

AP U. S. History

Test Review Materials

Directions: These materials are intended to help you review the entire history of the United States as covered in this course. Each section is divided into units by time. These will form the basis for class activities and discussion in preparation for the AP test in May. Please take care of these materials; don't lose them.

1. Each unit is divided into the following sections:

Things to Know. These are broad topics from the time period about which you should be very well versed. You will have to research these using both your text and other materials. You should approach each of these as if you were going to have to write an essay or a justification or explanation of them. What facts, documents, persons, court cases, etc., could you use as evidence in this kind of discussion.

Key Terms & Concepts. You should be familiar with all of these *and more*. Use the index in your book, use encyclopedias or other reference materials, to make certain that all of these terms and concepts are yours.

Important Definitions. Again, you should know all of these in such a way that you can use them in writing about the time under study.

2. As you look up this information, I have provided you a handy way to take notes using the accompanying sheet. As you find the information, decide whether it is economic, political, or social and be prepared to explain why you decided that. There will be more sheets at the front of the room so help yourself.

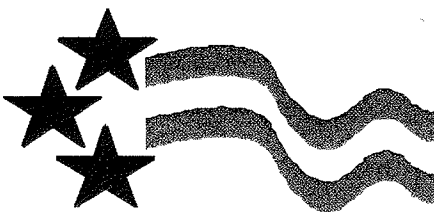


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UNIT #1: DISCOVERY TO 1800

EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION, 1492-1763

Things to Know:

1. Factors in the European Age of Exploration (15th and 16th centuries):
 - importance of trade with Asia
 - need for new routes
 - improvements in maritime technology
 - rise of nation-states
2. Major voyages of exploration and conquest:
 - explorers
 - dates of voyages
 - countries they represented and the results
 - consequences of first contact--Great Biological Exchange

THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

Date	Explorer	Country	Results
1487	Diaz	Portugal	rounds southern tip of Africa
1492	Columbus	Spain	first to explore Western Hemisphere
1497	da Gama	Portugal	sea route to India by sailing around Africa
	Cabot	England	explores Newfoundland and Nova Scotia
1499	Vespucci	Spain	explores coast of South America
1500	Cabral	Portugal	Portugal's claim on Brazil
1519	Cortes	Spain	conquest of the Aztecs
	Magellan	Spain	circumnavigates the world
1531	Pizarro	Spain	conquest of Peru (the Incas)
1535	Cartier	France	explores St. Lawrence River
1539	de Soto	Spain	Explores lower Mississippi River
1540	Coronado	Spain	explores the Southwest

3. Establishment of English colonies of North America:
 - motives in founding colonies (economic and religious)
 - when and how the colonies were established

ENGLISH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA

Date	Colony	Founded by	Significance
1607	Jamestown	Virginia Company	first permanent English colony
1620	Plymouth	Pilgrims	Mayflower Compact
1630	Massachusetts Bay	Massachusetts Bay Company	Puritans
1634	Maryland	Lord Baltimore	first proprietary colony; only Catholic colony
1636	Rhode Island	Roger Williams	religious toleration
1636	Connecticut	Thomas Hooker	Fundamental Orders of Connecticut
1638	Delaware	Sweden	under English rule from 1664
1663	Carolinas	proprietary	North and South given separate charters in the 18th century
1664	New York	Duke of York	under Dutch control as New Amsterdam from 1621 to 1664
1664	New Hampshire	John Mason	royal charter in 1679
1664	New Jersey	Berkeley and Carteret	overshadowed by New York
1681	Pennsylvania	William Penn	proprietary colony; settled by Quakers
1732	Georgia	James Oglethorpe	buffer against Spanish Florida

4. Economic basis of colonies:

- differences between New England, the middle colonies, and the southern colonies
- role of agriculture, industry and trade

5. Colonial society:

- labor force--indentured servants and slaves
- ethnic diversity--Germans, Scots-Irish, Jews
- status of women
- relations between colonists and Native Americans
- religious dimensions--religious conformity vs. Religious dissent
- Puritanism
- First Great Awakening

Look into which ones can be connected.

6. Relations with Great Britain

- mercantilism and its early impact on the colonies ✖
- impact of events in England--Restoration (1660) and the Glorious Revolution (1688) ✖
- colonial political institutions--assemblies and governors
- Anglo-French rivalry in North America--French and Indian War (Seven Years' War) ✖

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Mesoamerica	Bacon's Rebellion ✖
Great Biological Exchange	New Amsterdam
Line of Demarcation	"Peaceable Kingdom"
Treaty of Tordesillas	Society of Friends
lost colony of Roanoke	Maryland Toleration Act (1649) ✖
Virginia Company	Fundamental Orders of Connecticut (1639)
Virginia House of Burgesses	Restoration Colonies
William Bradford	Dominion of New England
Mayflower Compact	John Peter Zenger
John Winthrop	Jonathan Edwards
"city on a hill"	George Whitefield
Salem witch trials	Leisler's Rebellion
Roger Williams	Albany Plan of Union
Thomas Hooker	Benjamin Franklin
Pequot War	Treaty of Paris (1763) ✖
King Phillip's War	

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Antinomianism	An interpretation of Puritan beliefs that stressed God's gift of salvation and minimized what an individual could do to gain salvation; identified with Anne Hutchinson.
Enumerated articles	Under the English navigation Acts, those commodities that could be shipped only to England or other English colonies; originally included sugar, tobacco, cotton, and indigo.
First Great Awakening	Religious revival movement during the 1730s and 1740s; its leaders were George Whitefield and Jonathan Edwards; religious pluralism was promoted by the idea that all Protestant denominations were legitimate.
Great Migration	Settlement of over twenty thousand Puritans in Massachusetts Bay and other parts of New England between 1630 and 1642.
Half-way Covenant	In 1662, Puritans permitted the baptized children of church members into a "half-way" membership in the congregation and allowed them to baptize their children; they still could not vote or take communion.
Headright system	Method of attracting settlers to Virginia; after 1618, it gave fifty acres of land to anyone who paid for their own passage or for that of any other settlers who might be sent or brought to the colony.
Indentured servants	individuals who sold their labor for a fixed number of years in return for passage to the colonies; indentured servants were usually young, unemployed men and could be sold.
Joint-stock company	The company sold shares of stock to finance the outfitting of overseas expeditions; colonies founded by joint-stock companies included Jamestown (Virginia Company) and New Amsterdam (Dutch West India Company).

Mercantilism

Economic policy that held that the strength of a nation is based on the amount of gold and silver it has; also, that the country needs a favorable balance of trade and that colonies exist for the good of the mother country as a source of raw materials and a market for manufactured goods.

Middle passage

The sea route followed by slave traders from the west coast of Africa to the Western Hemisphere.

Proprietary colony

A colony founded as a grant of land by the king to an individual or group of individuals; Maryland (1634) and Carolina (1663) were proprietary colonies, as was Pennsylvania (1681).

Puritans

Dissenters who sought to “purify” the church of England from within and who initially populated much of New England.

Separatists

Those who wanted to break all connections with the Church of England as opposed to most Puritans who believed it was possible to reform the church; the Pilgrims were Separatists.

Triangular trade

Trade pattern that developed in the colonies; New England shipped rum to the west coast of Africa in exchange for slaves that were sent to the West Indies for molasses that was sold in New England.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION, 1763-1787

Things to Know:

1. British Empire in North America in 1763:
 - debts resulting from wars with France and increased cost of administering the colonies
 - western land issues--Pontiac's Rebellion and the Proclamation Line of 1763
2. Britain's attempt to exercise greater control over the colonies and increase revenues:
 - policies of Grenville and Townshend *
 - reaction of the colonies, particularly evidence of greater unity
 - debate on relations between Britain and the colonies--rights of Englishmen vs. Virtual representation and Declaratory Act

BRITISH IMPERIAL POLICY, 1764-1774

Parliamentary Act

Sugar Act (1764): expanded the list of enumerated articles; stricter enforcement of trade regulations.

Currency Act (1764): colonies prohibited from issuing paper money.

Colonial Reaction

Know

Stamp Act (1765): tax on printed materials and legal documents.	Virginia Resolves; Stamp Act Congress; Sons of Liberty
Quartering Act (1765): colonies to provide British troops with housing and provisions.	
Townshend Acts (1767): external taxes on colonial imports.	Non-importation agreements; <u>Letters of a Farmer in Pennsylvania</u>
Tea Act (1773): monopoly to East India Company for tea sold in the colonies.	Boston Tea Party
Coercive Acts (1774): British response to the Boston Tea Party, intended to punish Boston.	First Continental Congress

3. The American Revolution:

- Key political and military events of the American Revolution, 1775-1783
- Change in attitude on independence
- Social consequences of revolution--slavery, status of women
- Growth of religious toleration

what changes

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Pontiac's Rebellion	Bunker Hill
Proclamation of 1763	Trenton and Princeton
Paxton Boys	Oriskany
North and South Carolina Regulators	Benedict Arnold
<u>Letters of a Farmer in Pennsylvania</u>	Saratoga
Samuel Adams	Treaty of Alliance (1778)
Sons of Liberty	Savannah
<i>Gaspee</i> incident	Yorktown
Boston Massacre	General Cornwallis
circular letter	Treaty of Paris (1783)
Committees of Correspondence	western land claims
Thomas Jefferson	Land Ordinance of 1785
Patrick Henry	Northwest Ordinance
Continental Association	Shays' Rebellion
Lexington & Concord	Robert Walpole
Ticonderoga	Salutary neglect
Olive Branch Petition	

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Committees of Correspondence	First established in Boston in 1772, the committees became a way for the colonies to state and communicate their grievances against Great Britain.
Critical Period	Term used by historians to describe the United States under the Articles of Confederation.

Direct tax	British-imposed tax directly on the colonies that was intended to raise revenue; the Stamp act was the first attempt by Parliament to impose a direct tax on the colonies.
Enlightenment	A European intellectual movement that stressed the use of human reason.
Indirect tax	A measure that raised revenue through the regulation of trade--the Sugar Act, for example.
Loyalists	Also known as Tories, the term refers to those Americans who remained loyal to Great Britain during the Revolution.
Natural rights	Those rights that the Enlightenment (and Jefferson's Declaration) saw as inherent for all humans and that government is not justified in violating.
Non-importation agreements	A form of protest against British policies; colonial merchants refused to import British goods.
Virtual representation	The British argument that the American colonies were represented in Parliament, since the members of Parliament represented all Englishmen in the empire.
Whig ideology	Idea that concentrated power leads to corruption and tyranny; emphasis on balanced government where legislatures check the power of the executive. → look for Const.
Writs of Assistance	General search warrants employed by Britain in an effort to prevent smuggling in the American colonies.
"No taxation without representation"	The assertion that Great Britain had no right to tax the American colonies as long as they did not have their own representatives in the British Parliament.

THE CONSTITUTION AND THE FEDERALISTS, 1787-1800

Things to Know:

1. The Constitution:
 - major compromises of the constitutional convention--representation, slavery, election of the president ✕
 - principles embodied in the constitution--separation of power and checks and balances
 - ratification--federalists vs. Antifederalists
 - amendments to the constitution

THE STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT UNDER THE CONSTITUTION

Article 1: Legislative Branch (Congress)

House of Representatives: Members elected for two-year terms; number of representatives for each state based on population; all revenue bills originate in the House; power to impeach.

Senate: Two senators from each state, chosen by state legislatures; serve six-year terms; Vice President is

President of the Senate and votes only in the event of a tie; tries all impeachment cases; ratifies treaties and confirms appointments.

The President's veto of a law passed by Congress can be overridden by a two-thirds vote of both houses.

Principal powers of Congress (enumerated powers): Collect taxes; regulate foreign and interstate commerce; coin money; establish post offices and post roads; declare war; raise and support army and navy; make all laws necessary to carry out above ("necessary and proper" clause).

Limitations on Congress: Cannot prohibit importation of slaves prior to 1808; cannot suspend the writ of habeas corpus; cannot enact bill of attainder or ex post facto laws.

Article 2: Executive Branch (President and Vice President)

President: Elected for four-year term; elected by electors from each state; the candidate who receives second higher total of the votes becomes Vice President.

Powers of the President: Commander-in-chief of army, navy, and state militias; makes treaties and appointments of ambassadors, executive departments, and Supreme Court with "advice and consent of the Senate."

Article 3: Judicial Branch (Supreme Court)

Supreme Court established; Congress given authority to create inferior courts; Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in cases involving ambassadors and the states; in all other cases, the Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction; trial by jury is provided for, and treason is defined.

Article 4: Relations with States

Position of states and territories; each state will give "full faith and credit" to acts and court actions of the states; privileges and immunities of citizens in the states; fugitive slave provision; Congress shall control territories and admit new states; government to protect states from foreign invasion or domestic violence.

Article 5: Amendment Process

Amendments proposed by two-thirds vote of Congress or applications by two-thirds of state legislatures; amendments ratified by three-fourths of state legislatures.

Article 6: Supremacy Clause

The Constitution, laws passed by Congress, and treaties entered into by the United States are the "supreme law of the land"; no religious test for holding office.

Article 7: Ratification of the Constitution

Ratification of the Constitution requires nine of the thirteen states.

Amendment 1 (1791): Freedom of religion, speech, press, and assembly; right of petition.
 Amendment 2 (1791): Right to bear arms (militia).
 Amendment 3 (1791): Limit on quartering of troops.
 Amendment 4 (1791): Protection against unreasonable search and seizure.
 Amendment 5 (1791): Due process; double jeopardy; self-incrimination.
 Amendment 6 (1791): Right to speedy trial.
 Amendment 7 (1791): Trial by jury in civil cases.
 Amendment 8 (1791): No excessive bail or fine; no cruel or unusual punishment.
 Amendment 9 (1791): People retain rights.
 Amendment 10 (1791): Powers not delegated to United States are reserved to the states or the people.
 Amendment 11 (1798): States cannot be sued by individuals.
 Amendment 12 (1804): Electoral College
 Amendment 13 (1865): Abolition of slavery.
 Amendment 14 (1868): Equal protection under the law, post-Civil War definition of citizenship.
 Amendment 15 (1870): Right to vote guaranteed irrespective of race, color, or former condition of slavery.
 Amendment 16 (1913): Income tax.
 Amendment 17 (1913): Direct election of senators.
 Amendment 18 (1919): Prohibition.
 Amendment 19 (1920): Women gain the right to vote.
 Amendment 20 (1933): End to lame-duck session of Congress; change in when President and Congress take office.
 Amendment 21 (1933): Repeal of prohibition (18th Amendment).
 Amendment 22 (1951): Two-term limit for President.
 Amendment 23 (1961): Voting for President in the District of Columbia.)
 Amendment 24 (1964): Abolition of poll tax in national elections.
 Amendment 25 (1967): Presidential succession.
 Amendment 26 (1971): Lower voting age to eighteen.
 Amendment 27 (1992): Election must come between the time a law is passed increasing the pay for Senators and Representatives and the time when that law goes into effect.

2. Washington as President:
 - development of the Cabinet
 - economic problems facing the early Republic and Hamilton's response
 - relations with Great Britain and France
3. Rise of political parties:
 - election of John Adams
 - issues that led to Republican opposition
 - relations with France and the Alien and Sedition Acts and Republic response
 - Jefferson and the "Revolution 1800"

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Virginia Plan	Federalists
New Jersey	Antifederalists
Connecticut Compromise	<u>Federalist Papers</u>
3/5 Compromise	Alexander Hamilton
census	John Jay

James Madison
 Bill of Rights
 Judiciary Act of 1789
 Executive departments--State, Treasury, War,
 Attorney General
 Bank of the United States
 Strict/loose construction
 protective tariff
 Whiskey Rebellion
 impressment

Citizen Genet
 Jay's Treaty
 Pinckney's Treaty
 XYZ Affair
 John Adams
 Democratic-Republicans
 Alien and Sedition Acts
 Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions
 Aaron Burr
 election of 1800

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Antifederalists	Opposed to a strong central government; saw undemocratic tendencies in the Constitution and insisted on the inclusion of the Bill of Rights. Included Thomas Jefferson, James Monroe, and Patrick Henry.
Checks and Balances	System embodied in the Constitution through which the power of each branch of government is limited by the other; the President's authority to veto legislation and Congress's power to override that veto are examples.
Compact theory	The idea advanced by Rousseau, Locke, and Jefferson, that government is created by voluntary agreement among the people involved and that revolution is justified if government breaks the compact by exceeding its authority.
Confederation	A political system in which the central government is relatively weak and member states retain considerable sovereignty.
Enumerated powers	Powers specifically given to Congress in the Constitution; including the power to collect taxes, coin money, regulate foreign and interstate commerce, and declare war.
Factions	Political groups that agree on objectives and policies; the origins of political parties.
Loose construction	Constitution is broadly interpreted, recognizing that it could not possibly anticipate all future developments; relies on the idea of implied powers and the "necessary and proper" clause. Both views on how to interpret the Constitution came up during the debate on chartering the Bank of the United States in 1791.
Separation of powers	The structure of the government provided for in the Constitution where authority is divided between the executive, legislative, and judicial branches; idea comes from Montesquieu's <i>Spirit of the Laws</i> .
States rights	According to the compact theory of the Union the states retained all powers not specifically delegated to the central government by the Constitution.
Strict construction	The principle that the national government is legally granted only those powers specifically delegated in the Constitution

Tariff A tax on imports (also referred to a “duty), taxes on *exports* are banned by the Constitution. A “protective” tariff has rates high enough to discourage imports.

UNIT #2: 1800 - 1877

JEFFERSONIAN AND JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY, 1800-1840

Things to Know:

1. Jefferson as President:
 - attitude toward Federalist programs
 - Louisiana Purchase and reaction to it
 - foreign policy and neutral rights
2. The Supreme Court under John Marshall:
 - major cases and significance of decisions

KEY DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT UNDER JOHN MARSHALL:

Case	Significance
Marbury v. Madison (1803)	First time an act of Congress is declared unconstitutional; established the principle of judicial review.
Fletcher v. Peck (1810)	First time a state law is declared unconstitutional; contract clause of the Constitution overrode state law.
Dartmouth College v. Woodward (1819)	The charter of a private corporation is protected under the Constitution.
McCulloch v. Maryland (1819)	Upheld constitutionality of the Bank of the United States; example of loose construction of the Constitution (favored by the Federalists).
Gibbons v. Ogden (1824)	Affirmed federal control of interstate commerce under commerce clause of the Constitution.

3. Presidencies of James Madison and James Monroe:
 - foreign policy background and results of the War of 1812 and the Monroe Doctrine (1823)
 - economic nationalism--development of national transportation system and tariff policy
 - shift from cottage industry to factory system
4. The Age of Jackson:
 - election of 1824--“corrupt bargain”
 - political view of Democrats
 - strong executive--veto as instrument of political power
 - Second Bank of the United States

- nullification crisis
- Indian policy--Indian Removal
- Whig party

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Judiciary Act of 1801	National Road
midnight judges	Erie Canal
judicial review	Adams-Onis Treaty
Lewis & Clark Expedition	Monroe Doctrine
Embargo Act of 1807	Noah Webster
Non-Intercourse Act	Washington Irving
Henry Clay	James Fenimore Cooper
John Calhoun	Democrat-Republicans
Nicholas Biddle	National-Republicans
Daniel Webster	Trail of Tears
Francis Scott Key	spoils system
Battle of New Orleans	Maysville Road veto
Treaty of Ghent	Tariff of Abominations
Hartford Convention	Webster-Hayne debate
Rush-Bagot Agreement	Independent Treasury Act
factory system	

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

American System	Economic program advanced by Henry Clay that included support for a national bank, high tariffs, and internal improvements; emphasized strong role for federal government in the economy.
Corrupt bargain	Refers to the claim from the supporters of Andrew Jackson that John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay had worked out a deal to ensure that Adams was elected President by the House of Representatives in 1824.
Embargo	An attempt to withhold good from export in order to influence the policies of the former purchasers.
Era of Good Feelings	Refers to the period after the War of 1812 during the presidency of James Monroe, when competition among political parties was at a low ebb.
Impressment	British practice of taking American sailors from American ships and forcing them into the British navy; a factor in the War of 1812.
Internal improvements	Included roads, canals, railroads; essentially, an internal transportation network that would bind the country together.
Judicial review	The right of the Supreme Court to declare a law passed by Congress unconstitutional; the principle was established in <i>Marbury v. Madison</i> , but was original sketched out in Hamilton's essay #78 in <u><i>The Federalist Papers</i></u> .

Kitchen cabinet	Informal group of friends who advised Jackson during his administration. Jackson believed that the “official” Cabinet’s main function was to carry out his orders.
Missouri Compromise	Compromise worked out by Henry Clay in 1820: slavery would be prohibited in the Louisiana territory north of 36°30'; Missouri would enter the Union as a slave state, Maine would enter the Union as a free state.
Monroe Doctrine	a United States policy that sought to insulate the Western Hemisphere from European intervention.
Nullification	The theory advanced by John Calhoun in response to the Tariff of 1828 (the Tariff of Abominations); states, acting through a popular convention, could declare a law passed by Congress “null and void”; the roots of the idea go back to Jefferson and Madison’s compact theory of government and are originally spelled out in the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions.
Pet banks	A term used by Jackson’s opponents to describe the state banks that the federal government used for new revenue deposits in an attempt to destroy the Second Bank of the United States; the practice continued after the charter for the Second Bank expired in 1836.
Spoils system	Essentially, political patronage; public offices went to political supporters during Jackson’s presidency.
War Hawks	Those nationalist members of Congress who strongly supported war with Great Britain on the eve of the War of 1812; included Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun.
Whig Party	A national political coalition formed to oppose the Jacksonian Democrats.

SECTIONALISM AND EXPANSION, 1840 - 1860

Things to Know:

1. Rise of Sectionalism:
 - economic issue--industrial North vs. agricultural South
 - immigration and nativism
 - slavery and sectionalism--Missouri Compromise
 - slavery in the territories after the Mexican War--Compromise of 1850
2. Manifest Destiny:
 - Texas independence and the issue of annexation
 - election of James Polk--Texas and Oregon as issues
 - acquisition of Oregon
 - war with Mexico--Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo
3. Intellectual and cultural trends:
 - rise of an American literature--major writers

- major reform movements--abolitionists
- temperance
- women's rights
- utopian communities
- rise of public education

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

cotton gin	Mexican cession
Nat Turner's rebellion	Gadsden Purchase
American Colonization Society	Edgar Allan Poe
Elias Howe	Nathaniel Hawthorne
Irish potato famine	Herman Melville
Know-Nothing party	Henry David Thoreau
Wilmot Proviso	Walt Whitman
popular sovereignty	Dorothea Dix
Free Soil party	William Lloyd Garrison
Stephen Douglas	Frederick Douglass
Compromise of 1850	Sarah Grimke
Fugitive Slave Law	Elizabeth Cady Stanton
Webster-Ashburton Treaty	Lucretia Mott
Mormons	Seneca Falls Declaration of Sentiments
Joseph Smith	Horace Mann
Brigham Young	Harriet Beecher Stowe
Treaty of 1846	Dred Scott decision
Texas independence	

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Abolition	A moral crusade to immediately end the system of human slavery in the United States.
Civil disobedience	Intentionally breaking or defying the law to call attention to what is believed to be evil or injustice.
Freeport Doctrine	The position on slavery taken by Stephen Douglas during the debates with Lincoln in 1858. Slavery could not exist if local legislation did not accept it. Douglas refused to say whether he believed slavery was right or wrong.
Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854)	Created two new territories with slavery decided by popular sovereignty; it effectively repealed the Missouri Compromise as it applied to slavery north of the Compromise line.
Nativism	Response to the increased immigration in the 1840s, it reflected a fear that the United States was being taken over by foreigners. Nativism found a political expression in the American party, also known as the Know-Nothing party, which was founded in 1854 on a program of controlling immigration and requiring a longer naturalization period; the party was strongly anti-Catholic.

Popular sovereignty	Proposed by Senator Lewis Cass, it meant that the decision to permit slavery in a territory was up to the territorial legislature; it was incorporated into the Compromise of 1850 for New Mexico and Utah territories.
Romanticism	An intellectual movement that stressed emotion, sentiment, and individualism. A reaction to rationalism and the classical revival.
Transcendentalism	American expression of the Romantic movement that emphasized the limits of reason, individual freedom, and nature; best represented by Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau, the author of <u>Walden</u> and <u>Civil Disobedience</u> .
“Bleeding Kansas”	The virtual civil war that erupted in Kansas in 1856 between pro-slavery and free soilers as a consequence of the Kansas-Nebraska Act.
“Fifty-four forty or fight”	Political slogan of the Democrats in the election of 1844, which claimed fifty-four degrees, forty minutes as the boundary of the Oregon territory claimed by the United States. The Treaty of 1846 with Great Britain set the boundary at the forty-ninth parallel.
“Free soil”	The idea surfaced after the Mexican War that Congress had the authority to ban slavery in the newly acquired territories. It was embodied in the Wilmot Proviso. The advocates of “free soil” formed their own political party in 1848, and Martin Van Buren was their candidate for President.

CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION, 1860-1877

Things to Know:

1. Outbreak of the Civil War
 - pattern of secession after Lincoln’s election
 - relative strengths and weaknesses of the North and South at the outbreak of the war
2. The Civil War, 1861-1865
 - military strategy and major battles
 - economic impact of the war on the North and South
 - response to war in Europe
 - Emancipation Proclamation--position of African-Americans during the war
3. Reconstruction
 - Lincoln’s views on treatment of the South
 - difference between Congressional and Presidential Reconstruction
 - implementation of Reconstruction
 - status of former slaves
 - national politics and the end of Reconstruction

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Fort Sumter
Jefferson Davis

Anaconda Plan
First Battle of Bull Run

Antietam
 U. S. Grant
 Robert E. Lee
 George McClellan
 Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson
 Shiloh
 Vicksburg
 Monitor
 Merrimac
 Sherman's March to the Sea
 Gettysburg
 Chancellorsville
 Appomattox
 Matthew Brady
 Morrill Land Grant Act
 Pacific Railroad Act

National Bank Act
 Wade-Davis Bill
 John Wilkes Booth
 Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments
 Civil Rights Act of 1866
 Andrew Johnson
 Radical Republicans
 Freedmen's Bureau
 Reconstruction Acts (1867)
 tenant farms
 contract labor system
 Ku Klux Klan
 Force Acts
 election of 1876
 Samuel Tilden

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Black codes	Passed by state legislatures in 1865-1866; granted former slaves right to marry, sue, testify in court, and hold property but with significant qualifications.
Border states	Slave states--Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri--that remained loyal to the Union; the secession of these states would have considerably strengthened the South.
Carpetbaggers	Derogatory term for Northern Republicans who were involved in Southern politics during Radical Reconstruction.
Compromise of 1877	Rutherford B. Hayes and other Republicans agreed that U. S. Troops would be withdrawn from the South, agreed to appoint a Southerner to the Cabinet, and pledged federal projects to the South in return for an end to Democratic opposition to official counting of the electoral votes for the disputed election of 1876.
Copperheads	Northern Democrats, also known as Peace Democrats, who opposed Lincoln's war policies and were concerned with the growth of presidential power. In the election of 1864, General George McClellan was nominated by the Democrats with their support.
Draft riots	Mob violence opposing conscription laws during the Civil War; the most violent occurred in New York City (July 1863).
Ex Parte Milligan (1866)	Supreme Court decision involving presidential war powers; civilians could not be tried in military courts in wartime when the federal courts were functioning.
Freedmen's Bureau	Agency created by Congress as the war ended to assist Civil War refugees and freed former slaves.
Ironclads	Wooden ships with metal armor that were employed by both sides during the Civil War.

Presidential Reconstruction	Put forward by Andrew Johnson, it included repeal of ordinances of secession, repudiation of Confederate debts, and ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment. By the end of 1865, only Texas had failed to meet these terms.
Radical Reconstruction	Provided for dividing states into military districts with military commanders to oversee voter registration that included adult African-American males for state conventions; state conventions to draft constitutions that provided for suffrage for black men; state legislatures to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment.
Scalawags	Term used to describe Southern white Republicans who had opposed secession.
Sharecropping	Common form of farming for freed slaves in the South; received a small plot of land, seed, fertilizer, tools from the landlord who decided what and how much should be planted; landlord usually took half of the harvest.
“Ten-Percent Plan”	Lincoln’s Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction (December 1863) provided that new state government could be established in the South when ten percent of the qualified voters in 1860 took an oath of loyalty.

UNIT #3: 1877- 1920

THE GILDED AGE, 1877-1900

Things to Know:

1. Developments in the West and South:
 - successive frontiers--mining frontier and cattle kingdom
 - relations with native Americans and development of federal policy
 - status of African American--rise of segregation and African-American response, i.e. W. E. B. Du Bois vs. Booker T. Washington.
2. United States as industrial power
 - advances in technology and rise of new industries--oil and steel
 - development of new forms of business organization
 - regulation of business
 - industrialization and labor--rise of early labor unions
 - labor disputes of the period--railroad strikes, Haymarket Square riot, Homestead steel strike, Pullman strike.
3. Farmers revolt
 - farmer organizations--Grange, farmer alliances
 - position on inflation--greenbacks and silver
 - Populist Party
4. Politics in the Gilded Age
 - party positions and issues in presidential elections, 1876-1896
 - urbanization and urban politics--boss system
 - reform movements of the late nineteenth century

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Comstock Lode	Knights of Labor
Central Pacific Railroad	Terence Powderly
Union Pacific Railroad	American Federation of Labor
Promontory Point	Samuel Gompers
long drive	company town
Joseph Glidden	closed shop
Great American Desert	The Grange
Sand Creek massacre	long vs. Short haul
Battle of the Little Bighorn	Munn v. Illinois
Nez Perce	Interstate Commerce Commission
Chief Joseph	subtreasury plan
Helen Hunt Jackson	William Jennings Bryan
Wounded Knee	spoils system/merit system
Jim Crow Laws	Greenback party
1883 Civil Rights Cases	Pendleton Civil Service Act
Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)	Grand Army of the Republic
Thomas Edison	Sherman Silver Purchase Act
John D. Rockefeller	McKinley Tariff
Standard Oil	William Marcy Tweed
Andrew Carnegie	Social Gospel
J. Pierpont Morgan	Salvation Army
Horatio Alger	YMCA
horizontal & vertical combinations	New Immigration
Social Darwinism	Chinese Exclusion Act
Sherman Anti-Trust Act	Frederick Winslow Taylor
National Labor Union	Thorsten Veblen

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Atlanta	Argument put forward by Booker T. Washington that African-Americans should not
Compromise	focus on civil rights or social equality but concentrate on economic self-improvement.
Agrarian malaise	Discontent among farmers, resulting from changes in their economic position after the Civil War. They sought help from states and the federal government, thus abandoning the doctrine of laissez-faire.
Closed shop	A factory or place of business that employs only union members.
Craft unions	Labor organizations whose members were skilled workers in a particular craft--for example, carpenters, masons, or cigar makers. The American Federation of Labor was composed of individual craft unions.
Dawes Act (1887)	Changed the reservation system by granting 160 acres and U. S. Citizenship to native American heads of families who agreed to give up their tribal allegiance.

Gilded Age	The name applied to the 1870s and 1880s during which national politics was characterized by party rivalries, the spoils system, and unregulated business competition. The term comes from the title of a novel written by Mark Twain and Charles Dudley Warner.
Jim Crow laws	Laws that enforced segregation by discriminating against and suppressing black people.
Long vs. short haul	The railroad practice to charge higher rates on lines where there was no competition than on routes where several lines were operating. This often meant that the cost of shipping goods a short distance was greater than over a long distance.
Mugwumps	Reform Republicans who refused to support James Blaine, the party's candidate in the election of 1884.
Political machine	A vote-gathering organization of politicians who loyally support a party boss and get the votes in their neighborhoods to support their party's candidates by fulfilling needs and providing services to constituents.
Social Gospel	Religious response to the problems created by industrialization and urbanization in the late nineteenth century; supporters of the Social Gospel supported child labor laws, civil service reform, and control of the trusts.
Stalwarts and Half-Breeds	Factions in the Republican party that emerged by 1880; the Stalwarts, led by Senator Roscoe Conkling, supported the spoils system, while the Half-Breeds claimed to represent the idea of civil service reform.
Trust	A form of business organization in which a group of corporations in the same industry gave their stock into the individual companies to a board of trustees in return for stock certificates that earned dividends. The trust effectively eliminated competition by giving control to the board. The earliest example is the Standard Oil trust that controlled ninety percent of the oil refineries and pipelines.
Turner Thesis	The historian Frederick Jackson Turner argued that the frontier was the key factor in the development of American democracy and institutions; he maintained that the frontier served as a "safety valve" during periods of economic crisis.
"Crime of '73"	Through the Coinage Act of 1873, the United States ended the minting of silver dollars and placed the country on the gold standard. This was attacked by those who supported an inflationary monetary policy, particularly farmers, and believed in the unlimited coinage of silver.
"Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion"	An insult made against New York Irish-Americans by a Republican clergyman in the 1884 election; Republican candidate James Blaine's failure to repudiate this statement lost him New York and contributed to his defeat by Grover Cleveland.

THE UNITED STATES AT HOME AND ABROAD, 1896-1920

Things to Know:

1. Overview of the Progressive movement
 - political, economic, and social programs--direct democracy and government efficiency, regulation of big business, social justice (women's rights, child labor, temperance).
2. Roosevelt, Taft, Wilson as Progressives
 - Roosevelt's Square Deal--"trust-buster," conservation, consumer protection
 - Taft--tariff policy, business regulation, income tax
 - election of 1912--New Nationalism vs. New Freedom
3. United States becomes a world power
 - foreign policy before Spanish-American War (1898)--relations with Great Britain, Latin America, and Pacific
 - causes and consequences of Spanish-American War--extent of American empire, Caribbean policy, Panama Canal, Philippine insurrection, relations with China and Japan, Mexico
4. United States in World War I
 - background to the war in Europe
 - American neutrality and immediate causes of the U. S. Entry in the war
 - war and the home front--mobilizing economy and public opinion
 - Wilson and the peace--Paris Peace Conference, Fourteen Points, battle over ratification

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Robert M. La Follette	De Lome Letter
Ida Tarbell	Teller Resolution
Lincoln Steffens	Emilio Aguinaldo
Upton Sinclair	Open Door Policy
Frank Norris	Boxer Rebellion
progressive constitutional amendments	Treaty of Portsmouth
Gifford Pinchot	Gentlemen's Agreement
Northern Securities case	Platt Amendment
Hepburn Act	Roosevelt Corollary
Meat Inspection Act	Pancho Villa
Pure Food and Drug Act	General John J. Pershing
Payne-Aldrich Tariff	Lusitania
Eugene Debs	Sussex pledge
Bull Moose party	Zimmermann telegram
Underwood Tariff	unrestricted submarine warfare
Clayton Anti-Trust Act	Treaty of Brest-Litovsk
Federal Reserve Act	Selective Service Act
Federal trade Commission	War Industries Board
Josiah Strong	Bernard Baruch
John Hay	Creek Committee
Alfred Thayer Mahan	Fourteen Points

Paris Peace Conference
Treaty of Versailles
Henry Cabot Lodge
Big Bill Haywood
IWW
Louis Brandeis
Carrie Chapman Catt
Alice Paul

Jane Addams
Frances Willard
settlement house
Jacob Riis
A. Mitchell Palmer
Palmer Raids
Charlotte Perkins Gilman

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Anarchist	One who believes in a government without law or order, or in a government that lacks a central authority.
Dollar Diplomacy	President Taft's policy of promoting U. S. Interests overseas by encouraging American business to invest in foreign countries, particularly in the Caribbean and Central America.
Feminism	A movement or doctrine that advocates or demands for women the same rights granted men, such as equal economic or political status.
Ghetto	A section of a city occupied by members of a minority group who live there because of economic or social pressure.
Insular Cases	The Supreme Court cases (1901-1903) that dealt with the constitutional rights in the newly acquired overseas territories. The Court ruled that the Constitution did not necessarily follow the flag, and therefore Congress was to determine how to administer the territories.
Irreconcilables	Senators opposed to ratification of the Treaty of Versailles on any grounds; lead by isolationists William Borah, Hiram Johnson, and Robert La Follette.
Isolationism	A foreign policy that abstains from political or economic alliances or compacts with other nations.
Muckrakers	A group of investigative reporters who pointed out the abuses of big business and the corruption of urban politics; included Frank Norris (<u>The Octopus</u>), Ida Tarbell (<u>A History of the Standard Oil Company</u>), Lincoln Steffens (<u>The Shame of the Cities</u>), and Upton Sinclair (<u>The Jungle</u>).
New Nationalism	Program that Theodore Roosevelt ran on in the election of 1912; large corporations had to be controlled and regulated by a strong President and the federal government that would protect the rights of women, labor, and children.
New Freedom	Woodrow Wilson's program put forward during the election of 1912; business competition could be restored by breaking up the trusts, but Wilson did not believe in having the federal government control the economy.
Poll tax	A payment required for voting in some states, used as a tactic to keep blacks and poor whites from exercising their right to vote.

Red Scare	Heightened concern, after World War I, in the United States about communism and fear that it would spread. Especially after the passage of the Espionage Act of 1917, the Sabotage Act of 1918, and the Sedition Act of 1918.
Referendum, recall, direct primary	Ways in which the Progressives hoped to bring about direct democracy; <i>referendum</i> gives the voters the right to accept or reject a piece of legislation; <i>recall</i> is a mechanism for removing an officeholder before the end of his or her term; <i>direct primary</i> allows the voters rather than the political bosses to nominate a party's candidate for office.
Reservationists	Members of the Senate who were ready to ratify the Treaty of Versailles with modifications; the group is often divided into the "mild" Reservationists, who wanted only minor changes, and the "strong" Reservationists, who favored the significant changes advocated by Henry Cabot Lodge.
Sacco and Vanzetti	Refers to the trial of two Italian immigrants--Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, both confessed anarchists, for murder in 1920. Both men were found guilty and died in the electric chair in 1923, though their trial was a showcase for American bigotry and the evidence was scarce and improperly used.
The New Manifest Destiny	The late-nineteenth-century believed that it was the destiny of the United States to expand beyond its continental borders.
The Big Four	Refers to the allied leaders at the Paris Peace Conference: Wilson (United States), Georges Clemenceau (France), David Lloyd George (Great Britain), Vittorio Orlando (Italy).
Yellow journalism	Refers to the treatment of the Cuban Revolution that exaggerated the Spanish atrocities; the sensational stories in William Randolph Hearst's <i>New York Journal</i> and Joseph Pulitzer's <i>New York World</i> were a factor in the U. S. Declaration of war again Spain in 1898.

UNIT #4: 1920-1945

PROSPERITY AND DEPRESSION, 1920-1940

Things to Know:

1. Politics of prosperity
 - period of Republic ascendancy--Harding, Coolidge, Hoover
 - political scandals, economic policy ("business of America is business"), election of 1928 and Al Smith
2. Social and cultural aspects of prosperity
 - "roaring Twenties" vs. Conservatism--background of Red Scare, immigration policy, KKK, Scopes trial, religious fundamentalism
 - writers of the "Lost Generation"
 - consumer culture
3. The coming of the Depression

- problems in agriculture and other indicators of economic weakness--stock speculation and stock market crash
 - Hoover's response to the onset of the Depression
4. Roosevelt and the New Deal
- New Deal--conservative or revolutionary
 - major New Deal legislation and agencies
 - New Deal and the supreme court
 - did the New Deal end the Depression?

ALPHABET SOUP: NEW DEAL AGENCIES, 1933-1938

AAA	Agricultural Adjustment Administration (1933)
CAA	Civil Aeronautics Authority (1938)
CCC	Civilian Conservation Corps (1933)
CWA	Civil Works Administration (1933)
FCC	Federal Communications Commission (1934)
FDIC	Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (1933)
FERA	Federal Emergency Relief Administration (1933)
FHA	Federal Housing Administration (1934)
FSA	Farm Security Administration (1937)
NLRB	National Labor Relations Board (1934-1935)
NRA	National Recovery Administration (1934)
NYA	National Youth Administration (1935)
PWA	Public Works Administration (1935)
REA	Rural Electrification Administration (1935)
SEC	Securities and Exchange Commission (1934)
TVA	Tennessee Valley Authority (1933)
WPA	Works Progress Administration (1935)

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Ohio Gang	Hawley-Smoot Tariff
Teapot Dome scandal	National Origins Act of 1924
Secretary of the Treasury Andrew Mellon	Charles Lindbergh
Budget and Accounting Act	T. S. Eliot
Bureau of the Budget	F. Scott Fitzgerald
Dawes Plan	Theodore Dreiser
Veterans Bureau	Sinclair Lewis
Bonus bill	Ernest Hemingway

Gertrude Stein
 Harlem Renaissance
 Langston Hughes
 Marcus Garvey
 McNary-Haugen Bill
 Reconstruction Finance Corporation
 bank holidays
 Harry Hopkins
 Huey Long

Father Coughlin
 Francis Townsend
 John Steinbeck
 Indian Reorganization Act
 Social Security Act
 Secretary of Labor Francis Perkins
 Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO)
 Alf Landon

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

100 days	Period from March to June 1933 when Congress passed major legislation submitted by Roosevelt to deal with the Depression.
Bonus Army	Unemployed World War 1 veterans who came to Washington in the spring of 1932 to demand the immediate payment of the bonus congress had voted them in 1922. The veterans were forcibly removed from Anacostia Flats by federal troops under the command of Douglas MacArthur.
Court packing proposal	In the wake of Supreme Court decisions that declared key pieces of New Deal legislation unconstitutional, Roosevelt proposed increasing the number of justices. If a justice did not retire at age seventy, the President could appoint an additional justice up to a maximum of six.
Deficit spending	The English economist John Maynard Keynes proposed that governments cut taxes and increase spending in order to stimulate investment and consumption. The effect was to increase the deficit because more money was spent than was taken in.
Deflation	A reduction in available currency and credit that results in a decrease in the general price level.
Hooverilles	Shanty towns that the unemployed built in the cities during the early years of the Depression; the name given to them shows that the people blamed Hoover directly for the Depression.
Lost Generation	Term coined by Gertrude Stein to describe American expatriate writers of the 1920s; include T. S. Eliot, F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, and Stein herself.
Recession	A moderate and temporary decline in the economy.
Roaring Twenties	Popular image of the decade as a period of prosperity, optimism, and changing morals; symbolized best by the "flapper."
Sick Chicken Case	In Schechter Poultry v. U. S., the Supreme court struck down the National Industrial Recovery Act as unconstitutional. The decision encouraged Roosevelt to consider ways to change the makeup of the court.
Subsidy	Monetary assistance by a government to a person, group, or commercial enterprise.
Welfare state	A social system whereby the state assumes primary responsibility for the economic and social well-being of its citizens.

“Return to Normalcy”	Campaign theme of Warren Harding during the election of 1920; it reflected the conservative mood of the country after the constant appeals to idealism that characterized both the Progressive Era and Wilson’s fight over the League of Nations.
“Share the Wealth”	Program of Huey Long that proposed the redistribution of income of the rich to give every American a guaranteed annual income of \$2,000 to \$3,000, old-age pensions, money for a college education, and veterans benefits.

AMERICA AT WAR, 1941-1945

Things to Know:

- Background to war
 - American foreign policy in the 1920s--isolationist or not
 - disarmament, war debts and reparations, policy toward Latin America
 - response to aggression--nonintervention and neutrality legislation
 - change in policy after September 1939
- United States at war
 - major military campaigns in Pacific and European theaters and military leaders
 - wartime diplomacy--conferences between the “Big Three”, problems that arose, plans for the United Nations
- The home front
 - mobilization for war--industrial conversion, wage and price controls, key wartime agencies
 - social effects of the war--status of women, African-Americans, internment of Japanese-Americans
 - elections of 1940 and 1944

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Washington Disarmament Conference	Operation Overlord
London Naval Conference	Teheran Conference
Kellogg-Briand Pact	Yalta Conference
Dawes and Young Plans	Potsdam Conference
Clark Memorandum	Manhattan Project
Stimson Doctrine	J. Robert Oppenheimer
Good Neighbor Policy	Hiroshima & Nagasaki
Nye Committee	Executive Order 9066
Neutrality Acts, 1935-1937	Manzanar
<i>Panay</i> incident	A. Philip Randolph
“Quarantine the Aggressor”	War Production Board
Neutrality Act of 1939	Office of Price Administration
Lend-Lease Act	Office of War Information
Atlantic Charter	War Labor Board
America First Committee	Wendell Wilkie
Casablanca Conference	Thomas Dewey

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

<i>blitzkrieg</i>	German term meaning “lightning war”; term applied to the rapid German military advance into Poland, Denmark, Norway, Belgium, Netherlands, and France in 1939 and 1940.
Bracero Program	Wartime agreement between the United States and Mexico to import farm workers to meet a perceived manpower shortage; the agreement was in effect from 1941 to 1947.
Cash and carry	Key provisions of the Neutrality act of 1939 that allowed the United States to sell arms and other contraband as long as nations paid cash and shipped the goods on their own vessels.
Europe First	Military strategy adopted by the United States that required concentrating on the defeat of Germany while maintaining a holding action against Japan in the Pacific.
Final Solution	Plan for the extermination of the Jewish population in Nazi-occupied Europe; a total of six million Jews were killed in death camps such as those established at Auschwitz, Belzec, Majdanek, Sobibor, and Treblinka.
Internment	Detaining enemy aliens during wartime; term specifically applied to Japanese aliens and Japanese-Americans living on the West Coast (and elsewhere in the U. S.) Who were sent to relocation centers (Manzanar, Topaz, etc.) In 1942 allegedly because of possible disloyalty.
<i>Kamikaze</i>	Literally “divine wind,” Japanese term for fighter pilots who crashed their planes into American warships during the latter stages of World War 2.
Merchants of death	Term used by Senator Gerald P. Nye to describe the munitions-makers whom he blamed for forcing the United States into World War I. Nye headed a committee that investigated the industry from 1934 to 1936.
Rosie the Riveter	Term that came to symbolize all women who worked in defense plants and other industries during World War 2.
Second front	British and American invasion of France to relieve pressure on the Soviet Union in the east; Stalin had insisted on opening the second front from June 1941, but the invasion of Normandy (Operation Overlord) did not take place until June 1944.
Sphere of influence	An area in which a nation seeks to be dominant by securing preferential treatment of a political, economic, and/or social nature.
Victory gardens	Plots of land set aside by Americans during World War 1 and 2 for the cultivation of vegetables so as to limit the purchase of produce in stores.

UNIT #5: 1945 TO THE PRESENT

THE UNITED STATES AS A SUPERPOWER, 1945-PRESENT

Things to Know:

1. Cold War policy
 - relations with the USSR--containment, brinkmanship, collective security (United Nations and NATO), summit conferences, detente
 - arms race and arms limitations
2. Cold War events
 - Europe--NATO vs. Warsaw Pact, status of Berlin, Hungarian uprising, Prague Spring, "fall of communism"
 - Asia--"loss of China," Korean War, Nixon and China, U. S.-Japan trade issues
 - Middle East--Suez crisis, relations with Israel, oil and Islamic fundamentalism
 - Western Hemisphere--Alliance for Progress, Organization of American States, Cuba and Central America, Panama Canal
3. Vietnam
 - U. S. Involvement, 1954-1975--policies of Kennedy, Johnson, Nixon, Ford
 - significant military events--Tet offensive, bombing of North Vietnam, Cambodia
 - negotiating peace settlement

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

San Francisco Conference	Gulf of Tonkin Resolution
Central Intelligence Agency	Ho Chi Minh Trail
Marshall Plan	Tet offensive
Berlin airlift	My Lai massacre
Warsaw Pact	Khmer Rouge
Korean War	Paris Peace Accords
Secretary of State John Foster Dulles	Henry Kissinger
SEATO	Salvador Allende
CENTO	SALT
ANZUS	ABM Treaty
Suez crisis	OPEC
U-2 incident	Arab oil embargo
Bay of Pigs invasion	Solidarity
Cuban missile crisis	Camp David Accords
Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty	Iranian hostage Crisis
Berlin Wall	Panama Canal Treaty
Peace Corps	Grenada invasion
Six-Day War	Sandinistas/Contras
Yom Kippur War	Iran/Contra
Dien Bien Phu	<i>glasnost</i>
Vietminh	<i>perestroika</i>
Vietcong	

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Brinkmanship	The policy associated with Secretary of State John Foster Dulles that stressed that Soviet aggression would be met by massive nuclear retaliation; Dulles was opposed to simply “containing” the USSR and wanted to liberate the countries under Soviet control.
Containment	American foreign policy adopted after World War 2 to restrain the expansion of the Soviet Union. It was based on the belief that the USSR does not take risks and would back down if faced with determined opposition. The policy was developed by Foreign Service officer George Kennan in 1947.
Detente	Policy toward the USSR developed by President Nixon and Henry Kissinger focused on easing tensions through negotiations, particularly on arms reductions--for example, the first Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT) in 1972.
Eisenhower Doctrine	The United States was prepared to use force in the Middle East against aggression from any country controlled by the Soviet Union (1957).
Military-industrial complex	In his farewell address in 1961, Eisenhower warned of the danger posed by a strong defense industry and the armed forces; despite his own background, Eisenhower wanted to control military spending.
Shuttle diplomacy	Henry Kissinger’s diplomatic efforts in the Middle East in early 1974 led to the withdrawal of Israeli troops from the west bank of the Suez Canal and disengagement between Israel and Syria on the Golan Heights.
Summit diplomacy	Meetings between world leaders, usually the United States and the Soviet Union, to discuss bilateral issues and matters of mutual concern--for example, nuclear disarmament; the first summit conference took place in 1944 in Geneva.
Truman Doctrine	In response to the Greek Civil War in 1947, the United States provided economic and military aid to both Greece and Turkey. The United States would support “free peoples” against armed minorities or outside pressure.
Vietnamization	President Nixon’s policy of withdrawing troops from Vietnam and turning the fighting over to the South Vietnamese with massive amounts of American supplies.

