**Standard 1: Describe European settlement in North America during the 17th century**

This standard is designed to measure your knowledge of the colonization of North America. You will be asked questions about American colonies established by the British, Dutch, and French, and about the interaction of these Europeans with the Native Americans.

**Virginia**

The first permanent English colony in North America was Virginia. It was a business venture of the **Virginia Company**, an English firm that planned to make money by sending people to America to find gold and other valuable natural resources and then ship the resources back to England. The Virginia Company established a legislative assembly that was similar to England’s Parliament, called the **House of Burgesses**. The House of Burgesses was the first European-type legislative body in the New World.

People were sent from England to work for the Virginia Company. They discovered no gold but learned how to cultivate tobacco. Tobacco quickly became a major cash crop and an important source of wealth in Virginia. It also helped to create major social and economic divisions between those who owned land and those who did not. Additionally, tobacco cultivation was labor-intensive, and the Virginia colony’s economy became highly dependent on slavery.

Virginia’s rich soil, temperate climate, coastal harbors, and river systems aided the colony’s growth, especially the Jamestown settlement. Easy access to commercial waterways allowed colonists to export tobacco and other natural resources to England, as well as to import much-needed manufactured goods from English markets. The trans-Atlantic trade made it possible for the colony to prosper and expand.

Native Americans had lived for centuries on the land the English settlers called Virginia. A notable Native American chieftain in the region was **Powhatan**. Soon after the English settlers arrived, they forced the Native Americans off their own land so it could be used by the settlers for agricultural purposes, especially to grow tobacco. Their actions caused many Native Americans to flee the region and seek new places to live. However, all the colonists did not own land. Poor English and slave colonists staged an uprising against the governor and his landowning supporters. In what is called **Bacon’s Rebellion**, the landless rebels wanted harsher action against the Native Americans so more land would be available to the colonists. The rebellion was put down, and the Virginia House of Burgesses passed laws to regulate slavery so poor white colonists would no longer side with slaves against rich white colonists.

**New England**

The first New England colonies were established by the Puritans in present-day Massachusetts. Most of the colonists came with their whole family to pursue a better life and to practice religion as they saw fit. As a result of strict religious beliefs, the Puritans were not tolerant of religious beliefs that differed from their own. **Rhode Island** was founded by religious dissenters from Massachusetts who were more tolerant of different religious beliefs.

Communities were often run using town meetings, unless the king had established control over the colony. In colonies that the king controlled, there was often an appointed royal governor and a partially elected legislature. Voting rights were limited to men who belonged to the church, and church membership was tightly controlled by each minister and congregation. As more and more children were born in America, many grew up to be adults who lacked a personal covenant (relationship) with God, the central feature of Puritanism. In response, Puritan ministers encouraged a “**Half-way Covenant**” to allow partial church membership for the children and grandchildren of the original Puritans.

**King Phillip’s War** (1675–1676) was an early and bloody conflict between English colonists and Native Americans. It was named after the leader of the Native Americans. King Phillip’s Native American name was Metacom. Many colonists died in the war, but it caused such a heavy loss of life among the Native American population that large areas of southern New England became English settlements.

In 1686, the British king canceled the **Massachusetts charter** that made it an independent colony. To get more control over trade with the colonies, he combined British colonies throughout New England into a single territory governed from England. The colonists in this territory greatly disliked this centralized authority. In 1691, Massachusetts Bay became a royal colony.

In the 1690s, the famous **Salem witch trials** took place. In a series of court hearings, over 150 Massachusetts colonists accused of witchcraft were tried, 29 of which were convicted and 19 hanged. At least six more people died in prison. Causes of the Salem witch trials included extreme religious faith, stress from a growing population and its bad relations with Native Americans, and the narrow opportunities for women and girls to participate in Puritan society.

**Mid-Atlantic Colonies**

**Pennsylvania**, located between New England and Virginia, was a colony founded by the religiously tolerant Quakers led by William Penn. Farther north, New York was settled by the **Dutch**, who called it **New Amsterdam**. In 1664, the British conquered the colony and renamed it **New York**. A diverse population kept alive this center of trade and commerce founded by the Dutch, whom the British invited to remain there. With members of various British and Dutch churches, New York also tolerated different religions.

New York’s harbor and river systems significantly contributed to its economic growth and importance. New York’s convenient location along water trade routes allowed farmers to easily ship wheat and other agricultural goods to markets in America and in Europe, as well as to import manufactured goods from markets abroad. This allowed New York to grow into a major commercial hub and one of the biggest cities in the British colonies.

**Quebec**

France, like its European rival, Great Britain, settled colonies to secure the valuable natural resources of North America and export them to Europe. Quebec was the first permanent French settlement in North America. The French instructed their colonists to spread the Catholic faith in the New World. The British encouraged their colonists to establish Protestantism, but the British were more interested in the wealth of natural resources the colonists could send back to Britain. Still, the reason many British colonists moved to the New World was for the opportunity to establish societies tolerant of, and built on, their own religious beliefs.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1600 to 1700**, you should use your textbook to review

* Virginia Company
* House of Burgesses
* Powhatan
* Bacon’s Rebellion
* Massachusetts settlement
* Rhode Island settlement
* Half-Way Covenant
* King Phillip’s War
* Massachusetts charter
* Salem Witch Trials
* Mid-Atlantic Colonies
* Pennsylvania
* New Amsterdam (New York)
* Quebec

**Standard 2: Trace the ways that the economy and society of British North America developed**

Questions on the EOCT for this standard will measure your knowledge and understanding of ways the economy and society of the British colonies developed. All the colonies developed economies that allowed settlers to survive and even prosper, yet each colony differed in its religious, cultural, and political customs.

**Mercantilism**

The founders of the British colonies were greatly influenced by an economic theory known as **mercantilism**. This theory held that Earth had a limited supply of wealth in the form of natural resources, especially gold and silver, so the best way to become a stronger nation was to acquire the most wealth. Because the world’s wealth was thought to be limited, the more one country had, the less any other country could have. Consequently, as a nation became stronger and wealthier, its enemies became poorer and weaker.

Mercantilism inspired the British government to view its American colonies as sources of wealth that would make Britain wealthier and stronger. The more land the British could colonize in America, the less land in the New World there would be for France and other European countries. The more American goods the British could sell to other countries, the less money those countries would have for themselves. Great Britain would get stronger, and its European rivals would get weaker.

Mercantilism also inspired Parliament to control transatlantic trade with its American colonies. All goods shipped to or from British North America had to travel in British ships, and any goods exported to Europe had to land first in Britain to pay British taxes. Some goods could be exported to Britain only. These restrictions were designed to keep the colonies from competing against Britain. Some Americans responded by becoming smugglers.

**Growth of the African Population**

As tobacco farmers and other cash-crop farmers prospered, they greatly expanded the size of their farms. There were never enough workers available to plant, grow, and harvest the crops, so farmers turned to African slaves to do this work. Many white colonists believed every black person was a savage who needed to be taken care of by white people. When the Virginia Company founded Jamestown in 1607, there were no African slaves in British North America. By 1700, however, there were thousands of African slaves throughout the British colonies. The vast majority of these slaves were located in the southern colonies, where they supplied the labor required to support the region’s agriculturally based economy.

**The Middle Passage**

The sea voyage that carried Africans to North America was called the Middle Passage because it was the middle portion of a three-way voyage made by the slave ships. First, British ships loaded with rum, cloth, and other English goods sailed to Africa, where they were traded for Africans originally enslaved by other Africans. Then, in the Middle Passage, the slaves would be transported to the New World. The crew would buy tobacco and other American goods using profits they made from selling the slaves in the colonies, and they would ship the tobacco and goods back to Britain. This process was repeated for decades.

It was said that people in the colonial port cities could smell the slave ships arriving before they could see them. The slaves were packed like bundles of firewood. About two of every ten slaves died during the passage.

**African American Culture**

In America, slaves attempted to “make the best” of their lives while living under the worst of circumstances. Slave communities were rich with music, dance, basket weaving, and pottery making. Enslaved Africans brought with them the arts and crafts skills of their various tribes. Indeed, there could be a hundred slaves working on one farm and each slave might come from a different tribe and a different part of Africa.

**Benjamin Franklin**

Benjamin Franklin, along with George Washington, is the best known of America’s Founding Fathers. Franklin was born into a poor Boston family in 1706. At age 12, he became an apprentice to one of his brothers, who was a printer. At age 17, Franklin ran away to Philadelphia to start a life of his own choosing, independent from his family. A few months later he sailed to London to gain more experience in the printing business. He returned to Philadelphia in 1726 as an experienced printer, writer, and businessman. These are just some examples of how, throughout his life, Franklin sought ways to improve himself (**individualism**) and to rise in society (**social mobility**). Over his 84-year life, Franklin succeeded in making himself one of the world’s leading authors, philosophers, scientists, inventors, and politicians.

**The Great Awakening**

Christian worship changed in the northeastern colonies in the 1730s and 1740s. Ministers said people would feel God’s love only if they admitted their sins. People were told that each believer should seek his or her own personal and emotional relationship with God, and that doing this was more important than the Puritan idea of congregations gathering together to hear intellectual sermons. These ministers attracted enormous audiences and often traveled from colony to colony to preach to anyone who wanted to listen, regardless of what church he or she might belong to. Christianity grew, although established churches lost members to the new way of Christian worship. Some preachers said American society had become as corrupt as the English society the colonists’ ancestors had escaped. As a result, some people started saying that America needed to cut its ties with Britain to keep its religion pure.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1700 to 1760**, you should use your textbook to review

* Mercantilism
* Transatlantic trade
* Middle Passage
* African American Culture
* Benjamin Franklin
* Individualism
* Social Mobility
* The Great Awakening

**Standard 3: Explain the primary causes of the American Revolution**

This standard will measure your understanding of the main causes of the American Revolution. The primary cause of the American Revolution was the growing belief among the colonists that their rights as Englishmen were being violated. This belief originated in the lingering effects of the French and Indian War.

**French and Indian War**

The French and Indian War resulted from a long-simmering rivalry between Great Britain and France and their competition for territory in North America. The French and Indian War broke out in 1754 when Great Britain challenged the French for control of the land that is now Ohio and western Pennsylvania. Native Americans tended to support the French because, as fur traders, the French built forts rather than permanent settlements. Great Britain eventually won the war.

The **Treaty of Paris (1763)**, which ended the French and Indian War, forced France to turn over control of Canada to Great Britain. France also surrendered its claim to all land east of the Mississippi River, with the exception of the city of New Orleans.

Additionally, the treaty gave the British government control of all of Britain’s American colonies. The colonists objected to the loss of control over their own affairs, and some Americans began to think about an American revolution. Tensions grew when Parliament passed laws to tax the colonists to pay for the cost of keeping a large standing army in North America that would protect both Britain’s possessions and the American colonists from attacks. Tensions increased with the **Proclamation of 1763**, by which Americans were forbidden from settling beyond the Appalachian Mountains, in an effort to limit their conflicts with Native Americans.

**Colonial Resistance**

Britain’s American colonists believed the king and Parliament were violating their rights as Englishmen. Among the rights they felt were being violated were protection from taxation without representation, the right to a trial by a jury of their peers, protection from searches without warrants, and protection from having troops quartered on their property.

Parliamentary actions to tax the colonists or to enforce the tax laws provoked a negative reaction from the colonists that eventually led to open rebellion. These actions included the **Stamp Act** and the **Intolerable Acts**.

**The Stamp Act** required the colonists to print newspapers, legal documents, playing cards, and so forth, on paper bearing special stamps (similar to postage stamps). Buying the stamped paper was the equivalent of paying a tax. Some colonists formed groups called the Sons of Liberty to stop distribution of the stamped paper. Nine colonies sent representatives to the Stamp Act Congress, which sent a formal protest to the king.

**The Intolerable Acts** closed the port of Boston as punishment for the Boston Tea Party. These acts also allowed British officials accused of major crimes to be tried in England and forced the colonists to house British troops on their property.

**Children of Liberty**

American colonists opposed to British authority in Massachusetts formed a secret organization called the **Sons of Liberty**. To show their dislike of British rule, they damaged British property, including government offices and the homes of wealthy supporters of the British.

The **Daughters of Liberty** joined the Sons of Liberty in protesting British rule in North America. They wove homespun fabric to make clothes and other goods so the colonists would not need to rely on British imports.

Colonists called for the First Continental Congress to protest these actions and formed colonial militias to resist enforcement of these acts. Much of the planning for the First Continental Congress was carried out by **committees of correspondence**. These committees were formed because American patriots could not communicate publicly. One committee would exchange written communications with another committee within or between the colonies. Committees of correspondence were the first organization linking the colonies in their opposition to British rule.

***Common Sense***

In January 1776, patriot philosopher **Thomas Paine** published ***Common Sense***. This mall pamphlet had a big effect on colonists and moved many Americans to support independence from Great Britain. Colonists were persuaded by the logic of Paine’s arguments, which included that the Atlantic Ocean was too wide to allow Britain

to rule America as well as an American government could, that it was foolish to think an island could rule a continent, and that the idea of Britain being America’s “mother country” made Britain’s actions all the worse because no mother would treat her children so badly.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1760 to 1776,** you should use your textbook to review:

* French and Indian War
* 1763 Treaty of Paris
* Proclamation of 1763
* Stamp Act
* Intolerable Acts
* Sons of Liberty
* Daughters of Liberty
* Committees of Correspondence
* Thomas Paine
* *Common Sense*

**Standard 4: Identify the ideological, military, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution**

This standard will require you to demonstrate your knowledge of the American Revolution; including how and why it was fought.

**Declaration of Independence**

The Declaration of Independence is one of the most important documents in American history. Thomas Jefferson wrote the first draft and then made revisions suggested by John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and others. Because the declaration addressed a worldwide audience, its language was made simple and direct so people everywhere would understand and sympathize with the colonists’ cause. The text borrowed phrases from the influential writings of English philosopher **John Locke**. This helped convince readers that American independence was supported by the ideas of a famous philosopher.

After it explains the philosophical and legal reasons for seeking independence from Britain, the declaration has its longest section, which gives numerous examples of how King George III violated the rights of the colonists. Finally, the declaration offers a discussion of the Americans’ many unsuccessful attempts to get relief from Britain and ends with the conclusion that the only way for Americans to have their rights restored is to restore them themselves by declaring independence from Britain and by controlling their own government.

**George Washington and the Continental Army**

When the American Revolution began, George Washington was named commander in chief of the Continental Army. He displayed extraordinary leadership abilities in the role. Washington reorganized the army, secured additional equipment and supplies, and started a training program to turn inexperienced recruits into a professional military.

Life was hard for the common soldier in the Continental Army. Enlistments lasted from one to three years, and the states differed in how well and how often they paid their soldiers, housed them when they were not on the march, and supplied them with food, clothing, and equipment. These issues undermined morale, as did the army’s stern discipline, the chances of being wounded or killed, and British victories.

On Christmas night 1776, Washington led his troops to a victory that was a turning point for America and the Revolutionary War. As a snowstorm pounded Washington and his soldiers, they **crossed the Delaware River** to stage a surprise attack on a fort occupied by Hessian mercenaries fighting for the British. This victory proved Washington’s army could fight as well as an experienced European army.

Washington and his troops spent the winter of 1777–1778 in **Valley Forge**, Pennsylvania. They spent six months there. The army’s problems with wages, housing, food, clothing, and equipment were at their worst. Disease spread throughout the camp, increasing the suffering of the 12,000 men. As conditions worsened, almost 4,000 soldiers were too weak or ill to fight. Yet that winter Washington ordered an intense training program — similar to a modern boot camp — that turned the Continental Army into a capable and self-assured infantry.

