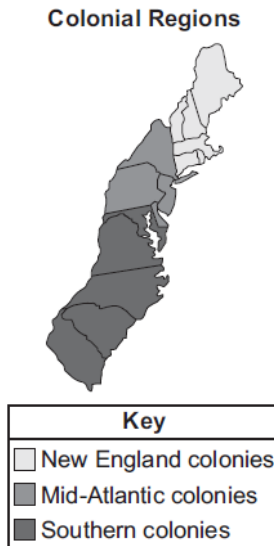


COLONIALISM

SSUSH1; SSUSH2

This unit will discuss Colonialism. You will learn about the American colonies, their development, diversity, and self-government, and about the role of mercantilism and trade in early America. You will also learn about the trans-Atlantic trade, including the Middle Passage that brought Africans to the New World as slaves.

KEY IDEAS



Southern Colonies

The Southern colonies were established primarily for economic reasons. The warm climate, long growing season, and fertile soil encouraged the development of a plantation economy. Crops such as tobacco, indigo, and rice required a large labor force to maintain, which created a dependence on the use of indentured servants and enslaved laborers, something not as prevalent in colonies farther north. While relations with American Indians in the Southern Colonies began peacefully, as more English colonists arrived and took over native lands, the relationship became more hostile. The expanding English population and the increasing economic development of the region contributed to growing tension between settlers and American Indians. (SSUSH1b)

New England Colonies

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 different religions. New England had a colder climate and rocky soil, so farming was more difficult in this region than in the other colonies. Because of this, the economy in New England relied more on trade, shipbuilding, fishing/whaling, and lumber than it did on agriculture. After some early and bloody conflicts that resulted in many American Indians leaving the area, settlers began to expand farther into southern New England. (SSUSH1c)

Mid-Atlantic Colonies

The Mid-Atlantic colonies were founded as money making ventures designed to make use of the good harbors and river systems that helped to transport goods toward the coast. American Indians in the Mid-Atlantic colonies were often more relied upon for trade with the English and not the target of war, as often happened in other colonial regions. Some groups were treated with respect and were compensated by the English for the loss of their land. These were the most ethnically and religiously diverse of the colonies. The primary products of the Mid-Atlantic colonies were agriculture (wheat, corn, and other grains), lumber, livestock, and iron ore and iron products. (SSUSH1d)

Mercantilism

The founders of the English 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. The American colonies were used as a source of raw materials for the English, which helped increase the wealth of the mother country. This also helped to foster a favorable balance of trade between the two regions: materials that were not available in England could be acquired from the colonies and manufactured goods that were not produced in the colonies could be acquired from England. (SSUSH1a)

Growth of the African Population

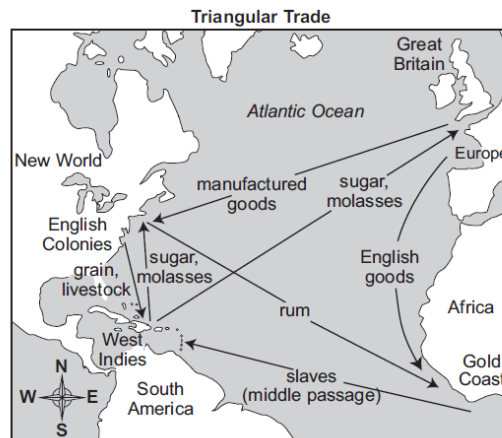
As tobacco farmers and other cash-crop farmers prospered, they greatly expanded the size of their farms. There were never enough workers available to plant, grow, and harvest the crops, so farmers turned to African slaves to do this work. When the Virginia Company founded Jamestown in 1607, there were no African slaves in English North America. By 1700, however, there were thousands of African slaves throughout the English 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. (SSUSH2b)

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, also known as the trans-Atlantic trade, made by the slave ships. Enslaved Africans were loaded aboard the ships. Between three and four hundred slaves were packed into cargo holds of these ships for the journey to North America. Conditions aboard the slave ships were horrific. About twenty percent of slaves did not survive the journey. (SSUSH2b)

Trans-Atlantic Trade

Also known as the triangular trade, this three-way voyage was made by merchant ships. First, English ships loaded with rum, cloth, and other English goods sailed to Africa, where these goods 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 England. Manufactured goods would be shipped to the colonies while raw goods arrived in England from the New World. This process was repeated for decades. (SSUSH2b)



African Population and Their Cultural Contributions

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 have come from a different tribe and a different part of Africa. (SSUSH2b)

The Great Awakening

During the 1730s, religion in Europe was changing. This was partially in reaction to earlier movements toward logic and reason and encouraged a more personal approach to faith and scripture. This change made its way to 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 with the development of new denominations and increased opportunities for church members to become involved in leadership positions. 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. (SSUSH2d)

Salutary Neglect

Beginning in the 1720s, the American colonies had more freedom to trade and govern themselves because the English government adopted a policy of Salutary Neglect. It was believed that the colonies would be more profitable for the English government if they had fewer regulations placed on them. This enabled the colonies to develop local methods of self-governance, including colonial governors and elected legislatures. Colonies levied their own local taxes and held town meetings to make decisions on issues. This policy of Salutary Neglect contributed to Americans' confidence in their ability to self-govern and to the development of an independent American identity, which, in turn, contributed to eventual conflict between England and the colonies. (SSUSH2c)

REVOLUTION AND CONSTITUTION

SSUSH3; SSUSH4; SSUSH5

This unit examines the causes, progress, and results of the American Revolution. This unit will focus on early American documents such as the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution. You will study the roles of women, American Indians, and free and enslaved Blacks in the Revolution and learn about how important leaders in colonial government worked to form and strengthen the new nation.