CONTEMPORARY AMERICA, 1945-PRESENT

Things to know:

1. Domestic politics, 1945-1968
 - programs and legislation associated with the Fair Deal, Modern Republicanism, New Frontier, Great Society, New Federalism
 - Cold War at home--House un-American Activities Committee and McCarthyism
 - counter-culture of the 1950s and 1960s--Beat Generation and New Left
2. Domestic politics, 1968--present
 - new national issues--environment, energy policy, abortion, AIDS
 - domestic response to war in Vietnam
 - Watergate
 - economic policy--recession, inflation, supply-side economics, deficit, international trade
3. Civil rights movement
 - African-Americans--legislation, Supreme Court decisions, leaders and tactics
 - affirmative action vs. Reverse discrimination
 - issues of gender and race--feminism, Hispanics (immigration policy), Native Americans

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

GI Bill of Rights	Chicago Democratic Convention (1968)
Taft-Hartley Act	CREEP
McCarran Act	Reagonomics
HUAC	Rosa Parks
Alger Hiss case	Martin Luther King, Jr.
Rosenbergs	Civil Rights Act of 1964
Youngstown Sheet and Tube v. Sawyer	Voting Rights Act of 1965
Adlai Stevenson	black power
Senator Joseph McCarthy	Black Muslims
AFL-CIO	Elijah Muhammad
Gideon v. Wainwright	Malcolm X
Office of Economic Opportunity	Bakke v. Board of Regents
War on Poverty	National Organization for Women (NOW)
Medicare	Betty Friedan
Immigration Act of 1965	ERA
Jack Kerouac	Gloria Steinem
Students for a Democratic Society (SDS)	Roe v. Wade
Woodstock	Cesar Chavez
Environmental Protection Agency	United Farm Workers (UFW)
revenue sharing	American Indian Movement
energy crisis	Wounded Knee
WIN	Desert Storm
Kent State	Colin Powell
hippies	Norman Schwarzkopf

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Baby boom	The significant increase in the birth rate from 1946 through 1957; the rise in population contributed to the growth of the suburbs, consumer culture, and the sharp increase in college enrollments in the 1960s.
Dixiecrats	Southern Democrats who bolted the party following the adoption of a civil rights plank at the 1948 convention; ran Strom Thurmond as their candidate in 1948 as the States' Rights party.
Fair Deal	President Truman's domestic policy (1948) that included civil rights and an extension and enlargement of the New Deal--health insurance, federal aid to education, public housing, and repeal of the Taft-Hartley Act.
Great Society	President Johnson's domestic program that included Medicare, civil rights legislation, the War on Poverty; funding for the programs suffered because of the costs of the Vietnam War.
Modern Republicanism	Represented by President Eisenhower, it combined acceptance of the basic features of the New Deal with a conservative economic policy, particularly controlling government spending.
New Federalism	President Nixon's program to return power and tax dollars to the states and cities; the key aspect was revenue sharing, which distributed \$30 billion in revenues to the states.
Stagflation	High inflation combined with high unemployment and a declining gross national product; used to describe economic condition of the country in the mid-1970s.
Supply-side economics	President Reagan's economic policy; reduction in taxes would give people more spendable income and in turn lead to business expansion and more jobs. The policy did increase the federal deficit.
Warren Court	Under Chief Justice Earl Warren (1953-1969), an activist Supreme Court became an important instrument of social and political change, particularly in the areas of civil rights and civil liberties.

Name: _____

Period: _____

Page number: _____

Year	Political	Economic	Social

HISTORY OF MONETARY POLICIES IN THE UNITED STATES

I. Mercantilism: is an economic theory that holds the prosperity of a nation dependable upon its supply of capital, and that the global volume of trade is "unchangeable." Economic assets or capital, are represented by bullion (gold, silver, and trade value) held by the state, which is best increased through a positive "*balance of trade*" with other nations (exports minus imports). Mercantilism suggests that the ruling government should advance these goals by playing a protectionist role in the economy, by encouraging **exports** and discouraging **imports** especially through the use of tariffs and the acquirement of colonies. Colonies became the glue that kept mercantilism together. The "Mother" country would have colonist collect raw materials (precious metals, lumber, tobacco, fur, etc.) and sell it to the back to their home country. In turn the home country (England) would develop finished products out of these raw materials and sell it back to the colonist at higher prices.

English Enforcement:

The Navigation Acts:

The Commonwealth Period (aimed at stopping competition with the Dutch)

1. 1650 - a ban on all foreign ships in the colonies
2. 1651 - African/Asian goods could be imported to colonies but only on English ships

The Restoration Period

3. 1660 - All trade on English ships but also $\frac{1}{4}$'s of the crew also had to be English
 - a. Also created enumerated commodities: could only be shipped from colony of origin directly to England or one of its other colonies
4. 1696 - Create a vice-admiralty court to punish smugglers (no juries!)
 - a. Plugged loop-holes in smuggling

England only loosely enforced the Navigation Acts. This was known as a period of **Salutary Neglect**.

Adam Smith was a Scottish moral philosopher and a pioneer of political economy. One of the key figures of the Scottish Enlightenment, Smith is the author of *The Theory of Moral Sentiments* and *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. The latter, usually abbreviated as *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), is considered his magnum opus and the first modern work of economics. Adam Smith is widely cited as the father of modern economics. There are three main concepts that Smith expands upon in this work that forms the **foundation of free market economics**: 1. division of labor, 2. pursuit of self interest, and 3. freedom of trade. *The Wealth of Nations* expounds that the free market, while appearing chaotic and unrestrained, is actually guided to produce the right amount and variety of goods by a so-called "*invisible hand*". This led to the development of **Laissez-Fair Economics**

II. Alexander Hamilton: President George Washington appointed Hamilton as the first Secretary of the Treasury on September 11, 1789. He left office on the last day of January 1795. Within one year, Hamilton submitted five reports to Congress on the nature and state of the Nations economy:

1. The **First Report on Public Credit** was the first of **three major reports** on economic policy issued by Alexander Hamilton on the request of Congress. The report analyzed the financial standing of the United States of America and made recommendations for the retirement of the national debt. Commissioned by the House of Representatives on September 21, 1789 and presented January 14, 1790, this 140,000-word document was the first proposed federal **assumption** of state debt and the funding at "par" the National debt.
2. The **Act of Laying Duties on Imports** was communicated by Alexander Hamilton to the United States House of Representatives on April 23, 1790. In order to promote manufacturing in the United States, Hamilton proposed that imported goods be more expensive, which would force Americans to buy more homemade products. This proposition failed as it was essentially a tariff. However, Hamilton still proposed an increase in the average rate from 5 percent to between 7 and 10 percent, the addition of numerous items to the list, and the passage of an excise tax. Congress refused to pass the excise tax, but James Madison successfully steered the tariff increases through the legislature. **Tariff of 1790**.
3. The **Second Report on Public Credit** was the second report of three major reports on economic policy issued by Alexander Hamilton on the request of Congress for consideration on establishing a **national banking system** with the

creation of the *Bank of the United States*; privately operated but owned in part by the government. Hamilton believed that a national bank could achieve the following purposes:

- make loans
- handle government funds
- issue financial notes
- provide national currency
- help the national government regulate finance efficiently

Thomas Jefferson, together with James Madison believed that creating such a power as the Bank of the United States, if not now, then soon enough would cause the *elastic clause* to be stretched too far, causing all the state divisions to be subsumed under a single, powerful national government. Jefferson specifically could find no enabling principle in the Constitution for a bank, but Hamilton said there were "*implied powers*" in the document which were needed to make the system work. The bank, a public corporation funded by private capital, would serve as the depository of government funds and the fiscal agent of the Treasury. [Strict v. Loose Constructionists]

However, President Washington disagreed with Jefferson and Hamilton won support as with his first reports proposals, and in 1791 the First Bank of the United States was given a 20 year charter, and immediately provided services to government, merchants, and financiers that helped create a national market. Hamilton won another round in 1791 when the Congress imposed excise taxes on distilled liquor. The bank went into operation in 1791.

4. **Report on the Establishment of a Mint:** Communicated to the House of Representatives, January 28, 1791

5. The **Report on Manufactures** is the third report, and magnum opus, of American Founding Father and 1st U.S. Treasury Secretary, Alexander Hamilton to Congress on December 5, 1791 recommending economic policies to stimulate the new republic's economy and ensure its independence won in 1783 with the completion of the Revolutionary War.

Hamilton's "Report on Manufactures" laid forth economic principles, rooted in both the Mercantilist System of Elizabeth I's England and the practices of Jean-Baptiste Colbert of France. The principle ideas of the "Report" would later be incorporated into the "*American System*" program by Senator Henry Clay of Kentucky and his Whig Party. Abraham Lincoln who called himself a "Henry Clay tariff Whig" during his early years would later make the principles outlined in the "Report" and furthered by Clay's "American System" program as cornerstones, together with opposition to the institution and expansion of slavery, of the fledgling Republican Party.

Hamilton's ideas formed the basis for the *American School* of economics.

Gold standard

The gold standard is a system in which the price of the national currency as measured in units of gold bars and is kept constant by the daily buying and selling of base currency to other countries and nationals. (i.e. open market operations). The selling of gold is very important for economic growth and stability. The gold standard might be regarded as a special case of the "Fixed Exchange Rate" policy. And the gold price might be regarded as a special type of "Commodity Price Index". Today this type of monetary policy is not used anywhere in the world, although a form of gold standard was used widely across the world prior to 1971. Its major advantages were simplicity and transparency.

III. The American System: a mercantilist economic plan formulated by Henry Clay but based on the "American School" ideas of Alexander Hamilton, consisting of a high tariff to support *internal improvements* such as road-building, and a national bank to encourage productive enterprise and form a national currency. This program was intended to allow the United States to grow and prosper, by providing a defense against the dumping of cheap foreign products, mainly at the time from the British Empire.

The establishment of a **protective tariff**, a 20%-25% tax on imported goods, would protect a nation's business from foreign competition. Congress passed a tariff in 1816 which made European goods more expensive and encouraged consumers to buy relatively cheaper American-made goods.

The establishment of a national bank would promote a single currency, making trade easier, and issue what was called *sovereign credit*, i.e., credit issued by the national government, rather than borrowed from the private banking system. In 1816, Congress created the Second Bank of the United States.

The improvement of the country's infrastructure, especially transportation systems, made trade easier and faster for everyone. Poor roads made transportation slow and costly.

This program became the leading tenet of the *Whig Party* of Henry Clay and Daniel Webster. It was opposed by the *Democratic Party* of Andrew Jackson, Martin Van Buren, James K. Polk, Franklin Pierce, and James Buchanan prior to the Civil War. Among the most important internal improvements created under the American System were the Erie Canal and the Cumberland Road.

IV. The Specie Circular (Coinage Act) was an executive order issued by U.S. President Andrew Jackson in 1836 and carried out by President Martin Van Buren. It required payment for government land to be in gold and silver currency.

The Act was a reaction to the growing concerns about excessive speculation of land after the Indian removal, which was mostly done with "soft money." Jackson issued this order to protect the settlers who were forced to pay greatly inflated land prices with devalued *paper currency*. After Jackson refused to renew the Second Bank of the United States, people who could not afford much paper money due to the fact that the US Treasury Department invested a lot of paper money in building railroads and canals began to purchase these new expensive lands by writing overbearing bank notes for these loans from state banks. As a result, however, much paper money was instantly devalued. It also moved much of the **specie (hard money)** to the west to pay for land transactions at a time when eastern banks needed it. Specie was short in the East because the British government restricted specie transfer to the United States, which contributed to the Panic of 1837. This shortage led to a fall in cotton prices, collateral in most American loans, which required specie. These loans became harder to acquire, cotton became devalued, and the U.S. economy suffered.

Andrew Jackson's true intention when passing this order was to destroy the Bank of the United States, because Henry Clay made it a personal issue in the election of 1832 and the president of the Bank was Nicholas Biddle (banker). Biddle and Clay were personal enemies of Jackson, so Jackson plotted to destroy the Bank of the United States (B.U.S.), and in turn, Nicholas Biddle, by withdrawing its funds. However, his plan backfired and caused the Panic of 1837. By requiring the funds to be paid in specie, or metal coins, this made the B.U.S. collect its funds from the state *Pet Banks* in hard coins. Consequently, these state banks called their loans from the local farmers, who did not have the money. This led to many Westerners losing their farms and property in order to pay off their debt.

V. The Independent Treasury Act (1846) was a system for the retaining of government funds in the United States Treasury and its sub-treasuries, independently of the national banking and financial systems. In one form or another, it existed from 1846 to 1921

In 1841, the Independent Treasury Act was passed. However, the following year the **Whigs** repealed the Act. The Whigs wanted to establish a new central bank, but were prevented by President Tyler who objected on constitutional grounds. The Democrats won the election of 1844, and re-established the **Independent Treasury System**.

The Act of August 1846 provided that the public revenues be retained in the Treasury building and in **sub-Treasuries** in various cities. The Treasury was to pay out its own funds and be completely independent of the banking and financial system of the nation. All payments by and to the government were to be made in either **specie** or **Treasury Notes**. The separation of the Treasury from the banking system was never completed, however; the Treasury's operations continued to influence the money market, as specie payments to and from the government affected the amount of hard money in circulation.

Although the Independent Treasury did restrict the reckless speculative expansion of credit, it also tended to create a new set of economic problems. In periods of prosperity, revenue **surpluses** accumulated in the Treasury, reducing hard money circulation, tightening credit, and restraining even legitimate expansion of trade and production. In periods of depression and **panic**, when banks suspended specie payments and hard money was hoarded, the government's insistence on being paid in specie tended to aggravate economic difficulties by limiting the amount of specie available for private credit.

VI. The National Bank Act (February 25, 1863) was a United States federal law that established a system of national charters for banks. It encouraged development of a national currency based on bank holdings of U.S. Treasury securities. It also established the **Office of the Comptroller of the Currency (OCC)** as part of the Department of the Treasury. This was to establish a national security holding body for the existence of the monetary policy of the state. The Act, together with Abraham Lincoln's issuance of "**greenbacks**," (authorized by the **Legal Tender Act of 1862**), raised money for the federal government in the **American Civil War** by enticing banks to buy federal bonds and taxed state bonds out of existence. The law proved defective and was replaced by the **National Bank Act of 1864**. The money was used to fund the Union army in the fight against the Confederacy. This authorized the OCC to examine and regulate nationally-chartered banks. The act barely passed in the Senate by a 23-21 vote.

A later act, passed on March 3, 1865, imposed a tax of 10% on the notes of State banks to take effect on July 1, 1866. The tax effectively forced all non-federal currency from circulation and increased the number of national banks to 1,644 by October 1866.

VII. Gold v. Silver: The **Coinage Act of 1873** was enacted by the United States Congress and embraced the gold standard and de-monetized silver. Western mining interests and others who wanted silver in circulation years later labeled this measure the "**Crime of '73**". Gold became the only metallic standard in the United States. This Act completely changed the United States policy toward silver. Before the Act, the United States had backed its currency with both gold and silver, and it minted both types of coins. The Act moved the United States to the gold standard, which meant it would no longer buy silver at a statutory price or convert silver from the public into silver coins (and stopped minting silver dollars altogether.)

The Resumption Act 1875 pledged the government would begin to withdraw greenbacks from circulation and the redemption of all paper currency into gold at face value. This policy of reducing the amount of paper currency is called "**contraction**" and creates a **deflationary effect** – the amount of money per capita in circulation. This new policy helped to restore the government's credit rating and by Redemption Day 1879, few greenback holders bothered to exchange the lighter and more convenient bills for gold.

Bimetallism: In the United States, toward the end of the nineteenth century, bimetallism became a center of political conflict. Newly discovered silver mines in the American West caused an effective decrease in the value of money. In 1873, in order to de-monetize silver, the government passed The **Coinage Act of 1873**, just as these silver resources were beginning to be exploited. Proponents of monetary silver, known as the **Silverites**, referred to this act as "The Crime of '73," as it was judged to have inhibited inflation. Instead deflation resulted, causing problems for farmers with large mortgages who found they could sell their goods for only a fraction of their post-Civil War price. In addition, improvements in transport meant it was cheaper for farmers to ship their grain to Europe, and they over-expanded production until there was a glut on the market.

The **Panic of 1893** was a severe nationwide depression that brought the money issue to the fore. The "silverites" argued that using silver would inflate the money supply and mean more cash for everyone, which they equated with prosperity. The gold advocates said silver would permanently depress the economy, but that **sound money** produced by a gold standard would restore prosperity. The gold advocates won decisively in 1896 and 1900.

Bimetallism and "Free Silver" were demanded by **William Jennings Bryan** who took over leadership of the Democratic Party in 1896, as well as the **Populist** and Silver Republican Parties. The Republican Party nominated **William McKinley** on a platform supporting the gold standard which was favored by financial interests on the East Coast. A faction of Republicans from silver mining regions in the West known as the Silver Republicans endorsed Bryan.

Bryan, the eloquent champion of the cause, gave the famous "**Cross of Gold**" speech at the National Democratic Convention on July 9, 1896 asserting that "The gold standard has slain tens of thousands." He referred to "a struggle between 'the idle holders of idle capital' and 'the struggling masses, who produce the wealth and pay the taxes of the country;' and, my friends, the question we are to decide is: Upon which side will the Democratic Party fight?" At the peroration, he said "You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns, you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold." However, his presidential campaign was ultimately unsuccessful; this can be partially attributed to an economic upturn caused in part by the failure of Russian harvests and the resultant increase in commodity prices. The McKinley campaign was effective at persuading voters that poor economic progress and unemployment would be exacerbated by adoption of the Bryan platform. 1896 saw the election of McKinley, who implemented the gold standard and ran on it in his 1900 re-election. The standard lasted until the Great Depression. It was abandoned in 1934 in FDR's New Deal economic recovery program.

VIII. The Federal Reserve Act (December 23, 1913,) is the act of Congress that created the **Federal Reserve System**, the central banking system of the United States of America, which was signed into law by President **Woodrow Wilson**.

For nearly eighty years, the U.S had been operating without a central bank after the charter for the Second Bank of the United States expired. However, after various financial panics, particularly a severe one in 1907, there was a growing consensus in the American financial community that some sort of banking and currency reform was needed which could provide a ready reserve of liquid assets in case of financial panics and would also provide for a currency that could expand and contract as the seasonal U.S. economy dictated. Some of this was chronicled in the reports of the **National Monetary Commission (1909-1912)**, which was created by the **Aldrich-Vreeland Act** in 1908.

The plan adopted in the original Federal Reserve Act called for the creation of a System that contained **both** private and public entities. There were to be 8 to 12 private regional Federal reserve banks (**12 were established**) each with its own branches, board of directors and district boundaries and the System was to be headed by a seven member **Federal Reserve Board** made up of public officials **appointed** by the **President** (strengthened and renamed in 1935 as the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System with the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency dropped from the Board - Section 10). Also the act created as part of the Federal Reserve System a 12 member Federal Advisory Committee and a single new United States currency, the **Federal Reserve Note**.

Congress decided in the Federal Reserve Act that all nationally chartered banks were required to become members of the Federal Reserve System. It requires them to purchase specified non-transferable stock in their regional Federal reserve bank and to set aside a stipulated amount of non-interest bearing reserves with their respective reserve bank (since 1980 all depository institutions have been required to set aside reserves with the Federal Reserve and be entitled to certain Federal Reserve services). State chartered banks have the option of becoming members of the Federal Reserve System and to thus be supervised, in part, by the Federal Reserve.

Other Monetary Notables During the Twentieth Century:

1. The Great Depression 1929-1941
 - a. Emergency Banking Relief Act 1933
 - b. Glass-Steagall Banking Act 1933 (FDIC)
 - i. established the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC)
 - ii. introduced banking reforms, some of which were designed to control speculation
 - iii. regulated interest rates in savings accounts (1933-1980)
 - iv. made a separation of investment banking from commercial banking (1933-1999)
 - c. April 5, 1933 FDR orders surrender of privately held gold
 - i. Takes U.S. off GOLD STANDARD
 - ii. Creates 'managed- currency'
 - d. 1934 returns to a limited gold standard for international trade only
2. Bretton Woods System 1944
 - a. Establishes International Monetary Fund & the World Bank
 - b. The regulation of international exchange rates through a gold system
3. The Nixon Shock 1971
 - a. Series of economic measures taken by Nixon
 - b. Cancels the direct convertibility of U.S. dollars into gold (ends Bretton Woods System)

THE HISTORY OF POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Faction: A **political faction** is a grouping of individuals, especially within a political organization, such as a political party, a trade union, or other group with a political purpose. It may also be referred to as a power bloc, or a voting bloc. The individuals within a faction are **united in a common goal or set of common goals** for the organization they are a part of, **not necessarily shared by all** of that organization's members. They band together as a way of achieving these goals and advancing their agenda and position within the organization.

A political faction could thus be described as a "*party within a party*". However, political factions are not limited to political parties; they can and frequently do form within any group that has some sort of political aim or purpose.

Strict v. Loose Construction: Parties are often defined by how they view the Constitution. Strict Constructionist want to adhere to the 'letter of the law', what is exactly in the Constitution; if it is not written then it should not be done. Loose Constructionist want to be able to interpret what is implied by the Constitution; if it is not written, it doesn't mean you can't do it.

Liberal v. Conservative: Not easy to always identify, but the two major parties today fall into either the Liberal (Left-side) of the political spectrum or the Conservative (Right-side) of the political spectrum. Generally speaking, Liberals believe in such things, but are not limited to, government mandates, social programs, Keynesian Economics, tax hikes to cover government spending. Conservative are often for, but not limited to such things as small government, fiscal policy (less spending less taxes), laissez-faire economics (open markets), strong foreign policy. While both parties can have aspects of liberal or conservative elements, it is generally understood that modern Democrats are liberal and modern Republicans are conservative.

I. Federalists v. Anti-Federalists 1787-1789:

Federalist: Statesmen and public figures supporting ratification of the proposed Constitution of the United States between 1787 and 1789. **The Federalist Papers** are documents associated with their movement.

Anti-Federalist: refers to a movement that opposed the creation of a stronger U.S. federal government and which later opposed the ratification of the **Constitution of 1787**. The previous constitution, called the **Articles of Confederation**, gave state governments more authority. Led by **Patrick Henry** of Virginia, Anti-Federalists worried, among other things, that the position of president, then a novelty, might evolve into a monarchy. Also, were advocates of a **Bill of Rights**.

II. Federalist Party: 1789-1820

The Federalist Party: an American political party in the period 1792 to 1816, with remnants lasting into the 1820s. The Federalists controlled the federal government until 1801. The party was formed by Alexander Hamilton, who, during George Washington's first term, built a network of supporters, largely urban, to support his fiscal policies. These supporters grew into the Federalist Party, which wanted a fiscally sound and strong nationalistic government and was opposed by the Democratic-Republicans (or Jeffersonian Republicans). While George Washington never joined the party, he often sided with them on key issues of the day. The United State's only Federalist elected president was John Adams. At this time the Federalist became strong supporters of British trade which would ultimately lead to their downfall at the **Hartford Convention 1814**, where they decided to protest the Republican-backed **War of 1812**.

