• History 2(A) Identify the major characteristics that define an historical era.
• History 2(B) Identify the major eras in U.S. history from 1877 to the present and describe their defining characteristics.
• History 2(C) Apply absolute and relative chronology through the sequencing of significant individuals, events, and time periods.
• History 3(A) Analyze political issues such as Indian policies and the growth of political machines.
• History 3(B) Analyze economic issues such as the cattle industry boom.
• History 3(C) Analyze social issues affecting immigrants and urbanization.
• History 3(D) Describe the optimism of the many immigrants who sought a better way of life in America.
• Geography 12(A) Analyze the impact of physical and human geographic factors on the settlement of the Great Plains and the Klondike Gold Rush.
• Geography 13(A) Analyze the causes and effects of changing demographic patterns resulting from migration within the United States, including western expansion, rural to urban migration.
• Geography 13(B) Analyze the causes and effects of changing demographic patterns resulting from legal immigration to the United States.
• Geography 14(A) Identify the effects of population growth and distribution on the physical environment.
• Economics 15(A) Describe how the economic impact of the Transcontinental Railroad and the Homestead Act contributed to the close of the frontier in the late 19th century.
• Economics 15(C) Explain how foreign policies affected economic issues such as the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882.
• Citizenship 23(B) Evaluate various means of achieving equality of political rights, including congressional acts such as the American Indian Citizenship Act of 1924.
• Culture 26(B) Discuss the Americanization movement to assimilate immigrants and American Indians into American culture.
In this chapter, you will learn how industrialization affected American society in the late nineteenth century. You will learn how people migrated from the countryside to cities, and people from other countries came to the United States. You will also learn how technological change made it possible to transform the physical geography of the Great Plains. Finally, you will explore how Native American Indians were forced onto reservations, the buffalo were killed, and new settlers built ranches and farms.

— IMPORTANT IDEAS —

A. In the 19th century, Americans moved from the countryside to cities as the nation became more urbanized. The use of farm machinery meant fewer workers were needed on farms, while demand for labor in factories and cities expanded.

B. Urbanization brought many problems. Cities often lacked adequate public services for their growing populations. Streets were noisy, dirty, and congested. Many newcomers lived in crowded tenement housing.

C. Political "bosses" ran "political machines." They provided basic services for immigrants and the poor, in exchange for their votes; they used their control of city government to make personal fortunes on overpriced city contracts.

D. Immigration escalated in the late nineteenth century. A variety of "push" and "pull" factors brought more immigrants to the United States seeking a better life.

E. The "New Immigrants" came from Southern and Eastern Europe — Russia, Italy, Poland, and Greece. Most were Catholic or Jewish, spoke no English and were often poor. They tended to settle in large Eastern cities. They lived in ethnic communities in ghettos, where they could speak their native language.

F. The children of the immigrants were often "Americanized" in the public schools.

G. Nativists opposed immigration. The Chinese Exclusion Act was the first federal law restricting immigration. It prohibited Chinese immigration for 10 years.

H. The frontier was the line between areas of settlement and those areas dominated by nature and Native American Indians. The last frontier consisted of the Great Plains and mountains, deserts, and basins of the Far West. The completion of the Transcontinental Railroad and the defeat of the Indians during the Indian Wars closed the final frontier and opened the region to settlement.

I. Miners were attracted to the Far West by discoveries of precious metals such as during the California Gold Rush of 1849 and the Klondike Gold Rush of 1896.

J. Ranchers came to drive their cattle herds across the open range to rail lines. Farmers occupied land under the Homestead Act and built homes and farms. To overcome the lack of rain and trees, they built homes of sod, dug water wells, and used steel plows and barbed wire.

