and outlawed slavery in any territories or states north of 36°30’ latitude (p. 305)

**Acuerdo de Missouri** (1820) acuerdo redactado por Henry Clay en el que se aceptaba a Missouri en la Unión como estado esclavista y a Maine como estado libre, además de prohibir la esclavitud en los territorios o estados localizados al norte del paralelo 36°30’ (pág. 305)

**Monroe Doctrine** (1823) President James Monroe’s statement forbidding further colonization in the Americas and declaring that any attempt by a foreign country to colonize would be considered an act of hostility (p. 300)

**Doctrina Monroe** (1823) declaración hecha por el presidente James Monroe en la que se prohibía la colonización adicional del continente americano a partir de entonces, considerando cualquier intento de colonización por parte de un país extranjero como inicio de hostilidades (pág. 300)
Mormon a member of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (p. 349)
mormón miembro de la Iglesia de Jesucristo de los Santos de los Últimos Días (pág. 349)

Morse code a system developed by Alfred Lewis Vail for the telegraph that used a certain combination of dots and dashes to represent each letter of the alphabet (p. 403)
clave Morse sistema desarrollado por Alfred Lewis Vail para el telégrafo en el que una combinación de puntos y rayas representa cada letra del alfabeto (pág. 403)

mosques buildings used for Muslim prayer (p. 19)
mezquitas edificios musulmanes para la oración (pág. 19)

mountain men men hired by eastern companies to trap animals for fur in the Rocky Mountains and other western regions of the United States (p. 346)
montañeses hombres contratados por compañías del este para atrapar animales y obtener sus pieles en las montañas Rocallosas y en otras regiones del oeste de Estados Unidos (pág. 346)

national debt the total amount of money owed by a country to its lenders (p. 238)
deuda pública cantidad de dinero que un país debe a sus acreedores (pág. 238)

nationalism a sense of pride and devotion to a nation (p. 302)
nacionalismo sentimiento de orgullo y lealtad a una nación (pág. 302)

nativists U.S. citizens who opposed immigration because they were suspicious of immigrants and feared losing jobs to them (p. 440)
nativistas ciudadanos estadounidenses que se oponían a la aceptación de inmigrantes porque sospechaban de ellos y temían que se apropiaran de sus empleos (pág. 440)

Nat Turner’s Rebellion (1831) a rebellion in which Nat Turner led a group of slaves in Virginia in an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow and kill planter families (p. 428)
Rebelión de Nat Turner (1831) rebelión de un grupo de esclavos encabezados por Nat Turner en Virginia en un intento frustrado de derrocar y asesinar a los dueños de plantaciones y a sus familias (pág. 428)

naturalized citizen a person born in another country who has been granted citizenship in the United States (p. 222)
ciudadano naturalizado persona nacida en otro país que ha obtenido la ciudadanía estadounidense (pág. 222)

Neutrality Proclamation (1793) a statement made by President George Washington that the United States would not side with any of the nations at war in Europe following the French Revolution (p. 244)
Proclamación de Neutralidad (1793) declaración en la que el presidente George Washington anunció que Estados Unidos no sería aliado de ninguna de las naciones europeas en guerra después de la Revolución francesa (pág. 244)

New Jersey Plan a proposal to create a unicameral legislature with equal representation of states rather than representation by population; rejected at the Constitutional Convention (p. 165)
Plan de Nueva Jersey propuesta para la creación de un gobierno con una sola cámara que contara con la misma representación por parte de cada estado, sin basarse en el tamaño de su población; la propuesta fue rechazada en la Convención Constitucional (pág. 165)

nominating conventions a meeting at which a political party selects its presidential and vice presidential candidate; first held in the 1820s (p. 323)
convenciones de nominación encuentro en el que un partido político elige a sus candidatos a la presidencia y la vicepresidencia; se realizaron por primera vez en la década de 1820 (pág. 323)