KEY IDEAS

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. American Indians tended to support the French because as fur traders, the French were not as focused as the English on building 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. (SSUSH3a)

Additionally, the treaty gave the British government more control over its 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 American Indians as well as to keep colonists in designated areas to allow the government to gain much-needed revenue. (SSUSH3b)

Colonial Resistance

England'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. (SSUSH3b)

- **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. These acts, along with the suspension of the Massachusetts colonial government, were designed to discourage the colonists from resisting British authority, but in fact unified them to work against the British government. (SSUSH3b)

Committees of Correspondence

The Committees of Correspondence formed in reaction to the passage of the Stamp Act. Their purpose was to keep colonies in communication about issues of concern to the colonists, particularly in relation to British actions or legislation. These committees helped to protest actions that the colonists believed were unfair.

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. (SSUSH3b)

Common Sense

In January 1776, **Thomas Paine** published **Common Sense**. This small 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. Some of these arguments were the following:

- The Atlantic Ocean was too wide to allow Britain to rule America as well as an American government could.
- It was foolish to think an island could rule a continent.
- 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. (SSUSH3c)

Committee of Five

Five delegates were chosen by the Continental Congress to write a rationale for independence. They were: Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Robert Livingston, and Roger Sherman. This group eventually presented a draft of the Declaration of Independence (primarily written by Jefferson) to the Continental Congress for review. (SSUSH4a)

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. 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. (SSUSH4a)

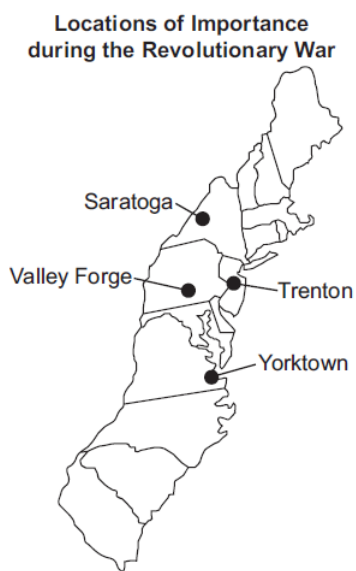
George Washington and the Continental Army

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.

This training program was aided by **Baron von Steuben**, a Prussian military officer who had experience in training troops for battle and typical 18th century combat techniques. He developed uniform military drills and practices to make Washington's untrained army into a more effective, well-trained fighting force. Life was hard for the common soldier in the Continental Army. Enlistments lasted from one to three years, and the states differed in how they treated their soldiers in terms of the following: how well and how often they paid their soldiers; how they housed them when they were not on the march; and how they 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. In winter of 1777–1778, the Continental Army faced one of its most difficult trials at **Valley Forge**. It suffered from starvation, disease, and the lack of adequate shelter. Despite its hardships, under the leadership of George Washington, the army was able to remain together and receive valuable training so that it could fight the British in 1778. (SSUSH4c)

French Alliance

France decided to support the Americans during the Revolution as a result of the American victory at the **Battle of Saratoga** in 1777. Benjamin Franklin, the American diplomat in Paris, signed economic and military treaties with France for the United States. France sent army and navy units to fight on the side of the Americans. Military specialists such as the **Marquis de Lafayette** assisted in the training of American forces. Lafayette worked closely with George Washington and was very successful and brave during many battles of the American Revolution. The assistance of the French navy (at the Battle of Yorktown in particular) and trainers like Lafayette were instrumental in winning the British surrender. (SSUSH4b)



Yorktown

In 1781, with the help of the French navy, which prevented the British from escaping, the American forces were able to defeat the British in three weeks of fighting. British General Cornwallis surrendered to George Washington at Yorktown on October 17, 1781. This victory marked the end of the American Revolution. (SSUSH4d)

Free Blacks during the Revolution

Enslaved and free Blacks, in many cases, viewed the American Revolution as an opportunity for expanding their own rights with the basis for revolution being a call to protect natural rights. Estimates suggest at least 5,000 enslaved and free Blacks fought with the Patriots. However, those who fought with the Continental Army and with the colonial militia groups did not receive their freedom (if they were enslaved) or equal rights (if they were free) following the conclusion of the Revolutionary War. (SSUSH4e)

1783 Treaty of Paris

The 1783 Treaty of Paris formally concluded 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. (SSUSH4f)

Articles of Confederation and Shays' Rebellion

The Articles of Confederation was America's first constitution, written during the American Revolution. Since the country was seeking to overthrow the British, a government many colonists believed had taken away important rights, it is not surprising the Articles granted the national government very few powers. There was no executive branch, so foreign policy was conducted by Congress; Congress could print money but did not have the power to tax, making the national currency almost worthless. Congress could maintain the army but had to ask the states for troops, as Congress could not draft soldiers. There was no national court system, so Congress could not enforce the laws it passed. This was left up to the individual states. 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. In spite of these severe limitations, the national government under the Articles of Confederation did pass some significant laws. The Land Ordinance (1785) laid the foundations for surveying new lands, created a method of organizing and selling the land, and became an important source of revenue for the national government. The law also required land be set aside for schools. The national government used the Land Ordinance for the next 72 years, until the passage of the Homestead Act in 1862; over three-quarters of the continental United States was surveyed under this law. The Northwest Ordinance (1787) was also an influential law passed under the Articles. It helped solve competing land claims between the new states and gave the national government the right to administer new territories and decide when they could become states. Both of the laws helped ensure property rights, rule of law, and education for settlers in the new lands. However, the lack of national power eventually made the country difficult to govern and administer; **Shays' Rebellion** (1786) showed many citizens that a revision or replacement of the Articles of Confederation was necessary.