III. Jeffersonian Republicans (Democratic-Republicans) 1792-1824; c 1824-present

The Democratic-Republican Party: founded by Thomas Jefferson and James Madison about 1792. Supporters usually identified themselves as **Republicans**, but sometimes as **Democrats**. They started their party in opposition to Alexander Hamilton's economic policies. Jefferson believed in a **strict interpretation** of the Constitution, while Hamilton favored a **loose interpretation**. When Hamilton pushed for a **Bank of the United States**, Jefferson viewed

this as unconstitutional. It was the dominant political party in the United States from 1800 to 1824, (commonly known as the *Era of Good Feelings*), when it split into competing factions, one of which became the modern Democratic Party (**1824- Andrew Jackson**).

The National Republicans: 1820-1833. A faction of Jefferson's party, led by Henry Clay of Kentucky and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina. Unlike the Democratic-side of the party, which sponsored **States' Rights**, they advocated national programs to improve the United States. (**The American System**)

The Democratic Party: 1824-present. The Democratic-Republican party split into various factions during the 1824 election, based more on personality than on ideology. When the election was thrown to the House of Representatives, House Speaker Henry Clay backed Secretary of State John Quincy Adams to deny the presidency to Andrew Jackson, a longtime personal rival and a hero of the War of 1812. This event became characterized by Jackson supporters as the "**Corrupt Bargain**." At first, the various factions continued to view themselves as Republicans. Jackson's supporters were called "Jackson's Men," while Adams supporters were called "Adams' Men."

The Democratic Party & the Civil War: Democrats had a major image problem due in part to both the ideology of **Popular Sovereignty** and Stephen Douglas and his **Kansas-Nebraska Act 1854**. As the election of 1860 approached, Democrats divided mostly only North/South lines. Many Southern Democrats joined the **Fire-Eater movement** (pro-States' Rights, pro-Slavery). These Southern Democrats eventually made up the bulk of the Confederate Government. After the war, Democrats would have a hard time winning back the White House. In the election of 1884, Democrat Grover Cleveland would focus on Classical-Liberalism. (small government, laissez -faire economics) to win that election

Woodrow Wilson and Progressivism: During the presidency of Wilson, he would forever focus the Democratic party on Progressive-Liberal agendas. This would culminate with FDR's New Deal & LBJ's Great Society

Harry S Truman and the Election of 1948: During this election, the Democrats became split, Dixiecrats (pro-Segregation), Progressives (pro-Socialism) and the regular Democrats who would support Truman. It is the only time a party would be split yet win a presidential election.

Bill Clinton and the "Third Way": By the 1980's, the Democratic party had become split; Social/Liberal Democrats who still championed social spending programs and Reagan Democrats who wanted fiscal policies like tax cuts. Clinton, who declared himself a "New" Democrat developed his Third Way – a moderate Democrat who would put forth some social welfare while also offering tax cuts.

Democratic-Republican Presidents: Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Martin Van Buren, James Polk, Franklin Pierce, James Buchanan, Grover Cleveland, Woodrow Wilson, Franklin Roosevelt, Harry Truman, John Kennedy, Lyndon Johnson, Jimmy Carter, William Clinton, Barack Obama.

III. The Whig Party 1833-1856

The Whig Party: a political party of the United States during the era of **Jacksonian democracy**. Considered integral to the **Second Party System** and operating from 1833 to 1856, the party was formed in opposition to the policies of President Andrew Jackson and the Democratic Party. In particular, the Whigs supported the supremacy of Congress over the Executive Branch and favored a program of modernization, (The American System), economic protectionism (protective Tariffs) and a return of the **Bank of the United States**. Their name was chosen to echo the **American Whigs of 1776**, who fought for independence, and because "*Whig*" was then a widely recognized label of choice for people who saw themselves as opposing autocratic rule. The Whig Party counted among its members such national political luminaries as Daniel Webster, William Henry Harrison, and their preeminent leader, Henry Clay of Kentucky. In addition to Harrison, the Whig Party also counted four war heroes among its ranks, including Generals Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott. Abraham Lincoln was a Whig leader in frontier Illinois.

The party eventually split and fell apart over the issue of slavery. **Cotton Whigs** in the South supported the expansion of slavery into the Western Lands taken in the Mexican-American War. **Conscience Whigs** of the North at first simply wanted to block the expansion of slavery, but later became influenced by abolitionist teachings to end slavery completely.

Whig Presidents: William Henry Harrison, John Tyler, Zachary Taylor and Millard Fillmore.

IV. The Republican Party 1854 to present

The Republican Party: one of the two major contemporary political parties in the United States, along with the Democratic Party. It is often called the **Grand Old Party** or the **GOP**. Founded under the Oaks at Jackson, Michigan in 1854 by anti-slavery expansion activists and modernizers, the Republican Party quickly surpassed the Whig Party as the principal **opposition** to the Democratic Party. It first came to power in 1860 with the election of Abraham Lincoln to the presidency and presided over the American Civil War and Reconstruction. Today, the party supports a **conservative** and **neoconservative** platform, with further foundations in **supply-side fiscal policies** and social conservatism. There is debate within the party on partial nationalization of the financial industry, but most of the party leadership supported it.

The Republican Party was created in 1854 in opposition to the **Kansas-Nebraska Act** that would have allowed the expansion of slavery into Kansas. Besides opposition to the expansion of slavery, the new party put forward a progressive vision of modernizing the United States — emphasizing higher education, banking, railroads, industry and cities, while promising free homesteads to farmers. In this way, their economic philosophy was similar to the Whig Party's. Its initial base was in the Northeast and Midwest. In the election of 1864 a majority of Republicans united with pro-war Democrats to nominate Lincoln to the **National Union Party** ticket.

A **faction of Radical Republicans** split with the party and formed the Radical Democracy Party. This group chose John C. Fremont as its presidential candidate, before reaching a political agreement and withdrawing from the election in September 1864. The party's success spawned factionalism within the party in the 1870s. Those disturbed by Ulysses S. Grant ran **Horace Greeley** for the presidency against him.

The Stalwarts defended the **spoils system**; the **Half-Breeds** pushed for reform of the **civil service**. The GOP supported big business generally, hard money (i.e., the gold standard), high tariffs, and generous pensions for Union veterans, and the annexation of Hawaii. The Republicans supported the Protestants who demanded Prohibition. As the Northern post-bellum economy boomed with heavy and light industry, railroads, mines, fast-growing cities and prosperous agriculture, the Republicans took credit and promoted policies to sustain the fast growth. But by 1890, the Republicans had agreed to the **Sherman Antitrust Act** and the **Interstate Commerce Commission** in response to complaints from owners of small businesses and farmers. The **high McKinley Tariff of 1890** hurt the party and the Democrats swept to a landslide in the off-year elections, even defeating McKinley himself.

After the two terms of Democrat Grover Cleveland, the election of William McKinley in 1896 is widely seen as a **resurgence of Republican dominance** and is sometimes cited as a **realigning election**. McKinley promised that high tariffs would end the severe hardship caused by the Panic of 1893, and that the GOP would guarantee a sort of pluralism in which all groups would benefit. The Republicans were cemented as the **party of business**, though **mitigated** by the succession of Theodore Roosevelt who embraced **Progressive Reform** such as **trust-busting**. He later ran of a third party ticket of the **Progressive Party** and challenged his previous successor William Howard Taft. The party controlled the presidency throughout the 1920s, running on a platform of opposition to the League of Nations, high tariffs, and promotion of business interests.

The pro-business policies of the decade of the 1920's seemed to produce an unprecedented prosperity — until the **Wall Street Crash of 1929 heralded the Great Depression**.

The New Deal coalition of Democrat Franklin D. Roosevelt controlled American politics for most of the next three decades, excepting the two-term presidency of Republican Dwight D. Eisenhower. **African Americans** began moving toward favoring the Democratic Party during Roosevelt's time.

The Southern Strategy: a Republican Party strategy of gaining political support for certain candidates in the Southern United States by appealing to racism against African Americans. Key words: "Law & Order", "Pro-Police", and "States' Rights Advocate", were meant to inform white southerners of how Republican candidates would support segregation and later not support Affirmative Action. Richard Nixon and Ronald Reagan used this strategy to win elections.

The Conservative Revolution, States' Rights and Ronald Reagan: Conservatives began to fight back against what they felt was an attack on "American Exceptionalism" by the social liberalism and welfare state that was created by the Great Society. Reagan put together a coalition of various conservative factions: The Moral Majority, Ultra-

conservatives, Blue-Collar Catholics, along with Southern White Democrats who were also tired of Big Government. Ronald Reagan also championed the old idea of Thomas Jefferson's Compact Theory, by asserting that States created the Federal Government, thus making States' Rights policy a key component to the conservative cause.

Republican Presidents: Abraham Lincoln, Ulysses S. Grant, Rutherford B. Hayes, James Garfield, Chester Arthur, Benjamin Harrison, William McKinley, Theodore Roosevelt, William H. Taft, Warren G. Harding, Calvin Coolidge, Herbert Hoover, Dwight D. Eisenhower, Richard Nixon, Gerald Ford, Ronald Reagan, George H.W. Bush, George W. Bush. (Andrew Johnson was a War-Democrat/Union Party President)

V. Other Parties of Note

1. Anti-Masonic Party 1826-1838: was a 19th century minor political party in the United States. It strongly opposed **Freemasonry**, and was founded as a **single-issue party**, aspiring to become a major party. It introduced important innovations to American politics, such as **nominating conventions** and the adoption of **party platforms**.
2. Free-Soil Party 1846-1855: a short-lived political party in the United States active in the 1848 and 1852 presidential elections, and in some state elections. It was a **third party** that largely appealed to and drew its leadership from former anti-slavery members of the Whig Party and the Democratic Party: its membership was largely absorbed by the Republican Party in 1854. Its main purpose was opposing the expansion of slavery into the western territories, arguing that free men on free soil comprised a morally and economically superior system to slavery. The Free Soilers were against the expansion of slavery, but did **not** call for the **abolition** of slavery in states where it already existed; their goal was to gain the land to the west, and keep the land free of both blacks and slaves.
3. The American "Know-Nothing" Party 1854-1859: a movement that was a **nativist** American political movement of the 1850s. It was empowered by popular fears that the country was being overwhelmed by Irish Catholic immigrants, who were often regarded as hostile to U.S. values and controlled by the Pope in Rome. Mainly active from 1854 to 1856, it strove to curb **immigration** and **naturalization**, though its efforts met with little success. There were few prominent leaders, and the largely middle-class and entirely Protestant membership fragmented over the issue of slavery. Most ended up joining the Republican Party by 1860. The movement originated in New York in 1843 as the **American Republican Party**. It spread to other states as the **Native American Party** and became a national party in 1845. In 1855 it renamed itself the **American Party**. The origin of the "Know Nothing" term was in the semi-secret organization of the party. When a member was asked about its activities, he or she was supposed to reply, "I know nothing."
4. The Greenback Party 1874-1884: was an American political party that was active between 1874 and 1884. Its name referred to paper money, or "**greenbacks**," that had been issued during the **American Civil War** and afterward. The party opposed the shift from paper money back to a **specie-based monetary system** because it believed that privately owned banks and corporations would then reacquire the power to define the value of products and labor. Conversely, they believed that government control of the monetary system would allow it to keep more currency in circulation, as it had in the war. This would better foster business and assist farmers by raising prices and making debts easier to pay. It was established as a political party whose members were primarily farmers financially hurt by the **Panic of 1873**.
5. The Populist Party 1892-1908: (also known as the People's Party): was a relatively short-lived political party in the United States in the late 19th century. It flourished particularly among western farmers, based largely on its opposition to the **gold standard**. The party did not remain a lasting feature most probably due to the fact that they had been so closely identified with the free silver movement which did not resonate with urban voters and ceased to become a major issue as the U.S came out of the depression of the 1890's. The very term "**populist**" has since become a generic term in U.S. politics for politics which appeals to the common in opposition to established interests.

The Populist Party grew out of the agrarian revolt that rose to the collapse of agriculture prices following the Panic of 1873. The Farmers' Alliance, formed in Lampasas, TX in 1876, promoted collective economic action by farmers and achieved widespread popularity in the South and Great Plains. The Farmers' Alliance was ultimately unable to achieve its wider economic goals of collective economic action against brokers, railroads, and merchants, and many in the movement agitated for changes in national policy. By the late 1880s, the Alliance had developed a political agenda that called for regulation and reform in national politics, most notably an opposition to the gold standard to counter the **deflation** in agricultural prices.

The drive to create a new political party out of the movement arose from the refusal of both Democrats and Republicans to take up and promote the policies advocated by the Alliance, notably in regard to the Populists'

call for unlimited coinage of silver. The Populist Party was formed by members of the "Alliance", in conjunction with the **Knights of Labor, in 1889–1890**. The movement reached its peak in 1892 when the party held a convention in Omaha, Nebraska and nominated candidates for the national election.

The party's platform, commonly known as the **Omaha Platform**, called for the abolition of national banks, a graduated income tax, direct election of Senators, civil service reform, a working day of eight hours and Government control of all railroads, telegraphs, and telephones. In the 1892 Presidential election, James B. Weaver received 1,027,329 votes.

By 1896, the Democratic Party took up many of the Populist Party's causes at the national level, and the party began to fade from national prominence. In that year's presidential election, the Populists nominated Democratic candidate **William Jennings Bryan**; he backed the Populist opposition to the gold standard in his famous "**Cross of Gold**" speech. The Populists could not bring themselves to also nominate Bryan's conservative eastern running mate, **Arthur Sewall**, and nominated **Thomas E. Watson** for vice president instead, though Watson staunchly opposed fusion with the Democrats.

Bryan lost to William McKinley by a margin of 600,000 votes. The effects of **fusion** with the Democrats were disastrous to the Party in the south. Collaboration with the racist Democratic establishment effectively ended the Populist/Republican alliance which had governed North Carolina with the support of African Americans. By 1898, the North Carolinian Populists were attempting to out-flank the Democrats with a virulently racist campaign.

In 1900, while many Populist voters supported Bryan again, the weakened party nominated a ticket of Wharton Barker and Ignatius L. Donnelly. Thomas E. Watson was the Populist nominee for president in 1904 and in 1908, after which the party effectively ceased to exist.

6. The Progressive "Bull Moose" Party 1912-1914: was a political party created by a split in the Republican Party in the presidential election of 1912. It was formed by Theodore Roosevelt when he lost the Republican nomination to William Howard Taft and pulled his delegates out of the convention. The party is colloquially also known as the **Bull Moose Party**, after the party's emblem and after Roosevelt's boast that he was "as strong as a bull moose".

TARIFFS OF THE UNITED STATES

Tariff of 1789: the first tariff law; called for about 5-15% of the value of dutiable imports. The main goal was to raise revenue, but also designed to raise erect a low protective wall around the infant industries

Tariff of 1816: the tariff in American history with aims that were primarily protective; begins a strong protective trend; levied heavy duties on imported manufactured goods; helped northern industry from the onslaught of British goods

Sectional Tariff of 1824: the former level of 20-25% (Tariff of 1816) was raised to 37% under President Monroe

"Tariff of Abomination"/The Tariff of 1828: Jacksonites pushed duties up to 45% on certain manufactured goods and raw materials, which northern manufacturers so urgently needed, notably wool. They hoped that even industrial sections would vote against it rather than support it. Hoped to hurt John Quincy Adams; backfired; upset the South; raised rates

Tariff of 1832: lowered the imposts to about the level of Tariff of 1824 (35%); frankly protective; seemed permanent to the South; led to nullification crisis

Compromise Tariff of 1833: Tariff of 1832 would be gradually reduced by 10% over 8 years and by 1842 it would be about 20-25%; lowered rates

Walker Tariff 1846: reduced the average rates of the Tariff of 1842 from 32% to 25%; unites rural and agricultural factions; excellent as a revenue producer; lowered rates

Tariff of 1857: reduced duties to about 20% on dutiable goods – the lowest since the War of 1812; the surplus in the treasury melted away; lowered rates

Morill Tariff 1861: North needed revenue with war coming; raised rates to protect industry; raised rates twice between 1861 & 1862

McKinley Tariff 1888: rates were raised to the highest peacetime level yet; an average of 49%; brought new woes to the farmer; kept protection high and surplus low; raised rates

Payne-Aldrich Tariff 1909: Taft campaigned for tariff "reform" which many thought meant lower tariffs; lowered the protection on Midwestern farm products, while raising rates favorable to his Northeast.

Underwood Tariff 1913: cut rates, but the coming of world war in 1914 radically revised trade patterns. Reduced trade and, especially, the new revenues generated by the federal income tax made tariffs much less important.

Smoot-Hawley Tariff 1930: highest protective tariff in peacetime history; duties raised from 32% to nearly 60%; Canada, Britain, Germany, France and other industrial countries retaliated with their own tariffs and special, bilateral trade deals. American imports and exports both went into a tailspin.

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) 1947: minimize tariffs and other restrictions, and to liberalize trade among all capitalist countries. In 1995 GATT became the World Trade Organization (WTO); with the collapse of Communism its open markets/low tariff ideology became dominant worldwide in the 1990s.

North American Trade Agreement (NAFTA) 1994: It was based on George H. W. Bush's plan to enlarge the scope of the market for American firms to include Canada and Mexico. US President Bill Clinton, with strong Republican support, pushed NAFTA through Congress over the vehement objection of labor unions; in 2000 he worked with Republicans to give China entry into WTO and "most favored nation" trading status (*i.e.*, low tariffs).

Themes and Key Concepts of the 9 Periods of Historical Research

Period 1 (1497-1607): Exploration Period

Theme: On a North American continent controlled by American Indians, contact among the peoples of Europe, the Americas, and West Africa created a new world

Key Concepts:

- Columbian Exchange, Spanish & Portuguese exploration, maize, epidemics, livestock, encomienda system
African Slavery, Christianity, white superiority issues, gold, feudalism to capitalism, population growth

Major Events:

- Christopher Columbus & the Tainos

Period 2 (1607-1754): Colonial Period

Theme: Europeans and American Indians maneuvered and fought for dominance, control, and security in North America, and distinctive colonial and native societies emerged

Minor Theme(s):

- Colonists begin to develop experience in and expectations of self-government in the political, social, religious and economic aspects of life.

Key Concepts:

- Spanish, French, Dutch and English explore North America and develop colonies. The Spanish sought to control their native populations and convert them to Catholicism and exploit the natural resources, both the Dutch and the French wanted to establish trade (fur) with the local natives, but the English sought to establish colonies based on agriculture, sending relatively large numbers of men and women to acquire land and populate their settlements, while having relatively hostile relationships with American Indians
- Unlike Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies, which accepted intermarriage and cross-racial sexual unions with native peoples (and, in Spain's case, with enslaved Africans), English colonies attracted both males and females who rarely intermarried with either native peoples or Africans, leading to the development of a rigid racial hierarchy
- At first, the Chesapeake area developed a tobacco economy with indentured servants as the workforce, by the end of the century the Atlantic Slave Trade grew and black slavery became the basis a free labor in the south. This British system of enslaved black people in perpetuity, altered African gender and kinship relationships

- in the colonies, and was one factor that led the British colonists into violent confrontations with native peoples
- In New England Puritans migrate and bring organized colonies, politics and schools. By the 1700's colonist are influenced by the Enlightenment in Europe and new ideas about self government and liberty emerge and are expressed through a print culture.
 - The demographically, religiously, and ethnically diverse middle colonies supported a flourishing export economy based on cereal crops, while the Chesapeake colonies and North Carolina relied on the cultivation of tobacco, a labor-intensive product based on white indentured servants and African chattel
 - Competition over resources in America and political conflicts in Europe led to growing hostility and rivalry between the different European colonies and culminated in war. This also altered the culture of Native Americans as they were often used by each European power as allies and buffers between the colonies.
 - Late 17th-century efforts to integrate Britain's colonies into a coherent, hierarchical imperial structure and pursue mercantilist economic aims met with scant success due largely to varied forms of colonial resistance and conflicts with American Indian groups, and were followed by nearly a half-century of the British government's relative indifference to colonial governance

Major Events:

- Jamestown, headright system, indentured servants, House of Burgesses, Maryland's Toleration Act 1649, Bacon's Rebellion 1676, Mayflower Compact 1620, Puritans, *City Upon a Hill 1630*, Dissenters, New England Confederation, Dominion of NE, antinomianism, Salem Witch Trials, Half-Way Covenant, Navigation Acts, the Great Awakening, print revolution, *Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God*, King Philip's War 1675, fur trade, smuggling, Pennsylvania and Quakers, salutary neglect

Period 3 (1754-1800) Revolutionary and Nation Building Period:

Theme: British imperial attempts to reassert control over its colonies and the colonial reaction to these attempts produced a new American republic, along with struggles over the new nation's social, political, and economic identity

Minor Theme(s):

- British attempts to exert control over the colonies lead to both violent revolt and successful organized resistance

Key Concepts:

- Indian alliances went back and forth between British and French due to the expanding fur trade and the desire for more land. A large population growth added to the problems in the colonies. British debt issues led to more taxes and the emergence of an independence movement which tested the colonist loyalties to the crown or patriotism for America.
- The Sons of Liberty and boycotts were both utilize to protest the British. The resulting independence movement was fueled by established colonial elites, as well as by grassroots movements that included newly mobilized laborers, artisans, and women, and rested on arguments over the rights of British subjects, the rights of the individual, and the ideas of the Enlightenment
- Both Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* and Thomas Jefferson's Declaration of Independence resulted in an American identity that was unique to the concept of British citizenship. The resulting American Revolution would establish a Republic under the Articles of Confederation which was a weak government that gave most of the power to the newly formed States. During and after the American Revolution, an increased awareness of the inequalities in society motivated some individuals and groups to call for the abolition of slavery and greater political democracy in the new state and national governments.
- Centralized power verses states' rights became a growing debate which led to the development of a stronger Constitution with a Bill of Rights to guarantee basic liberties of American citizens. Slavery and white superiority issues also led to a series of compromises on this issue; such as the Three-Fifth's Compromise. The Northwest Ordinance would not only set the stage for how a territory would become of state but also outlaw Slavery in the Northwest. As the first national administrations began to govern under the Constitution, continued debates about such issues as the relationship between the national government and the states, economic policy, and the conduct of foreign affairs led to the creation of political parties
- Enlightenment ideas and women's experiences in the movement for independence promoted an ideal of "republican motherhood," which called on white women to maintain and teach republican values within the family and granted women a new importance in American political culture
- Domestic and Foreign policy would plague the new Republic and be a major cause concern for the two political Parties: the Federalist and Jeffersonian Republicans. In George Washington's Farewell Address he would warn of both political parties and alliances with Europe. Washington proved to right about both issues. The two parties fought over how to interpret the Constitution, states' right and the power of the Federal government, while Europe became engulfed in the Napoleonic Wars.

- As western settlers sought free navigation of the Mississippi River, the United States forged diplomatic initiatives to manage the conflict with Spain and to deal with the continued British presence on the American continent
- Indian Conflict would continue to be an issue since Americans would now begin to cross the Appalachian Mountains and settle west to the Mississippi River.

Major Events:

- French/Indian War, Proclamation Act 1763, Pontiac's Rebellion, Stamp Act, Sons of Liberty, Committees of Correspondence, Boston Massacre, Boston Tea Party, Declaration of Independence, Common Sense, Articles of Confederation, Shays' Rebellion, Paxton Boys, Northwest Ordinance, Constitutional Convention, Hamilton's Financial Plan, Federalist Papers, Jeffersonian Republicans, Whiskey Rebellion, Jay's Treaty, Pinckney's Treaty, Washington's Farewell Address, XYZ Affair, Alien & Sedition Acts, Kentucky & Virginia Resolutions

Period 4 (1800-1848): the Era of Good Feelings

Theme: The new republic struggled to define and extend democratic ideals in the face of rapid economic, territorial, and demographic changes

Minor Theme(s):

- Conflict over the increasing national government intensify sectional tension between the north and south. During the "Age of Jackson" politics became more democratic, the power of the Presidency increased, America became more optimistic and expansionists and sectionalism supplanted nationalism.