**French Alliance**

Another turning point in the war was the decision by France to support the American cause. **Benjamin Franklin**, serving as the American ambassador to France, convinced the French to form a military alliance with the Americans, and France agreed to wage war against Britain until America gained independence. Facing both an American and a

European war, Britain would need to pull troops out of America to fight closer to home.

French support for America was personified in the **Marquis de Lafayette**. He commanded American troops and fought battles in many states. He also returned to France for a time to work with Franklin and the French king on how to win American independence.

**American Victory**

Britain’s plan to counter the French–American alliance was to have **General Charles**

**Cornwallis** move the war to the southern states to try to separate those colonies from revolutionary forces in the North. He immediately succeeded in a series of British victories, but the Americans were able to prevent a complete victory in the South. Cornwallis pursued the Americans into Virginia but met with heavy resistance. Wishing to maintain communications with Great Britain by sea, the British general retreated to the coastal town of **Yorktown**. His forces were attacked by the combined French and American armies and a French fleet. Cut off from any reinforcements, Cornwallis was forced to surrender, and the American Revolution came to an end in North America.

**1783 Treaty of Paris**

The 1783 Treaty of Paris ended the American Revolutionary War. The United States won its independence from Great Britain and gained control of land stretching to the Mississippi River. Britain ceded Florida to Spain and certain African and Caribbean colonies to France.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1776 to 1783**, you should use your textbook to review:

* Declaration of Independence
* John Locke
* George Washington
* Crossing the Delaware River
* Valley Forge
* Benjamin Franklin
* Marquis de Lafayette
* General Charles Cornwallis
* Battle of Yorktown
* 1783 Treaty of Paris

**Standard 5: Explain specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution**

Between the end of the American Revolution and the beginning of the Constitutional Convention, the survival of the United States was in question in large part because the government that was created by the Articles of Confederation was very weak. This standard will measure your knowledge of the events surrounding the creation of the United States Constitution and during the administrations of the first two presidents.

**Articles of Confederation and Shays’s Rebellion**

The Articles of Confederation were written during the American Revolution. They reflected Americans’ fear of a powerful national government. As a result, the Articles created a government that had no executive branch and that lacked the power to tax, regulate commerce, or establish a national currency. The Articles gave individual states more power than the national government had. As a result, conflicts among the states threatened the existence of the nation.

The political weakness of the United States and its potential for collapse left it vulnerable to attack by foreign countries and convinced many influential Americans to support a Constitutional Convention. Political leaders were further motivated by **Shays’s Rebellion**, which they felt set a precedent for mob rule.

Daniel Shays led more than a thousand farmers who, like him, were burdened with personal debts caused by economic problems stemming from the states’ Revolutionary War debts. Shays and his men tried to seize a federal arsenal in Massachusetts. This was just one of many protests that debt-ridden farmers made during this period. Without the power to tax, America’s weak government could not repair the national economy.

Responding to Shays’s Rebellion, George Washington supported the establishment of a stronger central government. In May 1787, he was elected president of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, here he and the Founding Fathers created a federalist form of government for the United States.

**The Great Compromise**

One great issue facing the delegates to the Constitutional Convention was how different sized states could have equal representation in the new government. States with large populations supported a plan to create a legislative branch in which representatives were assigned based on each state’s population. States with smaller populations supported a plan to create a legislative branch in which all states were equally represented.

Delegates to the Constitutional Convention settled the issue of representation in Congress by approving the Great Compromise. This compromise helped “save” the Constitution by settling the dispute between states with large populations and states with small populations. The compromise called for the creation of a legislature with two chambers: a House of Representatives, with representation based on population, and a Senate, with equal representation for all states.

**Slavery**

Another divisive and controversial issue that confronted delegates to the Constitutional Convention was slavery. Though slavery existed in all the states, southern states depended on slave labor because their economies were based on producing cash crops. When it became clear that states with large populations might have more representatives in the new national government, states with large slave populations demanded to be allowed to count their slaves as a part of their population. Northern states resisted. Both sides compromised by allowing the states to count three-fifths of their slaves when calculating their entire population. Also, to protect the practice of slavery, states with large numbers of slaves demanded that the new government allow for the continuation of the slave trade for 20 years and that northern states return runaway slaves to their owners. Delegates to the Constitutional Convention agreed to these demands.

**Separation of Powers**

Despite the fact that most delegates to the Constitutional Convention believed the government designed by the Articles of Confederation had to be replaced, many still feared strong central governments. To reassure people that the new government would not be too powerful, the framers of the Constitution created a **limited government** with divided powers. The framers were greatly influenced by the ideas of the famed French political thinker **Charles de Montesquieu**. The rights guaranteed to U.S. citizens by the Constitution limited the power of the government.

Powers were divided in two ways within the new government. First, power was divided between national and state governments. Second, the power of the **executive branch** was weakened because it was shared with the **legislative** and **judicial branches**. For example, the legislature can override a presidential veto of a bill, and the Supreme Court can rule that a bill signed by the president is unconstitutional. To further safeguard against an abuse of power, the Constitution gave each branch of government a way to check and balance the power of the other branches. An example of these **checks and balances** would be the president’s power to veto laws passed by Congress.

**Federalists and Anti-Federalists**

Writing the Constitution was just the first step in creating the new government. Before the Constitution could take effect, the states had to accept, or ratify, it. As soon as the contents of the Constitution were published, a group of influential people spoke out against it. These people came to be known as the anti-Federalists. They believed the government created by the Constitution would be too powerful and would eliminate the power of the states. They also argued that the Constitution did not describe the rights

guaranteed to the states and to each citizen.

To counter these claims, **James Madison**, **Alexander Hamilton**, and others wrote a series of articles that supported ratification of the Constitution and explained the intent behind its major provisions. These articles were known as ***The Federalist*** papers, so supporters of the Constitution were known as Federalists. To overcome the anti-Federalist argument that the Constitution failed to include a statement of **states’ rights** and individuals’ rights, Madison created the **Bill of Rights**, which would be added to the Constitution after the Constitution was ratified.

*The Federalist* papers, the promise of the Bill of Rights, and the efforts of Federalists convinced a majority of voters to support the Constitution. It was eventually ratified and became the basis for all law, rights, and governmental power in the United States.

**The Bill of Rights**

The Bill of Rights protects states’ and individuals’ rights.

First Amendment: Guarantees freedom of religion, of speech, and of the press, and the right to petition the government

Second Amendment: Guarantees the right to possess firearms

Third Amendment: Declares that the government may not require people to house soldiers during peacetime

Fourth Amendment: Protects people from unreasonable searches and seizures

Fifth Amendment: Guarantees that no one may be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law

Sixth Amendment: Guarantees the right to a trial by jury in criminal cases

Seventh Amendment: Guarantees the right to trial by jury in most civil cases

Eighth Amendment: Prohibits excessive bails, fines, and punishments

Ninth Amendment: Declares that rights not mentioned in the Constitution belong to the people

Tenth Amendment: Declares that powers not given to the national government belong to the states or to the people

**Presidency of George Washington**

George Washington was elected the first president of the United States. He established important patterns for future presidents to follow. Developments that altered the course of the history of the U.S. government took place during his administration. Washington favored nonintervention in Europe and avoided siding with France against Great Britain. Instead, the United States persuaded Britain to forgive many pre-Revolutionary debts and to drop certain restrictions on American trade with British colonies in the Americas. This ushered in an era of booming trade with Britain.

Washington’s new government persuaded Congress to pass taxes on liquor to help pay the states’ debt from the Revolutionary War. The tax hit the small whiskey-makers in western settlements particularly hard because they made liquor using excess crops of grain in order to make it easier to transport. They even used whiskey as a medium of exchange. The **Whiskey Rebellion** resulted when, up and down areas west of the Appalachians, armed violence broke out as farmers frightened and attacked federal tax collectors. George Washington led a large militia force into the western counties and put down the rebellion. Washington’s response showed his constitutional authority to enforce the law and that if Americans did not like a law, the way to change it was to petition Congress peacefully.

**Political Parties**

Washington was the most influential and popular figure in the United States. He increased the prestige of his administration by making Thomas Jefferson his secretary of state and Alexander Hamilton his secretary of treasury. Despite their talents and reputations, Jefferson and Hamilton had significant differences of opinion about the legitimate power of the United States government. Jefferson believed that the national government must limit its power to those areas described by the Constitution, while

Hamilton wanted to expand the power of the government to stabilize the nation and its economy.

**Choosing Sides**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Alexander Hamilton** | **Thomas Jefferson** |
| **Issues:** | Loose interpretation of Constitution  Strong power held by national government  Government led by elite with good educations  Fear of mob rule  Industrial economy  Paying off national & state debts  National bank constitutional  Trade with Great Britain  Supported tariffs and plans that favored manufacturers | Strict interpretation of Constitution  Limited power shared by states & localities  Government led by farmers and trades people with good virtues  Fear of over-powerful government  Agricultural economy  Paying off national debt only  National bank unconstitutional  Trade with France  Supported issues important to farmers |
| **Support:** | John Adams  New England & middle states  Bankers  Clergy  Landowners  Lawyers  Manufacturers  Merchants | James Madison  Southern states & rural areas  Farmers  Trades people  Urban immigrants |

When Washington announced he would not seek a third term as president, the two men and their supporters attacked one another and competed to replace him. Things got so bad that, in his farewell address, Washington warned about the dangers of political parties (**factions**).

**Presidency of John Adams**

The election of 1796 was a bitter contest between John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, with Adams winning by a small margin. Like Washington, Adams set examples that influenced future presidents as well as the course of American history. However, his administration was plagued by conflicts with France and Great Britain that crippled the nation’s economy, and he received harsh political criticism from supporters of Vice President Jefferson. To aid Adams, Congress passed laws that increased citizenship requirements so that Jefferson could not receive support from the immigrant community. Congress also tried to stop the criticism with attempts to limit the speech and press rights of Jefferson’s followers. Jefferson and Madison then argued that states could refuse to enforce federal laws they did not agree with. This was the beginning of the states’ rights concept.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1783 to 1800**, you should use your textbook to review:

* U.S. Constitution
* Articles of Confederation
* Shays’s Rebellion
* Great Compromise
* Slavery
* Separation of Powers
* Limited Government
* Charles de Montesquieu
* Executive Branch
* Legislative Branch
* Judicial Branch
* Checks and Balances
* Federalists
* Anti-Federalists
* *The Federalist*
* James Madison
* Alexander Hamilton
* States’ Rights
* Bill of Rights
* George Washington
* Whiskey Rebellion
* Political Parties/Factions
* John Adams

**Standard 6: Analyze the impact of territorial expansion and population growth in the early decades of the new nation**

In the decades after ratification of the Constitution, the United States increased both in size and in population. This expansion led to increased U.S. interactions with other nations and people. This standard measures your knowledge of this expansion.

**Northwest Ordinance**

The first U.S. governmental territory outside the original states was the Northwest Territory, which was created by the Northwest Ordinance. This law demonstrated to Americans that their national government intended to encourage westward expansion and that it would do so by organizing new states that would be equal members of the Union. The ordinance banned slavery in the Northwest Territory. This law made the Ohio River the boundary between free and slave regions between the 13 states and the Mississippi River. Additionally, the Northwest Ordinance mandated the establishment of public schools in the Northwest Territory.

**Louisiana Purchase**

In the early 1800s, President Thomas Jefferson sent James Monroe to France to negotiate the purchase of the important port city of New Orleans. At the time, the French ruler Napoleon controlled New Orleans and much of the land west of the Mississippi River. In 1803, Napoleon agreed to sell to the United States not only New Orleans but also the entire Louisiana Territory for $15 million. As a result, the United States nearly doubled in geographic area.

**Lewis and Clark Expedition**

Jefferson sent Meriwether Lewis and William Clark to explore Louisiana and the western lands all the way to the Pacific Ocean. On their 16-month expedition, Lewis and Clark charted the trails west, mapped rivers and mountain ranges, wrote descriptions and collected samples of unfamiliar animals and plants, and recorded facts and figures about the various Native American tribes and customs west of the Mississippi River.

**War of 1812: Causes**

In 1812, America declared war on Great Britain, which was already at war with France. Among the causes of this war, four stand out. First, Americans objected to restrictions Britain was enforcing to prevent neutral American merchants from trading with the French. Second, Americans were outraged by the British policy of impressment. Under this policy, thousands of American sailors were forced against their will to serve in the British navy after their merchant ships were captured at sea. Third, Americans suspected the British were giving military support to Native Americans so they would fight to keep Americans from settling lands west of the Appalachian Mountains. Fourth, Americans wished to drive the British out of North America altogether by conquering Canada while the British army was fighting the French in Europe.

**War of 1812: Results**

A major result of the War of 1812 was the end of all U.S. military hostility with Great Britain. Never again would Britain and the United States wage war over diplomacy, trade, territory, or any other kind of dispute. America’s army and navy were firmly established as worthy opponents of any European military force. The U.S. military’s achievements in the War of 1812 also served to heighten nationalist sentiments.

**National Infrastructure**

In this period, many families moved west of the Appalachian Mountains to claim land in the new American territories stretching to the Mississippi River. Their travel was difficult, taking a week to cross the distance a car might drive today in a few hours. In response, private companies built the young nation’s roads and waterways. These roads were often turnpikes, or toll roads, which travelers paid a fee to use. In turn, these fees were used to pay for upkeep of the new roads. Where roads could not be built, barges were used on rivers to carry people and goods––as long as the rivers flowed in the same direction that the settlers and merchants wanted to travel. Soon a new invention, the steamboat, enabled people to buy a ticket from private companies that operated the boats and to travel upstream as easily as downstream. Lastly, in the wilderness where rivers did not run and roads could not be built, government leaders joined businesspeople to build canals––artificial rivers. These shallow waterways were for barges, not steamboats, and had pathways alongside on which horses or mules pulled the barges.

**Erie Canal**

The most famous canal built in this era was the Erie Canal, which connected the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. It was opened in 1825 after eight years of digging by thousands of laborers, mostly immigrants. It stretches 363 miles from Lake Erie to the Hudson River, which flows into the Atlantic Ocean at New York City. The Erie Canal served as a turnpike for barges where a road could not easily be built, and greatly lowered transportation costs. This not only opened up western New York and regions further west to increased settlement, but also helped unite new regions with the Atlantic states.

**Rise of New York City**

Until 1790, New York City was the capital of the United States. In the early 1800s, civic development turned this colonial town into a great economic center established on a grid of city blocks. By 1835, the population had grown so large that New York City outpaced Philadelphia as the largest U.S. city. Trade grew when the Erie Canal made the city’s harbors the link between European merchants and the great agricultural markets across the Appalachians from New York City. The city was home to the biggest gathering of artisans and crafts workers in the United States, and its banking and commercial activities would soon make it the leading city in all of North America.

**Monroe Doctrine**

In 1823, President James Monroe warned the nations of Europe not to meddle in the politics of North and South America. When a group of European countries planned to help one another recapture American colonies that had gained independence, Monroe announced that the United States would prevent European nations from interfering with independent American countries. Further, Monroe said the United States would remain neutral in wars between European nations and their American colonies, but, if battles took place in the New World, the United States would view such battles as hostile actions against the

United States. In summary, the Monroe Doctrine defined an aspect of U.S. foreign policy to which America still holds today.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1800 to 1835**, you should use your textbook to review

* Northwest Ordinance
* Louisiana Purchase
* Lewis and Clark
* War of 1812
* Erie Canal
* New York City
* Monroe Doctrine

**Standard 7: Explain the process of economic growth, its regional and national impact in the first half of the 19th century, and the different responses to it**

America’s great economic prosperity in the early 19th century had both national and regional impact. It was a time when Americans reflected on social problems and sought reforms that took hold in some regions more easily than in others. This standard requires you to demonstrate an understanding of these developments.

