

The Teacher Notes were developed to help teachers understand the depth and breadth of the standards. In some cases, information provided in this document goes beyond the scope of the standards and can be used for background and enrichment information. Please remember that the goal of social studies is not to have students memorize laundry lists of facts, but rather to help them understand the world around them so they can analyze issues, solve problems, think critically, and become informed citizens. **Children’s Literature:** A list of book titles aligned to the 6th-12th Grade Social Studies GSE may be found at the Georgia Council for the Social Studies website: <http://www.gcss.net/uploads/files/Childrens-Literature-Grades-6-to-12.pdf>

TEACHER NOTES

United States History

SSUSH1- Compare and Contrast the development of English settlement and colonization during the 17th century.

The settlement of permanent English colonies in North America, beginning with Jamestown in 1607, further cemented the development of an already emerging and complex Atlantic World. The convergence of North American, South American, European, and African peoples in the western hemisphere was a complicated mix of conquest, trade, and religious mission. Spanish, French, and English colonies existed simultaneously in North America, each with different objectives and different approaches to the American Indians they encountered. Likewise, differences among the thirteen English colonies existed in terms of their founding purposes, interaction with American Indians, and economic development. England’s various North American colonies were, however, united under their mother country’s strong focus on extracting colonial resources through mercantilism and trans-Atlantic trade even though this objective did not always align with the colonists’ growing desire for economic, religious, and political autonomy.

Emphasis should be placed on the regional geographic, economic, religious, and political differences that existed between England’s Southern, Mid-Atlantic, and New England colonies.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #1 - “Colonization & Settlement, 1585-1763”
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/colonization-and-settlement-1585-1763>
2. **Digital History: Using New Technologies to Enhance Teaching and Learning** is a resource created by the University of Houston’s History Department and College of Education. Inquiry learning modules, documents, lessons, maps, cartoons, and video are compiled by historical era for teachers.
<http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/index.cfm>

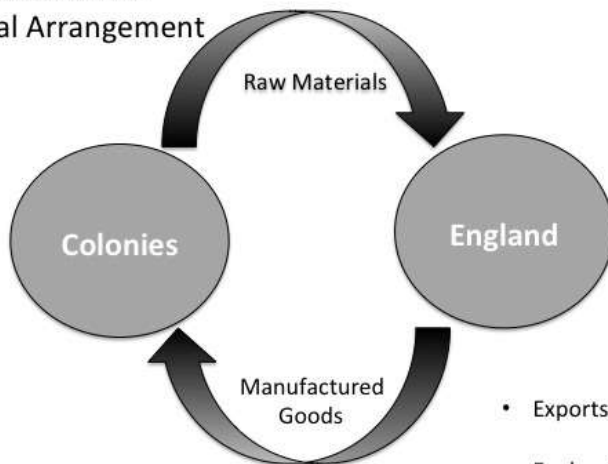
SSUSH1 – Compare and Contrast the development of English settlement and colonization during the 17th century.

a. Investigate how mercantilism and trans-Atlantic trade led to the development of colonies.

Although many English colonists came to North America searching for religious or political opportunity, it was economic opportunity that fueled the ambition of other English colonists, as well as, their mother country. Investors sought financial returns for their colonial ventures. England sought to extract resources from North America in order to compete with their European rivals for wealth and power. By the 1650s, England was heavily entrenched in trans-Atlantic trade based on mercantilism.

Mercantilism is an economic theory based on reducing a country's imports while expanding its exports in order to maximize wealth. In the highly competitive European world of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, wealth equated to power. Thus, mercantilism inspired European governments, including England, to promote American colonies as sources of raw materials not readily available in the mother country. Some of the most important resources England plucked from its colonies included lumber, sugar, wool, tobacco, rice, and indigo. These raw materials were then used in England to produce manufactured goods for export to other European countries and back to the colonists in North America.

**Mercantilism
Colonial Arrangement**



- Exports > Imports
- England Prospers
- Colonies exist to enrich England – not to prosper themselves

Diagram Created by Rhonda Webb

A favorable trade balance resulted for England in the colonial arrangement. Raw materials that were scarce in England were acquired from their colonial possessions. Simultaneously, the colonies were a ready market for the manufactured products produced in England from the raw materials. The trans-Atlantic trade

network that resulted led to various colonial labor arrangements and restrictive policies to ensure England maximized its mercantilist potential.