Key Concepts:

- As the Federalist party faded away and the Jeffersonian Republicans morphed into the Democratic party, a new party, the Whigs emerged that focused on a National Identity and the growth of the economy and internal improvements through the American System. Innovations including textile machinery, steam engines, interchangeable parts, canals, railroads, and the telegraph, as well as agricultural inventions, both extended markets and brought efficiency to production for those markets. This in turn led to increasing numbers of Americans, especially women in factories and low-skilled male workers, who no longer relied on semisubsistence agriculture but made their livelihoods producing goods for distant markets, even as some urban entrepreneurs went into finance rather than manufacturing
- With the acceleration of a national and international market economy, Americans debated the scope of government's role in the economy, while diverging economic systems meant that regional political and economic loyalties often continued to overshadow national concerns. (**Issues:** the national bank, tariffs, and internal improvements)
- Southern cotton, the backbone of the American economy, furnished the raw material for manufacturing in the Northeast, while the growth in cotton production and trade promoted the development of national economic ties, shaped the international economy, and fueled the internal slave trade
- A Second Great Awakening would grow out of a concern that Americans had lost their way from their religious roots and put too much emphasis on the ever expanding Market Revolution. What started out as a conservative religious movement, however, would eventually turn into a massive social reform movement which included abolition and women's rights. Despite the outlawing of the international slave trade, the rise in the number of free African Americans in both the North and the South, and widespread discussion of various emancipation plans, the U.S. and many state governments continued to restrict African Americans' citizenship possibilities
- As the north embraced technological improvements and the development of factories, the south clung to its slave-economy and pro-agricultural heritage. The Louisiana Purchase helped to stimulate trade and migration west, the birth of new states and more debates over the role of the federal government especially in the area of slavery. The Missouri Compromise of 1820, the Tariff Compromise of 1833 and the Compromise of 1850 were all geared to try and see if northern and southern interest could coexist by allowing slavery to continue with various stipulations. The United States also began a process for continental dominance through a variety of means, including military actions, judicial decisions, and diplomatic efforts.

Major Events:

- Louisiana Purchase, the Embargo Act 1807, Marbury v. Madison, Maryland v. McCulloch, War of 1812, Hartford Convention, The American System, Era of Good Feelings, The Monroe Doctrine, Second Great Awakening, 'burned-over' districts, Transcendentalism, Utopian Societies, Market Revolution, Lowell Factory Girls, steel plows, factory system, Age of Jackson, Corrupt Bargain, Henry Clay, Nullification Crisis, Bank War, Indian Removal Act, Reform Movements, Whig Party v. Democrats, Panic of 1837, abolition, Frederick Douglas, William Lloyd Garrison, Hudson River School of Art, cult of domesticity, women's suffrage, Seneca Falls, Declaration of Sentiments, Texas Revolution

Period 5 (1844-1877): Antebellum, Civil War & Reconstruction

Theme: As the nation expanded and its population grew, regional tensions, especially over slavery, led to a civil war — the course and aftermath of which transformed American society

Minor Theme(s):

- Western Expansion and the war with Mexico become inextricably linked with sectional identity & division within American society in the 1840's & 1850's.
- The Civil War was caused by the combination of historic economic, social and political sectional differences that were further emotionalized by the slavery issue.
- The Civil War and its aftermath effectively determine the economic, political and social direction of the country however, the period of Reconstruction was one of failed expectations and political crisis.

Key Concepts:

- Manifest Destiny created a strong commitment to Western Expansion which led conflicts with both Native Americans and Mexico. Prior to the Civil War, this westward expansion also attracted immigrants from Europe who were looking for new economic opportunities and land. This resulted in a backlash of anti-immigration feelings that would linger throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries.
- The constant debates over slavery were a result from many factors. The growing manufacturing society of the north contradicted the south's agrarian culture and belief in states' rights and nullification policies. Compromise began to fail to solve the issue, and the Kansas-Nebraska Act and the Dred Scott decision would only heighten the already heated tension between the two regions. With the birth of a new "Republican Party" with its free-soil policy and the election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860, all hopes of a United States seemed lost as the nation fell into a costly Civil War
- The North's expanding economy and its increasing reliance on a free-labor manufacturing economy contrasted with the South's dependence on an economic system characterized by slave-based agriculture and slow population growth. Abolitionists, although a minority in the North, mounted a highly visible campaign against slavery, adopting strategies of resistance ranging from fierce arguments against the institution and assistance in helping slaves escape to willingness to use violence to achieve their goals. States' rights, nullification, and racist stereotyping provided the foundation for the Southern defense of slavery as a positive good.
- The North's greater manpower and industrial resources, its leadership, and the decision for emancipation eventually led to the Union military victory over the Confederacy in the devastating Civil War. Lincoln used Union victories as a means to issue his Emancipation Proclamation, which was a war time order. He would then fight to ensure African-American freedom by working diligently to have Congress pass the Thirteenth Amendment.
- The Civil War and Reconstruction altered power relationships between the states and the federal government and among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches, ending slavery and the notion of a divisible union, but leaving unresolved questions of relative power and largely unchanged social and economic patterns. The growth of Radical Republicans led to a power change in both the Congress and the presidency, and more freedom and civil liberties for African-Americans (via the 14th & 15th amendments) but ultimately failed to bring any lasting change to Southern culture or racial attitudes. The 14th & 15th amendments also angered many women leaders due to any lack of gender references which could have ensured the right to vote sooner for women.

Major Events:

- Manifest Destiny, War with Mexico, Wilmot Proviso, Gold Rush 1849, Compromise 1850, Kansas-Nebraska Act 1854, Bleeding Kansas, Lincoln-Douglas Debates, Preston Brooks v. Charles Sumner, Dred Scott Decision, Know-nothing Party, birth of the Republican Party, the Civil War, States' Rights, Emancipation Proclamation, Gettysburg Address, 13th-14th-15th Amendments, Hiram Revels, Radical Republicans,

Period 6 (1865-1898) The Gilded Age:

Theme: The transformation of the United States from an agricultural to an increasingly industrialized and urbanized society brought about significant economic, political, diplomatic, social, environmental, and cultural changes

Minor Theme(s):

- How did the American worker respond to the growth of industry and the rise of corporations?
- How did the "Gilded Age" help foster the consolidation of business, the beginning of government involvement in the economy and the organization of disadvantage economic & social classes?
- Throughout the Gilded Age, why did politics seemingly sink to a low level, the executive branch fail to respond to economic troubles & political parties split into factions?
- In what way did the economic revolution in agriculture in the late 1800's trap the Western farmer in a permanent debt dependency and what political action did they decide to take to resolve their condition?

Key Concepts:

- A new Industrial Revolution would take place after the Civil War, which would lead to the growth of Monopolies led by men who were the new leaders of the country. The Rail Roads were the first big industry in America and sought and received government help in the form of subsidies for their rapid expansion west. As new industries like oil and steel emerge, they relied on laissez-faire economic policy. Social Darwinism, massive immigration from Eastern and Southern Europe and Asia, all in their quest for political and social dominance in American Society.
- Both Labor Unions and farmer cooperative movements sought to curb the growth of big business through a variety of means. With both monopolies and new realities mechanized agriculture to deal with, the Granger movement tried to regulate railroads in Illinois but ultimately the Supreme Court would back big business. This did lead to, however, government regulation when the Interstate Commerce Commission was formed. With the collapse of the Grangers, farmers begin to finally organize into a political party: the People's (Populist) Party. This growing third party would try to reestablish Jeffersonian agrarian ideals and force a bi-metalist monetary policy on America. It would lose this battle in the election of 1896.
- Labor unions would fare a little better. Labor and management battled for control over wages and working conditions, with workers organizing local and national unions and/or directly confronting corporate power. Some victories were won, such as child labor laws, 40 hour work weeks and higher wages, but in the end big business would prove to be too powerful and the federal government no help. Labor strikes often turned public opinion against unions since many Americans saw this as socialism or anarchy.
- Government was generally characterized as being either corrupt or inefficient during the Gilded Age. The rise of Urbanization allowed for the growth of Political Bosses and the Political Machines that controlled the larger municipalities through voter fraud and fear. Immigration became the power base of the political machine, and in return they gave immigrants jobs, places to live and some social activities. However, most immigrants were in fact exploited by this process and lived in terrible tenement housing. The political machine eventually gained control of state governments and then the federal government. Since Senators were not elected but appointed at this time, it was easy for the machines to manipulate the system using the old spoils system of the early 19th century. Cries for reform will only be heard after the assassination of James Garfield with the passage of the Civil Service (Pendleton) Act 1883.
- The growth of the 'new' south saw only minor improvements in some industry development, but largely racist policies still dominate the cultural landscape. Legalized segregation was upheld through the Supreme Court decision in Plessy v. Ferguson. Individuals such as Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. DuBois would debate within the African-American community as to how best address this issue.
- Post-Civil War migration to the American West, encouraged by economic opportunities and government policies, caused the federal government to violate treaties with American Indian nations in order to expand the amount of land available to settlers

Major Events:

- Industrial Revolution, John D. Rockefeller, JP Morgan, Andrew Carnegie, laissez-faire economics, railroads, land grants, Credit Mobilier, Crime of '73, paper money v. gold, silver v. gold, bi-metalism, political bosses and political machines, urbanization, new immigrants, Pendleton Act, classical liberalism, Gospel of Wealth, Social Darwinism, consumer goods, advertisement, Knights of Labor, Labor Strikes, Homestead Steel Strike, Haymarket Riot, Pullman Strike, Granger Laws, Munn v. Illinois 1877, Wabash v. Illinois 1888, ICC, Populist Movement, the New South, Chinese Exclusionary Act, Wong Kim Ark v. USA, Nativism, Plains Indian Wars, Carlisle Indian School, Dawes Severalty Act, Election of 1896, William Jennings Bryan

Period 7 (1890-1945) Progressive Era:

Theme: An increasingly pluralistic United States faced profound domestic and global challenges, debated the proper degree of government activism, and sought to define its international role

Minor Theme(s):

- How did the Progressive Movement partially succeed in improving the life of average Americans by curbing Big Business, making the government more responsive to the will of the people and enacting social welfare legislation?
- How did Woodrow Wilson's style of Progressive Rhetoric help to convince Americans of the need to join the war in Europe?
- Woodrow Wilson's New Freedom differed in the style of Progressivism from that of both Theodore Roosevelt and William H. Taft. How?
- How did disillusionment with the idealism of WWI lead Americans to fear change and difference and to retreat into a superficial shell of self-satisfaction for Society and Isolationism for Washington?
- In what ways did the Great Depression and the New Deal lead to the expansion of government intervention to maintain the economic stability of the nation?

Key Concepts:

- Progressivism was brought about as a counter movement against the widespread corruption of the Gilded Age. Spurred on by calls for social change, middle class Americans, professionals, women rights' advocates and journalist work tirelessly to create a modern America that address the social ills of the past.

Progressivism was both a social and political movement that aimed to help individuals and change government at the local, state and federal levels. One of the major targets of Progressives was the monopolies. Through a series of federal regulation, the power of the monopoly was eventually curbed but not halted. Theodore Roosevelt, William Howard Taft and Woodrow Wilson would all have aspects of Progressivism in their domestic policy, but Woodrow Wilson would try to bring a measure of Progressivism to the world during and after WWI.

- At the end of the 19th century, the United States would start its move away from isolationism and move closer toward intervention and overseas expansion with the Spanish-American War. Also, the United States would start to influence and control the Caribbean and Latin America.
- WWI would see a rise in ultra-patriotism, a mobilization of the American force, the migration of African-Americans looking for jobs and the limiting of certain civil liberties, especially the freedom of speech. After initial neutrality in World War I the nation entered the conflict, departing from the U.S. foreign policy tradition of noninvolvement in European affairs in response to Woodrow Wilson's call for the defense of humanitarian and democratic principles, enumerating his ideals in both his war message and the 14 Points speech. Even though the United States played a small role in the allied victory, Wilson would dominate much of the meeting in Versailles and the subsequent Peace Treaty by formulating the League of Nations. This would prove to be problematic however, as the United States, due to Republican objections, would never actually join the League, thus making it weak and ineffectual.
- Although most African Americans remained in the South despite legalized segregation and racial violence, some began a "Great Migration" out of the South to pursue new economic opportunities offered by World War I
- At the outset of the 1920's, conservatives would win back the White House, and an era of prosperity would set into the nation, but it would not prove to last. The 1920's would be characterized by the Red Scare, Prohibition, Immigration Quotas, new technologies like radio, jazz music and the Harlem Renaissance.
- The stock market crash of 1929 would see an end to the prosperity of the 1920's and the advent of the Great Depression. Progressivism would make its comeback as seen through Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal programs. The New Deal were aimed at providing relief to the poor, stimulating recovery, and reform for the American economy. Throughout the decade of the 1930's, FDR would be at odds with radical, union, and populist movements which would eventually push Roosevelt toward more extensive reforms, even as conservatives in Congress and the Supreme Court sought to limit the New Deal's scope. Although the New Deal did not completely overcome the Depression, it left a legacy of reforms and agencies that endeavored to make society and individuals more secure, and it helped foster a long-term political realignment in which many ethnic groups, African Americans, and working-class communities identified with the Democratic Party
- The involvement of the United States in World War II, while opposed by most Americans prior to the attack on Pearl Harbor, vaulted the United States into global political and military prominence, and transformed both American society and the relationship between the United States and the rest of the world. A mass mobilization of the American work force, spearheaded by women (Japanese Americans were mostly excluded and placed into internment camps) and Mexican migrant workers, helped to create one of the largest economies on earth. The United States and its allies achieved victory over the Axis powers through a combination of factors, including allied political and military cooperation, industrial production, technological and scientific advances, and popular commitment to advancing democratic ideals

Major Events:

- Progressivism, Square Deal, muckrakers, How the Other Half Lived, the Jungle, Meat Inspection Act, Pure Food & Drug Act, Clayton Anti-Trust Act, Federal Reserve Act, Imperialism, Spanish-American War, Big Stick Policy, dollar diplomacy, WWI, Wilson's War Message, Great Migration, Treaty of Versailles, Article X, League of Nations, Red Scare, immigration acts and quotas, jazz age, Harlem Renaissance, Scopes Trial, Margaret Sanger, Alice Paul, 19th Amendment, Prohibition, radio, silent movies, stock market crash, Great Depression, New Deal, Schechter Poultry v. USA, Packing the Court, Huey Long, Washington Naval Conference, isolationism v. intervention, Neutrality Acts of the 1930's, internment camps for the Japanese, Atlantic Charter, Manhattan Project,

Period 8 (1945-1980) The Cold War:

Theme: After World War II, the United States grappled with prosperity and unfamiliar international responsibilities, while struggling to live up to its ideals

Minor Theme(s):

- How did the development of the Cold War lead the United States to pursue an ambivalent policy of confrontation, negotiation and preventative maintenance?
- Why can it be said that the Eisenhower years were characterized by prosperity & moderate conservatism at home & by tensions of the Cold War abroad?
- How did a combination of Kennedy's Domestic agenda & Johnson's Great Society help develop social reform for the Civil Rights movement?

- To what extent were the cultural upheavals and political crisis of the 1960's a direct result of the Vietnam War, the counter-culture revolution and the failure of the Great Society?

Key Concepts:

- WWII and its aftermath saw the United States take on a global role of stemming the tide of communism. Through various forms of "containment", presidents of the United States each played an active role in this new foreign policy issue. The United States would confront the Soviet Union through various proxy wars, most notably in Korea and Vietnam. The Cold War would spill out into new areas of concern, such as the Middle East, rich in oil supplies, and Latin America which was in America's backyard.
- Americans debated policies and methods designed to root out Communists within the United States even as both parties tended to support the broader Cold War strategy of containing communism. This led to a renewed Red Scare in America and the limiting of free speech in the 1950's. By the 1960's, however, a growing counter-culture revolution would lead some of the most passionate anti-war demonstrations in American history.
- Americans would also debate the merits of a large nuclear arsenal, the "military-industrial complex," and the appropriate power of the executive branch in conducting foreign and military policy
- With the backdrop of the Cold War, a renewed fight developed to finally fulfill Reconstruction-era promises on Civil Rights. Activists began to organize and protest the south's refusal to listen to the Supreme Court's decision on segregation in the Brown v. Topeka case. Sit-ins, marches and other peaceful protest were often met with violent resistance in the south. Philosophical differences also emerge in the African-American community over how to best approach civil rights. Dr. Martin Luther King jr. and Malcolm X being the most notable to express the differing viewpoints. Eventually successes would be achieved and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 would be considered one of the crowning moments of the Civil Rights movement.
- Stirred to action by a growing awareness of inequalities in American society and by the African American civil rights movement, activists also addressed issues of identity and social justice, such as gender/sexuality and ethnicity. Betty Friedan's *Feminine Mystique* would become a herald of new age feminist movements, Latinos, Asian Americans and Native Americans would march to demand social and economic equality and a redresses of past injustices.
- Liberalism reached its zenith with Lyndon Johnson's Great Society efforts to use federal power to end racial discrimination, eliminate poverty, and address other social issues while attacking communism abroad. Winning the election of 1964 in a landslide, LBJ would strive to continue John Kennedy's legacy while also instituting his own version of FDR's New Deal. While many social achievements would be made, Johnson's involvement in Vietnam would ultimately doom both his presidency and social liberalism.
- Newer issues came of light during the volatile 1960's. Environmental concerns lead to a wider understanding of pollution and its effect on the earth; the counter-culture, which rejected many of the social, economic, and political values of their parents' generation, initiated a sexual revolution, and introduced greater informality into U.S. culture. This led to conservatives and liberals clashing over many new social issues, the power of the presidency and the federal government, and movements for greater individual rights.
- At the outset of the 1970's, the United States and the Soviet Union would enter into a period of détente, an 'easing' of tensions between the two superpowers. However, this would not last through to the end of the decade

Major Events:

- Containment policy, Cold War, George F. Kennan, Berlin Air Lift, Marshall Plan, Korean War, Dixiecrats, McCarthyism, Suez Crisis, Interstate Highway Act, military-industrial space race, domino theory, massive retaliation, complex, rock-n-roll, conformity, sunbelt, television, beatniks, Brown v. Board of Education, Rosa Parks, MLK, Little Rock Nine, Malcolm X, Black Panthers, The Feminine Mystique, Cuban Missile Crisis, Great Society, Vietnam, Tonkin Gulf Resolution, Students for a Democratic Society, New Left, counter-culture revolution, détente, MAD, SALT I, Watergate scandal, New Right, Phyllis Schlafly, energy crisis, stagflation, 25th Amendment

Period 9 (1980-present) The Modern Era:

Theme: As the United States transitioned to a new century filled with challenges and possibilities, it experienced renewed ideological and cultural debates, sought to redefine its foreign policy, and adapted to economic globalization and revolutionary changes in science and technology

Minor Theme(s):

- Why did disillusionment with increasing violent protests of the 1960's lead to the entrenchment of conservative ideology between the years 1968 to 1992?

Key Concepts:

- In the wake of the Watergate scandal and disillusionment over Vietnam, many Americans started to lose faith in their national government. Failed attempts of establishing a Human Rights doctrine in foreign policy, an

energy and gas crisis, high interest rates and stagflation of the economy coupled with high unemployment would all help the rise of the conservative revolution.

- Utilizing a coalition of Ultra-conservatives, moral majority religionist, southern white democrats and blue-collar Catholics, Ronald Reagan will ride the conservative tide to two presidential victories in the 1980's. Conservatives would enjoy their most significant victories related to tax cuts and deregulation of many industries. Although Republicans and Ronald Reagan continued to denounce "big government," the size and scope of the federal government continued to grow after 1980, as many programs remained popular with voters and difficult to reform or eliminate
- The Reagan administration pursued a reinvigorated anti-Communist and interventionist foreign policy that set the tone for later administrations. Reagan and his supporters developed a strategy for winning the Cold war that would involve out spending the Soviet Union. While it is notable for some success, it left the United States with large deficits that would continue into the 21st century. Reagan had no desire to continue détente policy with the Soviets until he met the new president, Mikhail Gorbachev, which eventually led to significant arms reductions by both countries.
- With the end of the Cold War, the United States has taken on new roles of peacekeeper. Wars in the Persian Gulf, Afghanistan and Iraq, though controversial, have become important to the security of the U.S. , especially in the wake of the September 11, 2001 attacks.

Major Events:

- Conservative revolution, ERA, Iranian Hostage Crisis, Human Rights foreign policy, Camp David Accords, moral majority, Reaganomics, AIDS, SDI, Tax Cuts, deregulation, military spending, monetarist theory, anti-big government, NAFTA, 9-11 Attacks, war on terrorism

Major Historical Periods throughout U.S. History

Period	Date	Events, traits, and/or conditions and timelines
Colonial Period	1607–1763	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Jamestown founded 2. French and Indian War ended
Revolutionary Period	1763–1783	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. England ended salutary neglect 2. Treaty of Paris signed ending Revolution
Confederation Period	1781–1789	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. States surrender their western land claims 2. Constitution ratified
Era of Good Feelings	1815–1824	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. War of 1812 ended 2. Election of 1824
Jacksonian Era	1828–1848	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Andrew Jackson elected president 2. Mexican War ended/James Polk leaves office
Antebellum Period (South before Civil War)	1793–1861	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cotton gin invented/rise of slavery 2. Civil War started
Reconstruction Era	1865–1877	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Civil War ended 2. Compromise of 1877
Gilded Age	1868–1901	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ulysses Grant elected president 2. Assassination of William McKinley
Progressive Era	1901–1917	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Square Deal began 2. America entered the Great War
New Deal Era	1933–1939	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Franklin Roosevelt began his presidency 2. World War II began in Europe
Fair Deal Era	1945–1953	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Truman became president/F.D.R. died 2. Korean War divided nation/Truman retired
New Frontier/ Great Society Era	1961–1968	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. John Kennedy became president 2. Vietnam War divided nation

Three Major Rebellions in Early U.S. History

	Date	Cause	Events	Significance
Nathaniel Bacon's Rebellion	1676	Virginia frontiersmen seeking land clashed with Indians Frontiersmen demanded help from government Jamestown refused aid, fearing Indian War	Bacon and his men lived on frontier Bacon and his men stormed Jamestown Burned Jamestown Bacon died of fever Rebellion collapsed	Colonial rebellion against government authority Clash between east/west, rich/poor Tidewater's discrimination against frontiersmen Revision of indentured servant system, greater reliance on slave labor
Daniel Shays' Rebellion	1786–1787	Unfair taxes in Massachusetts Farms foreclosed Farmers imprisoned as debtors	Shays/1,200 men attacked courts in western Massachusetts State militia put down rebellion	Uprising was a general threat to property Threat that rebellion could spread to other states Articles of Confederation viewed as too weak to maintain law and order Bolstered call for revisions of Articles (Constitutional Convention, 1787)
Whiskey Rebellion	1794–1795	Farmers in western Pennsylvania refused to pay federal excise tax on whiskey Attacked tax collectors Farmers compared tax to Stamp Act of 1765	Washington called for 13,000 troops to suppress the rebels Rebels dispersed, ceased rebellion	Put the force of the government behind the Constitution Government could enforce the law Constitution protected law/order Hamilton's idea of an energetic national government prevailed
Nat Turner's (slave) Rebellion	1831	Slaves wanted freedom Nat Turner saw "vision" and attacked whites in Southampton County, Virginia	Turner, 70 slaves, and 55 whites killed Turner caught; he was executed, and hundreds of slaves were punished	Frightened South Tightened slave codes Restricted freedom for all blacks in South South began to aggressively defend slavery as a "positive good"

Religious Development in the Colonies

	Puritan Church (Puritans)	Anglican Church	Society of Friends (Quakers)	Catholic Church	Presbyterian Church
Leaders	John Cotton John Winthrop Cotton Mather	King or queen of England Bishop of London	George Fox William Penn	Pope in Rome Bishops Priests	Francis Makemie William Tennent
Areas of Influence	New England	Virginia Maryland	Pennsylvania Scattered in New England, New Jersey	Maryland (early) Scattered in parts of Pennsylvania	Frontier and backcountry; Pennsylvania, New Jersey
Beliefs	Man is depraved/sinful One is saved or damned at birth Wicked life was a sign of damnation Only "visible saints" were saved Intolerant of all other religions Coerced nonbelievers with force or banishment	King/queen headed church King's power came from God Used Book of Common Prayer Some Catholic liturgy and doctrine maintained	"Inner light" a guide to salvation Minimal church structure All people equal in God's eyes Pacifism Refused to take oaths Tolerant of other religions	Strict hierarchy with Pope at head Salvation earned by good works, faith, loyalty to church Priests were path to God No divorce allowed	Calvinism Split from Puritans over church governance Power lay with church elders Like other Protestants, accepted Jesus as savior Tolerant of other religions
Comment	By 1740 church represented largest denomination in colonies Lost much of their political influence in New England after 1700 Intolerance cost its support Hoped to create a religious "City Upon a Hill"	By 1740 had second-largest membership in colonies Much less influence in colonies than in England Being a member carried great status in colonies	Grew from Puritanism Clashed often with Puritans "Holy Experiment" in Pennsylvania	Maryland originally a Catholic haven Catholics very unpopular in other colonies, where they could not vote or hold office	By 1740 had third-largest membership in colonies Scotch/Irish immigrants changed church in early 1700s Split between New/Old Lights