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' Rebellion, George Washington supported the establishment of a stronger central government. In May 1787, he was elected president of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, where he and many leaders, including the Founding Fathers, created a federal form of government for the United States. Under the federal system of government, the national and state governments would share powers to ensure neither level of government would have absolute power. (SSUSH5a, b)

Constitutional Convention

At the 1787 Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, delegates from all thirteen states met to discuss revisions to the Articles of Confederation. The delegates quickly decided that revising the Articles of Confederation would not be enough. They decided to write a new constitution for the country. During the Constitutional Convention, delegates became organized into two groups: **Federalists** and **Anti-Federalists**. Federalists like **Alexander Hamilton** and **James Madison** generally wanted a strong national government that could handle national economic, political, and diplomatic issues for the country. Anti-Federalists, on

the other hand, wanted to maintain the sovereignty of the individual states. They were concerned that too much power would be given to the national government and the states would lose control over their individual interests. They believed that a national government with a strong executive branch would be able to dominate the states and take away the rights of individual citizens. In particular, delegates from the small states worried that they would lose representation in a national government that favored states with larger populations.

Eventually, the delegates reached a compromise known as the **Great Compromise**. James Madison managed to convince the delegates from the small states and large states to give up some of their demands. Under the compromise, the Constitution would create a system of checks and balances among the three branches of government: the executive, the legislative, and the judicial. The compromise also created a legislative branch with two houses (the House of Representatives and the Senate) that satisfied the concerns of representation that the small states and large states had.

Another concern Anti-Federalists had was the rights of individuals and states. They wanted to guarantee personal liberties that were not already included in the Constitution. Federalists had argued that a strong national government would not infringe upon these liberties because it was understood that these were natural rights. However, before enough of the Anti-Federalist delegates would agree to the Constitution, they insisted that these liberties be included. James Madison promised those delegates that these rights would be added as amendments to the Constitution. These became known as the **Bill of Rights**, which was added in 1791. In ten separate amendments, the Bill of Rights protected individual and states' rights. (SSUSH5c, d, e)

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 issues 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. (SSUSH5c)

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. Additionally, the Northwest Ordinance mandated the establishment of public schools in the Northwest Territory. (SSUSH5a)

EARLY REPUBLIC, EXPANSION, AND REFORM

SSUSH6; SSUSH7

In this unit, you will examine the challenges faced by the first five presidents of the new nation. This will include learning about the role of expansion in the American economy and culture, and how social reform movements developed during periods such as the Second Great Awakening.

KEY IDEAS

Presidency of George Washington

The first president of the United States was **George Washington**. He was the most popular person in the country because of his leadership of the Continental Army during the American Revolution. As the first president, Washington had to create the role of chief executive, setting precedents (or patterns) for future presidents to follow. These included the establishment of a cabinet, limiting himself to two terms in office, and establishing the constitutional authority to enforce laws. He was challenged in his presidency with paying the debts for the Revolutionary War, which led Congress to try to obtain funds to pay the debts by taxing whiskey. This was resisted and Washington had to send the military to stop the rebellion, establishing the precedent of presidential authority for the enforcement of laws. In his Farewell Address, he recommended avoiding involvement in foreign conflicts or the establishment of foreign political alliances (trade alliances were encouraged), and he warned about the danger of political parties. (SSUSH6a)

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. The Alien and Sedition Acts extended the citizenship requirement for the naturalization process from five years to fourteen years. The executive branch could deport any immigrant aliens who were considered dangerous. Congress also tried to stop the criticism with attempts to limit the speech and press rights of Jefferson's followers. The **Sedition Act** made it a crime for United States citizens to conspire against legal measures passed by the government, interfere with the business of government officials, or promote insurrection. It also made it a crime to write, publish, or speak anything of "a false, scandalous, and malicious nature" about the government or elected officials. Jefferson and Madison then argued about whether states could refuse to enforce federal laws they did not agree with. These actions damaged Adams' chances for re-election in 1800, which resulted in the Democratic-Republicans gaining power over the executive and legislative branches. Despite the conflict and disagreement involved in the election and the issues of state versus federal power, the nation moved peacefully from control by one political party to control by another. (SSUSH6b)

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. The Constitution did not give the president authority to purchase new territory. Jefferson believed the purchase was too important and negotiated the treaty and presented it to Congress for ratification. This set the precedent for the president being able to do things not expressly listed in the Constitution. (SSUSH6c)

War of 1812

In 1812, America declared war on Great Britain, which was already at war with France. Britain and France had been at war since 1789. Americans were often caught in the middle as British and French naval forces seized American ships and crews. Earlier Presidents were able to steer a middle course and avoid a declared war in Europe by using diplomacy and attempting embargoes. However, renewed warfare in 1809 intensified tensions between the British and the United States. On June 12, 1812, President Madison asked for a war declaration from Congress. The **War of 1812** officially began.

Instead of hurting the economy, the war served to stimulate America's economic growth. Due to the British blockade of America's coast, manufacturing began to quickly develop in the United States. The war ended any further military hostility between the United States and Great Britain. A new American identity also developed as a result of the War of 1812. Americans had fought the British twice and were still an independent nation. A belief began to emerge in North America, as well as Europe, that the United States was not an experiment in self-government that would eventually be subsumed by Britain or some other European power. Instead, the United States was a nation that had transitioned from a young and vulnerable situation to one of strength and viability. James Madison faced the challenge of war with Britain and emerged with bright prospects for the future. (SSUSH6d)

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. (SSUSH6e)

Nullification Crisis

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. John C. 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**. It also contributed to the development of states' rights ideology in the South. This was the idea that states have certain rights and political powers different from those held by the federal government and that the federal government may not violate these rights. The idea of states' rights had first appeared during the debates of the Constitutional Convention. The idea of states' rights would become closely tied to the issue of slavery in the South. (SSUSH7a)