England implemented a series of **Navigation Acts** in the mid-1600s to ensure a favorable trade arrangement with the colonies. The laws were designed to keep England's own colonies from competing with their mother country by mandating three fundamental criteria for trans-Atlantic trade. First, all goods shipped to or from English North America had to travel on English ships. Second, any goods being imported to the colonies from Europe had to first be processed through an English port.

And third, most colonial resources could only be exported to England. The Navigation Acts restricted the profits colonists could receive for their products, hindered the development of large scale manufacturing in the colonies, and forced colonists to pay high prices for goods they were only allowed to purchase from England. One positive effect of the Navigation Acts on the colonies was the emergence of ship building as a viable industry in New England. Since the Navigation Acts required all goods to travel on English ships, there was an instant demand for more ships to be built from the lumber readily available in North America. Another effect of the Navigation Acts was increased smuggling of goods into North America by colonists who sought their own lucrative trade practices- regardless of legality.

A good document to use with students concerning the reasons for England's interest in colonizing North America is Richard Hakluyt's 1584 essay, *Discourse of Western Planting*. Excerpts from this document have been compiled by the National Humanities Center and can be accessed at



<http://nationalhumanitiescenter.org/pds/amerbegin/exploration/text5/hakluyt.pdf> .

England's trans-Atlantic trade flourished under the mercantilist system. **Trans-Atlantic trade**, sometimes referred to as Triangular Trade, often took a three step voyage around the Atlantic rim. First, English ships loaded with rum, cloth, and other manufactured goods sailed to Africa, where they were traded for Africans as part of the slave trade. Then, in the Middle Passage (discussed further in SSUSH2), the slaves were transported on a brutal voyage to the Americas and sold there as a forced labor commodity to colonial landowners. The third step of the journey transported American raw materials to England to be made into the manufactured goods that would start the cycle again.

[Illustration of Triangular Trade model](#)



[Indenture between Patrick Larkin and Thomas Blood, 17 August 1766, Virginia](#)

Colonial labor was critical for the production of materials England needed for a profitable mercantilist system. Labor needs were first filled through the use of **indentured servants** and then later by permanently enslaved Africans. Indentured servants were typically lower class Englishmen who could not afford to pay for the voyage to North America but saw life in the colonies as an opportunity for economic advancement they would otherwise never have in England. Indentured servants worked for a land owner in exchange for their passage to North America. The land owner obtained labor and the indentured servant obtained the future opportunity to own land after working off their debt over a period of approximately four to seven years.

Tensions began to develop over the continual need to

supply land to newly freed indentured servants. African slaves were introduced as a labor source beginning in 1619 (discussed in SSUSH2). Eventually, plantation owners came to rely on African slaves as a more profitable and renewable source of labor.

England developed resource-producing colonies in North America primarily to fuel mercantilism and to amass wealth and power over their European rivals. The resulting trans-Atlantic trade system was regulated through Navigation Acts and led to various labor sources being used by colonists to meet the resource demands of England.

Resources:

1. **From Raw Materials to Riches: Mercantilism and the British North American Colonies** is a simulation lesson produced by the Federal Reserve Bank's Educational Resources division. Students interpret primary sources through simulation in order to better evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the mercantilist policies used by England in the colonies.
<https://www.stlouisfed.org/education/mercantilism-and-the-british-north-american-colonies>

SSUSH1 – Compare and Contrast the development of English settlement and colonization during the 17th century.

- b. Explain the development of the Southern Colonies, including but not limited to reasons established, impact of location and place, relations with American Indians, and economic development.

The **Southern Colonies** included Virginia, Maryland, Carolina (which eventually split into North Carolina and South Carolina), and Georgia. The location of the Southern Colonies, with the region's rich soil and long growing season, fostered the development of strong agricultural producing colonies. Deep



Fall Line Map

rivers and the distance of the fall line from the coast meant that inland farmers were able to ship tobacco, indigo, corn, and rice directly from their farms to European markets. The economic development of the Southern Colonies reflected this geological line. Subsistence family farms tended to develop north of the fall line. These farms grew primarily what the family needed along with a small cash crop used to purchase or barter for goods such as salt, gunpowder, lead, and iron tools. Commercial farms tended to develop south of the fall line and grew primarily high yield, labor intensive cash crops such as rice, tobacco, and indigo. As a result, slave labor was more common south of the fall line while less common north of the same line.