K. Government policy drove the Indians onto government reservations in the West.

L. The Dawes Act, although intended to help Indians, had the opposite effect. It gave tribal lands to individual Indians, who often sold them. The American Indian Citizenship Act (1924) made all Indians into U.S. citizens.
URBANIZATION

In the last chapter, you learned how American industrialization increased its pace in the decades following the Civil War. Accelerating industrialization contributed to the process of urbanization — the movement of people from the countryside to towns and cities.

URBANIZATION: THE GROWTH OF CITIES

Demography is the study of population. One of the topics that demographers study is where people live. An important result of industrialization was the rapid expansion of American cities. In 1865, only two U.S. cities actually had populations of more than 500,000 — New York and Philadelphia. By 1900, that number had risen to six. Three of them — New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia — reached populations of more than one million inhabitants. By this time, 40 percent of Americans lived in cities, and the proportion was growing.

Several factors contributed to the rapid urban growth. The introduction of new farm machinery, such as Cyrus McCormick’s reaper, which cut and bundled grain, greatly reduced the number of farm jobs. Farmers and rural laborers sought work in towns and cities. At the same time, the rise of industry had created many new job opportunities. Workers were needed in factories, mines and workshops, and for services like transport. Americans were also attracted to cities by their cultural opportunities, popular entertainments, and rich variety. Finally, the explosion in urban growth was further fueled by unprecedented levels of immigration.

New farm machinery meant fewer workers were needed on farms to raise crops.
Select one major American city and use the Internet or your school library to investigate how its size changed between 1865 and 1900.
- Make a graph showing its population over several decades (1870, 1880, etc.).
- Find out what kind of work most people did in that city. For example, did the city have any special resources or industries that employed residents?
- Find out where most of the people living in that city came from. Were many residents from a particular part of the United States, or from a foreign country?
- What activities did people pursue in that city for relaxation and amusement?

Urbanization led to physical changes in the landscape. Trees and fields were replaced by wood and brick buildings and by paved roads. American cities mushroomed so quickly that municipal (city) authorities were often unable to deal adequately with all of their problems.

**OVERCROWDING AND CONGESTION**
Cities grew haphazardly. Streets were often not wide enough to bear the increased traffic. Horse-drawn cars crowded the streets, making movement almost impossible. Factories and trains polluted the air, while sewage sometimes contaminated drinking water and spread disease. Cities lacked the ability to deliver essential services — like clean water, garbage collection, and public schools — to so many residents. As cities grew, whole families crowded into tenements — single-room apartments often without heat or lighting. Frequently many families shared a single toilet.

Inadequate Public Services. Cities lacked the ability to deliver increased public services — hospitals, police forces, schools, fire departments, street cleaning, and garbage collection.

Transportation. Horse-drawn coaches and later electric trolleys were needed to transport workers to their jobs. To eliminate the pollution created by coaches and trolleys, New York City built a subway in 1900. By 1930, New York City had the world's largest subway system.

Overcrowding. Families were crowded into tenements (small apartment buildings). These tenements often lacked daylight, heat, fresh air, and adequate plumbing.

Social Tensions. In cities, rich people lived next door to the poor. Seeing the luxuries of the wealthy distressed poor people and increased social tensions and crimes.
97 Orchard Street in the Lower East Side of New York City was a typical tenement building. Lukas Glockner, a German immigrant, built it in 1863. He hoped to make a profit by making cheap housing available to immigrant families arriving in New York City. The small building housed 22 families. At first, the building lacked running water, indoor toilets, or gas for light and heating. Like most tenements in New York City before central heating, it was freezing cold in winter and very hot in the summer. However, in 1867, New York City began passing laws requiring landlords to provide running water, inside toilets, and gas lines. Gradually, Glockner made the improvements to his building, adding windows for air and light. People lived there until 1935, when it was abandoned. Today it houses New York City's Lower East Side Tenement Museum.

POLITICAL MACHINES

City governments were often run by corrupt "political machines." The leaders of these machines were known as political "bosses." Either the boss or a small group told the workers and supporters of the machine what to do. The machines often provided jobs and other services to immigrants and the poor in exchange for their votes. The power of the political boss depended upon his ability to dominate voting and to control the agencies of municipal government. The machines also often had the support of other local business leaders.