**Eli Whitney and the Industrial Revolution**

The industrial revolution is the name given to the period in the 19th century when powerdriven machines operated by semiskilled or unskilled workers replaced hand tools operated by skilled laborers, altering the quality of work for many people. American inventor Eli Whitney best illustrates the rise of industrialism with his invention of the **cotton gin** and his development of **interchangeable parts** for muskets. Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1793. It is a machine that rapidly removes cotton plant seeds from the valuable cotton fiber used to make thread and fabric. By producing more cotton in a day than any person could working by hand, the gin reduced the cost of processing cotton and greatly raised the profit from growing it. To further cut costs and raise profits, unskilled slaves were often put to work running the cotton gins in the southern states.

Another industrial improvement Whitney developed was interchangeable parts. Prior to industrialization, a broken mechanism or machine had to be discarded and replaced because all its parts had been handmade by skilled workers to fit only that mechanism. Whitney introduced the practice of manufacturing identical parts so only the broken part would need to be replaced to repair the whole machine. He applied this process to making muskets. If one piece of the musket’s mechanism broke, the owner could continue to use the musket after that piece was replaced with a matching piece. Interchangeable parts made it possible for semiskilled workers to mass-produce mechanical products.

**Westward Growth and Manifest Destiny**

Between 1800 and 1860, the United States more than doubled in size and the number of states expanded from 16 to 33. There were three primary motivations for America’s westward growth:

1. the desire of most Americans to own their own land;

2. the discovery of gold and other valuable resources; and

3. the belief that the United States was destined to stretch across North America (Manifest Destiny).

Manifest Destiny was the name given to the idea that the United States would naturally occupy the territory between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The word *manifest* means “obvious,” and the word *destiny* means “fate.” According to Manifest Destiny, the obvious fate of the United States was to expand “from sea to shining sea.” There were strong economic motivations behind this belief, as well as racism regarding Native Americans and Mexican people. It became a popular political belief in the United States during the early 19th century.

**Reform Movements**

To prepare for questions within this section of the standard, review the breakdown of each reform movement in the following table.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Movement** | **Issue** | **Impact** |
| **Temperance** | People should drink less alcohol, or alcohol should be outlawed altogether. | This movement increased the size of Protestant religious organizations and their influence in western and rural sections of the country. Women played an important role, which laid the foundation for the women’s movement. |
| **Abolition** | Slavery should be abolished and it should not be allowed in new states. | This movement made slavery and its expansion an important political issue. Women played an important role, which laid the foundation for the women’s movement. |
| **Public School** | All children should be required to attend free schools supported by taxpayers and staffed by trained teachers. | This movement established education as a right for all children and as a state and local issue it improved the quality of schools by requiring trained teachers. |

**Women’s Suffrage**

Women’s rights were few in the early 1800s. Women did not have the right to vote (suffrage) and often lacked legal custody of their own children. Most men––and most women, too––believed this was fitting and proper. One exception was **Elizabeth Cady Stanton**. She was an outspoken advocate for women’s full rights of citizenship, including voting rights and parental and custody rights. In 1848, she organized the **Seneca Falls Conference**––America’s first women’s rights convention––in New York. Delegates adopted a declaration of women’s independence, including women’s suffrage. Historians often cite the Seneca Falls Conference as the event that marked the beginning of organized efforts by women in the United States to gain civil rights equal to those of men.

**Popular Political Culture**

Jackson’s presidential campaigns caused an increase in public participation in politics, and things got rough. Jackson’s side accused his opponent of flattering European royalty and of misusing public funds. The opponent accused Jackson of unfaithfulness in his marriage, of massacring Native Americans, of illegally executing convicted soldiers, and of dueling. These accusations were publicized in songs, pamphlets, posters, and lapel buttons. A voter could find all these at the first-ever campaign rallies and barbecues.

**Jacksonian Democracy**

President Andrew Jackson and his supporters shared a political philosophy later referred to as “Jacksonian Democracy.” It sought a stronger presidency and executive branch, and a weaker Congress. Out of respect for the common man, it also sought to broaden public participation in government, so it expanded voting rights to include all adult white males, not just landowners.

Another principle of Jacksonian democracy was that politicians should be allowed to appoint their followers to government jobs as a way of limiting the power of elite groups. Jacksonians also favored Manifest Destiny and greater westward expansion of the United States.

**American Nationalism**

As a people, Americans in Jackson’s day believed in Manifest Destiny. They believed their nation was different from, and superior to, other nations because most Americans of that time shared the Protestant religion and English language, ancestry, and culture. They believed it was their duty to expand the hold of their religion, language, ancestry, and culture all the way to the Pacific Ocean to remake all of North America as the Founding Fathers had remade its Atlantic coast. Altogether, these beliefs comprise American nationalism.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1800 to 1860**, you should use your textbook to review

* Industrial Revolution
* Eli Whitney
* Cotton Gin
* Interchangeable Parts
* Manifest Destiny
* Temperance Movement
* Abolitionism
* Public School Reform
* Women’s Suffrage
* Elizabeth Cady Stanton
* Seneca Falls Conference
* Jacksonian Democracy
* American Nationalism

**Standard 8: Explain the relationship between growing north–south divisions and westward expansion.**

In the decades before the Civil War, three distinct regions emerged in the United States: the North, the South, and the West. Sharp divisions emerged between the economies and cultures of the North and South. In the West, settlers from both the North and South merged to create a distinct way of life. This standard will measure your knowledge of these regions and the differences among them.

**Abolition**

By 1820, although racial discrimination against African Americans remained, slavery had largely ended in the North. Many Northerners and some Southerners took up the cause of abolition, a campaign to abolish slavery immediately and to grant no financial compensation to slave owners. As most slaves were held in southern states, abolition was a significant issue that led to growing hostility between Northerners and Southerners. Prominent abolitionists included African Americans, whites, men, and women. Among the most notable were the following:

• **William Lloyd Garrison**, a writer and editor, was an important white abolitionist. He founded regional and national abolitionist societies and published an antislavery newspaper that printed graphic stories of the bad treatment received by slaves.

• **Frederick Douglass**, a former slave, worked for Garrison and traveled widely, giving eloquent speeches on behalf of equality for African Americans, women, Native Americans, and immigrants. He later published autobiographies and his own antislavery newspaper.

• **The Grimke sisters**, Sarah and Angelina, were southern women who lectured publicly throughout the northern states about the evils of slavery they had seen growing up on a plantation. Their public careers began when Garrison published a letter from Angelina in his newspaper.

**Slavery as a Major Political Issue**

Most white Southerners opposed abolition. White writers and public speakers argued slavery was a necessary part of life in the South. The southern economy, they said, was based on large-scale agriculture that would be impossible to maintain without slave labor. They also boasted that southern white culture was highly sophisticated and said it was made possible by the plantation economy. Another proslavery argument claimed slaves were treated well and lived better lives than factory workers in the North. In fact, some whites said they provided better lives for slaves than free blacks were able to provide themselves. When settlers in the slaveholding Missouri Territory sought statehood, proslavery and antislavery politicians made slavery a central issue in national politics.

**Missouri Compromise of 1820**

The state constitution proposed by Missouri allowed slavery. Because half the states in the union allowed slavery while the other half did not, statehood for Missouri would upset the U.S. Senate’s equal balance between proslavery and antislavery senators. This issue was resolved when Congress passed the Missouri Compromise. Under the compromise, Maine would be admitted to the Union as a free state, Missouri would be admitted as a slave state, and slavery would be prohibited in the northern part of the Louisiana territory, except for Missouri. Once again, half the states would allow slavery while the other half would not, and the Senate would retain its equal balance between proslavery and antislavery senators––until the next state asked to enter the Union.

**Nat Turner**

African American preacher Nat Turner believed his mission on Earth was to free his people from slavery. Seeing an 1831 solar eclipse as a message from above, he led a slave rebellion on four Virginia plantations. About 60 whites were killed, and Turner was captured, tried, and executed. To stop such uprisings, white leaders passed new laws to limit the activities of slaves and to strengthen the institution of slavery.

**Nullification Crisis**

Vice President **John C. Calhoun** argued with President Andrew Jackson about the rights of states to nullify (cancel) federal laws they opposed. Trouble, known as the Nullification Crisis, resulted when southern states sought to nullify a high tariff (tax) Congress had passed on manufactured goods imported from Europe. This tariff helped northern manufacturers but hurt southern plantation owners, so legislators nullified the tariff in South Carolina. Calhoun, a South Carolinian, resigned from the vice presidency to lead the efforts of the southern states in this crisis. His loyalty to the interests of the southern region, or section, of the United States, not to the United States as a whole, contributed to the rise of **sectionalism**.

Calhoun and the advocates of sectionalism argued in favor of **states’ rights**––the idea that states have certain rights and political powers separate from those held by the federal government and that the federal government may not violate these rights. The supporters of sectionalism were mostly Southerners. Their opponents were afraid that if each state could decide for itself which federal laws to obey, the United States would dissolve into sectional discord or even warfare.

**Mexican-American War**

In 1845, the United States took Texas into the Union and set its sights on the Mexican territories of New Mexico and California. U.S. annexation of Texas and other factors led to war in 1846. During the conflict, the United States occupied much of northern Mexico. When the United States eventually won the war, this region was ceded to the United States as a part of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

**Wilmot Proviso**

During the Mexican-American War, Congress debated whether slavery would be allowed in New Mexico and California if these territories were acquired from Mexico. The antislavery position was outlined in a proposal called the Wilmot Proviso, but the House of Representatives failed to approve it, and the issue of whether to allow or prohibit slavery in new states remained unresolved.

**Compromise of 1850**

The expansion of U.S. territory and population growth in the West continued to fuel political tensions between free states and slave states over the extension of slavery. Many members of Congress became increasingly concerned that the issue of slavery threatened the survival of the nation. Those who favored slavery and those who opposed slavery therefore agreed to five laws that addressed these concerns. Collectively, the five laws are known as the Compromise of 1850. This compromise stated:

• The state of New Mexico would be established by carving its borders from the state of Texas.

• New Mexico voters would determine whether the state would permit or prohibit the practice of slavery.

• California would be admitted to the Union as a free state.

• All citizens would be required to apprehend runaway slaves and return them to their owners. Those who failed to do so would be fined or imprisoned.

• The slave trade would be abolished in the District of Columbia, but the practice of slavery would be allowed to continue there.

The Compromise of 1850 eased sectional tensions over slavery for a short time. In the next few years, however, aspirations for a more permanent solution to the issue of slavery faded.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1800 to 1860**, you should use your textbook to review

* Abolitionism
* William Lloyd Garrison
* Frederick Douglass
* The Grimke Sisters
* Missouri Compromise of 1820
* Nat Turner’s Rebellion
* Nullification Crisis
* John C. Calhoun
* Sectionalism
* States’ Rights
* Mexican-American War
* Wilmot Proviso
* Compromise of 1850

**Standard 9: Identify key events, issues, and individuals relating to the cause, course, and consequences of the Civil War.**

This standard will measure your understanding of the cause of the Civil War, its course from start to finish, and its consequences. The Civil War was one of the defining events in U.S. history, so your knowledge of it is an essential part of your understanding of American history.

**Kansas-Nebraska Act**

In 1854, Congress again took up the issue of slavery in new U.S. states and territories. This time, the territories were Kansas and Nebraska, and Congress approved the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which repealed the Missouri Compromise of 1820 and gave the settlers in all new territories the right to decide for themselves whether theirs would be a free or a slave state. This made a proslavery doctrine, **popular sovereignty** (rule by the people), the law of the United States.

Pro- and antislavery groups hurried into Kansas in attempts to create voting majorities there. Antislavery abolitionists came from eastern states; proslavery settlers came mainly from neighboring Missouri. Some of these Missourians settled in Kansas, but many more stayed there only long enough to vote for slavery and then returned to Missouri. Proslavery voters elected a legislature ready to make Kansas a slave state. Abolitionists then elected a rival Kansas government with an antislavery constitution, established a different capital city, and raised an army. Proslavery Kansans reacted by raising their own army.

The U.S. House of Representatives supported the abolitionist Kansans; the U.S. Senate and President Franklin Pierce supported the proslavery Kansans. Violence between the two sides created warlike conditions. Popular sovereignty had failed.

**Dred Scott**

In 1857, the U.S. Supreme Court issued the ***Dred Scott* decision**, settling a lawsuit in which an African American slave named Dred Scott claimed he should be a free man because he had lived with his master in slave states and in free states. The Court rejected Scott’s claim, ruling that no African American––even if free––could ever be a U.S. citizen. Further, the Court said Congress could not prohibit slavery in federal territories. Thus, the Court found that popular sovereignty and the Missouri Compromise of 1820 were unconstitutional.

The *Dred Scott* decision gave slavery the protection of the U.S. Constitution. Proslavery Americans welcomed the Court’s ruling as proof they had been right during the previous few decades’ struggles against abolitionists. In contrast, abolitionists convinced many state legislatures to declare the *Dred Scott* decision not binding within their state borders. The new Republican Party said that if its candidate were elected president in 1860, he would appoint a new Supreme Court that would reverse *Dred Scott*.

**John Brown**

One famous abolitionist, John Brown, decided to fight slavery with violence and killing. In 1856, believing he was chosen by God to end slavery, Brown commanded family members and other abolitionists to attack proslavery settlers in Kansas, killing five men. In 1859, he led a group of white and black men in a raid on the federal armory at Harpers Ferry, Virginia (in modern-day West Virginia). They seized federal weapons and ammunition, killing seven people. Brown’s plan was to deliver the weapons and ammunition to slaves, who would then use them in an uprising against slaveholders and proslavery government officials. But the raid failed, and Brown was captured by U.S. Marines led by U.S. Army Colonel Robert E. Lee. Eventually, Brown was convicted of treason against the state of Virginia and executed by hanging. Many Americans thought Brown was a terrorist killer. Others thought he was an abolitionist martyr.

**Preserving the Union**

Republican **Abraham Lincoln** was elected president in 1860. South Carolina voted to secede (separate from) the United States, followed by Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and then Texas. They formed a new country called the Confederate States of America (the “Confederacy”). When they attacked the U.S. Army base at Fort Sumter, South Carolina, in April 1861, the long-feared Civil War began.

President Lincoln believed preservation of the United States (the “Union”) was the most important task for any U.S. president (see **Gettysburg Address** and **Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address**, page 48). He did not believe the southern states had the right to secede from the Union and thought they were merely rebelling against the government.

He never considered the Confederacy a separate country. When Lincoln called for a large volunteer army to preserve the Union, more states––Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee––seceded to join the Confederacy. Although Lincoln had often stated he wished only to restrict the spread of slavery, not to abolish it, over time he did embrace the idea of ending slavery in the United States.

