Mehlville School District

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Rationale

Advanced Placement U.S. History provides the student with a challenging environment which will enhance their understanding of American social, political and economic history and continue the growth of student problem solving, analytical and communicative skills.

Scope and Sequence

Timeframe	Unit	Instructional Topics
9 Day(s)	Unit I: Early American Societies to Colonial Settlements	1. Native Peoples of America 2. Exploration and the Impact on the New World 3. The Emergence of Colonial Societies and Slavery
7 Day(s)	Unit II: The Bonds of Empire to Revolution	1. The Bonds of Empire 2. The Road to Revolution
7 Day(s)	Unit III: Securing Independence to Era of Good Feelings	1. The Revolution and A New Nation 2. The Federalist Era 3. Jeffersonianism to Era of Good Feelings
8 Day(s)	Unit IV: The Age of Jackson and the Rise of Technologies	1. American Society Transforms 2. Democratic Politics 3. Technology, Culture, and Everyday Life
12 Day(s)	Unit V: Sectional Conflict to Civil War	1. The South 2. Expansion and Conflict 3. Compromise to Secession 4. The Civil War
4 Day(s)	Unit VI: Reconstruction	1. Reconstruction
8 Day(s)	Unit VII: Transformation of the East and West and the Guilded Age	1. Transformation of the Trans-Mississippi West 2. The Rise of Industrial America 3. Immigration, Urbanization, and Everyday Life
6 Day(s)	Unit VIII: Industrial Expansion, the Progressives, and WWI	1. Politics and Expansion 2. The Progressive Era 3. Expansionism and WWI
5 Day(s)	Unit IX: The 1920's, Depression, and the New Deal	1. The 1920s 2. The Crash, Depression, and The New Deal
6 Day(s)	Unit X: WWII and the Rise of the Cold War Era	1. WWII at Home and Abroad 2. The Cold war 3. 1950s at Home
7 Day(s)	Unit XI: The U.S. at Home and Abroad	1. The '60s 2. Vietnam and Counter-Culture 3. Society and Politics from Ford to Bush

Course Description

This course is a thematic approach to American History on the college level. The student will be required to complete advanced reading and writing assignments, which requires a high standard of proficiency in these skills. Essay tests, critiques, oral/written presentations, technology oriented projects, and research are an integral part of this course. It is possible to achieve college credit for this class by taking the optional AP exam at the end of the year, or getting College Dual Credit.

Prerequisites

Prerequisite:

Students who are successful in AP United States History must be strong independent readers and organized writers. Students must be motivated and able to complete college-level course work. Successful completion of a previous high school history course is required.
Open to: 11, 12

Credit: 1 Unit - Two Semesters (American Studies)

Weighted: 1.0

K-12 Essential Questions

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1. How has cultural diffusion shaped the world?
2. How has the impact of technology influenced the world in which we live?
3. How has the role of religion formed the world?
4. How has geography shaped how people live?
5. How has economic exchange helped to shape the world?
6. What impact do social struggles have on people?
7. What is a community, and how do I and others have a positive impact on the community?

Course Enduring Understandings / Essential Outcomes

Semester I

- Human societies had been developing in the Americas for thousands of years prior to European exploration and conquest Changes in European religion, economics, and culture during the 15th and 16th centuries led to the exploration and settlement of the New World
- By the mid 17th century, Europeans had not only altered their own lives, but the lives of Indians as well
- The slave trade significantly altered the Anglo-American economy
- The people and products of the North American colonies had become integral to the world trading system and emeshed in its conflicts
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The Enlightenment and the Great Awakening altered the way people viewed science, religion, and politics

- The crucial years between 1760 and 1775 divided the American population along political lines and set the colonies on the road to independence
- The American Revolution uprooted thousands of families, disrupted the economy, reshaped society by focing many colonists into exile, led Americans to develop new conceptions of politics, and created a nation from thirteen separate colonies

The newly born United States struggled to find a way to foster consensus among its people and ensure political stability

American expectations for prosperity, expansion, national unity, and independence were met with a measure of disappointment when they put their new government into operation

- As the newly elected president Thomas Jefferson piloted the young nation in new directions at home and abroad

Americans during the period of 1800-1815 were not only factionalized politically, but along race, class, ethnicity, gender, religion,and regional issues as well

- Changes and revolutions in transportation, trade, and industry significantly changed both the lives and the landscape of the nation
- Anxieties wrought by rapid change drove the impulse to reform society
- In mid-19th century America, what it meant to be and American changed as urban growth in the north and west challenged economic and social conventions
- In the land where cotton became king, racial slavery affected not only economics, but values, customs, laws, class structure, and the regions relationship to the nation as well
- Northern and Southern perceptions of each other as well as the issues of slavery and territorial expansion provided the necessary elements to produce sectional polarization, disunion, and ultimately war
- The Civil War forced upon a nation a social and political revolution regarding race and changed the north and south signfiicantly in the process

Semester II

- Little was done to open the doors of economic opportunity to black southerners, and the cause of the African

Americans as a central aim of Reconstruction fell almost as fast as it rose, leaving enduring legacies the nation has struggled with ever since

- The expansion westward in the late nineteenth century closed the physical frontier that had been part of American Society since its beginnings
- The "second" industrial revolution brought together people, the environment, and technology in a mix that gave rise to both constructive and destructive forces
- New industrialization and technological innovations of the 19th century fueled widespread economic and geographical expansion that funneled millions of people into cities
- The ways people built cities and adjusted to the urban environment shaped American society

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- The delicate balance of special interests, accomplishments and exclusion prior to 1896 was replaced with economic and political disruption
- Reform-minded individuals and groups with differing solutions to national problems affected government policy
- In the years from the Civil War to the First World War, expansionism and imperialism elevated the U.S. to world power status
- Becoming a world power meant that the U.S. had to reconsider political isolation from Europe when the First World War broke out
- War exposed deep divisions among Americans racially, politically and economically
- In the 1920s traditional customs weakened as women and men sought ways to balance new liberation with old fashion values
- Beneath the era of excess in the 1920s lurked prejudice and inter-group tensions
- From the economic crises of the Great Depression through the New Deal, the American government was faced with stabilizing the nation while expanding the role and power of the federal government
- New Deal programs fundamentally improved the lives of many Americans
- The U.S. policy of "independent internationalism" and economic and nonmilitary means to peace from the 1930s to the 1940s gave way to alliance building and war
- War had a major impact on American society as it mobilized all sectors of the economy- industry, finance, agriculture and labor
- The Second World War marked a turning point in the lives of Americans as prospects for international cooperation during and after the war was bleak and the atomic age was ushered in
- America faced disappointment in the plans for post war peace because of an unstable economic system, unfriendly Soviet Union, and the decolonization of the Third World
- After WWII most Americans sought satisfaction in their families and in consumer pleasures
- By 1968, the war in Vietnam divided the American people and undermined Johnson's Great Society
- America ended the 1970s era of liberalism plagued by political, economic, and foreign policy crises
- During the Reagan years America became both more polarized and more diverse

Course Objectives

1. The student will recognize the major themes of exploration and the role of the American Revolution in formulating the societies that developed during the modern world with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS 1, 3, 5, 6; CA1, 3, 4, 6; 1.2, 1.5, 1.9, 2.1, 2.3, 3.4, 3.6, 4.1, 4.2, 4.3)

2. The student will read and evaluate the cultural themes of 18th and 19th century societies throughout America with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS2, 6, 7; CA1, 2, 5, 6; FA5; SC8; 1.1, 1.6, 2.1, 2.4, 2.5, 3.4, 3.6, 4.3, 4.6) (A+: Reading)

3. The student will research, then analyze, the causes and effects of territorial growth, developing sectionalism, and resulting division (Civil War), Reconstruction, and the continued impact on the United States with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS1, 2, 4, 5, 6; CA1, 3, 4; FA5; 1.5, 1.8, 2.1, 2.3, 3.2, 3.6, 4.3) (A+: Research)

4. The student will identify the themes of the Industrial Revolution, research the socio-political aspects of the age, and defend a point of view regarding the ideas from that time with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS2, 4, 6; CA1, 2, 3, 6; SC8; 1.2, 1.4, 1.9, 1.10, 2.3, 2.6, 3.6, 4.2, 4.6)

5 The student will orally define American capitalism and economic trends in institutions in the latter half of the 20th century including the effects of the Depression and the New Deal with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS2, 4, 7; CA1, 3, 6; MA3; 1.6, 1.9, 2.1, 2.3, 2.6, 3.1 3.4, 3.7, 3.8, 4.1) (A+: Speaking)

6. The student will recognize the cause and effects of American involvement in 20th century world affairs, which

includes imperialism, World War I, World War II, and the Cold War, and will identify the fact and fiction disseminated in propaganda of the time with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS2, 3, 5; CA1, 3, 4, 6; 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, 2.1, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1)

7. The student will summarize in a written assignment, the globalization and interaction of the United States since 1945 with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS2, 6; CA1, 3, 6; SC8; 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, 2.3, 3.5, 4.3) (A+: Writing)

8.* The student will analyze the impact of social reform movements (such as the Women's Movement, Civil Rights, etc.) and their effects on American society with 80% accuracy. Assessed on End of Course Exam, American History. (SS1, 2, 6, 7; CA1, 2, 3, 6;

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FA5; 1.5, 1.7, 2.3, 3.1, 3.3, 3.6, 4.1, 4.2)

* Fulfills requirement of SB 163 regarding Civil Rights instruction

BOE 11-6-14

Materials and Resources

Boyer Textbook: The Enduring Vision
Various Primary Source Documents
Various film/documentary clips
DBQ activities and essays
Class simulations

Course Details

UNIT: Unit I: Early American Societies to Colonial Settlements -- 9 Day(s)

Description

By A.D. 1500 the North American continent presented a broad spectrum of human societies, bound together by similar patterns of kinship, the norms of reciprocity and communal use and control of resources. Between 7 million and 10 million Native Americans lived north of present-day Mexico. Trade facilitated the exchange not only of goods but of new ideas and techniques. The bow and arrow, ceramic pottery, and certain beliefs and rituals surrounding the burial of the dead came to characterize Indians everywhere. Indians also shared a preference for the independent, kin-based communities that generally characterized indigenous North America. As they had for thousands of years, small, mobile hunting bands people the Arctic, Subarctic, Great Basin, and much of the Plains. More stable societies, based on fishing or gathering, predominated along the Pacific coast, while village-based agriculture was typical in the Southwest, the Eastern Woodlands, and portions of the Plains. Mississippian urban centers still existed in parts of the Southeast.

Native American religions held the conviction that all nature was alive, united in an unbroken web. Most Indian peoples sought to conciliate nature's spiritual forces and to reach spiritual power themselves through physical ordeal and an understanding of dreams. Native American communities demanded conformity and close cooperation. In early childhood Indians learned to be accommodating and reserved, slow to reveal their feelings. Because Indians valued consensus building in everyday life, their leaders' authority depended primarily on gaining respect rather than on compulsion. All Indian cultures possessed a strong sense of order and custom that mingled with the spiritual world at every turn. Even as they grew larger and more complex, Native American societies maintained a strong sense of interdependence.

Spanish power prevented other nations from establishing colonies in North America during the sixteenth century. Spain moved into what is now the southwestern United States, and built an empire by violently subduing the Aztec, Inca and other Indian states. Colonist and traders from other European nations gradually became more active. The fur trade encouraged the French to move into the St. Lawrence River valley and the Dutch into the Hudson River valley. Sweden established a small fur-trading colony in the lower Delaware River valley. But New Sweden was overcome by the Dutch, and New Netherland by the English.

The English, while seeking the Northwest Passage to Asia, were also raiding Spanish fleets and ports from Spain to the West Indies. Colonizing attempts were expensive. Only joint-stock companies could gather enough capital. Even a large-scale, well-financed colonizing effort could fail, given the settlers' unpreparedness for the American environment. In 1607 the Virginia Company of London planted a colony on the James River in Virginia. After a year of teetering on the edge of disaster, the colony appointed John Smith to be its leader. He brought order through military discipline and maintained satisfactory relations with the Powhatan Confederacy. When Smith was replaced, the colony nearly foundered again. Worsening relations with the Indians led to

war and left the Virginia Company bankrupt. In 1625 Virginia became a royal colony.

Late in 1620 the English founded a settlement at Plymouth, Massachusetts. The Pilgrim community, led by English Separatists, was able to survive only through the assistance of friendly Indians, but this relationship soon deteriorated. However, although the Pilgrims were only one small group, their determination and their ultimate mastery over the Indians were precursors of things to come.

In the Chesapeake region, royal control did not mean royal financial support. After 1630 the crown-appointed governors called regular assemblies in order to raise taxes. Anglican vestries in each parish, elected by the taxpayers until 1662 and thereafter self-

recruiting and independent, governed churches. A chronic shortage of clergy reduced the influence of religion in the region. After 1660 members of English merchant families who engaged in trade with Virginia became planters themselves, thus founding the First Families of Virginia, which dominated Virginia politics for two centuries.

In Maryland the crown granted a large tract of land to Lord Baltimore, who intended to create an overseas refuge for English Catholics. In this he did not succeed. From the outset Protestants formed a majority of the population, and antagonisms intensified. The economy of Virginia and Maryland was dominated by tobacco. Although prices fell after 1629, tobacco stayed profitable when cultivated near navigable water. Planters, by establishing control of both export and import commerce, stunted the growth of towns and the emergence of a powerful merchant class. Large numbers of indentured servants came because both colonies offered headrights to masters, usually of fifty acres, for each worker imported. The development of strong family relations was retarded by a scarcity of women immigrants and by an exceptionally high death rate as a result of disease. The population grew very slowly until the late seventeenth century, when immunities had been acquired and the sex ratio equalized.

Importation of servants into the Chesapeake made society increasingly unequal. After 1660 upward mobility almost vanished as the price of tobacco fell far below profitable levels. So began a depression lasting over fifty years. Bacon's Rebellion in 1675-1676 started as an attack on Indians and Indian property and soon became an attack on other whites. Earlier, planters had begun substituting black slaves for white servants. Although the first Africans arrived in 1619, slavery was not defined as a livelong, inheritable, racial status until more than four decades had passed. Slavery replaced indentured servitude as population pressure in England declined and wages rose, reducing the number of persons willing to emigrate overseas. After 1690 nonslave-owners came to see themselves as sharing a common interest with the upper class in maintaining social control over an alien race.

Between 1630 and 1642, more than twice as many British emigrants went to the Caribbean as to New England. Strong demand for tobacco led the first English settlers in the Caribbean to cultivate that plant almost exclusively. In the 1640s sugar was introduced. It was exceptionally profitable, but it required substantial capital investment and a large labor force. The British island concentrated on sugar and developed a wealthy and powerful landholding elite. The English imposed slavery on both blacks and Indians, and by 1670 the sugar revolution had transformed the British West Indies into a predominantly black and unfree society. West Indian slaves suffered severely from ill treatment and overwork on the sugar plantations. Declining demand for white labor diverted the flow of English immigration from the islands to mainland North America.

Carolina was the first of the Restoration colonies, and until the 1680s most settlers were small landowners who did not produce enough tobacco, lumber, or pitch to warrant maintaining many slaves. By the early eighteenth century, however, rice, introduced by slaves from Senegambia, remade southern Carolina into a society resembling that of the West Indies.

Between the Chesapeake and New England, a fourth mainland colonial region, the middle colonies, emerged. The British seized control from the Dutch in New Netherland, pushed out the Swedes, and secured their position. By the end of the seventeenth century, the middle colonies were North America's fastest-growing region.

In 1663 New France was placed under the direct control of royal authority. The hope was to increase the output of furs and provide foodstuffs for the sugar-producing West Indies and timber for the French navy. French troops were sent to counter the Iroquois threat, and coureurs de bois moved into the West. In 1682 La Salle claimed the entire Mississippi basin--Louisiana--for Louis XIV, and France began settling the area near the river's mouth.

Spain also sought to establish a presence in North America: in Florida, in Texas, and especially in New Mexico, where Spanish rulers met sustained resistance and were even pushed back temporarily by the Pueblo revolt. By the early eighteenth century Spanish and French land claims surrounded the seaboard-clinging English, but the non-Indian population of England's North American colonies vastly outnumbered that of England's rivals.

Enduring Understandings

- Human societies had been developing in the Americas for thousands of years prior to European exploration and conquest (ch.1)

- Changes in European religion, economics, and culture during the 15th and 16th centuries led to the exploration and settlement of the New World (ch.2)
- By the mid 17th century, Europeans had not only altered their own lives, but the lives of Indians as well (ch.2)
- The slave trade significantly altered the Anglo-American economy (ch.3)
- The people and products of the North American colonies had become integral to the world trading system and emeshed in its conflicts (ch.3)

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Materials and Resources

- Boyer Text
- Assorted Primary Source Documents

Vocabulary

Ch.1: indigenous, kiva, hierarchy, reciprocity, Iroquois Confederacy, Incas, Aztecs, conquistadores, Anasazi and Pueblo cultures, Chaco Canyon, Poverty point, mound-building culture, Hopewell and Mississippian cultures, Eastern Woodlands peoples, Cahokia, nuclear families versus extended families, domestication of wheat

Ch.2: hierarchy, yeomen, Eucharist, Caravel, Astrolabe, Huguenots, Renaissance, enclosure movement, joint-stock company, indulgences, Martin Luther, Protestant Reformation, John Calvin and the doctrine of predestination, Counter-Reformation, Separatists, Puritans, Anglicans, Prince Henry the Navigator, Vasco da Gama, Treaty of Tordesillas, John Cabot, Northwest Passage, conquistadors and encomiendas, Cortes, Champlain, Spanish Armada 1588, Roanoke, Virginia Company of London, Captain John Smith, Rolfe and Pocahontas, headrights, Pilgrims and Plymouth, Mayflower Compact, New Netherland, New France, St. Augustine, Columbian exchange, sugar production in the Americas

Ch.3: Theocracy, bicameral, proprietor and proprietary colony, royal colony, John Winthrop and "A Model of Christian Charity", Roger Williams, Ann Hutchinson and Antinomians, Charles I and the English Civil War, Oliver Cromwell, Half-Way Covenant, Third Anglo-Powatan War, Pequot War, King Phillip's War, indentured servants, Virginia House of Burgesses, Lord Baltimore, Maryland Act of Religious Toleration, Bacon's Rebellion, John Locke, William Penn and the Quakers, Pueblo Revolt of 1680

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

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TOPIC: Native Peoples of America -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The earliest Americans arrived in multiple migration, either crossing the land bridge between Siberia and Alaska, or by boat, following the then-continuous coast to Alaska and south. The original arrivals moved farther south as others also made the crossing. After the Ice Age, about 10,500 B.C., these Paleo-Indians learned to use jasper or flint for tools and weapons for hunting. A warming climate altered the food chain, ending many of the big game species. By 4000 B.C. this change caused the sea level to rise and the glaciers to recede, filling the Great Lakes, the Mississippi River basin, and other waterways with glacial runoff. Treeless plains and evergreen forests gave way to deciduous forests in the East, grassland prairies on the Plains, and desert in much of the West.

In response to these climatic changes, Paleo-Indians began to modify their ways of life and develop new societies, called Archaic by archeologists. Archaic peoples of about 8000 B.C. to about 2 500 B.C., lived off smaller mammals, fish, and wild plants. In the East and Midwest many dwelled in year-round villages, making more complex weapons and utensils and engaging in trade. Over time Archiac Indians began to experiment with agriculture, tending wild plants and sometimes selecting seeds for future harvesting.

After 2500 B.C. many Native American societies moved beyond Archaic ways of life. The most far-reaching transformation occurred among peoples whose cultivated crops were their primary sources of food. Some nonfarming as well as farming societies transformed trade networks into extensive religious and political systems and some of these grouping evolved into formal confederacies and even hierarchical states. In environments where sources of food were few and widely scattered, mobile bands still survived by hunting, fishing, and gathering.

In Mesoamerica and South America selective breeding of crops, particularly maize, led to surpluses that enabled the development of large urban centers. Several closely clustered communities would form a chiefdom ruled by hereditary leaders. After A.D. 1, a few states arose, with centralized, hierarchical power and institutions that extended across broad spans of territory. Around the fifteenth century two mighty empires challenged these states. First were the Aztecs of Mesoamerica and second were the Incas of the South American Andes. The arrival of Spanish conquistadors in the early sixteenth century violently crushed both the Aztec and Inca empires.

In the Southwest, fulltime farming did not begin until after 400 B.C., when a more drought-resistant strain of maize made possible increased population throughout the region. During the third century B.C. the Hohokam peoples began farming in the river valleys of southern Arizona, building elaborate irrigation canals and living in permanent villages.

Among the last southwesterners to make farming the focus of their subsistence were the Anasazis. From the beginning of the tenth century to the middle of the twelfth they expanded over much of what is today the region where Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah meet. They established towns; controlled rainwater runoff through dams, terraces, and other devices; and developed a turquoise industry that manufactured beads for trade with Mexico. Drought at the end of the twelfth and in the early thirteenth centuries brought an end to the Anasazi culture. As its important population centers were abandoned, some inhabitants moved to the upper Rio Grande while others went south or west to establish Zuñi and Hopi pueblos. The drier lands of the Southwest attracted Apaches and Navajos by the end of the thirteenth century after their long migration from northwestern Canada.

In western Alaska the Inuits and Aleuts perfected techniques of living in the tundra regions of the Far North, making and using bows and arrows, ceramic pottery, and pit houses as they spread eastward across upper Canada. Along the Pacific coast from Alaska to southern California improvements in the production and storage of salmon and other spawning fish enabled Indians to settle into villages, which on the northwest coast could number several hundred persons. Farther south in California, Indians developed elaborate techniques for processing acorns for food. Competition for acorns resulted in defining territorial boundaries more rigidly than elsewhere in pre-Columbian North America and led to more intricate political, economic, and religious organization.

The end of the Archaic period is less noticeable in the Great Plains to the east of the Rocky Mountains and the Great Basin to the west, which both remained too dry to support large human settlements. Plains Indian hunters mainly pursued buffalo. In the Great Basin buffalo and other game dwindled as the climate grew even dryer and Native Americans there relied more heavily on Pinon nuts.

In the Eastern Woodlands--the land from the Mississippi Valley to the Atlantic Ocean--Indians established complex political organizations before developing a flourishing agriculture. As early as 1200 B.C. a mound-building culture existed on the Mississippi River in Louisiana. Another mound-building culture, the Adena, emerged in the Ohio Valley in the fifth century B.C. The Adena people spread over a wide area and built hundreds of mounds, most containing graves. Artifacts in the graves

reflect differences in social status and indicate a significant trade network. During the first century B.C. the Adena culture developed into an even more complex and widespread culture known as Hopewell. It covered a wider area, including the Illinois River valley, and built more complex ceremonial centers with a greater variety and quantity of goods. Through trade networks the Hopewell influence spread over much of the Eastern Woodlands to Wisconsin, Missouri, Florida, and New York. For reasons that are unclear the great Hopewell centers were abandoned in the fifth century A.D.

Agriculture became a dietary mainstay for woodlands people only between the seventh and twelfth centuries A.D. The first full-time farmers in the East lived on the floodplains of the Mississippi and its major tributaries. They developed a new culture, the Mississippian, that combined elements of Hopewell culture with new ideas from Mexico. The volume of Mississippian craft production and long-distance trade dwarfed those of the Adena and Hopewell cultures. Mississippian towns numbering hundreds and even thousands of people were built around open plazas like those of central Mexico. By the tenth century most Mississippian centers were linked in a single system with its center at the city of Cahokia (see "A Place in Time") located near contemporary St. Louis. Beginning in the thirteenth century the Mississippian centers underwent decline. Although that decline ended a trend toward political centralization, the Mississippians had affected native culture profoundly, spreading new strains of maize and beans along with techniques and tools to cultivate these crops.

By A.D. 1500 the North American continent presented a broad spectrum of human societies, bound together by similar patterns of kinship, the norms of reciprocity and communal use and control of resources. Between 7 million and 10 million Native Americans lived north of present-day Mexico. Trade facilitated the exchange not only of goods but of new ideas and techniques. The bow and arrow, ceramic pottery, and certain beliefs and rituals surrounding the burial of the dead came to characterize Indians everywhere. Indians also shared a preference for the independent, kin-based communities that generally characterized indigenous North America. As they had for thousands of years, small, mobile hunting bands people the Arctic, Subarctic, Great Basin, and much of the Plains. More stable societies, based on fishing or gathering, predominated along the Pacific coast, while village-based agriculture was typical in the Southwest, the Eastern Woodlands, and portions of the Plains. Mississippian urban centers still existed in parts of the Southeast.

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Learning Targets

Students will be able to describe the similarities and differences between various Indian tribes in America

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

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TOPIC: Exploration and the Impact on the New World -- 2 Day(s)

Description

During the fifteenth century a series of West African empires--Ghana, Mali, and Songhai-- established themselves in the broad belt of grassland known as the Sudan and gained wealth and fame through trade and conquest. Mali's best-known city of Timbuktu became an important center of Islamic learning. Several small states arose on coastal West Africa, while still further south four major kingdoms emerged by the fifteenth century. In Africa as in North America, the cohesiveness of kinship groups knitted society together and in neither area was land treated as commodity to be bought and sold. Religion permeated African life and, as among Native Americans, spiritual presences were believed to pervade all nature. The arrival of the great monotheistic religions, Islam and Christianity, required a radical break with African tradition.

By the end of the fifteenth century, Europe was approaching the height of the Renaissance, a time of artistic achievement but also of political and economic tensions. Several western European kings, traditionally dependent on a contentious nobility for financial support, sought to balance that dependence by turning to bankers and merchants. Peasants, who comprised between 70 percent and 80 percent of the population, paid taxes, rents, and other dues to landlords and to the Church. Manufacturing took place in household workshops, and artisans and merchants formed guilds to control employment, prices, and the sale of goods. Traditional society depended on a strong nuclear family and reciprocal relationships, with prohibitions against usury and "unjust" competition. A new economic outlook, however, was developing that justified both the unimpeded acquisition of wealth and unregulated economic competition. Between the late fifteenth and early seventeenth centuries, Europe's population almost doubled. This increase had a tremendous impact on England, with more workers competing for fewer jobs. Enclosures only aggravated the nation's unemployment problems, forcing great numbers of people to wander the countryside or pour into the towns.

Europe was largely Christian, dominated by the power of the Catholic Church. Charges of materialism and corruption led to the Protestant Reformation in which theologians challenged Catholicism in a variety of ways. The Protestant Reformation quickly spawned differing groups of Protestants, and the Catholic Counter-Reformation brought about the modern Roman Catholic Church. Because Protestantism emphasized the ability to read God's word, it encouraged basic education as well as religious indoctrination. Protestantism was firmly established in England by Elizabeth I.

Seeking commercial opportunities, Portugal had by 1488 opened trade in gold and slaves along the African coast and reached the Cape of Good Hope. In the sixteenth century, the African slave trade developed into a flourishing intercontinental business supplying labor to Spanish and Portuguese sugar plantations on Atlantic and Mediterranean islands. The slaves were treated far more harshly than in either the older African slavery or medieval European slavery, and the unprecedented scale of the slave trade resulted in a demographic catastrophe for West Africa and its peoples. Race became the explicit basis of the "new slavery."

Columbus, sailing on behalf of Spain, made his landfall in the Americas in 1492. Other Spanish conquistadores followed in his wake and helped to establish Encomiendas to extract labor and tribute from the Indians. Conquest brought forced labor and mass death, especially from diseases such as smallpox, to Native Americans. When they died in droves, Portuguese slavers imported shiploads of Africans. In a process known as the Columbian Exchange, European animals, including the horse, and European and African agricultural products came to the New World. In return, American plants such as corn, beans, potatoes, and tomatoes, transformed the European diet. New populations of mixed ancestry developed and became an important dimension of the Atlantic world.

Spanish power prevented other nations from establishing colonies in North America during the sixteenth century. Spain moved into what is now the southwestern United States, and built an empire by violently subduing the Aztec, Inca and other Indian states. Colonist and traders from other European nations gradually became more active. The fur trade encouraged the French to move into the St. Lawrence River valley and the Dutch into the Hudson River valley. Sweden established a small fur-trading colony in the lower Delaware River valley. But New Sweden was overcome by the Dutch, and New Netherland by the English.

The English, while seeking the Northwest Passage to Asia, were also raiding Spanish fleets and ports from Spain to the West Indies. Colonizing attempts were expensive. Only joint-stock companies could gather enough capital. Even a large-scale, well-financed colonizing effort could fail, given the settlers' unpreparedness for the American environment. In 1607 the Virginia Company of London planted a colony on the James River in Virginia. After a year of teetering on the edge of disaster, the colony appointed John Smith to be its leader. He brought order through military discipline and maintained satisfactory relations with the Powhatan Confederacy. When Smith was replaced, the colony nearly foundered again. Worsening relations with the Indians led to war and left the Virginia Company bankrupt. In 1625 Virginia became a royal colony.

Late in 1620 the English founded a settlement at Plymouth, Massachusetts. The Pilgrim community, led by English Separatists, was able to survive only through the assistance of friendly Indians, but this relationship soon deteriorated. However, although

the Pilgrims were only one small group, their determination and their ultimate mastery over the Indians were precursors of things to come.

Learning Targets

Student will be able to analyze the impact of the Columbian Exchange on Indians, Europeans, and Africans

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Emergence of Colonial Societies and Slavery -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The first group of Puritans came to Massachusetts in 1630, hoping to found a community that would be a visible example to all, like a "city on a hill." They expected believers to engage in intense self-examination, to struggle against human sinfulness, and if a "saint," a member of the "elect," to experience sanctification. Charity would moderate the drive for profit that they believed had placed an intolerable burden on English society. As non-Separatists, Massachusetts Puritans considered themselves spiritual members of the Church of England. They created a system of church governance called congregationalism, disavowed the authority of Anglican bishops, and placed the control of each congregation in the hands of the male saints. Only saints could take communion and baptize their children, but all adults were expected to attend services and pay tithes.

The Puritans spread rapidly across New England, helped by devastation of the native population by European diseases. The Pequot War wiped out more Native Americans, and others were converted to Christianity. By the last quarter of the century, King Philip's War eliminated resistance to white expansion almost everywhere in the region.

Some Puritans dissented from orthodoxy. Roger Williams, who insisted that civil government should remain absolutely uninvolved with religious matters, was banished. Anne Hutchinson reiterated the Puritan belief that "good works" were a false road to salvation, since God had predetermined who would be saved. She, too, was banished. The most fundamental threat to the Puritan "city upon a hill," however, was the possible abandonment of the ideal of a close-knit community that emphasized social reciprocity. To preserve the New England Way, the Puritans evolved political and religious institutions far more democratic than those in the mother country. Even the landholding system encouraged community. Families lived near one another, separated from their farm acreage. Order in the family was so important that government could intervene in truly serious problems in a household. Divorce, although infrequent, was possible for extremely wronged spouses. Although wives enjoyed legal protection against spousal violence and nonsupport, they suffered the legal disabilities of common law: no property rights independent of the husband. An environment relatively free of disease, a generally adequate diet, and consequent long life and large families aided family stability.

As New Englanders grew more worldly, fewer children became saints. The Half-Way Covenant permitted the children of all baptized members to be baptized but left them "halfway" members who could not take communion or vote in church affairs. The Half-Way Covenant signaled the end of the New England Way. The distribution of wealth was growing more uneven in many parts of New England. In Salem, Massachusetts, the region's second largest port, anxieties over social change caused conflict between prosperous merchants and agricultural residents and played a role in the furor over witchcraft that erupted in 1692.

In the Chesapeake region, royal control did not mean royal financial support. After 1630 the crown-appointed governors called regular assemblies in order to raise taxes. Anglican vestries in each parish, elected by the taxpayers until 1662 and thereafter self-recruiting and independent, governed churches. A chronic shortage of clergy reduced the influence of religion in the region. After 1660 members of English merchant families who engaged in trade with Virginia became planters themselves, thus founding the First Families of Virginia, which dominated Virginia politics for two centuries.

In Maryland the crown granted a large tract of land to Lord Baltimore, who intended to create an overseas refuge for English Catholics. In this he did not succeed. From the outset Protestants formed a majority of the population, and antagonisms intensified. The economy of Virginia and Maryland was dominated by tobacco. Although prices fell after 1629, tobacco stayed profitable when cultivated near navigable water. Planters, by establishing control of both export and import commerce, stunted the growth of towns and the emergence of a powerful merchant class. Large numbers of indentured servants came because both colonies offered headrights to masters, usually of fifty acres, for each worker imported. The development of strong family relations was retarded by a scarcity of women immigrants and by an exceptionally high death rate as a result of disease. The population grew very slowly until the late seventeenth century, when immunities had been acquired and the sex ratio equalized.

Importation of servants into the Chesapeake made society increasingly unequal. After 1660 upward mobility almost vanished as the price of tobacco fell far below profitable levels. So began a depression lasting over fifty years. Bacon's Rebellion in 1675 -1676 started as an attack on Indians and Indian property and soon became an attack on other whites. Earlier, planters had begun substituting black slaves for white servants. Although the first Africans arrived in 1619, slavery was not defined as a livelong, inheritable, racial status until more than four decades had passed. Slavery replaced indentured servitude as population pressure in England declined and wages rose, reducing the number of persons willing to emigrate overseas. After 1690 nonslave-owners came to see themselves as sharing a common interest with the upper class in maintaining social control over an alien race.

Between 1630 and 1642, more than twice as many British emigrants went to the Caribbean as to New England. Strong

demand for tobacco led the first English settlers in the Caribbean to cultivate that plant almost exclusively. In the 1640s sugar was introduced. It was exceptionally profitable, but it required substantial capital investment and a large labor force. The British island concentrated on sugar and developed a wealthy and powerful landholding elite. The English imposed slavery on both blacks and Indians, and by 1670 the sugar revolution had transformed the British West Indies into a predominantly black and unfree society. West Indian slaves suffered severely from ill treatment and overwork on the sugar plantations. Declining demand for white labor diverted the flow of English immigration from the islands to mainland North America.

Carolina was the first of the Restoration colonies, and until the 1680s most settlers were small landowners who did not produce enough tobacco, lumber, or pitch to warrant maintaining many slaves. By the early eighteenth century, however, rice, introduced by slaves from Senegambia, remade southern Carolina into a society resembling that of the West Indies.

Between the Chesapeake and New England, a fourth mainland colonial region, the middle colonies, emerged. The British seized control from the Dutch in New Netherland, pushed out the Swedes, and secured their position. By the end of the seventeenth century, the middle colonies were North America's fastest-growing region.