By controlling elected officials in local government, political bosses were able to hand out government "patronage" jobs to reward loyal workers. The bosses then used their control of "city hall" to make illegal profits on city contracts or by collecting bribes. For example, Boss Tweed of Tammany Hall in New York City controlled thousands of city workers and influenced the operation of schools, hospitals, and other city-run services. Tweed benefited from the support of Irish immigrants. He controlled or bribed lawmakers to pass laws favorable to his interests. Tweed often overpaid himself on construction projects and land sales, stealing millions from the city.

Cartoon mocking political "bosses."
While the political machines were corrupt, they did play a useful role. They helped immigrants settle into their new homeland, find housing, and obtain jobs. They also helped immigrants become naturalized citizens and even provided money to help them through hard times. The political machines were often the ones to get a street paved, extend a water pipe, or approve construction. But these services came at a very high price.

APPLYING WHAT YOU HAVE LEARNED

Create a graphic organizer showing the influence of political “bosses” and their political machines on a major city, such as New York, Boston, Chicago or Philadelphia.

IMMIGRATION

In the late nineteenth century, European immigrants flooded American cities in search of work and places to live. In many of the largest American cities, European immigrants even came to outnumber native-born Americans.

WHY IMMIGRANTS CAME

Immigrants have always come to the United States for a variety of reasons. Historians often divide these into “push” and “pull” factors. A desire to escape oppression, poverty, religious discrimination or ethnic persecution “pushed” immigrants out of their homelands. A belief that America offered freedom and economic opportunity as well as ties to relatives already living here generally “pulled” immigrants to these shores. They saw the United States as a land of unbounded opportunities. Immigrants who fled oppressive regimes in Europe yearned to live in a democratic society like the United States.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“PUSH” FACTORS</th>
<th>“PULL” FACTORS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Oppression</td>
<td>Freedom</td>
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<td>Poverty</td>
<td>Economic Opportunity</td>
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<td>War</td>
<td>Cultural Ties</td>
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<td>Religious/Ethnic Persecution</td>
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SHIFTING PATTERNS OF IMMIGRATION

Before 1880, most immigrants to America came from parts of Northern Europe, especially Great Britain, Ireland, and Germany. In general, these immigrants were Protestants, except for large numbers of Irish Catholics. Most of these early immigrants spoke English.
THE "NEW IMMIGRANTS," 1880–1920

Patterns of immigration changed in the 1880s. The construction of railroads across Europe and the appearance of large ocean-going steamships made the voyage to America more accessible to many Europeans. Most of these "New Immigrants" came from Southern and Eastern Europe, especially Poland, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Greece, and Russia. They were often Catholic, Jewish, or Orthodox Christian rather than Protestant, and spoke no English.

![U.S. Immigration Map (1840–1920)](image)

**THE IMMIGRANT EXPERIENCE**

Immigrants in the late nineteenth century usually faced great hardships, beginning with their passage to America. They traveled in steerage, in an open room below the water line, often with their life's belongings in a single bag. On a clear day, they assembled on the ship's deck for sunshine and fresh air. Most first arrived in New York City, where they were processed at the vast government center on Ellis Island in New York Harbor. Those with tuberculosis or other diseases were sent back.

**Initial Hardships.** The "New Immigrants" either stayed in New York City or took trains to join their relatives in other parts of the country. Most settled in cities. They were usually poor, dressed differently from other Americans and were unfamiliar with American customs. They moved into crowded, tenement buildings and worked at unskilled jobs for long hours at low pay. They often faced hostility and discrimination from native-born Americans and even from other, different immigrant groups. Despite these hardships, there was often a strong spirit of optimism among many immigrants. Many had already survived far worse conditions in the countries where they came from. If America was not everything they had hoped for, they appreciated that there were new opportunities for both themselves and their children.