Non-Intercourse Act (1809) a law that replaced the Embargo Act and restored trade with all nations except Britain, France, and their colonies (p. 280)
Ley de No Interacción (1809) ley que reemplazaba a la Ley de Embargo, restableciendo el intercambio comercial con todas las naciones, excepto Gran Bretaña, Francia y sus colonias (pág. 280)

Northwest Ordinance of 1787 legislation passed by Congress to establish a political structure for the Northwest Territory and create a system for the admission of new states (p. 155)
Ordenanza del Noroeste de 1787 ley aprobada por el Congreso para establecer una estructura política en el Territorio del Noroeste y crear un proceso de admisión de nuevos estados (pág. 155)

Northwest Passage a nonexistent path through North America that early explorers searched for that would allow ships to sail from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean (p. 54)
Pasaje del Noroeste ruta a lo largo de Norteamérica para cruzar en barco del océano Atlántico al océano Pacífico (pág. 54)

Northwest Territory lands including present-day Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin; organized by the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 (p. 155)
Territorio del Noroeste organización del territorio que incluía los actuales estados de Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio y Wisconsin; creado por la Ordenanza del Noroeste de 1787 (pág. 155)
**nullification crisis/crisis de anulación**

nullification crisis  a dispute led by John C. Calhoun that said that states could ignore federal laws if they believed those laws violated the Constitution (p. 328)  
crisis de anulación  controversia iniciada por John C. Calhoun que argumentaba que los estados podían hacer caso omiso a las leyes federales si consideraban que dichas leyes violaban la Constitución (pág. 328)

**Oregon Trail** a 2,000-mile trail stretching through the Great Plains from western Missouri to the Oregon Territory (p. 348)  
Camino de Oregón  ruta de 2,000 millas que cruzaba las Grandes Planicies desde el oeste de Missouri hasta el Territorio de Oregón (pág. 348)

**Paleo-Indians** the first Americans who crossed from Asia into North America sometime between 38,000 and 10,000 a.c. (p. 6)  
paleoindígenas  primeros habitantes de América que cruzaron de Asia a Norteamérica entre el 38,000 y el 10,000 a. C. (pág. 6)

**Panic of 1837** a financial crisis in the United States that led to an economic depression (p. 331)  
Pánico de 1837  crisis financiera en Estados Unidos que provocó una depresión económica (pág. 331)

**pardon** freedom from punishment (p. 185)  
indulto  liberación de un castigo (pág. 185)

**Patriots** American colonists who fought for independence from Great Britain during the Revolutionary War (p. 113)  
patriotas  colonos estadounidenses que lucharon por independizarse de Gran Bretaña durante la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense (pág. 113)

**petition** to make a formal request of the government (p. 217)  
peticion  hacer una solicitud formal al gobierno (pág. 217)

**Pickett’s Charge** (1863) a failed Confederate attack during the Civil War led by General George Pickett at the Battle of Gettysburg (p. 539)  
ataque de Pickett  (1863) ataque fallido del ejército confederado, al mando del general George Pickett, en la batalla de Gettysburg durante la Guerra Civil (pág. 539)

**Pilgrim** a member of a Puritan Separatist sect that left England in the early 1600s to settle in the Americas (p. 78)

**Pottawatomie Massacre** (1856) an incident in which abolitionist John Brown and seven other men murdered pro-slavery Kansans (p. 487)
Pottawatomie Massacre/matanza de Pottawatomie (1856) incidente en el que el abolicionista John Brown y siete hombres más asesinaron a habitantes de Kansas que apoyaban la esclavitud (pág. 487)

precedent an action or decision that later serves as an example (p. 235) precedent acción o decisión que más tarde sirve de ejemplo (pág. 235)

privateer a private ship authorized by a nation to attack its enemies (p. 244) corsario barco privado autorizado por una nación para atacar a sus enemigos (pág. 244)

prospect to search for gold (p. 366) catear buscar oro (pág. 366)

Protestant Reformation a religious movement begun by Martin Luther and others in 1517 to reform the Catholic Church (p. 53) Reforma protestante movimiento religioso iniciado por Martin Lutero y otros en 1517 para reformar la Iglesia católica (pág. 53)