In 1663 New France was placed under the direct control of royal authority. The hope was to increase the output of furs and provide foodstuffs for the sugar-producing West Indies and timber for the French navy. French troops were sent to counter the Iroquois threat, and coureurs de bois moved into the West. In 1682 La Salle claimed the entire Mississippi basin--Louisiana--for Louis XIV, and France began settling the area near the river's mouth.

Spain also sought to establish a presence in North America: in Florida, in Texas, and especially in New Mexico, where Spanish rulers met sustained resistance and were even pushed back temporarily by the Pueblo revolt. By the early eighteenth century Spanish and French land claims surrounded the seaboard-clinging English, but the non-Indian population of England's North American colonies vastly outnumbered that of England's rivals.

Learning Targets

Students will know that when diverse groups of people from the British Isles settled the Eastern seaboard, they created unique cultural and social patterns

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit II: The Bonds of Empire to Revolution -- 7 Day(s)

Description

All European nations regulated trade according to mercantilist principles, which held that a country's prosperity depended on a self-sufficient economy that produced a favorable balance of trade. Britain's numerous Navigation Acts passed by 1750 created a commercial structure that provided mutual advantages for Britain and the colonies. They limited all imperial trade to British ships, with positive effects on the shipping industry in both Britain and America. They controlled trade in certain "enumerated" goods and provided government bounties to encourage production of needed materials. And they made the colonies a protected market for certain exports from Britain. Colonial living standards rose dramatically from 1700 to 1770. By the mid-eighteenth century, the standard of living in the American colonies was higher than in Scotland or Ireland and approximately as high as in England and Wales. The economic development of the French and Spanish colonies paled beside that of British North America. While all three nations were governed according to mercantilist principles, France and Spain remained societies in which most wealth was controlled by the monarch, the mobility, and the church, while England had made the transition to a mercantile-commercial economy.

Before 1700 the colonial population grew largely through immigration. Once life expectancy and family size in the South increased, British North America's growth rate far outpaced England's. In the forty years after Queen Anne's War, the colonies also absorbed 350,000 immigrants, of whom 40 percent were Africans. Immigration from England, which provided 90 percent of all Europeans before 1700, dropped as rising employment and higher wages in England reduced the number of those who migrated to North

America. From Ireland came 100,000 immigrants, two-thirds of whom were Scotch-Irish. And Germany sent 65,000 refugees from the Rhine Valley, where overpopulation was extreme. The main port of arrival was Philadelphia; from there settlement proceeded into Pennsylvania and then southward into western Maryland and the Shenandoah Valley. Georgia was founded to shield South Carolina from Spanish attack from Florida and as a haven for debtors, few of whom actually joined the colony.

The colonies offered economic opportunity in the 1700s, but success was hard-won. Land was acquired by careful saving while working as a farm laborer. New families then rented. Finally, they bought, carrying a heavy mortgage. Farmers supplemented their income with seasonal and part-time work. After 1740 economic success proved increasingly difficult for the 4 percent of colonists who lived in cities, as wages declined and prices rose. Poverty grew from insignificant levels before 1700 into a major problem. For

the one-fifth of the population who were slaves, economic progress by 1750 meant little more than lessening their poverty. Most slaves led lives of drudgery with few physical comforts. Salve autonomy varied from colony to colony, but as black populations grew, racial tensions mounted. The 1739 Stono Rebellion in South Carolina led to harsher slave codes.

The gentry dominated politics. Even so, most males in America were qualified to vote by age forty, whereas two-thirds of all men in England and nine-tenths in Ireland would never vote. The most important political development after 1700 was the rise of the assembly as the dominant force in American government. Since Parliament had passed the Bill of Rights in 1689 and Americans saw their assemblies as miniature Houses of Commons, the assemblies gained power at the expense of the governors. The British government let the colonies become in effect self-governing in most respects except for trade regulation, restrictions on printing money, and declaring war. But Anglo-America was nevertheless rife with economic, religious, and racial tensions as it entered the second half of the eighteenth century.

Initially, most colonists stayed loyal to Britain and did not question that Parliament had the right to control some aspects of North American commerce. But the continued British policy of raising revenue by taxing colonial trade led some of the educated elite colonist to examine the imperial relationship. They turned to the philosophers, political writers, and theologians of the Enlightenment and Great Awakening for their democratic ideas. Poorer white colonists tended towards mob activism and violence, defying both colonial elites as well as British authorities. African American slaves also challenged the authority of their masters, escaping and even trying to use the legal system to gain freedom. British forces came to be associated with liberation in the minds of many slaves.

In 1773 Parliament passed the Tea Act. Although it lowered the price of tea, the Tea Act hurt colonial merchants and alarmed Americans by raising even more revenue for paying the salaries of royal governors and reducing their financial dependence on elected assemblies. In most cities committees of correspondence began blocking the landing of tea. In Boston the Tea Party "Indians" resorted to direct action. The British government immediately responded by enacting what Americans named the Intolerable Acts. These laws aroused resistance not only in New England but in other colonies as well. Every colony but Georgia sent delegates to a Continental Congress in Philadelphia. The Congress issued a Declaration of Rights and Grievances directed at the king rather than Parliament, and it endorsed the more radical Suffolk Resolves. Most Americans still hoped that their resistance would cause Parliament to renounce all authority over the colonies except trade regulations. At the same time, the people of Massachusetts prepared for the worst by collecting arms and organizing military units. A British expedition to seize military stores led to the battles of Lexington and Concord on April 19, 1775. A month later the Second Continental Congress convened in Philadelphia and sent an "Olive Branch Petition" to George III. But the establishment of a Continental Army and the Battle of Bunker Hill convinced the British that the Americans did not want reconciliation. In 1776 Thomas Paine's Common Sense attacked the institution of monarchy directly. In July the American provinces declared independence, dissolving "the political bands" tying them to Great Britain.

Enduring Understandings

- The people and products of the North American colonies had become integral to the world trading system and emeshed in its conflicts (ch.4)
- The Enlightenment and the Great Awakening altered the way people viewed science, religion, and politics (ch.4)
- The crucial years between 1760 and 1775 divided the American population along political lines and set the colonies on the road to independence (ch.5)

Materials and Resources

Boyer text
Assorted primary source documents

Vocabulary

Ch.4: manumission, dowry, libel, Sir Edward Andros and the Dominion of New England, Glorious Revolution, King William's War,

Queen Anne's War, English Bill of Rights (1689), mercantilism, Covenant Chain, Leisler's Rebellion, Middle Passage, Navigation Acts, James Ogelthorpe, Stono Rebellion, John Peter Zenger, Enlightenment, Deists, Great Awakening, Jonathan Edwards, George Whitfield, New Lights, Old Lights

Ch.5: Tories, Albany Congress, Seven Year's War, King George III, writs of assistance and James Otis, Sugar Act and vice-admiralty courts, George Grenville, Stamp Act, virtual representation, Patrick Henry, Loyal Nine and Sons of Liberty, Declaratory Act, Townshend duties, Samuel Adams, John Adams, spinning bees, Lord North, Boston Massacre, Tea Act and Boston Tea Party, Lord Dunmore's proclamation, Proclamation Line of 1763, Committees of Correspondence, Intolerable Acts, Olive Branch Petition, Thomas Paine and Common Sense, Second Continental Congress and the Declaration of Independence

Mehlville School District

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Bonds of Empire -- 2 Day(s)

Description

With the Restoration in 1660, Great Britain began a second wave of colonial expansion on the North American mainland, acquiring the Carolinas, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. Although they began as proprietary undertakings, by 1729 all but Pennsylvania were under direct royal control.

In England the Stuart monarchs adopted a policy of royal centralization. In 1685 the Dominion of New England was created. English fear of Stuart inclinations toward Catholicism brought the Glorious Revolution of 1688 and the Bill of Rights in 1689. In America the governor of the Dominion of New England was overthrown and the dominion dismantled. In New York the downfall of Stuart authority also involved a struggle over local leadership. Maryland temporarily became a royal province in 1691. The overall effect of the revolution of 1688 changed the colonies' political climate by reestablishing legislative government, ensuring religious freedom for Protestants, allowing the colonial elite to reassert control over local affairs, and encouraging American political leaders to identify their interests with those of Great Britain. Several wars in Europe had their counterparts in the colonies, in which Native Americans, particularly the Iroquois, played a Key role in determining the balance of power in the Northeast. French and Spanish control over their respective territories continued to limit English expansion and the wars reinforced the colonial sense of dependence on Great Britain.

When the War of the Spanish Succession ended in 1713, France aggressively resumed expanding and strengthening its North American empire, focusing particularly on the colony of Louisiana. The French then sought to counter British influence in the Ohio Valley, establishing an immense domain by 1750, one that relied on maintenance of good relations with Native Americans.

Spain established its presence in Texas and New Mexico and offered large land grants there. While endeavoring to maintain its empire in the face of Native American, French, and British adversaries, Spain spread its language and culture over much of North America, especially in the Southwest. Thinly spread throughout a vast region, Spain, too, depended heavily on Indian goodwill.

All European nations regulated trade according to mercantilist principles, which held that a country's prosperity depended on a self-sufficient economy that produced a favorable balance of trade. Britain's numerous Navigation Acts passed by 1750 created a commercial structure that provided mutual advantages for Britain and the colonies. They limited all imperial trade to British ships, with positive effects on the shipping industry in both Britain and America. They controlled trade in certain "enumerated" goods and provided government bounties to encourage production of needed materials. And they made the colonies a protected market for certain exports from Britain. Colonial living standards rose dramatically from 1700 to 1770. By the mid-eighteenth century, the standard of living in the American colonies was higher than in Scotland or Ireland and approximately as high as in England and Wales. The economic development of the French and Spanish colonies paled beside that of British North America. While all three nations were governed according to mercantilist principles, France and Spain remained societies in which most wealth was controlled by the monarch, the mobility, and the church, while England had made the transition to a mercantile-commercial economy.

Before 1700 the colonial population grew largely through immigration. Once life expectancy and family size in the South increased, British North America's growth rate far outpaced England's. In the forty years after Queen Anne's War, the colonies also absorbed 350,000 immigrants, of whom 40 percent were Africans. Immigration from England, which provided 90 percent of all Europeans before 1700, dropped as rising employment and higher wages in England reduced the number of those who migrated to North America. From Ireland came 100,000 immigrants, two-thirds of whom were Scotch-Irish. And Germany sent 65,000 refugees from the Rhine Valley, where overpopulation was extreme. The main port of arrival was Philadelphia; from there settlement proceeded into Pennsylvania and then southward into western Maryland and the Shenandoah Valley. Georgia was founded to shield South Carolina from Spanish attack from Florida and as a haven for debtors, few of whom actually joined the colony.

The colonies offered economic opportunity in the 1700s, but success was hard-won. Land was acquired by careful saving while working as a farm laborer. New families then rented. Finally, they bought, carrying a heavy mortgage. Farmers supplemented their income with seasonal and part-time work. After 1740 economic success proved increasingly difficult for the 4 percent of colonists who lived in cities, as wages declined and prices rose. Poverty grew from insignificant levels before 1700 into a major problem. For the one-fifth of the population who were slaves, economic progress by 1750 meant little more than lessening their poverty. Most slaves led lives of drudgery with few physical comforts. Salve autonomy varied from colony to colony, but as black populations grew, racial tensions mounted. The 1739 Stono Rebellion in South Carolina led to harsher slave codes.

The gentry dominated politics. Even so, most males in America were qualified to vote by age forty, whereas two-thirds of all

men in England and nine-tenths in Ireland would never vote. The most important political development after 1700 was the rise of the assembly as the dominant force in American government. Since Parliament had passed the Bill of Rights in 1689 and Americans saw their assemblies as miniature Houses of Commons, the assemblies gained power at the expense of the governors. The British government let the colonies become in effect self-governing in most respects except for trade regulation, restrictions on printing money, and declaring war. But Anglo-America was nevertheless rife with economic, religious, and racial tensions as it entered the second half of the eighteenth century.

The European Enlightenment significantly influenced American intellectuals. By the mid-1700s, when perhaps only 35 percent of British males were illiterate, about 90 percent of the men and over 40 percent of the women in New England could read and write. Philadelphia became a cosmopolitan cultural center, and even on isolated plantations, southern gentlemen devoted time to study. Deism became a significant religious influence, especially for upper class Americans. Anglican, Presbyterian, and Congregational clergy were influenced by Enlightenment rationalism. Most churchgoers, however, found "rational" religion empty, and their growing sense of spiritual unease led to a massive religious revival, the Great Awakening, in the late 1730s and 1740s. The more traditional clergy, or Old Lights, opposed revivalists, known as New Lights. The Old Lights were shocked by the emotionalism that the revivalists displayed. The Great Awakening started the long-term decline of the influence of the Quakers, Anglicans, and Congregationalists in favor of the Presbyterians, Baptists, and later Methodists. It also stimulated a desire to establish divinity schools that vastly expanded college education. It marked the real emergence of black Protestantism as New Lights reached out to the slaves. And the Great Awakening encouraged increased religious toleration.

Learning Targets

Students will know that English colonial societies based their religious sytems on traditional European practices

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Road to Revolution -- 2 Day(s)

Description

In the mid-eighteenth century, most Anglo-Americans assumed that it was their duty to assist Great Britain against its enemies. The French in particular, with their stronghold in Canada and their Indian allies, threatened the American colonies. In 1754 delegates from seven colonies endorsed a plan for mutual defense, the Albany Plan of Union. Soon a virtual state of war existed in the Ohio Valley and spread to other colonies. In 1756 the French and Indian War became an international conflict, the Seven Years' War. Prime Minister William Pitt encouraged Americans to assume much of the burden of supplying military personnel for North America by promising that Parliament would bear the cost. Upon defeat France ceded all its territories on the North American mainland to England and Spain, and Britain also gained Florida from Spain.

British public opinion not only undervalued American contributions to the war effort but also resented the lightness of the colonial financial burden. The British thought it outrageous to pay Americans for defending themselves against an enemy on their own borders. The absence of a French threat also gave Anglo-Americans the opportunity to settle on Indian lands west of the Appalachian Mountains. New conflicts with the Indians, such as Pontiac's Rebellion, brought additional British troops to North America and additional expense.

The Seven Years' War ended the era of "salutary neglect" that had characterized imperial oversight during most of the preceding half-century. The colonists had rarely challenged British authority to regulate trade, but they had often ignored the regulations. As part of a new crackdown on smuggling after 1760, the British employed general search warrants, or writs of assistance, to seize illegally imported goods. Since the writs required no evidence or probable cause, their use stirred considerable colonial anger. In 1764 Parliament passed the Sugar Act, imposing a tax on non-British molasses entering the colonies. The law also established a host of new requirements and taxes on colonial commercial activities and permitted trial of smuggling cases in admiralty courts, where decisions were made by a judge who received an award from the confiscated cargo, rather than by a jury.

The colonial tax burden was barely 2 percent to 6 percent of the British rate. To force the colonists to pay their share, Parliament passed the Stamp Act in 1765. Britain defended this new internal tax by contending that the Americans, like the inhabitants of large cities in England, had "virtual" representation in Parliament. Americans rejected the idea of virtual representation. The nine colonies represented at the Stamp Act Congress in 1765 agreed that Parliament lacked authority to levy taxes outside Great Britain or to deny any subject a jury trial. The citizenry took direct action. Mobs wrecked the homes and property of stamp distributors and forced them to resign. The colonists made nonimportation agreements, and Parliament, as a matter of practicality, revoked the Stamp Act in 1766.

The immediate crisis was over, but Parliament continued a policy of confrontation. Led by Charles Townshend, it passed a Revenue Act that taxed a number of colonial imports from Great Britain itself. One of its purposes was to build a fund that was independent of the colonial legislatures from which the salaries of governors and other royal officials in America might be paid. The colonists responded with statements of opposition, and the legislatures developed a communications system of "circular letters." Nonimportation agreements were adopted. The Sons of Liberty, who had been active during the Stamp Act crisis, reorganized. The Daughters of Liberty promoted a tea boycott and a boycott of British clothing manufactures. In 1770, under Prime Minister Lord North, Parliament eliminated most of the Townshend duties, but it kept the tea tax in order to underscore British authority.

The situation was worsened by the unscrupulous activity of revenue officers who employed paid spies and used their authority to line their own pockets. The seizure of John Hancock's sloop Liberty on a false smuggling charge provoked a riot. In response Britain dispatched troops to Boston with concomitant public resentment. The Boston Massacre on March 5, 1770, shocked public sensibilities and produced a lull in the confrontations. In 1772 Lord North's ministry began to implement the part of the Townshend Act that provided for payment of royal governors out of customs revenue. Colonists responded with "committees of correspondence," their first attempt to maintain close and continuing political cooperation over a large area. By now the British public believed that the Americans were out to destroy royal authority overseas. The Americans saw the assault

on colonial rights as part of a plot to establish a military despotism.

Initially, most colonists stayed loyal to Britain and did not question that Parliament had the right to control some aspects of North American commerce. But the continued British policy of raising revenue by taxing colonial trade led some of the educated elite colonist to examine the imperial relationship. They turned to the philosophers, political writers, and theologians of the Enlightenment and Great Awakening for their democratic ideas. Poorer white colonists tended towards mob activism and violence, defying both colonial elites as well as British authorities. African American slaves also challenged the authority of their masters, escaping and even trying to use the legal system to gain freedom. British forces came to be associated with liberation in the minds of many slaves.

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Learning Targets

Students will understand the sequence of events that impelled the colonists to begin their struggle for independence

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit III: Securing Independence to Era of Good Feelings -- 7 Day(s)

Description

State governments that Americans created during the Revolution magnified the power struggle between more radical democratic elements and elites. They generally created bicameral legislatures with the majority of officeholders appointed rather than elected, with property qualifications for voting, and representation apportioned regardless of population. But state constitutions were written documents that usually required popular ratification, and they contained explicit bills of rights. In most states the governor became a relatively weak elected official, and elections occurred more frequently than today. Americans did not favor a party system that would encourage candidates to state their political beliefs so that voters could decide on policy. Rather, voters based choices on the personal merits of the candidates. The elites saw themselves as republicans rather than democrats. The term democracy suggested mob rule or at best implied a concentration of power in the hands of the uneducated masses. The term republicanism suggested a balanced government led by capable leaders elected for their superior talents.

The basic law of national government, the Articles of Confederation, took effect in 1781. It established a single-chamber national Congress elected by the state legislatures in which each state had only one vote. Congress could request funds from the states but could enact no tax of its own without every state's approval, nor could it regulate interstate or foreign commerce. The Articles did not provide for an executive branch, nor was there a judicial system. The fear of an overbearing centralized national government had led to a league of sovereign states.

The Congress under the Articles established orderly procedures for the organization and admission of new states in the Northwest Territory, but the government faced great difficulty in dealing with the Indians who lived there and in the Southeast. The British still maintained a presence in the West, and Spain attempted to deny western settlers permission to ship their crops down the Mississippi to New Orleans. The Confederation also failed to deal with the economy. To pay for the war, the government had borrowed funds from abroad and printed its own paper money, the value of which was almost totally eroded by inflation. By the late 1780s the states had fallen behind nearly 80 percent in providing the funds requested by Congress. Dissatisfaction with the Articles of Confederation grew. In 1786 violence broke out in western Massachusetts as the state's attempt to deal with its financial crisis provoked Shays's Rebellion. For some, this was an augury of worse to come.

The Philadelphia Convention of 1787 was scheduled to make revisions in the Articles of Confederation. But the delegates shared a

"continental" or "nationalist" perspective. Very quickly the fundamental issue became one of balancing the conflicting interests of large and small states in a completely new government. The new Constitution augmented national authority in several ways. It vested in Congress the authority to lay and collect taxes, to regulate commerce among the states, and to conduct diplomacy. The states could no longer coin money, interfere with contracts and debts, nor tax interstate commerce. All acts and treaties of the United States became "the supreme law of the land." The power of the new national government was restrained by the creation of three distinct branches and a system of checks and balances to prevent any one branch from dominating the other two. The federal system provided for shared power and dual lawmaking by the national and state governments in order to place limits on central authority. And the Constitution could be amended by votes of three-fourths of the state legislatures.

The citizens, rather than the states, comprised the foundation of the new government, and the Constitution was to be ratified by

special state conventions. The supporters of ratification, the Federalists, had wider experience and a broader outlook than did the Antifederalists. Moreover, in response to the Antifederalists' concerns, the new frame of government was to have a bill of rights protecting Americans' basic freedoms. The framework for a democratic republic had been created.

In April 1789 the new national government began its work. Anxiety about the powers of the presidency was kept in check only because of George Washington's reputation for integrity. He suggested few laws to Congress and rarely spoke out against opponents of government policy. Generally he limited his public statements to matters of foreign relations and military affairs, and he deferred to congressional decisions concerning domestic policy whenever possible. Congress too acted cautiously. It created in each state a federal district court that recognized local procedures and established a system of appeal to federal circuit courts. The Bill of Rights as adopted did not strip the national government of any necessary authority but guaranteed personal liberties.

Alexander Hamilton was chosen secretary of the treasury. He moved to stabilize the nation's economy, protect national security, and establish a national rather than a local perspective. Hamilton believed that the federal government's survival depended on building support among politically influential citizens through appeal to their financial interests. His program advocated payment of the domestic debt at full value by funding; federal assumption of state debts; full payment of the foreign debt; and a permanent national debt as an investment for bondholders. Hamilton also called for the creation of a Bank of the United States that could make some of the recently funded debt available for loans. He urged protective tariffs on foreign imports to foster domestic manufacturing. Criticism of Hamilton's plans pointed to the favoritism shown to creditors and to the absence of any constitutional authority for Congress to create a national bank. Hamilton's financial program rescued the nation's credit, but it alienated many southerners and westerners for whom commercial expansion and industrial development held little promise. Western resentment boiled over briefly in Pennsylvania when protest against an excise tax on whiskey erupted into violence. The federal government's vigorous response, however, emphasized its authority.

The most serious perils to the nation's future arose from the collision between the interests of the United States and those of the British, Spanish, and Native Americans. For many Americans an alliance with France seemed to promise support against the combined strength of Britain and Spain. Enthusiasm for France, especially in the South and West, grew after the French Revolution. Settlers and speculators in frontier lands hoped that war in Europe would hobble Britain and Spain. Also, British encouragement of the slave revolt in Saint Domingue frightened the South. In the North, however, merchants' awareness that good relations with Britain were essential for their region's prosperity led to a growing antagonism toward France. French efforts to draw the United States to their support were met with Washington's proclamation of neutrality. The British stepped up their policy of impressment on the seas and encouraged greater Indian resistance. The Americans forced a treaty on the Indians in the Northwest. Some concessions were wrung from the British, although the Jay Treaty failed to address the problem of impressment and was widely unpopular. The Pinckney Treaty with Spain finally won westerners the right of unrestricted access to the Mississippi River.

The 1790s saw the development of economic, regional, and ideological differences into a fully fledged party division. The Federalists were convinced by the mid-1790s that it was unwise and perhaps dangerous to involve the public too deeply in politics. A different understanding of republican ideology influenced Jefferson, Madison, and others alienated by federal measures. Antifederalist (Republican) sentiment ran particularly high in the South. Liberty would be safe only if not concentrated in the hands of a few but diffused among virtuous independent citizens. When President Washington left office at the conclusion of his second term his Farewell Address contained a condemnation of political parties and a caution against the way they might draw the United States into European quarrels.

In the election of 1796 Federalist John Adams won a narrow victory. Responding to French commercial depredations, Adams's efforts to negotiate resulted in the infamous XYZ affair, consequent American outrage, the outfitting of new warships, and apprehension about national security that led the Federalists to pass the Alien and Sedition Acts. Criticism of these repressive Federalist laws came from Virginia and Kentucky. The doctrine of states' rights was first advanced as a means of preventing the national government from violating basic freedoms. Although the doctrines of interposition and nullification were not approved by other states, the nation's leaders increasingly acted as if a crisis were imminent. As the election of 1800 approached, tensions

were high. Jefferson and Madison discouraged radicalism that might provoke intervention by the national army. Adams pursued peaceful negotiations to end the quasi-war with France. Sharpening social, economic, and regional differences had helped fuel the clash in party politics, but the nation did achieve an orderly transition of government to a new political party.

The dawn of the nineteenth century saw in the United States a nation still building its foundations. The understandable tendency of its citizens to concentrate on local affairs was somewhat offset by events of national and international significance. The shift from the Federalists to the Republicans had been less traumatic than many had expected. Doubling the country's size through the addition of Louisiana opened vast possibilities and led to unforeseen strains. Later, after the turmoil of the War of 1812, opportunities arose that encouraged the incipient nationalism of the American people and at the same time laid the foundations for sectional rivalry and potential disaster.

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

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Enduring Understandings

- The American Revolution uprooted thousands of families, disrupted the economy, reshaped society by focing many colonists into exile, led Americans to develop new conceptions of politics, and created a nation from thirteen separate colonies (ch.6)
- The newly born United States struggled to find a way to foster consensus among its people and ensure political stability (ch.6)
- American expectations for prosperity, expansion, national unity, and independence were met with a measure of disappointment when they put their new government into operation (ch.7)
- As the newly elected president Thomas Jefferson piloted the young nation in new directions at home and abroad (ch.8)
- Americans during the period of 1800-1815 were not only factionalized politically, but along race, class, ethnicity, gender, religion,and regional issues as well (ch.8)

Materials and Resources

Boyer text
Assorted primary source documents

Vocabulary

Ch.6: emancipation, sovereignty, republic, ideology, agrarian, primogeniture, confederation, interstate commerce, anarchy, ratification, Henry Knox, loyalists and patriots, the Battle of Saratoga, George Rogers Clark, Daniel Boone, Yorktown, Peace of Paris, "natural aristocracy", Phillis Wheatley, Abigail Adams, Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom, Articles of Confederation, Ordinance of 1785, Northwest Ordinance of 1787, Shay's Rebellion, Virginia Plan, New Jersey Plan, Connecticut Compromise, James Madison, federalism, separation of powers, Constitution of the U.S., checks and balances, Federalists, Anti-Federalists

Ch.7: secession, tariff, excise tax, ex post facto law, bill of attainder, insurrection, constituents, partisan, cabal, sedition, Judiciary Act of 1789, Bill of Rights, James Madison, Hamilton, Report on the National Bank, Reports on the Public Credit, Federalists versus Republicans, Whiskey Rebellion, Citizen Genet, Jay's treaty, Pickney's Treaty, Washington's Farewell Address, Quasi-War, Election of 1800, Indian Trade and Intercourse Acts, XYZ Affair, Alien and Sedition Acts, Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, "Republican Motherhood," Fugitive Slave Law (1793), Gabriel's Rebellion (1800), Eli Whitney and the Cotton Gin

Ch.8: writ, Jeffersonianism, Louisiana Purchase, Louis and Clark Expedition, Judicial Review, impeach, Judiciary Act of 1801, midnight judges, Marbury v. Madison, John Marshall, impressment, Chesapeake-Leopard Affair, Embargo Act of 1807, Non-intercourse acts, war hawks, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Tecumseh and the Prophet, William Henry Harrison and the Battles of Tippecanoe and the Thames, Oliver Perry and the Battle of Lake Erie, Treaty of Ghent, Battle of New Orleans, Andrew Jackson, Hartford Convention, Dartmouth College v. Woodard, McCulloch v. Maryland, Era of Good Feelings, Missouri Compromise, John Quincy Adams, Adams-Onis Treaty, Monroe Doctrine

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Revolution and A New Nation -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The British had two main advantages over the United States in the Revolution. They greatly outnumbered the 2.5 million Americans, one-third of whom were either slaves or loyalists, and the British possessed superior naval and military forces. But British resources were severely strained. The United States mobilized its people more effectively, and created an army of 220,000 troops, compared to 162,000 British. The United States naval vessels and privateers seriously hampered the Royal Navy.

The United States faced a variety of problems. One-fifth of its free population openly favored the British. Sentiment among African-Americans tended to support the British in the hope of freedom from slavery. And although the state militias sometimes performed well in guerrilla skirmishes, they lacked the training to fight in the formal fashion that could attract foreign loans and diplomatic recognition.

The Americans experienced a number of serious defeats in the war's early years, but they needed only to prolong the rebellion until Britain's taxpayers lost patience. After Continental victories in New Jersey, the turning point of the war came with the defeat of the British at Saratoga in 1777. Seeing the possibility of an ultimate American victory, France formally recognized the United States and declared war on Great Britain. The British were forced to send thousands of soldiers to Ireland and the West Indies to guard against French invasion.

In 1778 the war's focus turned to the South and eventually the Americans pinned the British near Yorktown, Virginia, between themselves and the French fleet. Lord Cornwallis's 1781 surrender drained England's overtaxed gentry of the will to fight. In the Peace of Paris Great Britain recognized American independence and began the evacuation of all royal troops from United States soil. At least 5 percent of all free white males aged sixteen to forty-five had died in the war. Only the Civil War produced a higher casualty ratio relative to population.

The Revolution diminished the sense class differences among white Americans. Ordinary soldiers demanded to be treated with consideration, and they retained their self-esteem on returning to civilian life. The gentry's sense of social distinction diminished as they met men who rose during the war through ability rather than through advantages of wealth or family. Virtue and sacrifice defined a citizen's worth more than position.

Yet the overall distribution of wealth in the nation remained unchanged and for nonwhites the results of the Revolution were ambiguous. About 500,000 black Americans lived in the United States in 1776, some 20 percent of the total population. In the decade before the Revolution American opposition to slavery had grown. By 1784 five northern states had ended slavery, and even in the South slavery worried the conscience of some of the Whigs. No state south of Pennsylvania abolished slavery, but many made manumission easier. Free blacks, despite the severe disabilities they suffered, gained the right to vote in the North and in a number of southern states, and thus the Revolution did begin the process by which slavery could eventually be ended. However, revolutionary ideology made no provisions for Indian nations seeking to maintain their own independence, and the Anglo-American hunger for land threatened Native American territory, especially in the trans-Appalachain west.

State governments that Americans created during the Revolution magnified the power struggle between more radical democratic elements and elites. They generally created bicameral legislatures with the majority of officeholders appointed rather than elected, with property qualifications for voting, and representation apportioned regardless of population. But state constitutions were written documents that usually required popular ratification, and they contained explicit bills of rights. In most states the governor became a relatively weak elected official, and elections occurred more frequently than today. Americans did not favor a party system that would encourage candidates to state their political beliefs so that voters could decide on policy. Rather, voters based choices on the personal merits of the candidates. The elites saw themselves as republicans rather than democrats. The term democracy suggested mob rule or at best implied a concentration of power in the hands of the uneducated masses. The term republicanism suggested a balanced government led by capable leaders elected for their superior talents.

The basic law of national government, the Articles of Confederation, took effect in 1781. It established a single-chamber national Congress elected by the state legislatures in which each state had only one vote. Congress could request funds from the states but could enact no tax of its own without every state's approval, nor could it regulate interstate or foreign commerce. The Articles did not provide for an executive branch, nor was there a judicial system. The fear of an overbearing centralized national government had led to a league of sovereign states.

The Congress under the Articles established orderly procedures for the organization and admission of new states in the Northwest Territory, but the government faced great difficulty in dealing with the Indians who lived there and in the Southeast. The British still maintained a presence in the West, and Spain attempted to deny western settlers permission to ship their crops

down the Mississippi to New Orleans. The Confederation also failed to deal with the economy. To pay for the war, the government had borrowed funds from abroad and printed its own paper money, the value of which was almost totally eroded by inflation. By the late 1780s the states had fallen behind nearly 80 percent in providing the funds requested by Congress. Dissatisfaction with the Articles of Confederation grew. In 1786 violence broke out in western Massachusetts as the state's attempt to deal with its financial crisis provoked Shays's Rebellion. For some, this was an augury of worse to come.

The Philadelphia Convention of 1787 was scheduled to make revisions in the Articles of Confederation. But the delegates shared a "continental" or "nationalist" perspective. Very quickly the fundamental issue became one of balancing the conflicting interests of large and small states in a completely new government. The new Constitution augmented national authority in several ways. It vested in Congress the authority to lay and collect taxes, to regulate commerce among the states, and to conduct diplomacy. The states could no longer coin money, interfere with contracts and debts, nor tax interstate commerce. All acts and treaties of the United States became "the supreme law of the land." The power of the new national government was restrained by the creation of three distinct branches and a system of checks and balances to prevent any one branch from dominating the other two. The federal system provided for shared power and dual lawmaking by the national and state governments in order to place limits on central authority. And the Constitution could be amended by votes of three-fourths of the state legislatures.

The citizens, rather than the states, comprised the foundation of the new government, and the Constitution was to be ratified by special state conventions. The supporters of ratification, the Federalists, had wider experience and a broader outlook than did the Antifederalists. Moreover, in response to the Antifederalists' concerns, the new frame of government was to have a bill of rights protecting Americans' basic freedoms. The framework for a democratic republic had been created.

Learning Targets

Students will discuss and analyze the reasons for declaring independence and the challenges facing a newly created confederacy

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Federalist Era -- 2 Day(s)

Description

In April 1789 the new national government began its work. Anxiety about the powers of the presidency was kept in check only because of George Washington's reputation for integrity. He suggested few laws to Congress and rarely spoke out against opponents of government policy. Generally he limited his public statements to matters of foreign relations and military affairs, and he deferred to congressional decisions concerning domestic policy whenever possible. Congress too acted cautiously. It created in each state a federal district court that recognized local procedures and established a system of appeal to federal circuit courts. The Bill of Rights as adopted did not strip the national government of any necessary authority but guaranteed personal liberties.

Alexander Hamilton was chosen secretary of the treasury. He moved to stabilize the nation's economy, protect national security, and establish a national rather than a local perspective. Hamilton believed that the federal government's survival depended on building support among politically influential citizens through appeal to their financial interests. His program advocated payment of the domestic debt at full value by funding; federal assumption of state debts; full payment of the foreign debt; and a permanent national debt as an investment for bondholders. Hamilton also called for the creation of a Bank of the United States that could make some of the recently funded debt available for loans. He urged protective tariffs on foreign imports to foster domestic manufacturing. Criticism of Hamilton's plans pointed to the favoritism shown to creditors and to the absence of any constitutional authority for Congress to create a national bank. Hamilton's financial program rescued the nation's credit, but it alienated many southerners and westerners for whom commercial expansion and industrial development held little promise. Western resentment boiled over briefly in Pennsylvania when protest against an excise tax on whiskey erupted into violence. The federal government's vigorous response, however, emphasized its authority.