Relations with American Indians in the Southern Colonies began somewhat as a peaceful coexistence. As more English colonists began to arrive and encroach further into native lands, the relationship became more violent. The complexity of the interactions with American Indians in the Southern Colonies grew as the region's economic development grew. Once large scale cash crops of tobacco, rice, and indigo proved highly profitable in the mercantilist system, more colonists arrived seeking economic opportunity. The growing English population in the Southern Colonies required more of the American Indians' land for crop cultivation, which fueled increased tension between the groups.

Teachers may choose to use the following content concerning the development of specific Southern Colonies as examples to frame the components of this element for students. However, students are not responsible for the specific information that follows.



Virginia

The first permanent English colony in North America was founded in 1607 at **Jamestown**, Virginia. The establishment of Jamestown was a business venture of London's **Virginia Company**, a

joint-stock company, which raised capital for the expedition to America by selling shares of company stock to investors. Once financed by investors, the Virginia Company planned to send colonists to find gold and other valuable natural resources in America. The spoils would be sent back to England to pay off investors and make a handsome profit. The Virginia Company was granted a royal charter by King James I in 1606. The full text of the **Virginia Charter** may be accessed from Yale University's Avalon Project (http://avalon.law.yale.edu/17th_century/va01.asp). The charter gave the Virginia Company the authority to govern and settle the North American colony in the name of England. There were 104 settlers who arrived to settle Jamestown in 1607.

Initially, the colony suffered mightily. Disease, famine, and Indian attacks all hindered the Jamestown

[Aerial View of Jamestown Settlement by National Park Service Artist Sydney King](#)

settlement from fulfilling the Virginia Company's vision for the colony. The colony was planted along the James River, which bred deadly diseases such as malaria and dysentery. A lack of leadership also caused the colonists to be unprepared to sustain themselves through the first winter. Food and shelter had not been the priority for the wealth seeking early colonists to Jamestown.

Captain John Smith eventually took forceful control of the colony, mandating much needed discipline to the remaining colonists. His famous order, "He that will not work will not eat," encouraged more farming and the construction of a better fortification. Smith was not always popular among the settlers, but his brand of leadership helped save the fledgeling settlement. Primary documents from Captain Smith's voyage and leadership in Jamestown can be accessed through the Library of Congress's Classroom Materials Collection, "The English Establish a Foothold at Jamestown, 1606-1610" (<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/presentationsandactivities/presentations/timeline/colonial/jamestown/>).

Tobacco production was another development that helped to save the Jamestown colony and make it more lucrative. **John Rolfe**, who later married the American Indian princess **Pocahontas**, arrived in Jamestown in 1610 from the Caribbean. He experimented with tobacco seeds to produce a crop that became very desirable in Europe. Having survived the starving time of Jamestown's early

years and secured the financial importance of the colony with tobacco production, Virginia emerged as a critical component of England's mercantilist system.

The relationship between English settlers at Jamestown and the area's American Indians was complex. **Chief Powhatan** was the principal leader of all the Powhatan tribes in the Chesapeake Bay region when the English settlers arrived in 1607. Powhatan was wary of the Jamestown colonists but maintained primarily a peaceful coexistence with the desperate Englishmen during their first few years in North America. The natives provided much needed corn during the lean winter months and there were only minor skirmishes between the colliding cultures in Virginia.



[Pocahontas](#)
[1624](#)

John Rolfe's arrival in Jamestown changed many aspects of the colony. Accounts of Rolfe's marriage to Chief Powhatan's daughter, Pocahontas, differ dramatically between the English version of a consensual marriage and the American Indian version of the story that depicts a kidnapping and forced marriage. Regardless of the circumstances of the marriage, the relationship between the Englishmen and Virginia's American Indians declined rapidly as more settlers arrived to seek fortune in tobacco cultivation. The increased number of settlers took greater amounts of land from the Powhatans. The death of Chief Powhatan, who had remained relatively peaceful with the Englishmen, also

marked a change in the relationship Jamestown had with the region's American Indians. Powhatan's brother, Opechancanough, came to power in 1618 and subsequently launched large scale attacks on the quickly growing English colony.

