Following the turmoil of the Civil War and Reconstruction, the United States began its transformation from a rural nation to an industrial, urban nation. This change spurred the growth of cities, the development of big business, and the rise of new technologies such as the railroads. New social pressures, including increased immigration, unionization movements, and the Populist movement in politics, characterized the period as well. Understanding this turbulent time will help you understand similar pressures that exist in your life today. The following resources offer more information about this period in American history.

**Primary Sources Library**

See pages 1052–1053 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 5.

Use the American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM to find additional primary sources about the beginnings of the modern United States.
“The city is the nerve center of our civilization. It is also the storm center.”

—Josiah Strong, 1885
Why It Matters
After the Civil War, a dynamic period in American history opened—the settlement of the West. The lives of Western miners, farmers, and ranchers were often filled with great hardships, but the wave of American settlers continued. Railroads hastened this migration. During this period, many Native Americans lost their homelands and their way of life.

The Impact Today
Developments of this period are still evident today.
• Native American reservations still exist in the United States.
• The myth of the Western hero is prominent in popular culture.

The American Vision Video
The Chapter 13 video, “Life in the West,” chronicles the early days of western settlement in the United States.
Plessy v. Ferguson creates “separate but equal” doctrine

1887
- Dawes Act eliminates communal ownership of Native American reservations

1885
- First skyscraper built in Chicago

1888
- Brazil ends slavery

1890
- China begins war against Japan

1894
- Modern Olympics begin in Athens, Greece

1896
- Plessy v. Ferguson creates “separate but equal” doctrine
Jacob Waldorf arrived in Virginia City, Nevada, in 1873 to seek his fortune in the fabled silver mines of the Comstock Lode. Like many others, he found work at one of the big mining companies. Seven days a week he toiled in a dangerous mine shaft, earning enough to support his family and buy a little stock in local mining companies. As his son John recalled:

"The favorite game with our father was stocks. . . . Mother used to say to me, ‘Some day we’re going back east,’ but for years none of the stocks in which Dad invested showed any disposition to furnish us with the price of transportation."

In 1877 the stock Waldorf owned skyrocketed in value. “Dad’s holdings rose . . . to $10,000 and mother began to talk of buying a farm,” John wrote. “The stock kept going upward. Dad was worth $15,000 for at least a minute.” He waited for the stock to go even higher before selling, but instead it plummeted: “The bottom fell out of Ophi [a mining stock], and Mother’s dream farm fell with it, for Dad was broke.”

Jacob Waldorf overcame this financial setback. Earning the respect of his fellow workers, he headed the miners’ union in 1880 and later served as a state legislator.

—adapted from A Kid on the Comstock

**Growth of the Mining Industry**

The story of western mining is bigger than the individual stories of fortune seekers like Waldorf. The West’s rich deposits of gold, silver, and copper served the needs of growing industries in the East. They also brought the first wave of settlers that populated the mountain states of the West.
News of a mineral strike in an area would start a stampede of prospectors desperately hoping to strike it rich. Early prospectors would extract the shallow deposits of ore largely by hand in a process called *placer mining*, using simple equipment like picks, shovels, and pans. After these surface deposits dwindled, corporations would move in to begin *quartz mining*, which dug deep beneath the surface. As those deposits dried up, commercial mining either disappeared or continued on a restricted basis.

**ECONOMICS**

**The Big Strike in Nevada**  The story of the Comstock Lode is similar to other stories of gold, silver, and copper strikes throughout the West. In 1859 a prospector named Henry Comstock staked a claim in Six-Mile Canyon, Nevada. The sticky, blue-gray mud found there turned out to be nearly pure silver ore. News of the Comstock strike brought hordes of miners to Virginia City, Nevada. Almost overnight the town went from a frontier outpost to a boomtown of about 30,000, boasting an opera house, shops with furniture and fashions from Europe, several newspapers, and a six-story hotel with the West’s first elevator, called a “rising room.” When the silver veins were exhausted several years later, the mines closed. Without the mines, the town’s economy collapsed, and most of the townspeople moved on in search of new opportunities. This cycle of boom and bust—from boomtown to ghost town—was repeated throughout the mountainous West.

During the booms, crime posed a serious problem. Prospectors fought over claims, and thieves haunted the streets and trails. Law enforcers were scarce, and self-appointed volunteers sometimes formed *vigilance committees* to track down and punish wrongdoers. In some cases, they punished the innocent or let the guilty go free, but most people in these communities respected the law and tried to deal firmly but fairly with those accused of crimes.

Mining towns such as Virginia City at first were inhabited mostly by men, but soon they attracted more women. Some women owned property and were influential community leaders. Others worked as cooks or in laundries. Still other women worked at “hurdy-gurdy” houses (named after the mechanical musical instrument), where they danced with men for the price of a drink.

**Other Bonanzas**  Mining also spurred the development of Colorado, the Dakota Territory, and Montana. The discovery of gold near Pikes Peak in 1858 set miners on a frantic rush. Coining the phrase “Pikes Peak..."
or Bust,” many panned for gold without success and headed home, complaining of a “Pikes Peak hoax.” In truth, there was plenty of gold and silver in the Colorado mountains, but much of it was hidden beneath the surface and hard to extract. One of the richest strikes occurred in the late 1870s in Leadville, so called for deep deposits of lead that contained large amounts of silver. By the summer of 1879, as many as 1,000 newcomers per week were pouring into Leadville, creating one of the most legendary boomtowns dotting the mining frontier.