The most serious perils to the nation's future arose from the collision between the interests of the United States and those of the British, Spanish, and Native Americans. For many Americans an alliance with France seemed to promise support against the combined strength of Britain and Spain. Enthusiasm for France, especially in the South and West, grew after the French Revolution. Settlers and speculators in frontier lands hoped that war in Europe would hobble Britain and Spain. Also, British encouragement of the slave revolt in Saint Domingue frightened the South. In the North, however, merchants' awareness that good relations with Britain were essential for their region's prosperity led to a growing antagonism toward France. French efforts to draw the United States to their support were met with Washington's proclamation of neutrality. The British stepped up their policy of impressment on the seas and encouraged greater Indian resistance. The Americans forced a treaty on the Indians in the Northwest. Some concessions were wrung from the British, although the Jay Treaty failed to address the problem of impressment and was widely unpopular. The Pinckney Treaty with Spain finally won westerners the right of unrestricted access to the Mississippi River.

The 1790s saw the development of economic, regional, and ideological differences into a fully fledged party division. The Federalists were convinced by the mid-1790s that it was unwise and perhaps dangerous to involve the public too deeply in politics. A different understanding of republican ideology influenced Jefferson, Madison, and others alienated by federal measures. Antifederalist (Republican) sentiment ran particularly high in the South. Liberty would be safe only if not concentrated in the hands of a few but diffused among virtuous independent citizens. When President Washington left office at the conclusion of his second term his Farewell Address contained a condemnation of political parties and a caution against the way they might draw the United States into European quarrels.

In the election of 1796 Federalist John Adams won a narrow victory. Responding to French commercial depredations, Adams's efforts to negotiate resulted in the infamous XYZ affair, consequent American outrage, the outfitting of new warships, and apprehension about national security that led the Federalists to pass the Alien and Sedition Acts. Criticism of these repressive Federalist laws came from Virginia and Kentucky. The doctrine of states' rights was first advanced as a means of preventing the national government from violating basic freedoms. Although the doctrines of interposition and nullification were not approved by other states, the nation's leaders increasingly acted as if a crisis were imminent. As the election of 1800

approached, tensions were high. Jefferson and Madison discouraged radicalism that might provoke intervention by the national army. Adams pursued peaceful negotiations to end the quasi-war with France. Sharpening social, economic, and regional differences had helped fuel the clash in party politics, but the nation did achieve an orderly transition of government to a new political party.

At the local level, economic transformations were also taking place. Farm families in the Northeast began to direct more of their surplus production towards a growing urban market. Artisan production also increased, often supported by an ambitious and aggressive class of businessmen who had been merchants and were now investing their profits in factories, ships, government bonds, and backs.

For Native Americans, the situation was bleak. Most of the Indian tribes had suffered severe reductions in population and

territory, and their cultural integrity had been weakened and distorted. Efforts to cling to traditional values encouraged whites to see the Indians as incapable of change, a distinct and inferior race that white American society could never absorb. Among black Americans, also, the situation worsened. The trend toward lessening legal and social distance between blacks and whites ended with the century. Abolitionist sentiment ebbed, slavery became more entrenched, and whites demonstrated unmistakable reluctance to accept even free blacks as fellow citizens. The Revolution did not significantly affect the legal position of white women, but it did spark a debate over the role of women in the new republic. Women increasingly choose husbands regardless of family approval, family size decreased and some women began to advocate a new ideology called "republican motherhood." These changes laid the groundwork for the great struggle for female equality in the nineteenth century.

Learning Targets

Students will be able to describe key differences between political parties during the Federalist Era

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Jeffersonianism to Era of Good Feelings -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The dawn of the nineteenth century saw in the United States a nation still building its foundations. The understandable tendency of its citizens to concentrate on local affairs was somewhat offset by events of national and international significance. The shift from the Federalists to the Republicans had been less traumatic than many had expected. Doubling the country's size through the addition of Louisiana opened vast possibilities and led to unforeseen strains. Later, after the turmoil of the War of 1812, opportunities arose that encouraged the incipient nationalism of the American people and at the same time laid the foundations for sectional rivalry and potential disaster.

President Thomas Jefferson was both a republican and a Republican. For him and for James Madison, politics was a means of transforming philosophical ideals into realities. For Jefferson this meant curbing the power of government in defense of the principle of popular liberty. But Jefferson was not without his practical side. The Barbary War was undertaken because it was less expensive than paying tribute. The prospect of obtaining Louisiana from France, despite Jefferson's misgivings about the constitutionality of the purchase, was an opportunity not to be missed. Not only did it permit the growth of the nation and the removal of a potentially dangerous neighbor, but it also offered a means of extending republican liberty. Still being practical, Jefferson justified the Lewis and Clark expedition to Congress on the basis of its potential commercial value. (Always the scholar, however, his concern for the advancement of knowledge may have had personally a higher priority.)

The United States could not avoid being affected after 1805 by the renewal of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe. American efforts to remain neutral in the conflict were greeted with contempt by both the French and the British. The British expected the United States to accept a subordinate position and defer to the world's great powers. Instead, the United States took advantage of Britain's preoccupation with France to gain commercial advantage for itself. The British and French responses made virtually all American trade illegal in the eyes of the belligerents, but it was British naval power and British offenses against American national pride that hurt the most. Jefferson advocated an embargo of American ports to coerce Britain and France into respecting American neutrality. As it turned out, however, the embargo drastically suppressed American trade, led the British to find new markets in Latin America, had a depressing effect on American commerce and agriculture (though it encouraged American manufacture), and produced widespread distress in the nation.

President Madison's efforts after 1809 to solve the problem were no more successful. American honor was still being insulted, and the policies of the warring European powers, particularly those of Great Britain, were doing severe damage to the American economy, especially in the South and West. One response was the pugnacious nationalism of the "war hawks." Their activities and Madison's conviction that British trade policy was a permanent threat to the United States ultimately ended in war. The War of 1812 concluded when both sides saw no advantage in continuing the fighting. But the United States had demonstrated that it was capable of holding its own against one of the world's great powers. It had been able to maintain in extremely trying times the principles of republicanism on which the nation was founded.

After the war the country looked forward to new opportunities. The Federalists, having met at Hartford in ineffectual opposition to the war, were no longer a significant national party. The Republicans, despite factionalism and internal dissension, had no organized opposition. Economic measures that had once been unacceptable to the Republicans were now more attractive: internal improvements, tariff protection, and a new national bank. This "Era of Good Feelings" was a time of increased nationalism, soaring patriotism, and economic growth. The Supreme Court, still led by Federalist John Marshall, continued to hand down decisions like McCulloch v. Maryland that strengthened the Federal government. Under President James Monroe and Secretary of State John Quincy Adams, the national interests of the United States were advanced by boundary settlements with Great Britain and Spain and by the formulation of the Monroe Doctrine. When European nations appeared to be joining forces to suppress fledgling Latin American republics, Adams urged President Monroe to act unilaterally in announcing the principles of the Monroe Doctrine. Although the doctrine was unilateral, Monroe and Adams recognized that it was in Britain's interests to support the United States for the time being. It was certainly in the future interests of the United States not to be committed to a hands-off policy in Latin America.

The Era of Good Feelings, despite positive gains, concealed much potential for conflict. Sectional conflict based on economic and philosophical differences and on the slavery issue came to a head with the question of the admission of Missouri into the Union in 1819. The Missouri Compromise the following year put off the day of reckoning, but virtually every issue that was to wrack the Union during the next forty years was implicit in that controversy.

Learning Targets

Students will be able to discuss the shift from federalist national policies to Jeffersonian democratic philosophies on limited government and expanded republicanism

Topic Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit IV: The Age of Jackson and the Rise of Technologies -- 8 Day(s)

Description

By 1840 one-third of Americans lived between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. Most migrants to the West moved as families, stayed near sources of transportation, sought stability, and maintained relations with others like themselves. In assisting westward expansion, the federal government offered military-service bounties in land, and when Andrew Jackson became president, he instituted a more coercive Indian-removal policy. The Cherokees in Georgia sought to prevent enforcement of the Indian Removal Act of 1830, and the U.S. Supreme Court found that the Cherokees were entitled to federal protection, but Jackson refused to act. Between 1835 and 1838, the Cherokees left Georgia to cross the Mississippi. Thousands died on the "Trail of Tears."

The years between 1824 and 1840 saw the end of the Era of Good Feelings, the birth of the second American party system, and controversy over the tariff, the doctrine of nullification, and the nation's banking system. America's worst depression to that time occurred after 1837. These years also saw the Second Great Awakening, a religious movement characterized by popular participation, popular doctrine, and new religious viewpoints. This was a time of great emphasis on reform, of attacks on the evils of liquor and of slavery, of opposition to the mistreatment of society's unfortunates, and of increasing support for providing for the unschooled and for improving the status of women.

The several decades before the Civil War saw dramatic technological change in the United States, with profound effects on the quality of life, the character of leisure, and the nature of American painting and literature. This was the time of the American Renaissance, when artistic achievement, especially in letters, combined strong elements of romanticism and nationalism.

The list of technical innovations that transformed life in antebellum America includes the steam engine, the cotton gin, the mechanical reaper, the use of interchangeable parts in manufacture, the sewing machine, the telegraph, and the railroad. In agriculture improved use of fertilizers and farming techniques bettered crop production. Higher-quality machinery was more quickly built and more quickly repaired through the use of interchangeable parts, known as the American system of manufacturing. A railroad network made public travel relatively safe and easy. The role of the railroads in promoting development, particularly in the Midwest, encouraged the American sense of growth and strength. Technological advances improved consumers' lives by bringing down the price of many commodities.

The cultural and artistic growth of the period relied heavily on the new nationalism. Ever since the Revolution, Americans had been calling for cultural as well as political independence from Great Britain. In the 1820s and 1830s the transportation revolution created a national market for books. Moreover, Americans embraced the literary and philosophical movement known as romanticism. Romantics held that each nation had to discover its own unique literary genius. Emotion and character were important elements in artistic creation. The transcendentalists of the 1830s believed that learned people enjoy no special advantage in pursuit of truth, since knowledge comes from the heart. Such basic conceptions as those of God and freedom are inborn. The literary flowering of the age, the American Renaissance, produced notable Americans of letters. Others of less renown joined Cooper, Emerson, Thoreau, Whitman, Hawthorne, Melville, Poe, and Dickinson. Some of these writers carried their work to the public in the form of lyceum lectures also. Landscape painting, the Hudson River school, reflected Americans' delight in the country's fresh, almost pristine, landscape. Landscape architects like Frederick Law Olmsted sought to provide little enclaves of nature in the nation's cities.

Enduring Understandings

- Changes and revolutions in transportation, trade, and industry significantly changed both the lives and the landscape of the nation (ch.9)
- Anxieties wrought by rapid change drove the impulse to reform society (ch.10)
- In mid-19th century America, what it meant to be and American changed as urban growth in the north and west

challenged economic and social conventions (ch.11)

Materials and Resources
Boyer text
Assorted primary source materials

Vocabulary
Ch.9: Old Northwest, Old Southwest, Five Civilized Tribes, market economy, "outwork," Catherine Beecher and the doctrine of

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"Separate Spheres," Eli Whitney, horizontal versus vertical allegiances, voluntary associations, mulatto, subsistence agriculture, commercial agriculture, squatter, specie, antebellum, pauperism, transiency, Alexis de Tocqueville and Democracy in America, Indian Removal Act (1830), Cherokee Nation v. Georgia, Worchester v. Georgia, Trail of Tears, Panic of 1819, Robert Fulton, Gibbons v. Ogden, Samuel Slater, Waltham and Lowell Mills, Richard Allen and the African Methodist Episcopal Church, middling classes, individualism

Ch.10: Angelina and Sarah Grimke, Lucretia Mott, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Seneca Falls, Dorothy Dix, Utopian Communities, Horace Mann, William Lloyd Garrison, Andrew Jackson, political democratization, Henry Clay, Democratic Party, Spoils System, John C. Calhoun, Nullification Crisis, Whigs, Second Bank of the U.S., Panic of 1837, American Temperance Society, Second Party System, Second Great Awakening, Methodists, Charles Finney, evangelical Protestantism, Mormons

Ch.11: machine tools, American System of Manufacturing, McCormick Reaper, real income (real wages), tenements, poll tax, Samuel Morse, Catharine Beecher and A Treatise on Domestic Economy, newspapers, penny press, Minstrel Shows, New York Stock Exchange, Washington Irving, Edgar Allen Poe, Henry David Thoreau, Ralph Waldo Emerson, transcendentalism, American Renaissance, Margaret Fuller, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Walt Whitman, Herman Mehlville, Fredrick Law Olmsted, James Fenimore Cooper, Hudson River School

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

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Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: American Society Transforms -- 2 Day(s)

Description

By 1840 one-third of Americans lived between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. Most migrants to the West moved as families, stayed near sources of transportation, sought stability, and maintained relations with others like themselves. In assisting westward expansion, the federal government offered military-service bounties in land, and when Andrew Jackson became president, he instituted a more coercive Indian-removal policy. The Cherokees in Georgia sought to prevent enforcement of the Indian Removal Act of 1830, and the U.S. Supreme Court found that the Cherokees were entitled to federal protection, but Jackson refused to act. Between 1835 and 1838, the Cherokees left Georgia to cross the Mississippi. Thousands died on the "Trail of Tears."

After 1815, farmers increasingly produced for a market economy that linked distant regions. Federal land prices fell, and preemption rights of squatters were recognized. Speculation in public lands was constant, assisted by an increase in the amount of money in circulation. State banks were quite unrestrained in their credit policies. Farmers who came after the speculators were often forced to expand their cash crops for the market in the hope of paying off creditors. They were encouraged by an agricultural boomAn agricultural boom encouraged them after the War of 1812. In 1819 the bubble burst when competition with British textiles, high crop yields in Europe, and the tightening of credit by the Second Bank of the United States had their effect. State banks called in their loans. Land prices and commodity prices fell. Hard times stimulated demands for protection for domestic industries.

The river systems of North America helped bring goods to market, but the great rivers west of the Appalachians ran primarily from north to south. Flatboats could carry produce downriver, and keelboats could return, but only very slowly. The introduction of the steamboat on the Mississippi-Ohio river system solved the problem of upriver navigation and stimulated the construction of canals. The first major canal project was the Erie Canal, which linked New York City by inland waterway all the way to Ohio. The canal boom drastically reduced shipping costs, and many states built canals until the 1837 depression and the coming of the railroad. By 1840 the United States had some three thousand miles of track. Unlike canals, most railroads were constructed by private corporationsmost railroads were constructed by private corporations. The transportation revolution contributed to the rapid growth of towns and cities. Especially in the West, towns and cities grew with dramatic suddenness, generally serving as commercial hubs adjacent to rivers and canals.

Many factors also stimulated industrialization. The Embargo Act of 1807 diverted capital from trade to manufacture. The Era of Good Feelings saw general agreement on the need for protective tariffs. Improvements in transportation put distant markets within reach. Growing numbers of immigrants contributed to industrialization as laborers and consumers. New England was the first industrial region, as tensions in the rural economy pushed farm families toward increasingly sophisticated manufacturing. At mills in Lowell, 80 percent of the workers were unmarried women between the ages of fifteen and thirty who lived under strict supervision as in a family. Working conditions were difficult and impersonal, and several strikes occurred as early as the 1830s.

Industrialization involved new technologies and the division of the manufacturing process into a series of small steps so that each worker made only a part of the finished product. Workers gathered in factories for the specialized operations. Power-driven machinery replaced fabrication by hand. Because the growth of industrialization was gradual and uneven, it was not always clear at the time that the system of hand fabrication by skilled artisans was being destroyed. Such artisans began as early as the late 1820s to form trade unions and "workingmen's" political parties to defend their interests.

The gap between the rich and the poor widened during the first half of the nineteenth century, particularly in the cities. The wealthy lived in magnificent houses in their own neighborhoods, while the poor lived close to the margin of poverty, depending heavily on their children's labor. Conditions of hardship affected most people. Contemporaries usually classified the destitute either as the "deserving poor" or the "undeserving poor," loafers and drunkards. Most Americans convinced themselves that success was within the grasp of everyone and were inclined to blame the poor for their poverty. The "middling classes" were farmers and artisans, whose ideal was self-employment. These were the nation's sturdy producers, who often added

entrepreneurial or middleman activities to their primary economic role.

Social relationships underwent significant change as Americans questioned authority to an unprecedented degree. Individualism now meant self-reliance, and Americans subjected authority figures like lawyers, ministers, and physicians to mounting criticism. Even within the family, economic change created new opportunities, and young people, who no longer depended on their parents for land, questioned parental authority. More than ever before, marriage was approached by the two partners on the basis of romantic love and as a compact between equals. Traditionally women had been viewed as subordinate to men in all spheres of life. The concept of a separate female sphere within the family assumed growing importance. Supporters of the ideal of separate spheres did not advocate full legal equality for women, but the ideal did enhance their power. As hierarchical, or "vertical," allegiances were being challenged, horizontal allegiances multiplied. In the

mill the operatives discovered common interests. Wives increasingly associated with other married women. Large numbers of voluntary associations were formed in the 1820s and 1830s, organizations that allowed members to assert their influence at a time when the traditional forms of authority were weakening.

This was a period of significant change. While population expansion and the growth of the market economy and industry were modest in comparison with what came late in the nineteenth century, by 1840 the pace of change seemed breathtaking to contemporaries. These developments laid the foundation for America's emergence half a century later as a major industrial power.

Learning Targets

Students will know the extent to which technological changes were shaping the development and expansion of the U.S. and the impact that those changes had on various races and cultures

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Democratic Politics -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The years between 1824 and 1840 saw the end of the Era of Good Feelings, the birth of the second American party system, and controversy over the tariff, the doctrine of nullification, and the nation's banking system. America's worst depression to that time occurred after 1837. These years also saw the Second Great Awakening, a religious movement characterized by popular participation, popular doctrine, and new religious viewpoints. This was a time of great emphasis on reform, of attacks on the evils of liquor and of slavery, of opposition to the mistreatment of society's unfortunates, and of increasing support for providing for the unschooled and for improving the status of women.

The Era of Good Feelings ended in 1824. The party caucus failed to make a choice among five candidates for the presidency, and the general election gave no one a majority. The House of Representatives chose John Quincy Adams. President Adams could not see that the old appeal of the American System had diminished and that a realignment of political parties was taking place. His administration was without distinction.

After a vicious campaign in 1828, Andrew Jackson, war hero and man of action, assumed the presidency with strong backing from the South and the Southwest. Quickly he was confronted with the problem of the "Tariff of Abominations" of 1828. It saddled the South with higher rates on manufactured goods brought into the region. John C. Calhoun, Jackson's vice president, wrote an anonymous treatise called the South Carolina Exposition and Protest, declaring the 1828 tariff unconstitutional. In such circumstances, he argued, states possess the right to nullify an unconstitutional act within their borders. The collision between Jackson and Calhoun led ultimately to the failure of Calhoun's hopes to succeed Jackson in the presidency and to his resignation. In 1832 South Carolina nullified the tariff act of 1828 as well as the tariff of 1832, and it prohibited the collection of customs duties within the state. In 1833 Jackson acted with "olive branch and sword." He signed a lower, compromise tariff and also a Force Bill that authorized the president to resort to armed force to collect customs duties within South Carolina. The tariff dispute was over for the time being, but sectional controversy and issues of state and federal power were not resolved.

In 1816 the Second Bank of the United States had received its charter from Congress. It held a privileged position as repository of federal funds, and it could demand payment in specie for the state bank notes that it held. The bank sought recharter in 1832. President Jackson--who was distrustful of all banks, all paper money, and all exclusive monopolies--vetoed the recharter bill passed by Congress. In his second term, he removed federal deposits from the bank and placed them in state banks, the so-called pet banks, which used the deposits for an expansion of their bank-note issue. The bubble burst when Jackson's Specie Circular of 1836 required payment in specie at the sale of public lands. In that same year, Great Britain, in an effort to restrain the exodus of British investment, lessened the flow of specie to the United States. The ensuing depression was severe. The anti-Jacksonians, now calling themselves the Whig party, made significant inroads in the election of 1836, especially in the North. But his vice president, Martin Van Buren, who sought unsuccessfully to deal with the economic crisis with his Independent Treasury system, succeeded Jackson. In 1840 William Henry Harrison, a Whig, whose campaign stressed his humble origins, replaced Van Buren. Since the beginning of the century, property qualifications for voting had been diminishing and the courting of the common man by political office seekers had intensified. Public participation in the political process had increased as a result of both greater access and greater interest. By 1840 a second American party system of Democrats and Whigs was well established.

Americans sought democracy in their religious practices as well as their politics. They wanted doctrines that appealed to ordinary people, doctrines that made salvation a possibility for all. The harmony between democratic and religious impulses is a characteristic of the Second Great Awakening, a series of religious revivals that took place in many parts of the nation during this period. By 1844 the Methodists had become America's largest Protestant denomination, with special strength on the frontiers. In the East revivalists like Charles G. Finney taught that men and women could achieve perfection, could make of themselves what they chose. The excitement of the revivals and the appeal of the revivalists' message encouraged widespread participation and support.

Other religious groups went their own way. The Unitarians rejected the divinity of Jesus but shared with the revivalists the belief that human behavior could be changed for the better. In 1827 Joseph Smith revealed the Book of Mormon and founded the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. The Mormons attracted both converts and hostility with their claim of an additional revelation beyond the Bible and, later, their practice of polygyny. Driven out of the Midwest, they ultimately settled in the Great Salt Lake Valley. A group known as the Shakers also settled outside the boundaries of conventional religious practice by establishing religious communities in eight states. The Shaker doctrine of celibacy would have meant their demise but for the arrival of converts whom the revivals had loosed from their traditional religious moorings.

Religious revivalism contributed to the moralism of the age, a moralism that had as one of its manifestations an intense interest in reform. One such reform was temperance. The temperance societies began by advocating changes in individual behavior

and then turned to calls for government action by cities, towns, and even states to ban all traffic in liquor. Advocacy of temperance quickly became advocacy of prohibition. Advocacy of individual reform became advocacy of political action.

One concern of temperance reformers was to encourage orderliness and thrift among the common people. This was also a concern of school reformers eager not only to combat ignorance but to spread uniform cultural values among all children. The school reformers brushed off the concerns of urban Catholics who feared the Protestant cast of the schools; the reformers also ignored the farmers and working poor who feared the loss of their children's labor. They allied with workingmen's parties that saw the benefits of free public education and with manufacturers who saw the benefits of a disciplined labor force, especially in a time of growing immigration.

Another of the reform movements was abolitionism. During the 1820s the main source of radical opposition to slavery came from blacks themselves, and whites also entered the struggle to eradicate the evil of slavery. Their focus was on slavery and often on civil rather than social equality. Racial prejudice toward blacks was not absent among white abolitionists, although it was mild in comparison with that of most whites. Struggles within the movement took place over the appropriateness of using political action to achieve the movement's aims, and the American Anti-Slavery Society split over the issue.

A second issue among the abolitionists was the role of women. Women's participation in the reform movements had steadily grown more vocal. Many women increasingly chafed at the restrictions imposed on them by law and custom. In 1848 a women's rights convention at Seneca Falls, New York, proclaimed a Declaration of Sentiments modeled after the Declaration of Independence. It called, among other things, for woman suffrage.

Orderliness, discipline, and appropriate treatment were frequent themes in the reformers' attacks on poverty, crime, and inhuman treatment of the insane. The unyielding regimen of the penitentiary would encourage appropriate moral qualities among the prisoners. Such discipline would also serve almshouses and workhouses. And asylums for the insane would replace makeshift and inappropriate arrangements.

The search for perfection that characterized religious revivals and humanitarian reforms was at its most extreme in utopian communities established in New Harmony, Indiana; Brook Farm, Massachusetts; and elsewhere. A common purpose and the goal of perfection were intended to make these communities viable, but tensions within and contacts with the larger world outside weakened the bonds that held the communities together. Generally speaking, religious communities like the Shakers and the Mormons were more durable than the utopian communities, a notable exception being the Oneida community.

Politics, religion, and reform did not occupy completely separate spheres. Religion and reform as vehicles for change affected and were affected by politics at many points.

Learning Targets

Students will be able to trace the development of reform movements in America and describe the events leading to increased sectionalism

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Technology, Culture, and Everyday Life -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The several decades before the Civil War saw dramatic technological change in the United States, with profound effects on the quality of life, the character of leisure, and the nature of American painting and literature. This was the time of the American Renaissance, when artistic achievement, especially in letters, combined strong elements of romanticism and nationalism.

The list of technical innovations that transformed life in antebellum America includes the steam engine, the cotton gin, the mechanical reaper, the use of interchangeable parts in manufacture, the sewing machine, the telegraph, and the railroad. In agriculture improved use of fertilizers and farming techniques bettered crop production. Higher-quality machinery was more quickly built and more quickly repaired through the use of interchangeable parts, known as the American system of manufacturing. A railroad network made public travel relatively safe and easy. The role of the railroads in promoting development, particularly in the Midwest, encouraged the American sense of growth and strength. Technological advances improved consumers' lives by bringing down the price of many commodities.

Life remained difficult, however, for most families. Income and expenditures remained in balance for many only when more than one family member brought home wages. And regular earnings might be cut off at any time by illness, injury, seasonal layoff, or business failure. In the cities row houses replaced unattached frame structures. These were uniform dwellings that were functional but somewhat uninteresting in appearance. The well-to-do furnished their homes in the elaborate and ornate style of French antique or rococo. The less well-off made do with simpler and more practical furniture. Increasingly, more efficient cast-iron coal-burning stoves replaced open hearths for both heating and cooking. Food for the stoves came from improved urban markets supplied more expeditiously as a result of the transportation revolution. Diet, nevertheless, was still subject to seasonal fluctuations. Household water generally came from a well. Several cities established public water systems that brought water from rivers and reservoirs by means of pipes and aqueducts. By 1860 there were sixty-eight public water systems in the country, but they went only so far as street hydrants and that only in certain parts of the cities.

As a rule, cities were not very clean. Municipal sanitation usually was a matter of permitting hogs to serve as scavengers. Leakage from outdoor privies threatened well water. One consequence was the more than occasional outbreak of epidemic diseases such as cholera and yellow fever. By midcentury municipal health boards had been created in a number of cities, but their ignorance of the causes of disease and lack of authority impeded their efforts. The public in general depended on a number of faddish health movements. Hydropathy, or water cure, was widely popular. The teachings of Sylvester Graham regarding proper diet weighed heavily, especially among the reform-minded. Although not a cure, phrenology, which had close ties to the popular health movement, was also enormously popular. One could not only ascertain a person's character by the shape of the skull; one could improve character by proper exercise of the appropriate organ.

The public hungered for novelty, for excitement, for understanding, and for artistic satisfaction. One of the profound changes of the era was development of the penny press. Paper was more readily available, printing presses were speedier, and the new concept of journalism appealed to the public. Newspapers were no longer the handmaidens of political parties but were hawked on the street to a growing number of eager readers.

Public theater was exceedingly well attended. In addition to melodramas, theater owners presented edited Shakespeare and minstrel shows, the latter forging an enduring stereotype that buttressed the white American sense of superiority by diminishing black people.

The cultural and artistic growth of the period relied heavily on the new nationalism. Ever since the Revolution, Americans had been calling for cultural as well as political independence from Great Britain. In the 1820s and 1830s the transportation revolution created a national market for books. Moreover, Americans embraced the literary and philosophical movement known as romanticism. Romantics held that each nation had to discover its own unique literary genius. Emotion and character were important elements in artistic creation. The transcendentalists of the 1830s believed that learned people enjoy no special advantage in pursuit of truth, since knowledge comes from the heart. Such basic conceptions as those of God and freedom are

inborn. The literary flowering of the age, the American Renaissance, produced notable Americans of letters. Others of less renown joined Cooper, Emerson, Thoreau, Whitman, Hawthorne, Melville, Poe, and Dickinson. Some of these writers carried their work to the public in the form of lyceum lectures also. Landscape painting, the Hudson River school, reflected Americans' delight in the country's fresh, almost pristine, landscape. Landscape architects like Frederick Law Olmsted sought to provide little enclaves of nature in the nation's cities.

Learning Targets

Students will be able to trace the "shaping of the American mind" in artistic, literary, and technological terms

Topic Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit V: Sectional Conflict to Civil War -- 12 Day(s)

Description

With the growth of the British textile industry and the development of the cotton gin in the late eighteenth century, the crowning of King Cotton became possible. The Lower South was ideally suited for its cultivation, and cotton and slavery grew together. By 1830 cotton employed three-fourths of all southern slaves. Although the Upper South depended less on major cash crops like sugar and cotton, the ties between the two southern regions remained strong. The value of slaves grew everywhere, and the profitable sale of slaves from the Upper South to the expanding areas of the Lower South united all.

Both North and South were ill prepared for war in 1861. Initially dependent on volunteers, the Confederacy established a draft in 1862, and the Union did so the following year. At first the South relied on imported arms and munitions but soon was able to produce its own. It had more trouble with clothing and food throughout the duration of the war. Financing the war was also a problem. Americans had been unaccustomed to paying taxes to the national government, but both sides had to end the tradition of hard money and minimal government by raising taxes, issuing war bonds, and printing paper money. Inflation was serious in the North and devastating in the South by 1865.

Problems of leadership plagued both sides. The Confederacy was unified behind the goal of winning independence, but its apparent unity concealed divergence between extreme states' righters and advocates of stronger central authority. On the Union side, the two-party system provided traditional channels for airing differences of opinion.

The Civil War has been called the first modern war. It depended on railroads, mass-produced weapons, joint army-navy tactics, iron-plated warships, rifled guns and artillery, and trench warfare. The Confederacy had just 9 million people as compared with 22 million in the Union in 1861, and although the Confederacy had only a fraction of the industrial capacity of its opponent, the South was fighting in defense of its own homeland. The North had longer supply lines and the problem of occupying captured areas. It had to commit a greater proportion of its men away from the front than did the South, which could count on its slaves for labor.

Most of the soldiers who did fight were volunteers from farms and small towns. Southern volunteers wrote of their desire to fight to preserve slavery. Initially Few Union soldiers voiced antislavery sentiments, but as the war progressed, northern soldiers accepted the need to free slaves, sometimes for humanitarian reasons, sometimes to achieve military goals. Most of those who fought shared a vision of military life as a transformative masculine experience. Yet expectations of military glory faded in the face of food shortages, poor sanitation, disease and crowding.

The war was fought to save the Union. The military value of emancipation became clear even to those northerners who had no moral qualms about slavery. Emancipation of all slaves under rebel control was proclaimed after the Union's success at Antietam, to take effect on January 1, 1863. The immediate practical impact was negligible, but it was a brilliant political stroke that transformed the war. It increased the slaves' incentive to escape as northern troops approached, and soon the large numbers of freed refugees became a problem. Some joined the service, and by the end of the war, 186,000 blacks had served in the Union army, 10 percent of all Union soldiers. On the Confederate side, slaves increasingly shirked their duties or ran away as the Confederacy continued to depend heavily on slave labor. In the Sea Islands, black refugees took advantage of temporary reallocation of former plantation lands to form their own communities.

In 1863 the Confederate thrust north to Gettysburg failed. The Union thrust south to Vicksburg succeeded. In 1864 Union forces devastated Georgia and South Carolina. The fall of Atlanta secured the election for President Lincoln. Union troops renewed their assault on Confederate positions in Virginia, and on April 3, 1865, they entered Richmond. On April 9 General Lee bowed to the inevitable. On April 14 President Lincoln was shot. He died the following day.

The decade of the 1850s was one of intense political turmoil in the United States. Efforts to compromise the differences between North and South were at first successful, but sectional antagonisms at last split the nation apart.

With the acquisition of the Mexican cession, faced the United States facedwith the immediate problem of dealing with the extension of slavery in the territories. All the possibilities--free soil, extending the Missouri Compromise line, and popular sovereignty--were unpopular with at least some important sectors of public opinion. The antagonisms were exacerbated by northern hostility to slavery in the District of Columbia and southern anger over northern assistance to fugitive slaves. Henry Clay's successful advocacy of the Compromise of 1850 helped paper over the difficulties, at least for the moment.

The compromise did not bridge the underlying differences between North and South. Enforcement of the fugitive-slave law was a constant irritant in the North. Several states enacted "personal-liberty laws" that threw up obstructions to enforcement. The astonishing success of Uncle Tom's Cabin reminded southerners of the hostility to their "peculiar institution."

The election of 1852 was the last presidential election to take place under the second party system--Whigs against Democrats. During the presidency of Franklin Pierce, the Whig party disintegrated in the uproar created by the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854. It was the aim of Senator Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois to organize Nebraska as a territory, to run a railroad from the Midwest to the Pacific, and to open boundless opportunities for growth. Southern support for the idea could be had only by abandoning the Missouri Compromise line. An enormous controversy was unleashed. Free-soilers believed that extension of slavery would impede the progress of whites. They agreed that so long as Congress refused to prohibit slavery in the territories, the institution could gain a foothold. Free-soilers saw the pattern of events--the Fugitive Slave Act, the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the division of Kansas and Nebraska into two territories, and the Ostend Manifesto--as a vast conspiracy by the Slave Power.

The party system foundered on the sectional divisions sharpened by the Kansas-Nebraska Act. For a brief time, the Know-Nothings emerged as an alternative party and in 1854 made a very strong showing, especially in New England. Hostility to immigrants and Catholics lay at the core of Know-Nothingism. But a new party was being formed, made up of former northern Whigs, former northern Democrats, and in time, former Know-Nothings. The Republican party in its early years sought to avoid giving offense to any possible supporters and remained ambiguous on issues of nativism. Its focus was on free soil, and events in Kansas served to strengthen the party.

By 1855 proslavery "border ruffians" from Missouri crossed into Kansas to vote illegally for the legislature that met at Lecompton. Free-staters organized a rival government. Armed clashes included one in which John Brown figured prominently. Popular sovereignty had failed in Kansas. President Pierce's recognition of the Lecompton government was denounced in the Senate by Charles Sumner of Massachusetts. The honor of the South was avenged when his ad hominem attacks were answered two days later. Representative Preston Brooks of South Carolina beat Sumner senseless as he sat at his Senate desk.

The election of 1856 sent to the White House Democrat James Buchanan, a moderate who believed that he could do nothing to restrict or end slavery. Buchanan was faced with a series of crises. In 1857 the Supreme Court handed down its decision in Dred Scott v. Sandford. Chief Justice Taney's opinion for the Court held that no black, whether slave or free, could be a citizen of the United States, and he declared the Missouri Compromise itself unconstitutional. Northerners were appalled at yet another example of the strength of the Slave Power. If Chief Justice Taney's opinions were more than obiter dicta, no solution to slavery extension seemed possible. In 1858 the issue was heightened when Abraham Lincoln, a rising figure among the Republicans, campaigned against Stephen A. Douglas, the Senate's leading Democrat, for the Illinois senatorial seat. Lincoln challenged Douglas to reconcile his advocacy of popular sovereignty with the Dred Scott decision. Douglas replied that the voters of a territory could effectively exclude slavery simply by refusing to enact laws to protect slave property. That position cost him what remained of his support in the South. He won the Senate seat, but Republican Lincoln made a strong showing.