Protestants reformers who protested certain practices of the Catholic Church (p. 53) protestantes reformistas que protestaban por ciertas prácticas de la Iglesia católica (pág. 53)

pueblos aboveground houses made of a heavy clay called adobe that were built by Native Americans of the southwestern United States (p. 11) pueblos casas elevadas por encima del suelo hechas con una arcilla fuerte llamada adobe que construían los indígenas norteamericanos del sudoeste de Estados Unidos (pág. 11)

Puritans Protestants who wanted to reform the Church of England (p. 78) puritanos protestantes que querían reformar la Iglesia anglicana (pág. 78)

Quakers Society of Friends; Protestant sect founded in 1640s in England whose members believed that salvation was available to all people (p. 86) cuáqueros Sociedad de Amigos; secta protestante fundada en la década de 1640 en Inglaterra cuyos miembros creían que la salvación estaba al alcance de todos (pág. 86)

Quartering Act (1774) One of the Intolerable Acts that helped fan the flames of revolution in the English colonies. It required colonists to provide room in their homes, or quarters, for British soldiers. (p. 102) Ley de Acuartelamiento (1774) Uno de los actos intolerales que ayudó a inspirar la revolución en las colonias inglesas. Requería que cada colonio proveyera alojamiento en su casa para los soldados británicos. (pág. 539)

Radical Republicans members of Congress who felt that southern states needed to make great social changes before they could be readmitted to the Union (p. 559) republicanos radicales integrantes del Congreso convencidos de que los estados del Sur necesitaban realizar grandes cambios sociales antes de volver a ser admitidos en la Unión (pág. 559)

ratification an official approval (p. 154) ratificación aprobación formal (pág. 154)

reason clear and ordered thinking; Greek philosopher Aristotle believed it was the basis of a good life (p. 23) razón pensamiento claro y ordenado; el filósofo griego Aristóteles creía que era la base para una buena vida (pág. 23)

Reconstruction (1865–77) the period following the Civil War during which the U.S. government worked to reunite the nation and to rebuild the southern states (p. 552) Reconstrucción (1865–77) período posterior a la Guerra Civil en el que el gobierno de Estados Unidos trabajó por lograr la unificación de la nación y la reconstrucción de los estados del Sur (pág. 552)

Reconstruction Acts (1867–68) the laws that put the southern states under U.S. military control and required them to draft new constitutions upholding the Fourteenth Amendment (p. 561) Leyes de Reconstrucción (1867–68) leyes que declaraban a los estados del Sur territorio sujeto a control militar estadounidense y los obligaban a reformar sus constituciones, de manera que defendieran la Decimocuarta Enmienda (pág. 561)

Redcoats British soldiers who fought against the colonists in the American Revolution; so called because of their bright red uniforms (p. 114) casacas rojas soldados británicos que lucharon contra los colonos en la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense, llamados así por el color rojo brillante de sus uniformes (pág. 114)

Republican Party a political party formed in the 1850s to stop the spread of slavery in the West (p. 488) Partido Republicano partido político formado en la década de 1850 para detener la expansión de la esclavitud en el Oeste (pág. 488)

Rhode Island system a system developed by Samuel Slater in the mid-1800s in which whole families were hired as textile workers and factory work was divided into simple tasks (p. 391) Sistema de Rhode Island sistema desarrollado por Samuel Slater a mediados del siglo XIX mediante el cual se contrataba a familias completas para trabajar en la industria textil y en el que el trabajo de las fábricas estaba dividido en tareas sencillas (pág. 391)
**Rush-Bagot Agreement/Acuerdo de Rush-Bagot**

(1817) an agreement that limited naval power on the Great Lakes for both the United States and British Canada (p. 298)

**Acuerdo de Rush-Bagot** (1817) acuerdo que limitaba el poder naval en los Grandes Lagos a embarcaciones de Estados Unidos y de la Canadá británica (pág. 298)

**Santa Fe Trail** an important trade trail west from Independence, Missouri, to Santa Fe, New Mexico (p. 349)

**Camino de Santa Fe** importante ruta comercial que va desde Independence, Missouri, hasta Santa Fe, Nuevo México (pág. 349)