Overall, operations at Leadville and other mining towns in Colorado yielded more than $1 billion worth of silver and gold (many billions in today’s money). This bonanza spurred the building of railroads through the Rocky Mountains and transformed Denver, the supply point for the mining areas, into the second largest city in the West after San Francisco.

The discovery of gold in the Black Hills of the Dakota Territory and copper in Montana led to rapid development of the northern Great Plains. Miners flooded into the region in the 1870s. After railroads were built in the 1880s, many farmers and ranchers moved to the territory. In 1889, Congress divided the Dakota Territory and admitted North Dakota and South Dakota, as well as Montana, as new states.

**Reading Check** Explain How did the creation of new states change the political boundaries of the Great Plains?

**Ranching and Cattle Drives**

While many Americans headed to the Rocky Mountains to mine gold and silver after the Civil War, others began building vast cattle ranches on the Great Plains. In the early 1800s, Americans did not think cattle ranches on the Great Plains were practical. Water was scarce, and cattle from the East could not survive on the tough prairie grasses. Farther south, however, in Texas, there existed a breed of cattle adapted to living on the Great Plains.

The Texas longhorn was a breed descended from Spanish cattle that had been brought to Mexico two centuries earlier. Ranchers in Mexico and Texas had allowed their cattle to run wild, and slowly a new breed—the longhorn—had emerged. Lean and rangy, the longhorn could easily survive in the harsh climate of the Plains, and by 1865, as many as 5 million of them roamed the grasslands of Texas.

Mexicans had introduced cattle ranching in New Mexico, California, and Texas before these areas became part of the United States. The industry grew in part because of the **open range**—a vast area of grassland owned by the government. The open range covered much of the Great Plains and provided land where ranchers could graze their herds free of charge and unrestricted by the boundaries of private farms.

Mexican cowhands developed the tools and techniques for rounding up and driving cattle. These Hispanic herders taught American cowhands their trade and enriched the English vocabulary with words of Spanish origin, including “lariat,” “lasso,” and “stampede.”
Before the Civil War, ranchers had little incentive to round up the longhorns. Beef prices were low, and moving the cattle to eastern markets was not practical. Two developments changed this situation: the Civil War and the construction of the railroads. During the Civil War, eastern cattle were slaughtered in huge numbers to feed the armies of the Union and the Confederacy. After the war, beef prices soared, making it worthwhile to round up the longhorns if a way could be found to move them east.

By the 1860s, railroads had reached the Great Plains. Lines ended at Abilene and Dodge City in Kansas and at Sedalia in Missouri. Ranchers and livestock dealers realized that if the longhorns were rounded up and driven north several hundred miles to the railroad, they could be sold for a huge profit and shipped east to market.

In 1866 ranchers rounded up cattle and drove about 260,000 of them to Sedalia, Missouri. Although only a fraction of the herds survived this first long drive, the drive overall was a tremendous success, proving that cattle could be driven north to the rail lines and sold for 10 times the price they could get in Texas.

Other trails soon opened. The route to Abilene, Kansas, became the major route north. Between 1867 and 1871, cowboys drove nearly 1.5 million head of cattle up the Chisholm Trail to Abilene—a town that, when filled with cowboys at the end of a drive, rivaled the mining towns in terms of rowdiness. As the railroads expanded in the West, other trails reached from Texas to more towns in Kansas, Nebraska, Montana, and Wyoming.

**The Long Drive** A long drive was a spectacular sight. It began with the spring roundup when ranchers met with their cowboys to collect cattle from the
open range. Stock from many different owners made up these herds. Only their brands showing which rancher owned the cattle distinguished them from one another. Stray calves with no identifying symbols were called mavericks. These were divided and branded. The combined herds moving onto the trail could number anywhere from 2,000 to 5,000 cattle.

Cowboys for major ranchers went north with the herds. Most of the cowboys in the early years of the cattle drives were former Confederate army soldiers escaping the harsh life in the South during Reconstruction. A few were Hispanic, and many were African Americans such as Nat Love. Born an enslaved man in Tennessee in 1854, Love was freed at the end of the Civil War. He went west in 1869 and applied for work with a cattle-driving outfit that included several other African American cowhands:

“After breakfast I asked the camp boss for a job as a cow boy. He asked me if I could ride a wild horse. I said ‘yes sir.’ He said if you can I will give you a job. So he spoke to one of the colored cow boys called Bronko Jim, and told him to go out and rope old Good Eye, saddle him and put me on his back. Bronko Jim gave me a few pointers and told me to look out for the horse was especially bad. . . . This proved the worst horse to ride I had ever mounted in my life, but I stayed with him and the cow boys were the most surprised outfit you ever saw, as they had taken me for a tenderfoot, pure and simple. After the horse got tired and I dismounted the boss said he would give me a job and pay me $30.00 per month and more later on.”