John Brown's 1859 raid on Harpers Ferry, Virginia, was fanatical, ill planned, and doomed to failure. It convinced many in the South that compromise was no longer possible. Fear of slave uprisings grew. Many southerners made no distinction between Republicans and abolitionists. When Abraham Lincoln captured the presidency in 1860 in a four-way race, a South Carolina convention voted unanimously for secession and was followed shortly thereafter by six more states. But the Upper South was hesitant. It depended much more on economic ties to the North, and the commitment of nonslaveholders to secession was uncertain. Senator John J. Crittenden of Kentucky proposed the restoration of the Missouri Compromise line, but Lincoln stood firm against any abandonment of free soil. By the time that the new president took office in March 1861, the conditions for conflict were all present save for an igniting spark. That came on April 12, when South Carolina fired on federal Fort Sumter as Lincoln was preparing to provision the fort.

The success of cotton discouraged industrialization in the South at a time when the North was changing rapidly. Although there were factories in the South, they were small and produced mainly for nearby markets. It wasn't that slavery was incompatible with

factory labor but rather that the South's capital was tied up in the slave. There was no incentive to change so long as an economy founded on cash crops appeared profitable. With little incentive to change, the South appeared in northern eyes as a place of backwardness. Northern educational reforms did not penetrate to the South.

The impact of slavery on the slave depended to a large extent on the type of agriculture in which they engaged and whether they resided in rural or urban areas. There were significant differences between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. By the mid-nineteenth century, most slaves were owned by farmers or planters with large-scale operationsfarmers or planters with large-scale operations owned most slaves. Work in the fields was rigorous in the extreme for both males and females, and there were plenty of tasks to occupy those slaves with craft skills. Degradation and uncertainty characterized the life of a slave. Families were broken up by sale, and women were subjected to sexual exploitation about which neither they nor their men could do anything.

Nevertheless, the slave community developed strong kinship ties, patterns with roots in West African cultures.

The decade of the 1840s saw the United States grow by several million immigrants. It also expanded geographically into Texas, New Mexico, California, and Oregon. Although European immigrants during these years included some who came for political or religious reasons, the great majority came to improve their economic conditions. Ireland and the Germanies supplied the largest numbers of these new Americans. Germans tended to settle in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys, many in the cities springing up in those regions. Irish immigrants, numerous by the 1830s, increased dramatically after the great potato famine of 1845. They concentrated mostly in the urban areas of the East, where they provided a source of labor for building the canals and railroads that were connecting the nation's cities. With the rise in immigration, nativism became a significant issue. Anti-Catholicism grew because native-born Protestant Americans feared cheap competition from desperately poor Irish workers. The Irish, in turn, fearing competition from free black labor, were hostile toward blacks and abolitionists.

Both the Irish and the Germans overwhelmingly identified with the Democratic party. It introduced them to national issues, and it made a vigorous effort to convince the immigrants that national expansion was in their interest. Indeed, links with the Far West had to be maintained despite the barrier of the Great Plains and the Rockies. Trading outposts on the California coast were supplied around the Horn and welcomed by Mexican authorities. Similarly trading links were established through the Santa Fe trail and with fur traders in the mountains. Although in the early years of Mexico's independence from Spain, it welcomed contacts with the United States, the tenuousness of its control over far-flung regions like Texas and California carried the seeds of later conflict.

Many northerners believed that the issue of slavery could not be resolved merely by extending the 36 30 line of the Missouri Compromise to the Pacific. Some opposed slavery on moral grounds. Others feared that an extension of slavery into California and New Mexico would deter settlement by free labor. In 1846 David Wilmot (Democrat, Pennsylvania) sponsored the Wilmot Proviso in Congress prohibiting slavery in any territory to be acquired from Mexico. Constitutional issues were at stake. Slaveholders argued that slaves as property could be carried into whatever territories their owners wished. (Thus, according to Calhoun, the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional.) On the other hand, northerners pointed out, the Constitution gives Congress the power to make regulations for the territories. The election of 1848 pitted Mexican War hero Zachary Taylor against Lewis Cass of Michigan, an advocate of popular sovereignty. The gold strike in California and the rush of people to the new territory put the question of slavery in the Mexican cession at the top of President Taylor's agenda.

Enduring Understandings

- In the land where cotton became king, racial slavery affected not only economics, but values, customs, laws, class structure, and the regions relationship to the nation as well (ch.12)
- Northern and Southern perceptions of each other as well as the issues of slavery and territorial expansion provided the necessary elements to produce sectional polarization, disunion, and ultimately war (ch.13 & ch.14)
- The Civil War forced upon a nation a social and political revolution regarding race and changed the north and south signfiicantly in the process (ch.15)

Materials and Resources

Boyer Text
Assorted Primary Source Documents

Vocabulary

Ch.12: yeoman, Upper South, Lower South, Middle South, Deep South, "Cotton Kingdom," internal slave trade, Tredegar Iron Works, plantation agriculture, pine barrens people, southern code of honor, task system, gang labor, social structure, planters, evangelical, pidgin, Nat Turner Rebellion, debate in the Virginia legislature over slavery (1831-32), 3/5 clause, J.D.B.DeBow, Whig Party, Democratic Party, Hinton Helper and The Impending Crisis, proslavery argument, George Fitzhugh, Gabriel Prosser, Denmark Vesey, Fredrick Douglas, Harriet Tubman, Josiah Henson, Underground Railroad

Ch.13: German and Irish Immigrants, Commonwealth v. Hunt, Oregon Country, Santa Fe Trail, annexation of Texas, the telegraph,

California Gold Rush, nativism, dark horse, Know-Nothing or American Party, Stephen F. Austin and American empresarios in Texas, Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, the Alamo, Sam Houston, Overland Trail and the Donner Party, John Tyler, John C, Calhoun, Henry Clay, James K. Polk, Manifest Destiny, Zachary Taylor, Winfield Scott, John C. Freemont and the Bear Flag Republic, Treaty of Guadelupe Hildalgo, Wilmot Proviso, popular sovereignty, Martin Van Buren and the Free-Soil Party

Ch.14: John Brown, H. Seward, Daniel Webster, Henry Clay and the Compromise of 1850, Millard Fillmore, Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, Anthony Burns, personal liberty laws, Franklin Pierce, Slave Power, Know Nothings, Harriet Beecher Stowe and Uncle Tom's Cabin, Stephen A. Douglas and the Kansas-Nebraska Act, free soil and free labor, Gadsden Purchase, filibustering, Ostend Manifesto, "Bleeding Kansas", LeCompton, Charles Sumner, John C, Freemont, James Buchanan, Roger B. Taney and Dred Scott

v. Sandford, Licoln-Douglas debates, Douglas Freeport Doctrine, Panic of 1857, Jefferson Davis and the Confederate States of America, Crittenden compromise, Fort Sumter

Ch.15: writ of habeas corpus, 20-Negro Law and Impressment Act, Greenbacks, National Bank Act of 1863, Radical Republicans, Ex Parte Merryman (1861), Ex Parte Milligan (1866), Winfield Scott and Anaconda, First and Second Battles of Bull Run, George B. McClellan, Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson, Robert E. Lee, Battle of Antietam, Ulysses S. Grant, William T. Sherman, Merrimac and Monitor, Trent affair, cotton diplomacy, First and Second Confiscation Acts, Emancipation Proclamation, Freedmen's Bureau, Gettysburg, Vicksburg, Homestead Act (1862), Morrill Land Act (1862), Copperheads, New York City Draft riot, National Union Party and Andrew Johnson, Appomattox Courthouse

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The South -- 2 Day(s)

Description

With the growth of the British textile industry and the development of the cotton gin in the late eighteenth century, the crowning of King Cotton became possible. The Lower South was ideally suited for its cultivation, and cotton and slavery grew together. By 1830 cotton employed three-fourths of all southern slaves. Although the Upper South depended less on major cash crops like sugar and cotton, the ties between the two southern regions remained strong. The value of slaves grew everywhere, and the profitable sale of slaves from the Upper South to the expanding areas of the Lower South united all.

The success of cotton discouraged industrialization in the South at a time when the North was changing rapidly. Although there were factories in the South, they were small and produced mainly for nearby markets. It wasn't that slavery was incompatible with factory labor but rather that the South's capital was tied up in the slave. There was no incentive to change so long as an economy founded on cash crops appeared profitable. With little incentive to change, the South appeared in northern eyes as a place of backwardness. Northern educational reforms did not penetrate to the South.

Four groups can be described as comprising the antebellum white southern social structure. In the low country and delta regions of the South, the planters dominated. These were owners of twenty or more slaves, 12 percent of the white families in 1860. Only 1 percent owned a hundred or more. Although a few planters lived grandly, most worked hard to make their crops pay. Rural isolation, frequent moves, and the uncertainties of the market made life difficult. Many chose to live in the cities and leave their plantations to the management of overseers. Others lived and worked on their own holdings. Plantation life was made more attractive by lavish hospitality, generally organized and supervised by the plantation mistress, whose responsibilities frequently included the supervision of the house, outbuildings, and gardens, and the keeping of accounts.

The remaining slaveholders, 88 percent in 1860, owned fewer than twenty slaves. A third group, the yeomen, was the largest single class of southern whites, most of whom were small landowners. As a group they attached considerable value to personal and economic self-sufficiency.

About 10 percent of southern whites were neither slaveholders nor landowners nor even primarily farmers. These were the people of the pine barrens who lived by clearing a few acres of land and grazing hogs and cattle in the woods. It was these people to whom northerners pointed when speaking of southern backwardness.

Although the planters were represented in legislatures far out of proportion to their numbers, they owed their election to the popular vote and were subject to significant pressure. No one social group gained exclusive control over politics. Not every southerner was an advocate of slavery, but the consensus in favor of it was strong. By 1860 only 25 percent of the white population were in the slaveholding class, but racist assumptions and fears that emancipation would produce a race war firmly established the institution. Indeed, far from merely providing excuses for slavery, between 1830 and 1860 southern intellectuals argued that slavery was a positive good, an institution that had created great societies in the past, one that found all people together in a community of interests.

One of the striking characteristics of southern society noted by northerners was its violence, a violence that took the form of ferocious brawling among the lower classes and dueling among the upper. Where northerners stressed constancy and character, southerners stressed honor and its defense with a dueling code of elaborate ritual. The concept of honor was rarely challenged, even by southern evangelical religious denominations, which stressed humility and self-restraint.

The impact of slavery on the slave depended to a large extent on the type of agriculture in which they engaged and whether they resided in rural or urban areas. There were significant differences between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. By the mid-nineteenth century, most slaves were owned by farmers or planters with large-scale operationsfarmers or planters with large-scale operations owned most slaves. Work in the fields was rigorous in the extreme for both males and females, and there were plenty of tasks to occupy those slaves with craft skills. Degradation and uncertainty characterized the life of a slave. Families were broken up by sale, and women were subjected to sexual exploitation about which neither they nor their men

could do anything. Nevertheless, the slave community developed strong kinship ties, patterns with roots in West African cultures.

In 1860 the South had slightly more than a quarter of a million free black people. Most lived in rural areas, although many lived in cities, where they had opportunities to become craftsmen and even small traders. All were subject to legal restrictions. Most southern states made it a felony to teach blacks to read, and all forbade free blacks to enter the state. The fear of slave violence encouraged by free blacks was exacerbated by the Nat Turner rebellion of 1831, but slaves more frequently turned to techniques other than uprising that could not succeed. They resisted by damaging their tools. They stole from their masters. They absented themselves from the farm without permission. They feigned illness. Masters often feared arson and poison.

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

In the eighteenth century, Africans needed to develop an English pidgin to provide a basis of communication. This common language marked the first step in the forging of an African-American culture. No less important was the slaves' religion. Christianity had certain resemblances to African religions, but during most of the eighteenth century, masters feared that a Christianized slave would be a rebellious slave. The argument was turned around when it was seen that an emphasis on obedience could be used to support slavery. In their own interpretation of Christianity, however, slaves focused on the themes of the Chosen People and the Promised Land as a means of dealing with the burdens of slavery. And they found sustenance and mutual support in their work songs, religious songs, and dances, whose origins lay in the African past. An African-American culture was being built.

Learning Targets

Students will trace the development of institutionalized slavery with regards to its political, cultural, social, and economic influence over the South

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Expansion and Conflict -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The decade of the 1840s saw the United States grow by several million immigrants. It also expanded geographically into Texas, New Mexico, California, and Oregon. Although European immigrants during these years included some who came for political or religious reasons, the great majority came to improve their economic conditions. Ireland and the Germanies supplied the largest numbers of these new Americans. Germans tended to settle in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys, many in the cities springing up in those regions. Irish immigrants, numerous by the 1830s, increased dramatically after the great potato famine of 1845. They concentrated mostly in the urban areas of the East, where they provided a source of labor for building the canals and railroads that were connecting the nation's cities. With the rise in immigration, nativism became a significant issue. Anti-Catholicism grew because native-born Protestant Americans feared cheap competition from desperately poor Irish workers. The Irish, in turn, fearing competition from free black labor, were hostile toward blacks and abolitionists.

Both the Irish and the Germans overwhelmingly identified with the Democratic party. It introduced them to national issues, and it made a vigorous effort to convince the immigrants that national expansion was in their interest. Indeed, links with the Far West had to be maintained despite the barrier of the Great Plains and the Rockies. Trading outposts on the California coast were supplied around the Horn and welcomed by Mexican authorities. Similarly trading links were established through the Santa Fe trail and with fur traders in the mountains. Although in the early years of Mexico's independence from Spain, it welcomed contacts with the United States, the tenuousness of its control over far-flung regions like Texas and California carried the seeds of later conflict.

The Mexican government at first encouraged American colonization in Texas. Early indications of trouble caused Mexico to ban further immigration into Texas in 1830 and to forbid the introduction of more slaves from the United States. The effort was unsuccessful. In 1834 President Santa Anna, attempting to establish greater federal control over the Mexican states, was met by revolution and a Texas declaration of independence. Although he won a victory at the Alamo, Santa Anna was later forced to sign a treaty (never ratified) granting independence to Texas.

Attracted by the reputed richness of California and Oregon, settlers went west in great numbers by wagon train to the Promised Land. The Great Plains and the mountains were still perceived as inhospitable, and settlers hastened through them as quickly as possible.

Should the United States annex the independent Lone Star Republic? Settled by slaveholders, Texas would certainly become a slave state. Efforts to deal with the question were inconclusive until James K. Polk, a southern Democrat, announced boldly for "re-annexation" in 1844. By the mid-1840s Manifest Destiny had taken hold in the popular mind. Democrats came to see the acquisition of new territory as a logical complement to the party's policies of low tariffs and opposition to central banking, policies that fostered the factory system. Democrats preferred to provide farmers with land and access to foreign markets. President Polk successfully finessed the British into accepting a compromise in Oregon at the forty-ninth parallel. From Mexico he wanted more. The Slidell mission to negotiate for Texas, New Mexico, and California proved a failure, but Mexico supplied a needed excuse for war by firing on American troops in the disputed land between the Nueces River and the Rio Grande. The Mexican army was far from being a pushover, but American superiority in artillery and leadership gave victory and half of Mexico to the United States.

Many northerners believed that the issue of slavery could not be resolved merely by extending the 36 30 line of the Missouri Compromise to the Pacific. Some opposed slavery on moral grounds. Others feared that an extension of slavery into California and New Mexico would deter settlement by free labor. In 1846 David Wilmot (Democrat, Pennsylvania) sponsored the Wilmot Proviso in Congress prohibiting slavery in any territory to be acquired from Mexico. Constitutional issues were at stake. Slaveholders argued that slaves as property could be carried into whatever territories their owners wished. (Thus, according to Calhoun, the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional.) On the other hand, northerners pointed out, the Constitution gives Congress the power to make regulations for the territories. The election of 1848 pitted Mexican War hero Zachary Taylor against Lewis Cass of Michigan, an advocate of popular sovereignty. The gold strike in California and the rush of people to the

new territory put the question of slavery in the Mexican cession at the top of President Taylor's agenda.

Learning Targets

Students will analyze the impact of the Mexican American War and the growing sectional crisis

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Compromise to Secession -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The decade of the 1850s was one of intense political turmoil in the United States. Efforts to compromise the differences between North and South were at first successful, but sectional antagonisms at last split the nation apart.

With the acquisition of the Mexican cession, faced the United States facedwith the immediate problem of dealing with the extension of slavery in the territories. All the possibilities--free soil, extending the Missouri Compromise line, and popular sovereignty--were unpopular with at least some important sectors of public opinion. The antagonisms were exacerbated by northern hostility to slavery in the District of Columbia and southern anger over northern assistance to fugitive slaves. Henry Clay's successful advocacy of the Compromise of 1850 helped paper over the difficulties, at least for the moment.

The compromise did not bridge the underlying differences between North and South. Enforcement of the fugitive-slave law was a constant irritant in the North. Several states enacted "personal-liberty laws" that threw up obstructions to enforcement. The astonishing success of Uncle Tom's Cabin reminded southerners of the hostility to their "peculiar institution."

The election of 1852 was the last presidential election to take place under the second party system--Whigs against Democrats. During the presidency of Franklin Pierce, the Whig party disintegrated in the uproar created by the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854. It was the aim of Senator Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois to organize Nebraska as a territory, to run a railroad from the Midwest to the Pacific, and to open boundless opportunities for growth. Southern support for the idea could be had only by abandoning the Missouri Compromise line. An enormous controversy was unleashed. Free-soilers believed that extension of slavery would impede the progress of whites. They agreed that so long as Congress refused to prohibit slavery in the territories, the institution could gain a foothold. Free-soilers saw the pattern of events--the Fugitive Slave Act, the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the division of Kansas and Nebraska into two territories, and the Ostend Manifesto--as a vast conspiracy by the Slave Power.

The party system foundered on the sectional divisions sharpened by the Kansas-Nebraska Act. For a brief time, the Know-Nothings emerged as an alternative party and in 1854 made a very strong showing, especially in New England. Hostility to immigrants and Catholics lay at the core of Know-Nothingism. But a new party was being formed, made up of former northern Whigs, former northern Democrats, and in time, former Know-Nothings. The Republican party in its early years sought to avoid giving offense to any possible supporters and remained ambiguous on issues of nativism. Its focus was on free soil, and events in Kansas served to strengthen the party.

By 1855 proslavery "border ruffians" from Missouri crossed into Kansas to vote illegally for the legislature that met at Lecompton. Free-staters organized a rival government. Armed clashes included one in which John Brown figured prominently. Popular sovereignty had failed in Kansas. President Pierce's recognition of the Lecompton government was denounced in the Senate by Charles Sumner of Massachusetts. The honor of the South was avenged when his ad hominem attacks were answered two days later. Representative Preston Brooks of South Carolina beat Sumner senseless as he sat at his Senate desk.

The election of 1856 sent to the White House Democrat James Buchanan, a moderate who believed that he could do nothing to restrict or end slavery. Buchanan was faced with a series of crises. In 1857 the Supreme Court handed down its decision in Dred Scott v. Sandford. Chief Justice Taney's opinion for the Court held that no black, whether slave or free, could be a citizen of the United States, and he declared the Missouri Compromise itself unconstitutional. Northerners were appalled at yet another example of the strength of the Slave Power. If Chief Justice Taney's opinions were more than obiter dicta, no solution to slavery extension seemed possible. In 1858 the issue was heightened when Abraham Lincoln, a rising figure among the Republicans, campaigned against Stephen A. Douglas, the Senate's leading Democrat, for the Illinois senatorial seat. Lincoln challenged Douglas to reconcile his advocacy of popular sovereignty with the Dred Scott decision. Douglas replied that the voters of a territory could effectively exclude slavery simply by refusing to enact laws to protect slave property. That position cost him what remained of his support in the South. He won the Senate seat, but Republican Lincoln made a strong showing.

John Brown's 1859 raid on Harpers Ferry, Virginia, was fanatical, ill planned, and doomed to failure. It convinced many in the South that compromise was no longer possible. Fear of slave uprisings grew. Many southerners made no distinction between Republicans and abolitionists. When Abraham Lincoln captured the presidency in 1860 in a four-way race, a South Carolina convention voted unanimously for secession and was followed shortly thereafter by six more states. But the Upper South was hesitant. It depended much more on economic ties to the North, and the commitment of nonslaveholders to secession was uncertain. Senator John J. Crittenden of Kentucky proposed the restoration of the Missouri Compromise line, but Lincoln stood firm against any abandonment of free soil. By the time that the new president took office in March 1861, the conditions for conflict were all present save for an igniting spark. That came on April 12, when South Carolina fired on federal Fort Sumter as Lincoln was preparing to provision the fort.

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Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Learning Targets

Students will know that the Compromise of 1850 failed to heal the growing rift between the North and the South

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Civil War -- 2 Day(s)

Description

Both North and South were ill prepared for war in 1861. Initially dependent on volunteers, the Confederacy established a draft in 1862, and the Union did so the following year. At first the South relied on imported arms and munitions but soon was able to produce its own. It had more trouble with clothing and food throughout the duration of the war. Financing the war was also a problem. Americans had been unaccustomed to paying taxes to the national government, but both sides had to end the tradition of hard money and minimal government by raising taxes, issuing war bonds, and printing paper money. Inflation was serious in the North and devastating in the South by 1865.

Problems of leadership plagued both sides. The Confederacy was unified behind the goal of winning independence, but its apparent unity concealed divergence between extreme states' righters and advocates of stronger central authority. On the Union side, the two-party system provided traditional channels for airing differences of opinion.

As the war began, President Lincoln took steps to make Washington secure. Federal troops were sent into Maryland, pro-secession Marylanders were arrested, and the writ of habeas corpus was suspended. Three other border states, despite a wish on the part of many to maintain solidarity with the slaveholding regions, stayed within the Union.

The Civil War has been called the first modern war. It depended on railroads, mass-produced weapons, joint army-navy tactics, iron-plated warships, rifled guns and artillery, and trench warfare. The Confederacy had just 9 million people as compared with 22 million in the Union in 1861, and although the Confederacy had only a fraction of the industrial capacity of its opponent, the South was fighting in defense of its own homeland. The North had longer supply lines and the problem of occupying captured areas. It had to commit a greater proportion of its men away from the front than did the South, which could count on its slaves for labor.

Most of the soldiers who did fight were volunteers from farms and small towns. Southern volunteers wrote of their desire to fight to preserve slavery. Initially Few Union soldiers voiced antislavery sentiments, but as the war progressed, northern soldiers accepted the need to free slaves, sometimes for humanitarian reasons, sometimes to achieve military goals. Most of those who fought shared a vision of military life as a transformative masculine experience. Yet expectations of military glory faded in the face of food shortages, poor sanitation, disease and crowding.

Northern strategy in 1861 was to blockade the southern coast, to gain control of the Mississippi, and to take Richmond. Early setbacks for Union forces in Virginia led to a stalemate there. In the West the Union gained control over most of the Mississippi River by mid-1862. Along the coasts the superiority of the Union navy reduced almost by half the number of successful Confederate blockade runners by the war's end.

The Confederacy hoped to gain recognition as an independent nation from France and Great Britain. But "cotton diplomacy" failed when substantial British stocks of cotton were supplemented by new supplies from Egypt and India. Moreover, traditional British reliance on naval blockades made the British reluctant to interfere with the Union's blockade. And British public opinion was antislavery.

The war was fought to save the Union. The military value of emancipation became clear even to those northerners who had no moral qualms about slavery. Emancipation of all slaves under rebel control was proclaimed after the Union's success at Antietam, to take effect on January 1, 1863. The immediate practical impact was negligible, but it was a brilliant political stroke that transformed the war. It increased the slaves' incentive to escape as northern troops approached, and soon the large numbers of freed refugees became a problem. Some joined the service, and by the end of the war, 186,000 blacks had served in the Union army, 10 percent of all Union soldiers. On the Confederate side, slaves increasingly shirked their duties or ran away as the Confederacy continued to depend heavily on slave labor. In the Sea Islands, black refugees took advantage of temporary reallocation of former plantation lands to form their own communities.

By 1863 both sides were experiencing labor shortages, inflation, and dissension. With its superior resources, the Union met the challenge more effectively. Although the cotton-textile industry in the North was hurt, industries directly related to the war effort--arms manufacture, ready-made clothing, and railroads--flourished. The Republicans in Congress were able to act on their idea of "free soil, free labor, free men" and passed the Homestead Act and the Morrill Land Grant Act. Nevertheless, workers suffered during the war as wages lagged 20 percent or more behind price increases. The Southern economy was totally shattered by the war, as railroads were torn up, food-growing regions were occupied by Union troops, and planters continued to try to raise cotton crops. Southern women were forced to revive home production of goods in short supply, but even that was hard to do as Union invasions turned women and children into refugees.

As the war went on, dissent became a problem on both sides. In the North "Peace" Democrats, known as Copperheads,

contributed to the volatile brew of political, ethnic, racial, and class antagonism that erupted into antidraft protests in several cities. Nevertheless, freedom of press, speech, and assembly was preserved for the most part and in 1864 the Union became the first warring nation in history to hold a contested national election. Although rising sentiment for the abolition of slavery encouraged feminists, and although women made substantial contributions to the war effort through their labor and through service as nurses, their efforts to secure the vote were not successful.

In 1863 the Confederate thrust north to Gettysburg failed. The Union thrust south to Vicksburg succeeded. In 1864 Union forces devastated Georgia and South Carolina. The fall of Atlanta secured the election for President Lincoln. Union troops renewed their assault on Confederate positions in Virginia, and on April 3, 1865, they entered Richmond. On April 9 General Lee bowed to the inevitable. On April 14 President Lincoln was shot. He died the following day.

Learning Targets

Students will be able to identify major Civil War battles, their outcomes, and the Lincoln's plan for a reunified nation

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit VI: Reconstruction -- 4 Day(s)

Description

After Civil War the nation faced the task of restoration. In 1865 President Johnson announced his relatively conciliatory plan for restoring the South. The Radical Republicans in Congress had envisioned a much slower process and a stronger federal military presence. Under presidential Reconstruction former Confederates assumed positions of responsibility, and the southern states took steps to ensure a landless, dependent black labor force through the enactment of "black codes." These codes varied from state to state but everywhere restricted rights and encouraged black dependency.

Moderate Republicans in Congress developed legislation to invalidate the black codes. Johnson defended both the codes and his restoration program. In 1866 Congress passed the Civil Rights Act and the Freedmen's Bureau Act over presidential vetoes. Johnson had effectively alienated the Congress, which then went further and created the Fourteenth Amendment, the first national effort to limit state control of civil and political rights.

The Republicans swept the elections in 1866, and the new Congress had a mandate to enact its own Reconstruction program. Moderate Republicans were ready to accept parts of the Radical program, and four Reconstruction Acts were passed over presidential vetoes. They established five temporary military districts and called for state conventions that would write new state constitutions. Blacks were enfranchised, and ex-Confederate leaders were disfranchised. But Confederate leaders would not be prosecuted for treason, nor was there to be any confiscation of property. Once Congress approved the new constitutions and the state legislatures ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, the states would be readmitted.

President Johnson, the commander in chief of the army, used his power to impede congressional Reconstruction. Congress responded with efforts to limit executive power. It was Johnson's alleged violation of the Tenure of Office Act that laid the basis for this impeachment. He was not convicted, and a precedent was established against future impeachments on political grounds.

Republicans in Congress now sought to guarantee black suffrage, needed for continuance of Republican control and for protection of black rights. Congress passed the Fifteenth Amendment and in so doing split the woman-suffrage movement between those who saw it as a step toward the vote for women and those who argued that women's disabilities would merely increase.

In the South black voters were in the majority in five states and formed, along with "carpet-baggers" and "scalawags," the support for Republican state governments. They began ambitious programs of public works, expanded state bureaucracies, and created public-school systems where there had been none. But no state instituted land reform. State debts and taxes rose sharply and fed complaints of wastefulness and corruption.

Ex-Confederates chafed at black enfranchisement. When the southern states were readmitted to the Union, Democrats became politically active and were assisted by the Ku Klux Klan and other vigilantes. Only a large military presence in the South could have protected black rights and preserved the black electorate. It was not provided.

For former slaves mobility was often the first fruit of liberty. Many went to towns or cities or sought out spouses and family members separated by sale. The freedmen established churches and made vigorous efforts to provide for education, but schools were underfunded, segregated, and sometimes the target of vigilante attacks. The freedmen lacked the capital to buy land or the equipment to work it, and white southerners on the whole opposed selling land to blacks. White landowners needed the labor of the blacks, and a number of labor arrangements developed, the most widespread being sharecropping. By 1880 in the cotton

South, 80 percent of the land had been subdivided into tenancies, most of it farmed by sharecroppers, white and black. A companion to sharecropping was often the crop-lien system, an arrangement that encouraged agricultural backwardness, soil depletion, and land erosion as well as a biracial system of debt peonage.

Ulysses S. Grant came into office as a war hero and presided over an administration notable for its corruption. The first Grant administration was also a time of rapid economic expansion, accelerated industrialization, and frantic speculation. The bubble burst in 1873 and plunged the nation into depression. An increasing emphasis on commercial and industrial interests, the depression, a waning of idealism, and continuing racism encouraged the North to turn away from the issues of the South. The Supreme Court undercut the effectiveness of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments in a series of decisions. By 1875 the Radical Republicans so prominent in the 1860s had vanished from the political scene, and "waving the bloody shirt" seemed counterproductive. The Republicans did not reject Reconstruction suddenly but rather disengaged from it gradually. In the South the possibility of rule by Democrats encouraged scalawag defections from the Republican party, and the "redeemers" took power. All states cut back expenses, wiped out social programs, lowered taxes, and revised their tax systems to give relief to landowners. They used the legal structure to ensure a stable black labor force by restoring vagrancy laws and revising crop-lien statutes and criminal laws.

By the time of the disputed election of 1876, the force of Reconstruction was spent. The election was settled by striking a deal. President Hayes sent federal troops back to their barracks, but he failed to follow through on his promises to ensure freedmen's rights.

Enduring Understandings

- Little was done to open the doors of economic opportunity to black southerners, and the cause of the African Americans as a central aim of Reconstruction fell almost as fast as it rose, leaving enduring legacies the nation has struggled with ever since (ch.16)

Materials and Resources

Boyer Text
Assorted Primary Source Documents

Vocabulary

suffrage, enfranchisement, amnesty, referendum, confiscate, vigilantes, electorate, coalition, mobilization, writ of habeas corpus, segregation, filibuster, Radical Republicans, Freedmen's Bureau, Reconstruction Act of 1867, carpetbaggers, scalawags, KKK, Civil Rights Act of 1875, Liberal Republicans and Horace Greeley, greenbacks and Greenback party, Mississippi Plan and redemption

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Reconstruction -- 4 Day(s)

Description

After Civil War the nation faced the task of restoration. In 1865 President Johnson announced his relatively conciliatory plan for restoring the South. The Radical Republicans in Congress had envisioned a much slower process and a stronger federal military presence. Under presidential Reconstruction former Confederates assumed positions of responsibility, and the southern states took steps to ensure a landless, dependent black labor force through the enactment of "black codes." These codes varied from state to state but everywhere restricted rights and encouraged black dependency.

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Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit VII: Tranformation of the East and West and the Guilded Age -- 8 Day(s)

Description

There was considerable diversity among Great Plains Indians. Some nomadic tribes relied on the buffalo, others led a semisedentary life based on small scale agriculture. All shared a culture based on extended family and tribal cooperation. With the coming of the white man, life changed for the Plains Indians. New diseases ravaged the population. The buffalo, once the basis of economic life, were systematically decimated. Not only did white hunters wipe out most of the game on the Great Plains, but they encroached on Indian lands as well. The pattern was one of displacement by whites, war, and concentration of the Indians on reservations until their way of life was destroyed.

The frontier of legend tied "free land" to the ideals of freedom, opportunity, and individual self-determination. Optimism and eagerness survived natural and manmade difficulties. This vision of the frontier West can be seen in the dime novels of the era, in the writings of Theodore Roosevelt and others, and in the Turner thesis. Actually, western economic development rested squarely on government land subsidies, military intervention, eastern bank investments, and access to international markets. The very real beauty, however, of the frontier of legend stimulated the beginnings of a movement for the conservation of natural resources late in the century.

Many aspects of large-scale corporate enterprise were first developed by railroads in the late nineteenth century. They include separation of ownership from management, diversification of production facilities, creation of national marketing systems, and formation of new organizational structures. In their efforts to expand and consolidate, railroads fought each other recklessly for traffic. Contemporary accounts often pictured railroad presidents as "robber barons." Farmers and small business owners, hurt by the practices of the railroads, turned to the government for help. Congress responded by creating a weak Interstate Commerce Commission. Competition became so ferocious that railroads tried to end it by establishing pools. The depression of 1893 forced reorganization of railroad administrations and led to intersystem alliances.

Defenders of the status quo like Andrew Carnegie compared society with nature and argued that the law of competition, like the laws of nature, provided for survival of the fittest. Social Darwinism justified those who had succeeded. Its critics pointed out that the analogy with nature also made logically possible expert intervention to prevent waste of resources. Still other critics saw the very overthrow of capitalism as the path to a more harmonious society. Most Americans, however, welcomed the new productivity that made the country the world's leading industrial nation, even as they worried over explosive labor violence and conspicuous poverty.

During the last third of the nineteenth century, the nation's cities experienced spectacular and explosive growth. They were fed both by migration from the countryside and by increasing numbers of foreign immigrants who often lived in enclaves, forging new ethnic identities. In the first quarter of the century, rich and poor lived in close proximity in most cities. Beginning in the 1830s, improved transportation permitted the wealthy to move to the city's edge. As the cities grew, their centers, the hub of the streetcar lines, thrived.

Accelerating urban growth placed urgent demands on public utilities, rapid-transit systems, and fire and police departments. It forced cities to raise taxes, issue bonds, and create new municipal departments. There was money to be made, and a new kind of professional politician, the "boss," appeared. The boss and his machine gave tax breaks to favored contractors and extracted graft

from the municipal bureaucracies. At the same time, the boss provided assistance for the needy and those in trouble, creating an ad hoc welfare system. Where middle-class reformers were often hostile to immigrant and working-class values in the city's poorer districts, the political bosses were responsive to their constituents' concerns. But the reformers sought to develop independent organizations that could help the poor systematically. Such organizations as the New York Children's Aid Society, the Young Men's Christian Association, the American Home Missionary Society, the Salvation Army, and the Charity Organization Society served as useful coordinators for poor relief. They were, however, as much interested in controlling the poor in the name of moral high-mindedness as in alleviating their suffering.