**Ethnic Ghettoes.** To cope with their problems, immigrants usually settled with relatives and others of the same nationality in ethnic neighborhoods known as ghettos. The immigrants felt more comfortable around those who spoke the same language and who followed the same customs as themselves.
In their own communities, immigrants could speak their native language, attend their own churches and synagogues, and be among relatives and friends from the “Old Country.” Some of these communities even published newspapers in their own native language. However, living in these ethnic ghettos also isolated immigrants from mainstream American life, making it harder for them to adopt new customs.

THE PROCESS OF AMERICANIZATION

While some adult immigrants attended night school to learn English, most were too busy working and caring for their families to spend time learning a new language or culture. It was left to their children to learn English and become “Americanized” — learning to dress, speak, and act like other Americans.

These immigrant children eventually became “assimilated” — similar to other Americans. America was seen as a “melting pot” in which immigrants were “melted” down and reshaped. America’s public schools greatly assisted in this process. Often Americanization was accompanied by conflict. For example, immigrant parents might desire an arranged marriage for their children, while their children insisted on finding their own marriage partners according to the American custom.

Immigrant children learn to speak English in a New York City public school.

ACTING AS AN AMATEUR HISTORIAN

The following passage is from a letter that former President Theodore Roosevelt wrote to the President of the American Defense Society in January 1919:

“We should insist that if the immigrant who comes here in good faith becomes an American and assimilates himself to us, he shall be treated on an exact equality with everyone else. It is an outrage to discriminate against any such man because of creed, or birthplace, or origin .... There can be no divided allegiance here. Any man who says he is an American, but something else also, isn’t an American. We have room for but one language, and that is the English language, and we have room for but one loyalty and that is loyalty to the American people. We can have no ‘50-50’ allegiance in this country. Either a man is an American and nothing else, or he is not an American at all.”

★ What were Roosevelt’s views on Americanization?

★ Roosevelt once told a newspaper that “English should be the only language taught in public schools.” What are your views on this today? Explain your answer.
THE RISE OF NATIVISM

As the flood of immigrants grew, hostility to immigration also mounted. Nativists, or those "born" or "native" to the United States, wanted to restrict immigration. Nativists believed that people of other races, religions, and nationalities were inferior and that the "New Immigrants" were especially inferior to white, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant Americans. Nativists feared the "New Immigrants" could never be fully absorbed into American society since they lived in ghettos and spoke their own languages. Finally, Nativists argued that immigrants working for low wages would take away jobs from other Americans.

EARLY RESTRICTIONS ON IMMIGRATION

For most of the nineteenth century, there were no limits at all on immigration to the United States. Anyone who was healthy and could afford to come here was permitted to immigrate.

The Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) was the first federal law to restrict immigration to the United States. It reflected American prejudices at the time against Asians. In California, political leaders blamed unemployment and a general decline in wages on the presence of Chinese workers. The law temporarily banned the immigration of Chinese workers and placed new requirements on Chinese residents already living in the United States. These residents had to obtain a special certificate before leaving the United States if they planned to re-enter. State and federal courts were denied the ability to grant citizenship to Chinese residents. American leaders carefully negotiated with the Chinese government in order to enforce this ban.

ACTING AS AN AMATEUR HISTORIAN

The Chinese Exclusion Act provided a 10-year ban on the immigration of Chinese workers. Here are some of its key provisions:

"Preamble. Whereas, in the opinion of the Government of the United States the coming of Chinese laborers to this country endangers the good order of certain localities within the territory:

§1. [T]he coming of Chinese laborers to the United States is suspended; and during such suspension it shall be unlawful for any Chinese laborer to come, or, having so come after the expiration of said ninety days, to remain within the United States.

§9. Before any Chinese passengers are landed from a vessel arriving in the United States, the collector shall examine such passengers, comparing the certificates with the list of passengers; no passenger shall be allowed to land from such a vessel.