Reform Movements

To prepare for questions related to the standards, 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.	The Second Great Awakening strengthened the temperance movement and sought to protect families by using moral arguments against alcohol, suggesting that alcohol was to blame for poverty and for the abuse of women and children. (SSUSH7c)
Abolition	Slavery should be abolished, and it should not be allowed in new states.	Abolition movements had been in place long before the Second Great Awakening, but these religious revivals encouraged an increase in abolitionist fervor. Some abolitionists favored immediate freedom, some wanted gradual emancipation, and some wanted slaves freed and returned to Africa. Slave rebellions such as Nat Turner's were sometimes led by religious leaders. (SSUSH7d)
Public School	All children should be required to attend free schools supported by taxpayers and staffed by trained teachers.	Followers of religious movements during this period supported more education for all classes of society. They felt that a public education was necessary for democracy. Schools would help to create a good and moral society and prevent social ills. (SSUSH7c)

Jacksonian Democracy

President Andrew Jackson and his supporters shared a political philosophy later referred to as “Jacksonian Democracy.” It sought to broaden public participation in government, so voting rights were expanded to include all adult white males, not just landowners. The expansion of suffrage resulted in the development of a **popular political culture** that appealed to the “common man.” Jackson’s presidential campaigns caused an increase in public participation in politics and an increase in controversy. Jackson’s supporters accused his opponents of misusing public funds and being elitists. His opponents accused him of personal misconduct in his marriage and of massacring American Indians. These accusations were publicized in songs, pamphlets, and posters. They were spread at the first-ever campaign rallies. (SSUSH7a)

Indian Removal Act

The Indian Removal Act of 1830 was designed to increase the land that was available for white settlement. This act forced thousands of American Indians to leave their land and move west of the Mississippi River. They were promised land in the West in exchange for the land they left in the East. Not all tribes complied with this law, and the Cherokee nation took the issue to the Supreme Court. John Marshall and the court agreed with the tribe, but President Andrew Jackson refused to enforce the ruling. In 1835, the Cherokee in Georgia surrendered their lands. Their movement to new land in the West was called the Trail of Tears. Thousands of American Indians died along the way due to starvation, disease, and exhaustion. (SSUSH7a)

Women’s Suffrage Movement

The women’s suffrage movement emerged in the first half of the 19th century out of women’s frustration that the U.S. Constitution did not guarantee women many rights and did not allow women to vote in elections. Middle-class women who had worked in the abolitionist movement and other reform movements met to discuss the role of women in American society. Of primary concern was the right of women to vote. (SSUSH7c)

Henry Clay and the American System

The American System was Henry Clay's plan for expanding production in the United States. In this plan, he encouraged Congress to pass protective tariffs to make imported goods more expensive than American products. He also wanted federal funding for roads, canals, and railroads, and wanted the re-establishment of a National Bank. These changes helped to improve economic stability and industrialize American production. (SSUSH7b)

Abolition

By 1820, although racial discrimination against African Americans or Blacks 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. (SSUSH7d)

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 pro-slavery 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, pro-slavery and anti-slavery politicians made slavery a central issue in national politics. (SSUSH7d)

SECTIONALISM, CIVIL WAR, AND RECONSTRUCTION

SSUSH8; SSUSH9; SSUSH10

In this unit, you will study how sectional differences, slavery, and westward expansion all contributed to the outbreak of the Civil War. You will study key figures in the war, including President Abraham Lincoln and important generals, and the impact of location on important battles during the war. After the war, putting the country back together created a challenge as efforts toward Reconstruction had both successes and failures.

KEY IDEAS

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 American Indians and Mexican people. People believed that spreading democracy, faith, and western culture across the continent was part of a divine plan. This belief can be shown in the addition of western lands through the annexation of Texas and part of Oregon by President James K. Polk. Manifest Destiny became a popular political thought in the United States during the early 19th century. (SSUSH8b)

Missouri Compromise

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 pro-slavery and anti-slavery 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 pro-slavery and anti-slavery senators—until the next state asked to enter the Union. (SSUSH8a)

Mexican 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. (SSUSH8c)

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 agreed to five laws that addressed these concerns. They included 1) California was admitted as a free state; 2) Utah Territory and New Mexico Territory were organized with slavery to be decided by popular sovereignty; 3) Texas's boundaries were established and the federal government assumed Texas's preannexation debts; 4) the slave trade was abolished in Washington, D.C.; and 5) the Fugitive Slave Act was strengthened. Collectively, the five laws are known as the **Compromise of 1850**. The Compromise of 1850 eased sectional tensions over slavery for a short time. (SSUSH8d)

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 pro-slavery doctrine, **popular sovereignty** (rule by the people), the law of the United States. Popular sovereignty was a democratic political principle that appeared in the preamble of the U.S. Constitution. However, by the middle of the 19th century, it had become closely associated with slavery. Pro-slavery supporters argued that the people of the individual states and territories should decide whether or not to admit slavery in their borders, not the federal government.

Pro- and anti-slavery groups hurried into Kansas in attempts to create voting majorities there. Anti-slavery abolitionists came from eastern states; pro-slavery 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. Pro-slavery voters elected a legislature ready to make Kansas a slave state. Abolitionists then elected a rival Kansas government with an anti-slavery constitution, established a different capital city, and raised an army. Pro-slavery 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 pro-slavery Kansans. Violence broke out signaling the failure of popular sovereignty. (SSUSH8e)

Scott v. Sanford

Often referred to as the Dred Scott decision, the 1857 ruling settled a lawsuit in which a slave named Dred Scott claimed he should be a free man. Scott had lived with his master in slave states and in free states and believed he had been held illegally in the free states. The Supreme Court rejected Scott's claim, ruling that no enslaved or free Black could be a citizen of the United States. 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 United States Constitution. In essence, nothing short of a constitutional amendment could end slavery. (SSUSH8e)

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 pro-slavery 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 pro-slavery 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. Others thought he was an abolitionist martyr. (SSUSH8e)