The late nineteenth century saw economic conflict between the laboring masses and those who controlled society's economic

engines. The conflict had its counterpart in culture as well. The rambunctious and sometimes disorderly culture of the city's streets found itself in conflict with the genteel traditions of Victorian culture, the strident elitism of which produced criticism even within its own ranks. From within, the challenge to the genteel tradition took the form of realism and naturalism in literature, the modernism of Frank Lloyd Wright in architecture, and advocacy of a "widened sphere" for women in social relations.

Enduring Understandings

- The expansion westward in the late nineteenth century closed the physical frontier that had been part of American society since its beginnings (ch.17)
- The "second" industrial revolution brought together people, the environment, and technology in a mix that gave rise to both constructive and destructive forces (ch.18)
- New industrialization and technological innovations of the nineteenth century fueled widespread economic and geographical expansion that funneled millions of people into cities (ch.19)
- The ways people built cities and adjusted to the urban environment shaped American society (ch.19)

Materials and Resources

Various Primary Resources
Boyer Textbook

Vocabulary

Vocab list for Ch. 17:
in perpetuity, severalty, polygamy, bonanza, ethnocentric, John M. Chivington and the Sand Creek Massacre, Geronimo, George Armstrong Custer, Chief Joseph, Chief Dull Knife, Wounded Knee, Pacific Railroad Act (1862), Oklahoma land rush and the "sooners", William F. "Buffalo Bill" Cody

Vocab list for Ch. 18:
capitalist, rebate, pool, vertical integration, horizontal integration, oligopoly, "bread and butter" unionism, yellow-dog contract, anarchist, injunction, laissez-faire, Thomas Edison, William H. Sylvis and the National Labor Union, Terence V. Powderly and the Knights of Labor, Mother Jones, Chinese Exclusion Act (1882), Samuel Gompers and the American Federation of Labor, railroad strikes of 1877, Homestead Strike (1892), Eugene Debs, Henry George and Progress and Poverty, Marxist socialists

Vocab list for Ch. 19:
compatriots, protocol, ghetto, prototype, ethos, caustic, platitudes, mores, congenial, lobbyist, Scott Joplin and Ragtime, "push" and "pull factors for immigration, Castle Garden, Ellis Island, Angel Island, cult of domesticity and "women's sphere", Rowland Macy and Marshall Field, Tammany Hall, William Marcy Tweed, Thomas Nast, John L. Sullivan, new women, Mark Twain, Stephen Crane and Maggie: A Girl of the Streets, Thorstein Veblen and The Theory of the Leisure Class, William Torrey Harris

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Transformation of the Trans-Mississippi West -- 3 Day(s)

Description

There was considerable diversity among Great Plains Indians. Some nomadic tribes relied on the buffalo, others led a semisedentary life based on small scale agriculture. All shared a culture based on extended family and tribal cooperation. With the coming of the white man, life changed for the Plains Indians. New diseases ravaged the population. The buffalo, once the basis of economic life, were systematically decimated. Not only did white hunters wipe out most of the game on the Great Plains, but they encroached on Indian lands as well. The pattern was one of displacement by whites, war, and concentration of the Indians on reservations until their way of life was destroyed. Some Native Americans were able to accept the changes peacefully, but the history is often one of resistance on the part of the Indians and of broken treaties and failed obligations on the part of the United States. The policy was to suppress Native American cultures by making the Indians Christians and teaching them to farm. After a series of Indian wars, Congress passed the Dawes Severalty Act in 1887, calling for the breakup of the reservations. To develop private farms, Indian heads of household would receive land grants and equipment for farming. Some Indians benefited under the new landholding arrangements, but the greatest beneficiaries were land speculators. Acreage under Indian control declined drastically.

By 1870 the expansion of the railroads had accelerated migration into the vast interior of the nation, and over the next three decades, American agriculture production doubled. The Homestead Act of 1862 attracted both settlers and large numbers of land speculators. The 160-acre grant under the Homestead Act was insufficient in the more arid areas, and a series of laws in the 1870s increased the size of the grants available. Here, too, speculators exploited their opportunities. But federal legislation did keep alive the dream of a new beginning in the West.

The railroads more than any other agencies stimulated the settlement of the Great Plains. Since before the Civil War, federal and state governments had encouraged private railroad development by giving enormous land subsidies to those companies willing to expand westward. The railroads used a variety of tactics to attract settlers. They advertised, provided free transportation, and gave long-term loans for land at low prices. Although opportunity was thus opened, farmers often became dependent on income from a single cash crop in their effort to repay the money owed to the railroads.

Life was difficult enough for pioneers working in isolation, breaking the ground, often living in sod houses. Despite a high transiency rate on the frontier, those families that "stuck it out" for a decade or so had established communities with churches, libraries, and social clubs. As the territories became states, the new state governments were generally conservative, their one area of innovation being support for woman suffrage.

More effective mechanization of farm work, better grains, and the introduction of barbed wire permitted great expansion in production to supply the growing urban population of the East. However, high crop yields in Europe, unusually dry weather, and the depression after 1873 made the plight of some farmers desperate. Farming depended on large capital investment, new machinery, national transportation systems, and international markets. Nevertheless, most farmers making a start on the Plains held on to the dream of individual advancement and economic self-sufficiency.

In the Southwest settlement was minimally affected by commitments made in the 1848 treaty with Mexico. Despite treaty pledges that the United States would protect the liberty and property of those Mexicans who remained in the United States, aggressive American ranchers and settlers took over territorial governments and forced the Spanish-speaking population off much of the land. By the 1880s and 1890s, considerable friction, along with outbreaks of violence, marked the relations between Anglos and the Spanish-speaking population. A pattern of racial discrimination developed that affected Mexicans, Native Americans, and, in California, Chinese.

Beginning with the California gold rush in 1849, a series of mining booms in the next three decades swept from the Southwest north into Canada. Most of the wealth extracted in the West passed into the hands of investment bankers and corporations. As new mineral deposits were discovered, there grew up near mining claims boom towns, where morality was easy and prices high. If the myth of the frontier exaggerated the opportunities of the mining West, it nevertheless contained a good measure of

reality.

The 1860s and 1870s also saw the transformation of the cattle industry. Cattle drives north from Texas to the railhead in Abilene turned into a bonanza for herd owners. There were enormous profits to be made, but high interest rates, an unstable market, and the Panic of 1873 drove many into bankruptcy. Little of the money made by large-scale ranchers went to the cowboys themselves, whose work was dull and difficult. They were rarely romantic figures except in the enormously popular dime novels. The cattle bonanza peaked during the years 1880 to 1885, when severe winter weather and summer drought ended the boom.

The frontier of legend tied "free land" to the ideals of freedom, opportunity, and individual self-determination. Optimism and

eagerness survived natural and manmade difficulties. This vision of the frontier West can be seen in the dime novels of the era, in the writings of Theodore Roosevelt and others, and in the Turner thesis. Actually, western economic development rested squarely on government land subsidies, military intervention, eastern bank investments, and access to international markets. The very real beauty, however, of the frontier of legend stimulated the beginnings of a movement for the conservation of natural resources late in the century.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Rise of Industrial America -- 2 Day(s)

Description

Many aspects of large-scale corporate enterprise were first developed by railroads in the late nineteenth century. They include separation of ownership from management, diversification of production facilities, creation of national marketing systems, and formation of new organizational structures. In their efforts to expand and consolidate, railroads fought each other recklessly for traffic. Contemporary accounts often pictured railroad presidents as "robber barons." Farmers and small business owners, hurt by the practices of the railroads, turned to the government for help. Congress responded by creating a weak Interstate Commerce Commission. Competition became so ferocious that railroads tried to end it by establishing pools. The depression of 1893 forced reorganization of railroad administrations and led to intersystem alliances.

Other companies applied the lessons that they learned from the railroads. In steel Andrew Carnegie combined new technology with a cost-analysis approach and the development of vertical integration. John D. Rockefeller dominated the oil industry, emphasizing efficiency and using deception and aggressiveness when necessary. The Standard Oil Trust utilized the board of trustees as a legal device to centralize industry-wide control.

Other industries also established trusts, but their rapacious practices aroused so much public reaction that in 1890 Congress passed the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Few prosecutions were undertaken, however. When the Supreme Court found, in the E. C. Knight case, that control of manufacturing did not constitute restraint of trade, the rate of corporate consolidations increased.

Cost cutting and consolidation were one aspect of growth. New mass-production technologies that benefited from economies of scale were another. The sewing machine, the telephone, the electric light bulb, and many other innovations reshaped American life.

Aggressive marketing was another device for increasing consumer demand. Businesses created extensive advertising campaigns and sophisticated sales forces. They promoted brand-name loyalty and developed national marketing systems. By 1900 the economy was dominated by a small number of very large firms, although small scale manufacturing continued to flourish. Men, women and children often worked in small crowded shops making items such as clothing, cigars, and candy.

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Industrial power was concentrated in the North. The South remained in a distinctly subordinate economic position. After the Civil War, growth there had been retarded by physical devastation, lack of capital, illiteracy, and northern control of finance. Efforts were made to break out of this cycle. To attract capital from the North, southern states offered tax exemptions, gave land grants to railroads, and sold forest and mineral rights. Production of minerals soared, and the southern iron and steel industry expanded. Nevertheless, the South remained subordinate, subject to control by northern industries and financial syndicates. The major exception to this pattern was the growth of the southern cotton-mill economy, largely in the piedmont.

By 1900 the number of industrial workers, North and South, reached 3.2 million. The transition to factory work required the restructuring of work habits and ultimately destroyed the role of the skilled artisan. Factory efficiency meant factory discipline. Employers turned not only to native-born workers but also to immigrant labor and increasingly to young women. Despite their low wages, women sought independence, especially as office workers.

Although probably 95 percent of industrial leaders came from middle- and upper-class backgrounds, the rags-to-riches myth persisted. Some upward mobility was possible. Average real wages rose substantially between the Civil War and 1900, but they were often offset by slack times, injuries, and slumps in the economy. Some workers turned to labor unions, but the working classes were divided between the skilled and the unskilled, and still further by nationality, religion, and politics. By the mid-1870s the principal union was the Knights of Labor, but its growth ended in 1886 with the withdrawal of craft unions to form the American Federation of Labor and with the Haymarket riot of that year. The AFL, led by Samuel Gompers, emphasized "bread-and-butter" tactics in place of the Knights' broad vision of a cooperative commonwealth.

The depression of 1873 closed businesses and brought about wage cuts and layoffs for workers. Violence became common in labor disputes, and middle-class Americans feared mob action as much as corporate abuse of power. In the Pullman strike of 1894, management obtained an injunction against the American Railway Union. It had found a new technique for restraining labor organization.

Defenders of the status quo like Andrew Carnegie compared society with nature and argued that the law of competition, like the laws of nature, provided for survival of the fittest. Social Darwinism justified those who had succeeded. Its critics pointed out that the analogy with nature also made logically possible expert intervention to prevent waste of resources. Still other critics saw the very overthrow of capitalism as the path to a more harmonious society. Most Americans, however, welcomed the new

productivity that made the country the world's leading industrial nation, even as they worried over explosive labor violence and conspicuous poverty.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Immigration, Urbanization, and Everyday Life -- 2 Day(s)

Description

During the last third of the nineteenth century, the nation's cities experienced spectacular and explosive growth. They were fed both by migration from the countryside and by increasing numbers of foreign immigrants who often lived in enclaves, forging new ethnic identities. In the first quarter of the century, rich and poor lived in close proximity in most cities. Beginning in the 1830s, improved transportation permitted the wealthy to move to the city's edge. As the cities grew, their centers, the hub of the streetcar lines, thrived.

The middle and upper classes justified their relative prosperity in the midst of widespread destitution by an appeal to Victorian morality. Their success, they said, came from their superior talent, intelligence, morality, and self-control. Man engaged in the world's work, and woman was supposed to provide the elevating influence that flowed from her gentle nature and appreciation of culture. The home was believed to be "woman's sphere," a haven from the workaday world, a haven increasingly under assault by the pressure for consumerism exerted by the blandishments of the new and opulent downtown department stores. Appealing to the status consciousness of their middle- and upper-class customers, department stores implicitly promised them higher social standing and psychological well-being.

Although by 1900 only 4 percent of the nation's youth were enrolled in institutions of higher learning, the number had been rising. The elite status of such institutions emphasized their place as a training ground for future business and professional leaders. The institutions themselves were undergoing significant change. The research university became an important part of the collegiate landscape. Medical education was improved. And college sports, notably football, grew in importance.

Accelerating urban growth placed urgent demands on public utilities, rapid-transit systems, and fire and police departments. It forced cities to raise taxes, issue bonds, and create new municipal departments. There was money to be made, and a new kind of professional politician, the "boss," appeared. The boss and his machine gave tax breaks to favored contractors and extracted graft from the municipal bureaucracies. At the same time, the boss provided assistance for the needy and those in trouble, creating an ad hoc welfare system. Where middle-class reformers were often hostile to immigrant and working-class values in the city's poorer districts, the political bosses were responsive to their constituents' concerns. But the reformers sought to develop independent organizations that could help the poor systematically. Such organizations as the New York Children's Aid Society, the Young Men's Christian Association, the American Home Missionary Society, the Salvation Army, and the Charity Organization Society served as useful coordinators for poor relief. They were, however, as much interested in controlling the poor in the name of moral high-mindedness as in alleviating their suffering.

Some reformers refused to place the blame entirely on the victims of poverty. A handful of Protestant ministers in the 1870s and 1880s, whose efforts came to be known as the Social Gospel movement, committed themselves to fight social injustice wherever it existed. Their appeal for Christian unity had a secular counterpart in the settlement-house movement. Nevertheless, settlement-house advisers, limited by their own dedication to social order and class harmony, tended to overlook immigrant organizations and their leaders and impose their own middle-class standards.

While middle-class moralists concerned themselves with "wholesale" recreation, the working classes, after spending long hours in the factories and mills, thronged the streets, patronized saloons and dance halls, went on Sunday excursions, cheered at boxing matches and baseball games, and organized boisterous group picnics and holiday celebrations. They flocked to amusement parks, vaudeville theaters, sporting clubs, and race tracks. Mass entertainment became a big business. Professional teams were formed. Newspapers thrived on reporting baseball and other sports. In music the middle classes preferred hymns or songs that taught a lesson or conveyed a moral. Among the lower classes, ragtime, which originated in the 1880s and 1890s with black musicians in the saloons and brothels of the South and Midwest, was played strictly for entertainment. And ragtime became the new popular music of the day.

The late nineteenth century saw economic conflict between the laboring masses and those who controlled society's economic engines. The conflict had its counterpart in culture as well. The rambunctious and sometimes disorderly culture of the city's

streets found itself in conflict with the genteel traditions of Victorian culture, the strident elitism of which produced criticism even within its own ranks. From within, the challenge to the genteel tradition took the form of realism and naturalism in literature, the modernism of Frank Lloyd Wright in architecture, and advocacy of a "widened sphere" for women in social relations. As indicators of women's changing relationship to men, there were increased enrollment in colleges and increased participation in athletics such as bicycling. The divorce rate rose dramatically between 1880 and 1900. And in women's literature and popular magazines, there was a new commitment to independence and self-sufficiency, as middle-class women built new careers for themselves, often by extending notions of women's nurturing abilities into various reform movements.

Viewing the public schools as an instrument for indoctrinating and controlling the lower ranks of society, middle-class educators and civic leaders from the 1870s on campaigned to expand public schooling and bring it under centralized control. This effort

was opposed by critics of excessive regimentation as well as by working-class families who depended on their children's wages, Catholics who rejected the Protestant cast of the public schools, and the wealthy who sent their children to private institutions. Charity workers preached middle-class virtues in the slums, and antivice societies battled against "indecent" books, magazines, stage shows, gambling, prizefighting, and Sunday baseball. And above all, the saloon. Ultimately it was the vigorous and vibrant working-class culture, not the genteel culture of the middle class, that survived to establish the foundation for twentieth-century American mass culture.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit VIII: Industrial Expansion, the Progressives, and WWI -- 6 Day(s)

Description

Electoral campaigns of the late nineteenth century centered on tariff rates, veterans' pensions, railroad development, and monetary policy. Southern office seekers made crude racist appeals to white voters, while Republican candidates in the North "waved the bloody shirt." National-party candidates of the 1870s and 1880s rarely confronted the most glaring problem, the social consequences of industrialization. Most Americans in these years accepted the doctrine of laissez-faire. They did not expect the federal government to intervene in economic or social affairs.

For years reformers had campaigned for a professional civil service based on merit rather than political loyalty. A law was finally enacted after a disappointed office seeker assassinated President James A. Garfield. In 1885 a Democrat became president for the first time since the Civil War. Grover Cleveland challenged powerful interests by calling for cuts in the tariff, and he offended Civil War veterans by disallowing fraudulent veterans' pension claims. He was replaced in 1889 by Republican Benjamin Harrison, in whose administration a still higher tariff and a new and generous pension bill were passed.

In rural America farmers confronted a demoralizing cycle of falling prices, scarce money, and mounting debt. From these trying circumstances emerged first the Grange, and then the Aalliance movement. The Southern Alliance and the Northwestern Alliance called for tariff reduction, a graduated income tax, public ownership of the railroads, the secret ballot, and "the free and unlimited coinage of silver"--a goal that soon overshadowed all others. Unable to get satisfaction from the Democrats, national alliance leaders in 1892 organized the Populist party.
The drive for American territorial expansion faded somewhat after the Civil War but revived strongly in the 1880s. European nations set the example, and it was argued that continued prosperity demanded overseas markets. In Hawaii, American planters deposed the queen, proclaimed independence, and sought annexation by the United States. Closer to home, Cuba's revolution against Spain aroused American sympathies, and the sinking of the battleship Maine in Havana harbor sparked U.S. desire for war. Military success came quickly for the Americans, and they occupied Cuba until 1902. When they withdrew, the Platt Amendment, which remained in force until 1934, reserved to the United States the right to intervene in Cuba when it saw fit and to maintain a naval base there. During this period American commercial activity in Cuba flourished, and the United States reoccupied Cuba twice. In the Philippine Islands, also taken from Spain in 1898, Filipino resistance to the Americans brought a guerrilla war that lasted until 1902. Although imperialism and an accompanying militaristic fever swept the nation, not all Americans agreed. Anti-imperialists believed it a terrible mistake for the United States to violate the basic principles of human equality and the right of self-government.

In China, American policy makers sought not territorial expansion but protection of U.S. commercial interests. Secretary of State John Hay in 1899 announced the principle of the "Open Door" to American business. Instead of actually acquiring overseas colonies, Washington aided economic expansion by supporting private enterprise.

Urban growth and corporate consolidation marked the early years of this century, and immigration soared. Most of the immigrants were from southern and eastern Europe, and they added to the numbers of people in the nation's cities. By 1920 more than half

the total population lived in cities. The immigrant districts were often crowded and unhealthful, and in many cities municipal corruption made harsh conditions worse. The predominantly native-born middle class also grew significantly during these years.

Progressivism was perhaps best exemplified by Theodore Roosevelt, who acted to expand presidential powers. He forced a settlement of the coal strike of 1902. He gave high priority to breaking up business monopolies and brought successful legal action against the giant Northern Securities Company. Roosevelt did not want to destroy America's big corporations, but he believed that corporate behavior must be regulated. He called for a "square deal" for all Americans, denounced special treatment for capitalists, and filed suit against forty-four companies for violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Railroads were regulated, as well as food and drugs. The president encouraged conservation of the environment, aiding water and forest management and focusing national attention on America's resources.

TR's successor in 1908, William Howard Taft, continued the "trustbusting" theme, but during his administration the Republican party's most conservative elements gained party control. In 1912 Taft was opposed by Theodore Roosevelt's new Progressive, or "Bull Moose," party and by the Socialists, as well as by the successful Democrats, now also strongly influenced by the progressive reform spirit. Woodrow Wilson's administration saw tariff reform and the creation of the Federal Reserve System. Even the Supreme Court was touched by the finger of progressive reform, holding that at least some worker-protection laws did not violate employers' rights.

The volatile social brew of reform energy called the progressive movement had taken a new tack in American affairs. Earlier reformers had viewed government as irrelevant or even hostile to their purposes. The progressives, by contrast, viewed government as a major ally in the reform cause. Twenty years later the New Deal drew on this precedent.

As the twentieth century opened, the United States was determined to establish its presence on the world scene. In Spanish America efforts by the United States to acquire a canal route between the oceans seemed stalled when the Colombian Senate rejected a proposed treaty for passage through the Colombian province of Panama. With an American warship offshore, Panama proclaimed its independence, and within a short time, the new nation of Panama made a treaty with the United States allowing the Panama Canal to be built. Theodore Roosevelt justified his domination of the Dominican Republic by asserting the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine. To further American economic interests, William Howard Taft occupied Nicaragua and Woodrow Wilson sent the marines into Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Wilson also sent troops to Vera Cruz in Mexico and mounted a punitive expedition against Pancho Villa in northern Mexico.

World War I was a turning point for the United States. Millions of men were drafted and exposed to their first experiences away from home. About 2 million American soldiers went to France, and many had taken an active part in the war by late spring of 1918. Women also served in the armed forces, and many on the home front moved into jobs formerly held by men, jobs that they had to give up at the war's end. Government became involved to an unprecedented degree in civilian life through the War Industries Board and other newly created boards and agencies. Industrial cooperation was encouraged, a trend that outlasted the war years.

Despite the millions of personnel in the armed services, the civilian work force grew. Wages rose, and union membership increased. Women had opportunities for better jobs, and black Americans migrated north in unprecedented numbers in response to economic opportunity. Although the war had stifled the reform energies of the Progressive period, some reform efforts such as women's suffrage and improvement of industrial labor conditions saw real gains. But with industrial growth and change often came disruption, strains on housing and municipal services in industrial centers, and racial friction that led to major riots in East St. Louis and later Chicago.

In 1918 President Wilson summed up the war aims of the United States in his Fourteen Points. The Allies accepted them as a basis for negotiations at the Versailles peace conference. Despite that acceptance, the Allies effectively ignored Wilson's vision of a liberal peace and imposed a harshly punitive treaty on Germany. Wilson was dismayed. He concentrated his energies on his one great achievement in the proposed treaty, the covenant of the League of Nations. He was not, however, successful in convincing the Republican Senate to accept the League or the treaty. Wilson handled the situation ineptly, and even his speaking tour to carry his message to the American people turned out badly when he suffered a devastating stroke. Wilson's efforts failed, and the United States did not join the League.

Enduring Understandings

- The delicate balance of special interests, accomplishments and exclusion prior to 1896 was replaced with economic and political disruption (ch.20)
- Reform-minded individuals and groups with differing solutions to national problems affected government policy (ch.21)
- In the years from the Civil War to the First World War, expansionism and imperialism elevated the U.S. to world power status (ch.22)
- Becoming a world power meant that the U.S. had to reconsider political isolation from Europe when the first world

war broke out (ch.22)

- War exposed deep divisions among Americans racially, politically, and economically (ch.22)

Materials and Resources

Various Primary Source Documents
Boyer Textbook

Vocabulary

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Vocab list for Ch. 20:
disenfranchisement, spoils system, patronage, agrarian, lynch, caveat. De facto, panacea, dark-horse candidate, jingoism, sovereignty, imperialism, protectorate, laissez-faire doctrine, greenbacks and the Greenback Party, civil service reform, Southern/ Northwestern/ National Colored Farmers' Alliances, Populist Party, separate but equal doctrine, Jacob Coxey, free silver, Alfred T. Mahan and The Influence of Sea Power upon History, Josiah Strong and Our Country, Social Darwinism, Henry Cabot Lodge, Theodore Roosevelt, William Randolph Hearst, the Journal, yellow journalism, Joseph Pulitzer and the World, Anti-Imperialist League

Ch. 21: Capitalism, socialism, pragmatism, direct primary, initiative, referendum, recall, eugenics, arbitration, nostrums, adulterated, workers' compensation law, cease and desist orders, Triangle Shirtwaist Fire, Jane Addams, the muckrakers, Progressive reform mayors, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, Socialist Party of America and Eugene Debs, Theodore Roosevelt and the Square Deal, Pure Food and Drug Act and Meat Inspection Act, Federal Trade Commission, Clayton Anti-trust Act, Louis Brandies and Muller v. Oregon, Also mention in notes Amendments 16-19

Ch: 22
Belligerent, territorial integrity, liberal, coup, armistice, dissent, sedition, self-determination, convoy, abdicate, reparations, mandate or trusteeship, gentlemen's agreement, dollar diplomacy, U-boats and unrestricted submarine warfare, National Security League and preparedness, Bernard Baruch and the War Industries Board, Herbert Hoover and the Food Administration, Vladimir Lenin, Leon Trotsky, the Bolsheviks, George Creel and the Committee on Public Information, East St. Louis race riot (1917), Chicago Race Riot (1919), Wilson's fourteen-point peace plan, Treaty of Versailles and Covenant of the League of Nations, Henry Cabot Lodge, Reservationists, Irreconcilables

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Politics and Expansion -- 2 Day(s)

Description

Voter participation in late nineteenth-century elections was extremely high, and political parties fought hard to build coalitions and win voter loyalty. Many of the political issues of the time focused on encouraging economic growth through tariffs, railroad development, and monetary policy, rather than addressing the consequences of industrialization. Americans tended to embrace the doctrine of laissez-faire and looked to state and local authorities to address social problems, rather than Washington. Democrats tended to be more critical of government regulation, but party loyalty was more often based on geography, ethnicity, and religion, rather than ideology.

Electoral campaigns of the late nineteenth century centered on tariff rates, veterans' pensions, railroad development, and monetary policy. Southern office seekers made crude racist appeals to white voters, while Republican candidates in the North "waved the bloody shirt." National-party candidates of the 1870s and 1880s rarely confronted the most glaring problem, the social consequences of industrialization. Most Americans in these years accepted the doctrine of laissez-faire. They did not expect the federal government to intervene in economic or social affairs.

The only truly trustworthy money, many believed, was precious metals. Creditors and business leaders thought that economic stability required a strictly limited money supply. Debtors, especially southern and western farmers, believed that expansion of the money supply would make paying off their obligations easier and would also help maintain farm prices. In 1873 Congress stopped minting silver coins just before new discoveries sharply increased the silver supply. The same debtor groups agitating for an expansion of paper dollars then also demanded that the government resume the purchase and coinage of silver.

For years reformers had campaigned for a professional civil service based on merit rather than political loyalty. A law was finally enacted after a disappointed office seeker assassinated President James A. Garfield. In 1885 a Democrat became president for the first time since the Civil War. Grover Cleveland challenged powerful interests by calling for cuts in the tariff, and he offended Civil War veterans by disallowing fraudulent veterans' pension claims. He was replaced in 1889 by Republican Benjamin Harrison, in whose administration a still higher tariff and a new and generous pension bill were passed.

In rural America farmers confronted a demoralizing cycle of falling prices, scarce money, and mounting debt. From these trying circumstances emerged first the Grange, and then the Aalliance movement. The Southern Alliance and the Northwestern Alliance called for tariff reduction, a graduated income tax, public ownership of the railroads, the secret ballot, and "the free and unlimited coinage of silver"--a goal that soon overshadowed all others. Unable to get satisfaction from the Democrats, national alliance leaders in 1892 organized the Populist party.

The end of Reconstruction in 1877 led to African-American disfranchisement. It was accomplished by intimidation, terror, vote fraud, and legal measures such as literacy tests, poll taxes, and property requirements. State after state passed laws imposing strict racial segregation in many realms of life. The federal government largely stood aside. The Supreme Court found ways to avoid ensuring the equal protection of the laws granted by the Fourteenth Amendment. For African-Americans the restoration of sectional harmony came at a very high price. Some moved north, where they found that, while segregation was not official public policy, there were many forms of de facto segregation.

Despite the Populist challenge, the 1892 election demonstrated the entrenched power of the two-party system. The Democrats won the presidency, but no sooner did Cleveland take office than depression struck. President Cleveland's response was to borrow from Wall Street to purchase gold, and the drain on the Treasury's gold reserves was stemmed.

Advocates of silver coinage argued that basing the money supply on the amount of gold in the Treasury's vaults could stifle a dynamic, growing economy. Gold advocates urged caution. In 1896 the Democrats nominated silverite William Jennings Bryan, and the Populists also supported him. Republican William McKinley won the election by a considerable margin. The Democrats had had little appeal to factory workers, the urban middle class, and the settled family farmers of the midwestern corn belt. Under McKinley a new tariff pushed rates to an all-time high, and the United States officially committed itself to the gold

standard. The depression ended.

The drive for American territorial expansion faded somewhat after the Civil War but revived strongly in the 1880s. European nations set the example, and it was argued that continued prosperity demanded overseas markets. In Hawaii, American planters deposed the queen, proclaimed independence, and sought annexation by the United States. Closer to home, Cuba's revolution against Spain aroused American sympathies, and the sinking of the battleship Maine in Havana harbor sparked U.S. desire for war. Military success came quickly for the Americans, and they occupied Cuba until 1902. When they withdrew, the Platt Amendment, which remained in force until 1934, reserved to the United States the right to intervene in Cuba when it saw fit and to maintain a naval base there. During this period American commercial activity in Cuba flourished, and the United States reoccupied Cuba twice. In the Philippine Islands, also taken from Spain in 1898, Filipino resistance to the Americans

brought a guerrilla war that lasted until 1902. Although imperialism and an accompanying militaristic fever swept the nation, not all Americans agreed. Anti-imperialists believed it a terrible mistake for the United States to violate the basic principles of human equality and the right of self-government.

In China, American policy makers sought not territorial expansion but protection of U.S. commercial interests. Secretary of State John Hay in 1899 announced the principle of the "Open Door" to American business. Instead of actually acquiring overseas colonies, Washington aided economic expansion by supporting private enterprise.

In Spanish America efforts by the United States to acquire a canal route between the oceans seemed stalled when the Colombian Senate rejected a proposed treaty for passage through the Colombian province of Panama. With an American warship offshore, Panama proclaimed its independence, and within a short time, the new nation of Panama made a treaty with the United States. The opening of the Panama Canal ended thirty years of expansionism during which the United States emerged as a world power.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Progressive Era -- 2 Day(s)

Description

Urban growth and corporate consolidation marked the early years of this century, and immigration soared. Most of the immigrants were from southern and eastern Europe, and they added to the numbers of people in the nation's cities. By 1920 more than half the total population lived in cities. The immigrant districts were often crowded and unhealthful, and in many cities municipal corruption made harsh conditions worse. The predominantly native-born middle class also grew significantly during these years.

Of the nation's 10 million African-Americans at the turn of the century, more than two-thirds lived in the rural South. By 1910 many had migrated to southern cities, where they were governed by "Jim Crow" laws. For northern African-Americans, whose numbers grew through migration in the next decade, the situation was only slightly better. Living in conditions of de facto segregation, African-Americans sought strength in their own institutions.

Corporate consolidation accelerated in the early twentieth century. Real wages rose, but the laboring man could still barely support a wife and family. Children worked to augment the family income. The American Federation of Labor grew rapidly as workers sought to improve their lot and to resist employers concerned with speedup and efficiency. The police and the courts were rough with union workers. Even though membership in really radical unions like the Industrial Workers of the World was small, public apprehension concerning the Wobblies was great. Democratic socialism was another movement that tried to ameliorate the lot of the worker. The Socialist party reached its high point in 1912.

In this context arose Pprogressivism was a wide-ranging, a political response to industrialization, immigration, urbanization, and the concentration of corporate power. Progressives urged a diverse array of reform activities, some emphasizing social and economic justice; some concerned with reforming the government structure; and some directed toward curbing urban immorality, and restricting immigration, and establishing other coercive social controls. The main strength of the progressives was in the new urban and professional native-born Protestant middle class. Organizationally they were a congeries of special-interest groups that advocated a "scientific" approach to social problems, marshaling evidence and attempting to manage reform. Intellectuals--including economists, historians, philosophers, and political thinkers--laid the groundwork. Novelists and journalists carried word of the need for reform through novels and muckraking magazines.

Progressivism began at the local level, spreading from there to state and national politicsin America's cities. The municipal-reform impulse led to curbing of the private utilities and making the tax structure more equitable. It soon expanded to a series of electoral reforms. Central to the progressive outlook was the conviction that big business was out of control. Increasing numbers of citizens wanted the government to oversee economic enterprises. In one state after another, legislation was enacted to curb the power of enacted regulating railroads, mines, mills, and other businesses, and reformers campaigned to .limit

While some progressives focused on problems such as child labor, and improve industrial safety, and corporate regulation,

Oothers were concerned with issues of personal behavior and morality. They campaigned against gambling, amusement parks, dance halls, and the movies. They also campaigned against prostitution and in favor of drug regulation and of prohibition, adding the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution. Believing that many social problems stemmed from the If the immigrant city, some Progressives believed posed threats, the answer was to exclude immigrants, supporting their ideas with the pseudo-science of eugenics. The eugenics movement persuaded s. The most sinister example of the perversion of science for illiberal and coercive purposes in the Progressive Era was the eugenics movement. Several states to legalize thed forced sterilization of criminals, sex offenders, and mentally deficient persons. "Scientific" thought among the progressives also supported virulent racism, aiding the immigration-restriction movement and justifying the repressive policies of Jim Crow.

Of the nation's 10 million African-Americans at the turn of the century, more than two-thirds lived in the rural South. By 1910 many had migrated to southern cities, where they were governed by "Jim Crow" laws. For northern African-Americans, whose

numbers grew through migration in the next decade, the situation was only slightly better. Living in conditions of de facto segregation, African-Americans sought strength in their own institutions. The responses of African-Americans to these circumstances varied. Booker T. Washington was an advocate of at least temporary accommodation. Others, most notably W. E. B. Du Bois, urged struggle against all forms of racial discrimination. Du Bois and others formed the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People in 1909.

By the turn of During this time also, the century, the woman-suffrage movement had reorganized itselfwas vigorously pursuing its goal. State-level campaigns for the vote grew into a revitalized national movement. The Nineteenth Amendment passed Congress by a narrow margin in 1919. Female activists also made advances in expanding the concept of "women's sphere," while the birth control movement left an important legacy of activism for later groups to build on.