**search warrant** a judge’s order authorizing the search of a person’s home or property to look for evidence of a crime (p. 218)

**orden de cateo** orden de un juez que permite registrar el hogar y las propiedades de una persona en busca de posibles pruebas de un delito (pág. 218)

**secede** to formally withdraw from the Union (p. 478)

**separarse** salirse formalmente de la Unión (pág. 478)

**Second Battle of Bull Run** (1862) a Civil War battle in which the Confederate army forced most of the Union army out of Virginia (p. 518)

**segunda batalla de Bull Run** (1862) batalla de la Guerra Civil en la que el ejército confederado obligó a gran parte de las tropas de la Unión a abandonar el territorio de Virginia (pág. 518)

**Second Continental Congress** (1775) a meeting of colonial delegates in Philadelphia to decide how to react to fighting at Lexington and Concord (p. 114)

**Segundo Congreso Continental** (1775) reunión de delegados coloniales realizada en Filadelfia para tomar decisiones acerca de la lucha en Lexington y Concord (pág. 114)

**Second Great Awakening** a period of religious evangelism that began in the 1790s and became widespread in the United States by the 1830s (p. 448)

**Segundo Gran Despertar** periodo de evangelización religiosa iniciado en la década de 1790 que se extendió por Estados Unidos para la década de 1830 (pág. 448)

**sectionalism** a devotion to the interests of one geographic region over the interests of the country as a whole (pp. 304, 477)

**regionalismo** dedicación a los intereses de una región geográfica y no a los de un país (págs. 304, 477)

**segregation** the forced separation of people of different races in public places (p. 568)

**segregación** separación obligada de personas de diferentes razas en lugares públicos (pág. 568)

**Seneca Falls Convention** (1848) the first national women’s rights convention at which the Declaration of Sentiments was written (p. 464)

**Convención de Seneca Falls** (1848) primera convención nacional a favor de los derechos de la mujer, en la cual se redactó la Declaración de Sentimientos (pág. 464)

**Seven Days’ Battles** (1862) a series of Civil War battles in which Confederate army successes forced the Union army to retreat from Richmond, Virginia, the Confederate capital (p. 518)

**batallas de los Siete Días** (1862) serie de batallas de la Guerra Civil en las que las victorias del ejército confederado obligaron a las tropas de la Unión a retirarse de Richmond, Virginia, la capital confederada (pág. 518)

**sharecropping** a system used on southern farms after the Civil War in which farmers worked land owned by someone else in return for a small portion of the crops (p. 569)

**cultivo de aparceros** sistema usado en las fincas sureñas después de la Guerra Civil en el que los agricultores trabajaban las tierras de otra persona a cambio de una pequeña porción de la cosecha (pág. 569)

**Shays’s Rebellion** (1786–87) an uprising of Massachusetts’s farmers, led by Daniel Shays, to protest high taxes, heavy debt, and farm foreclosures (p. 161)

**Rebelión de Shays** (1786–87) rebelión de los agricultores de Massachusetts, encabezados por Daniel Shays, para protestar por los altos impuestos, el aumento de sus deudas y la confiscación de las granjas (pág. 161)

**Siege of Vicksburg** (1863) the Union army’s six-week blockade of Vicksburg that led the city to surrender during the Civil War (p. 524)

**Sitio de Vicksburg** (1863) bloqueo de seis semanas realizado por el ejército de la Unión en Vicksburg para forzar la rendición de esa ciudad durante la Guerra Civil (pág. 524)

**slave codes** laws passed in the colonies to control slaves (p. 77)

**códigos de esclavos** leyes aprobadas por las colonias para el control de los esclavos (pág. 77)

**Spanish Armada** a large Spanish fleet defeated by England in 1588 (p. 53)

**Armada española** gran flota de barcos de guerra que España reunió para protegerse de la piratería inglesa (pág. 53)

**speculator** an investor who buys items at low prices in hope that their values will rise (p. 239)

**especulador** inversionista que compra artículos a precios bajos con la esperanza de que aumente su valor (pág. 239)
**spirituals/espirituales**