—quoted in Life and Adventures of Nat Love

Life for Love and the other cowboys on the trail demanded discipline, endurance, and courage, but those who survived the many dangers collected wages to spend in the towns at the end of the trail. Life in these towns was exciting, but many cowboys told exaggerated tales of daring that often supplied material for what were called “dime novels.” These adventure books sold for a dime and helped spread the myths of the “Wild West” in eastern towns and cities.

Ranching Becomes Big Business Cowboys drove millions of cattle north from Texas to Kansas and points beyond. Some of the cattle went straight to slaughterhouses, but many were sold to ranchers who were building up herds and grazing them in Wyoming, Montana, and other territories. When sheep herders moved their flocks onto the range and when farmers settled there, blocking the trails,
“range wars” broke out among competing groups. Eventually, and after considerable loss of life, the range was largely fenced off with a new invention—barbed wire—which enabled hundreds of square miles to be fenced off cheaply and easily.

At first, ranchers saw barbed wire as more of a threat than an opportunity. They did not want to abandon open grazing and complained when farmers put up barriers that prevented the ranchers’ livestock from roaming. Soon, however, ranchers used barbed wire to shut out those competing with them for land and to keep their animals closer to sources of food and water. For cowhands, however, barbed wire ended the excitement of long cattle drives.

The fencing in of the range was not the only reason the long drives ended. Investors from the East and from Britain poured money into the booming cattle business, causing an oversupply of animals on the market. Prices dropped dramatically in the mid-1880s and many ranchers went bankrupt. Then, in the winter of 1886 to 1887, blizzards covered the ground with snow so deep that the cattle could not dig down to the grass. Temperatures fell to more than 40 degrees below zero.

The cattle industry survived this terrible blow, but it was changed forever. The day of the open range had ended. From that point on, herds were raised on fenced-in ranches. New European breeds replaced longhorns, and the cowboy became a ranch hand.

Reading Check Analyzing How did heavy investment in the cattle industry affect the industry as a whole?
On September 15, 1884, the O’Kieffe family left their home in Nebraska and headed west across the state in a covered wagon to start a challenging new life on the open plains. The O’Kieffes faced a new environment that lacked many things that people in the East took for granted, including easy access to water and wood for building a house. Without trees to use as timber, they built their house from chunks of sod, densely packed soil held together by grass roots. To obtain water, the family had to drill a well 134 feet deep and operate the pump by hand. They let nothing go to waste. In summer, they ate the weeds from their garden as well as the vegetables, obeying the rule, “If you can’t beat ’em, eat ’em.”

There were other settlers in the area, and they would gather to socialize and help each other. When disaster struck, however, each family had to be prepared to face the trouble alone. In January 1888, a three-day blizzard struck without warning. As Charley, the youngest son, reflected: “By the end of the three-day blizzard we were in fine shape to take care of our stock. Many others did not fare so well; but that’s life. After all, we said to each other, this was a new country and folks had to learn how to look after themselves.”

—adapted from Western Story: Recollections of Charley O’Kieffe

Geography of the Plains

The O’Kieffes and their neighbors were early settlers in a region known today as the Great Plains. This region extends westward to the Rocky Mountains from around the 100th meridian—an imaginary line running north and south from the central Dakotas through western Texas. Rainfall on the Plains averages less than 20 inches per year, and trees grow
naturally only along rivers and streams. For centuries this open country had been home to vast herds of buffalo that grazed on the prairie grasses. Nomadic Native American groups had hunted the buffalo for food and used buffalo hides for clothing and shelter.

Major Stephen Long, who explored the region with an army expedition in 1819, called it the “Great American Desert” and concluded that it was “almost wholly unfit for cultivation.” He predicted that the scarcity of wood and water would prove to be “an insuperable obstacle in . . . settling the country.”

Reading Check  Examining What geographic factors created challenges to the settlement of the Great Plains in the late 1800s?

The Beginnings of Settlement

During the late 1800s several factors undermined the belief that the Plains was a “Great American Desert.” One important factor was the construction of the railroads, which provided easy access to the Great Plains. Railroad companies sold land along the rail lines at low prices and provided credit to prospective settlers. Railroads opened offices throughout the United States and in major cities in Europe where land was scarce. Posters and pamphlets proclaimed that booking passage to the Plains was a ticket to prosperity.

The catchy slogan “Rain follows the plow,” coined by a Nebraskan to sell the idea that cultivating the Plains would increase rainfall, encouraged settlers.

As if to prove the saying correct, the weather cooperated. For more than a decade beginning in the 1870s, rainfall on the Plains was well above average. The lush green of the endless prairies contradicted the popular belief that the region was a desert.

In 1862, the government also supported settlement in the Great Plains region by passing the Homestead Act. For a $10 registration fee, an individual could file for a homestead—a tract of public land available for settlement. A homesteader could claim up to 160 acres of public land and could receive title to that land after living there for five years. Later government acts increased the size of the tracts available. The Homestead Act provided a legal method for settlers to acquire clear title to property in the West. With their property rights secured, settlers were more willing to move to the Plains.