§10. That every vessel whose master shall knowingly violate any of the provisions of this act shall be liable to seizure and condemnation in any district of the United States into which such vessel may enter."

What was the aim of this law? Why do you think some Americans supported this law?

In U.S. v. Wong Kim Ark (1898), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the children of Chinese immigrants born in the United States could not be denied citizenship. This part of the Chinese Exclusion Act, the Court held, violated the 14th Amendment.
In the later nineteenth century, the last American frontier was transformed by America's rapid population growth and industrial development. The frontier has generally been defined as the line separating areas of settlement from "unsettled" wilderness territory. From another point of view, the American frontier marked the dividing line between areas where Native Americans lived and areas settled by more technologically advanced peoples.

Since the arrival of the first colonists, the American frontier had shifted steadily westwards. By the end of the Civil War, American settlers occupied the Mid-western prairies and had a foothold along the Pacific Coast. Between these two lines was a vast expanse of territory. Much of this last frontier consisted of the Great Plains, home to millions of buffalo and Native American Indians who lived off their food and hides. There were also mountains, deserts, and basin areas.

**THE LURE OF PRECIOUS METALS**

Even before the Civil War, settlers had been drawn to the California "gold rush" of 1848–1849. In 1896, a Californian and two Indian friends found a gold nugget near Canada's Klondike River near Alaska. This set off one of the most turbulent gold rushes in history. Within months, 100,000 gold-seekers set out for the Yukon. The voyage was long, hard, and cold, and only 30,000 completed the trip, with most giving up along the way. Still other discoveries of gold and silver were made in Alaska, the Rocky Mountains and the Black Hills of North Dakota. Thousands of prospectors and adventurers moved to these areas in hopes of striking it rich. Rough-and-ready mining towns sprang up overnight; often they collapsed just as fast when the minerals ran out or larger mining companies took over.
THE INDIAN WARS
After the Civil War, Union troops were stationed in forts along the frontier. They defeated several of the tribes on the Great Plains and Southwest during the Indian Wars and moved them onto reservations. Typical was the contest with the Sioux Indians. After the discovery of gold in the Black Hills of Dakota in 1875, the Sioux were asked to move from their sacred grounds. The following year, Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse defeated General George Custer and killed 264 soldiers at Little Big Horn. Within two years, Crazy Horse was captured and killed and most of the Sioux were forced onto reservations. However, unrest among the Sioux in 1890 led to the slaughter of 300 unarmed Sioux men, women and children by machine gun fire at Wounded Knee, South Dakota.

THE IMPACT OF THE RAILROADS
As you learned in the last chapter, the Transcontinental Railroad, completed in 1869, reduced the journey from New York to San Francisco from six months to just ten days. Rail travel increased dramatically with its completion. Soon the United States led the world, with more railroad track mileage than England and France combined. The railroads attracted an increasing number of settlers to the west. Settlers could now ship their crops by rail to distant Eastern markets.

Railroad tracks also often ran through Native American territories, leading to new conflicts. From 1870 to 1890, the herds of buffalo on the Great Plains were destroyed by sharpshooters traveling by train. This development affected the ability of the Plains Indians to remain on the Plains.

ACTING AS AN AMATEUR HISTORIAN
When the Texas legislature was considering a bill to protect the buffalo from sharpshooters, General Philip Sheridan spoke out against the bill:

“These men have done more in the last two years, and will do more in the next year, to settle the Indian question, than the entire regular army has done in the last forty years. They are destroying the Indians’ [food supply]. And it is a well known fact that an army losing its base of supplies is placed at a great disadvantage. Send them powder and lead, if you will; but for a lasting peace, let them kill, skin, and sell until all of the buffaloes are exterminated. Then your prairies can be covered with speckled cattle.”