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**, pages 42 and 43). 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. (SSUSH9b)

A Comparison of the North and the 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. The North had a larger manufacturing economy and produced more steel and war materials than the South. The South relied heavily on cash-crop agriculture for its economy, while the North was able to build more factories and provide 92% of the nation's industrial output. The North also had 71% of the country's population, only 1% of which was enslaved. The North had a much larger railroad network to move goods, troops, and supplies. The South made up for its shortcomings through strong military leadership that relied on efficiency and strategy to prolong the war. In the end, the numerical and industrial superiority of the northern economy proved too much for the South to overcome. (SSUSH9a)

Emancipation Proclamation

Lincoln used his emergency powers 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. (SSUSH9b)

Habeas Corpus

Not all Northerners supported President Lincoln’s efforts to preserve the Union. Some were Confederate sympathizers. Throughout the war, in some states Lincoln suspended the constitutional right of **habeas corpus**—the legal right that anyone imprisoned must be taken before a judge to determine if the prisoner is being legally held in custody. Lincoln used his emergency powers to legalize the holding of Confederate sympathizers without trial and without the approval of a judge. Over 13,000 Confederate sympathizers were arrested in the North. (SSUSH9b)

Key Leaders of the Civil War (SSUSH9c)

	North	South
Presidents	<p>Abraham Lincoln</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • President of United States of America, 1861–1865 • Greatly expanded the role of the national government during the Civil War • Appointed Gen. Ulysses S. Grant commanding general of Union armies • Rallied support among the North to keep the Union intact • Supported reconciliation plans between the North and South once the war ended • Issued Emancipation Proclamation • Supported Thirteenth Amendment to Constitution 	<p>Jefferson Davis</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • President of Confederate States of America, 1861–1865 • Appointed Robert E. Lee as general-in-chief of Confederate armies • Sought international recognition for the Confederate States of America, but was unsuccessful • Ineffectual as national leader, limited economic and military successes • Not an early supporter of secession, but believed any state had the right to do so • After the War, made efforts to reconcile the South and North, but remained an icon of Southern pride
Generals	<p>Ulysses S. Grant</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Became leader of Union armies in March of 1864 • Won first Union victories • Had reputation as one of the few aggressive Northern military leaders • Forced Confederate Army into a series of battles that destroyed Southern military power • Accepted surrender at Appomattox of Confederate Gen. Lee to end Civil War 	<p>Robert E. Lee</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Became leader of the Confederate Army in June of 1862 • Strongly opposed southern secession from the Union, but felt honor-bound to follow his home state of Virginia’s decision • Was asked by Abraham Lincoln’s administration to take command of Northern military unit but declined
	<p>William T. Sherman</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recalled to U.S. Army in June of 1861 • Led units in victories at Shiloh, Vicksburg, and Chattanooga • His decisive victory in capturing Atlanta was instrumental in helping Lincoln win reelection • His views on “total war” lead to his March to the Sea and the widespread destruction of civilian morale and infrastructure • Provided humanitarian aid to newly freed slaves in the South 	<p>Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Was a professor at Virginia Military Institute—part of his original curriculum is still taught • Became leader of the “Stonewall Brigade” composed of Virginia Infantry • Is today considered an innovative military commander; he was popular among Confederate soldiers • His victories against larger Union forces made him personally popular in the South • Accidentally shot by his own troops; his death affected the morale of both Southern soldiers and civilians alike

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 east 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 clear 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 outcome of this battle 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 the 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. (SSUSH9d)

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. (SSUSH9b)

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. (SSUSH9b)

Reconstruction Plans

Presidential Reconstruction

The Reconstruction plans begun by President Abraham Lincoln and President Andrew Johnson 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, especially a group known as the Radical Republicans, were outraged by the fact that the new Southern state governments were passing laws that deprived the newly freed slaves of their rights. (SSUSH10a)

Congressional 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. (SSUSH10a, c)

Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands

Congress created the **Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands** in 1865 to help African Americans or Blacks make the transition to freedom. The Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands helped former slaves solve everyday problems by providing food, clothing, jobs, medicine, and medical care facilities. While the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands did help some former slaves acquire land unclaimed by 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 or Blacks with some level of economic independence. The Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands ceased operations in 1872. (SSUSH10b)

Impeachment of President Andrew Johnson

During the Reconstruction period, one 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 and convicting) 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. (SSUSH10a)

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 or Blacks 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 or Blacks 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. When the soldiers left and white Southerners regained control of their state governments, African Americans or Blacks were left unprotected. The new Southern governments quickly passed laws that deprived African Americans or Blacks of their rights and worked to strengthen the segregation of Southern society. (SSUSH10d)

Election of 1876

In the **Presidential election of 1876**, the Democrats nominated Samuel J. Tilden and the Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes to be their candidates. Tilden won the popular vote by 260,000 votes, but failed to carry a majority of the Electoral College votes. The Electoral votes in four states (Florida, Louisiana, Oregon, and South Carolina) were disputed. A special federal commission was appointed to sort out the Electoral College dispute. The commission awarded the Republican, Hayes, the election along straight party lines. To stem the crisis, Hayes met with Democratic members of the House of Representatives and worked out the **Compromise of 1877**. In exchange for Democrats' support, Hayes agreed to support internal improvements for the South, appoint a Southerner to the Cabinet, and withdraw federal troops from the South. Shortly after his inauguration in March of 1877, President Hayes ordered the removal of federal troops from the South. Republican dominated state governments collapsed across the South and Blacks were slowly disenfranchised by state laws. Reconstruction had ended. (SSUSH10e)

EXPANSION AND REFORM

SSUSH11; SSUSH12; SSUSH13; SSUSH14

This unit continues your examination of expansion in America, focusing on the role of business, innovation, and the effects of Manifest Destiny on various groups. This unit also discusses labor unions, social reform efforts, Progressivism, and Supreme Court decisions on issues such as segregation.