- **spirituals** emotional Christian songs sung by enslaved people in the South that mixed African and European elements and usually expressed slaves’ religious beliefs (p. 427)
- **espirituales** canciones religiosas cantadas con gran emotividad por los esclavos del Sur que combinaban elementos de origen africano y europeo y solían expresar sus creencias religiosas (pág. 427)

**spoils system** a politicians’ practice of giving government jobs to his or her supporters (p. 324)

**tráfico de influencias** práctica de los políticos de ofrecer empleos a las personas que los apoyan (pág. 324)

**Stamp Act of 1765** a law passed by Parliament that raised tax money by requiring colonists to pay for an official stamp whenever they bought paper items such as newspapers, licenses, and legal documents (p. 100)

**Ley del Timbre de 1765** ley aprobada por el Parlamento para recaudar impuestos en la que se obligaba a los colonos a pagar un timbre oficial cada vez que compraran artículos de papel, como periódicos, licencias y documentos legales (pág. 100)

**staple crop** a crop that is continuously in demand (p. 87)

**cultivo básico** producto de demanda constante (pág. 87)

**states’ rights doctrine** the belief that the power of the states should be greater than the power of the federal government (p. 328)

**doctrina de los derechos estatales** creencia de que el poder de los estados debe ser mayor que el del gobierno federal (pág. 328)

**strict construction** a way of interpreting the Constitution that allows the federal government to take only those actions the Constitution specifically says it can take (p. 242)

**interpretación estricta** interpretación de la Constitución que sólo permite al gobierno federal realizar las acciones permitidas de manera específica en ella (pág. 242)

**strike** the refusal of workers to perform their jobs until employers meet their demands (p. 394)

**huelga** negativa de los empleados a trabajar hasta que sus empleadores satisfagan sus demandas (pág. 394)

**suffrage** voting rights (p. 153)

**sufragio** derecho al voto (pág. 153)

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**Tariff of Abominations** (1828) the nickname given to a tariff by southerners who opposed it (p. 327)

**Arancel de abominaciones** (1828) sobrenombre dado a un nuevo impuesto por los habitantes del Sur que se oponían a éste (pág. 327)

**Tea Act** (1773) a law passed by Parliament allowing the British East India Company to sell its low-cost tea directly to the colonies, undermining colonial tea merchants; led to the Boston Tea Party (p. 102)

**Tea Act/Ley del Té** (1773) ley aprobada por el Parlamento británico que le permitía a la British East India Company vender té a bajo costo a las colonias sin intermediarios, afectando a los comerciantes locales de té; esta decisión dio origen al Motín del Té de Boston (pág. 102)

**technology** the tools used to produce goods or to do work (p. 387)

**tecnología** herramientas utilizadas para producir bienes o realizar un trabajo (pág. 387)

**teepees** cone-shaped shelters made of buffalo skins used by Native Americans in the Plains region (p. 14)

**tipis** tiendas de piel de búfalo de forma cónica que se usaban como vivienda los indígenas norteamericanos en la región de las Planicies (pág. 14)

**telegraph** a machine perfected by Samuel F. B. Morse in 1832 that uses pulses of electric current to send messages across long distances through wires (p. 402)

**telégrafo** máquina perfeccionada por Samuel F. B. Morse en 1832 que emplea impulsos eléctricos transmitidos por cables para enviar mensajes a grandes distancias (pág. 402)

**temperance movement** a social reform effort begun in the mid-1800s to encourage people to drink less alcohol (p. 449)

**movimiento de abstinencia** movimiento de reforma social iniciado a mediados del siglo XIX para fomentar la disminución en el consumo de bebidas alcohólicas (pág. 449)

**Ten Percent Plan** President Abraham Lincoln’s plan for Reconstruction; once 10 percent of voters in a former Confederate state took a U.S. loyalty oath, they could form a new state government and be readmitted to the Union (p. 553)