Maryland

In 1632, King Charles I granted **Lord Baltimore** proprietary rights to land in the Chesapeake Bay region to plant a colony. The land was a reward for the noble's service to the king. The resulting colony of **Maryland** was settled initially as a haven for Catholics who were being persecuted by Protestants. Because the Chesapeake Bay region was fertile ground for tobacco production, similar to land in neighboring Virginia, Maryland's Catholics were quickly outnumbered in their own colony. In an effort to preserve the rights of Catholics in Maryland, the Lord Baltimore quickly had the **Act of Toleration** passed in the Maryland legislative assembly. This colonial law guaranteed religious freedom in Maryland to all Christians – Protestant and Catholic. Maryland's 1649 Act of Toleration can be accessed through Yale University's Avalon Project

http://avalon.law.yale.edu/18th_century/maryland_toleration.asp

As was true in Virginia, Maryland became a lucrative colony for tobacco production even though its initial purpose was religious in nature. The colony's location, which was conducive to agriculture, was more influential in its development than the plans of the proprietor.

Carolina (North and South)

The Carolina colony was originally a single proprietary colony located between Virginia and Spanish Florida. The land was given in 1663 to eight nobles who had helped Charles II reclaim the monarchy from Oliver Cromwell in what is known as the Restoration. The eight nobles who were given Carolina were referred to as the **Lord Proprietors** of the vast colony.

Location impacted the development of the Carolina colony as it had the other Southern Colonies of Virginia and Maryland. Southern Carolina along the coast became a great producer of rice and indigo on large commercial plantations. The city of **Charleston** in the southern Carolina colony was a transportation hub for exporting the valuable cash crops. Northern Carolina, above the fall line, had a different soil and climate, which did not lend itself as readily to rice and indigo cultivation. Instead, the farmers in the northern region of the colony developed small tobacco farms. The Carolina Colony was officially divided in 1712 after the wide ranging single colony proved too difficult to manage. South Carolina, with its valuable Charleston based resources, was then taken from the proprietors by the king and made a royal colony in 1719. Later, in 1729, the proprietors sold their shares of North Carolina to the Crown making it too a royal colony.



[Changes to the Carolina Colony](#)

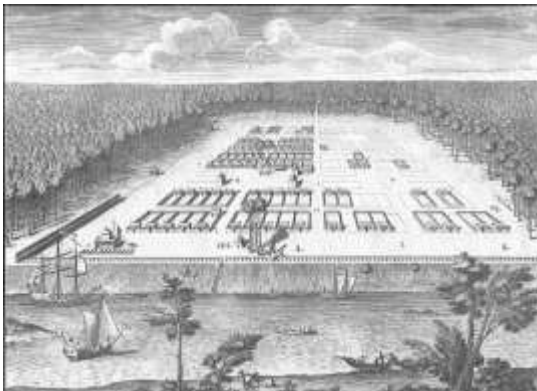
Georgia

Georgia was the last English colony established in North America prior to the Revolutionary War. In 1732, Georgia was created by England for two purposes. First, and foremost, England wanted to create a defensive buffer between the dangerous Spaniards in Florida and the increasingly valuable South Carolina plantations and Charleston port. The second purpose was to reduce the number of debtors crowding London jails by sending many of them to the new Georgia colony for a fresh start and to provide defense of South Carolina.

General James Oglethorpe and the twenty trustees who were given the charter for Georgia regulated the colony and its inhabitants with strict rules. The trustees' list of rules for Georgia can be accessed by the Library of Congress's Classroom Materials website for the Georgia Colony.

<https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/colonial-settlement-1600-1763/georgia-colony-1732-1750/>

Land holdings were limited in size to small farms, slavery was banned, and alcohol prohibited. The trustees believed the strict limits on land holdings would prevent the wide economic stratification of



[View of Savannah, 1734](#)

the population that had developed in Carolina. After the original wave of settlers established the colony at Savannah under Oglethorpe and the trustees' strict guidance, greater resistance to the rules developed over time. The Georgia colonists wanted greater autonomy and local legislative participation that settlers of the other twelve colonies enjoyed. By the 1740s, the trustees had given in to most of the Georgia colonists' demands.

Resources:

1. **Historic Jamestown** provides background information on the settlement of the Virginia colony and the primary individuals involved in the early period. The site also gives updated archaeological analysis of the site. <http://historicjamestowne.org>
2. **Library of Congress Primary Source Set Jamestown-** is a compilation of critical documents and images from the founding of Jamestown. A teacher’s guide and primary source analysis sheets offer teachers valuable background information and suggestions for teaching about Jamestown. <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/primarysourcesets/jamestown/>
3. **Library of Congress Primary Source Set Georgia** – is a compilation of critical documents related to James Oglethorpe’s founding of the Georgia colony. The site provides a good overview of Georgia’s creation in addition to the primary source documents. <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/presentationsandactivities/presentations/timeline/colonial/georgia/>

SSUSH1 – Compare and Contrast the development of English settlement and colonization during the 17th century.