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The American Federation of Labor grew rapidly as workers sought to improve their lot and to resist employers concerned with speedup and efficiency. The police and the courts were rough with union workers. Even though membership in really radical unions like the Industrial Workers of the World was small, public apprehension concerning the Wobblies was great. Democratic socialism was another movement that tried to ameliorate the lot of the worker. The Socialist party reached its high point in 1912.

At the national level, progressivism was perhaps best exemplified by Theodore Roosevelt, who acted to expand presidential powers. He forced a settlement of the coal strike of 1902. He gave high priority to breaking up business monopolies and brought successful legal action against the giant Northern Securities Company. Roosevelt did not want to destroy America's big corporations, but he believed that corporate behavior must be regulated. He called for a "square deal" for all Americans, denounced special treatment for capitalists, and filed suit against forty-four companies for violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Railroads were regulated, as well as food and drugs. The president encouraged conservation of the environment, aiding water and forest management and focusing national attention on America's resources.

TR's successor in 1908, William Howard Taft, continued the "trustbusting" theme, but during his administration the Republican party's most conservative elements gained party control. In 1912 Taft was opposed by Theodore Roosevelt's new Progressive, or "Bull Moose," party and by the Socialists, as well as by the successful Democrats, now also strongly influenced by the progressive reform spirit. Woodrow Wilson's administration saw tariff reform and the creation of the Federal Reserve System. Even the Supreme Court was touched by the finger of progressive reform, holding that at least some worker-protection laws did not violate employers' rights.

The volatile social brew of reform energy called the progressive movement had taken a new tack in American affairs. Earlier reformers had viewed government as irrelevant or even hostile to their purposes. The progressives, by contrast, viewed government as a major ally in the reform cause. Twenty years later the New Deal drew on this precedent.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Expansionism and WWI -- 2 Day(s)

Description

As the twentieth century opened, the United States was determined to establish its presence on the world scene. In Spanish America efforts by the United States to acquire a canal route between the oceans seemed stalled when the Colombian Senate rejected a proposed treaty for passage through the Colombian province of Panama. With an American warship offshore, Panama proclaimed its independence, and within a short time, the new nation of Panama made a treaty with the United States allowing the Panama Canal to be built. Theodore Roosevelt justified his domination of the Dominican Republic by asserting the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine. To further American economic interests, William Howard Taft occupied Nicaragua and Woodrow Wilson sent the marines into Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Wilson also sent troops to Vera Cruz in Mexico and mounted a punitive expedition against Pancho Villa in northern Mexico.

In China, American policy makers sought not territorial expansion but protection of U.S. commercial interests. Secretary of State John Hay in 1899 announced the principle of the "Open Door" to American business. Instead of actually acquiring overseas colonies, Washington aided economic expansion by supporting private enterprise. Roosevelt maintained the balance of power in Asia by interceding in the Russo-Japanese War, and Taft continued efforts at dollar diplomacy. United States actions on the world scene reflected a search for world order on American terms--an international system founded on a unique blend of liberalism, democracy, and capitalistic enterprise.

When war began in Europe in 1914, most Americans initially wanted to remain neutral "in thought as well as in action." The nation had, however, cultural ties with England, and many Americans of English or German or Irish ancestry felt an emotional tug toward one side or the other. The most difficult part of maintaining neutrality was to preserve U.S. neutral rights at sea. Whereas the British blockade was a nuisance and an inconvenience, German submarine warfare was a source of real danger. Hoping for peace, the United States began preparation for war. Wilson recognized that the American world view would not fare well in a world dominated by Germany. Nor would it fare well without U.S. participation in any postwar settlement.

The sinking of British and French passenger ships carrying Americans provoked strong public reaction, and Germany pledged not to attack merchant vessels without warning. Diminishing trade with the Central Powers and extensive loans and booming trade with the Allies inclined the United States further toward support of the Allies. With the war at a stalemate on the Western Front, German leaders decided to resume unrestricted submarine warfare. They reasoned that the United States would not be able to place its troops at the front soon enough to prevent a German victory. The United States declared war.

World War I was a turning point for the United States. Millions of men were drafted and exposed to their first experiences away from home. About 2 million American soldiers went to France, and many had taken an active part in the war by late spring of 1918. Women also served in the armed forces, and many on the home front moved into jobs formerly held by men, jobs that they had to give up at the war's end. Government became involved to an unprecedented degree in civilian life through the War Industries Board and other newly created boards and agencies. Industrial cooperation was encouraged, a trend that outlasted the war years.

Support for the war was assiduously cultivated by the Committee on Public Information. Patriotism was whipped up, and public support came in the form of higher taxes, Liberty Loans, and patriotic statements from leaders in all walks of life. Intolerance of dissent from the war effort grew. The women's movement split over the issue. Many Americans suspected merely of lack of enthusiasm suffered physical abuse. New laws against sedition sent Socialist Eugene Debs to jail as the wartime mood of idealism and resolve degenerated into insistence on conformity.

Despite the millions of personnel in the armed services, the civilian work force grew. Wages rose, and union membership increased. Women had opportunities for better jobs, and black Americans migrated north in unprecedented numbers in response to economic opportunity. Although the war had stifled the reform energies of the Progressive period, some reform efforts such as women's suffrage and improvement of industrial labor conditions saw real gains. But with industrial growth and change often came disruption, strains on housing and municipal services in industrial centers, and racial friction that led to

major riots in East St. Louis and later Chicago.

In 1918 President Wilson summed up the war aims of the United States in his Fourteen Points. The Allies accepted them as a basis for negotiations at the Versailles peace conference. Despite that acceptance, the Allies effectively ignored Wilson's vision of a liberal peace and imposed a harshly punitive treaty on Germany. Wilson was dismayed. He concentrated his energies on his one great achievement in the proposed treaty, the covenant of the League of Nations. He was not, however, successful in convincing the Republican Senate to accept the League or the treaty. Wilson handled the situation ineptly, and even his speaking tour to carry his message to the American people turned out badly when he suffered a devastating stroke. Wilson's efforts failed, and the United States did not join the League.

The aftermath of the war also brought new racial violence and antiradical hysteria, the Red Scare, which led to mass arrests and deportations of suspected subversive elements. The trials and tribulations of the war years caused the nation to turn away from the Democrats in the election of 1920. The new president was Republican Warren G. Harding, whose principal qualification was that he had no enemies.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit IX: The 1920's, Depression, and the New Deal -- 5 Day(s)

Description

It was called the Roaring Twenties, the Prosperity Decade. It began with a brief postwar recession, but new consumer products, sophisticated advertising, and innovative forms of corporate organization drove the economy forward. New technology, electric appliances, and the automobile--especially the automobile--changed America. New assembly-line techniques raised per capita industrial output. Corporate consolidation and the creation of trade associations made possible cooperation on such matters as pricing, standard specifications, and division of markets. Recognizing that workers were also consumers, many capitalists saw the advantages of increasing workers' purchasing power. Mass distribution of goods, chain stores, installment buying, and advertising on the radio and in mass-circulation magazines stimulated consumerism. Increased production also meant stepped-up exploitation of natural resources, especially oil, and concomitant environmental costs. Agriculture did not share in this boom. Government purchases, necessary during wartime, had ended, and European agriculture had revived. Congressional efforts to create a price-support system were unsuccessful.

On the whole, organized labor floundered during the 1920s. Wage rates rose even as union membership declined in a time of widespread prosperity and public approbation of business values and business leaders. Although women benefited from the technological transformation of the times and increased their participation as office workers, they made no across-the-board advance in the commercial and industrial world. Workers from minority groups and recent immigrants did even less well. In general, unskilled workers were barely advancing.

That culture was increasingly urban. Americans were still attached to rural and small-town values, however, even as more of them moved to the cities. Widespread automobile ownership, while making possible forays into the countryside, also made possible greater individual independence and diminished family cohesion. Mass culture was growing more and more standardized.

The accelerated pace of change and the shift of values led to a series of cultural battles that tore at American society. The welcoming door for immigrants from Europe and Asia was nearly closed by Congress in the 1920s. Thousands of Mexicans moved north to find work in the United States. Rural values resisted those of the city. The nativist impulse of the immigration-restriction movement erupted even more strongly in a revived and powerful Ku Klux Klan. In the South the Klan had an antiblack emphasis. In the North it was anti-Catholic. Everywhere it promised to restore the nation to an imagined earlier purity. When the corruption of the Klan leadership was finally revealed, the movement disintegrated. Discontented with poverty and racism, many African Americans were attracted to Marcus Garvey's UNIA. Still another rejection of modernity the values of the urban world was revealed in the Scopes anti-evolution trial, and the antiradical and nativist emphasis of the Sacco-Vanzetti case was unmistakable. The weakness of traditional rural values, on the other hand, can be seen in the failure of the Eighteenth Amendment. Violations of the ban on liquor became widespread, and organized crime, dealing in illegal liquor, grew bolder.

On Black Thursday--October 24, 1929 --the stock market crashed. After a year of frenzied speculation that had increased the market value of all stocks by $20 billion since the beginning of the year, prices plunged. Structural problems in the economy and Federal Reserve Board policies that limited the money supply contributed to the depression. And they fell still further in the weeks that followed. The nation's worst depression was ascribed to a "liquidity crisis." The money supply was too small and too unevenly

distributed for consumers to buy all the goods produced. Because they had loaned enormous sums for speculation, the nation's banks did not have the cash to meet normal business needs. Credit, the essential lubricant of the economy, suddenly dried up. Moreover, the economies of Europe--already enfeebled by the First World War, massive debt payments, and a heavy trade imbalance with the United States-- also collapsed. The gross national product of the United States fell from $104 billion in 1929 to $59 billion in 1932. Farm prices plummeted, and unemployment climbed.

During the first Hundred Days, between March 4 and June 16, 1933, Roosevelt and Congress took measures to strengthen the banks. They created the Civilian Conservation Corps for jobless youth, and the Agricultural Adjustment Act and the National Recovery Act were passed. The AAA reduced farm production, and the NRA established codes of "fair competition" for the nation's industries. The Tennessee Valley Authority was established.the Home Owners Loan Corporation, and the Farm Credit

Administration, and they passed the Federal Emergency Relief Act. The Tennessee Valley Authority was established, Some of these measures were heavily criticized by corporate America, and in 1935 the NRA was ruled unconstitutional. Agricultural conditions did not improve significantly, and The New Deal began to face challenges. and the Agricultural Adjustment Act and the National Recovery Act were passed. The AAA reduced farm production in an effort to restore parity, and the NRA established codes of "fair competition" for the nation's industries.

In the early years, the New Deal was mostly probusiness. FDR's radio "fireside chats" described the corporations as key players in the "all-American team" fighting the depression. But during the depression business did not have the same hold on the popular imagination as in the previous decade. Corporate America grew increasingly unhappy with NRA regulation, and small businesses claimed that the NRA codes served primarily the interests of corporate giants. Agriculture, too, had its difficulties. Although farm income increased by 50 percent between 1933 and 1937, the AAA did little to help landless farm laborers or tenants and sharecroppers. Landowners accepted their subsidies, removed acreage from production, and pushed their tenants off the land. Natural disaster compounded the problem as drought made a dust bowl of the Great Plains. (See Chapter 25 "A Place in Time.") And both the NRA and the AAA were held to be unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. But New Deal environmental efforts in regard to soil conservation and through agencies such as the CCC were of significant long-term value to the nation.

Roosevelt responded to the thunder on the Left with legislation a series of legislative initiativesthat expanded federal relief and which was more geared to the interests of workers and the poor, the Second New Deal.. The Works Progress Administration provided assistance directly to individuals, while the Public Works Administration completed thousands of construction projects, with no state agencies in between. The New Deal's leftward turn was also evident in the assistance to the rural poor and a rural-electrification program. The National Labor Relations Act guaranteed collective-bargaining rights and permitted the closed shop. And Congress increased regulation of certain businesses and raised taxes for the well-to-do. The pathbreaking Social Security Act was passed in 1935. The New Deal expanded the role of the federal government and shaped a new and more forceful role for the executive branch.

Congress replaced the AAA with legislation that similarly provided payments to farmers. The New Deal's efforts to aid labor took the form of the National Labor Relations Act, which guaranteed collective-bargaining rights and permitted the closed shop. The Second New Deal also created the pathbreaking Social Security Act in 1935. And Congress increased regulation of certain businesses and raised taxes for the well-to-do. Roosevelt's activism shaped a new and more forceful role for the nation's chief executive.

In 1936 Roosevelt carried every state but Maine and Vermont. The new Democratic coalition included, in addition to the white South and some big-city Democratic organizations, farmers, urban immigrants, industrial workers, African-Americans, and women. Although the New Deal civil-rights record is mixed, spotty--FDR was afraid of alienating southern white voters--Roosevelt did address racial issues in limited and symbolic ways supported those who tried to eradicate racism from New Deal agencies. The Roosevelt administration also worked harder ed more strenuously to attract women voters than had any previous administration. Viewed in the context of the times, the New Deal had an impressive environmental record. The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 halted the sale of tribal lands, although it scaled back plans for tribal self-government.

By 1936 most business leaders opposed the New Deal vehemently. Fearful that key measures of the Second New Deal would be overturned by the Supreme Court, Roosevelt proposed in 1937 a sweeping Supreme Court reform bill. The nation perceived it as nothing but court packing. FDR had miscalculated, and he abandoned the plan. But the Court yielded to Roosevelt's pressure. Several New Deal measures were upheld, and retirement of several Supreme Court justices now permitted Roosevelt appointments. Preoccupied by the Supreme Court fight, a recession in 1937, and the worsening world situation, FDR offered few reform initiatives in his second term.

The psychological stress and social impact of the depression marked all who lived through it. The depression was particularly difficult for women workers, who generally suffered blatant wage discrimination. Married women who worked were condemned for taking jobs away from men. Traditional female occupations were not covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. Nevertheless, the long-term movement of women into the workplace continued. Hard times disrupted courtship and marital patterns, and both the

marriage rate and the birthrate declined.

In the 1930s hard times and a favorable government climate bred a new labor militancy. The National Labor Relations Act guaranteed labor's right to bargain collectively. The American Federation of Labor's Committee for Industrial Organization organized workers on an industry wide basis regardless of race, sex, or degree of skill. Big steel companies recognized the steelworkers' union in 1937, and after a bloody struggle smaller companies did so as well. In the auto industry, the drive for unionization was marked by a successful "sit-down" strike at General Motors. Union membership in the United States soared.

The unemployment rate among African-American industrial workers far exceeded the rate of whites. Lynchings and other miscarriages of justice continued. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and other African-American

organizations kept up their efforts against discrimination. Hispanic-Americans also endured rising hostility. A half-million Mexicans returned to Mexico in the 1930s, some voluntarily, others through court-ordered repatriation. A wave of agricultural strikes in the Southwest achieved a few successes.

The standardization of mass culture proceeded apace in the 1930s. Radio proved vastly popular, with comedy shows and afternoon soap operas leading the way. Movies also were extremely popular in depression America, especially comedies and musicals.

American fiction of the early depression exuded disillusionment. Then the shift to the Popular Front by the Communist party, the response of many intellectuals to antifascist activity, and the achievements of the New Deal stimulated a change in the American cultural climate of the mid-1930s. Bleakness and cynicism gave way to a hopeful view that voiced admiration for the virtues of ordinary Americans, celebrated regional literature and art, and cultivated American music in opera, jazz, and swing. The New York World's Fair of 1939 celebrated the resurgence of the American faith in the future, even as the actual world was fast heading for war.Preoccupied by the Supreme Court fight, a recession in 1937, and the worsening world situation, FDR offered few reform initiatives in his second term. The momentum of the New Deal had diminished, and FDR's State of the Union message in 1939 proposed no new domestic measures. The New Deal may have saved capitalism, but it had enlarged the importance of government beyond all precedent.

Enduring Understandings

- In the 1920's traditional customs weakened as women and men sought ways to balance new liberations with old fashioned values (ch.23)
- Beneath the era of excess in the 1920s lurked predjudice and inter-group tensions (ch.23)
- From the economic crisis of the Great Depression through the New Deal, the Amgeican government was faced with stabilizing the nation while expanding the role and power of the federal government (ch.24)
- New Deal programs fundamentally improved the lives of many Americans (ch.24)

Materials and Resources

Various Primary Sources
Boyer Textbook

Vocabulary

Scabs, isolationist, reactionary, suffrage, materialistic, expatriates, nativism, hedonism, fundamentalism, speakeasies, textile mill strikes, the open shop, the "American Plan", Andrew Mellon and the "trickle down" theory, the flapper and the "New Woman," F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ernest Hemingway, Georgia O'Keefe, Edward Hopper, George Gershwin, Duke Ellington, Sacco and Vanzetti, Marcus Garvey and the Universal Negro Improvement Association, Volstead Act, Alfred Smith versus Herbert Hoover

Vocab list for Ch. 24:
buying stock on margin, foreclosure, nostrums, pump priming, demagogue, panacea, anti-Semitic, deficit spending, collective bargaining, sacrosanct, militancy, barrios, repatriation, streamlining, utopia, First New Deal, Second New Deal, brain trust, Emergency Banking Act, FDIC, CCC, Tennessee Valley Authority, Federal Securities Act and the Securities and Exchange Commission, WPA and the Federal Arts Projects, John Maynard Keynes and the Keynesian economics, resettlement and Farm Security administrations, National Labor Relations (Wagner Act), Revenue Act of 1935, Housing Act of 1937, CIO, UAW, Scottsboro boys, Benny Goodman, swing, Zora Neal Huston and Their Eyes Were Watching God

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The 1920s -- 2 Day(s)

Description

It was called the Roaring Twenties, the Prosperity Decade. It began with a brief postwar recession, but new consumer products, sophisticated advertising, and innovative forms of corporate organization drove the economy forward. New technology, electric appliances, and the automobile--especially the automobile--changed America. New assembly-line techniques raised per capita industrial output. Corporate consolidation and the creation of trade associations made possible cooperation on such matters as pricing, standard specifications, and division of markets. Recognizing that workers were also consumers, many capitalists saw the advantages of increasing workers' purchasing power. Mass distribution of goods, chain stores, installment buying, and advertising on the radio and in mass-circulation magazines stimulated consumerism. Increased production also meant stepped-up exploitation of natural resources, especially oil, and concomitant environmental costs. Agriculture did not share in this boom. Government purchases, necessary during wartime, had ended, and European agriculture had revived. Congressional efforts to create a price-support system were unsuccessful.

On the whole, organized labor floundered during the 1920s. Wage rates rose even as union membership declined in a time of widespread prosperity and public approbation of business values and business leaders. Although women benefited from the technological transformation of the times and increased their participation as office workers, they made no across-the-board advance in the commercial and industrial world. Workers from minority groups and recent immigrants did even less well. In general, unskilled workers were barely advancing.

And agriculture limped badly in the 1920s. Government purchases, necessary during wartime, had ended, and European agriculture had revived. Congressional efforts to create a price-support system were unsuccessful.

The Republican party in power got its major support from northern farmers, corporate leaders, small businesspersons, and some skilled workers. Democrats drew their support from the white South and the political machines of the immigrant cities. President Harding's notably corrupt administration was followed by that of "Silent Cal" Coolidge. Both administrations saw a rise in tariff rates and several Supreme Court decisions of a conservative character. Coolidge vetoed farm price supports, although many of his party had long championed a high protective tariff and other measures of benefit to business. Isolationism marked the foreign policy of the period, offset by a successful naval arms-control conference and the highly symbolic Kellogg-Briand pact.

What remained of the progressive spirit showed itself in a new Progressive party in 1924 that gained an impressive number of votes for a third party but had little other impact. Among women the progressive spirit that had encouraged support for child-labor laws, protection of women workers, and federal support for education seemed to have dissipated. Women, now voters, responded to the conservative political climate and materialistic mass culture of the day.

That culture was increasingly urban. Americans were still attached to rural and small-town values, however, even as more of them moved to the cities. Widespread automobile ownership, while making possible forays into the countryside, also made possible greater individual independence and diminished family cohesion. Mass culture was growing more and more standardized. From the stultifying assembly line to Through radio programming and movie production, consumption was stimulated, taste was standardized, and new celebrities were quickly created and widely idolized. This was an

era of jazz, raucous parties, bootleg liquor, and sex, the last perhaps more talked about than acted upon. The flapper was the symbol of the new age, probably more representative of one segment of the population than of the whole. The 1920s were also a time of significant artistic creativity in letters, painting, and music. Black musicians and writers flowered in the "Harlem Renaissance." See "A Place in Time" in Chapter 234.

The accelerated pace of change and the shift of values led to a series of cultural battles that tore at American society. The welcoming door for immigrants from Europe and Asia was nearly closed by Congress in the 1920s. Thousands of Mexicans moved north to find work in the United States. Rural values resisted those of the city. The nativist impulse of the immigration-

restriction movement erupted even more strongly in a revived and powerful Ku Klux Klan. In the South the Klan had an antiblack emphasis. In the North it was anti-Catholic. Everywhere it promised to restore the nation to an imagined earlier purity. When the corruption of the Klan leadership was finally revealed, the movement disintegrated. Discontented with poverty and racism, many African Americans were attracted to Marcus Garvey's UNIA. Still another rejection of modernity the values of the urban world was revealed in the Scopes anti-evolution trial, and the antiradical and nativist emphasis of the Sacco-Vanzetti case was unmistakable. The weakness of traditional rural values, on the other hand, can be seen in the failure of the Eighteenth Amendment. Violations of the ban on liquor became widespread, and organized crime, dealing in illegal liquor, grew bolder.

The decade ended with the presidency of Herbert Hoover, an able and gifted man who, unlike Harding and Coolidge, did not

uncritically cheer for big business. He argued that capitalism had broad social obligations, but he believed most of all in voluntarism and opposed government economic intervention.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Crash, Depression, and The New Deal -- 3 Day(s)

Description

On Black Thursday--October 24, 1929 --the stock market crashed. After a year of frenzied speculation that had increased the market value of all stocks by $20 billion since the beginning of the year, prices plunged. Structural problems in the economy and Federal Reserve Board policies that limited the money supply contributed to the depression. And they fell still further in the weeks that followed. The nation's worst depression was ascribed to a "liquidity crisis." The money supply was too small and too unevenly distributed for consumers to buy all the goods produced. Because they had loaned enormous sums for speculation, the nation's banks did not have the cash to meet normal business needs. Credit, the essential lubricant of the economy, suddenly dried up. Moreover, the economies of Europe--already enfeebled by the First World War, massive debt payments, and a heavy trade imbalance with the United States-- also collapsed. The gross national product of the United States fell from $104 billion in 1929 to $59 billion in 1932. Farm prices plummeted, and unemployment climbed.

President Hoover was deeply committed ideologically to localism and private initiative. He encouraged business leaders to maintain wages and full employment, and he called on municipal and state governments to create jobs through public-works projects. However tThe crises worsened and . bBy 1932 Hoover was forced to take unprecedented federal action: the creation of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to make loans to major economic institutions. It was too little, too late.

Franklin D. Roosevelt swept the election of 1932 and brought to Washington a new administration of former progressives, liberal academics, and lawyers. Although he lacked a clear program, he was, at least, not Herbert Hoover. During the first Hundred Days, between March 4 and June 16, 1933, Roosevelt and Congress took measures to strengthen the banks. They created the Civilian Conservation Corps for jobless youth, and the Agricultural Adjustment Act and the National Recovery Act were passed. The AAA reduced farm production, and the NRA established codes of "fair competition" for the nation's industries. The Tennessee Valley Authority was established.the Home Owners Loan Corporation, and the Farm Credit Administration, and they passed the Federal Emergency Relief Act. The Tennessee Valley Authority was established, Some of these measures were heavily criticized by corporate America, and in 1935 the NRA was ruled unconstitutional. Agricultural conditions did not improve significantly, and The New Deal began to face challenges. and the Agricultural Adjustment Act and the National Recovery Act were passed. The AAA reduced farm production in an effort to restore parity, and the NRA established codes of "fair competition" for the nation's industries.

In the early years, the New Deal was mostly probusiness. FDR's radio "fireside chats" described the corporations as key players in the "all-American team" fighting the depression. But during the depression business did not have the same hold on the popular imagination as in the previous decade. Corporate America grew increasingly unhappy with NRA regulation, and small businesses claimed that the NRA codes served primarily the interests of corporate giants. Agriculture, too, had its difficulties. Although farm income increased by 50 percent between 1933 and 1937, the AAA did little to help landless farm laborers or tenants and sharecroppers. Landowners accepted their subsidies, removed acreage from production, and pushed their tenants off the land. Natural disaster compounded the problem as drought made a dust bowl of the Great Plains. (See Chapter 25 "A Place in Time.") And both the NRA and the AAA were held to be unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. But New Deal environmental efforts in regard to soil conservation and through agencies such as the CCC were of significant long-term value to the nation.

The Democrats were criticized by the Right for going too far and by the Left for not going far enough. Father Charles Coughlin, the "radio priest," inveighed against the New Deal to millions of listeners. Senator Huey Long of Louisiana appealed to the nation with a deceptively simple "Share Our Wealth" program.

Roosevelt responded to the thunder on the Left with legislation a series of legislative initiativesthat expanded federal relief and which was more geared to the interests of workers and the poor, the Second New Deal.. The Works Progress Administration provided assistance directly to individuals, while the Public Works Administration completed thousands of construction projects, with no state agencies in between. The New Deal's leftward turn was also evident in the assistance to the rural poor and a rural -electrification program. The National Labor Relations Act guaranteed collective-bargaining rights and permitted the closed

shop. And Congress increased regulation of certain businesses and raised taxes for the well-to-do. The pathbreaking Social Security Act was passed in 1935. The New Deal expanded the role of the federal government and shaped a new and more forceful role for the executive branch.

Congress replaced the AAA with legislation that similarly provided payments to farmers. The New Deal's efforts to aid labor took the form of the National Labor Relations Act, which guaranteed collective-bargaining rights and permitted the closed shop. The Second New Deal also created the pathbreaking Social Security Act in 1935. And Congress increased regulation of certain businesses and raised taxes for the well-to-do. Roosevelt's activism shaped a new and more forceful role for the nation's chief executive.

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

In 1936 Roosevelt carried every state but Maine and Vermont. The new Democratic coalition included, in addition to the white South and some big-city Democratic organizations, farmers, urban immigrants, industrial workers, African-Americans, and women. Although the New Deal civil-rights record is mixed, spotty--FDR was afraid of alienating southern white voters--Roosevelt did address racial issues in limited and symbolic ways supported those who tried to eradicate racism from New Deal agencies. The Roosevelt administration also worked harder ed more strenuously to attract women voters than had any previous administration. Viewed in the context of the times, the New Deal had an impressive environmental record. The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 halted the sale of tribal lands, although it scaled back plans for tribal self-government.

By 1936 most business leaders opposed the New Deal vehemently. Fearful that key measures of the Second New Deal would be overturned by the Supreme Court, Roosevelt proposed in 1937 a sweeping Supreme Court reform bill. The nation perceived it as nothing but court packing. FDR had miscalculated, and he abandoned the plan. But the Court yielded to Roosevelt's pressure. Several New Deal measures were upheld, and retirement of several Supreme Court justices now permitted Roosevelt appointments. Preoccupied by the Supreme Court fight, a recession in 1937, and the worsening world situation, FDR offered few reform initiatives in his second term.

The psychological stress and social impact of the depression marked all who lived through it. The depression was particularly difficult for women workers, who generally suffered blatant wage discrimination. Married women who worked were condemned for taking jobs away from men. Traditional female occupations were not covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. Nevertheless, the long-term movement of women into the workplace continued. Hard times disrupted courtship and marital patterns, and both the marriage rate and the birthrate declined.

In the 1930s hard times and a favorable government climate bred a new labor militancy. The National Labor Relations Act guaranteed labor's right to bargain collectively. The American Federation of Labor's Committee for Industrial Organization organized workers on an industry wide basis regardless of race, sex, or degree of skill. Big steel companies recognized the steelworkers' union in 1937, and after a bloody struggle smaller companies did so as well. In the auto industry, the drive for unionization was marked by a successful "sit-down" strike at General Motors. Union membership in the United States soared.

The unemployment rate among African-American industrial workers far exceeded the rate of whites. Lynchings and other miscarriages of justice continued. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and other African-American organizations kept up their efforts against discrimination. Hispanic-Americans also endured rising hostility. A half-million Mexicans returned to Mexico in the 1930s, some voluntarily, others through court-ordered repatriation. A wave of agricultural strikes in the Southwest achieved a few successes.

The standardization of mass culture proceeded apace in the 1930s. Radio proved vastly popular, with comedy shows and afternoon soap operas leading the way. Movies also were extremely popular in depression America, especially comedies and musicals.

American fiction of the early depression exuded disillusionment. Then the shift to the Popular Front by the Communist party, the response of many intellectuals to antifascist activity, and the achievements of the New Deal stimulated a change in the American cultural climate of the mid-1930s. Bleakness and cynicism gave way to a hopeful view that voiced admiration for the virtues of ordinary Americans, celebrated regional literature and art, and cultivated American music in opera, jazz, and swing. The New York World's Fair of 1939 celebrated the resurgence of the American faith in the future, even as the actual world was fast heading for war.Preoccupied by the Supreme Court fight, a recession in 1937, and the worsening world situation, FDR offered few reform initiatives in his second term. The momentum of the New Deal had diminished, and FDR's State of the Union message in 1939 proposed no new domestic measures. The New Deal may have saved capitalism, but it had enlarged the importance of government beyond all precedent.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit X: WWII and the Rise of the Cold War Era -- 6 Day(s)

Description

After war began in Europe, Congress lifted the Neutrality Acts' prohibition against the sale of weapons to belligerents and permitted "cash-and-carry." By the summer of 1940, Germany was in control of northern and western Europe, and the Battle of Britain had begun. In the United States, Roosevelt was reelected to an unprecedented third term. The nation instituted its first peacetime draft and increased defense spending. Congress replaced cash-and-carry with lend-lease, and after the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, war aid went to the Russians as well. American naval vessels, alth, aough neutral,

became more involved in the Atlantic war.

To organize the conversion of industry to war production, Roosevelt created a host of new agencies, such as the War Production Board and the National War Labor Board. The American economy boomed as the government poured more than $320 billion to defeat the Axis, and the new Office of Price Administration held down wages and prices and instituted rationing to try and stem inflation. Scientific developments were critical to the war. New and more effective ordnance, medical improvements and of course, the atomic bomb, helped usher in a new kind of war.

As never before, scientists were used to support the war effort. They produced more effective weaponry, improved blood-transfusion techniques, and developed miracle drugs like penicillin. And they built the atomic bomb.

The GIs fighting the war were transformed by the experience in a variety of ways. Some had their personal horizons broadened, others became more distrustful of foreigners, and many were left with lasting psychological as well as physical wounds. On the home front, Americans served as air-raid wardens, planted victory gardens, and organized collection drives to recycle paper, fats, rubber, and scrap metal. They purchased war bonds and, by thus reducing purchasing power, helped control inflation. The Office of War Information served as the nation's propaganda arm. Movies, radio, comic strips, and popular music stirred patriotic emotions and emphasized the bestial nature of the enemy.

The already-mobile American people moved about because of military service and to secure new economic opportunities at the centers of war production, especially on the Pacific Coast. Serious shortages of housing and social services put severe strains on family and community life. Urban blight was a growing problem. School systems were affected as teachers and often students left for the war. Millions of women who had never before worked outside the home found employment in war industry or in the armed services. Even more dramatically, the war opened doors for black Americans. Civil-rights spokesmen in 1942 insisted that African-American support for the war hinged on America's commitment to racial justice. A threat to march on Washington led to Executive Order 8802, the first presidential directive on race since Reconstruction, establishing the Fair Employment Practices Committee. In addition to a rise in the proportion of African-Americans in war production, about 1 million African-American men and women served in the armed forces, mostly in segregated units commanded by white officers. Racial friction in the military was mirrored by growing racial conflict at home. Race riots broke out in New York, Detroit, and elsewhere. Growing white awareness of African-American political power and the horrors of Nazi racism caused many Americans to recognize the character of racism at home.

Other minorities were also significantly affected by the war. Some 25,000 Native Americans served in the armed forces, the first time that many of them had lived in a non-Indian world. Mexican labor was once again welcomed to relieve shortages in the wartime labor supply, in industry as well as agriculture. Both Native Americans and Chicanos suffered from discriminatory treatment, however, even though 350,000 Chicanos served in the armed forces. TAnd thousands of Japanese-Americans were interned in camps for the duration of the war, often loosing all their land and possessions as they were forced to relocate quickly..

In Europe, Stalin urged a second front in the west as Russians held the line at Stalingrad. Churchill persuaded Roosevelt to delay a second front and attack the Germans in North Africa. In 1943 and 1944, the Western Allies invaded Italy, launched a massive air war over Germany, and won the Battle of the Atlantic. By mid-1944 the Red Army had cleared the Germans out of the Soviet Union, and the western front opened on D-Day, June 6, 1944. In the Pacific the American strategy of island-hopping destroyed Japan's sea and air power by the end of 1944, but the Japanese continued fighting.

The alliance among Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States functioned only in the face of a common enemy. The British sought to maintain their imperial possessions and the balance of power against the U.S.S.R. on the Continent. The Soviet Union hoped to weaken Germany permanently and create a sphere of influence of its own in Eastern Europe. The Allied leaders met periodically through the war. By the time that they met at Yalta, the Soviet Union had been victorious in Eastern Europe. American forces were still recovering from the Battle of the Bulge and were facing fanatical resistance from Japan. The Soviets could not be dislodged from their dominant position in Eastern Europe.

Victory came in Europe on May 8, shortly after the death of Franklin Roosevelt. President Harry S Truman took a tough stance

with regard to the Soviets, but when Truman, Churchill, and Stalin met at Potsdam to complete postwar arrangements, the alliance was badly frayed. On August 6 and 9, atomic bombs were dropped on Japan. The war ended on August 14.

The death and destruction of the war were monumental. At home the war had reshaped the nature of the American economy and the role and power of government. It changed family relationships and refashioned social considerations and values. And it ended American isolationism.

Dwight D. Eisenhower brought to the Oval Office a spirit of moderation that fit the national mood well. During his administration social-security benefits and the minimum wage rose, and the nation undertook the construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway and a vast interstate-highway network. Senator Joseph McCarthy was still riding high in 1953, forcing the discharge of hundreds of State

Department employees. During the Army-McCarthy hearings in 1954, however, the senator received a stunning rebuke. This was followed by a Senate vote of censure, and McCarthy's power was broken. Fears of subversion did not vanish, however. There were still banned books, blacklisted entertainers, and a "radical Right." The Supreme Court, now under the leadership of Chief Justice Earl Warren, defended the constitutional rights of persons accused of subversive beliefs. It determined in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka that in education separate facilities "are inherently unequal." Resistance against the Court's order to the states to desegregate their schools was intense. Many segregationists determined upon a policy of "massive resistance." Nevertheless, hope stirred among those who sought a new era in race relations. Civil-rights laws enacted in 1957 and 1960, although weak, were the first such legislation since Reconstruction.