When settlers arrived on the Plains, they often found life very difficult. The lack of trees and water forced them to build their first homes from sod cut from the ground and to drill wells up to 300 feet deep. Summer temperatures often soared over 100°F. Prairie fires were a constant danger. Sometimes swarms of grasshoppers swept over farms and destroyed the crops. In winter there were terrible blizzards and extreme cold. Despite these challenges, most homesteaders persisted and learned how to live in the harsh environment.

Reading Check  Analyzing What is the relationship between private property rights and the settlement of the Great Plains?
The Wheat Belt

For those who had the financial resources, farming could be very profitable on the Plains. Many inventions and new farming methods revolutionized agriculture.

One approach, called dry farming, was to plant seeds deep in the ground where there was enough moisture for them to grow. By the 1860s, farmers on the Plains were employing newly designed steel plows, seed drills, reapers, and threshing machines. The new machines made dry farming possible. Unfortunately, prairie soil often blew away, especially in a dry season. Many sodbusters, as those who plowed the soil on the Plains were called, eventually lost their homesteads through the combined effects of drought, wind erosion, and overuse of the land.

Large landholders faced similar problems, but they were able to make quick profits with the help of mechanical reapers, which speeded the harvest. Mechanical binders tied the stalks into bundles for collection. Threshing machines knocked kernels loose from the stalks. These innovations were well suited for harvesting wheat, which had the advantage of withstanding drought better than corn and some other crops. Wheat became as important to the Great Plains as cotton was to the South.

During the 1880s, many wheat farmers from Minnesota and other Midwestern states moved to the Great Plains to take advantage of the inexpensive land and the new farming technology. This productive new Wheat Belt began at the eastern edge of the Great Plains and encompassed much of the Dakotas and the western parts of Nebraska and Kansas.

Commercial Farming

The new machines allowed a single family to bring in a substantial harvest on a wheat farm covering several hundred acres. Some wheat farms covered up to 50,000 acres. These were called bonanza farms because they often yielded big profits. Like mine owners, bonanza farmers formed companies, made large investments in property and equipment, and hired laborers as needed.

ECONOMICS

Farmers Fall on Hard Times

The bountiful harvests in the Wheat Belt helped the United States become the world’s leading exporter of wheat by the 1880s. American wheat growers faced rising competition, however, from other wheat-producing nations. In the 1890s, a glut of wheat on the world market caused prices to drop.

Some farmers tried to make it through lean periods by mortgaging their land—that is, they took bank loans based on the value of their property. If they failed to meet their mortgage payments, they forfeited the land to the bank and had to abandon
their farms or work them as tenants for the new owner. By 1900 tenants cultivated about one-third of the farms in the corn and wheat areas.

Beginning in the late 1880s, farmers also faced a prolonged drought that destroyed crops and farms. Kansas newspaper editor William Allen White described a farm family returning from the West:

“...These movers... had seen it stop raining for months at a time. They had heard the fury of the winter wind as it came whining across the short burned grass. ... They have tossed through hot nights, wild with worry, and have arisen only to find their worst nightmares grazing in reality on the brown stubble in front of their sun-warped doors.”

In hard times, some homesteaders gave up and headed home, but others soon took their place.

Reading Check  Identifying What technological innovations helped farmers cultivate the Plains?

Closing the Frontier

On April 22, 1889, the government opened one of the last large territories for settlement, land that later became the state of Oklahoma. Within hours, over 10,000 people raced to stake claims in an event known as the Oklahoma Land Rush.

The next year, the Census Bureau reported that settlement throughout the West had been so rapid “that there can hardly be said to be a frontier line.” In reality, much land was still unoccupied, and new settlement continued at a brisk pace into the 1900s. The news that the frontier was closing, however, concerned those who saw it as the end of an era. They believed that unoccupied land at the frontier had provided a “safety-valve of social discontent,” the idea that Americans could always make a fresh start.

Most settlers did indeed make a fresh start, adjusting to the often hostile environment of the Plains. Water from their deep wells enabled them to plant trees and gardens. Railroads brought lumber and brick to replace sod as a building material and coal as fuel.

The O'Kieffes, who raised cattle, chickens, and a few crops, were typical of small-scale, self-sustaining homesteaders. They never got rich, but they got by. Those who struggled as the O'Kieffes did to support themselves emerged with a more realistic view of the West. It was not a land of limitless opportunity. As Charley O'Kieffe learned, the real story of the West was not about heroes who rode off into the sunset. It was about ordinary people who settled down and built homes and communities through great effort—“sterling and steady men and women whose lives were spent doing the work as it needed to be done.”

Reading Check  Examining Why did some people feel that the closing of the frontier was the end of an era?

## SECTION 2: ASSESSMENT

### Checking for Understanding

1. **Define:** homestead, dry farming, sodbuster, bonanza farm.
2. **Identify:** Great Plains, Stephen Long, Homestead Act, Wheat Belt.
3. **Explain** why the Great Plains was not suitable for homesteading.

### Reviewing Themes

4. **Science and Technology** How did the need for new farming techniques on the Great Plains result in technological innovations in agriculture?

### Critical Thinking

5. **Analyzing** What factors contributed to the making of the Wheat Belt in the Great Plains and then to troubled times for wheat farmers in the 1890s?