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| **STRATEGY BOX—The War Started for a Reason**  The Civil War started because Northerners and Southerners had serious differences of opinion about states’ rights, slavery, and economics. Northern leaders were more likely to believe in the supremacy of the national government and to be against the expansion of slavery. Southern leaders were more likely to believe in states’ rights and often thought of themselves as citizens of their state first and their country second. Most southern leaders supported the continuation of slavery. Also, differences in how each section of the nation had developed created opposing viewpoints about economic policies such as tariffs. When trying to remember the values and beliefs of the important leaders of the Civil War era, you should think about which side each was on and the basic beliefs that separated the two sides. |

**North versus South**

When southern forces opened fire on Union forces at Fort Sumter, they began a war that would last four years and take the lives of 821,000 soldiers. From the start, the Confederacy was at a serious disadvantage. The southern economy differed greatly from the economy of the northern states, and, in the end, the numerical and industrial superiority of the northern economy proved too much for the South to overcome. Review the following breakdown of economic issues that separated Northerners and Southerners to understand each position and how it influenced people’s opinions and actions.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Northern Economy** | **Southern Economy** |
| **Foundation** | Industry and trade | Agriculture |
| **Population** | 71% of U.S. population; 99%  free, 1% slave; large enough to assemble an army capable of defending the Union | 29% of U.S. population; 67% free, 33% slave; too few free men to assemble an army capable of defending the Confederacy |
| **Manufacturing**  **Resources** | 92% of U.S. industrial output;  generous resources to produce  weapons and other military  supplies and equipment | 8% of U.S. industrial output;  minimal resources to produce many weapons and other military supplies and equipment |
| **Employment &**  **Property Ownership** | Many citizens worked for someone else and owned no property. Even in large-scale farming regions, machines reduced the need for agricultural workers. | Though most Southerners owned slaves, the economy of the South as a whole depended on the production of cash crops such as cotton, corn, rice, and tobacco, which required human labor and depended on slavery. |
| **Exports &**  **Views on Tariffs** | 34% of U.S. exports; favored high tariffs on imported foreign goods to protect northern industries and workers’ jobs | 66% of U.S. exports; favored low (or no) tariffs on imported goods to keep the prices of manufactured goods more affordable |
| **Food Production** | More than twice as much as the South produced | Less than half as much as the North produced |
| **Railroads** | 71% of U.S. railroad network; efficient railway transport system. Ready capacity to transport troops and their supplies, food, etc. | 29% of U.S. railroad network; inefficient railway transport system. Poor capacity to transport troops and their supplies, food, etc. |

**Habeas Corpus**

Not all Northerners supported President Lincoln’s efforts to preserve the Union. Some were Confederate sympathizers (just as some Southerners were Union sympathizers). Throughout the war, in some states Lincoln suspended the constitutional right of *habeas corpus*––the legal rule that anyone imprisoned must be taken before a judge to determine if the prisoner is being legally held in custody. The Constitution allows a president to suspend habeas corpus during a national emergency. Lincoln used his emergency powers to legalize the holding of Confederate sympathizers without trial and without a judge to agree they were legally imprisoned. Over 13,000 Confederate sympathizers were arrested in the North.

**Emancipation Proclamation**

Lincoln used his emergency powers again to issue the Emancipation Proclamation. It emancipated (freed) all slaves held in the Confederate states. Lincoln did not expect Confederate slaveholders to free their slaves, but he thought news of the proclamation would reach southern slaves and encourage them to flee to the North. Lincoln believed one reason southern whites were free to join the Confederate Army was because slaves were doing war work that, otherwise, the whites would have to do. Encouraging slaves to flee north would hurt the southern war effort.

Although the Emancipation Proclamation did not free slaves held in the North, it was warmly welcomed by African Americans living in Union states. They understood the proclamation announced a new goal for the Union troops––besides preserving the Union, the troops were fighting for the belief that the United States would abolish slavery throughout the nation.

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| --- |
| **STRATEGY BOX—E*man*cipation Proclamation: A Matter of *Man*power**  The announcement of Abraham Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation was one of the main actions of the Civil War.  The Emancipation Proclamation freed all slaves residing in territory that was in rebellion against the federal government. This encouraged slaves in the South to attempt to escape. As the number of runaway slaves climbed, the South’s ability to produce cotton and food declined. To counter this, the South devoted some of its manpower to keeping slaves from running away. In addition,  following the proclamation, the North began to allow African Americans to join the Union army. While few served in combat, more than 150,000 African Americans took the place of white soldiers by garrisoning forts and working behind the front lines. This was the equivalent of giving the North a new army larger than the South’s. Some historians believe this was enough to guarantee a northern victory.  The Emancipation Proclamation had a very practical effect on the outcome of the war. When you think about it, do not forget its impact on manpower and the outcome of the Civil War. |

**Key Leaders of Civil War**

The political and military leaders of the Union and the Confederacy represented the different beliefs and values that separated the North from the South. The northern leaders thought it was illegal for the southern states to secede from the Union. They considered the Confederates outlaws, not citizens of a separate country. On the other hand, the southern leaders put loyalty to their home states above everything else. They fought for the Confederacy to protect their homes, even though they may have had misgivings about secession.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **North** | **South** |
| **President** | **Abraham Lincoln**  • U.S. representative from Illinois  • President of United States of America, 1861–1865  • Appointed Gen. **Ulysses S. Grant** commanding general of  Union armies  • Issued **Emancipation Proclamation**  • Promoted **Thirteenth Amendment** to Constitution | **Jefferson Davis**  • Graduated from U.S. Military Academy, West Point  • U.S. senator from Mississippi  • U.S. secretary of war  • President of Confederate States of America, 1861–1865  • Appointed **Robert E. Lee** as general in chief of Confederate armies |
| **Generals** | **Ulysses S. Grant**  • Graduated from U.S. Military Academy, West Point  • Won first Union victories  • Captured control of Mississippi River in **Siege of Vicksburg**  • Appointed commanding general of Union armies by Lincoln  • Accepted surrender of Confederate Gen. Lee to end Civil War | **Robert E. Lee**  • Graduated from U.S. Military Academy, West Point  • Fought larger Union armies to standoff at Battle of **Antietam**  • Defeated at Battle of **Gettysburg**  • Appointed general in chief of Confederate armies by Davis  • Surrendered to U.S. Gen. Grant to end Civil War |
| **William Tecumseh Sherman**  • Graduated from U.S. Military Academy, West Point  • Served under Gen. Grant during **Siege of Vicksburg**  • Destroyed **Atlanta**; ended Confederate’s ability to fight  • Accepted surrender of all Confederate armies in Carolinas, Georgia, and Florida | **Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson**  • Graduated from U.S. Military Academy, West Point  • Won First Battle of Bull Run  • Fought under Confederate Gen. Lee at **Antietam** and Second Bull Run  • Died in battle |

**Key Battles of the Civil War**

Union and Confederate forces fought many battles in the Civil War’s four years. Land battles were fought mostly in states west of the Mississippi River; sea battles were fought along the Atlantic coast and in the Gulf of Mexico; and river battles were fought on the Mississippi. Review the following details of five major Civil War battles.

• **Fort Sumter**––April 1861––Fort Sumter was a federal fort in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina. Confederate forces staged a 24-hour bombardment against it and, by attacking federal property, had committed an act of open rebellion. To uphold the Constitution, President Lincoln believed he had no choice but to call for troops to respond against the Confederacy. As a direct result, the Civil War began.

• **Antietam**––September 1862––Confederate Gen. Robert E. Lee marched his forces to Antietam Creek, Maryland, where he fought the war’s first major battle on northern soil. It was the deadliest one-day battle in American history, with over 26,000 casualties. Neither side won a victory. As Lee withdrew to the South, Union forces might have been able to end the war by going after the Confederates––Union soldiers outnumbered them two-to-one––but they did not follow Lee. The significance of the Battle of Antietam was that Lee’s failure to win it encouraged Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation.

• **Gettysburg**––July 1863––Confederate Gen. Robert E. Lee hoped that an invasion of Union territory would significantly weaken Northern support for the war effort. A major Southern victory on northern soil might also convince Great Britain and France to aid Confederate forces. Lee’s army was met by Union troops at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. In the course of a three-day battle, as many as 51,000 were killed. It was the deadliest battle of the American Civil War. Lee gave up attempts to invade the Union or to show Northerners that the Union troops could not win the war. Four months later, Lincoln delivered his **Gettysburg Address** at the dedication of the Gettysburg National Cemetery.

• **Vicksburg**––May–July 1863––Union Maj. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant laid siege to Vicksburg, Mississippi, because the army that controlled its high ground over a bend in the Mississippi River would control traffic on the whole river. After a seven-week siege, Grant achieved one of the Union’s major strategic goals: He gained control of the Mississippi River. Confederate troops and supplies in Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas were cut off from the Confederacy. This Union victory, coupled with the Union victory at Gettysburg, was the turning point of the war.

• **Atlanta**––July–September 1864––Union Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman besieged Atlanta, Georgia, for six weeks before capturing this vitally important center of Confederate manufacturing and railway traffic. Sherman’s goal was to disrupt the Confederacy’s capacity to resupply its troops throughout the South. Union troops burned Atlanta to the ground and then marched to the Atlantic Ocean, destroying the railways, roads, and bridges along the path, as well as the crops and livestock his troops did not harvest and butcher to feed themselves. Now the South knew it would lose the war, and the North knew it would win. Lincoln easily won reelection against a candidate who wanted a truce with the Confederacy.

**Gettysburg Address**

In November 1863, Lincoln’s Gettysburg Address was another event by which he shaped popular opinion in favor of preserving the Union. The occasion was the dedication of a military cemetery at the Gettysburg battlefield four months after 51,000 people were killed in the battle there. Most of the ceremony was performed by famous orator Edward Everett, who spoke for two hours, as was the manner at that time for an important event. Then Lincoln rose to speak, starting with his famous words “Four score and seven years ago.” He spoke for just two minutes in what is now considered one of the greatest speeches in the English language. His address helped raise the spirits of Northerners who had grown weary of the war and dismayed by southern victories over the larger Union armies. He convinced the people that the United States was one indivisible nation.

**Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address**

Abraham Lincoln was reelected president in 1864. When he delivered his **second inaugural address**, Union victory over the Confederacy was certain, and Americans foresaw an end to slavery. Instead of boasting about that victory, Lincoln expressed sorrow that the states had not been able to resolve their differences peacefully. However, he clearly stated that slavery was such an evil that the North was right to have gone to war over the issue. Nevertheless, he urged Americans not to seek revenge on slaveholders and their supporters and military. Instead, he urged reconstruction of the South “with malice toward none; with charity for all.” Now at the end of the Civil War, Lincoln formed what would become the popular memory of why the war was necessary. He said it had been fought to preserve the Union as an indivisible nation of citizens who would no longer profit from “wringing their bread from the sweat of other men’s faces”––from taking their earnings from the labor of unpaid slaves.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the causes, course, and consequences of the Civil War, you should use your textbook to review

* Kansas-Nebraska Act
* Popular Sovereignty
* *Dred Scott* Decision
* John Brown
* Abraham Lincoln
* Habeas Corpus
* Emancipation Proclamation
* Jefferson Davis
* Ulysses S. Grant
* Robert E. Lee
* William Tecumseh Sherman
* Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson
* Fort Sumter
* Battle of Antietam
* Battle of Gettysburg
* Siege of Vicksburg
* Battle for Atlanta
* Gettysburg Address
* Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address

**Standard 10: Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction**

This standard will measure your understanding of how, after the Civil War, the United States worked to resolve the issues that had caused the war. The legal status of the freed African Americans, the defeated southern states, and the Confederate leaders had to be settled to truly reconstruct the United States. Your understanding of Reconstruction is crucial to your knowledge of U.S. history.

**Presidential Reconstruction**

The Reconstruction plans begun by President Abraham Lincoln and carried out by President Andrew Johnson echoed the words of Lincoln’s second inaugural address, which urged no revenge on former Confederate supporters. The purpose of Presidential Reconstruction was to readmit the southern states to the Union as quickly as possible. Republicans in Congress, however, were outraged by the fact that the new southern state governments were passing laws that deprived the newly freed slaves of their rights.

**Radical Republican Reconstruction**

To remedy the Radical Republicans’ outrage, Congress forced the southern states to reapply for admission to the Union and to take steps to secure the rights of the newly freed slaves. This resulted in the creation of southern state governments that included African Americans. The key feature of the effort to protect the rights of the newly freed slaves was the passage of three constitutional amendments during and after the Civil War. Southern states were required to ratify all these amendments before they could rejoin the Union.

**Thirteenth Amendment:** abolished slavery and involuntary servitude in the United States

**Fourteenth Amendment:** defined U.S. citizenship as including all persons born in the United States, including African Americans; guaranteed that no citizen could be deprived of his or her rights without due process

**Fifteenth Amendment:** removed restrictions on voting based on race, color, or ever having been a slave; granted the right to vote to all male U.S. citizens over the age of 21

During the Reconstruction period, African Americans made progress in many areas. Some of these gains lasted, but others did not. Many African American children were able to attend free schools for the first time. African Americans started newspapers, served in public office, and attended new colleges and universities established for them. One of these institutions, **Morehouse College**, was founded in Atlanta in 1867 as the Augusta Institute. A former slave and two ministers founded it for the education of African American men in the fields of ministry and education.

Congress also created the **Freedmen’s Bureau** to help African Americans make the transition to freedom. The Freedmen’s Bureau helped former slaves solve everyday problems by providing food, clothing, jobs, medicine, and medical-care facilities. While the Freedman’s Bureau did help some former slaves acquire land unclaimed by its pre-war owners, Congress did not grant land or the absolute right to own land to all freed slaves. Such land grants would have provided African Americans with some level of economic independence. Without it, and with few skills

outside of farming, the newly freed slaves had few options other than entering the sharecropping, crop lien, or tenant farming system, where they often ended up working for former slaveholders in conditions little different from slavery.

Northerners who traveled to the South to help the former slaves and to make money were called **carpetbaggers**. Southerners who cooperated with the African Americans and carpetbaggers were called **scalawags**. These two groups also played a role in Reconstruction.

**Impeachment of Andrew Johnson**

During the Reconstruction period, the biggest issue in northern and southern states alike was the **impeachment of President Andrew Johnson**. The U.S. Constitution allows Congress to remove the president from office by impeaching (accusing) him of committing “high crimes and misdemeanors,” so Radical Republicans impeached Johnson when he ignored laws they had passed to limit presidential powers. They passed these laws to stop Johnson from curbing the Radical Republicans’ hostile treatment of former Confederate states and their leaders. After a three-month trial in the Senate, Johnson missed being convicted by one vote, so he was not removed from office merely because he held political opinions unpopular among politicians who had the power to impeach him.

**Resistance to Racial Equality**

Not all white Southerners accepted the equal status of former slaves. After the Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery, all former slave states enacted **Black Codes**, which were laws written to control the lives of freed slaves in ways slaveholders had formerly controlled the lives of their slaves. Black Codes deprived voting rights to freed slaves and allowed plantation owners to take advantage of black workers in ways that made it seem that slavery had not been abolished.

Other white Southerners formed secret societies that used murder, arson, and other threatening actions as a means of controlling freed African Americans and of pressuring them not to vote. The **Ku Klux Klan** was the worst of these societies. The Klan, or KKK, was founded by veterans of the Confederate Army to fight against Reconstruction. Some southern leaders urged the Klan to step down because federal troops would stay in the South as long as African Americans needed protection from the society.

All in all, the readmission of states proved difficult and led white Southerners to resist Reconstruction and to regard their Reconstruction state governments as corrupt. Reconstruction came to an end when Union troops were withdrawn from the South as part of the **Compromise of 1877**, which resulted from the contested **1876 presidential election** between Rutherford B. Hayes and Samuel Tilden. When the soldiers left and white Southerners regained control of their state governments, African Americans were left unprotected. The new southern governments quickly passed laws that deprived blacks of their rights and worked to strengthen the segregation of southern society.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about Reconstruction, you should use your textbook to review

* Presidential Reconstruction
* Radical Republican Reconstruction
* Thirteenth Amendment
* Fourteenth Amendment
* Fifteenth Amendment
* Morehouse College
* Freedmen’s Bureau
* Andrew Johnson’s Impeachment
* Black Codes
* Ku Klux Klan (KKK)
* 1876 Presidential Election
* • Compromise of 1877

**Standard 11: Describe the economic, social, and geographic impact of the growth of big business and technological innovations after Reconstruction**

The modern United States was created by social changes associated with the growth of **big business** and advances in technologies. After Reconstruction, railroad companies and the steel and oil industries expanded and major inventions changed how people lived. Questions about this standard will measure your knowledge of these changes and the factors that brought them about.