**Plan del Diez por Ciento** plan de Reconstrucción del presidente Abraham Lincoln; si el 10 por ciento de los votantes de un estado que había sido parte de la Confederación juraba lealtad a la nación, tenían derecho a formar un nuevo gobierno y ser readmitidos en la Unión (pág. 553)

**tenements** poorly built, overcrowded housing where many immigrants lived (p. 442)

**barracas** casas mal construidas donde vivían amontonados una gran cantidad de inmigrantes (pág. 442)

**textile** cloth (p. 385)

**textil** tela (pág. 385)
Thirteenth Amendment (1865) a constitutional amendment that outlawed slavery (p. 554)

Decimotercera Enmienda (1865) enmienda constitucional que abolrió la esclavitud (pág. 554)

Three-Fifths Compromise (1787) an agreement worked out at the Constitutional Convention stating that only three-fifths of the slaves in a state would count when determining its population for representation in the lower house of Congress (p. 166)

Acuerdo de las Tres Quintas Partes (1787) acuerdo negociado durante la Convención Constitucional en el que se estableció que solamente tres quintas de los esclavos en un estado contarian para determinar la representación de ese estado en el Congreso (pág. 166)

Toleration Act of 1649 a Maryland law that made restricting the religious rights of Christians a crime; the first law guaranteeing religious freedom to be passed in America (p. 75)

Ley de Tolerancia de 1649 ley de Maryland que calificaba como delito la restricción de los derechos religiosos de los cristianos; fue la primera ley que garantizó la libertad religiosa en América (pág. 75)

totems images of ancestors or animal spirits; often carved onto tall, wooden poles by Native American peoples of the Pacific Northwest (p. 12)

totemos imágenes de antepasados o animales; a menudo talladas en troncos de árboles cortados por los indígenas de la costa noroeste del Pacífico (pág. 12)

town meeting a political meeting at which people make decisions on local issues; used primarily in New England (p. 91)

reunión del pueblo reunión política en la que los habitantes de una población toman decisiones sobre temas locales; se realizan principalmente en Nueva Inglaterra (pág. 91)

trade unions workers’ organizations that try to improve working conditions (p. 394)

sindicatos organizaciones formadas por trabajadores para mejorar sus condiciones laborales (págs. 394)

Trail of Tears (1838–39) an 800-mile forced march made by the Cherokee from their homeland in Georgia to Indian Territory; resulted in the deaths of almost one-fourth of the Cherokee people (p. 334)

Ruta de las lágrimas (1838–39) marcha forzada de 800 millas que realizó la tribu cherokee desde su territorio natal en Georgia hasta el Territorio Indígena, y en la que perdió la vida casi una cuarta parte del pueblo cherokee (pág. 334)

transcendentalism the idea that people could rise above the material things in life; a popular movement among New England writers and thinkers in the mid-1800s (p. 443)

trascendentalismo creencia de que las personas podían prescindir de los objetos materiales en la vida; movimiento popular entre los escritores y pensadores de Nueva Inglaterra a mediados del siglo XIX (pág. 443)

Transportation Revolution the rapid growth in the speed and convenience of transportation (p. 396)

revolución del transporte rápido crecimiento de la velocidad y comodidad ofrecida por los medios de transporte (pág. 396)

Treaty of Fort Jackson a treaty signed after the U.S. victory at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend; the Creek were forced to give up 23 million acres of their land (p. 286)

tratado del fuerte Jackson tratado que se firmó tras la victoria de Estados Unidos en la batalla de Horseshoe Bend; los indígenas creek se vieron obligados a ceder 23 millones de acres de su territorio (pág. 286)

Treaty of Ghent (1814) a treaty signed by the United States and Britain ending the War of 1812 (p. 287)

tratado de Gante (1814) tratado firmado por Estados Unidos y Gran Bretaña para dar fin a la Guerra de 1812 (pág. 287)