KEY IDEAS

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. Asian and Irish immigrants accepted lower pay than other laborers demanded. The work was dangerous. Many workers died in the explosive blasts they ignited to clear the path across the railroad companies' land. Many others died under rockslides and heavy snowfalls before the first **transcontinental railroad** was completed in 1869. (SSUSH11a)

Growth of Big Business....

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. Large steel corporations, such as Carnegie Steel, produced more steel than any other company in the world. Andrew Carnegie, owner of Carnegie Steel, used his company to control all parts of the steel production process. By forming a monopoly in the steel industry, he was able to limit competition and control the prices for his goods. These practices often hurt small businesses and consumers. 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. (SSUSH11a)

Key Inventions and U.S. Infrastructure

Changes in communication, as well as the expansion of railroads, helped to better connect the quickly expanding West with the industrializing East. The transfer of information, resources, and marketable goods connected all regions of the United States. **Telegraph** communication was the first nationwide information transmitter. In 1876, Alexander Graham Bell further expanded on the telegraph's capability for instant communication. He invented the **telephone**, which allowed for voice-to-voice communication over electric wires. Another innovation of the period was the light bulb, invented by Thomas Edison. Not only did this development allow factories to be lit and operate twenty-four hours a day, but the light bulb also illuminated buildings, streets, and neighborhoods across the United States. With greater technological innovation, such as the telegraph, telephone, and electric light bulb came greater connectivity and productivity for the development of industry in the United States. The late nineteenth century was a time of great change in the way people lived and conducted business in part because of these inventions. (SSUSH11c)

Oil

Oil companies, most notably one founded by **John D. Rockefeller**, grew swiftly during this period. Rockefeller's company 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.

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. 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. (SSUSH11a, b)

American Indian Resistance

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, American Indians had to compete with these newcomers for land. The use of barbed-wire fencing for cattle limited the free movement of the Plains Indians, who followed the buffalo herds. New farming techniques made the land more attractive to white settlers and changed the landscape that the Plains Indians had known. The transcontinental railroad and westward expansion decimated the buffalo herds that Plains Indians depended on for survival. This, along with conflict over lands (especially the Black Hills), led to a series of Indian Wars. Many Plains Indians fled to Canada to avoid being placed on reservations, only to return when they were unable to feed their tribe. Years of conflict and bloodshed ended finally with the defeat of American Indians and their removal from their traditional lands. (SSUSH12c)

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 and **Angel Island** in San Francisco Bay. (SSUSH11d)

American Federation of Labor

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 formed to convince employers to give workers shorter workdays, better working conditions, higher wages, and greater control over how they carried out their workplace responsibilities. These goals were often met through the use of labor strikes. (SSUSH11e)

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. (SSUSH13b)

During this period, voters had more opportunities to make their voices heard. The use of initiative/ referendum and recall votes allowed voters to help suggest and approve laws directly or even remove politicians who were unsatisfactory.

Another reform of the time was the Progressive **conservation movement**, which conserved millions of acres of wilderness lands, particularly in western states. The movement led to the establishment of a national park system that included Yosemite in California and Yellowstone in Wyoming. (SSUSH13d)

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**. Muckrakers brought attention to dangerous working conditions faced by immigrant workers in the meat processing industry (*The Jungle*), unfair business practices in large companies (*History of the Standard Oil Company*), and the unhealthy living conditions of the poor in American cities (*How the Other Half Lives*). (SSUSH13a)

African American or Black Rights

Race relations in the South worsened. African Americans or Blacks 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 or Blacks.

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 or Blacks. 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 or Blacks disagreed about how to best oppose Jim Crow laws. One group, which sought full social and economic equality for African Americans or Blacks, eventually formed the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People to seek full civil rights for African Americans or Blacks. Better known today as the **NAACP**, this group still keeps its original name in honor of those who founded it to help overturn *Plessy v. Ferguson*. (SSUSH13c)

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 imperialism** 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. (SSUSH14a)

War in the Philippines

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. (SSUSH14a)

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. (SSUSH14b)

WORLD WAR I AND THE 1920s

SSUSH15; SSUSH16

This unit studies U.S. involvement in and after World War I. This includes the home front effects of the war, the effects of the war on American politics and international involvement (including the League of Nations), as well as how fears of communism contributed to events and social unrest. You will also study the effects and development of the 18th and 19th Amendments.

KEY IDEAS

World War I—Neutrality to Engagement

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 resolved only 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. Another contributing factor was the **Zimmermann Telegram**, a message in which the German government asked Mexico to join the war on the side of the Germans against the United States. This telegram was intercepted by British spies and given to President Wilson. When the information was made public, American public opinion began to support going to war with Germany. This heightened tension led to the United States' decision to enter the war. (SSUSH15a)

Isolationism

During World War I, 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, congressional 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. (SSUSH15c)

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 Soviet flag. This fear led to the government's pursuit of suspected communists and socialists. (SSUSH16a)

Mass Production, Ads, Consumerism, and Henry Ford

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.