**Railroads**

The federal government granted vast areas of western land to **railroad** owners so they would lay train track connecting the eastern and western states. To complete this heavy work, the owners relied mainly on **Chinese labor**. These Asian immigrants accepted lower pay than other laborers demanded. The work was dangerous. Many Chinese died in the explosive blasts they ignited to clear the path across the railroad companies’ land. Many others died under rock slides and heavy snowfalls before the first **transcontinental railroad** was completed in 1869.

The railroad companies contributed to the development of the West by selling low-cost parcels of their western land for farming. Settlers traveled west on the trains to farm on the fertile soil. Western farmers used the trains to ship their grain east, and western cattle ranchers shipped their steers to eastern butchers. Both farmers and ranchers sold their goods to people they could not easily reach without railroads. The railroads earned money by transporting the settlers west and the goods east.

**Steel**

The growth of American railroads helped expand the industries that supplied the railroad companies’ need for steel rails laid on wood ties, iron locomotives burning huge quantities of coal, wooden freight cars, and passenger cars with fabric-covered seats and glass windows. The railroads were the biggest customers for the **steel industry** because thousands of miles of steel track were laid. In turn, the railroads had a great impact on the steel industry. To supply their biggest customers, steel producers developed cheap, efficient methods for the mass production of steel rails. These low-cost methods enabled more industries to afford the steel companies’ products.

The rapid rise of the steel and railroad industries between the end of the Civil War and the early 1900s spurred the growth of other big businesses, especially in the oil, financial, and manufacturing sectors of the economy. These big businesses acquired enormous financial wealth. They often used this wealth to dominate and control many aspects of American cultural and political life, and as a consequence of these practices, by the beginning of the 20th century big business became the target of government reform movements at the state and national levels.

**Oil**

Oil companies grew swiftly in this period, most notably the **Standard Oil Company**, founded by **John D. Rockefeller**. Standard Oil was the most famous big business of the era. Rockefeller also gained control of most other oil companies and created what is called a **trust**. By means of a trust, Rockefeller came to own more than 90% of America’s oil industry. Standard Oil thus became a **monopoly**––a single company that controlled virtually all the U.S. oil production and distribution.

**Electricity**

The effects of technological advances made after Reconstruction forever changed how people lived. The most famous inventor of the period is **Thomas Edison**. He invented the **electric light bulb**, the **phonograph**, **motion pictures**, a system for distributing electrical power, and many other technologies powered by electricity. Edison also established the concept of industrial research, and he founded a research laboratory staffed by engineers and technicians in New Jersey.

Edison’s technological achievements were used by other inventors, as evidenced by the development of long-distance electricity transmission, which enabled Edison’s electric light to illuminate buildings, streets, and neighborhoods across the United States. Electricity soon replaced steam as the source of power for factories. It replaced horses as the means to power streetcars. Of greatest impact, perhaps, was electricity’s replacing humans as the source of power for household appliances. Edison’s inventions eliminated much manual labor that had been associated with everyday household activities and improved Americans’ quality of life.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1865 to 1914**, you should use your textbook to review

* Big Business
* Railroad Industry
* Transcontinental Railroad
* Chinese Laborers
* Steel Industry
* John D. Rockefeller
* Standard Oil Company
* Trusts
* Monopolies
* Thomas Edison
* Electric Lightbulb
* Phonograph
* Motion Pictures

**Standard 12: Analyze important consequences of American industrial growth**

Questions for this standard will measure your understanding of the causes and effects of American industrial growth. As the United States became the world’s leading industrial power, American society changed in many ways. Native Americans were forced to defend lands the government had earlier promised would be theirs forever. Immigrants found themselves competing for jobs and banding together to fight for decent working conditions. Factory workers began to organize unions that challenged the ways factory owners treated them.

**Old Conflict**

As eastern regions of the United States became more industrialized after the Civil War, people seeking rural livelihoods moved farther and farther west. In turn, Native Americans had to compete with these newcomers for land. For example, the Sioux signed a treaty with the U.S. government promising “no white person or persons shall be permitted to settle upon or occupy” Sioux territory in the Dakotas but, when gold was discovered there, the government tried to buy the land from the Sioux, who refused to sell it. The Sioux leader, **Sitting Bull**, then fought U.S. Army troops, led his people to a brief exile in Canada, and finally agreed to settle on a reservation.

About 10 years later, Sitting Bull’s people became associated with a Sioux religious movement. The Native Americans believed their ceremonies would cleanse the world of evil, including the white man, and restore the Sioux’s lost greatness. Government officials ordered Sitting Bull’s arrest. He died in a brief gun battle.

After Sitting Bull died, several hundred of his people fled to an area of South Dakota called **Wounded Knee**. U.S. soldiers went there to confiscate weapons from the Sioux. A gun was fired––nobody knows by whom––and U.S soldiers then opened machine-gun fire, killing more than 300 Sioux. This ended the Native Americans’ long conflict against Americans settling Native American lands.

**New Immigrants**

In the decades after the Civil War, more and more Europeans immigrated to America. They differed from earlier immigrant groups, who mostly came from northern and western Europe, were typically Protestant, spoke English, and arrived with the government’s welcome. In contrast, many of the new immigrants came from eastern and southern Europe, often were Jewish or Catholic, and usually spoke no English. The U.S. government welcomed the wealthy among these new immigrants but forced poorer people to pass health and welfare tests at government reception centers such as the **Ellis Island** Immigrant Station located in New York Harbor. Whether Asian or European, these new immigrants tended to settle in areas populated by people from the same countries who spoke the same languages and worshipped in the same ways.

Because poverty and political instability were common in their home countries, the new immigrants were likely to be poor. They could not afford to buy farmland, so they worked as unskilled laborers and lived mostly in cities. There they created communities to imitate the cultures of their home countries, and these communities had foreign language newspapers, ethnic stores and restaurants, and houses of worship. The new immigrants did not blend into American society the way earlier immigrants had.

**American Federation of Labor and Samuel Gompers**

Unskilled laborers were subject to low wages, long workdays, no vacations, and unsafe workplaces. Because individual workers had little power to change the way an employer ran a business, workers banded together in labor unions to demand better pay and working conditions. Then the labor unions banded together for even more power to change the ways employers ran their businesses. The **American Federation of Labor**, or AFL, was led by **Samuel Gompers**. He was president of the AFL from 1886 to 1894 and from 1895 to his death in 1924. His goal was to use strikes (work stoppages) to convince employers to give workers shorter workdays, better working conditions, higher wages, and greater control over how they carried out their workplace responsibilities.

**Pullman Strike**

During poor economic times in the 1870s and 1890s, violence erupted when employers sought to fire some workers and to lower the wages of those still employed. In 1894, when the Pullman railcar factory near Chicago fired almost half its workforce and cut wages by 25% to 50%, its workers went on strike. Other railway workers refused to switch Pullman cars on or off trains. Rail traffic west of Chicago came to a halt.

The Pullman company responded by hiring new workers, but these workers were attacked by strikers when they attempted to go to work. Leaders of the railroad industry convinced the government to declare the situation illegal. President Grover Cleveland sent the U.S. Army to restore peace. Both big business and the U.S. government feared labor unions were a menace to America’s capitalist economy.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1865 to 1914**, you should use your textbook to review

* Sitting Bull
* Wounded Knee
* Ellis Island
* American Federation of Labor
* Samuel Gompers
* Pullman Strike

**Standard 13: Identify major efforts to reform American society and politics in the Progressive Era**

Questions about this standard will measure your knowledge of Progressive reforms and African Americans’ struggle for equal rights. The progress of business and industry inspired reformers to make important improvements in America’s political and social environment. These reformers were known as *Progressives*. Progressive reforms strengthened American democracy in ways we carry forward into our own time. Meanwhile, African Americans found themselves left out of reform efforts when southern whites denied basic rights to black citizens.

**Muckrakers**

Many reforms came about after journalists investigated and exposed political corruption, child labor, slum conditions, and other social issues. These journalists were called **muckrakers**, and famous among them were **Upton Sinclair** and **Ida Tarbell**. In his novel *The Jungle*, Sinclair told the story of European immigrants working in Chicago’s meatpacking industry. The book exposed the poor labor practices and unsanitary conditions that produced contaminated food. Congress was pressured to pass laws to regulate the meatpacking industry and to require meat packers to produce food that was safe to consume. In a series of magazine articles, Tarbell exposed political corruption in New York, Chicago, and other cities, and criticized Standard Oil Company’s unfair business practices. Her findings angered the public and contributed to the government’s decision to break up the Standard Oil Trust.

**Progressive Reforms**

The Progressives supported new ideas and policies they believed would improve people’s lives. They supported increased government regulation of business and industry, efforts to protect consumers and workers, and policies to conserve natural resources. Their efforts to improve living conditions for the poor in cities led to more and better libraries, schools, hospitals, and parks.

Women Progressives, in particular, sponsored laws to end child labor and to require government inspections of workplaces. Jane Addams brought a British idea, the settlement house, to the United States, when she established **Hull House** in Chicago. Hull House was a social service agency that provided trained workers to help recent immigrants and working-class citizens learn about home economics, basic medical care, the English language, legal rights, and other topics important to low-income urban residents.

The Progressives also opposed political bosses and had scorn for citizens’ lack of control over them. Progressive election reforms helped to increase ordinary citizens’ direct control of government in these ways:

• Supporters of any new law could collect voters’ signatures on an **initiative** to force a public vote on the issue. This prevented government officials from ignoring the desires of citizens.

• When enough citizens supported an initiative, the government had to present the issue to the public as a **referendum** on which the public could vote. This also prevented government officials from ignoring the desires of citizens.

• Citizens could remove public officials from office before their terms expired by organizing a **recall** election. This allowed citizens to control who serves in government.

Another Progressive reform was the **direct election of senators**. Under the U.S. Constitution, each state’s legislature elected that state’s U.S. senators. The Progressives favored the adoption of an amendment to the Constitution that gave voters the right to elect their U.S. senators. They succeeded in their efforts with the adoption of the Seventeenth Amendment in 1913.

**President Theodore Roosevelt** also began a Progressive **conservation movement**, which conserved millions of acres of wilderness lands, particularly in western states. His efforts led to the establishment of a national park system that included Yosemite in California and Yellowstone in Wyoming.

**African American Rights**

Race relations in the South worsened. African Americans were denied basic rights. They suffered worse racial discrimination and segregation than what they had encountered in the years after the Civil War. Southern and border states passed segregation laws that required separate public and private facilities for African Americans. These were called **Jim Crow** laws (after a character in an old minstrel song) and resulted in inferior education, health care, and transportation systems for African Americans. In 1896, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of Jim Crow laws in ***Plessy v. Ferguson***. Under the “separate but equal” doctrine, the Court ruled racial segregation was legal in public accommodations such as railroad cars.

African Americans disagreed about how to best oppose Jim Crow laws. One group, which sought full social and economic equality for African Americans, eventually formed the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People to seek full civil rights for African Americans. Better known today as the **NAACP**, this group still keeps its original name in honor of the people who founded it to help overturn *Plessy v. Ferguson*.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from **1865 to 1914**, you should use your textbook to review

* Muckrakers
* Upton Sinclair
* Ida Tarbell
* Hull House
* Initiative
* Referendum
* Recall
* Direct Election of Senators
* Jim Crow
* *Plessy v. Ferguson*
* NAACP
* President Theodore Roosevelt
* • Conservation Movement

**Standard 14: Explain America’s evolving relationship with the world at the turn of the 20th century**

**Asian American Rights**

In earlier decades, Asians had immigrated to California and other areas of the American West. Then, in the 1880s, Asian Americans faced **anti-immigrant sentiment**. When Chinese immigrants accepted low wages for jobs whites had held, employers lowered the pay for all workers. This angered the white workers. They encouraged Congress to pass the **Chinese Exclusion Act**, which it did in 1882, thereby banning all future Chinese immigration.

Japanese Americans also faced racial prejudice. It was against California law for them to buy land or become U.S. citizens, and the federal government worked with the government of Japan to limit Japanese immigration.

**Spanish-American War**

In the last decades of the 19th century, some Americans were eager to spread democracy into Latin America and other world regions. Other Americans argued that **American expansion** was not the best way to spread America’s democratic traditions.

In 1898, the United States went to war with Spain after the Spanish refused to grant independence to rebels fighting a revolutionary war in Cuba, a Spanish colony. Supporters of American expansion were eager to gain U.S. territory in Latin America, leading to a “war fever” that also encouraged the U.S. government to seek a military solution to the Cuban war for independence. The war lasted less than four months. The Spanish were driven out of Cuba, which became an independent country, and out of Puerto Rico, which became an American territory.

**Philippine-American War**

The first battles of the Spanish-American War took place in the Philippines, another Spanish colony in which Spain refused to grant independence to rebels fighting a revolutionary war. The U.S. Navy quickly defeated the Spanish navy, and Americans debated whether the United States should expand its territory to include the Philippines or respect Filipino independence. When the U.S. military was ordered to keep the Philippines as an American territory, the Philippine-American War broke out in 1899. The war lasted about three years. In the end, the Philippines was a U.S. territory until 1946.

**U.S. Actions in Latin America**

The Caribbean region and Latin America remained unstable. Many of the area’s countries owed large amounts of money to European countries because they had borrowed it to build modern energy plants and transportation systems. President Theodore Roosevelt feared European countries would take advantage of this instability to gain power and influence in the region. He announced to the world that the United States had the right to intervene in Latin American countries in economic crisis, whether or not a European power planned to intervene. This policy is called the **Roosevelt Corollary** to the Monroe Doctrine. In contrast, President James Monroe’s original doctrine had been to get involved in the affairs of the Americas only when needed to end the intervention of a European power.

America now controlled territory in the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Seeking a faster sea route from the Atlantic to the Pacific than the voyage around the tip of South America, the U.S. government built a shipping canal across the narrow Central American country of Panama. The **Panama Canal** was the biggest engineering project of the era. When the Panama Canal opened in 1914, a voyage from San Francisco to New York was cut from 14,000 miles to 6,000 miles.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from 1865 to 1914, you should use your textbook to review

* Anti-Immigrant Sentiment
* Chinese Exclusion Act
* Spanish-American War
* American Expansion
* Philippine-American War
* Roosevelt Corollary
* Panama Canal

**Standard 15: Analyze the origins and impact of U.S. involvement in World War I**

**World War I––Origins**

When World War I began in Europe in 1914, President Woodrow Wilson was determined to guarantee **U.S. neutrality** and to keep the United States out of the war. But in 1915, the luxury liner *Lusitania* was sunk by a German submarine, killing most of the people onboard, including more than 100 U.S. citizens. This led to a crisis between the United States and Germany that was only resolved when Germany agreed to abandon **unrestricted submarine warfare** that endangered U.S. trade and American lives. However, in 1917, Germany resumed unrestricted submarine warfare, creating great anti- German feelings among Americans. This heightened tension led to the United States’ decision to enter the war.

**World War I––Impacts**

The war created jobs in northeastern and mid-western cities. African Americans, tired of living under the repression that was common in the South, moved to the North by the thousands and established themselves in ethnically distinct and culturally rich neighborhoods. This movement of African Americans was called the **Great Migration**.

During the war, laws were passed that prohibited people from speaking out against it. The **Espionage Act** of 1917 made it a crime to communicate any information that would interfere with U.S. military operations or aid its enemies. Wilson supported this law to silence critics and pacifists. The next year, labor leader **Eugene V. Debs**, the Socialist Party’s presidential candidate in 1904, 1908, and 1912, was convicted for hindering military recruiting by making a speech against it; he was sentenced to 10 years in prison. Many people supported such laws although they violated the spirit of the First Amendment.

Social changes seen during the war led to two constitutional amendments. Americans’ anti-German feelings led to a campaign to outlaw beer and other alcoholic beverages. This campaign well suited the Progressive Era’s opposition to saloons. Congress passed the **Eighteenth Amendment**, which prohibited “the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors.” Ratification of the **Nineteenth Amendment**, which gave women the right to vote, was helped by the country’s gratitude for women’s economic contributions during the war. The women had filled jobs in factories after men volunteered and were drafted into military service.