- c. Explain the development of the New England Colonies, including but not limited to reasons established, impact of location and place, relations with American Indians, and economic development.

The New England Colonies (Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire) were marked by poor, thin, rocky soils and a relatively short growing season that made farming difficult. However, plentiful forests and proximity to the sea led New Englanders to eventually develop a thriving ship building industry. Fishing, whaling, and commercial trade from harbors such as Boston became important economic engines for the region. New Englanders became the merchants of the colonies and New England-based ships were the carriers of colonial goods in the trans-Atlantic trade.

Whereas England’s Southern Colonies were developed for primarily economic gain, the New England Colonies developed initially as religious outposts by various subjugated groups. In particular, Calvinists in England faced increased persecution for their desire to reform the Anglican Church (also known as the Church of England) and their opposition to the growing power of the English monarchy. These religious dissenters, known as Puritans, disagreed with the Protestant Anglican Church’s continued use of Catholic rituals and traditions. The Puritans wanted to “purify” their Protestant sect of its heavily entrenched Catholic features. Although the Puritans came to North America for religious reasons, they were not religiously tolerant of those who did not fully comply with their views of religion.

American Indians were viewed by the Puritans as needing to be saved from their sinful ways since they were not Christians. In the early years of English colonization, the relationship between the American Indians and the Puritans was based primarily on trade and diplomacy given that the Englishmen were greatly outnumbered. The Puritans did not openly embrace the American Indians but relied on them for help in the difficult early years for survival. As the English population increased, so did the conflict with natives of the area. A series of bloody wars (King Philip’s War and the Pequot Wars) ensued during the colonial period between the Puritans and the American Indians of New England.

Teachers may choose to use the following content concerning the development of specific New England Colonies as examples to frame the components of this element for students. However, students are not responsible for the specific information that follows.

Anglican Church Conflict Leads Puritians to Colonize New England

There were two types of Puritans – separatist Puritans and non-separatist Puritans. The separatist Puritans, also known as Pilgrims, were no longer interested in simply reforming the Anglican Church. Instead, the Pilgrims planned to organize a completely “separate” church without the King’s influence- hence the name separatist Puritans. The non-separatist Puritans, or simply Puritans, wanted the Anglican Church to “purify” itself of what they saw as problematic Catholic traditions. They wanted to remain part of the Anglican Church if it could become the truly Protestant faith it claimed to be.

Using their influence and wealth, the Puritan leadership was able to acquire a majority share in a trading company. Using the trading company as a front, the Puritans moved the headquarters of the London Company of Plymouth to Massachusetts. Afterwards, many Puritans and their families immigrated to the American colonies in order to escape persecution. Thus, the New England Colonies were established by separatist Pilgrims at Plymouth in 1620 and the non-separatist Puritans at Massachusetts Bay in 1630. Like the Virginia colonists, the New England settlers had similar problems acclimating to their new environment and suffered substantial losses in the early years. Eventually in 1691, Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay colonies were combined into one Massachusetts colony.

Plymouth Colony



[Famous Painting of the Mayflower Compact Signing](#)

The Pilgrims set sail on the *Mayflower* in 1620, with approximately 100 passengers, headed for Virginia. After a storm blew them off course, their landing on the North American coast was a few hundred miles north of their intended destination. The group decided to stay in the undeveloped area and create a new colony called Plymouth. Before disembarking the *Mayflower*, the Pilgrims created and signed the **Mayflower Compact**. The document is important in the study of the early colonial period in that it was a pledge by the colonists to govern

themselves through majority rule. This is a good document to use with students to analyze who signed the document and why it was necessary. http://avalon.law.yale.edu/17th_century/mayflower.asp

Massachusetts Bay Colony

A group of about 1000 non-separatist Puritans were led by **John Winthrop** on their voyage to North America. They established the Massachusetts Bay colony near present-day Boston. While crossing the Atlantic, Winthrop set the tone for the Puritan colonists in his famous “Model of Christian Charity” speech, which is often referred to as the “**city upon a hill**” speech. He challenged Puritans to work as hard as they possibly could to make the new colony thrive since the world would be watching to

see if they were successful. Essentially, their ability to prosper as a colony through hard work would prove their devotion to God and be a symbol to the world. Any person who was not completely committed to the overall success of the colony would not be allowed to remain.