While Henry Ford is remembered for using mass production techniques to produce the automobile, there was another aspect to Ford that had as much significance. Ford was a highly effective marketer. The Model T was marketed and sold using what were, for the time, highly advanced techniques. In terms of production, Ford used mass production, attention to cost savings, and a level of standardization unmatched in the world of auto manufacturing. Over ten years, the cost for a new Model T went from almost a thousand dollars to just \$280. However, Ford used sophisticated advertising, including the new medium of radio and movies, to reach customers. He also offered an option that few other manufacturers offered—credit. If you needed to buy your car over one or two years, Ford made credit available to his customers. It was an idea many companies quickly followed, but like mass-produced cars, Ford was the first. All of this came just after WWI, when the economy began to grow—The Roaring Twenties—and Ford made sure Americans spent what they could on goods that had become necessities to many. (SSUSH16c)

Modern Forms of Cultural Expression—Jazz and the Harlem Renaissance

The decade after WWI included not only an economic boom, but also an explosion in cultural expression that affected every element of American society. The Great Migration significantly increased the African American populations in cities in the Northeast and the Midwest. African Americans or Blacks were crowded into segregated neighborhoods near city centers, but African American or Black culture gained the acceptance of mainstream America. During the 1920s, a wave of creativity that washed over Harlem celebrated African American or Black culture through words and song. This is known as the **Harlem Renaissance**. African American or Black 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 developed by musicians in New Orleans and elsewhere in the South. Jazz was

originally associated with Blacks in the South, but musicians such as Louis Armstrong and Duke Ellington helped jazz develop both a national and international audience. It was an original American art form and became very popular in the 1920s. The 1920s and 1930s became known as an American era of music. (SSUSH16e)

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 reaction against immigrants resulted in the passage of legislation that set limits on the number of immigrants who could come from each country. (SSUSH16a)

World War I—Impacts

The war created jobs in northeastern and midwestern cities. African Americans, tired of living under the repression that was common in the South, and having lost jobs as sharecroppers because of the effects of boll weevil infestations on cotton crops, 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 the United States' enemies. President Woodrow 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. He was also permanently forbidden to vote. The Supreme Court later upheld Debs' conviction after a series of appeals. President Harding commuted Debs' sentence after he served three years in federal prison. During his time in prison, Debs continued his bid as a Socialist candidate for the White House. Many people supported laws such as the Espionage Act although they violated the spirit of the First Amendment. (SSUSH15b)

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. The alcohol temperance movement was also instrumental in raising public support for banning alcohol. 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. (SSUSH16b)

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. (SSUSH16d)

GREAT DEPRESSION AND WORLD WAR II

SSUSH17; SSUSH18; SSUSH19

After World War I and the roaring 20s, the United States fell into an economic depression. This unit will examine the causes, effects, and recovery efforts involved in the Great Depression. You will study how the United States became involved in World War II, and how the war affected Americans at home and soldiers in the field.

KEY IDEAS

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 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. Larger numbers of people also engaged in **stock market speculation**. 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 stock. As more people sold their stock, other people panicked and sold their stock, driving down 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. (SSUSH17a)

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 Great 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.

In the first presidential election during the Great Depression, American voters rejected Herbert Hoover and voted in Franklin D. Roosevelt. Roosevelt used the name **"New Deal"** for his series of programs to end the Depression. He promised these programs would help different segments of the economy recover by addressing specific needs and weaknesses. (SSUSH17c, 18a)

Dust Bowl

In the 1930s, the Great Plains states experienced 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 west** to California in search of work. (SSUSH17b)

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.

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 (SSUSH18b)

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 believed that his efforts to "pack the court" to gain support for his New Deal programs was attacking the independence of the judiciary and was unconstitutional. Some, like Louisiana senator Huey P. Long, thought that the New Deal had not gone far enough to promote Socialism and eliminate inequality in America. (SSUSH18c)

As first lady, Eleanor Roosevelt focused on humanitarian causes and social progress. She advocated for women and African Americans or Blacks, and helped to end discriminatory practices associated with New Deal legislation. She is also credited with changing the role of First Ladies from that of passive spouses to women who use their position of influence to address societal issues. (SSUSH18d)

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 or damaged. 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 that all people of Japanese ancestry be moved from California and parts of Washington, Oregon, and Arizona to rural **internment** camps. Although most of the people imprisoned in these camps were Japanese Americans, there were also small numbers of German Americans and Italian Americans imprisoned under the same law. (SSUSH19a)

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 U.S. armed forces. So great was the need of the military that 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 entirety of American industry was converted to supply 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 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. One 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. (SSUSH19d)

Neutrality

In Europe, World War II started long before America entered it. To prevent President Roosevelt from involving the country in what some saw as a European war, Congress passed a series of laws to make it illegal to sell arms or make loans to nations at war. The fourth of these laws, called Neutrality 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. (SSUSH19a)

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. (SSUSH19a)

Pacific Theater Battles....

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. (SSUSH19b)

European Theater....

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 amphibious 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. (SSUSH19c)

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. (SSUSH19c)

Atomic 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 project's code name was the **Manhattan Project**. The American government had developed 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. (SSUSH19b)

Domestic Impact of WWII

After the Japanese attack of Pearl Harbor, most citizens understood they would need to make sacrifices in order to provide the resources to win the war. All areas of life were affected; for example, food and gasoline were rationed, some production (such as new cars) was banned, and companies made the massive transition to a wartime economy. With 20 million men in uniform, women stepped into jobs that were previously reserved for men; aircraft production, steel production, shipbuilding, transportation—the list is almost endless. Unfortunately, Black workers did not enjoy many of the same opportunities. Both persistent discrimination in employment and segregation in the military prevented many Blacks from expanded opportunities. (SSUSH19d)

COLD WAR AND CIVIL RIGHTS

SSUSH20; SSUSH21

This unit will focus on the Cold War, the Civil Rights Movement, and technological innovation and education, as well as social and domestic issues during this period. The contributions of Presidents Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson will be included in your study of these events.

KEY IDEAS

Cold War Foreign Policies....

Marshall Plan

The European Recovery Program, better known as the **Marshall Plan** for Secretary of State George Marshall, was the United States' 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 economics 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. (SSUSH20a)

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. (SSUSH20a)

Truman Doctrine

In 1947, President Harry S. Truman proclaimed the **Truman Doctrine**. It stated that 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 Soviet Union, anyone who heard the declaration, including Soviet leaders, knew Truman was talking about them. (SSUSH20a)

Cold War Continued....