The Four Greatest Presidents

President	Domestic Success	Foreign Success	Lasting Impact on Country/Presidency
George Washington	Bill of Rights approved National Bank founded Established authority of federal government to tax citizens Government authority established by Whiskey Rebellion	Jay Treaty: British out of forts in Northwest Maintained neutrality in European war Farewell Address advocated no entangling alliances Treaty of San Lorenzo with Spain opened up the Mississippi River to American trade	Created/established dignity and power of president Sound financial footing established Isolationism toward Europe proposed Secured the "West" (area beyond the Appalachian Mountains)
Thomas Jefferson	Reduced size of government Abolished Whiskey Tax Reduced national debt Pardoned Sedition Act violators Enacted Judiciary Act to reform court system	Negotiated Louisiana Purchase Barbary pirate wars establish respect for U.S. Kept U.S. out of European war	Achieved peaceful transition of power between parties Doubled geographic size of U.S. Promoted rights rather than control of people by government
Abraham Lincoln	Preserved the Union Emancipation Proclamation and Thirteenth Amendment Passed the Homestead Act Reformed banking system	Kept Europe out of Civil War	Kept nation whole Gave nation a new birth of freedom Expanded president's war-making power
Franklin Roosevelt	Created New Deal reforms to combat Depression Established Social Security Assisted homeless and unemployed Federal Deposit Insurance Corp. established Security and Exchange Commission created Civil Conservation Corp. founded	Led U.S. through World War II Established United Nations Led U.S. from isolationism to internationalism	America became a superpower Government permanently expanded its role in society Focused attention and power in Oval Office

All Presidents with Administration Highlights

President	Term	Party	Major Events/Developments
George Washington	1789–1797	Federalist	Establishes new government; Whiskey Rebellion; Jay Treaty; Farewell Address
John Adams	1797–1801	Federalist	Undeclared war with France; XYZ affair; Alien and Sedition Acts
Thomas Jefferson	1801–1809	(Democratic) Republican	First Republican president; Executed Louisiana Purchase; Embargo Act of 1807
James Madison	1809–1817	(Democratic) Republican	War of 1812
James Monroe	1817–1825	(Democratic) Republican	Florida purchase; Era of Good Feelings; Executed the Missouri Compromise and the Monroe Doctrine
John Q. Adams	1825–1829	(National) Republican	Corrupt bargain
Andrew Jackson	1829–1837	Democrat	Expands presidential power; Bank battle; Tariff/Nullification Crisis; Indian removal
Martin Van Buren	1837–1841	Democrat	Panic of 1837; Trail of Tears
William H. Harrison	1841–1841	Whig	First Whig president; Died in office
John Tyler	1841–1845	Whig	Annexation of Texas
James K. Polk	1845–1849	Democrat	Mexican-American War; Mexican Cession
Zachary Taylor	1849–1850	Whig	Last Whig president elected; Died in office
Millard Fillmore	1850–1853	Whig	Compromise of 1850
Franklin Pierce	1853–1857	Democrat	Kansas-Nebraska Act; Ostend Manifesto
James Buchanan	1857–1861	Democrat	Dred Scott decision; John Brown's raid; Seven states leave Union
Abraham Lincoln	1861–1865	Republican	Civil War; Emancipation Proclamation; First president assassinated
Andrew Johnson	1865–1869	Republican	Reconstruction; First president impeached; Purchased Alaska
Ulysses S. Grant	1869–1877	Republican	Reconstruction continued; Many scandals
Rutherford B. Hayes	1877–1881	Republican	Compromise of 1877; Reconstruction ended
James Garfield	1881–1881	Republican	Second president assassinated
Chester Arthur	1881–1885	Republican	Pendleton Act

All Presidents with Administration Highlights

President	Term	Party	Major Events/Developments
Grover Cleveland	1885–1889	Democrat	First Democratic president since Civil War; Tariff battle with Congress
Benjamin Harrison	1889–1893	Republican	Built up navy; Grandson of William H. Harrison; McKinley Tariff
Grover Cleveland	1893–1897	Democrat	Only president to serve two nonconsecutive terms; Depression of 1893
William McKinley	1897–1901	Republican	Spanish-American War; Third president assassinated
Theodore Roosevelt	1901–1909	Republican	Trust buster; Square Deal reforms; “Big stick” in Caribbean
William Howard Taft	1909–1913	Republican	Dollar Diplomacy in Caribbean; Split with Theodore Roosevelt in 1912
Woodrow Wilson	1913–1921	Democrat	Progressive reforms; World War I; Fought for League of Nations
Warren Harding	1921–1923	Republican	Normalcy period; Political and personal scandals; Died in office
Calvin Coolidge	1923–1929	Republican	Pro-business, <i>laissez-faire</i> administration; Kellogg-Briand Pact
Herbert Hoover	1929–1933	Republican	Great Depression strikes; Promoted attitude of rugged individualism
Franklin D. Roosevelt	1933–1945	Democrat	New Deal reforms; World War II; Elected to four terms
Harry S. Truman	1945–1953	Democrat	Fair Deal reforms; Cold War begins; Upset victory in 1948; Korean War
Dwight Eisenhower	1953–1961	Republican	Ended Korean War; Maintained peaceful coexistence with USSR; Established modern Republicanism
John F. Kennedy	1961–1963	Democrat	New Frontier reforms; Bay of Pigs; Cuban Missile Crisis; Assassinated 1963
Lyndon B. Johnson	1963–1969	Democrat	Great Society reforms; Civil rights acts; Escalated Vietnam War
Richard Nixon	1969–1974	Republican	Ended Vietnam War; Recognized China; Watergate scandal; First president to resign
Gerald Ford	1974–1977	Republican	Took over when Nixon resigned; Pardoned Nixon for his crimes
Jimmy Carter	1977–1981	Democrat	Camp David Accords; Iran Hostage Crisis
Ronald Reagan	1981–1989	Republican	Supply-side economics; Military buildup; Soviet Union’s Cold War decline began
George H. W. Bush	1989–1993	Republican	Collapse of Soviet Union; End of Cold War; First Gulf War
William (Bill) Clinton	1993–2001	Democrat	Dismantling of Soviet Empire; Welfare Reform; Impeachment

The Great Awakenings

	First Great Awakening	Second Great Awakening
Background/ Causes	<p>Began in England with John Wesley's, and George Whitefield's crusades</p> <p>Rise in secularism</p> <p>Met outdoors; often involved 1,000s</p> <p>Countered Enlightenment's rationalism</p> <p>Whitefield brought ideas to colonies</p>	<p>Rise in secularism</p> <p>Desire to strengthen public morality</p> <p>Met outdoors; often involved 1,000s</p> <p>Grew from "camp meetings" of 1790s (Cane Ridge, Kentucky) spread to "burned-over district" of New York</p>
Participants	<p>Lower classes: laborers, servants, small farmers</p> <p>Many women converts; free/enslaved blacks</p> <p>Many church dominations, but Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians in forefront</p>	<p>Many women converts</p> <p>Evangelical Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians in forefront</p> <p>Millennialists: second coming of Christ</p> <p>Some African Americans, Native Americans</p> <p>Reform groups: temperance, abolitionists</p>
Ideas	<p>Predestination: salvation by faith/grace not by good works (Calvinistic)</p> <p>Stressed universality of sin</p> <p>Repent sins; reaffirm faith</p> <p>Choose Christ or Hell</p> <p>Literal interpretation of Bible</p>	<p>Rejected Calvinism: salvation through good works/personal efforts</p> <p>Believed people are "free moral agents"</p> <p>Universal salvation</p> <p>Belief in personal/societal perfection</p> <p>Condemned greed/indifference to poor</p>
Leaders	<p>George Whitefield-main spokesman; emotional/spoke to throngs outdoors</p> <p>Jonathan Edwards: "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God."</p> <p>William/Gilbert Tennent- Presbyterian ministers</p> <p>Theodore Frelinghuysen- Dutch Reform minister</p>	<p>Charles Grandison Finney-evangelical minister in the "burned-over district"</p> <p>James McGready-Presbyterian leader of camp meetings</p> <p>Peter Cartwright-Methodist circuit rider</p> <p>Timothy Dwight-spread ideas at Yale college and in New England</p>
Impact	<p>Challenged clergy: untutored ministers could preach</p> <p>Attacked status quo: egalitarian with universal salvation; challenged deference</p> <p>Spoke out against slaves' treatment, but did not support abolition of slavery</p> <p>Divided churches: "Old Light" / "New Light" Presbyterians; turmoil in Congregational and Dutch Reform churches as well</p> <p>Promoted inter-colonial communication and cooperation</p>	<p>Energized reformers: abolition, temperance, peace movement, women's rights</p> <p>Promoted personal self improvement</p> <p>Individual could remake self and society</p> <p>Divided social classes/churches</p> <p>Increased membership in evangelical churches (Methodists/ Baptists)</p> <p>Rise of more emotional, personal approach to God and salvation</p>

Acts, Actions, and Reactions Leading Up to American Revolution

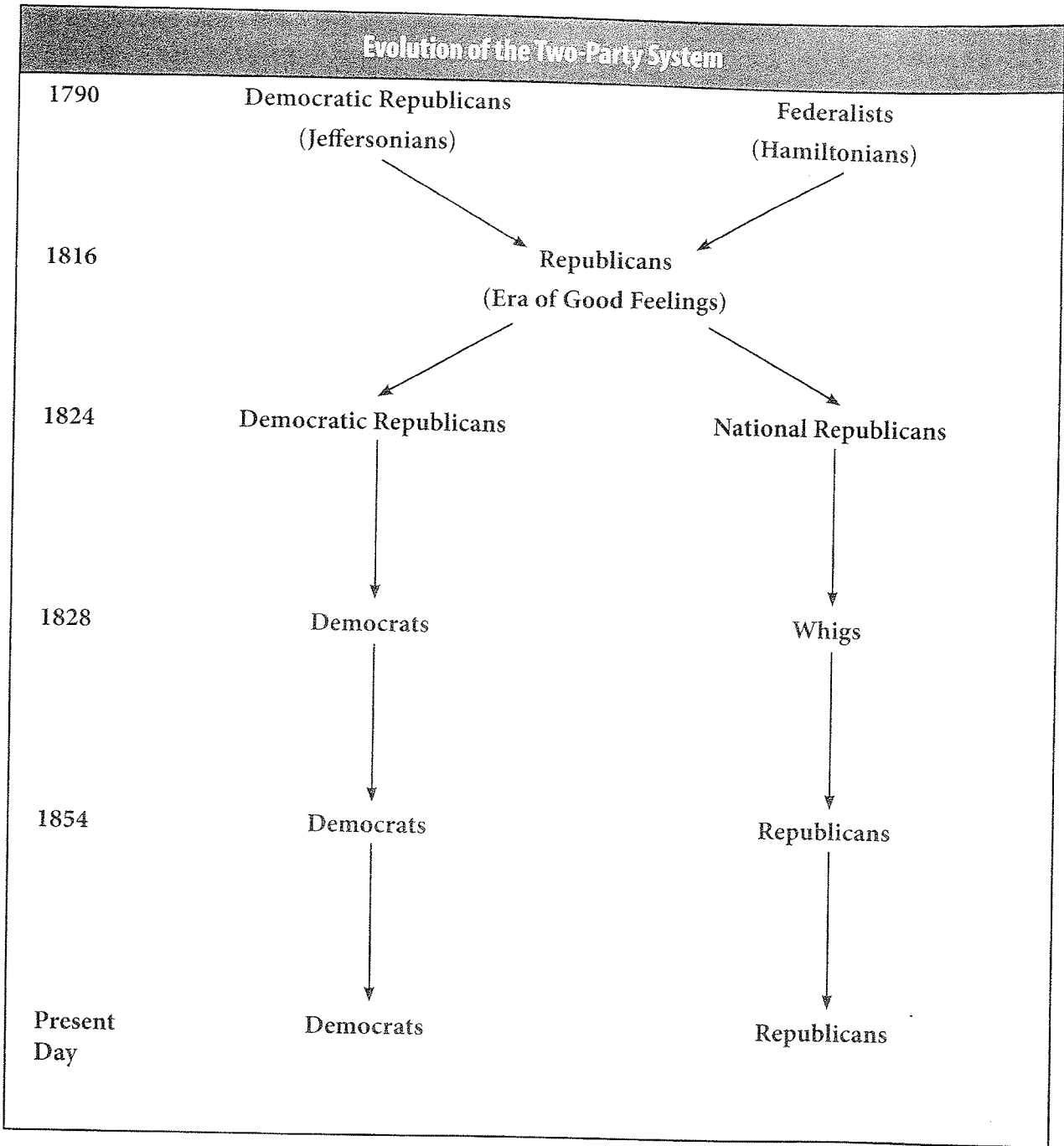
Act or Action	Purpose	Provisions of Act	Colonial Reaction	British Reaction
Proclamation Line of 1763	British hoped to pacify Indians in West Pacification would reduce need for troops to battle Indians on frontier	Forbade settlement west of Appalachian Mountains Everyone in the western region must return to the East	Anger; colonists had fought French and Indian War to gain access to western region Colonists continued to settle in the area	British modified law with Treaty of Fort Stanwix, 1768 Moved line of permitted settlement farther to west
Sugar Act 1764	Act passed to raise money for colonial defense	Duty on foreign molasses had been reduced but now would be enforced	Anger Smuggling	Attempted to enforce tax
Stamp Act 1765	Passed to raise money Same tax existed in Great Britain	Taxed dice, playing cards, newspapers, marriage licenses Total of 50 items taxed	Convened Stamp Act Congress Petitioned the King Urban riots Boycotted goods Viewed as an internal tax	Repealed law Little money raised
Declaratory Act 1766	When Stamp Act repealed, British needed to save face	England could pass any laws for the colonies	Ignored it	British attempt to assert their dwindling authority
Townshend Act 1767	Passed to raise money and regulate trade External tax	Taxed imports: glass, paint, lead, paper, tea	Boycott of British goods Urban riots	Repealed taxes on everything but tea in 1770
Boston Massacre 1770	British troops in city to enforce laws	n/a	Confronted soldiers	Opened fire on mob, five colonists killed
Boston Tea Party 1773	Colonists protested tea tax	Tax on tea from 1770 remained	Sons of Liberty threw 342 cases of tea into Boston Harbor	Intolerable or Coercive Acts passed
First Continental Congress 1774	Met to decide how to help Massachusetts resist Intolerable Acts	n/a	Pled to King to repeal the Intolerable Acts Boycotted taxed goods Called another Congress in 1775	Put troops in cities Decided to hold firm

The National Banks

	First Bank	Second Bank
Years	1791–1811	1816–1836
Reasons for Creation	Hamilton modeled it after Bank of England Paid dividends and interest to government, which was the source of revenue	1811–1816 country in economic chaos following War of 1812 Explosion in number of unstable state banks
Function	Provided flexible currency Created adequate credit for business Generated revenue for national government	Controlled state banks Provided flexible currency Controlled inflation Restrained land speculation
Supporters	Alexander Hamilton's supporters Members of the Federalist Party Mercantile, eastern groups Friends of strong central government	Madison signed recharter National Republicans/Whigs Henry Clay/Nicholas Biddle Mercantile, eastern groups
Opponents	Thomas Jefferson's supporters (Democratic) Republicans Backcountry farmers States' rights supporters	Old Jeffersonians Andrew Jackson—Democrats Western farmers Small banking interests Land speculators
Reasons for Demise	Republicans gain political power and, by 1811, control Washington Madison's government did not renew charter	Andrew Jackson's veto Became a cause célèbre for opponents of Jackson Appeared undemocratic/elitist in the egalitarian 1830s
Constitutional Issue	Federalists: Bank was "necessary and proper" under "elastic clause" in Constitution Republicans: Bank violated the Constitution—establishing Bank was not enumerated as a power of Congress in Article 1, Section 8 Great struggle of loose vs. strict interpretation of the Constitution	1819 <i>McCulloch v. Maryland</i> declared the Bank constitutional 1832 Jackson declared the Bank unconstitutional in his veto message Part of an ongoing debate between the loose/strict interpretations of Constitution and the strong/weak views of federal government

Dates	<i>Liberal</i>	<i>Conservative</i>
1790–1824	Thomas Jefferson spokesman Favored farmers Best government is the least government Advocated states' rights Opposed National Bank Supported low taxes/tariffs Supported reduced army and navy <i>Laissez-faire</i>	Alexander Hamilton spokesman Favored commercial, mercantile groups Government should be strong Wanted centralized government power Favored National Bank Believed that tariffs were necessary Strong national defense
1824–1840	Personal liberty, weak government Free competition, egalitarian opportunity Anti-National Bank, anti-tariffs States should fund roads, canals Supported Andrew Jackson	Supported compact theory of government Weak presidents Pro-National Bank National government should fund roads, canals Whigs—opponents of Andrew Jackson Supported Henry Clay
1840–1865	Pro-union Antislavery Favored national program of roads/canals Opposed westward expansion Opposed extending slavery into territories Opposed secession	States' rights Proslavery Opposed national program of roads/canals Favored westward expansion Favored extending slavery into territories Supported secession
1865–1900	Supported Radical Reconstruction Wanted honesty in government Supported Reform Darwinism Anti-imperialist Expanded money supply (paper, silver) Supported government regulation of business Wanted low tariffs	Resisted Radical Reconstruction Tolerated spoils system Supported Social Darwinism Expansionist Supported gold standard <i>Laissez-faire</i> High tariffs Gospel of Wealth
1900–1940	Government intervention in society Progressive social and labor reforms Regulations and limitations of trusts Collective security (League of Nations) Promoted consumer protection Presidents: T. Roosevelt, W. Wilson, and FDR Direct government relief/welfare in 1930s Square Deal, New Deal Low tariffs	Old Guard Republicans Extremely favorable to business interests Isolationism Leaders: Taft, Lodge, Harding, Coolidge, Hoover Rugged Individualism Normalcy in 1920s Best government is least government No direct relief or welfare High tariffs

Years	Liberal	Conservative
1940–1960	Government should regulate economy Government responsible for people's welfare Deficit spending acceptable U.S. accepts international role Communism a challenge at home and abroad Supported organized labor Embraced federal support of racial justice and equality Encouraged flexible military response	Government should be limited in society Promoted individual responsibility for welfare Wanted a balanced budget Communism was a great domestic threat Limited overseas involvement but contained Communism with force Reconsidered much of the New Deal States should handle their racial issues Encouraged massive retaliation
1960–1968	Expanded role of government in society Wanted Vietnam to be a limited war Racial justice was national priority Protected the environment Women's rights important U.S. should end domestic poverty Youth culture tolerated and celebrated	Government should be limited in society Total military victory in Vietnam States handle racial problems Wanted to restore law and order in cities Upheld sexual/gender roles Defended traditional family values Youth culture deplored
1968–1975	Withdraw from Vietnam Promoted Equal Rights Amendment for women Richard Nixon and Watergate a threat to liberty Great Society must be maintained Blacks' gains must expand with busing and affirmative action Nixon should be impeached	Wanted limited government in society Peace with honor in Vietnam Maintained traditional gender roles 'Silent Majority' should be heard Watergate not that important Repealed much of Great Society No special treatment for minorities to achieve equality Maintained that Nixon was no more corrupt than earlier presidents
1975–1985	Maintain Great Society Insisted on human rights in foreign policy Avoid future Vietnams Détente with USSR Promoted affirmative action Supported Equal Rights Amendment Supported conservation of energy Supported abortion rights (<i>Roe v. Wade</i>)	Wanted limited government in society Cut taxes Increased defense spending Acted aggressively overseas USSR viewed as an "evil empire" Limited federal role in civil rights Maintained family values Stressed finding new sources of oil Pro-life (anti-abortion)



Principles of the Political Parties, 1790–1900

Democratic Republicans (1790–1810)	Federalists (1790–1810)
Leader: Thomas Jefferson Weak central government Protect states' rights Strict view of Constitution Agrarian oriented (pro-farmer) Low taxes Weak military Anti-National Bank Pro-French	Leader: Alexander Hamilton Strong central government Reduce states' rights Loose view of Constitution Business and commerce oriented High taxes Strong military Pro-National Bank Pro-British
Jacksonian Democrats (1828–1848)	Whigs (1832–1852)
Jeffersonian traditions/ideas Supporters: small farmers and mechanics Anti-National Bank States control/building of roads and canals Proslavery Pro-Mexican War Strong executive <i>Laissez-faire</i>	Hamiltonian traditions/ideas Mercantile/business interests Pro-National Bank National government control/building of roads and canals (American System) Opposed spread of slavery Anti-Mexican War Weak executive Energetic national government
Democrats (1850–1900)	Republicans (1854–1900)
Proslavery Favored secession from Union Blamed for Civil War (Bloody Shirt Issue) States' rights (especially on civil rights) Agrarian oriented Feared strong central government Opposed gold standard (usually) Used Spoils System Supported lowering tariffs (1887) Reduced government role in railroad building In 1890s opposed Imperialism	Opposed the spread of slavery Opposed secession Whig influence/pro-business Briefly championed civil rights Business oriented Supported active national government Supported gold standard Used Spoils System but made some reforms Supported high tariffs Government support in building railroads In 1890s favored Imperialism

Third Parties in United States History

	Liberal Party, 1840–1848; Free Soil Party, 1848–1852	American Party (Know-Nothings), 1849–1856	People's Party (Populist), 1892–1903
Background	Grew out of split in abolitionist movement in late 1830s Liberty party merged into the Free Soil party in 1848	Grew out of nativist sentiment of the 1830s and 1840s Started as the “Supreme Order of Star-Spangled Banner”	Grew from farmer grievances against railroads and banks after the Civil War
Candidates	James Birney John P. Hale Martin Van Buren	Millard Fillmore	James B. Weaver William J. Bryan Tom Watson
Principles	Opposed the spread of slavery into territories Motto: “Free soil, free speech, free labor and free men” Free homesteads Repeal of Fugitive Slave Law End slavery in Washington, D.C.	Secrecy surrounded policies and members Immigration restrictions Anti-Catholic Literacy test to vote Tried to avoid a position on slavery (failed) Opposed Kansas-Nebraska Act	Free coinage of silver Public ownership of railroads/communications systems Income tax Eight-hour work day Immigration restrictions Direct election of U.S. senators
Impact	First political parties to oppose spread of slavery into territories Forerunners of the Republican Party of 1850s May have cost Henry Clay the 1844 election when Birney ran strong in New York State	Focused anti-immigrant, anti-Catholic resentment that had been building for years Briefly poised to replace Whigs as second national party Strong in Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts Eventually split over slavery	Omaha Platform of 1891 became blueprint for progressive reforms of twentieth century 1892 won 22 electoral votes Silver issue had little appeal to nonfarmers Failed to gain support of urban laborers

Third Parties in United States History

	Progressive Party (Bull Moose, 1912), 1912–1924	States Rights Party (Dixiecrats), 1948	American Independent Party, 1968–1972
Background	Grew from split between William Taft and Theodore Roosevelt in 1912	Grew from Democratic platform plank in 1948 that endorsed a modest civil rights program	Grew from civil rights revolution in 1960s Reaction to urban, racial unrest and rioting in mid-1960s
Candidates	Theodore Roosevelt Robert M. LaFollette	Strom Thurmond	George Wallace
Principles	Antitrust action Regulation of business Conservation of natural resources Women's suffrage Lower tariffs Direct democracy—recall, initiative, referendum	States should control civil rights Retain segregation of the races Maintain Jim Crow system in South Strict interpretation of Constitution	Law and order States should control civil rights Maintain racial segregation Reduce government power in Washington Repeal much of the Great Society's War on Poverty All-out victory in Vietnam
Impact	Split Republican vote in 1912 elected Woodrow Wilson president Roosevelt rejoined the Republican Party; Progressive Party faded after election of 1924	Expected to cost Truman and Democrats the election but Truman won Carried four southern states with 39 electoral votes Beginning of decline of Democratic Party in South	Won 46 electoral votes Made both Republicans and Democrats toughen their law-and-order stands Gave voice to a "white backlash" against integration Anti-Washington message adopted by other conservatives