Strict Puritan rules and an essential work ethic resulted from Winthrop's pivotal speech to the colonists. Excerpts from this speech are also effective in helping students understand why the Puritans were so regimented in their governing of Massachusetts Bay. This link to the Ashbrook Center at Ashland University provides a good summary of Winthrop's "Model of Christian Charity" speech along with the full document text <http://teachingamericanhistory.org/library/document/a-model-of-christian-charity/>

The Puritans tightly controlled the political and social structure of the community. Communities were run using town meetings. Voting rights were limited to men who belonged to the church, and church membership was tightly controlled by each minister and congregation. Towns were run as direct democracies with each voting member having a direct role in the administration of government. The church was the central force in governing the community. As a result of their strict religious beliefs, the Puritans were not tolerant of religions that differed from their own. Frequently, those who disagreed with Puritan ideology and practices were banished from the colony (see Rhode Island below).

In England, the monarchy was restored to power in 1660. The Crown decided to assert control over semi-independent Massachusetts. In 1686, King Charles II canceled the Massachusetts Charter. To get more control over trade with the colonies, James II (who followed Charles II as King of England) combined colonies throughout New England into a single territory, the Dominion of New England. James appointed his own governor, Sir Edmund Andros, to be the administrator of the Dominion and govern it as a royal colony. The colonists greatly disliked this centralized authority and overthrew the royal governor. Events in England led to the dissolution of the Dominion of New England, but Massachusetts remained a royal colony.

Political turmoil may have been a factor in one of the most notorious incidents in colonial American history. In 1692, the **Salem Witch Trials** took place. The incident began when three girls, ill with symptoms including convulsions and "fits," accused several local residents of using witchcraft to cause the illness. The hysteria spread and led to over 150 Massachusetts colonists being accused of witchcraft. Of the 150 accused, 29 were convicted and 19 hanged. At least six more people died in prison. Contributing causes of the Salem Witch Trials included extreme religious faith, stress from a growing population, deteriorating relations with American Indians, and the narrow opportunities for women and girls to participate in Puritan society.



[The Witch No. 1 \(Library of Congress\)](#)

Initially, relations with the American Indians living in the coastal regions of New England were cordial. Each side engaged in a profitable exchange of trade goods. However, as the English colony grew in size, so did the tension between the Puritans and Native Americans. **King Philip's War** (1675-1676) was an early and bloody conflict between English and regional American Indian tribal groups. King

Philip, or **Metacom**, was the regional leader of the American Indians. The conflict originated as the Puritan community spread out from Boston and took more land from the natives. Additionally, some tribal members had converted to Christianity disrupting traditional political and cultural ties among the region's tribes. Many colonists died in the war, but it also caused a heavy loss of life among the American Indian population. As a result, large areas of southern New England were opened to English settlement.

Rhode Island

The Puritans did not tolerate people in their colony who ran afoul of the church's teachings and rules. Banishment from the colony was a common action taken against those who did not uphold the Puritan ideals. **Roger Williams** was a Puritan minister who faced banishment when his teachings emphasized the limitations of the church to control an individual's conscience. Once forced out of the colony, Williams left Boston with a few supporters and settled a new colony to the south on the Narragansett Bay. **Providence**, in the new Rhode Island colony, was founded by Williams in 1636. Two unique characteristics of the Rhode Island colony were 1) American Indians were treated more respectfully and they were paid for their land and 2) true religious toleration was practiced in the colony. Colonists were allowed to practice any religion in Rhode Island.



[Anne Hutchinson on Trial,
1637](#)

Anne Hutchinson was another colonist who was banished from Massachusetts. As a female who challenged the Puritan ministerial leadership, Hutchinson was brought to trial. She defended herself at trial against the famed John Winthrop. Although Hutchinson defended herself in an impressive manner, she was ultimately forced from the colony. She, too, fled to Rhode Island with her family.

The National Park Service offers a good lesson to analyze the writings of Roger Williams concerning the free exercise of religion, which became a basic tenet for the future United States. In the lesson, accessible from the link below, students compare Williams' essay "The Bloody Tenet of Persecution for Cause of Conscience" with the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights.