6. **Categorizing** Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the effects of technology on farming in the Great Plains.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Invention</th>
<th>Advantage for Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Analyzing Visuals

7. **Examining Photographs** Study the photograph on page 421 of farmers using binding machines in western Wisconsin. Based on the terrain and the type of work they needed to do, what other types of technology would have helped farmers on the Plains?

### Writing About History

8. **Persuasive Writing** Write an advertisement persuading people from the East and from Europe to establish homesteads in the Great Plains.
Why Learn This Skill?

Often presented in graphs and tables, statistics are collections of data that are used to support a claim or an opinion. The ability to interpret statistics allows us to understand probable effects and to make predictions.

Learning the Skill

Use the following steps to help you interpret statistical information.

- **Scan** the graph or table, reading the title and labels to get an idea of what is being shown.
- **Examine** the statistics shown, looking for increases and decreases, similarities and differences.
- **Look** for a correlation in the statistics. Two sets of data may be related or unrelated. If they are related, we say that there is a correlation between them. In a positive correlation, as one number rises, so does the other number. In a negative correlation, as one number rises, the other number falls. For example, there is a positive correlation between academic achievement and wages, and there is a negative correlation between smoking and life expectancy. Sometimes, statistics may try to show a correlation when none exists. For example, a report that “people who go fishing are less likely to get cancer” may be statistically true but lack any real correlation.
- **Determine** the conclusions you can draw from the statistics.

Practicing the Skill

Study the table above, and then answer the following questions.

Skills Assessment

Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 433 and the Chapter 13 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.

Applying the Skill

**Interpreting Statistics**  Create a survey with two questions for which you believe the answers will show a correlation. For example, you might ask, “How many hours of television do you watch per day?” and “How many hours of sleep do you usually get at night?” Organize your statistics in a chart or graph. Then, look for a correlation in your data and evaluate your results. Write a paragraph summarizing your evaluation.
In October 1867, a Comanche chief named Ten Bears arrived with other Native American leaders and their followers at Medicine Lodge Creek in present-day Kansas to meet with federal treaty-makers and army officers. The federal officials wanted them to sign a treaty agreeing to move to confined areas called reservations and to submit to American authority. In return, the government offered them food, housing, instruction in farming, and other assistance. After listening to the treaty-makers, Ten Bears spoke against moving to a reservation:

"That which you say we must now live on is too small. The Texans have taken away the places where the grass grew the thickest. . . . The white man has the country which we loved, and we only wish to wander on the prairie until we die."

In the end, Ten Bears and the other chiefs had little choice but to sign the treaty. The army’s main representative at the council, General William Tecumseh Sherman, told them bluntly that they would have to accept the deal: “You can no more stop this than you can stop the sun or moon; you must submit and do the best you can.”

—adapted from Tribes of the Southern Plains

Culture of the Plains Indians

For centuries the Great Plains was home to many Native American nations. Some lived in communities as farmers and hunters, but most were nomads who roamed vast distances, following their main source of food—the buffalo.

Despite their differences, the groups of Plains Indians were similar in many ways. They lived in extended family networks and had a close relationship with nature. Plains
Indian nations, sometimes numbering several thousand people, were divided into bands consisting of up to 500 people. A governing council headed each band, but most members participated in making decisions. Gender determined the assignment of tasks. Women generally performed domestic tasks: rearing children, cooking, and preparing hides. Men performed tasks such as hunting, trading, and supervising the military life of the band. Most Plains Indians practiced a religion based on a belief in the spiritual power of the natural world.

**Reading Check** Comparing In what ways were different groups of Plains Indians similar?

**Cultures Under Pressure**

As ranchers, miners, and farmers moved onto the Plains, they deprived Native Americans of their hunting grounds, broke treaties guaranteeing certain lands to the Plains Indians, and often forced them to relocate to new territory. Native Americans resisted by attacking wagon trains, stagecoaches, and ranches. Occasionally an entire group would go to war against nearby settlers and troops. The first major clash on the Plains began in 1862, when the Sioux people in Minnesota launched a major uprising.

**The Dakota Sioux Uprising** The Dakota Sioux had agreed to live on a small reservation in Minnesota. In exchange for moving to the reservation, the United States government issued annuities, or payments to reservation dwellers, at least once per year. The annuities, however, amounted to only between 5 and 30 cents an acre, and much of that money ended up in the hands of American traders. These traders often made up stories about debts owed to them by the Dakota, and they took the annuities as payments. Congress made things worse for the Dakota in 1862 by delaying annuities. By August the payments were a month late, and some of the Dakota were starving. Chief Little Crow asked traders to provide his people food on credit. “If they are hungry,” trader Andrew Myrick replied, “let them eat grass or their
own dung." Two weeks later, the Dakota rose up in arms, and Myrick was found shot to death with grass stuffed in his mouth.

Little Crow reluctantly agreed to lead this uprising. He wanted to wage war against soldiers, not civilians, but he was unable to keep angry Dakota from slaughtering settlers in the area. Hundreds died before troops arrived from St. Paul and put down the uprising.

A military tribunal sentenced 307 Dakota to death for taking part in the hostilities, but President Lincoln reviewed the evidence and reduced the number executed to 38. Many others who fled the reservation when the troops arrived became exiles in a region that bore their name—the Dakota Territory.