★ How did Sheridan feel about the slaughter of buffalo on the Great Plains?
★ What effect did he predict if the slaughter continued?
THE AVAILABILITY OF CHEAP LAND

Before the Civil War, the federal government had sold unsettled land from its vast public domain for about $1.25 an acre. After the Southern states seceded, the remaining states passed several bills that the South had previously blocked. These laws encouraged expansion in the West. President Lincoln signed the Homestead Act in 1862. The act stated that any citizen could occupy 160 acres of government land. If the settler “improved” the land by making a home and growing crops, after five years the homesteader would own the property. Many European immigrants were attracted by this offer of free land. Almost 1,400,000 homesteads were eventually granted under the Act.

ACTING AS AN AMATEUR HISTORIAN

Under the Homestead Act, the government offered public lands to settlers. This section lays out what was required for a settler to buy land:

“Be it enacted, that the person applying for the benefit of this act shall register that he or she is the head of a family, or is 21 years or more, or performed service in the army, and that he has never borne arms against the U.S. government or given aid to its enemies, and that such application is made for the purpose of actual settlement and cultivation, and not either directly or indirectly for the use or benefit of another person or persons; and upon filing the said affidavit with the register, and on payment of ten dollars, he or she shall be permitted to enter the quantity of land specified.”

List the requirements that a settler had to meet to settle on federal land.

THE CATTLE INDUSTRY

At the end of the Civil War, there were several million wild longhorn cattle grazing on the Great Plains in Texas. Some Texans decided to drive these cattle northwards to the railroad lines in Kansas. From Kansas, the cattle were shipped to Chicago to be slaughtered. The beef was then shipped by refrigerated rail cars to cities in the East. It took about three months to drive the herds north from Texas across Indian Territory to Kansas. On this “long drive,” the cattle grazed on the grasses of the open range — unfenced lands not belonging to anyone.

Cowboys, who learned to ride, rope, and brand from Mexican vaqueros, kept the herds moving northwards. The romantic image of the cowboy has become a symbol of the individualism of the American spirit. Western music, with its roots in British folk ballads, celebrates cowboy life. In actual fact, most cowboys led lonely, isolated lives, dependent on the herd owners for work. As many as one in five cowboys was African-American.
In the late 1870s and 1880s, the herds were driven farther north a year before they were ready for slaughter. They fattened themselves by grazing on the plains of Montana, Wyoming, and the Dakotas. However, by 1886, overgrazing had destroyed much of the grass. Sheep herders and farmers had bought up much of the open range and enclosed it with barbed wire fences. Two severe winters and very hot summers killed millions of cattle in 1886–1887, finally ending the long drive. But cattle ranchers remained, breeding cattle on the “closed range,” and sending their cattle eastwards by train each year to be fattened by eastern farmers.

FARMING ON THE GREAT PLAINS

The railroads also led farmers to occupy the Great Plains. The Homestead Act and the sale of railroad land-grants stimulated the movement of farmers westwards. The railroads made it possible for farmers on the Great Plains to ship their crops to the East. About half of the settlers were immigrants from Europe; the other half were the children of farmers from the East and Midwest.

At first, these farmers faced the hostility of both Indians and cattlemen. The Indians were defeated by federal troops in the “Indian Wars.” The cattlemen formed associations and hired men to commit acts of violence against the early homesteaders. Eventually, the farmers won this conflict because they came in greater numbers and were able to enclose their lands with barbed wire.

The farmers faced many natural obstacles on the Great Plains. From railroad advertisements, they had expected to find well-watered, wooded lands. Instead, when they arrived, they found little rainfall, few trees, tough soil, extreme temperatures, plagues of grasshoppers, and personal isolation. Some starved or returned to the East. Families that stayed were forced to do endless hours of heavy work. During the winter months, families might be snowed in for months on end. With technological ingenuity, they were able to overcome many obstacles. To make up for the lack of trees, they built sod-houses from clumps of grass and soil; they used barbed wire to keep cattle and other animals off their farms. They used steel plows to turn the soil, drilling equipment to dig deep water wells and windmills to haul water. They used harvesters and threshers to farm more acres with fewer workers.
Native American Indians once occupied all of the present United States. They were composed of many different groups, speaking hundreds of different languages. The advancing line of settlement and diseases from Eurasia like smallpox severely reduced Native American populations and pushed them westwards.