Wars with Europe

	War of 1812	The Great War (WWI) 1914
Background	<p>France and England went to war in 1793 over European rivalries</p> <p>Both countries asked U.S. for assistance</p> <p>Both countries prohibited U.S. trade with the other</p> <p>U.S. refused and both countries seized American ships and cargoes</p> <p>England seized American men as well (impressment)</p>	<p>War began in Europe in July 1914</p> <p>Central powers (Germany et al.) fought against Allied powers (France, England et al.)</p> <p>Both Germany and England blockaded their enemies</p> <p>German submarines sank shipping vessels without warning</p> <p>England searched American ships</p>
President(s)	<p>Thomas Jefferson</p> <p>James Madison</p>	<p>Woodrow Wilson</p>
Action to Stay Neutral	<p>Withheld trade by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Embargo Act, 1807 • Nonintercourse Act, 1809 • Macon's Bill Number 2, 1810 	<p>Neutrality proclamation</p> <p><i>Lusitania</i> protest</p> <p><i>Sussex</i> pledge to stop the use of submarines against neutral shipping</p>
Major Events	<p><i>Chesapeake-Leopard</i> clash in 1807</p> <p>Thousands of men seized by British (1803-1812)</p> <p>Hundreds of American ships searched and seized by British and French</p>	<p><i>Lusitania</i> sunk May 1915 (1,400 killed)</p> <p><i>Sussex</i> pledge issued in 1916</p> <p>Zimmerman note, 1917 (Germany proposed an alliance with Mexico against U.S.)</p>
Outcome	<p>War declared against England in June 1812</p>	<p>War declared against Germany in April 1917</p>
Comments	<p>War supported by South and West</p> <p>"War Hawks" like Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, and Felix Grundy pushed the president into war, had hopes U.S. would gain Canada by victory</p> <p>New England shippers opposed war, calling it "Mr. Madison's War"</p> <p>War divided the country, yet Madison won re-election in 1812</p>	<p>Germany's unrestricted submarine warfare led to war with Germany</p> <p>England seized many ships but did not take lives</p> <p>U.S. waged war "to make world safe for democracy"</p> <p>U.S. did not formally join military alliance with England and France</p>

Four Major Compromises in U.S. History

	Great Compromise 1787	Missouri Compromise 1820	Compromise of 1850	Compromise of 1877
Issue	Representation in Congress	Admission of Missouri would disrupt Senate balance between free and slave states Should slavery extend into new territories?	Admission of California to Union Disposition of the territory acquired from Mexican War	Who won the presidency in the election of 1876?
Background	Congress was expected to be dominating branch of government Virginia Plan called for representation by population New Jersey Plan proposed equal representation	Missouri wanted to become the 12th slave state (11 free) Should slavery extend north of Ohio River line? What would happen regarding slavery in rest of Louisiana Territory?	Should slavery extend into the Mexican Cession? Should D.C. outlaw slavery and/or slave trade? Should the Fugitive Slave Law be strengthened? Should California be admitted as a free state? What should be done about Texas's disputed boundaries?	Three states sent two sets of election returns Democrat Samuel Tilden needed only one electoral vote to win Commission gave all 20 disputed votes to Republican Rutherford Hayes South threatened new rebellion
Resolution	Two houses of Congress House based on population Senate has two senators from each state Combined the Virginia and New Jersey Plans	Missouri became slave state Maine became free state No slavery north of 36 degrees/30 minutes in Louisiana Territory	California became free state Utah/New Mexico Territory organized by popular sovereignty Stronger Fugitive Slave Law Slave trade ended in D.C. Texas's land claims denied, but U.S. will pay Texas' debt	Hayes given presidency Removal of troops from South Aid for Southern railroads Two Southerners in Cabinet Patronage jobs given to Southerners
Significance	Allowed Constitution to be written and approved	Postponed debate over spread of slavery for 30 years	Postponed the Civil War for ten years	Ended Radical/Congressional Reconstruction

Influential Cases for Judicial Nationalism

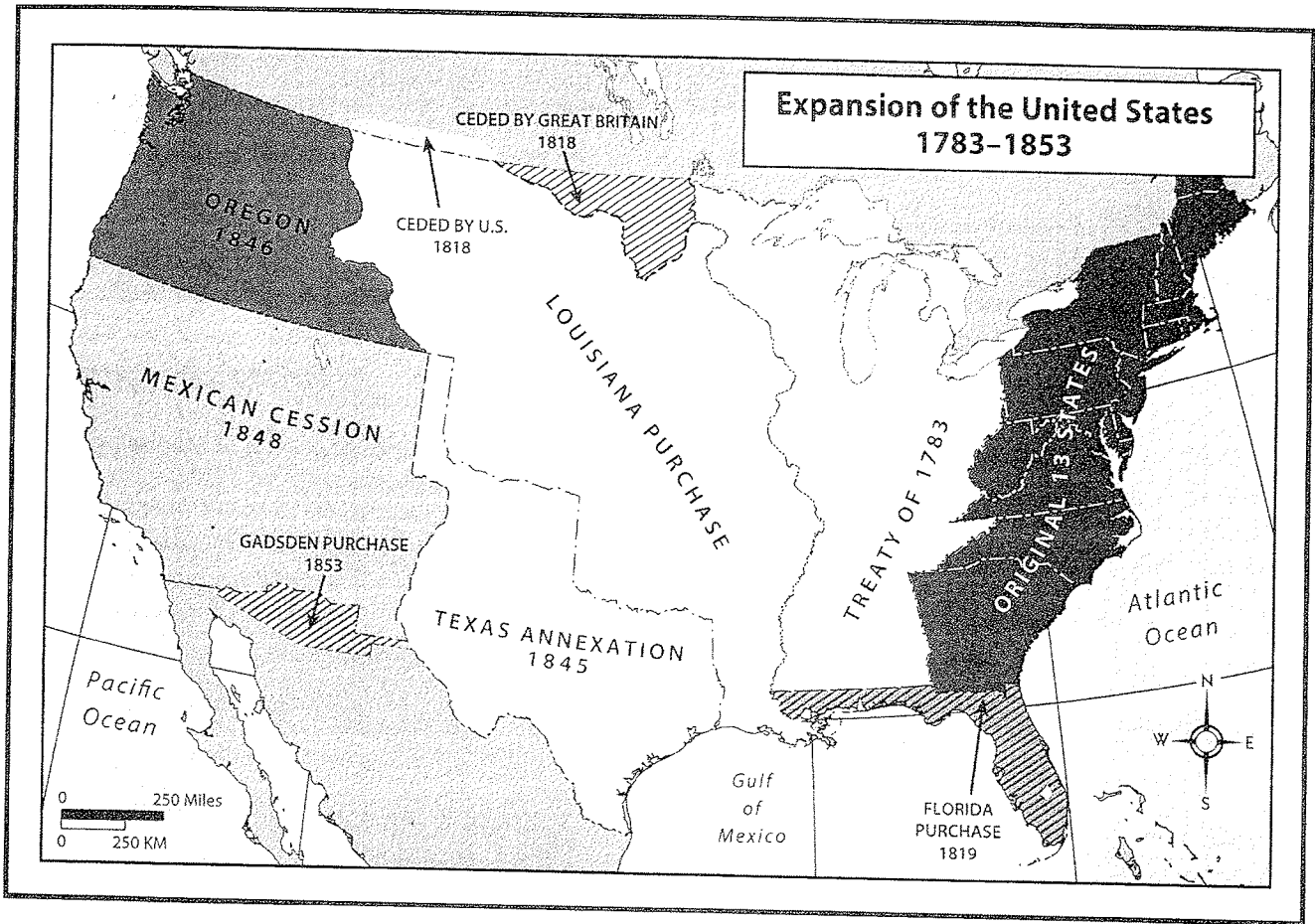
	<i>Dartmouth College v. Woodward</i> , 1819	<i>McCulloch v. Maryland</i> , 1819	<i>Gibbons v. Ogden</i> , 1824
Background	New Hampshire Republicans wanted to rid Dartmouth College of its Federalist influence Changed charter and fired president of college	Maryland wanted to regulate a branch of National Bank within its borders Placed a tax on all banks in state not chartered by the legislature Bank refused to pay tax	New York granted a monopoly on ferry boat service between New York and New Jersey to Robert Fulton's steamboat company Others challenged the monopoly New York courts upheld the monopoly
Question(s) to be decided	Could a state change a private college into a public university by revoking its charter?	Could Maryland tax a branch of National Bank? Was Bank constitutional?	Was monopoly legal? What powers to regulate interstate commerce did federal government have?
Ruling	New Hampshire could not revoke Dartmouth's charter because it was a form of contract	Maryland could not tax bank because state power was subordinate to Constitution Court said "power to tax involves the power to destroy" Bank constitutional under necessary-and-proper clause	A federal coastal license nullified New York's grant of monopoly Congress had power to regulate interstate commerce Commerce was more than exchange of goods; it included transportation and other types of commercial endeavors
Business Interest Promoted	Contract law strengthened by extending contract clause to corporate charter Sanctity of contracts encourages commercial growth	Upheld National Bank, which was very popular among mercantile groups National Bank encourages commerce, business growth	Struck down monopolies, encouraging business competition Strengthened federal government's power over interstate commerce (more business friendly than states)
States' Rights Diminished	New Hampshire could not change college from private to public	Maryland's taxing power reduced	New York's power to regulate trade reduced

Cornerstones of U.S. Foreign Policy

	Isolationism	Monroe Doctrine	Open Door
Area of World	Europe	Western Hemisphere	Asia
Year Established	1793, 1796	1823	1899–1900
Author(s)	George Washington	James Monroe John Quincy Adams	John Hay
Background	<p>Proposed when England and France went to war 1793</p> <p>Both countries expected our help</p> <p>U.S. had an alliance with France from Revolution</p>	<p>U.S. feared Spanish recolonization in South America</p> <p>U.S. feared Russian colonies on west coast of U.S.</p> <p>England wanted to be a partner in issuance; U.S. said no to dual authorship</p>	<p>After Spanish War (1898) U.S. became interested in China</p> <p>Europeans were already in China and had created trading spheres of influence that could exclude U.S.</p>
Elements	<p>Neutrality in European affairs</p> <p>No entangling military or political alliances for U.S.</p> <p>Europe/U.S. have separate spheres of interest</p> <p>Commercial relations maintained</p>	<p>No new colonies in Western Hemisphere.</p> <p>Existing colonies left alone by U.S.</p> <p>Isolationism from Europe reinforced from earlier foreign policy pronouncements</p> <p>Discouraged extension of monarchies into Americas</p>	<p>All nations share equal trading rights in China</p> <p>All countries must guarantee China's territorial integrity</p>
Comments	<p>Washington's Farewell Address in 1796 reinforced ideas</p> <p>Resulted in war in 1812, 1917</p> <p>Established a policy that lasted until 1949 when U.S. joined NATO</p> <p>Cited as reason to oppose League of Nations in 1919</p>	<p>England enforced doctrine for 70 years</p> <p>Roosevelt Corollary (1904) strengthened it</p> <p>U.S. became policeman of Caribbean</p> <p>"Big Stick" to keep down "chronic wrongdoing"</p> <p>Later became "Dollar Diplomacy" to control of the Caribbean region</p> <p>U.S. aggressiveness alienated many South American countries</p>	<p>U.S. became protector of China, but mainly sought trade access</p> <p>Boxer Rebellion (1900) frightened U.S. because China's territory might be divided by European powers</p> <p>Japan became greatest threat to Open Door</p> <p>When U.S. challenged Japan's violation of Open Door, Japan attacked Pearl Harbor</p>

U.S. Expansion

Land Area	Date	Means of Acquisition	Cost	Significance
Original thirteen states and area east of Mississippi River	1783	Treaty of Paris with England to conclude the American Revolution	\$0	U.S. gained trans-Appalachian empire Gateway to land beyond Mississippi River Led to Northwest Ordinance
Louisiana Territory	1803	Treaty with Napoleon in France	\$15 million	Doubled the size of the U.S. Gave United States control of Mississippi River (New Orleans) Eliminated Napoleon as threat to American security Led to conflicts over status of slavery in new territories
Florida	1819	Adams-Onís Treaty with Spain (Transcontinental Treaty)	\$5 million	Set Sabine River as southern boundary of U.S. Established boundary between New Spain and Louisiana Territory Spain recognized U.S. claims to Oregon U.S. surrendered its claims to Texas
Oregon	1846	Treaty with England	\$0	Prevented war with England by splitting Oregon Territory at 49 th parallel Gave U.S. clear claim to land on the Pacific Coast U.S. now stretched from ocean to ocean
Mexican Cession	1848	Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo settled Mexican-American War	\$15 million	U.S. acquired California and large portions of southwest North America Completed Manifest Destiny Led to conflict over status of slavery in territory won from Mexico
Gadsden Purchase	1853	Treaty with Mexican government	\$10 million	Bought with the hope of building a transcontinental railroad across the southern U.S. Instead, transcontinental railroad went through middle of the nation in 1860s



	War of 1812	Mexican War	Civil War	Spanish-American War
Dates	1812-1814	1846-1848	1861-1865	1898
President(s)	James Madison	James K. Polk	Abraham Lincoln	William McKinley
Causes	Impressment Freedom of the seas threatened U.S. hoped to gain Canada from England War Hawks' pressure	Manifest Destiny Texas boundary dispute South's desire for new slave territory	Slavery States' rights Eleven southern states withdrew from Union to start their own country	Oppression of Cubans by Spain sparks revolt U.S. business interests threatened in Cuba by the fighting between the rebels and Spanish Battleship Maine blown up Yellow press strengthened anti-Spanish sentiment Pressures of new Manifest Destiny
Important Military Events	England burned Washington Plattsburg battle Battle of the Thames Siege of Baltimore New Orleans	Buena Vista Siege of Veracruz Mexico City	Antietam Fredericksburg Chancellorsville Gettysburg Vicksburg Sherman's march to sea	Manila Bay San Juan Hill
Treaty	Ghent	Guadalupe Hidalgo	Appomattox	Paris
Terms	No resolution of original disputes No territory gained for either side	U.S. got Mexican Cession Agreement on Texas border	South rejoined the Union, but without slavery	Cuba freed from Spain U.S. got Guam, Puerto Rico, Philippines
Importance	War promoted American nationalism and patriotism Crushed Indian resistance in South and West Federalist Party died Industrialization began in New England Era of Good Feelings began	Fulfilled Manifest Destiny Re-opened debate over expansion of slavery (Wilmot Proviso) Led to Compromise of 1850	Union saved Ended slavery in the U. S. Bloodiest war in American history Difficult and divisive Era of Reconstruction left bitter feelings on both sides for decades	U.S. acquires foreign territory and becomes world power U.S. enforced Monroe Doctrine with aggressiveness

	World War I	World War II	Korean War	Vietnam
Dates	1917-1918	1941-1945	1950-1953	1950-1975
President(s)	Woodrow Wilson	Franklin D. Roosevelt Harry Truman	Harry Truman Dwight Eisenhower	Harry Truman to Gerald Ford
Causes	German submarine attacks Sinking of the <i>Lusitania</i> Zimmerman Note Trade, cultural ties with Britain Make "world safe for democracy"	Japan closed Open Door in China Japanese expansion in Asia and Pacific Pearl Harbor attacked Germany declared war on U.S.	Communist North Korea attacked South Korea and the United States sent troops to contain communism	Failure to hold Geneva Accords' elections in 1956 caused communist insurgency in South Vietnam and attacks by North Vietnamese forces
Important Military Events	Belleau Wood Chateau Thierry Second Battle of the Marne Meuse-Argonne	Guadalcanal Midway Leyte Gulf El Alamein Stalingrad Normandy Invasion Battle of the Bulge	Pusan siege Inchon landing Chinese communist intervention	Gulf of Tonkin Pleiku Tet Attacks Invasion of Cambodia
Treaty	Versailles	Accords with the Axis powers	Panmunjom Accords	Paris Accords
Terms	Germany surrendered, punished for war League of Nations created European boundaries redrawn to create new nations	Unconditional surrender Germany, Italy and Japan gave up Fascist philosophies and methods Japan and Germany occupied by Allied forces	South Korea remained free of Communism Communism remained in the North	Cease fire Communist troops remained in South Americans withdrew South Vietnam temporarily remained free of Communism
Importance	Four empires destroyed Communists took over in Russia U.S. rejected membership in League of Nations Harsh treatment of Germany leads to rise of Hitler	Atomic age began at Hiroshima USSR/U.S. began Cold War United Nations founded U.S. became international superpower	First test of military containment First limited war Hardened relations between the U.S. and Communist China	Six U.S. presidents tried to contain Communism War divided nation, left legacy of distrust of government and foreign intervention In 1975 North conquered South and Communism triumphed

Amendments to the Constitution	
1	Prohibits federal government from restricting religion, speech, assembly, petition, press
2	Gives citizens right to bear arms
3	Prohibits federal government from housing troops in private homes during peacetime
4	Prohibits federal government from making unreasonable searches and seizures
5	Prohibits double jeopardy, self-incrimination, seizing property without due process, and just compensation
6	Citizens have right to speedy and public trial, be informed of charges against them, impartial jury, legal counsel
7	Citizens have right to a jury trial
8	Prohibits excessive bail or fines and cruel or unusual punishment
9	Rights not enumerated in Constitution remain in people's hands
10	Powers not delegated to federal government are reserved to the state or people
11	Federal courts have no authority in suits by citizens against another state or foreign states
12	Provides for separate electoral voting for president and vice president
13	Abolished slavery in the United States
14	Blacks given citizenship; all citizens guaranteed due process of law and equal protection of the law; federal government would protect rights if states failed to do so
15	Black men given the right to vote
16	Federal government allowed to tax incomes
17	Direct popular election of United States senators
18	Prohibited the manufacture, sale, and transportation of alcoholic beverages
19	Women given the right to vote
20	Congress begins new term on January 3; president and vice president begin terms on January 20 of year following their election
21	Repealed Eighteenth Amendment
22	Limited the president to two terms or ten years in office
23	District of Columbia given three electoral votes in presidential elections
24	Abolished poll taxes in the voting process
25	When president dies or is disabled, vice president becomes president and new vice president is appointed; established procedures in case of presidential disability
26	All citizens eighteen years of age and older given right to vote
27	Congress prohibited from changing its pay for the current congressional term

Five Prominent Utopian Societies

	Founders	Location/ Background	Principles/ Practices	Reasons for Decline
New Harmony 1825-1828	Robert Owen	Harmonie, Indiana Former site of George Rapp's Harmonie Society.	Hoped to create "new moral world" Organized "phalanxes" Employed industrial Socialism Advocated communal living/ child rearing Defended women's rights	Intense infighting Insolvency No clear lines of authority Area was prone to flooding.
Brook Farm 1841-1847	George Ripley Sophia Ripley	Concord, Massachusetts Attracted literary figures: Nathaniel Hawthorne, Margaret Fuller, Bronson Alcott Hawthorne wrote about it in <i>The Blithedale Romance</i> (1852)	Based on Transcendentalism Daily life consisted of manual labor combined with intellectual seminars Advocated "high thinking /plain living" In 1845 embraced Fourierism: created "phalanxes" (community property and living)	Intellectuals disliked farm work Fire destroyed Phalanstery (meeting house) in 1846 Series of illnesses ravaged community in 1845-1846
Fruitland 1843-1844	Bronson Alcott Charles Lane	Harvard, Massachusetts Lasted from June 1843- January 1844 Never more than 30 members	Followed transcendental principles—commune with nature Believed that diet is key to a good life: ate no animal substances, milk, honey, cheese, coffee, or tea Lived on fruit, bread, water Rejected Capitalism	Failed to establish agricultural self- sufficiency Alcott and Lane were poor leaders Coming winter ended the experiment

Five Prominent Utopian Societies

	Founders	Location/ Background	Principles/ Practices	Reasons for Decline
Shakers Communities 1830-1860 (peak years)	Mother Ann Lee <i>(later)</i> Joseph Meacham Lucy Wright	Originated in England In the U.S., established in Lebanon, NY By 1840s, settlements stretched from Maine to Kentucky At peak had 6,000 members	God was both Father/ Mother Both men and women equal in the eyes of God Celibacy was ideal; men and women lived apart, but could eat together Rejected accumulation of private property Ann Lee was the daughter of God Women had leadership roles in communities Marketed vegetables, flower seeds, and fine furniture	Reached peak membership in 1840 Did not grow internally through live births Gained new members only through conversion, indenturing children, adoption
Oneida 1848-1880	John H. Noyes	Central New York State Grew to about 300 members An economic success produced silk products, steel traps, silverware	Banned private property Communal property holdings Practiced "mutual criticism" of members Practiced a form of eugenics Enacted "complex marriages"—multiple sexual partners	Noyes fled to Canada, charged with adultery 1879: stopped practicing complex marriages 1881: became a joint stock company

Strands of the Abolitionist Crusade

	American Colonization Society	American Antislavery Society	American/Foreign Antislavery Society
Year Started	1817	1833	1840
Leader(s)	Robert Finley Henry Clay James Madison	William Lloyd Garrison	Theodore Weld Lewis and Arthur Tappan
Goals	Voluntary emancipation and colonization Colonize free blacks in Africa Establish a colony in Africa for freed people	Immediate emancipation of all slaves in America No compensation to the slave holders	Gradual emancipation of all slaves in America Compensation to the owners for the loss of their slaves
Means	Lobbied Congress for support Gained \$100,000 from Congress to establish Liberia Published appeals for freed people to colonize in Africa	Moral persuasion Paid agents to lecture on the evils of slavery Publication of an antislavery paper, <i>The Liberator</i> Opposed political action	Moral persuasion Paid agents and published a newspaper to rally support Worked with churches Political action—close to the Liberty Party
Women's Role	Not an issue	Full, equal participation Women should address both men and women at meetings	Limited role, mostly behind the scenes Feared male backlash if women were too prominent in meetings
Summary/ Comments	Established Liberia in 1823 Congress mandated that all captured slave ships return Africans to Liberia About 15,000 free black people colonized in Liberia 1817–1870 Most free blacks opposed organization and its efforts	Garrison's radicalism made him controversial and divisive Challenged the churches to attack slavery from pulpit Condemned Constitution because it condoned slavery Challenged the Union itself Involved in many reforms besides slavery	Moderate approach; viewed Garrison as too radical, split with him in 1840 Attracted older members Tried to use Liberty and Free Soil Parties to gain members Declined in late 1840s and disbanded in 1855

Major Strands of the Nineteenth Century Women's Movement

	Seneca Falls Movement	National Woman Suffrage Association	American Woman Suffrage Association
Leaders	Elizabeth Cady Stanton Lucretia Mott	Elizabeth Cady Stanton Susan B. Anthony	Lucy Stone Julia Ward Howe
Goals	Right to vote Lessening economic oppression for women Overcoming "Cult of Domesticity and True Womanhood"	Right to vote along with black men Women should be included in 15 th Amendment Wide range of reforms	Keep nation aware of women's suffrage, but accept black men as voters for time being 16 th Amendment for women's suffrage
Supporters	Middle class women Some male abolitionists such as Frederick Douglass Quakers	Young, educated women Many from Seneca Falls Women in western states Only allowed women officials	More conservative women Strong in Boston area Former abolitionists: Frederick Douglass Welcomed male members
Methods	Published a Declaration of Sentiments Held an annual convention until the beginning of the Civil War	Lobbied to be included in 15 th Amendment Later demanded a separate amendment to give women the right to vote	State-by-state approach Worked exclusively for women's suffrage Avoided reforms not directly related to right to vote
Comments	Meetings grew from the snubbing of Mott and Stanton at the World Anti-Slavery Convention in London Women asked James Mott to preside because they felt it inappropriate for a woman to do so	Most radical of women's groups Issued racist rhetoric against the 15 th Amendment Hurt by association with Victoria Woodhull Merged with AWSA in 1890, becoming the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA)—Anthony and Stanton took leadership roles	More accepting of status quo Closer to the ideals of the "Cult of True Womanhood" Merged with NWSA in 1890, becoming the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA)—Anthony and Stanton took leadership roles