**Lakota Sioux Defend Their Territory** Following the Dakota uprising, the army sent patrols far out onto the northern Great Plains to prevent further trouble among the Sioux there. This action did more to stir up hostilities than to prevent them, for it brought troops into contact with another branch of the Sioux—the nomadic Lakota—who had offered refuge to Native Americans from Minnesota. The Lakota fought hard to keep control of their hunting grounds, which extended from the Black Hills westward to the Bighorn Mountains. They had battled rival groups for this country and did not intend to let settlers have it. Leading them were chiefs Red Cloud, Crazy Horse, and Sitting Bull.

The army suffered a stunning defeat at the hands of Red Cloud’s forces in Wyoming in December 1866. Army troops were operating a fort on the Bozeman Trail, used by prospectors to reach gold mines in Montana. Crazy Horse, a religious leader as well as a war chief, lured the troops into a deadly trap. He tricked the fort’s commander into sending Captain William Fetterman and about 80 soldiers out to pursue what they thought was a small raiding party. Hundreds of warriors were waiting in ambush and wiped out the entire detachment.

**Sand Creek** Fetterman’s Massacre, as this battle came to be called, was just one example of the growing hostilities between settlers and Native Americans. Another incident, the **Sand Creek Massacre**, took place along Sand Creek in eastern Colorado.

In the 1860s, tensions began to rise between the Cheyenne and Arapaho peoples and the miners who had flocked to Colorado in search of gold and silver. As the number of settlers increased, bands of Native Americans began raiding wagon trains and stealing cattle and horses from ranches. By the summer of 1864, travelers heading to Denver or the mining camps were no longer safe. Trade had come to a standstill, dozens of ranches had been burned, and an estimated 200 settlers had been killed. The territorial governor, John Evans, ordered the Native Americans to surrender at Fort Lyon, where he said they would be given food and protection. Those who failed to report would be subject to attack.

Although several hundred Native Americans surrendered at the fort, many others did not. In November 1864, Chief Black Kettle brought several hundred Cheyenne to the fort, not to surrender but to negotiate a peace deal. The fort’s commander did not have the authority to negotiate, and he told Black Kettle to make camp at Sand Creek while he waited for orders. Shortly afterward, Colonel John Chivington of the Colorado Volunteers was ordered to attack the Cheyenne at Sand Creek.

When Chivington stopped at Fort Lyon, he was told that the Native Americans at Sand Creek were waiting to negotiate. Chivington replied that since the Cheyenne had been attacking settlers, including women and children, there could be no peace.

What actually happened at Sand Creek is unclear. Some witnesses stated afterward that Black Kettle had been flying both an American flag and a white flag of truce, which Chivington ignored. Others reported the American troops fired on the unsuspecting Native Americans, then brutally murdered hundreds of women and children. Still others described a savage battle in which both sides fought ferociously for two days. Fourteen soldiers died, but the number of Native Americans reported killed varied from 69 to 600, with some witnesses stating that very few...
women or children died. General Nelson Miles later called Chivington’s attack “the foulest and most unjustifiable crime in the annals of America,” but a Senate committee investigating the incident decided that Chivington should not be charged. The truth of what really happened remains unknown.

**GOVERNMENT**

**A Doomed Plan for Peace** Fetterman’s Massacre and the Sand Creek Massacre, along with several other incidents, convinced Congress that something had to be done to end the growing conflict with Native Americans on the Great Plains. In 1867 Congress formed an Indian Peace Commission, which proposed creating two large reservations on the Plains, one for the Sioux and another for southern Plains Indians. Agents from the federal government’s Bureau of Indian Affairs would run the reservations. The army would be given authority to deal with any groups that refused to report or remain there.

This plan was doomed to failure. Pressuring Native American leaders into signing treaties, as negotiators had done at Medicine Lodge Creek in 1867, did not ensure that chiefs or their followers would abide by the terms. Those who did move to reservations faced much the same conditions that drove the Dakota Sioux to violence—poverty, despair, and the corrupt practices of American traders.

*Reading Check*  **Understanding** What proposal did the Indian Peace Commission present to the Plains Indians?
The Last Native American Wars

By the 1870s, many Native Americans on the southern Plains had left the reservations in disgust. They preferred hunting buffalo on the open Plains, so they joined others who had also shunned the reservations. Buffalo, however, were rapidly disappearing. Beginning with the Gold Rush, migrants crossing the Plains had killed off thousands of the animals.

Following the Civil War, professional buffalo hunters invaded the area, seeking buffalo hides for markets in the East. Other hunters killed merely for sport, leaving carcasses to rot. Then railroad companies hired sharpshooters to kill large numbers of buffalo that were obstructing rail traffic. The army, determined to force Native Americans onto reservations, encouraged buffalo killing. By 1889 very few of the animals remained.

Battle of the Little Bighorn In 1876 fortune hunters overran the Lakota Sioux reservation in South Dakota to mine gold in the Black Hills. The Lakota saw no reason why they should abide by a treaty that American settlers were violating, and many left the reservation that spring to hunt near the Bighorn Mountains in southeastern Montana.