**Isolationism**

Before the United States entered the war, Wilson gave a speech in which he described **Fourteen Points** he felt were key to avoiding future wars. One point called for the creation of an international peacekeeping organization called the **League of Nations**. During the postwar treaty negotiations, Wilson worked hard to get as many as possible of his Fourteen Points included in the treaty and succeeded in securing the creation of the League of Nations. However, American opposition to the League of Nations ultimately led the Senate to refuse to ratify the treaty. Isolationists in the Senate believed that by joining the League the United States would become involved in future conflicts in Europe and elsewhere. Though Wilson traveled across America to create public support for the treaty’s ratification, the Senate eventually rejected it. The United States never joined the League of Nations.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, you should use your textbook to review

* U.S. Neutrality
* Unrestricted Submarine Warfare
* Great Migration
* Espionage Act
* Eugene V. Debs
* Eighteenth Amendment
* Nineteenth Amendment
* Fourteen Points
* League of Nations

**Standard 16: Identify key developments in the aftermath of World War I**

**Communism and Socialism**

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, a new political ideology called **communism** grew out of the more moderate **socialism**. Communism was based on a single-party government ruled by a dictator. Under communism, there is no private ownership; all property is owned by the state. In 1919, after communist revolutionaries known as Bolsheviks overthrew the czar in Russia, established the Soviet Union, and called for a worldwide revolution to destroy capitalism, people in the United States began to fear communists. This fear of international communism was called the **Red Scare** because red was the color of the communist flag. This fear led to the government’s pursuit of suspected communists and socialists.

**Immigration Restrictions**

The Red Scare was one factor that led to new restrictions on immigration. Other factors were two ideas that grew strong in America in the 1920s. One of the ideas was that people born in America were superior to immigrants. The other was that America should keep its traditional culture intact. Anti-immigrant, anti-Jewish, and anti-Catholic sentiments contributed to the popularity of a revived Ku Klux Klan, not just in the South but throughout the nation. Ultimately, this conservative reaction against immigrants resulted in the passage of legislation that set limits on the number of immigrants who could come from each country.

**Popular Culture**

During the 1920s, popular entertainment such as **radio** and the **movies** attracted millions of loyal fans and helped create the first media stars. Conservatives often disapproved of what they viewed as the immoral influence of these forms of entertainment but were unable to reduce their popularity.

The Great Migration significantly increased the African American populations in cities in the Northeast and the Midwest. Crowded into segregated neighborhoods near city centers, African Americans and African American culture gained the acceptance of mainstream America. AfricanAmerican writers and artists began to receive the attention of major publishing houses and critics, but it was the music emerging from these neighborhoods that was the most appreciated. **Jazz** combined themes and note patterns developed by enslaved African Americans with the syncopated rhythms worked out by musicians in New Orleans and elsewhere in the South. It was an original American art form and became very popular in the 1920s.

During the 1920s, a wave of creativity washed over Harlem that celebrated African American culture through words and song. This is known as the **Harlem Renaissance**. The movement’s best-known poet was **Langston Hughes**, who wrote about the lives of working-class African Americans and sometimes set his words to the tempo of jazz or blues. Trumpet player **Louis Armstrong**, sometimes called “Satchmo,” became known while playing with the Creole Jazz Band and later became one of the biggest stars of jazz music because of his sense of rhythm and his improvisational skills.

While the Harlem Renaissance was occurring, another musical movement, **Tin Pan Alley**, was also on the rise in New York City. The name “Tin Pan Alley” is deceiving because it does not only refer to an actual place in Manhattan but also names the group of music writers and publishers who worked there. One of the most famous was **Irving Berlin**, who wrote hundreds of songs during his career, including “God Bless America” and “White Christmas.”

Another development of the 1920s was the emergence of the automobile as a true replacement for the horse, not just a plaything for the wealthy. This was made possible by an industrial process called **mass production**. This process was popularized by **Henry Ford** during the manufacture of his Ford Model T. The Model T was designed to be produced in great volume on assembly lines so the cost of each car would be low enough for common people to afford.

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| **STRATEGY BOX—Dad, May I Borrow the Car?**  Mass production of the automobile made cars affordable and widely available during the 1920s. The car allowed people to move to suburbs away from the cities, increased construction of highways and bridges, and created the family vacation, but its most powerful impact was on the relationship between young people and their parents. For the first time, young people could easily get away from their parents and experience a level of independence never before available. This provided the young people of the 1920s with different experiences than their parents had known and created a generation gap between them. When you think of the social changes of the 1920s, remember the impact of the car on young people as an example of the clash between the forces of conservatism and the forces for change that exemplified the time period. |

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, you should use your textbook to review

* Communism
* Socialism
* Red Scare
* Immigration Restrictions
* Radio
* Movies
* Jazz
* Harlem Renaissance
* Langston Hughes
* Louis Armstrong
* Tin Pan Alley
* Irving Berlin
* Mass Production
* Henry Ford

**Standard 17: Analyze the causes and consequences of the Great Depression**

**The Interactions of Business Overproduction and Consumer Underconsumption**

During the 1920s, the wealthy grew wealthier due in large measure to government fiscal policies that both reduced business regulations and allowed the wealthy to keep more of their money. These reduced regulations and low corporate taxes increased the profits of corporations and made their stocks more valuable. At the same time, the poor and working classes lost the ability to buy products because their wages stayed the same while prices rose. This reduction in consumer consumption resulted in business overproduction and eventually caused business profits to decline. These factors were an important cause of the Great Depression.

New methods of buying products, including the installment plan and buying on credit, became popular during the 1920s. These methods encouraged consumers to buy more than they could afford and to go into debt. Worst of all, banks loaned people money to buy stock with very little money down. The stocks themselves became the collateral for the loan. This was called buying on margin. Rising stock prices and the ability of ordinary people to buy stock on credit increased investment in the stock market and inflated the price of stocks above their actual value. Then, by October 1929, the U.S. economy was beginning to show signs of slowing down. Stockholders feared the economy was ending a period of prosperity and entering a period of recession. This caused some investors to panic and sell their stocks. As more people sold their stock, other people panicked and sold their stock as well, driving down their prices and causing a **stock market crash**.

In turn, the stock market crash triggered other economic weaknesses and plunged the United States into the **Great Depression**––a severe economic recession in the 1930s that affected all the world’s industrialized nations and the countries that exported raw materials to them. Industry, trade, construction, mining, logging, and farming decreased sharply. Business profits, tax revenues, and personal incomes did, too.

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| **STRATEGY BOX––The Oklahoma Road**  And Grandpa Joad he cried.  He picked up a handful of land in his hand.  He said, “I’m stickin’ with my farm till I die.”  They fed him spareribs and coffee and soup and syrup,  And Grandpa Joad, he died.  We buried Grandpa Joad on the Oklahoma road  And Grandma on the California side.  from “The Ballad of Tom Joad” by Woody Guthrie  New machinery and improved farming techniques made American farmers very productive. By producing more food each year, farmers thought they could earn more money. Instead, this overproduction helped drive down the prices of their products and made it harder for them to make a profit. In response, farmers tried producing even more food by taking out more loans to buy more land and farm equipment. As a result, most farmers were very vulnerable to economic and environmental disasters when banks started foreclosing on farms owned by farmers unable to repay their loans. To make matters worse, the Great  Plains states were experiencing a severe drought. When a series of severe dust storms hit the prairies, they picked up the dirt loosened by the drought and the poor farming practices that had eroded the soil. This ecological disaster was called the **Dust Bowl**. Dry conditions and high winds made farming impossible. Tenant farmers and sharecroppers were among the hardest hit as their landlords evicted them and sold the land. Over 500,000 Americans were left homeless. Many farmers from Oklahoma, Texas, and the surrounding Dust Bowl states migrated to California in search of work. |

**Widespread Unemployment**

As profits fell and it became clear consumers would need to reduce spending, workers began to lose their jobs. By 1932, the unemployment rate in the United States had reached 25%. Unemployed workers who had no savings could not pay their debts, and many lost their homes. Homeless and unemployed people settled in camps of shacks and tents in rundown areas. These camps became known as **Hoovervilles**, named after Herbert Hoover, the U.S. president when the Depression started. Hooverville residents slept in packing crates if they were lucky; if not, they slept on the ground. They begged for food from people who still had jobs and housing.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, you should use your textbook to review

* Stock Market Crash
* Great Depression
* Dust Bowl
* Hoovervilles

**Standard 18: Describe Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the Depression, and compare the ways governmental programs aided those in need**

**Putting People to Work**

One of Roosevelt’s major New Deal programs was the **Tennessee Valley Authority** (TVA). This was established in 1933 to build dams and power plants along the Tennessee River and its tributaries. The Tennessee Valley itself runs through seven states, so the project was very large. The TVA built dozens of dams to control the environment by preventing disastrous floods. Each dam had its own power plants, parks, and navigation aids, and this construction created hundreds of jobs for unemployed workers.

**Second New Deal**

The Second New Deal refers to the programs President Roosevelt instituted after his original New Deal failed to completely fix the American economy. The National Labor Relations Act, better known as the **Wagner Act**, was one of the first reforms of Roosevelt’s **Second New Deal**. This law established collective bargaining rights for workers and prohibited such unfair labor practices as intimidating workers, attempting to keep workers from organizing unions, and firing union members. The law also set up a government agency where workers could testify about unfair labor practices and hold elections to decide whether or not to unionize.

After passage of the Wagner Act, industrial workers began to unionize. The American Federation of Labor (AFL) was hesitant to organize **industrial unionism**, because it was committed to craft-based workers such as carpenters and railroad engineers. As a consequence, the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) was created to represent industrial workers who felt they were not being represented by the AFL. The AFL and CIO clashed on and off before merging in 1955 to become the AFL-CIO that exists today.

One of the most important actions of the Second New Deal was the **Social Security Act**, which was passed in 1935. This law consisted of three components:

1. Old-age insurance for retirees aged 65 or older and their spouses, paid half by the employee and half by the employer

2. Unemployment compensation paid by a federal tax on employers and administered by the states

3. Aid for the disabled and for families with dependent children paid by the federal government and administered by the states

**Eleanor Roosevelt**

President Roosevelt’s wife, Eleanor, was very influential in her own right. She was interested in humanitarian causes and social progress, and she was very vocal about them during her husband’s time in the White House. She traveled all over the United States to observe social conditions so she could keep the president informed as to the state of the nation. As a supporter of women’s activism, she was also instrumental in convincing Roosevelt to appoint more women to government positions.

**Roosevelt’s Political Challenges**

During his 12-year presidency, Roosevelt faced many challenges to his leadership and had many critics. Opponents of the New Deal came from all parts of the political spectrum. Some conservatives thought he had made the federal government too large and too powerful and that it did not respect the rights of individuals and property, while some liberals thought he had not gone far enough to socialize the economy and eliminate inequality in America. Perhaps Roosevelt’s biggest critic was Senator **Huey Long** of Louisiana. Long originally supported the New Deal, but he changed his mind and set his sights on replacing Roosevelt as president. Long proposed for every American a home, food, clothes, and an education, among other things.

In Europe, World War II started long before America entered it. To prevent Roosevelt from involving

America in what some saw as a European war, Congress passed a series of **Neutrality Acts** to make it illegal to sell arms or make loans to nations at war. The fourth of these acts, passed in 1939 in recognition of the Nazi threat to Western Europe’s democracies, permitted the sale of arms to nations at war on a “cash and carry” basis. This meant that buyers would have to pay cash and send their own ships to American ports to pick up the supplies, thereby keeping American ships from being sunk by the Germans.

The Judiciary Reorganization Bill of 1937, usually called the **court-packing bill**, was a law Roosevelt proposed to give presidents the power to appoint an extra Supreme Court justice for every sitting justice over the age of 70 ½. Roosevelt planned to use this bill’s powers to add more of his supporters to the Supreme Court to uphold his New Deal programs, but the version of the law passed by Congress weakened the power he desired.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, you should use your textbook to review

* Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA)
* Second New Deal
* Wagner Act
* Industrial Unionism
* Social Security Act
* Eleanor Roosevelt
* Huey Long
* Neutrality Acts
* Court-Packing Bill

**Standard 19: Identify the origins, major developments, and domestic impact of World War II, especially the growth of the federal government**

**Protesting Discrimination**

In 1941, **A. Philip Randolph**, the founder of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, proposed a march on Washington, D.C., to protest discrimination in the military and in industry. He called on African Americans from all over the United States to come to Washington and join him. President Roosevelt, afraid the march might cause unrest among whites, summoned Randolph to the White House and asked him to call off the march. When Randolph refused, Roosevelt issued an executive order that called on employers and labor unions to cease discrimination in hiring practices in industries related to defense. As a result of Roosevelt’s actions, the march was canceled.

**Pearl Harbor and Its Aftermath**

On the morning of December 7, 1941, the navy of the Empire of Japan launched a surprise attack on the U.S. Navy base at **Pearl Harbor**, Hawaii. Over 2,400 Americans were killed and 1,178 more were wounded, 19 ships were damaged, and over 300 aircraft were destroyed. The Japanese attack took the United States officially into World War II.

One effect of America’s entry into the war was alarm about the loyalty of Japanese Americans: 120,000 Japanese Americans lived in the United States, most of them on the West Coast. Fears of spies and sabotage led to prejudice and sometimes violence against Japanese Americans. In the name of national security, Roosevelt ordered all people of Japanese ancestry be moved from California and parts of Washington, Oregon, and Arizona to rural prison camps. Although most of the people imprisoned in these **internment** camps were Japanese Americans, there were also small numbers of German Americans and Italian Americans imprisoned under the same law, as well as hundreds of Native Americans from Alaska.

**Mobilization**

After Pearl Harbor, 5 million men volunteered for military service, but more were needed to fight the war. The Selective Service System expanded the draft, and 10 million more men joined the ranks of the American armed forces. So great was the need of the military, a Women’s Auxiliary Army Corps was formed to fill noncombat positions otherwise filled by men, freeing up the men for frontline duty.

The men needed tanks, planes, ships, guns, bullets, and boots. To equip the troops, the entire American industry was dedicated to supplying the military. More than 6 million workers in the plants, factories, and shipyards were women. With the men who once did these jobs now fighting overseas, women filled the void. Women volunteered for this work even though they were paid on average only 60% as much as men doing the same jobs. It was the hard work of people and the industrial might of the United States that helped America win World War II.

As time went on, the war industry needed more raw materials. One way Americans helped the war effort was through **wartime conservation**. Workers would carpool to work or ride bicycles to save gasoline and rubber. People participated in nationwide drives to collect scrap iron, tin cans, newspaper, rags, and even cooking grease to recycle and use in war production. Another way Americans conserved on the home front was through the mandatory government **rationing** system. Under this system, each household received a “c book” with coupons that were used to buy scarce items such as meat, sugar, and coffee. Gas rationing was also used to help save gasoline for military use.

**Allied Powers**

• China

• France

• Great Britain

• Soviet Union

• United States

**Axis Powers**

• Germany

• Italy

• Japan

**Major Events of World War II**

Many battles were fought between the Allied nations and the Axis powers from 1939 to 1945. World War II was truly a world war, with combat taking place on nearly every continent. This changed the way the whole world looked at war. The two major theaters of the war were Europe and the Pacific Ocean. Review the following details of four major World War II events.

• **Lend-Lease**––March, 11, 1941––Nine months before Pearl Harbor, Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act and amended the Neutrality Acts so the United States could lend military equipment and supplies to any nation the president said was vital to the defense of the United States. Roosevelt approved $1 billion in Lend-Lease aid to Great Britain in October 1941. When the United States entered World War II, $50 billion worth of equipment and supplies had already been sent to Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and China.