Diplomatic Pacts, 1794-1954

Year	Nations	Provisions
Jay Treaty, 1794	United States/ England	Britain withdrew from forts in Great Lakes Arbitration of Revolutionary debts Payment for American shipping losses U.S. gained improved trading status with Britain
Treaty of Ghent, 1814	United States/ England	Ended War of 1812 No land concessions by either side No apology by British for impressment Established commission to set boundary between U.S./Canada
Adams-Onís Treaty, 1819	United States/ Spain	U.S. got Florida U.S. paid Spain \$5 million Spain recognized U.S. claims to Oregon country Established boundary between New Spain and Louisiana Territory U.S. surrendered its claims to Texas
Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 1848	United States/ Mexico	Ended Mexican War Mexico recognized Texas annexation Mexico surrendered Mexican Cession U.S. paid Mexico \$15 million
Treaty of Paris, 1898	United States/ Spain	Ended Spanish-American War Cuba freed from Spanish rule U.S. got Puerto Rico and Guam from Spain U.S. paid \$20 million for Philippines
Treaty of Versailles, 1919	Allies/ Germany	Ended the Great War (World War I) Established the League of Nations Germany punished for starting war U.S. Senate rejected the treaty because of League of Nations and isolationist sentiment in U.S.
North Atlantic Treaty Organization, 1949	United States/ Twelve European Countries	Military alliance to contain Communism in Europe An attack on one country treated as an attack on all A mutual defense pact organized around concept of collective security First entangling alliance for the U.S.
Southeast Asia Treaty Organization, 1954	United States Great Britain France Australia New Zealand Thailand Pakistan Philippines	Mutual defense pact intended to repel common dangers in southeast Asia Committed to protecting countries under pressure from internal subversion and external attack by Communists Helped South Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia Intended to contain Communism in Asia

Reconstruction Plans for the American South

	Presidential	Congressional
Who was in charge?	President Abraham Lincoln President Andrew Johnson	Thaddeus Stevens Charles Sumner Other radical Republicans
Dates	April–December 1865	1866–1877
Had the South left the Union?	No; executive branch believed it needed to restore the states to their proper relationship with the Union	Yes; the southern states had left the Union, were conquered territories, and should be treated accordingly
Acts/Actions	Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction 1863, 1865 Vetoed Wade Davis Bill 1864 Pardoned most ex-Confederates Thirteenth Amendment 1865	Civil Rights Act 1866 Renewed, expanded Freedmen's Bureau Fourteenth Amendment 1868 Reconstruction Acts 1867–1868 Tenure of Office Act 1867 Fifteenth Amendment 1870 Force Acts 1870–1871 Civil Rights Act 1875
Elements of Plans	South must: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • renounce secession • ratify Thirteenth Amendment • 10% of voters from 1860 must swear allegiance to Union • Confederate officers, officials, wealthy must make special request for pardon 	South must: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ratify Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments • accept black citizenship • accept black men voting Confederate officials, officers, soldiers could not vote Put 20,000 troops in the South Civil Rights Act of 1875 provided for social integration
Aid for Freedmen	None provided; up to the individual states to decide how and to what extent newly freed slaves would be helped	Created Freedmen's Bureau, providing welfare and education to former slaves Provided troops to protect black voting rights No permanent land distribution, which gave rise to sharecropping and tenant farming

Major Civil Rights Cases

Case	Date	Background	Question to be Answered	Ruling
Slaughterhouse cases	1873	Louisiana created state-sanctioned monopolies in slaughterhouse business—butchers believed their 14 th Amendment rights were being violated	Did 14 th Amendment expand the federal government's authority to protect black citizens?	No, defense of most rights still a job for individual states 13 th and 14 th Amendments did not greatly expand power of U.S. government 14 th Amendment did not create new set of national citizenship rights
U.S. v. Cruikshank	1876	Colfax Massacre resulted in 100 black deaths/ 3 whites killed—no one convicted	Did the 14 th Amendment protect blacks from private acts of violence?	No, 14 th Amendment did not give U.S. government power to suppress ordinary crimes by individuals U.S. involved only when state actions denied citizen rights
U.S. v. Singleton	1883	Black man denied entry into an opera house in New York City	Did Civil Rights Act of 1875 prohibit private acts of discrimination?	No, Civil Rights Act of 1875 was unconstitutional 14 th Amendment only dealt with state discrimination; did not cover private acts of discrimination
Plessy v. Ferguson	1896	Black man tried to sit in "white" railcar to test Louisiana's Jim Crow laws	Did Jim Crow system violate 14 th Amendment?	No, legislation was powerless to stop private acts of racial bias Separate facilities were not inherently unconstitutional Facilities could be separate if they were equal

Monetary Policy

Act	Background	Terms	Political Impact
Legal Tender Act, 1862	As Civil War dragged on, the North was running out of money Passed to help fund the Civil War	Government authorized to print greenback dollars without species backing (\$450 million)	Democrats in minority; Republicans pushed the bill through
Coinage Act, 1873	1830-1850, price of silver increased; silver became less and less available for minting 1850s, Congress discontinued silver coins; no real outcry	Demonetization Act Congress decreed silver coins should no longer be minted	Depression of 1873 hits; farmers decried the "Crime of '73" Saw conspiracy by "gold bugs" Demand for "free silver" began
Resumption Act, 1875	Union had printed \$450 millions in paper money Fear "soft money" would drive "sound money" out of use	Greenbacks would be redeemed for species Gradually reduced the greenbacks in circulation	Formation of the Greenback party; later called Greenback Labor Demanded repeal of Resumption Act
Bland-Allison Act, 1878	Meant to placate 3 rd party demands to expand currency Attempt to stimulate economy from Depression of 1873. Respond to pressure from farmers/miners	Treasury would buy \$2-\$4 million of silver each month Treasury would coin silver dollars	President Hayes' veto overridden Government purchased/ minted minimum amounts of silver Neither party strongly favored act
Sherman Silver Purchase Act, 1890	Response to pressure from 3 rd parties Doubled silver purchases under Bland-Allison Act Panic of 1893 caused its repeal	Government purchased 4.5 million ounces of silver monthly Issued certificates redeemable in gold or silver	Republicans supported bill; in turn, Democrats supported McKinley Tariff Populist Party and free silver were on the horizon
Gold Standard Act, 1900	Election of 1896 killed "free silver" Strikes around world increased gold supply Economic recovery lessened cry for silver	All paper money backed by gold Put U.S. on gold standard	Pinnacle of monetary conservatism Bimetallism dead as a political issue

	Social Darwinism	Social Gospel Movement
Precursors of Movement	Charles Darwin Herbert Spencer Thomas Malthus	Charles Darwin Richard Ely Lester Ward
Leading Spokesmen	William Graham Sumner Josiah Strong (Imperialism)	Walter Rauschenbusch Washington Gladden Lyman Abbot Josiah Strong (domestic issues)
Influential Literature	Darwin's <i>On the Origin of Species</i> Sumner's <i>Folkways</i> Spencer's <i>Principles of Biology</i>	Darwin's <i>On the Origin of Species</i> Rauschenbusch's <i>Christianity and the Social Crisis</i> Ward's <i>Dynamic Sociology</i>
Impact of Darwin	Both ideologies used Darwin's ideas Natural selection becomes survival of the fittest (Herbert Spencer) Humans, like other life forms, struggle for survival Economic life controlled by natural law	Both ideologies used Darwin's ideas Survival of fittest is not the highest law of civilized society Organic evolution leads to better society Evolution: God's way of doing things
Ideas of Movement	Accumulation of wealth is an index of society's improvement and health Classes do not owe each other anything Competition is the law of nature Government should protect property not upset the social arrangement of nature Poverty is result of struggle for existence "Stateways cannot make folkways" (Sumner) "The world owes no man a living" (Rockefeller)	Humans can direct evolution Humans should create a "Kingdom of God" on earth Religion must play a role in public life Churches speak for those without a voice Government action is necessary in society Christian ethics can be applied to social problems Individuals must improve society Cooperation not competition to promote progress
Supporters	Industrialists: John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie Upper classes "The Forgotten Man;" tax paying, middle class Some imperialists	Protestant ministers and their congregations The poor Social activist and reformers Some advocates of Socialism
Significance	Promoted <i>status quo/laissez-faire</i> Defended the industrialists of 1880s/1890s Basis for Imperialism and unchecked Capitalism Promoted a "negative" definition of freedom Basis for the eugenics and scientific racism of the twentieth century	Justified a more active government in economic matters Addressed moral roots of social injustice Basis for "Christian Socialism" later on Influenced progressive reforms (child labor laws, settlement house movement) Supported labor union movement

Influential Black Leaders

	Message	Supporters	Methods	Significance
Booker T. Washington, 1856-1915	Atlanta Compromise Accept social/ political inequality Work for economic equality in farming/ trades Blacks should learn vocational skills	Southern, rural blacks Southern whites Wealthy, white industrialists	Accommodation with whites Created Tuskegee Institute Blacks/whites remain separate socially Emphasized black economic development	Got money for black schools Advised presidents on racial issues Secretly tried to overturn segregation Battled NAACP/ W.E.B. Du Bois
W.E.B. Du Bois, 1868-1963	Talented tenth of the black community must lead for equality Strive for full and immediate equality, including full suffrage	Intellectuals Black professionals Urban, northern blacks White progressives	Founded Niagara Movement in 1905 Helped form NAACP in 1909 Wrote books to energize blacks	Challenged B.T. Washington Agitated for equality Challenged conservative racial policies
Marcus Garvey, 1887-1940	Black self-sufficiency Opposed integration Black pride in African heritage/seek roots in Africa Proposed a "Back-to- Africa" movement Expand black economic power	Urban blacks Some whites who supported segregation of the races	Created Universal Negro Improvement Association Formed Black Star Line, a black-owned shipping company Tried to establish African economic ties	First leader to base much of his program on ties to Africa Reached many urban, northern blacks Arrested for mail fraud, deported
Malcolm X (Little), 1925-1965	Black power Enemy is white man Supported Black Nationalism May have been less separatist, more moderate at end of his life	Northern urban black youth Nation of Islam Northern white student radicals	Militant speeches, confrontations with white establishment Challenged King's nonviolence Urged self-defense against white violence	Black Muslims identified with violence in 1960s Opposed gradualism, accommodation Created an intimidating persona that whites found frightening Assassinated 1965
Martin Luther King Jr., 1929-1968	Justice by religious, moral, peaceful means Whites must see injustices in Jim Crow Later targeted economic inequality	Rural, southern church-going people White northern liberals	Nonviolent protest Marches, demonstrations Speeches, articles, books	Opened eyes of country to immorality of segregation Great moral leader Assassinated 1968

Case	Issue Raised	Ruling	Significance
U.S. v. E.C. Knight Co., 1895	Was Sherman Act constitutional? Was manufacturing a part of commerce?	Act was constitutional Manufacturing precedes commerce—E.C. Knight Co. did not violate Sherman Act	Limited definition of commerce and the reach of Sherman Act States should regulate manufacturing
Northern Securities Co. v. U.S., 1904	Did Sherman Act apply to holding companies like J.P. Morgan had assembled?	Holding companies were covered by Act Morgan's Company did restrain trade	Gave energy to trust busting Temporarily curtailed merging of companies
Lochner v. New York, 1905	Did New York's restriction of baker's hours violate liberty of contracts in Constitution?	NY law exceeded state's police power State unreasonably interfered with right of contract	Established "Lochner Era" of judicial veto of much regulation Ruling used to restrict government actions for next 32 years
Muller v. Oregon, 1908	Did restriction of women's hours violate 14 th Amendment? Were women in a "special physical" class?	Restriction constitutional State's police power protected women's physical and maternal function	Established "Brandeis brief" using sociological and medical evidence Did not overturn <i>Lochner</i> , but women deemed a special exception
Standard Oil v. U.S., 1911	Did Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company violate the Sherman Act?	Company represented an "unreasonable" restraint of trade Company must be broken up	Established "rule of reason," a precedent that lasted for many years Added to uncertainty over Sherman Act
Adkins v. Children's Hospital, 1923	Did federal minimum wage for women violate the due process clause in 5 th Amendment?	Act did violate liberty of contracts Women could not be restricted anymore than men in marketplace	Overtured <i>Muller</i> Nineteenth Amendment had eliminated women's special status Ruling overturned in 1937
Schechter Poultry Corp. v. U.S., 1935	Did National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) violate commerce/general welfare clauses of Constitution?	NIRA unconstitutional Delegated legislative power to executive Violated commerce clause	Message to FDR: economic crisis did allow excessive government actions Played a role in FDR's court packing decision in 1937
West Coast Hotel Co. v. Parrish, 1937	Did Washington state's minimum wage law for women violate liberty of contracts protected by 5 th and 14 th Amendments?	Law constitutional State could regulate for public interest Law protected community/safety of vulnerable group	Overtured <i>Adkins</i> Ended "Lochner Era" Some said reaction to court packing—"switch in time that saved nine"

Twentieth-Century Reform Movements

	Square Deal/ New Freedom	New Deal	Fair Deal	New Frontier	Great Society
Dates	1901–1916	1933–1939	1945–1953	1961–1963	1963–1969
Leader(s)	T. Roosevelt W. Wilson	F. Roosevelt	H. Truman	J. Kennedy	L. Johnson
Goals	Control corporations, trusts Citizen protection Clean up government Conserve environment	Relief for unemployed Recovery from the Depression Reform of financial institutions, economic system	Continue/expand New Deal with special attention to economic security	Continue/expand New Deal with some attention to civil rights, education	Complete New Deal with special attention to poverty, cities, civil rights, healthcare, education
Actions	Hepburn Act Pure Food and Drug Act Clayton Act Northern Securities Case Federal Reserve Act Federal Trade Commission Newlands Act Keating-Owen Act Progressive Amendments (16 th , 17 th)	National Industrial Recovery Act Agricultural Adjustment Act Civilian Conservation Corp Public Works Administration Social Security Act Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation Tennessee Valley Authority Securities and Exchange Commission Wagner Act	Desegregated military Employment Act 1946 Raised minimum wage Expanded Social Security Proposed civil rights program	Proposed: • Medicare • Civil Rights Act • Aid to education • Public housing • Mass transit	Medicare/ Medicaid Act Civil Rights Act Voting Rights Act 60 education acts Economic Opportunity Act Housing Act Immigration Act Highway Safety Act Head Start program Model Cities Act

Comparing Internationalists and Isolationists

	Internationalists	Isolationists
Principles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collective security U.S. had interest in European security Confront overseas aggression Axis powers a threat to U.S. Quarantine aggressors British and American security linked Atlantic Charter 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Avoid entangling foreign alliances Great War a mistake Arms makers had manipulated U.S. into Great War Avoid defending England's interests Reduce military Keep taxes low Domestic issues more important than foreign affairs Defend continental U.S.
Actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Should accept Article 10 Should join League of Nations Should join World Court Stimson Doctrine Reciprocal trade agreements Offer aid short of war Provide lend-lease 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alter/reject Article 10 Reject League of Nations Reject membership in World Court Washington Naval agreement Kellogg-Briand Pact Immigration restrictions Hawley-Smoot tariff Nye munitions investigation Neutrality Acts 1935, 1936, 1937
Personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Woodrow Wilson Franklin Roosevelt Cordell Hull Henry Stimson Frank Knox Tom Connally Committee to Defend America 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Henry Cabot Lodge William Borah Gerald Nye Charles Lindbergh Hiram Johnson Robert Taft America First Committee
Comments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reeling during 1920s from League of Nations' defeat In 1930s, first priority was economic recovery No European support against Axis Roosevelt unwilling to challenge isolationists in Congress When France fell in June of 1940, the internationalists gained political strength 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sought economic internationalism Avoid political/military overseas connections Keep America's freedom of action abroad Reached height with Neutrality Acts

Comparing the First and Second New Deals

	First New Deal	Second New Deal
Dates	1933–1935	1935–1939
Goals	<p>Direct relief to unemployed; recovery from the Depression</p> <p>Cooperated with business community to restore pre-1929 prosperity</p> <p>Helped organized labor to improve position in society</p> <p>Provided assistance to agriculture</p>	<p>Revived progressive tradition of trust regulation</p> <p>Strengthened organized labor</p> <p>Sought to meet needs of workers, elderly, disabled, farmers, unemployed</p> <p>Narrowed class differences by taxing the wealthy</p> <p>Supported industrial workers and small farmers</p>
Position on Business	<p>Partnership</p> <p>Cooperation</p> <p>Suspended antitrust actions</p>	<p>Confrontational toward corporate interests</p> <p>Strong regulation of public utilities</p>
Actions	<p>National Industrial Recovery Act</p> <p>Agricultural Adjustment Act</p> <p>Federal Emergency Relief Act</p> <p>Emergency Banking Act</p> <p>Civilian Conservation Corp</p> <p>Tennessee Valley Authority Act</p>	<p>Public Utility Holding Company Act</p> <p>Wealth Tax Act (Revenue Act)</p> <p>National Labor Relations Act (Wagner Act)</p> <p>Works Progress Administration</p> <p>Social Security Act</p> <p>Fair Labor Standards Act</p>
Comments	<p>Brief honeymoon between business community and the Roosevelt administration</p> <p>First New Deal told business what it must do</p> <p>Business found New Deal regulations increasingly confining and intrusive</p> <p>Supreme Court sided with business interests as it struck down several major New Deal acts</p>	<p>Stronger controls and higher taxes on the wealthy and large businesses</p> <p>Responded to attacks by Liberty League and Supreme Court's judicial review</p> <p>Second New Deal told business what it must <i>not</i> do</p>

Civil Rights Proposals and Actions, 1945-1974

President	Proposals	Actions	Comments
Harry Truman	Antilynching law Voter protection End discrimination in military, interstate travel, government hiring End poll tax	Created Civil Rights Committee First president to address the NAACP Desegregated the armed forces Reduced government job discrimination	Civil rights program blocked by Congress Won African Americans to Democratic Party Alienated South (Strom Thurmond's Dixiecrat revolt)
Dwight Eisenhower	Work for mildest forms of civil rights Racial justice part of Cold War struggle	Appointed Earl Warren to Supreme Court Civil Rights Acts of 1957/1960 Ended segregation in D.C. and on military bases Sent federal troops to Little Rock	Lacked conviction on civil rights Avoided compulsory action on civil rights Sought change through reason and prayer Believed government could not legislate morality
John Kennedy	Enforce existing laws End discrimination in public housing Made civil rights a moral issue in June 1963	Defended freedom riders Enforced desegregation of universities Ended public housing discrimination Proposed Civil Rights Act	Hoped to contain civil rights pressures/actions Feared southern Democrats in Congress Came late to supporting civil rights Clashed with King, wiretapped him
Lyndon Johnson	Include African-Americans in Great Society Wage war on poverty Overcome racism Improve cities and urban schools	Civil Rights Act of 1964 Voting Rights Act of 1965 Economic Opportunity Act Appointed Thurgood Marshall to Supreme Court 60 education laws, including Head Start	Greatest presidential supporter of civil rights Great Society very strong on civil rights Urban riots 1964-1968 undermined program Great Society damaged by Vietnam War
Richard Nixon	Bring nation together Restore law and order Called for extra help for urban blacks	Supported affirmative action briefly Desegregated many schools Extended Voting Rights Act Condemned busing Appointed conservative federal judges	In the past, he had a moderate record on civil rights Lacked commitment to true racial equality Used race to divide Democrats Gradually followed a southern racial strategy

Containment Approaches, 1945-1975

President	Strategy	Policy/Implementation	Comments
Harry Truman	Containment	Used economic and military aid Sent troops where necessary Programs: • Truman Doctrine • Marshall Plan • North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) Sent troops to Korea	Communist threat in Greece and Turkey required U.S. aid Sent aid to Europe 1948-1953 NATO first entangling alliance for U.S. Korean conflict—first limited war
Dwight Eisenhower	"New Look" to contain Communism	Massive retaliation Rollback of Communism Brinkmanship Used CIA to spy on, and topple communist regimes Eisenhower Doctrine in Middle East	Relied on air power, nuclear weapons Made empty pleas for freeing communist-controlled areas in Europe Take USSR to brink of nuclear war if necessary Used CIA to keep Iran, Guatemala friendly to U.S.; U-2 spy planes
John Kennedy	"Flexible response" to contain communist aggression Stand firm in Europe	Combated wars of national liberation in the Third World Used counterinsurgency forces Strong stand in Berlin Blocked Communism in Cuba, Vietnam	Berlin wall erected Used guerrilla as well as conventional forces Tried to topple Castro, but resulted in Bay of Pigs Cuban Missile Crisis brought world to brink of nuclear war Sent 16,000 troops to Vietnam
Lyndon Johnson	Containment in Asia Stand firm in Europe by maintaining NATO	Sent 500,000+ troops to Vietnam; tried for political settlement with military forces Bombed North Vietnam	Widened Vietnam War Tried to negotiate with Soviets in Europe
Richard Nixon	Vietnamization Détente Nixon Doctrine Opened China	Reduced U.S. troops in Vietnam Maintained NATO Negotiated with USSR Diplomatic agreements with China	Withdrew U.S. troops from Vietnam Kept commitments in other parts of world Used China to contain the Soviet Union Peace settlement in Vietnam

Overview of the Vietnam War

President	Background	Action/Events	Significance/Outcome
Harry Truman	1945–1949 France tried to recolonize Indochina Ho Chi Minh and communists resisted U.S. opposed French recolonization, but feared Communism	1949–1953 U.S. began massive aid to France; by 1953 was paying 80% of French bills in Indochina Sent O.S.S./C.I.A. to work with French to combat communists	Fall of China, Korean War put pressure on Truman to hold line on Communism in Asia Supported French colonialism in order to stop Communism
Dwight Eisenhower	1954, Dien Bien Phu fell; French defeated Geneva Conference divided Indochina Proposed unification elections be held in 1956	Selected Ngo Dinh Diem as U.S. ally Supported Diem's decision not to hold elections in 1956 Gave economic aid Sent 1,000 advisers to Vietnam	Domino theory made Vietnam critical to Asian containment Support of Diem laid foundation for future commitments
John Kennedy	Worried by Diem's repression of Buddhists and Diem's refusal to reform political corruption in South Viet Cong grew in strength	JFK resisted call to send combat troops Increased advisers to 16,000 Supported domino theory Tacitly supported Diem's ouster in 1963	Postponed either escalation or withdrawal No clear future direction on war Diem's death left South in political and military chaos
Lyndon Johnson	Faced political chaos in Vietnam Believed in domino theory Feared conservative political attacks on Great Society Realized fighting war could destroy his presidency	Gulf of Tonkin Resolution 1964 gave LBJ authority to fight war Began bombing North Vietnam Sent combat troops to Vietnam; by 1968, 540,000 troops in South Vietnam Opposition to war grew	Saw war as test of U.S. will as superpower Escalated the war and gradually divided nation Tet Offensive set stage for U.S. desire to withdraw from Vietnam War destroyed Johnson's presidency and tarnished his legacy
Richard Nixon (Ford)	Pledged to "Vietnamize" war Claimed he had a secret plan to end the war	Reduced U.S. role in war Invaded Cambodia Bombed North Vietnam Peace accords in 1973 left communists in South Vietnam	Ended draft; withdrew U.S. troops Watergate removed Nixon and reduced public support for South Vietnam Communists took over South Vietnam in 1975

Famous Doctrines in U.S. History, Monroe to Nixon

	1823	1947	1957	1969
Year	1823	1947	1957	1969
Area of World	Western Hemisphere	Greece and Turkey	Middle East	Asia
Reason(s) for Issuance	<p>Feared Spain would try to recolonize Latin America</p> <p>Feared Russian claims on west coast of U.S.</p>	<p>Part of containment strategy</p> <p>Feared Soviet pressure in Greece and Turkey</p>	<p>Designed to block Communism in oil-rich Middle East</p> <p>Feared Soviet moves in the region</p>	<p>Redefined U.S. containment policy, yet reassured allies that U.S. would not retreat to isolationism</p> <p>Responded to U.S. experience in Vietnam</p>
Principles	<p>No new colonies in Western Hemisphere</p> <p>Existing colonies left alone by U.S.</p> <p>U.S. would stay out of European affairs</p> <p>Discouraged the extension of monarchies into Americas</p>	<p>U.S. would provide economic aid to help nations resisting internal or external communist threat</p>	<p>Congress gave president power to provide economic and military aid to nations resisting communist aggression</p> <p>Put Soviets on notice of America's resolve</p>	<p>U.S. would maintain collective security and containment by economic and diplomatic means</p> <p>U.S. would aid allies, but not with American troops</p>
Example of Action	<p>U.S. intervened in Venezuela</p> <p>British boundary dispute in 1895</p>	<p>Sent \$400 million to Greece, Turkey</p>	<p>Sent troops to Lebanon in 1958 to restore order and to support America's ally</p>	<p>Gradual removal of U.S. troops from Vietnam (Vietnamization)</p>