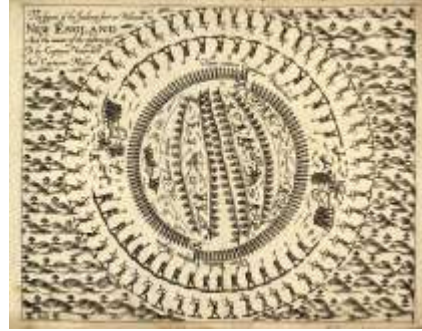
<https://www.nps.gov/common/uploads/teachers/lessonplans/Roger%20Williams%20Bloody%20Tenant.pdf>

Connecticut

Another group of Puritans left Massachusetts Bay in 1636. **Thomas Hooker** was a Puritan minister who differed with the church over the colonists' individual participation in governing. Massachusetts was governed by the church's leadership and Hooker's ideas challenged the hierarchy. Hooker and his followers established the new colony at Hartford, west of Rhode Island. The newly organized colony made a significant contribution to the foundation of the future United States when it

drafted America's first written constitution, ***The Fundamental Orders of Connecticut*** in 1639. The document established a representative government led by a popularly elected legislature and a governor chosen by that legislature. The document can be accessed through Yale University's Avalon Project link http://avalon.law.yale.edu/17th_century/ct01.asp

Connecticut was also the site of the very bloody **Pequot War** with the area's American Indians in 1637. The English settlers to Connecticut won a decisive, yet controversial, battle at Mystic Fort. The war resulted in over 400 Pequot men, women, and children being killed when the fort was attacked and burned by colonists.



[Massacre at Mystic](#)
[\(Library of Congress\)](#)

New Hampshire

Originally a portion of the Massachusetts Bay colony, the small settlements in the north eventually formed their own New Hampshire colony in 1679. The region had become somewhat more religiously diverse than the strict Puritan settlement of Massachusetts Bay.

Resources:

1. **Massachusetts Historical Association** - provides a wide variety of resources for teachers. Online resources and catalogued documents span the history of Massachusetts.
<https://www.masshist.org>
2. **Pilgrim Hall Museum** – is an organization that has worked to preserve the history of Plymouth Colony since 1820. The website gives teachers access to background information on the pilgrims, primary documents, and lessons to use with students.
<https://www.pilgrimhall.org/>
3. **Salem Witch Trials Documentary Archive and Transcription Project**- is operated by the University of Virginia. The site contains access to documents, maps, and educational resources.
<http://salem.lib.virginia.edu/home.html>

SSUSH1 – Compare and Contrast the development of English settlement and colonization during the 17th century.

d. Explain the development of the Mid-Atlantic Colonies, including but not limited to reasons established, impact of location and place, relations with American Indians, and economic development.

The Dutch established the North American colony of **New Netherland** in 1614. The colony, held by one of England’s European rivals, was founded as a private money-making venture by the Dutch. Trade was centered around New Netherland’s port of **New Amsterdam** (present day New York City). The Dutch colony’s location between England’s Southern and New England colonies in North America made it attractive for English annexation. England did seize control of New Netherland from the Dutch in 1664. New Netherland’s governor, Peter Stuyvesant, negotiated the colony’s transfer to English control without much resistance. The Mid-Atlantic colonial region is noted for its significant cultural and religious diversity due to its unique transition to England as an already established colony.

The English **Mid-Atlantic Colonies** (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware) that were created from the previous Dutch New Netherland colony were geographically fortunate to have good harbors and river systems that significantly shaped their development. The Hudson and Delaware Rivers provided highways to the interior of North America. Furs acquired from American Indians through trade for European goods, such as iron tools and firearms, were transported toward the coast along swift rivers. Later, the region’s farmers were able to use the rivers to ship wheat and other agricultural goods to markets in other colonies and Europe. The rivers also provided the colonists of the mid-Atlantic region with access to manufactured goods imported from European markets. Harbors in cities such as Philadelphia and New York City allowed the Mid-Atlantic Colonies to grow into major commercial hubs for all of England’s American colonies.



[English Middle Colonies Created from New Netherland](#)

American Indians of two major language groups, Algonquian and Iroquois, resided in England’s Mid-Atlantic Colonies. The natives who resided there were typically relied upon for trade with the English and not the target of war, as was often the case in the other English colonial regions. Pennsylvania, in particular, treated the American Indians with more respect as evidenced by William Penn’s insistence on compensating the natives for their land.