• **Battle of Midway**––June 4–7, 1942––Six months after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, the U.S. Navy won a sea battle against the Japanese Navy that was a turning point in World War II. The Japanese tried to trap and sink America’s remaining aircraft carriers and then take the Midway Atoll, an American refueling station for ships and airplanes, but the United States destroyed four Japanese aircraft carriers while losing only one American carrier. This kept the Japanese from capturing Midway. This victory is regarded as the most important naval engagement of the Pacific campaign of the war and, at the time, was a huge morale boost for America. The Japanese Navy never recovered from this defeat, enabling the United States to gain control of other strategic Pacific islands. From those islands, the United States was able to overcome the geographical difficulty of resupplying its forces with food, medicine, weapons, and other critical supplies needed to push westward toward the Japanese mainland.

• **D Day**––June 6, 1944––D Day was the code name for the first day of Operation Overlord, the Allied invasion of Nazi-occupied France. It remains the largest seaborne invasion in history, with over 156,000 men crossing the English Channel in 6,939 vessels. The German troops occupying France were caught almost completely by surprise and, although the Allies met heavy resistance in small areas, the invasion went almost exactly according to plan. As a result of the operation’s success, American and British forces were able to maintain a permanent beachhead in mainland Europe to resupply their forces and push east to Germany. The geographical advantage gained by the invasion marked the beginning of victory for the Allies in Europe.

• **The Fall of Berlin**––April–May 1945––The fall of Berlin was one of the final battles of the European theater during World War II. Two Soviet army groups attacked Berlin from the east and south, while a third attacked German forces north of Berlin. The Soviets lost 81,116 men taking the city, while the Germans lost 458,080 trying to defend it. It was one of the bloodiest battles in history. Adolf Hitler was in Berlin during the battle and, before it ended, he and many of his followers committed suicide. The city’s defenders surrendered on May 2, but fighting continued outside the city until the war ended on May 8. Much of the continued fighting was due to the Germans trying to move westward so they could surrender to the Americans or British instead of to the Soviets.

**Atom Bomb**

Allied leaders planning the war against Japan knew that once they defeated the Japanese navy in the

Pacific Ocean they would still have to invade Japan itself to end the war. They knew Japan still had a

huge army that would defend every inch of the homeland, and both sides could possibly lose millions of people in the process. President Truman decided there was only one way to avoid an invasion of Japan and still defeat them. He would use a brand-new weapon that no one had ever seen before: the **atomic bomb**. The American government had developed two atomic bombs in a secret laboratory in **Los Alamos**, New Mexico. The bombs were dropped on Japan in early August 1945. On September 2, 1945, the Japanese surrendered, and World War II was finally over. The project’s code name was “**The Manhattan Project**.”

The implications of developing and using atomic bombs in World War II were enormous. From a military standpoint, it was clear that not only did the United States have a powerful weapon that no other country had, but the American government was not afraid to use it. The Soviet Union quickly began developing an atomic bomb of its own, an act that helped begin the Cold War. Also, nuclear power would soon be used to power aircraft carriers and submarines. Scientifically and economically, the atomic bomb led to nuclear power for civilian use, such as generating electricity for homes and businesses. Nuclear power is also used in technologies such as positron emission tomography (PET) scans, which are used by physicians to study the workings of the human body, including brain functions.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, you should use your textbook to review

* A. Philip Randolph
* Pearl Harbor
* Internment
* Mobilization
* Wartime Conservation
* Rationing
* Lend-Lease
* Battle of Midway
* D Day
* Battle of Berlin
* Atom Bomb
* Los Alamos
* The Manhattan Project

**Standard 20: Analyze the domestic and international impact of the Cold War on the United States**

**Marshall Plan**

The European Recovery Program, better known as the Marshall Plan for Secretary of State George Marshall, was America’s main program for rebuilding Western Europe and opposing communism after World War II. The plan was put into action in July 1947 and operated for four years. During that time, the United States spent $13 billion on economic and technical assistance for the war-torn democratic European countries that had been nearly destroyed during World War II. The Marshall Plan offered the same aid to the Soviet Union and its allies if they would make political reforms and accept certain outside controls; however, the Soviets rejected this proposal.

**Commitment to Europe**

To halt the spread of communism to Western Europe from the Soviet-controlled nations of Eastern Europe, the United States formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) with many of the noncommunist nations in Europe, including former wartime allies Britain and France. In response, the Soviet Union created the Warsaw Pact, an alliance of the communist nations it controlled in Eastern Europe. Convinced the Soviets were attempting to establish a sphere of influence throughout the world, the United States viewed these actions as a direct threat to American security. This determination to stop the spread of communism is known as the policy of **containment** and was the basis for many U.S. foreign policy decisions during the Cold War.

**Truman Doctrine**

In 1947, President Harry S. Truman proclaimed the **Truman Doctrine**. It stated the United States would supply any nation with economic and military aid to prevent its falling under the Soviet sphere of influence. Truman called upon the United States to “support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures.” Although Truman never referred directly to the USSR, anyone who heard the declaration, including the Soviet leaders, knew the Soviets were the “outside pressures” Truman talked about.

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| --- |
| **STRATEGY BOX—Building Walls**  The Cold War involved the building of physical and figurative walls. The Soviets built physical walls to keep citizens of communist nations in and democratic influences out. The Berlin Wall is a good example of the walls the Soviets built. The United States built figurative “walls” surrounding communist nations to keep their influence from spreading. An example of a figurative wall built by the United States is the 38th parallel, which divides North Korea from South Korea. The conflicts that arose between communist and democratic nations were usually the result of attempts to break through these walls. |

Korean War

In 1950, the United States and the democratic government of South Korea went to war against the communist government of North Korea. North Korea was being aided by the new Chinese communist government that had recently won the Chinese Civil War. Combat began when communist troops invaded South Korea. Concerned over the spread of communism beyond the Soviet Union and China, the United States sent its troops to force the communists back to North Korea. The U.S. decision to enter the conflict was part of its larger strategy of geographically containing communism in order to isolate and eventually defeat it. Driving North Korean forces across the border, U.S. troops then followed the enemy into North Korea in an effort to entirely eliminate communism from the Korean peninsula. However, when the Americans reached the border between North Korea and China, the Chinese attacked, forcing the Americans back to South Korea.

**McCarthyism**

Americans had an increased fear of communism after a communist regime took control of China in 1950, and the United States and South Korea went to war against North Korean communists who were being aided by China’s new communist government. This spread of communism in Asia encouraged a desire among some Americans to stop communism from spreading to the United States. A series of “Red Scares,” highlighted by Senator Joseph McCarthy’s statements about alleged communist infiltration of the

U.S. government and U.S. Army, led to civil rights violations of those who were communists, were suspected of being communists, or were suspected of knowing someone who might be a communist.

**Cuba**

In 1956, Fidel Castro led the **Cuban Revolution**. Castro became prime minister of Cuba early in 1957 and, at first, had American support. However, when he allied himself with the Soviet Union, suspended all elections, and named himself president for life, the United States turned against Castro. The existence of a communist nation allied with the Soviet Union 90 miles off the coast of the United States jeopardized the U.S. containment strategy. In 1961, 1,500 Cuban exiles, armed and trained by the CIA, tried to stage an invasion at Cuba’s **Bay of Pigs**. The small force was crushed by Castro after President Kennedy refused to involve the U.S. armed forces. Twelve hundred of the invaders were captured, and the United States was forced to give $53 million worth of food and supplies to Cuba for release of the captives.

The Soviets believed that, because Kennedy refused to involve the American military in Cuban affairs, he would not interfere if the Soviets built military missile launch sites in Cuba, so they installed missiles. The Soviet plan was for Cuba to use these missiles to prevent another U.S.-planned invasion. When an American spy plane took photos of a Soviet nuclear missile site being built in Cuba, Kennedy immediately began planning a response. Enemy missiles positioned so close to America’s coastline posed a serious threat to U.S. national security. Kennedy completely blockaded Cuba and threatened to invade unless the Soviets promised to withdraw from Cuba. Finally, the Soviets agreed to remove their missiles if the United States would remove its nuclear missiles installed near the Soviet Union in Turkey. The two nations removed their missiles in what is now known as the **Cuban missile crisis**.

**Vietnam War**

The Vietnam War was a struggle for control of Vietnam. While the conflict originally began during the French colonial rule in the region, the United States became involved in the 1950s by providing economic and limited military aid. Following French withdrawal in 1954, Vietnam was divided, with communist forces in the North and a pro-Western regime in control of the South. Then, in the early 1960s, U.S. involvement began to increase; it lasted until the early 1970s. The democratic government of South Vietnam, supported by the United States, battled communist North Vietnam and a military organization called the Vietcong. U.S. policymakers believed that if Vietnam came to be ruled by a communist government, communism would spread throughout Southeast Asia and perhaps beyond. The Vietcong continually frustrated U.S. forces with its ability to use the region’s thick jungles to conduct guerrilla warfare. In 1968, the Vietcong and North Vietnamese army started the eight-month-long **Tet Offensive**. It was the Vietcong’s largest and most damaging campaign of the entire war.

Ultimately, the Tet Offensive failed to achieve its goal of driving the Americans out of Vietnam, but it did lead many people in the United States to question why Johnson had told them America was winning the war. This led some Americans who had been quiet up until then to raise their voices in protest against the war. Many college campuses were home to groups formed to protest American involvement in Vietnam. The goals of these groups differed, but most favored ending the draft and removing all American troops from Vietnam.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, you should use your textbook to review

* Marshall Plan
* Containment
* Truman Doctrine
* Korean War
* McCarthyism
* Cuban Revolution
* Bay of Pigs
* Cuban Missile Crisis
* Vietnam War
* Tet Offensive

**Standard 21: Explain the impact of technological development and economic growth on the United States, 1945–1975**

**Economic Growth**

After World War II, soldiers returned home to America and settled back into the lives they had left behind. One effect of this was a huge growth in population, called the **baby boom**. From the mid-1940s to the mid-1960s, the birthrate quickly increased, reaching its high point in 1957, a year when over 4 million babies were born. The generation referred to as “baby boomers” is the largest generation in American history.

Another effect of the soldiers’ return was a housing shortage. The veterans’ new and growing families needed homes to live in. In response, housing developers such as William Levitt created methods of building houses faster, cheaper, and more efficiently. These methods led to the creation of the first suburbs—communities outside of a city and made up of mostly single-family houses for people whose family members worked in the city. The first master-planned community in America was William Levitt’s **Levittown**, located on New York’s Long Island.

Because the new suburbs were outside the limits of large cities, there was little public transportation available for the suburban residents. They needed cars, and increased car ownership meant more roads were needed, so Congress passed the **Interstate Highway Act**, authorizing the construction of a national network of highways to connect every major city in America. In all, 41,000 miles of new expressways, or freeways, were built. It was a record-size public works project.

**Television Changes**

The first regular television broadcasts began in 1949, providing just two hours a week of news and entertainment to a very small area on the East Coast. By 1956, over 500 stations were broadcasting all over America, bringing news and entertainment into the living rooms of most Americans.

In the 1960 national election campaign, the **Kennedy/Nixon presidential debates** were the first ones ever shown on TV. Seventy million people tuned in. Although Nixon was more knowledgeable about foreign policy and other topics, Kennedy looked and spoke more forcefully because he had been coached by television producers. Kennedy’s performance in the debate helped him win the presidency. The Kennedy/Nixon debates changed the shape of American politics.

TV newscasts also changed the shape of American culture. Americans who might never have attended a civil rights demonstration saw and heard them on their TVs in the 1960s. In 1963, TV reports showed helmeted police officers from Birmingham, Alabama, using high-pressure fire hoses to spray African American children who had been walking in a protest march. The reports also showed the officers setting police dogs to attack them, and then clubbing them. **TV news coverage of the civil rights movement** helped many Americans turn their sympathies toward ending racial segregation and persuaded Kennedy that new laws were the only ways to end the racial violence and to give African Americans the civil rights they were demanding.

**Technological Wonders**

In addition to the television, other postwar advances in technology surged. The expanded use of **air-conditioning** permitted more tolerable working conditions in skyscrapers and other buildings used for conducting business, thereby encouraging urban development and stimulating economic growth in hot and humid climates. Telephone lines covered the country, allowing people to stay in contact regardless of distance. By the 1970s, early versions of today’s **personal computers**, the Internet, and cellular phones gave a few Americans a glimpse of the technologies that someday would connect everyone to each other regardless of where they were, and these technologies would become as common as typewriters and public phone booths were in the 1970s.

**Sputnik I and the Cold War**

In 1957, the Soviet Union launched the first artificial satellite—Sputnik I—a feat that caused many Americans to believe the United States had “fallen behind” the Soviet Union in terms of understanding science and the uses of technology. The success of the Soviet satellite launch led to increased U.S. government spending on education, especially in mathematics and science, and on national military defense programs. Additionally, Sputnik I increased Cold War tensions by heightening U.S. fears that the

Soviet Union might use rockets to launch nuclear weapons against the United States and its allied nations.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from 1945 to 1975, you should use your textbook to review

* Baby Boom
* Levittown
* Interstate Highway Act
* Kennedy/Nixon Presidential Debates
* TV News Coverage of Civil Rights Movement
* Air-Conditioning
* Personal Computer
* Sputnik I

**Standard 22: Identify dimensions of the civil rights movement, 1945–1970**

**Racial Integration**

African Americans fought in World War II and also worked in war industries in the United States during the war. After the war, they once again faced the racial discrimination that had been traditional before the war, but many people took bold actions to end discrimination and promote integration. Review the following details of six major events in the recent history of the civil rights movement.

• 1947––**Jackie Robinson** was the first African American to play for a major league baseball team in the United States, the Brooklyn Dodgers. This led to the complete integration of baseball and other professional sports. Robinson was the National League’s most valuable player in 1949 and the first African American in the Baseball Hall of Fame. Until this time, African Americans played professional baseball in the Negro League.

• 1948––President **Harry Truman** issued an executive order to integrate the U.S. armed forces and to end discrimination in the hiring of U.S. government employees. In turn, this led to the civil rights laws enacted in the 1960s.

• 1954––In the ***Brown v. Board of Education*** case, the U.S. Supreme Court declared that state laws establishing “separate but equal” public schools denied African American students the equal education promised in the Fourteenth Amendment. The Court’s decision reversed prior rulings dating back to the *Plessy v. Ferguson* case in 1896. Many people were unhappy with this decision, and some even refused to follow it. The governor of Arkansas ordered the National Guard to keep nine African American students from attending Little Rock’s Central High School; President Eisenhower sent federal troops to Little Rock to force the high school to integrate.

• 1963––**Martin Luther King Jr.** was arrested in Birmingham, Alabama, while demonstrating against racial segregation. In jail he wrote his “**Letter from Birmingham Jail**” to address fears white religious leaders had that he was moving too fast toward desegregation. In his letter, King explained why victims of segregation, violent attacks, and murder found it difficult to wait for those injustices to end. Later the same year, King delivered his most famous speech, “**I Have a Dream**,” to over 250,000 people at the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C. In this speech, King asked for peace and racial harmony.

• 1964––The **Civil Rights Act of 1964** was signed into law by President Lyndon Johnson. This law prohibited discrimination based on race, religion, national origin, and gender. It allowed all citizens the right to enter any park, restroom, library, theater, and public building in the United States. One factor that prompted this law was the long struggle for civil rights undertaken by America’s African American population. Another factor was King’s famous “I Have a Dream” speech; its moving words helped create widespread support for this law. Other factors included previous presidential actions that combated civil rights violations, such as Truman’s in 1948 and Eisenhower’s in 1954, and Kennedy’s sending federal troops to Mississippi (1962) and Alabama (1963) to force the integration of public universities there.