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 to isolate and defeat it. Driving North Korean forces back across the Korean 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. Eventually, the war ended in a stalemate, with neither side declaring victory. (SSUSH20a)

McCarthyism

Americans had an increased fear of communism after a communist regime took control of China in 1949 and the United States and South Korea went to war against North Korean communists who were 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 the 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. (SSUSH20b)

Cuba

In 1956, Fidel Castro led a revolution in Cuba. 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. The small force was crushed by Castro after President John F. Kennedy refused to involve the U.S. armed forces.

The Soviet Union believed that because Kennedy refused to involve the American military in Cuban affairs, he would not interfere if the Soviets built military missile launchers 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 immediately. Finally, the Soviets agreed to remove their missiles if the United States would remove its missiles installed in Turkey. The two nations removed their missiles in what is now known as the Cuban missile crisis. (SSUSH21a)

Vietnam War

The **Vietnam War** was a struggle for control of Vietnam. While the conflict originally began during 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 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 guerilla warfare. In 1968, the Vietcong and the 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 President Lyndon Johnson had told them America was winning the war. (SSUSH21a, e)

Civil Rights Movement....

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. (SSUSH21d)

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.

- 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. (SSUSH20b)

Murder in Dallas

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

1. The assassination showed Americans just how strong their government was because although the president had been killed, the U.S. government would live on.
2. The assassination gave the new president, Lyndon Johnson, the political capital to force a 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 U.S. schools and other public places. (SSUSH21b)

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. Other important elements of the Great Society project were policies and programs that sought to improve elementary and secondary education, to protect the environment, and to reform immigration policies. (SSUSH21b)

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.
- Anti-Vietnam War protestors outside the Democratic National Convention were attacked by police. The violence was televised. This, in conjunction with the disarray as the Democratic Party struggled to choose a candidate after the assassination of Robert F. Kennedy, helped lead to the election of Richard Nixon.

The 1960s were a decade of great social change. Many movements competed for Americans' attention, including groups advocating rights for African Americans or Blacks, Latinos, farmworkers, and women. Another movement supported environmentalism. While these movements were often described as liberal, a conservative movement also arose during the sixties. (SSUSH21e)

César Chávez

Latino farmworkers 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. Chavez's primary tactic was to politically organize a community in order to influence elections. 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 farmworkers higher wages and other benefits for which they had been protesting throughout the sixties. (SSUSH21d)

Economic Growth

After World War II, soldiers returned home to America and settled back into the lives they had left behind. One effect of the soldiers' return was a housing shortage. The veterans' new and growing families needed homes.

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 **National Interstate and Defense Highways 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. The new highway system replaced the railroad network as the principal way of transporting goods and boosted economic development. President Eisenhower supported the National Interstate and Defense Highways Act as a means to strengthen the defense of the country against foreign invasion. Military units could be moved quickly across the country to face invaders. (SSUSH20b)

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. (SSUSH21c)

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 weapons against the United States and its allied nations. (SSUSH20c)

MODERN U.S. HISTORY

SSUSH22; SSUSH23

This unit examining modern U.S. history will include information about the challenges faced by recent presidents, as well as their economic policies. You will also study domestic and social issues and the impact of technological changes on society during this period.

KEY IDEAS

Women's Movement

The **National Organization for Women (NOW)** 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 such as the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (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. (SSUSH22b)

Environmental Movement

Partially due to the publication of Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring*, which grabbed the attention of Americans who became concerned about pollutants and the harm they were doing to the environment, protecting the environment became important to many Americans. 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. (SSUSH22b)

Technological Wonders

In addition to the television, other postwar advances in technology surged. 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. These technologies would become as common as typewriters and public phone booths were in the 1970s. (SSUSH23c)

Nixon and Ford Administrations

Richard Nixon's presidency was one of great successes and criminal scandals. **Nixon's visit to China** in 1972 was one of the successes. He visited China 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.

The **Watergate scandal** 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 Ford 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. (SSUSH22b)

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. (SSUSH22a)

Reagan Administration

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

- One basic principle of President Reagan's economic policy was the belief in supply-side economics, often referred to as **Reaganomics**. He believed that if Americans had more money to spend, more jobs would be created and the economy would improve. There were four key components to Reaganomics. These four components were reductions in government spending, reductions in income and capital gains taxes, reductions in government regulation, and reductions in inflation through control of the money supply. The United States experienced a sustained period of economic growth. However, federal deficits also increased dramatically, but by the 1990s, the economy, along with the tax revenue, had grown so dramatically that the budget was in balance during President Clinton's second term in office. (SSUSH23b)

- 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. (SSUSH23a)

Clinton Administration

Bill Clinton 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. The Senate acquitted him, allowing Clinton to remain in office and finish his second term. (SSUSH23a)

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 authorization of 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. He was later killed by American troops.

The invasion of Afghanistan was part of Bush's larger **war against terrorism**, for which he built an international coalition to fight the al-Qaeda network and other terrorist groups. In March 2003, American and English 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. Hussein was captured and convicted of crimes against humanity. He was executed in 2006. (SSUSH23a)

Election of 2008

In 2008, President Bush was unable to run for another term, so there was no incumbent. The Republicans nominated John McCain, Senator from Arizona. McCain had been a party stalwart, but frequently clashed with his party on issues of military and foreign policy. This was due to his military background, which included six years as a prisoner of war during the Vietnam Conflict. The Democrats saw an intense battle for the nomination between Hillary Clinton and Barack Obama. While both had experience as U.S. Senators, their personality and styles of campaigning were markedly different. To the surprise of many, Obama won the nomination and handily defeated McCain in the general election. After the election, Obama asked Clinton to serve as Secretary of State. (SSUSH23d)