Treaty of Greenville (1795) an agreement between Native American confederation leaders and the U.S. government that gave the United States Indian lands in the Northwest Territory and guaranteed that U.S. citizens could safely travel through the region (p. 247)

tratado de Greenville (1795) acuerdo entre los líderes de la confederación de indígenas norteamericanos y el gobierno estadounidense que otorgó a Estados Unidos parte del Territorio del Noroeste y garantizó la seguridad a los ciudadanos estadounidenses que viajaran por esas tierras (pág. 247)

Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848) a treaty that ended the Mexican War and gave the United States much of Mexico’s northern territory (p. 361)

tratado de Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848) tratado que daba por terminada la Guerra contra México y daba posesión a Estados Unidos de gran parte del norte del territorio mexicano (pág. 361)

Treaty of Paris of 1783 a peace agreement that officially ended the Revolutionary War and established British recognition of the independence of the United States (p. 139)

tratado de París de 1783 acuerdo de paz que oficialmente daba por terminada la Guerra de Independencia estadounidense y en el que Gran Bretaña reconocía la soberanía de Estados Unidos (pág. 139)
**Treaty of Tordesillas/Tratado de Tordesillas**

(1494) a treaty between Spain and Portugal that moved the Line of Demarcation (p. 44)

**Tredegar Iron Works** a large iron factory that operated in Richmond, Virginia, in the early to mid-1800s (p. 419)

**Triangular Trade** trading networks in which goods and slaves moved among England, the American colonies, and Africa (p. 93)

**Uncle Tom's Cabin** (1852) an antislavery novel written by Harriet Beecher Stowe that showed northerners the violent reality of slavery and drew many people to the abolitionists' cause (p. 481)

**Underground Railroad** a network of people who helped thousands of enslaved people escape to the North by providing transportation and hiding places (p. 456)

**Utopian Communities** places where people worked to establish a perfect society; such communities were popular in the United States during the late 1700s and early to mid-1800s (p. 444)

**Vetoes**

**War Hawks** members of Congress who wanted to declare war against Britain after the Battle of Tippecanoe (p. 282)

**Whig Party** a political party formed in 1834 by opponents of Andrew Jackson and who supported a strong legislature (p. 330)

**Whiskey Rebellion** (1794) a protest of small farmers in Pennsylvania against new taxes on whiskey (p. 247)

**Whiskey Rebellion/Rebelión del Whisky**

(1794) a protest of small farmers in Pennsylvania against new taxes on whiskey (p. 247)
Wilderness Campaign  (1864) a series of battles between Union and Confederate forces in northern and central Virginia that delayed the Union capture of Richmond (p. 540)

Campaña Wilderness  (1864) serie de batallas entre la Unión y los confederados en el norte y el centro de Virginia que retrasaron la captura de Richmond por parte de la Unión (pág. 540)

Wilmot Proviso  (1846) a proposal to outlaw slavery in the territory added to the United States by the Mexican Cession; passed in the House of Representatives but was defeated in the Senate (p. 476)

Condición de Wilmot  (1846) propuesta de prohibir la esclavitud en el territorio adherido a Estados Unidos por la Cesión mexicana; aprobada por la Cámara de Representantes, pero rechazada por el Senado (pág. 476)

Worcester v. Georgia  (1832) the Supreme Court ruling that stated that the Cherokee nation was a distinct territory over which only the federal government had authority; ignored by both President Andrew Jackson and the state of Georgia (p. 334)

Worcester contra Georgia  (1832) resolución de la Corte Suprema que establecía que la nación cherokee era un territorio distinto sobre el que sólo el gobierno federal tenía autoridad; fue ignorada por el presidente Andrew Jackson y por el estado de Georgia (pág. 334)

XYZ affair  (1797) an incident in which French agents attempted to get a bribe and loans from U.S. diplomats in exchange for an agreement that French privateers would no longer attack American ships; it led to an undeclared naval war between the two countries (p. 252)

incidente XYZ  (1797) incidente en el que funcionarios franceses intentaron obtener sobornos y préstamos de diplomáticos estadounidenses a cambio de un acuerdo por el cual sus barcos corsarios no atacarían más a los barcos estadounidenses; provocó una guerra no declarada entre las fuerzas navales de ambas naciones (pág. 252)

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