The government responded by sending an expedition commanded by General Alfred H. Terry. Lieutenant Colonel George A. Custer, commander of the Seventh Cavalry, was with the expedition. An impulsive officer, Custer underestimated the fighting capabilities of the Lakota and Cheyenne.

On June 25, 1876, Custer launched a three-pronged attack in broad daylight on one of the largest groups of Native American warriors ever assembled on the Great Plains. It consisted of about 2,500 Lakota and Cheyenne warriors camped along the Little Bighorn River.

The Native American warriors first repulsed a cavalry charge from the south. Then they turned on Custer and a detachment of 210 soldiers and killed them all. One Lakota warrior recalled the scene afterward: “The soldiers were piled one on top of another, dead, with here and there, an Indian among the soldiers. Horses lay on top of men, and men on top of horses.”

Newspapers portrayed Custer as the victim of a massacre. The army stepped up its campaign against the Native Americans. Sitting Bull fled with followers to Canada, but the other Lakota were forced to return to the reservation and give up the Black Hills.

Farther west, members of the Nez Perce, led by Chief Joseph, refused to be moved to a smaller reservation in Idaho in 1877. When the army came to relocate them, they fled their homes and embarked on a flight of more than 1,300 miles. Finally, in October 1877, Chief Joseph surrendered, and his followers were exiled to Oklahoma. His speech summarized the hopelessness of the Native American cause:

“Our chiefs are killed. . . . The little children are freezing to death. My people . . . have no blankets, no food. . . . Hear me, my chiefs; I am tired; my heart is sick and sad. From where the sun now stands I will fight no more forever.”

—quoted in Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee

Tragedy at Wounded Knee Native American resistance to federal authority finally came to a tragic end on the Lakota Sioux reservation in 1890. Defying
the orders of the government agent, the Lakota continued to perform the Ghost Dance, a ritual that celebrated a hoped-for day of reckoning when settlers would disappear, the buffalo would return, and Native Americans would reunite with their deceased ancestors. The government agent blamed the latest defiance on Sitting Bull, who had returned to the reservation from Canada, and he sent police to arrest the chief. Sitting Bull’s supporters resisted the police, and the chief himself died in an exchange of gunfire.

The participants of the Ghost Dance then fled the reservation, and U.S. troops went after them. On December 29, 1890, as troops tried to disarm the Native Americans at Wounded Knee Creek, gunfire broke out. A deadly battle ensued, costing the lives of 25 U.S. soldiers and approximately 200 Lakota men, women, and children.

**Assimilation**

Some Americans had long opposed the treatment of Native Americans. Author Helen Hunt Jackson described the years of broken promises and assaults on Native Americans in her book, *A Century of Dishonor*, published in 1881. Jackson’s descriptions of events such as the massacre at Sand Creek sparked discussions—even in Congress—of better treatment for Native Americans. Some people believed that the situation would improve only if Native Americans could assimilate, or be absorbed, into American society as landowners and citizens. That meant breaking up reservations into individual allotments, where families could become self-supporting.

This policy became law in 1887 when Congress passed the Dawes Act. This act allotted to each head of household 160 acres of reservation land for farming; single adults received 80 acres, and 40 acres were allotted for children. The land that remained after all members had received allotments would be sold to American settlers, with the proceeds going into a trust for Native Americans.

This plan failed to achieve its goals. Some Native Americans succeeded as farmers or ranchers, but many had little training or enthusiasm for either pursuit. Like homesteaders, they often found their allotments too small to be profitable, and so they sold them. Some Native American groups had grown attached to their reservations and hated to see them transformed into homesteads for settlers as well as Native Americans.

In the end, the assimilation policy proved a dismal failure. No legislation could provide a satisfactory solution to the Native American issue, because there was no entirely satisfactory solution to be had. The Plains Indians were doomed because they were dependent on buffalo for food, clothing, fuel, and shelter. When the herds were wiped out, Native Americans on the Plains had no way to sustain their way of life, and few were willing or able to adopt American settlers’ lifestyles in place of their traditional cultures.

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“Mother, why is not your house cemented? Do you have no interest in a more comfortable shelter? . . .”
“You forget, my child, that I am now old, and I do not work with beads any more. Your brother Dawee, too, has lost his position, and we are left without means to buy even a morsel of food,” she replied.
Dawee was a government clerk in our reservation when I last heard from him. I was surprised upon hearing what my mother said concerning his lack of employment. Seeing the puzzled expression on my face, she continued: “Dawee! Oh, has he not told you that the Great Father at Washington sent a white son to take your brother’s pen from him? Since then Dawee has not been able to make use of the education the Eastern school has given him.”
I found no words with which to answer satisfactorily. I found no reason with which to cool my inflamed feelings. . . .
Turning to my mother, I urged her to tell me more about Dawee’s trouble, but she only said: “Well, my daughter, this village has been these many winters a refuge for white robbers. The Indian cannot complain to the Great Father in Washington without suffering outrage for it here. . . .”

Gertrude Simmons Bonnin (Zitkala Sa) was a talented and educated Native American woman who spent her life fighting against prejudice toward Native American culture and women. Through her contributions in the fields of literature, music, and politics, Bonnin aimed at creating understanding between the dominant white and Native American cultures. As a woman of mixed white and Native American ancestry, she embodied the need for the two cultures to live cooperatively. In the following excerpt from her essay, An Indian Teacher Among Indians, she describes a reunion with her mother after being away from home teaching for several years.