**GOVERNMENT POLICY**

From 1830 to 1890, the U.S. government systematically followed a policy of pushing Native Americans from their traditional lands onto government reservations in the West.

**Forced Removal.** In 1830, Congress ordered the removal of all Native American Indians to west of the Mississippi. Nearly one-quarter of the Cherokees perished on the journey westward, known as the Trail of Tears.

**Flood of Settlers.** Large numbers of settlers overwhelmed the Native Americans. In 1869, the Transcontinental Railroad was completed. Along with the Homestead Act, the continuation of railroad lines made Native American lands even more desirable.

**FACTORS ERODING NATIVE AMERICAN CONTROL OF THE WEST**

**Warfare.** The technological superiority of the U.S. government made resistance futile. The Indian Wars, which pitted settlers and federal troops against Native American Indians, lasted from 1860 to 1890.

**Destruction of Natural Environment.** Competition between settlers, miners, and farmers for the land led to the destruction of the natural environment on which Native Americans depended for their livelihood.

**THE RESERVATION**

Once a particular Native American tribe submitted to federal authority, its members were settled on a reservation. Reservation lands were usually smaller than the lands from which the tribe was removed and often consisted of undesirable land. The federal government promised food, blankets, and seed but this policy clashed with tribal customs, since Native Americans were traditionally hunters, not farmers.
THE DAWES ACT, 1887

Many reformers urged that Native Americans undergo Americanization — adopting the culture of other “mainstream” Americans. The Dawes Act sought to hasten their Americanization. The act officially abolished Native American tribes. Each family was given 160 acres of reservation land as its own private property. Private property was expected to replace tribal land ownership, and each Native American would become a farmer. Those who adopted this way of life were promised U.S. citizenship and the right to vote.

Before the Dawes Act, Indians still controlled about 150 million acres. Twenty years later, two-thirds of this land was sold. White settlers bought up much of the “Indian Territory,” which then became the state of Oklahoma. Although well intended, the Dawes Act nearly destroyed surviving Native American Indian culture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Threatened Tribal Ways.</th>
<th>Hunters, Not Farmers.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation threatened Native American culture. The act encouraged individual farm ownership, opposing the tradition of sharing tribal lands.</td>
<td>Many Native American Indian tribes had never farmed the land, since they were hunters by lifestyle and tradition.</td>
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SHORTCOMINGS OF THE DAWES ACT

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<tr>
<th>Infertile Lands.</th>
<th>Reservation Life.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The lands given to Native American Indians were often infertile. The government also never provided farm equipment or assistance in learning how to farm.</td>
<td>These reservations often suffered from malnutrition, poverty, and untreated health problems. Reservation schools provided an inferior education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AMERICAN INDIAN CITIZENSHIP ACT (1924)

Before 1924, Native Americans held a unique position under federal law. Some had become citizens by marriage to a U.S. citizen; others were granted citizenship by serving in the U.S. military, or through special treaties. Most Native Americans, however, were still not U.S. citizens, and they were actually blocked from the normal process of naturalization open to foreigners. In 1924, the U.S. Congress therefore passed the American Indian Citizenship Act. This law granted immediate U.S. citizenship to all Native American Indians born in the United States.
Under the new act, Indians did not need to give up tribal lands or customs to become citizens, as they did under the Dawes Act. Some historians see the act as a reward for Native American enlistment as soldiers in World War I. Since Native American Indians had served the nation in wartime, they deserved to be given American citizenship. Ten years later, the Dawes Act was replaced by an act guaranteeing tribal self-government.