In Korea an armistice was finally achieved in 1953 after the death of Joseph Stalin and Eisenhower's veiled threat to use nuclear weapons to break the truce-talk deadlock. Secretary of State John Foster Dulles was unsatisfied with mere "containment" and called for an offensive aimed at "liberating" the captive peoples of Eastern Europe and China. The president, however, preferred conciliation and refused to translate this rhetoric into action. The United States encircled the U.S.S.R. with military bases and alliances despite a 1955 Geneva summit and talk of "peaceful coexistence." A "new look" defense program emphasized nuclear bombs and diminished conventional forces, relying on the threat of "massive retaliation" to keep the Soviet Union in check.

The Central Intelligence Agency was established in 1947 to conduct espionage and analyze information on foreign nations. Nevertheless, it became involved in replacing the governments of Iran and Guatemala. After the failure of France to reestablish control in Vietnam, the United States made vigorous efforts to prop up the government of independent South Vietnam. In the Middle East, Egypt's seizure of the Suez Canal was met with force by England, France, and Israel. The United States did not concur, but the Eisenhower Doctrine of defending Middle Eastern nations against communist thrusts brought American assistance to Jordan and Lebanon, and intensified anti-American feelings in the Third World..

Booming prosperity made the 1950s a period of abundance without historical precedent. Government expenditures were a major source of the nation's growth and economic well-being. Government-sponsored scientific and technical research and development brought many technological breakthroughs. The long-term trend in the growth of big business accelerated. Oligopolies dominated many industries, and acquisition of overseas facilities created "multinational" enterprises. Changes in American agriculture paralleled those in American industry. Heavily capitalized big farm businesses employed sophisticated mechanical and chemical techniques to increase productivity. The role of the small farm declined as farm families departed for the cities. As in business and agriculture, consolidation transformed the labor movement. The AFL and the CIO merged, but the movement could not recapture its old militancy. Most unionized Americans, now complacent, earned decent wages and pensions.

The prosperous American public sought to satisfy its desire for goods and services. Private indebtedness ballooned as the use of the credit card joined installment buying, home mortgages, and auto loans. The exodus of white Americans to the suburbs grew along with movement from North to South and from East to West. Disaffected intellectuals criticized the conformity and consumerism of Americans and especially of middle-class suburbanites. (See "A Place in Time: Levittown, U.S.A.") The baby boom expanded the nation's educational system, made child rearing a preeminent concern, and reinforced the ideology of domesticity idea that women's proper place was in the home.

American culture at midcentury seemed wide and broad, but not deep. The quest for security and rootedness stimulated a renewed interest in religion, but the intensity of religious belief diminished for many. Education stressed adjustment and well-roundedness. The movies reflected decreased concern for social issues and glorified material success and romantic love. Television developed with astonishing rapidity, and the networks quickly learned to compete for the largest audiences by appealing to the lowest common denominator of taste. Youth culture became a focus of public attention as adolescents experienced cultural restiveness. The media thrived on accounts of juvenile delinquency. Young people passionately embraced the new music, rock-and-roll, and the youth culture that accompanied it. Some eEducated college-age youth applauded a group of nonconformist writers known as the Beats, who scorned the competition and materialism of adult middle-class society.

Other social critics pointed out that iIn the midst of affluence lived many who did not share it. Hunger, deprivation, and racism were often the lot of those in rural backwaters and those left behind in inner cities. Frequently these were the nation's racial minorities.

Some came to general public attention only when they faced especially grave difficulties. Operation Wetback sought to locate and deport illegal Mexican aliens, but U.S. citizens were sometimes entangled in the sweep. Native Americans resisted the termination program that called for liquidation of the reservation system. In Montgomery, Alabama, African-Americans rejected Jim Crow, and after a yearlong bus boycott led by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., they achieved an integrated busing system. 1950s society was more complex and contested than the images of conformity and affluence implied.

American complacency was shattered in 1957 when the Soviet Union launched Sputnik. The nation responded by creating the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and launching several space probes of its own. Sputnik also stimulated efforts at raising educational standards. Congress passed the National Defense Education Act and poured millions into an educational effort to improve U.S. ability to compete in the Cold War.

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When President Eisenhower said farewell in 1961, he warned the American people against the influence of "the military-industrial complex." He had presided over a time of prosperity and he had avoided war, but he could not affirm that a lasting peace was in sight.

Enduring Understandings

- The U.S. policy of "independent internationalism" and economic and nonmilitary means to peace from the 1930s to the 1940s gave way to alliance building and war (ch.25)
- War had a major impact on American society as it mobilized all sectors of the economy- industry, finance, agriculture, and labor (ch.25)
- The second world war marked a turning point in the lives of Americans as prospects for international cooperation during and after the war was bleak and the atomic age was ushered in (ch.25)
- American faced disappointment in the plans for post-war peace because of an unstable economic system, unfriendly Soviet Union, and the decolonization of the third world (ch.26)
- After WWII most Americans sought satisfaction in their families and in consumer pleasures (ch.27)

Materials and Resources

Various Primary Resources
Boyer Text

Vocabulary

Vocab list for Ch. 25:
appeasement, belligerent, blitzkrieg, convoying, hegemony, embargo, braceros, Chicanos, the Holocaust, kamikaze, pogrom, Nye Committee hearings, Neutrality Acts, German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact (1939), St. Louis, Henry Wallace, Wendell L. White, the American First Committee, Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere versus Open Door policy, Hideki Tojo, Albert Einstein and the Manhattan Project, J. R. Oppenheimer, the second front, Dwight D. Eisenhower, Battle of the Bulge, Battles of the Coral Sea and Midway, Douglas MacArthur, "Rosie the Riveter," Los Angeles zoot-suit riot, Korematsu case (1944), Personal Justice Denied (1982)

Vocab list for Ch. 26:
polarization, subversion, intransigence, insurgent, oligarchy, closed shop, exacerbate, espionage, red herring, Jackie Robinson, IMF, World Bank, Bretton Woods Agreement, NATO, Warsaw Pact, National Security Council and NSC-68, Taft-Hartley Act, To Secure These Rights, House Un-American Activities, Federal Employee Loyalty Program, Smith Act and Dennis v. United States, Alger Hiss, Whitaker Chambers, Richard Nixon, Ethel and Julius Rosenberg, McCarran Internal Security Act, McCarran-Walter Immigration and Nationality Act, Adlai Stevenson

Vocab list for Ch. 27:
pragmatic, Jim Crow, oxymoron, coup, proletariat, autocratic, automation, oligopoly, conglomerates, mores, dynamic conservatism" or "modern Republicanism," Interstate Highway Act (1956), "new conservatives" or radical Right, the Warren Court, Ho Chi Minh, Vietminh, National Liberation Front, Mark I, ENIAC, Rachel Carson and Silent Spring, David Riesman and The Lonely Crowd, Michael Harrington and The Other America, Rosa Parks, Martin Luther King Jr., Montgomery bus boycott, SLCL, Native Americans and federal termination and relocation policies, NASA, National Defense Education Act (1958), rock and roll, Allen Ginsberg, Jack Kerouac, the Beats

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: WWII at Home and Abroad -- 2 Day(s)

Description

During the Great Depression, President Roosevelt had initially pursued a policy that put American economic interests above all other considerations. Roosevelt did, however, commit himself to an internationalist approach in Latin America. The last American troops were withdrawn from Haiti, and the United States lowered its profile in Panama. The United States also put pressure on the government of Cuba and negotiated a change in Mexico's oil policy. Americans watched the rise of dictators in Germany, Italy, and Japan with a sense of unwillingness to be drawn again into an international adventure. Isolationist sentiment ran high, and the Neutrality Acts passed in 1935-1937 gave legislative expression to the popular longing for peace. Roosevelt advocated adequate defenses, encouraged naval expansion, communicated constantly with world leaders, but never pushed ahead of U.S. public opinion. But that climate of opinion was shifting after the Munich pact. A number of distinguished victims of nazism found refuge in America. In January 1939 President Roosevelt submitted to Congress a $1.3 billion defense budget.

After war began in Europe, Congress lifted the Neutrality Acts' prohibition against the sale of weapons to belligerents and permitted "cash-and-carry." By the summer of 1940, Germany was in control of northern and western Europe, and the Battle of Britain had begun. In the United States, Roosevelt was reelected to an unprecedented third term. The nation instituted its first peacetime draft and increased defense spending. Congress replaced cash-and-carry with lend-lease, and after the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, war aid went to the Russians as well. American naval vessels, alth, aough neutral, became more involved in the Atlantic war.

In the Far East, Japanese troops moved from China into southeast Asia. Japanese assets in the United States were frozen, and trade with Japan was embargoed. The Japanese chose to retaliate. Pearl Harbor was bombed on December 7, 1941.

To organize the conversion of industry to war production, Roosevelt created a host of new agencies, such as the War Production Board and the National War Labor Board. The American economy boomed as the government poured more than $320 billion to defeat the Axis, and the new Office of Price Administration held down wages and prices and instituted rationing to try and stem inflation. Scientific developments were critical to the war. New and more effective ordnance, medical improvements and of course, the atomic bomb, helped usher in a new kind of war.

Through 1942 the war news from Europe and Africa was bad for the Allies. T, and the Japanese won again and again in the Pacific. In Europe, Stalin urged a second front in the west as Russians held the line at Stalingrad. Churchill persuaded Roosevelt to delay a second front and attack the Germans in North Africa. In 1943 and 1944, the Western Allies invaded Italy, launched a massive air war over Germany, and won the Battle of the Atlantic. By mid-1944 the Red Army had cleared the Germans out of the Soviet Union, and the western front opened on D-Day, June 6, 1944. In the Pacific the American strategy of island-hopping destroyed Japan's sea and air power by the end of 1944, but the Japanese continued fighting.But efforts in the United States to prepare for war moved speedily. Government agencies were created to allocate scarce materials, supervise mobilization, mediate labor disputes, and check inflation. The pace of industrial change was amazing. The nation produced more war materiel than its Axis enemies combined. Alliances were formed between industry and the military that survived the end of the war. The depression was over. Farm income was up, and full employment brought a middle-class standard of living to millions of families that had previously known privation. Union members expanded to 35 percent of the nonagricultural work force.

As never before, scientists were used to support the war effort. They produced more effective weaponry, improved blood-transfusion techniques, and developed miracle drugs like penicillin. And they built the atomic bomb.

The GIs fighting the war were transformed by the experience in a variety of ways. Some had their personal horizons broadened, others became more distrustful of foreigners, and many were left with lasting psychological as well as physical wounds. On the home front, Americans served as air-raid wardens, planted victory gardens, and organized collection drives to recycle paper, fats, rubber, and scrap metal. They purchased war bonds and, by thus reducing purchasing power, helped

control inflation. The Office of War Information served as the nation's propaganda arm. Movies, radio, comic strips, and popular music stirred patriotic emotions and emphasized the bestial nature of the enemy.

The already-mobile American people moved about because of military service and to secure new economic opportunities at the centers of war production, especially on the Pacific Coast. Serious shortages of housing and social services put severe strains on family and community life. Urban blight was a growing problem. School systems were affected as teachers and often students left for the war. Millions of women who had never before worked outside the home found employment in war industry or in the armed services. Even more dramatically, the war opened doors for black Americans. Civil-rights spokesmen in 1942 insisted that African-American support for the war hinged on America's commitment to racial justice. A threat to march on Washington led to Executive Order 8802, the first presidential directive on race since Reconstruction, establishing the Fair

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Employment Practices Committee. In addition to a rise in the proportion of African-Americans in war production, about 1 million African-American men and women served in the armed forces, mostly in segregated units commanded by white officers. Racial friction in the military was mirrored by growing racial conflict at home. Race riots broke out in New York, Detroit, and elsewhere. Growing white awareness of African-American political power and the horrors of Nazi racism caused many Americans to recognize the character of racism at home.

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Victory came in Europe on May 8, shortly after the death of Franklin Roosevelt. President Harry S Truman took a tough stance with regard to the Soviets, but when Truman, Churchill, and Stalin met at Potsdam to complete postwar arrangements, the alliance was badly frayed. On August 6 and 9, atomic bombs were dropped on Japan. The war ended on August 14.

The death and destruction of the war were monumental. At home the war had reshaped the nature of the American economy and the role and power of government. It changed family relationships and refashioned social considerations and values. And it ended American isolationism.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

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Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The Cold war -- 2 Day(s)

Description

When World War II ended in 1945, President Harry S Truman's first problems were demobilization of the armed forces and reconversion to a peacetime economy. A great boom in economic activity began in late 1946 as pent-up demand for consumer goods, a tax cut, accumulated wartime business profits, and benefits obtained by veterans fueled economic growth. With the Returning veterans has to adjust to changes not only in themselves, but in their families. The GI bills fueled a boom in education, housing, and consumer demand, not to mention babies. As the economy grew and passing of wartime price controls were dismantled, prices shot up rapidly. Inflation increased labor's demands for higher wages, and a series of strikes swept the nation. With inflation, strikes, and shortages, an angry electorate returned control of Congress to the Republicans in the 1946 midterm elections.

Antagonism between the United States and the Soviet Union grew as Soviet-dominated governments were established in Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, and Poland. President Truman was unwilling to concede Soviet supremacy beyond the borers of the U.S.S.R., and remembering Munich, he rejected any tendency toward appeasement. Truman was also concerned about American access to raw materials and markets as well as about the millions of American voters of Eastern European ancestry. The United States adopted a policy of "containment" as friction between the two powers intensified. Winston Churchill's "Iron Curtain" speech was followed by Soviet refusal to withdraw from Iran, the movement of the American Sixth Fleet to the Black Sea, and a failure to agree on control of atomic weaponry. The Cold War had begun.

In 1947 the British informed the United States that they could no longer assist Greece and Turkey against communist-supplied insurgency. The president announced his Truman Doctrine and asked Congress for military assistance for those two countries. In the same year, the United States embarked on the Marshall Plan to help the hungry and homeless of Europe. Rejected by the Russians, the plan not only gave aid to Western Europe but helped stimulate a market for American goods as well. In 1948 the U.S.S.R. established control in Czechoslovakia and blocked access from western Germany into West Berlin. The response from the United States was the Berlin airlift. In 1949 the United States entered its first peacetime military alliance, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Hostility between Moscow and Washington led also to the division of Asia into contending camps. The United States controlled the former Japanese Empire. It helped the Philippine government resist pro-communist insurgency. France reestablished colonial rule in Indochina. Communism was successful, however, in China, when in 1949, despite massive U.S. military aid, Nationalist forces were driven to the island of Taiwan. The American public was shocked again when the Soviet Union successfully exploded its first atomic bomb. By 1952 the United States had developed a hydrogen bomb, and in 1953 the Soviets did likewise. Meanwhile, in 1950, the Truman administration had determined that the Soviet challenge required a massive American military buildup.

After World War II, Korea was divided at the thirty-eighth parallel, with the North within the Soviet sphere. When in 1950 North Korea invaded South Korea, Truman responded immediately. With the U.S.S.R. absent from the U.N. Security Council, he obtained U.N. backing to repel the North Korean attack. Although nearly half the U.N. troops came from the United States, Congress was never asked for a declaration of war. The U.N. troops pushed back the invaders but did not stop at the thirty-eighth parallel, and as they moved farther north, Chinese military units entered the war. President Truman intended to continue with a policy of limited war, but General Douglas MacArthur wanted to carry the war to China. The president relieved the general of his command in 1951 despite intense public disapproval of the action. Truce negotiations dragged on for two years as U.S. defense expenditures rose to 13 percent of GNP and new bases were acquired around the world.

At home--despite pockets of poverty, especially among racial minorities--there was widespread postwar affluence. Americans flocked to suburbia, had many babies, and purchased record amounts of consumer goods. The spirit of the times was not reformist. The Eightieth Congress, elected in 1946, opposed Truman's liberal reform efforts and modified the Wagner Act of 1935 with the more restrictive Taft-Hartley Act. Truman sought to build strength among farmers, ethnic groups, and African-Americans. In response to continuing racial violence, hHe established a Committee on Civil Rights to investigate race relations

and safeguard the rights of minorities. The committee report called for anti-lynching laws and anti-poll tax legislation. Southern politicians were aghast. At the Democratic convention in 1948, southern segregationists withdrew to form the States' Rights Democratic party, the "Dixiecrats." Freed from the need to appease the segregationists on the Right, Truman took an even stronger civil-rights stand. On the Left the followers of Henry Wallace formed a new Progressive party. Despite his party's fragmentation, Truman astonished the nation by winning reelection, which he interpreted as a mandate for his Fair Deal. He asked Congress to enlarge New Deal programs in economic security, conservation, and housing, and he sought new initiatives in civil rights, national health insurance, federal aid to education, and agricultural subsidies. He had some success in preserving the New Deal, but the new initiatives failed in the face of a Republican and conservative Democratic coalition, and Truman's own preoccupation with foreign policy.

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As the Cold war evolved, an increasing number of Americans came to believe that America's foreign difficulties were rooted in disloyalty at home. A second Red Scare shook the nation. In 1947 Truman sought to root out subversives in government service. Loyalty-review boards failed to uncover evidence of subversion, but they did stimulate public apprehension about communist infiltration. By the end of Truman's term, thirty-nine states had enacted antisubversion laws and loyalty programs. In Congress the House Un-American Activities Committee blurred the distinction between dissent and disloyalty, spread fear in the entertainment industry, and caused the creation of an unofficial political blacklist. Leaders of the American Communist party were convicted of conspiring to advocate the overthrow of the government. Fears of the Red menace were intensified by revelations regarding Alger Hiss and the conviction and execution of Julius and Ethel Rosenberg. On this fertile ground appeared Senator Joseph R. McCarthy of Wisconsin, who beginning in 1950 gained great power merely by accusing others of subversion. With public apprehension at a high point and the war in Korea at a stalemate, the Republicans took the presidency in 1952. Popular war hero Dwight D. Eisenhower convinced the nation that "it's time for a change."

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: 1950s at Home -- 2 Day(s)

Description

Dwight D. Eisenhower brought to the Oval Office a spirit of moderation that fit the national mood well. During his administration social-security benefits and the minimum wage rose, and the nation undertook the construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway and a vast interstate-highway network. Senator Joseph McCarthy was still riding high in 1953, forcing the discharge of hundreds of State Department employees. During the Army-McCarthy hearings in 1954, however, the senator received a stunning rebuke. This was followed by a Senate vote of censure, and McCarthy's power was broken. Fears of subversion did not vanish, however. There were still banned books, blacklisted entertainers, and a "radical Right." The Supreme Court, now under the leadership of Chief Justice Earl Warren, defended the constitutional rights of persons accused of subversive beliefs. It determined in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka that in education separate facilities "are inherently unequal." Resistance against the Court's order to the states to desegregate their schools was intense. Many segregationists determined upon a policy of "massive resistance." Nevertheless, hope stirred among those who sought a new era in race relations. Civil-rights laws enacted in 1957 and 1960, although weak, were the first such legislation since Reconstruction.

In Korea an armistice was finally achieved in 1953 after the death of Joseph Stalin and Eisenhower's veiled threat to use nuclear weapons to break the truce-talk deadlock. Secretary of State John Foster Dulles was unsatisfied with mere "containment" and called for an offensive aimed at "liberating" the captive peoples of Eastern Europe and China. The president, however, preferred conciliation and refused to translate this rhetoric into action. The United States encircled the U.S.S.R. with military bases and alliances despite a 1955 Geneva summit and talk of "peaceful coexistence." A "new look" defense program emphasized nuclear bombs and diminished conventional forces, relying on the threat of "massive retaliation" to keep the Soviet Union in check.

The Central Intelligence Agency was established in 1947 to conduct espionage and analyze information on foreign nations. Nevertheless, it became involved in replacing the governments of Iran and Guatemala. After the failure of France to reestablish control in Vietnam, the United States made vigorous efforts to prop up the government of independent South Vietnam. In the Middle East, Egypt's seizure of the Suez Canal was met with force by England, France, and Israel. The United States did not concur, but the Eisenhower Doctrine of defending Middle Eastern nations against communist thrusts brought American assistance to Jordan and Lebanon, and intensified anti-American feelings in the Third World..

Booming prosperity made the 1950s a period of abundance without historical precedent. Government expenditures were a major source of the nation's growth and economic well-being. Government-sponsored scientific and technical research and development brought many technological breakthroughs. The long-term trend in the growth of big business accelerated. Oligopolies dominated many industries, and acquisition of overseas facilities created "multinational" enterprises. Changes in American agriculture paralleled those in American industry. Heavily capitalized big farm businesses employed sophisticated mechanical and chemical techniques to increase productivity. The role of the small farm declined as farm families departed for the cities. As in business and agriculture, consolidation transformed the labor movement. The AFL and the CIO merged, but the movement could not recapture its old militancy. Most unionized Americans, now complacent, earned decent wages and pensions.

The prosperous American public sought to satisfy its desire for goods and services. Private indebtedness ballooned as the use of the credit card joined installment buying, home mortgages, and auto loans. The exodus of white Americans to the suburbs grew along with movement from North to South and from East to West. Disaffected intellectuals criticized the conformity and consumerism of Americans and especially of middle-class suburbanites. (See "A Place in Time: Levittown, U.S.A.") The baby boom expanded the nation's educational system, made child rearing a preeminent concern, and reinforced the ideology of domesticity idea that women's proper place was in the home.

American culture at midcentury seemed wide and broad, but not deep. The quest for security and rootedness stimulated a renewed interest in religion, but the intensity of religious belief diminished for many. Education stressed adjustment and well-roundedness. The movies reflected decreased concern for social issues and glorified material success and romantic love.

Television developed with astonishing rapidity, and the networks quickly learned to compete for the largest audiences by appealing to the lowest common denominator of taste. Youth culture became a focus of public attention as adolescents experienced cultural restiveness. The media thrived on accounts of juvenile delinquency. Young people passionately embraced the new music, rock-and-roll, and the youth culture that accompanied it. Some eEducated college-age youth applauded a group of nonconformist writers known as the Beats, who scorned the competition and materialism of adult middle-class society.

Other social critics pointed out that iIn the midst of affluence lived many who did not share it. Hunger, deprivation, and racism were often the lot of those in rural backwaters and those left behind in inner cities. Frequently these were the nation's racial minorities. Some came to general public attention only when they faced especially grave difficulties. Operation Wetback sought to locate and deport illegal Mexican aliens, but U.S. citizens were sometimes entangled in the sweep. Native Americans

resisted the termination program that called for liquidation of the reservation system. In Montgomery, Alabama, African-Americans rejected Jim Crow, and after a yearlong bus boycott led by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., they achieved an integrated busing system. 1950s society was more complex and contested than the images of conformity and affluence implied.

American complacency was shattered in 1957 when the Soviet Union launched Sputnik. The nation responded by creating the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and launching several space probes of its own. Sputnik also stimulated efforts at raising educational standards. Congress passed the National Defense Education Act and poured millions into an educational effort to improve U.S. ability to compete in the Cold War.

When President Eisenhower said farewell in 1961, he warned the American people against the influence of "the military-industrial complex." He had presided over a time of prosperity and he had avoided war, but he could not affirm that a lasting peace was in sight.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

UNIT: Unit XI: The U.S. at Home and Abroad -- 7 Day(s)

Description

In 1960 Democrat John F. Kennedy won the presidency by a narrow margin. Conservative strength in Congress impeded Kennedy's "New Frontier" reform agenda, and Kennedy focused instead on liberal economic policies. National defense was strengthened by increasing America's conventional arms, and a multibillion-dollar space effort was aimed toward the moon. The economy grew, partly because business was helped by lower taxes, investment credits, and depreciation allowances. A civil-rights movement initiated lunch-counter sit-ins to protest segregated dining service. They were followed by freedom rides through the Deep South to dramatize continued segregation in interstate travel. By 1963 the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference resolved to provoke a confrontation that would fully expose the violent extremism of southern white racism.

Foreign policy was a top priority for Kennedy. He founded the Peace Corps in 1961. A crisis in Laos strengthened his resolve to limit communism. After Kennedy's first foreign-policy crisis came in 1961 with the American failure at Cuba's Bay of Pigs. , Soviet Premier Khrushchev, sensing weakness in the president, announced a peace agreement with East Germany that would imperil Western occupation rights in Berlin. When Kennedy responded vigorously, the Soviets contented themselves with signing the treaty and building the infamous Berlin Wall. A year later the Soviet Union began to construct missile bases in Cuba. The United States responded by imposing a "quarantine" and prepared to launch a military offensive. The Soviet Union backed down and removed the missiles but gained an American promise never to invade Cuba.

President Kennedy expanded Eisenhower's assistance in South Vietnam into a major commitment. Despite American aid, the South Vietnamese government was not able to win popular support and defeat the Vietcong. Kennedy would either have to use American combat forces to reverse the war or withdraw and seek a negotiated settlement. That decision was never made. On November 22, 1963, John F. Kennedy was assassinated. Seeking to prove himself as a liberal,

Lyndon B. Johnson moved to cut taxes, to pass civil-rights legislation, and to establish a number of programs that would declare "War on Poverty" and create a Great Society. The president hoped that continued economic growth would provide the United States with the necessary funds for these programs.

By 1964 the civil-rights movement had turned to the ballot box as the key to developing power among southern African-Americans. The Mississippi Summer Project of 1964, despite violence directed against its members, mounted a major campaign to register African-Americans to vote and attempted unsuccessfully to take the matter to the Democratic National Convention. The following year, determined to gain a strong voting-rights law, demonstrators in Selma, Alabama, were violently repulsed by police with clubs

and tear gas, all shown on national television. President Johnson urged passage of a Voting Rights Act that spectacularly expanded African-American suffrage in the South and transformed southern politics.

Native Americans followed the black lead in demanding full social and political rights. The nation's minority groups responded to calls for "black power," "red power," and "brown power"--slogans that signified both group pride and a rising level of militance. Black leaders like Malcolm X stirred the nation. Farm workers led by Cé ávez organized a nationwide boycott to assist grape sar Ch
pickers in California. Other Hispanic groups pressed for improvements in education, justice in land ownership, and other reforms. The rising tempo of social activism sparked by the civil-rights movement n the 1960s stirred a new self-awareness and

dissatisfaction among educated women. Inspired by Betty Friedan, feminists formed the National Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966. The more radical stimulated desire for a larger world of choices and opportunities for women.

President Johnson faced a dilemma in Vietnam. An all-out American military effort might lead to World War III. Withdrawal might merely feed the communist appetite for aggression. Trapped between unacceptable alternatives, Johnson gradually widened America's limited war. Congress passed the Tonkin Gulf Resolution authorizing the president to "take all necessary measures" to respond to what was billed as aggressive action by the North Vietnamese. After the elections of 1964, LBJ ordered sustained bombing of North Vietnam and committed a steadily growing number of American combat troops. At home opposition to the war started to mount, beginning with demonstrations on college campuses. By 1967 thousands of Americans participated in antiwar marches and demonstrations. TV coverage brought the war into American homes in all its horrifying detail. Mounting casualty figures and monetary costs deepened the war's unpopularity. The nation became increasingly polarized between "hawks" and "doves." As protests escalated, angry African-Americans and college-age youth turned to violence to hasten social change. At the same time, conservative reaction eroded support for further reform.

Disarray among the Democrats was intensified by antiwar demonstrations and their repression at the Democratic convention in Chicago. The Republicans won a narrow victory in 1968, but with third-party candidate George Wallace taken into consideration, it seemed clear that a new conservative majority had supplanted the long-dominant New Deal coalition.

President Nixon hoped to get the United States out of Vietnam and begin a new era of détente with the communist. He announced the Nixon Doctrine, redefining America's role in the Third World as helpful partner rather than military protector. Nixon understood American war weariness both at home and among the troops in Vietnam, but he was determined to achieve "peace with honor." Nixon replaced American fighting forces with South Vietnamese troops, sent Henry Kissinger to negotiate directly with the North Vietnamese, and authorized drastic escalation of American bombing--even, secretly, into neighboring Cambodia and Laos--to force the communists to compromise. In 1970 a joint American-South Vietnamese incursion into Cambodia was undertaken, widening the war and stimulating protests at home. Another North Vietnamese offensive was met by further intensified bombing. In 1973 the Paris Accords ended hostilities that had cost billions of dollars and millions of lives. Veterans returned to a cold reception in a deeply divided nation.

Armed clashes between the Soviets and the Chinese in 1969 along their common border and the disengagement of American troops from Vietnam gave Nixon an opportunity to open relations with China that might constrain Soviet influence in Asia. Nixon's visit to China in 1972 led to a resumption of diplomatic relations in 1979. Equally significant, Nixon was able to initiate the first Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT I), which led to major arms-control agreements with the Soviet Union.

In 1974 the Nixon administration shifted U.S. foreign policy from its traditional all-out support for Israel to a more evenhanded relationship with contending Middle Eastern nations. Henry Kissinger negotiated successfully with them, increased American influence in the Middle East, and brought to an end an Arab-states embargo on oil shipments to the United States and its allies that had driven up prices sharply. The Nixon administration also sought to protect American economic and strategic interests and counter Soviet influence by giving support to repressive but friendly regimes, regardless of their domestic policies, and by providing assistance in the overthrow of Chilean president Salvador Allende. American policy remained committed to containment of communist influence and to a new emphasis on negotiations with the Soviet Union for arms limitations.

At home President Nixon initially approved a moderate extension of Great Society programs. Later he sought to restrain federal spending for social services and deal with congressional effort to protect the environment. The president employed a number of tactics designed to deal with a sluggish economy and simultaneously rising inflation. The recession eased, but inflation remained a major problem. Nixon took every opportunity to dramatize his tough stand on law and order, to affirm traditional morality, and to reject radical activism. To reverse the liberalism of the Warren court, Nixon tried to fill the Court with strict constructionists.

In the election of 1972, Nixon portrayed the Democrats as radical subverters of traditional values. His opponent was George McGovern, the Senate's most outspoken dove. Nixon sought every possible vote. His operatives planned to wiretap the telephones in the Democratic National Committee headquarters in the Watergate apartment complex in Washington. Nixon carried

the election overwhelmingly, but little by little the truth about Watergate emerged. In 1973 the Senate established a special committee to investigate alleged election misdeeds. Secret audiotapes obtained from the White House revealed the degree of the president's involvement. The House Judiciary Committee began impeachment proceedings, and Richard Nixon became the first American president to resign.

The social activism of the 1960s had changed to a new mood. Some social trends and movements rooted in the 1960s survived and grew but millions of young people turned from public to private concerns that easily became self-centered materialism. Environmental consciousness was still present, and by the late 1970s it particularly targeted the nuclear power industry. One permanent legacy of the 1960s was the revitalized women's movement. The Supreme Court had recognized women's constitutional right to abortion in 1973 and many states had outlawed sex discrimination in hiring. Despite the gains, working

women's earnings still lagged behind those of men, and the workplace remained largely gender segregated. The loosening of sexual mores that had begun in the 1960s continued, until the onset of the AIDS epidemic in the 1970s made many Americans more cautious in their sexual behavior. Gay and lesbian rights groups demanded the repeal of anti-gay legislation. A conservative backlash that had also begun in the 1960s continued to gains strength. Conservative activists prevented the passage of an Equal Rights Amendment, and there was a revival of religion and spiritual questioning.

Other groups grappled with economic worries and struggles to move up the ladder. The family farm gave way to factory farms and agribusiness. Thanks to the civil-rights movement, millions of African-Americans were able to experience significant upward mobility, yet about a third of the African-American population was trapped in inner-city slums. National policy in regard to Native Americans rejected both the disastrous "termination" approach and traditional paternalism in favor of greater autonomy. A heightened sense of Native American pride promoted economic development of the reservations. Nevertheless, high rates of unemployment, alcoholism, and disease persisted. Immigration after the 1960s brought increasing numbers from Latin America and Asia. As in the past, desperate economic conditions at home propelled these newcomers to America.

In 1974 Gerald Ford assumed the presidency. To counter rising inflation, he cut federal spending and the Federal Reserve Board raised the discount rate. The result was a severe recession. In foreign affairs progress was made toward new arms-control agreements with the Soviet Union. The government of South Vietnam, which had been supported by the United States, fell in 1975.

In 1976 Democrat Jimmy Carter was elected president by a narrow margin. His political vision was unclear, and his domestic record proved thin His technocratic approach did not win widespread public support. In foreign affairs Carter made human rights a high priority, cultivated better relations with the black nations of Africa, and concluded negotiations between the United States and Panama to transfer the canal and the Canal Zone to Panama by 1999. Carter and Leonid Brezhnev of the U.S.S.R. signed the SALT II agreement, but Carter withdrew it from the Senate when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan. In the Middle East, Carter's efforts led to the signing of a formal peace treaty between Israel and Egypt, but his sheltering of Iran's shah led to a lengthy hostage crisis that nearly crippled the Carter administration. At the end of Carter's term in office, i

Inflation grew sharply worse as a second major oil crisis drove up prices. The Federal Reserve Board pushed the discount rate ever higher. With the cost of both credit and oil so high, economic activity deteriorated to "stagflation."

Meanwhile, revolution in Iran brought to power a fundamentalist Islamic ruler and the seizure in that country of more than fifty American hostages.

In 1980 Republican candidate Ronald Reagan benefited from Carter's deficiencies, growing public conservatism, and general concern about a perceived loss of American prestige in the world. The new president's economic program rested on the belief that American capitalism, if freed from heavy taxes and government regulation, would increase productivity. Congress voted dramatic cuts in the income tax. To compensate for lost revenue, Reagan proposed that spending for the nation's social programs be sharply curtailed. The immediate problem of inflation was met by a still higher discount rate. That, and a precipitous drop in world oil prices, did the job. But high interest rates brought severe recession and a more expensive dollar that reduced exports and increased the trade deficit. The federal deficit also increased as spending exceeded revenues. By 1983, however, the tax cuts, lowered interest rates, and a decline in the rate of inflation brought a rise in GNP and a decline in unemployment, although the federal deficit and the trade deficit continued to grow. The reviving prosperity, however, did not extend to many farmers, displaced industrial workers, and the inner-city poor.

Convinced that the United States had grown dangerously weak militarily, Reagan launched a massive military expansion with a strong emphasis on nuclear weapons. Opposition to the new leftist regime in Nicaragua led to organizing and financing a ten-thousand-man anti-Sandinista guerrilla army called the contras. Congress voted to halt U.S. assistance, but secret contra aid funded from private right-wing sources and foreign governments was organized from within the White House itself. In 1983 the United States conquered the West Indian island of Grenada and installed a friendly regime.