Read to Discover
What evidence do you see of the “generation gap”—the differences between parents and children—in the passage?

Reader’s Dictionary
position: job
steadfastly: faithfully
avenge: get even for

A Native American reservation

“My child, there is only one source of justice, and I have been praying steadfastly to the Great Spirit to avenge our wrongs,” she said, seeing I did not move my lips.
My shattered energy was unable to hold longer any faith, and I cried out desperately: “Mother, don’t pray again! The Great Spirit does not care if we live or die!”

Analyzing Literature
1. Recall and Interpret Why did Bonnin’s brother lose his job?
2. Evaluate and Connect How does Bonnin’s mother react to the injustice of the “Great Father in Washington”? How does Bonnin react?

Interdisciplinary Activity
Drama In small groups, assume the roles of Bonnin, her mother, and her brother, and extend the passage by imagining what might happen when Dawee returns.
Reviewing Key Terms
On a sheet of paper, use each of these terms in a sentence.

1. placer mining  6. homestead  11. annuity
2. quartz mining  7. dry farming  12. assimilate
3. open range  8. sodbuster  13. allotment
4. long drive  9. bonanza farm
5. maverick  10. nomad

Reviewing Key Facts
15. What led to the start of boomtowns, and what caused their decline?
16. What new invention finally brought an end to the open range on the Great Plains?
17. How did the railroads boost the settlement of the West?
18. Why was wheat a suitable crop to grow on the Great Plains?
19. What events brought the way of life of the Plains Indians to an end?

Critical Thinking
20. Analyzing Themes: Economic Factors Do you think that people moved to and settled in the West primarily for economic reasons? Why or why not?
21. Drawing Conclusions Why do you think that so many people were willing to give up their homes and move to mining towns and homesteads in the West?
22. Forming an Opinion How do you think a peaceful settlement might have been reached between the Native Americans and the U.S. government?
23. Interpreting Primary Sources In the late 1860s, the U.S. government adopted a policy of forcing Native Americans onto small reservations in the Black Hills of Dakota and barren regions of Oklahoma. The government forced many Native American chiefs to sign treaties and to promise to move onto the reservations. Many Native Americans, however, refused to move and fought to maintain their traditional way of life. In the excerpt that follows, Satanta, a chief of the Kiowa, responds to the government’s policy. Read the excerpt and answer the questions that follow:

I have heard that you intend to settle us on a reservation near the mountains. I don’t want to settle. I love to roam over the prairies. There I feel free and happy, but when we settle down we grow pale and die. I have laid aside my lance, bow, and shield, and yet I feel safe in your presence. I have told you the truth. I have no little lies hid about me, but I don’t know how it is with the commissioners. Are they as clear as I am? A long time ago this land belonged to our fathers; but when I go up to the river I see camps of soldiers on its banks. These soldiers cut down my timber; they kill my buffalo;
and when I see that, my heart feels like bursting; I feel sorry. . . . Has the white man become a child that he should recklessly kill and not eat? When the red men slay game, they do so that they may live and not starve.

—quoted in *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee*

a. What reasons does Satanta give for not wanting to settle on a reservation?
b. How does Satanta view the white settlers’ approach to the land and the resources on it?

24. **Organizing** Use a graphic organizer to list the factors that promoted the settlement of the West.

| Reasons for Settling the West |

**Practicing Skills**

25. **Interpreting Statistics** Examine the chart on Native American populations displayed on this page. Then use the steps you learned about interpreting statistics to answer the following questions.

a. According to this data, is there a positive or a negative correlation between Native American population and the passage of time?

b. Based on this correlation, what conclusions can you draw about Native American population after 1900?

**Writing Activity**

26. **Portfolio Writing** Watch an older movie about the West. Look critically at the movie’s depiction of cowhands and Native Americans. Write a movie review in which you assess how accurately the movie portrays the West. Place the review in your portfolio.

**Chapter Activity**

27. **Technology: Using the Internet** Search the Internet for sites about old mining towns (ghost towns) in the West. Many of these towns are tourist attractions today. Find out the location and history of a few of these towns, as well as the points of interest. Incorporate the information in a brochure for tourists interested in taking a “ghost town” vacation.

**Geography and History**

28. The graph above shows Native American population from 1850 to 1900. Study the graph and answer the questions below.

a. **Interpreting Graphs** What does the graph indicate about Native American populations between 1850 and 1900?

b. **Understanding Cause and Effect** What factor caused the Native American populations to decline sharply between 1880 and 1890?

**Standardized Test Practice**

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

Which of the following did NOT make it easier for settlers to live and farm on the Great Plains?

A  Government assistance such as the Homestead Act
B  New technology such as the mechanical reaper and the combine
C  New farming techniques such as dry farming
D  The absence of land speculators

Test-Taking Tip: When you are not sure of an answer, it can be helpful to use the process of elimination. Eliminate the answers that you know are incorrect. For instance, machinery such as the reaper did make it easier for farmers to work more land at a quicker pace. Therefore, you can eliminate answer B.