• 1965––The **Voting Rights Act of 1965** outlawed the requirement for would-be voters in the United States to take literacy tests to register to vote, because this requirement was judged as unfair to minorities. The act provided money to pay for programs to register voters in areas with large numbers of unregistered minorities, and it gave the Department of Justice the right to oversee the voting laws in certain districts that had used tactics such as literacy tests or poll taxes to limit voting.

Review Suggestions

To prepare for questions about period from 1945 to 1970, you should use your textbook to review

* Jackie Robinson
* Harry Truman
* *Brown v. Board of Education*
* Martin Luther King Jr.
* “Letter from Birmingham Jail”
* “I Have a Dream” speech
* Civil Rights Act of 1964
* Voting Rights Act of 1965

**Standard 23: Describe and assess the impact of political developments between 1945 and 1970**

**Individual Rights**

During most of the 1950s and 1960s, the U.S. Supreme Court was headed by Chief Justice Earl Warren. The **Warren Court**, as it was known, became famous for issuing landmark decisions, such as declaring that segregation in public schools was unconstitutional in *Brown v. Board of Education*, that the Constitution includes the right to privacy, that the right of free speech protects students who wear armbands as an antiwar protest on school grounds, and that all states must obey all decisions of the Supreme Court. In 1963, the Warren Court issued another of its landmark decisions, *Miranda v. Arizona*: Police must inform suspects of their constitutional rights at the time of arrest. The case involved a man named Ernesto Miranda, who was convicted and imprisoned after signing a confession although, at the time of his arrest, the police questioned him without telling him he had the right to speak with an attorney and the right to stay silent. The *Miranda* decision strengthened Americans’ individual rights.

**Murder in Dallas**

The **assassination of President Kennedy** in Dallas, Texas, in November 1963, was a tragic event with a twofold political impact.

1. The assassination showed Americans just how strong their government was because, although the president could be killed, the U.S. government would live on.

2. The assassination gave the new president, Lyndon Johnson, the political capital to force his domestic legislative package through Congress. This included the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, which launched Johnson’s “War on Poverty,” and the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which outlawed segregation in American schools and other public places.

**Great Society**

During a 1964 speech, President Johnson summed up his vision for America in the phrase “the **Great Society**.” His programs to make the United States a great society would give all Americans a better standard of living and greater opportunities regardless of their background. The **Medicare** program is an important legacy of the Great Society, as are policies and programs that sought to improve elementary and secondary education, to protect the environment, and to reform immigration policies.

**1968**

The year 1968 was one of social and political turmoil in the United States. Review this list of key events that shocked America and made 1968 a defining moment of the modern era:

• January––Vietcong fighters launched the **Tet Offensive** during the Vietnam War, attacking over 100 South Vietnamese towns, 12 American air bases, and the U.S. embassy in South Vietnam. Many Americans turned against the war and against the Johnson administration, which had claimed the enemy was near defeat.

• April––The **assassination of Martin Luther King Jr.** caused riots in over 100 cities across America, despite pleas for calm from such prominent leaders as Senator Robert F. Kennedy, who was then running for president. One week after King’s death, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1968, which prevented discrimination in housing.

• June––The **assassination of Robert F. Kennedy**, following soon after King’s assassination, disheartened many people who shared Kennedy’s desires for social reform and opposition to the Vietnam

War. He was running for president and was killed on the same night he won the California and South Dakota presidential primaries.

• August––The **Democratic National Convention** in Chicago is remembered as a scene where police armed with clubs and tear gas violently beat antiwar protesters on live TV. Many Americans started wondering if the American form of government could tolerate dissent.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from 1945 to 1970, you should use your textbook to review

* Warren Court
* *Miranda v. Arizona*
* Assassination of President Kennedy
* Great Society
* Medicare
* Tet Offensive
* Assassination of Martin Luther King Jr.
* Assassination of Robert F. Kennedy
* 1968 Democratic National Convention

**Standard 24: Analyze the impact of social change movements and organizations of the 1960s**

**Civil Rights Movement**

Two civil rights groups prominent in the struggle for African American rights in the sixties were the **Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)** and the **Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC)**. Review the breakdown on the next page to see how the SCLC and the SNCC started as similar organizations but grew to differ over time, especially in the SNCC’s changing composition.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **SCLC** | **SNCC** |
| **Founding** | Founded by Martin Luther King Jr. and other ministers and civil rights leaders | Founded by African American college students with $800 received from the SCLC |
| **Goal** | To carry on nonviolent crusades against the evils of second-class citizenship | To speed up changes mandated by *Brown v. Board of Education* |
| **Original Tactics** | Marches, protests, and demonstrations throughout the South, using churches as bases | **Sit-ins** at segregated lunch counters all across the South; registering African Americans to vote, in hopes they could influence Congress to pass a voting rights act |
| **Later Tactics** | Registering African Americans to vote, in hopes they could influence Congress to pass a voting rights act | **Freedom rides** on interstate buses to determine if southern states would enforce laws against segregation in public transportation |
| **Original Membership** | African American and white adults | African American and white college students |
| **Later Membership** | Same as original membership | African Americans only; no whites |
| **Original Philosophy** | Nonviolence | Nonviolence |
| **Later Philosophy** | Same as original philosophy | Militancy and violence; “black power” and African American pride |

**Anti–Vietnam War Movement**

Americans against the war in Vietnam became more vocal in their opposition. Many antiwar groups started on college campuses to urge the government to end selective service (the draft) and to bring home all American troops from Vietnam. They used many of the same tactics as groups fighting for civil rights, including sit-ins, marches, and demonstrations. Later, some protesters became more radical, burning their draft cards, going to prison rather than going to Vietnam, and even fleeing to Canada.

**Women’s Movement**

The **National Organization for Women** was founded in 1966 to promote equal rights and opportunities for America’s women. NOW had its origins in the civil rights and antiwar movements of the early 1960s. In both of these, women felt sidelined by the men who led organizations like the SNCC and anti–Vietnam War groups. NOW’s goals included equality in employment, political and social equality, and the passage of the equal rights amendment.

**United Farm Workers’ Movement**

Latinos also protested to gain civil rights in the 1960s. Their leader was **César Chávez**, an American of Mexican descent who grew up picking crops in California with his family. As founder of the United Farm Workers’ movement, Chávez believed in nonviolent methods to achieve his goals. In 1965, he started a nationwide boycott of California grapes, forcing grape growers to negotiate a contract with the United Farm Workers in 1970. This contract gave farm workers higher wages and other benefits for which they had been protesting through the sixties.

**Environmental Movement**

Protecting the environment became important to many Americans. *Silent Spring*, a 1962 book about pesticides by **Rachel Carson**, exposed dangers to the environment. This book led to the Water Quality Act of 1965. The first **Earth Day** was celebrated in 1970, when almost every community across America and over 10,000 schools and 2,000 colleges organized events to raise awareness of environmental issues; Earth Day is still celebrated each year. Also in 1970, President Nixon created the **Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)** to set limits on pollution, to conduct environmental research, and to assist state and local governments in the cleanup of polluted sites.

**Conservative Movement**

In 1964, the Republicans nominated Senator **Barry Goldwater** for president, which was a sign of the rising power of America’s conservative movement. Goldwater believed the federal government should not try to fix social and economic problems such as poverty, discrimination, or lack of opportunity. His conservative proposals included selling the Tennessee Valley Authority, making Social Security voluntary, and getting more involved in Vietnam. Goldwater lost the election to President Johnson, who said more American involvement in Vietnam would not solve the problems there.

The conservative movement continued with the 1968 candidacy and election of Republican **Richard M. Nixon**. He wanted to replace President Johnson’s Great Society programs with what he called the New Federalism. This conservative initiative would take away some federal government powers, such as social welfare, and give them to state and local governments.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period from 1945 to 1970, you should use your textbook to review

* Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)
* Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC)
* Sit-Ins
* Freedom Rides
* Anti–Vietnam War Movement
* Women’s Movement
* National Organization for Women (NOW)
* United Farm Workers’ Movement
* César Chávez
* Environmental Movement
* *Silent Spring*
* Rachel Carson
* Earth Day
* Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)
* Conservative Movement
* Barry Goldwater
* Richard M. Nixon

**Standard 25: Describe changes in national politics since 1968**

**Supreme Court Decisions**

The Supreme Court ruled on many cases that would change the perception of civil liberties and civil rights in America. Two controversial cases with the greatest impact were *Roe v. Wade* and *Regents of University of California v. Bakke* (also known as the Bakke decision).

• *Roe v. Wade*––1973––Addressed the right of women to choose whether to have an abortion under certain circumstances. By expanding the constitutional right of privacy to include abortion, the Court extended civil liberties protections.

• *Regents of University of California v. Bakke*––1978––Ruled race can be used when considering applicants to colleges, but racial quotas cannot be used. The Court barred the use of quota systems in college admissions but expanded Americans’ civil rights by giving constitutional protection to affirmative action programs that give equal access to minorities.

**Nixon and Ford Administrations**

**Richard Nixon’s** presidency was one of great successes and criminal scandals. **Nixon’s visit to China** in 1971 was one of the successes. He visited to seek scientific, cultural, and trade agreements and to take advantage of a 10-year standoff between China and the Soviet Union. Nixon hoped to have the Chinese on his side in case he had future negotiations with the Soviets. Later, Nixon was part of the **Watergate scandal**, which centered on his administration’s attempt to cover up a burglary of the offices of the Democratic Party in the Watergate apartment and office complex in Washington, D.C. The crime was committed by Nixon’s reelection campaign team, who sought political information. Nixon won reelection in 1972, but his efforts to cover up the crime soon unraveled and, facing impeachment, he resigned in 1974. The scandal left Americans dismayed by Nixon’s actions and cynical about politics in general. It also led to changes in campaign financing and to laws requiring high-level government officials to disclose their finances. Because Nixon and many of the people involved in Watergate were lawyers, the reputation of the legal profession suffered too.

Nixon was succeeded by his vice president, **Gerald Ford**, whose two-year presidency was damaged by his connection to Nixon. It was further damaged when he pardoned Nixon for any crimes he may have committed. One bright spot is that the Vietnam War ended during the Ford administration because it followed a path established by Nixon, but Ford’s domestic policies failed to stop growing inflation and unemployment, and America experienced its worst economic recession since the Great Depression.

**Carter Administration**

**Jimmy Carter**’s presidency was strongly influenced by international issues. He tried to bring peace to the Middle East and, in the **Camp David Accords**, negotiated a peace agreement between the Egyptian president and the Israeli prime minister at Camp David (a presidential retreat in Maryland) in 1978. This was the first time there had been a signed peace agreement between Middle Eastern nations. Although the agreement left many differences unresolved, it did solve urgent problems facing the two nations. In 1978, the **Iranian Revolution** replaced a shah (king) friendly to America with a Muslim religious leader unfriendly to America. When Carter let the shah enter the United States for medical treatment, angry Iranian revolutionaries invaded the U.S. embassy in Iran and took 52 Americans captive. The **Iranian hostage crisis** lasted 444 days, until the captives were released after the election of Ronald Reagan as president, and it nurtured anti-Americanism among Muslims around the world.

**Reagan Administration**

**Ronald Reagan** was president for much of the 1980s. During that time, many important events helped shape American politics to this day. As a conservative, Reagan wanted to decrease the size and role of the federal government.

• **Reaganomics** was the nickname for Reagan’s economic policy. It included budget cuts, tax cuts, and increased defense spending. By cutting social welfare budgets, his policy hurt lower-income Americans and, overall, Reaganomics led to a severe recession.

• The **Iran-Contra scandal** was Reagan’s biggest failure in international policy. Administration officials sold weapons to Iran––an enemy of the United States––and then violated more laws by using the profits from those arms sales to fund a rebellion in Nicaragua fought by rebels called the Contras (a Spanish nickname for “counter-revolutionaries”). Details of this scandal are still largely unknown to the public.

• The **collapse of the Soviet Union** was Reagan’s biggest success in international policy. The Soviet Union’s last leader set up policies allowing freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and other reforms, putting the U.S.S.R. on a path to democratic government. But these reforms got out of the leader’s control and eventually led to the breakup of the 15 states that were the Soviet Union. Five of those states now comprise Russia, and the other ten are independent countries.

**Clinton Administration**

**Bill Clinton’s** presidency included ratification of the **North American Free Trade Agreement. NAFTA** brought Mexico into a free-trade (tariff-free) zone already existing between the United States and Canada. Opponents believed NAFTA would send U.S. jobs to Mexico and harm the environment, while supporters believed it would open up the growing Mexican market to U.S. companies; these pros and cons are still argued today.

Clinton also became the second president in U.S. history to suffer **impeachment**. The House of Representatives charged him with perjury and obstruction of justice. The charges were based on accusations of improper use of money from a real estate deal and allegations he had lied under oath about an improper relationship with a White House intern. Clinton denied the charges and the Senate acquitted him, allowing Clinton to remain in office and finish his second term.

**2000 Presidential Election**

The presidential election of 2000 saw Clinton’s vice president, Al Gore, facing the Republican governor of Texas, George W. Bush, as well as consumer advocate Ralph Nader, who ran as a third-party candidate. Polls showed the race would be close, and it turned out to be one of the closest elections in American history. Gore won the national popular vote by over 500,000 of the 105 million votes cast, but when American voters cast ballots for president, the national popular vote has no legal significance. Rather, Americans are voting for members of the **Electoral College** representing each candidate. Each state is assigned “electors” in equal number to its total number of U.S. representatives and senators. (For example, Georgia had thirteen electors in 2000: eleven representatives and two senators.) In the 2000 election, Bush won by receiving 271 votes in the Electoral College to Gore’s 266.

**Bush Administration**

**George W. Bush’s** presidency will always be remembered for al-Qaeda’s attacks on September 11, 2001 (9/11). In response, and with overwhelming support of both Congress and the American people, Bush signed a law the next month to allow the U.S. government to hold foreign citizens suspected of being terrorists for up to seven days without charging them with a crime. This law also increased the ability of American law-enforcement agencies to search private communications and personal records. Then he created the Department of Homeland Security and charged it with protecting the United States from terrorist attacks and with responding to natural disasters.

In October 2001, another of Bush’s responses to the 9/11 terrorist attacks was his authorizing **Operation**

**Enduring Freedom**, the invasion of Afghanistan by the U.S. military and allied forces. That country’s

Taliban government was harboring the al-Qaeda leadership. The allied forces quickly defeated the Taliban government and destroyed the al-Qaeda network in Afghanistan; however, al-Qaeda leader

Osama bin Laden escaped.

The invasion of Afghanistan was part of Bush’s larger **war on terrorism**, for which he built an international coalition to fight the al-Qaeda network and other terrorist groups. In March 2003, American and British troops invaded Iraq in **Operation Iraqi Freedom**. Iraq’s president, Saddam Hussein, went into hiding while U.S. forces searched for the weapons of mass destruction (WMD) that Bush feared Hussein had and could supply to terrorists for use against the United States. No WMD were found before Hussein was captured. He was convicted of crimes against humanity and executed in 2006.

**Review Suggestions**

To prepare for questions about the period since 1968, you should use your textbook to review

* *Roe v. Wade*
* *Regents of University of California v. Bakke*
* Richard Nixon
* Nixon’s Visit to China
* Watergate Scandal
* Gerald Ford
* Jimmy Carter
* Camp David Accords
* Iranian Revolution
* Iranian Hostage Crisis
* Ronald Reagan
* Reaganomics
* Iran-Contra Scandal
* Collapse of Soviet Union
* Bill Clinton
* North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)
* Impeachment of Bill Clinton
* Electoral College
* George W. Bush
* Operation Enduring Freedom
* War on Terrorism
* Operation Iraqi Freedom