Focusing on the Soviet Union and Central America, the Reagan administration at first paid less attention to the Middle East. It was nevertheless drawn into the turmoil involving Israel, Lebanon, and the Palestine Liberation Organization. Efforts to broker an accord got nowhere, and violence ultimately claimed the lives of 239 U.S. marines in Lebanon in a terrorist attack.

The military buildup of the early 1980s and the collapse of the arms-control process stimulated fears of a growing threat of nuclear war and gave rise to antinuclear demonstrations and nuclear-freeze resolutions. In 1983 Reagan proposed the Strategic Defense Initiative, an elaborate high-tech defense against nuclear missiles. SDI, despite criticism of its cost and doubts about its effectiveness, appealed to American faith in technology.

In the 1984 election Americans enjoyed a booming economy and remembered the failures of the Carter presidency. The

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Republican campaign stressed patriotism, prosperity, and the personality of Ronald Reagan. Riding the tide of prosperity, Reagan was swept into office for a second term. The Iran Contra scandal and allegations of bribery and conspiracy did little to affect Reagan's popularity.

The social activism of the 1960s had changed to a new mood. Environmental consciousness was still present, but millions of young people turned from public to private concerns that easily became self-centered materialism. One permanent legacy of the 1960s was a revitalized women's movement. The Supreme Court had recognized women's constitutional right to abortion in 1973. Many states had outlawed sex discrimination in hiring, and an Equal Rights Amendment was nearly added to the Constitution. The Reagan administration, deeply suspicious of governmental activism on social issues, imposed budget cuts that fell especially harshly on social-welfare programs serving women and children. Immigration after the 1960s brought increasing numbers from Latin America and Asia. As in the past, desperate economic conditions at home propelled these newcomers to America. Thanks to the civil-rights movement, millions of African-Americans were able to experience significant upward mobility. On the other hand, about a third of the African-American population was trapped in inner-city slums. National policy in regard to Native Americans rejected both the disastrous "termination" approach and traditional paternalism in favor of greater autonomy. A heightened sense of Native American pride promoted economic development of the reservations. Nevertheless, high rates of unemployment, alcoholism, and disease persisted.

A dramatic easing of Soviet-American relations began early in Reagan's second term. After an arms reduction agreement concluded with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, Reagan made a historic visit to Moscow in 1988 in an atmosphere of unprecedented warmth. Even as relations with Moscow improved, the situation in the Middle East worsened and in a global context, Reagan's term ended on a note of uncertainty. Domestically Reagan compiled a mixed record. Inflation was tamed and the economy turned upward after 1983. But the federal deficit soared and the administration largely ignored social issues and environmental concerns. . In the election that year, Vice President George Bush was chosen to succeed Reagan, and it was Bush who watched the Soviet empire collapse. Noncommunist governments came to power in eastern Europe, the Berlin Wall came down, and the Baltic republics declared independence. The Cold War was over.

President Bush abandoned the policy of financing the anti-Sandinista war in Nicaragua, and the Sandinistas left office after an electoral defeat in 1990. Bush turned his attention to the flow of drugs from Latin America and ordered an invasion of Panama to capture its drug-trafficking president. The United States accepted the decision of the Philippine government to end the U.S. presence at two naval bases there. After South Africa opened negotiations with Nelson Mandela and the African National Congress, Bush ended economic sanctions against that nation. The harsh repression of dissenters in Tiananmen Square chilled relations with China but did not cause Bush to break relations. In the Middle East, however, Bush acted when Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1990. After carefully building consensus for support, Bush launched a massive air attack followed by a ground assault. Operation Desert Storm, the Gulf War, was brief, and while it drove Iraq out of Kuwait, it left in power Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein. Within a few years Saddam was resisting his promise to permit U.N. inspection of his weapons-production facilities.

On the domestic front, the economic glow of the 1980s gave way before a collapse in the savings-and-loan industry, a growing recession, and increasing hard times in the inner cities. Riots engulfed sections of Los Angeles in 1992 after a police beating of a black motorist was caught on videotape. The Bush administration compiled a mixed record on education and the environment as it failed to act decisively. George Bush's popularity in the aftermath of the Gulf War had waned by the time of the 1994 election. Billionaire businessman H. Ross Perot attracted many votes in his own right, and Bush was defeated in a three-way race by Democrat Bill Clinton.

Enduring Understandings

- By 1968, the war in Vietnam divided the American people and undermined Johnson's Great Society (ch.28)

- America ended the 1970s era of liberalism plagued by political, economic, and foreign policy crisis (ch.29)

- During the Reagan years America became both more polarized and more diverse (ch.30)

Materials and Resources
Various Primary Source Documents
Boyer Text

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Vocabulary

Vocab list for Ch. 28:
temporize, charisma, filibuster, consensus, presaged, pejorative, Greensboro and other sit-ins (1960-61), New Frontier, Clean Air Act (1963), Peace Corps, détente, J. Edgar Hoover and the FBI, Immigration Act (1965), National Endowment for the Arts and the Humanities, Thurgood Marshall, Mississippi Freedom Summer Project (1964), Malcolm X and the Black Muslims, Cesar Chavez/ Dolores Huerta and the United Farm Workers, Young Lords, the "pill", Women's Liberation

Vocab list for Ch. 29:
existentialism, Ethos, maverick, impeachment, participatory democracy, iconoclast, hedonism, monogamy, realpolitik, paranoia, dossier, baby boomers, Young Americans for Freedom, the Beatles and the Rolling Stones, George Wallace, Mayor Richard Daley versus the Yippies, Henry Kinninger, Nixon Doctrine My Lai massacre, SALT I, Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), EPA, stagflation, Daniel Ellsberg and the Pentagon Papers, Carl Bernstein and Bob Woodward, the White House "plumbers" and the Watergate break-in and cover-up, Saturday Night Massacre

Vocab list for Ch. 30:
yuppie, gentrification, evangelical, secular, malaise, insurgency, panacea, junta, Bill Gates and Microsoft, Greenpeace, Roe v. Wade, right-to-life movement and pro-choice supporters, National Organization for Women (NOW), Bakke v U.S., Immigration Reform and Control Act (1986), American Indian Movement (AIM), Love Canal, Reaganomics, Secretary of the Interior James Watt and the Sagebrush Revolution, Sandinistas versus contras, Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), nuclear freeze movement, Middle East terrorist attacks and Muammar el- Qaddafi, Mikhail Gorbachev

Unit Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: The '60s -- 2 Day(s)

Description

In 1960 Democrat John F. Kennedy won the presidency by a narrow margin. Conservative strength in Congress impeded Kennedy's "New Frontier" reform agenda, and Kennedy focused instead on liberal economic policies. National defense was strengthened by increasing America's conventional arms, and a multibillion-dollar space effort was aimed toward the moon. The economy grew, partly because business was helped by lower taxes, investment credits, and depreciation allowances. A civil-rights movement initiated lunch-counter sit-ins to protest segregated dining service. They were followed by freedom rides through the Deep South to dramatize continued segregation in interstate travel. By 1963 the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference resolved to provoke a confrontation that would fully expose the violent extremism of southern white racism. They initiated a series of demonstrations in Birmingham, Alabama, and were met by electric cattle prods, high-pressure water hoses, and attack dogs. All was shown on television news programs to a horrified nation. President Kennedy proposed a comprehensive civil-rights measure. Most members of Congress were not responsive, however, nor were they moved by the 1963 March on Washington. (See the "Place in Time" feature for Chapter 30.)

Foreign policy was a top priority for Kennedy. He founded the Peace Corps in 1961. A crisis in Laos strengthened his resolve to limit communism. After Kennedy's first foreign-policy crisis came in 1961 with the American failure at Cuba's Bay of Pigs. , Soviet Premier Khrushchev, sensing weakness in the president, announced a peace agreement with East Germany that would imperil Western occupation rights in Berlin. When Kennedy responded vigorously, the Soviets contented themselves with signing the treaty and building the infamous Berlin Wall. A year later the Soviet Union began to construct missile bases in Cuba. The United States responded by imposing a "quarantine" and prepared to launch a military offensive. The Soviet Union backed down and removed the missiles but gained an American promise never to invade Cuba.

Both sides sought a relaxation of tensions. A telephone hot line was installed between the Kremlin and the White House. A treaty was concluded outlawing the testing of nuclear weapons in the atmosphere and on the seas. Although a policy of dé tente was actively pursued, the arms race continued to escalate.

President Kennedy expanded Eisenhower's assistance in South Vietnam into a major commitment. Despite American aid, the South Vietnamese government was not able to win popular support and defeat the Vietcong. Kennedy would either have to use American combat forces to reverse the war or withdraw and seek a negotiated settlement. That decision was never made. On November 22, 1963, John F. Kennedy was assassinated. Seeking to prove himself as a liberal,

Lyndon B. Johnson moved to cut taxes, to pass civil-rights legislation, and to establish a number of programs that would declare "War on Poverty" and create a Great Society. The president hoped that continued economic growth would provide the United States with the necessary funds for these programs. This was not to be, however, as mounting expenditures for the war in Vietnam depleted resources and as a tide of black militance alienated "middle America."

Prior to Kennedy's death, civil-rights activists had begun lunch-counter sit-ins to protest segregated dining service. The sit-ins were followed by freedom rides through the Deep South to dramatize continued segregation in interstate travel. By 1963 the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference resolved to provoke a confrontation that would fully expose the violent extremism of southern white racism. They initiated a series of demonstrations in Birmingham, Alabama, and were met by electric cattle prods, high-pressure water hoses, and attack dogs. All was shown on television news programs to a horrified nation. President Kennedy proposed a comprehensive civil-rights measure. Most members of Congress were not responsive, however, nor were they moved by the 1963 March on Washington.

By 1964 the civil-rights movement had turned to the ballot box as the key to developing power among southern African-Americans. The Mississippi Summer Project of 1964, despite violence directed against its members, mounted a major campaign to register African-Americans to vote and attempted unsuccessfully to take the matter to the Democratic National Convention. The following year, determined to gain a strong voting-rights law, demonstrators in Selma, Alabama, were violently repulsed by police with clubs and tear gas, all shown on national television. President Johnson urged passage of a Voting

Rights Act that spectacularly expanded African-American suffrage in the South and transformed southern politics.

Discrimination still lingered, however. African-American unemployment stayed disproportionately high. Rage in the urban ghetto remained unassuaged. Beginning in 1965, every summer for the next several years saw urban riots. A National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders called for major changes in national policy, but President Johnson, fearful of white backlash, did not act. Frustrated with the slow pace of change, some African Americans turned to the more militant Black Power movement.

Native Americans followed the black lead in demanding full social and political rights. The nation's minority groups responded to calls for "black power," "red power," and "brown power"--slogans that signified both group pride and a rising level of militance. Black leaders like Malcolm X stirred the nation. After establishing a Declaration of Purposes at the beginning of the

decade and achieving formation of a National Council on Indian Opportunity, Native Americans adopted the civil-rights movement's tactics of direct action. Alcatraz Island was occupied for a time. The militant American Indian Movement (AIM) was created. The plight of Mexican-Americans was also brought forcefully to the nation's attention. Farm workers led by Cé á sar Ch vez organized a nationwide boycott to assist grape pickers in California. Other Hispanic groups pressed for improvements in education, justice in land ownership, and other reforms.

The rising tempo of social activism sparked by the civil-rights movement n the 1960s stirred a new self-awareness and dissatisfaction among educated women. Inspired by Betty Friedan, feminists formed the National Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966. The more radical stimulated desire for a larger world of choices and opportunities for women. wWomen's liberation movement developed the technique of "consciousness raising," called attention to male-only organizations and to discrimination against women in professional careers, established health collectives and day-care centers, founded birth control and abortion-counseling services, and demonstrated against advertisements that portrayed women as sex objects.

President Kennedy had expanded Eisenhower's assistance in South Vietnam into a major commitment. Despite American aid, the South Vietnamese government was not able to win popular support and defeat the Vietcong. After Kennedy's death,

President Johnson faced a dilemma in Vietnam. An all-out American military effort might lead to World War III. Withdrawal might merely feed the communist appetite for aggression. Trapped between unacceptable alternatives, Johnson gradually widened America's limited war. Congress passed the Tonkin Gulf Resolution authorizing the president to "take all necessary measures" to respond to what was billed as aggressive action by the North Vietnamese. After the elections of 1964, LBJ ordered sustained bombing of North Vietnam and committed a steadily growing number of American combat troops. At home opposition to the war started to mount, beginning with demonstrations on college campuses. By 1967 thousands of Americans participated in antiwar marches and demonstrations. TV coverage brought the war into American homes in all its horrifying detail. Mounting casualty figures and monetary costs deepened the war's unpopularity. The nation became increasingly polarized between "hawks" and "doves." As protests escalated, angry African-Americans and college-age youth turned to violence to hasten social change. At the same time, conservative reaction eroded support for further reform.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Vietnam and Counter-Culture -- 2 Day(s)

Description

By 1960 there were 4 million American students pursuing higher education, and in the decade that followed, the number doubled. Although most American youths of the 1960s embraced neither political nor cultural radicalism, there was an insurgent minority. In 1962 Students for a Democratic Society issued its Port Huron Statement offering a broad critique of American society. They and thousands of other students were radicalized by what they perceived as impersonality and rigidity on the campus, insensitivity in the nation's bureaucracy, materialism, racism, and above all, the escalation of the war in Vietnam in 1965. In the spring of 1968, at least forty thousand students on some one hundred campuses took part in demonstrations against war and racism. In 1969 came the March Against Death in Washington. Violence in the spring of 1970 marked the effective end of the students' movement as a political force. Demonstrations at Kent State University in Ohio and Jackson State College in Mississippi led to the death of six students. The nation, reacting with horror, revealed a deep division between those who blamed repression and those who blamed the students' lack of loyalty. The New Left went into decline, and former antiwar activists turned to other causes such as environmentalism, consumer advocacy, the anti-nuclear movement, and the women's movement. But the student radicalism of the Vietnam years had stirred the fears and resentments of many Americans whose response was growing conservatism, even as it had spurred the growth of wider public opposition to the war.

The same sense of alienation that had drawn some youths to radical politics led others to cultural rebellion. The members of this counterculture, the "hippies," rejected traditional notions of achievement and responsibility. They, experimented with drugs and listened to new forms of popular music., and scandalized the middle class with obscene language and sexual promiscuity. In 1967 a pilgrimage of "flower children" to the Haight-Ashbury district of San Francisco (see "A Place in Time" for Chapter 3129) began as a celebration of the new age. It brought in its wake drug dealers and violence.e. In 1969 nearly four hundred thousand young people gathered at Woodstock and defied the Establishment with three days of music, drugs, and sex.

Those Americans not members of the youth culture were also affected by changing mores. Increasingly explicit men's magazines were on the market. A new sexual permissiveness was made possible in part by easy access to new contraceptives such as the Pill. Gay groups argued for equal rights. The Pill made contraception easier. The Supreme Court struck down state laws limiting the right to abortion. More and more young couples chose to live together without getting married. For married couples, the divorce rate rose precipitously. Gay groups argued for equal rights. The public association of the counterculture with student protest swelled a growing tide of conservatism among many Americans.

For some Americans in the 1960s, this was sexual liberation. For most others it signaled a moral decay that encouraged growing conservatism in defense of traditional values.

The Tet offensive by the North Vietnamese early in 1968 altered the nature of the war. The American people were jolted by the size of the attack, and "hawks" declined in numbers. President Johnson determined to initiate negotiations to end the war. Moreover, he announced his decision not to run again for president. His departure left the way open for Eugene McCarthy, Robert Kennedy, and Hubert Humphrey. The nation grieved at the assassination of Kennedy as many had a few months earlier when Dr. King had been assassinated.

Disarray among the Democrats was intensified by antiwar demonstrations and their repression at the Democratic convention in Chicago. The Republicans won a narrow victory in 1968, but with third-party candidate George Wallace taken into consideration, it seemed clear that a new conservative majority had supplanted the long-dominant New Deal coalition.

President Nixon hoped to get the United States out of Vietnam and begin a new era of détente with the communist. He announced the Nixon Doctrine, redefining America's role in the Third World as helpful partner rather than military protector. Nixon understood American war weariness both at home and among the troops in Vietnam, but he was determined to achieve "peace with honor." Nixon replaced American fighting forces with South Vietnamese troops, sent Henry Kissinger to negotiate directly with the North Vietnamese, and authorized drastic escalation of American bombing--even, secretly, into neighboring Cambodia and Laos--to force the communists to compromise. In 1970 a joint American-South Vietnamese incursion into

Cambodia was undertaken, widening the war and stimulating protests at home. Another North Vietnamese offensive was met by further intensified bombing. In 1973 the Paris Accords ended hostilities that had cost billions of dollars and millions of lives. Veterans returned to a cold reception in a deeply divided nation.

Armed clashes between the Soviets and the Chinese in 1969 along their common border and the disengagement of American troops from Vietnam gave Nixon an opportunity to open relations with China that might constrain Soviet influence in Asia. Nixon's visit to China in 1972 led to a resumption of diplomatic relations in 1979. Equally significant, Nixon was able to initiate the first Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT I), which led to major arms-control agreements with the Soviet Union.

In 1974 the Nixon administration shifted U.S. foreign policy from its traditional all-out support for Israel to a more evenhanded

relationship with contending Middle Eastern nations. Henry Kissinger negotiated successfully with them, increased American influence in the Middle East, and brought to an end an Arab-states embargo on oil shipments to the United States and its allies that had driven up prices sharply. The Nixon administration also sought to protect American economic and strategic interests and counter Soviet influence by giving support to repressive but friendly regimes, regardless of their domestic policies, and by providing assistance in the overthrow of Chilean president Salvador Allende. American policy remained committed to containment of communist influence and to a new emphasis on negotiations with the Soviet Union for arms limitations.

At home President Nixon initially approved a moderate extension of Great Society programs. Later he sought to restrain federal spending for social services and deal with congressional effort to protect the environment. The president employed a number of tactics designed to deal with a sluggish economy and simultaneously rising inflation. The recession eased, but inflation remained a major problem. Nixon took every opportunity to dramatize his tough stand on law and order, to affirm traditional morality, and to reject radical activism. To reverse the liberalism of the Warren court, Nixon tried to fill the Court with strict constructionists.

In the election of 1972, Nixon portrayed the Democrats as radical subverters of traditional values. His opponent was George McGovern, the Senate's most outspoken dove. Nixon sought every possible vote. His operatives planned to wiretap the telephones in the Democratic National Committee headquarters in the Watergate apartment complex in Washington. Nixon carried the election overwhelmingly, but little by little the truth about Watergate emerged. In 1973 the Senate established a special committee to investigate alleged election misdeeds. Secret audiotapes obtained from the White House revealed the degree of the president's involvement. The House Judiciary Committee began impeachment proceedings, and Richard Nixon became the first American president to resign.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

TOPIC: Society and Politics from Ford to Bush -- 2 Day(s)

Description

The social activism of the 1960s had changed to a new mood. Some social trends and movements rooted in the 1960s survived and grew but millions of young people turned from public to private concerns that easily became self-centered materialism. Environmental consciousness was still present, and by the late 1970s it particularly targeted the nuclear power industry. One permanent legacy of the 1960s was the revitalized women's movement. The Supreme Court had recognized women's constitutional right to abortion in 1973 and many states had outlawed sex discrimination in hiring. Despite the gains, working women's earnings still lagged behind those of men, and the workplace remained largely gender segregated. The loosening of sexual mores that had begun in the 1960s continued, until the onset of the AIDS epidemic in the 1970s made many Americans more cautious in their sexual behavior. Gay and lesbian rights groups demanded the repeal of anti-gay legislation. A conservative backlash that had also begun in the 1960s continued to gains strength. Conservative activists prevented the passage of an Equal Rights Amendment, and there was a revival of religion and spiritual questioning.

Other groups grappled with economic worries and struggles to move up the ladder. The family farm gave way to factory farms and agribusiness. Thanks to the civil-rights movement, millions of African-Americans were able to experience significant upward mobility, yet about a third of the African-American population was trapped in inner-city slums. National policy in regard to Native Americans rejected both the disastrous "termination" approach and traditional paternalism in favor of greater autonomy. A heightened sense of Native American pride promoted economic development of the reservations. Nevertheless, high rates of unemployment, alcoholism, and disease persisted. Immigration after the 1960s brought increasing numbers from Latin America and Asia. As in the past, desperate economic conditions at home propelled these newcomers to America.

In 1974 Gerald Ford assumed the presidency. To counter rising inflation, he cut federal spending and the Federal Reserve Board raised the discount rate. The result was a severe recession. In foreign affairs progress was made toward new arms-control agreements with the Soviet Union. The government of South Vietnam, which had been supported by the United States, fell in 1975.

In 1976 Democrat Jimmy Carter was elected president by a narrow margin. His political vision was unclear, and his domestic record proved thin His technocratic approach did not win widespread public support. In foreign affairs Carter made human rights a high priority, cultivated better relations with the black nations of Africa, and concluded negotiations between the United States and Panama to transfer the canal and the Canal Zone to Panama by 1999. Carter and Leonid Brezhnev of the U.S.S.R. signed the SALT II agreement, but Carter withdrew it from the Senate when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan. In the Middle East, Carter's efforts led to the signing of a formal peace treaty between Israel and Egypt, but his sheltering of Iran's shah led to a lengthy hostage crisis that nearly crippled the Carter administration. At the end of Carter's term in office, i

Inflation grew sharply worse as a second major oil crisis drove up prices. The Federal Reserve Board pushed the discount rate ever higher. With the cost of both credit and oil so high, economic activity deteriorated to "stagflation."

Meanwhile, revolution in Iran brought to power a fundamentalist Islamic ruler and the seizure in that country of more than fifty American hostages.

In 1980 Republican candidate Ronald Reagan benefited from Carter's deficiencies, growing public conservatism, and general concern about a perceived loss of American prestige in the world. The new president's economic program rested on the belief that American capitalism, if freed from heavy taxes and government regulation, would increase productivity. Congress voted dramatic cuts in the income tax. To compensate for lost revenue, Reagan proposed that spending for the nation's social programs be sharply curtailed. The immediate problem of inflation was met by a still higher discount rate. That, and a precipitous drop in world oil prices, did the job. But high interest rates brought severe recession and a more expensive dollar that reduced exports and increased the trade deficit. The federal deficit also increased as spending exceeded revenues. By 1983, however, the tax cuts, lowered interest rates, and a decline in the rate of inflation brought a rise in GNP and a decline in unemployment, although the federal deficit and the trade deficit continued to grow. The reviving prosperity, however, did not

extend to many farmers, displaced industrial workers, and the inner-city poor.

Convinced that the United States had grown dangerously weak militarily, Reagan launched a massive military expansion with a strong emphasis on nuclear weapons. Opposition to the new leftist regime in Nicaragua led to organizing and financing a ten-thousand-man anti-Sandinista guerrilla army called the contras. Congress voted to halt U.S. assistance, but secret contra aid funded from private right-wing sources and foreign governments was organized from within the White House itself. In 1983 the United States conquered the West Indian island of Grenada and installed a friendly regime.

Focusing on the Soviet Union and Central America, the Reagan administration at first paid less attention to the Middle East. It was nevertheless drawn into the turmoil involving Israel, Lebanon, and the Palestine Liberation Organization. Efforts to broker

an accord got nowhere, and violence ultimately claimed the lives of 239 U.S. marines in Lebanon in a terrorist attack.

The military buildup of the early 1980s and the collapse of the arms-control process stimulated fears of a growing threat of nuclear war and gave rise to antinuclear demonstrations and nuclear-freeze resolutions. In 1983 Reagan proposed the Strategic Defense Initiative, an elaborate high-tech defense against nuclear missiles. SDI, despite criticism of its cost and doubts about its effectiveness, appealed to American faith in technology.

In the 1984 election Americans enjoyed a booming economy and remembered the failures of the Carter presidency. The Republican campaign stressed patriotism, prosperity, and the personality of Ronald Reagan. Riding the tide of prosperity, Reagan was swept into office for a second term. The Iran Contra scandal and allegations of bribery and conspiracy did little to affect Reagan's popularity.

The social activism of the 1960s had changed to a new mood. Environmental consciousness was still present, but millions of young people turned from public to private concerns that easily became self-centered materialism. One permanent legacy of the 1960s was a revitalized women's movement. The Supreme Court had recognized women's constitutional right to abortion in 1973. Many states had outlawed sex discrimination in hiring, and an Equal Rights Amendment was nearly added to the Constitution. The Reagan administration, deeply suspicious of governmental activism on social issues, imposed budget cuts that fell especially harshly on social-welfare programs serving women and children. Immigration after the 1960s brought increasing numbers from Latin America and Asia. As in the past, desperate economic conditions at home propelled these newcomers to America. Thanks to the civil-rights movement, millions of African-Americans were able to experience significant upward mobility. On the other hand, about a third of the African-American population was trapped in inner-city slums. National policy in regard to Native Americans rejected both the disastrous "termination" approach and traditional paternalism in favor of greater autonomy. A heightened sense of Native American pride promoted economic development of the reservations. Nevertheless, high rates of unemployment, alcoholism, and disease persisted.

A dramatic easing of Soviet-American relations began early in Reagan's second term. After an arms reduction agreement concluded with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, Reagan made a historic visit to Moscow in 1988 in an atmosphere of unprecedented warmth. Even as relations with Moscow improved, the situation in the Middle East worsened and in a global context, Reagan's term ended on a note of uncertainty. Domestically Reagan compiled a mixed record. Inflation was tamed and the economy turned upward after 1983. But the federal deficit soared and the administration largely ignored social issues and environmental concerns. . In the election that year, Vice President George Bush was chosen to succeed Reagan, and it was Bush who watched the Soviet empire collapse. Noncommunist governments came to power in eastern Europe, the Berlin Wall came down, and the Baltic republics declared independence. The Cold War was over.

President Bush abandoned the policy of financing the anti-Sandinista war in Nicaragua, and the Sandinistas left office after an electoral defeat in 1990. Bush turned his attention to the flow of drugs from Latin America and ordered an invasion of Panama to capture its drug-trafficking president. The United States accepted the decision of the Philippine government to end the U.S. presence at two naval bases there. After South Africa opened negotiations with Nelson Mandela and the African National Congress, Bush ended economic sanctions against that nation. The harsh repression of dissenters in Tiananmen Square chilled relations with China but did not cause Bush to break relations. In the Middle East, however, Bush acted when Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1990. After carefully building consensus for support, Bush launched a massive air attack followed by a ground assault. Operation Desert Storm, the Gulf War, was brief, and while it drove Iraq out of Kuwait, it left in power Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein. Within a few years Saddam was resisting his promise to permit U.N. inspection of his weapons-production facilities.

On the domestic front, the economic glow of the 1980s gave way before a collapse in the savings-and-loan industry, a growing recession, and increasing hard times in the inner cities. Riots engulfed sections of Los Angeles in 1992 after a police beating of a black motorist was caught on videotape. The Bush administration compiled a mixed record on education and the environment as it failed to act decisively. George Bush's popularity in the aftermath of the Gulf War had waned by the time of the 1994 election. Billionaire businessman H. Ross Perot attracted many votes in his own right, and Bush was defeated in a

three-way race by Democrat Bill Clinton.

Learning Targets

Topic Attachments

No Attachments

Learning Targets

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Student will be able to analyze the impact of the Columbian Exchange on Indians, Europeans, and Africans
Students will analyze the impact of the Mexican American War and the growing sectional crisis
Students will be able to describe key differences between political parties during the Federalist Era
Students will be able to describe the similarities and differences between various Indian tribes in America
Students will be able to discuss the shift from federalist national policies to Jeffersonian democratic philosophies on limited government and expanded republicanism
Students will be able to identify major Civil War battles, their outcomes, and the Lincoln's plan for a reunified nation
Students will be able to trace the "shaping of the American mind" in artistic, literary, and technological terms
Students will be able to trace the development of reform movements in America and describe the events leading to increased sectionalism
Students will discuss and analyze the reasons for declaring independence and the challenges facing a newly created confederacy
Students will know that English colonial societies based their religious sytems on traditional European practices
Students will know that the Compromise of 1850 failed to heal the growing rift between the North and the South
Students will know that when diverse groups of people from the British Isles settled the Eastern seaboard, they created unique cultural and social patterns
Students will know the extent to which technological changes were shaping the development and expansion of the U.S. and the impact that those changes had on various races and cultures
Students will trace the development of institutionalized slavery with regards to its political, cultural, social, and economic influence over the South
Students will understand the sequence of events that impelled the colonists to begin their struggle for independence

Standards Covered

SM.ALL.K-12.1.5	comprehend and evaluate written, visual and oral presentations and works
SM.ALL.K-12.1.6	discover and evaluate patterns and relationships in information, ideas and structures
SM.ALL.K-12.1.7	evaluate the accuracy of information and the reliability of its sources
SM.ALL.K-12.1.8	organize data, information and ideas into useful forms (including charts, graphs, outlines) for analysis or presentation
SM.ALL.K-12.1.9	identify, analyze and compare the institutions, traditions and art forms of past and present societies
SM.ALL.K-12.3.1	identify problems and define their scope and elements
SM.ALL.K-12.3.4	evaluate the processes used in recognizing and solving problems
SM.ALL.K-12.3.5	reason inductively from a set of specific facts and deductively from general premises
SM.ALL.K-12.3.6	examine problems and proposed solutions from multiple perspectives
SM.SOC.K-12.1	principles expressed in the documents shaping constitutional democracy in the United States
SM.SOC.K-12.6	relationships of the individual and groups to institutions and cultural traditions
SOC.9-12.1.A.1	Analyze the changing roles of government in the context of the historical period being studied: - philosophy - limits - duties - checks and balances - separation of powers - federalism
SOC.9-12.1.A.1	Apply the following principles of constitutional democracy to historical and contemporary issues: - checks and balances

- separation of powers
- federalism
- representation
- popular sovereignty
- due process of law
- judicial review

SOC.9-12.1.A.2 Assess the changing roles of the following:
- checks and balances
- separation of powers
- federalism

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

SOC.9-12.1.A.3	Define and explain judicial review
SOC.9-12.1.A.4	Describe the historical foundations of the United States governmental system as reflected in the following documents - Magna Carta - Enlightenment writings of Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, Montesquieu, and the Social Contract Theory - Mayflower Compact - Declaration of Independence - Articles of Confederation
SOC.9-12.1.B.1	Explain the relevance and connection of constitutional principles in the following documents: - U.S. Constitution - Federalist Papers - Amendments to Constitution, emphasizing Bill of Rights - Key Supreme Court decisions Marbury v. Madison, McCulloch v. Maryland, Miranda v. Arizona, Plessy v. Ferguson, Brown v. Topeka Board of Education
SOC.9-12.2.A.1	Explain the importance of the following principles of government within the context of US History from Reconstruction to the present: - majority rule and minority rights - constitution and civil rights - checks and balances
SOC.9-12.2.A.2	Explain the importance of the following principles of government: - limited government - majority rule and minority rights - constitution and civil rights - checks and balances - merits of the above principles
SOC.9-12.2.C.2	Evaluate the roles and influence of political parties and interest groups
SOC.9-12.3a.I.1	Analyze the evolution of American democracy, its ideas, institutions and political processes, including: - Constitution and amendments - struggle for civil rights - expanding role of government
SOC.9-12.3a.L.1	Assess the changing roles of the following: - checks and balances - separation of powers - federalism - define and explain judicial review
SOC.9-12.3a.N.1	Describe the historical development of the American economy, including: - impact of geographic factors - role of the frontier and agriculture - impact of technological change and urbanization on land, resources, society, politics and culture - changing relationships between government and the economy
SOC.9-12.3a.T.1	Describe the physical characteristics and human characteristics that make places unique - Explain how and why places change - Explain how and why different people may perceive the same place in varied ways throughout the United States since Reconstruction
SOC.9-12.3a.U.1	Distinguish major patterns and issues with regard to population distribution, demographics, settlements, migrations, and cultures in the US

SOC.9-12.3a.U.1	Distinguish major patterns and issues with regard to population distribution, demographics, settlements, migrations, and cultures in the US
SOC.9-12.3a.V.1	List and explain criteria that give regions their identities in different periods of United States history - Explain how and why regions change
SOC.9-12.3a.Y.1	Describe the changing character of American society and culture (i.e., arts and literature, education and philosophy, religion and values, and science and technology)
SOC.9-12.3a.Z.1	Analyze Missouri History as it relates to major developments of US History including - Exploration and settlement - Mid 1800s (conflict and war) - Urbanization, industrialization, post-industrial societies
SOC.9-12.5.C.1	Describe physical characteristics and human characteristics that make specific places unique

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

SOC.9-12.5.C.2	Explain how and why places change
SOC.9-12.5.C.3	Explain how and why different people may perceive the same place in varied ways
SOC.9-12.5.D.1	Distinguish major patterns and issues with regard to population distribution, demographics, settlements, migrations, cultures and economic systems in the United States and world
SOC.9-12.5.F.1	List and explain criteria that give regions their identities in different periods of United States history
SOC.9-12.5.F.2	Explain how and why regions change
SOC.9-12.6.K.1	Compare and contrast the major ideas and beliefs of different cultures
SOC.9-12.6.L.1	Analyze how the roles of class, ethnic, racial, gender and age groups have changed in society, including causes and effects
SOC.9-12.6.M.1	Describe the major social institutions (family, education, religion, economy and government) and how they fulfill human needs
SOC.9-12.6.N.1	Predict the consequences that can occur when: - institutions fail to meet the needs of individuals and groups - individuals fail to carry out their personal responsibilities
SOC.9-12.6.N.1	Predict the consequences that can occur when: - institutions fail to meet the needs of individuals and groups - individuals fail to carry out their personal responsibilities
SOC.9-12.6.O.1	Determine the causes, consequences and possible resolutions of cultural conflicts
SOC.9-12.7.A.1	Distinguish between and analyze primary sources and secondary sources
SOC.9-12.7.C.1	Distinguish between fact and opinion and analyze sources to recognize bias and points of view
SOC.9-12.7.F.1	Interpret maps, statistics, charts, diagrams, graphs, timelines, pictures, political cartoons, audiovisual materials, continua, written resources, art and artifacts

Primary Standards Targeted

Mehlville School District

Advanced Placement U.S. History

Social Studies

Grades 11 - 12, Duration 1 Year, 1 Credit

Course Audit Trail

Course Last Updated by: AMANDA ZINK on 01/10/2019 02:41 PM