The Mid-Atlantic Colonies geographic position united the American coast line under English control. Economically, the region’s colonies developed into strong merchant centers similar to their New England neighbors to the north. However, the Mid-Atlantic Colonies also farmed significant

quantities of wheat and corn, similar to the cash crop production of their southern neighbors. The Mid-Atlantic Colonies were truly a bridge between the large scale farmers of the Southern Colonies and the merchants of the New England Colonies due to the geography and climate of the mid-Atlantic region.

Teachers may choose to use the following content concerning the development of specific Mid-Atlantic colonies as examples to frame the components of this element for students. However, students are not responsible for the specific information that follows.

New York

King Charles II gave the recently acquired New Netherland colony to his brother James, the Duke of York, as a proprietary colony in 1664. The colony and port were renamed New York in honor of the new proprietor. The original settlers from the previous Dutch colony were allowed to remain in residence, speak their own languages, and worship as they pleased. Thus, the cultural and religious diversity of New York was preserved. The colony and New Amsterdam continued to grow as a leading trade center. Colonial maps of New York City reflect some elements still found in the modern layout



[Colonial Map of New York City](#)

Broad Way

Wall Street

of the city. Wall Street, location of the United States' modern financial center, was literally a twelve-foot wall that ran the width of Manhattan Island during the colonial period. The wall's purpose was to keep the natives out of the settlement at the tip of the island. Broad Way is another well known modern street in New York City today that was also prominent in the colonial New York settlement. The modern city plan of gridded streets and avenues begins north of Wall Street. South of Wall Street the old colonial city plan can still be detected.

New Jersey

James, the Duke of York who had received the New York colony from his brother, believed the colony was too large to administer. He gave two friends, Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, part of the land from which the New Jersey colony was created. Land in New Jersey was sold at low prices to attract settlers.

Pennsylvania

William Penn was granted land in North America as repayment of a debt the king owed his father, an admiral in the English navy. William Penn belonged to a religious group known as the Quakers. The Religious Society of Friends, as the Quakers were formally known, were persecuted in England for their beliefs. The basic ideology followed by Quakers is that everyone possesses an "inner light" through which individuals are capable of their own religious interpretation without the need for formal clergy. Women also were afforded full participation in the faith, as they too possessed an inner light. Pennsylvania was established as a Quaker colony in 1682.

The Quakers believed in religious toleration and fair treatment of the American Indians in the area. Penn advertised his colony throughout Europe and quickly attracted over 1000 settlers in the first year. Philadelphia rapidly grew to be a vibrant port city engaged in the trans-Atlantic trade of goods. Because of the religious and cultural tolerance practiced by Penn and the Quakers, Pennsylvania exemplifies the diversity for which the Mid-Atlantic Colonies are known.

Below is a link to a Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History lesson, which guides students in their analysis of a William Penn advertisement to attract settlers to the Pennsylvania colony in 1683. The link also includes a teacher's guide for implementing the lesson effectively.

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/sites/default/files/inline-pdfs/William%20Penn%20and%20Colonial%20America.pdf>

Delaware

Delaware was originally the North American colony of New Sweden. The Swedish owned colony was taken by the Dutch and absorbed into New Netherland in 1631, prior to England taking possession of the region. The area known today as Delaware remained under the control of the Duke of York until he transferred the land to William Penn in 1682. It remained a part of Pennsylvania until 1704, when Delaware became a separate colony and allowed to govern itself through a legislative assembly.

Resources:

1. **Historical Society of Pennsylvania** - is a resource that provides teachers with collections of primary sources related to the founding and growth of the Pennsylvania colony. Resource guides, unit plans, and landmark lessons are available for use in classes.
<https://hsp.org/education/for-teachers/educational-resources/primary-sources>
2. **New Amsterdam History Center** - is devoted to promoting the exploration of New York's early history as a Dutch and English colony. Featured on the site are lessons for use with students, a 3D virtual tour, and primary sources related to New York's colonial period.
<https://newamsterdamhistorycenter.org/>

SSUSH2 – Describe the early English colonial society and investigate the development of its governance.

English colonial society was made up of diverse ethnic groups and individuals who arrived in North America with different goals and under different circumstances. The colonies grew quickly once the initial challenges of settlement were overcome. Economic opportunity and the social mobility that came along with financial gain attracted colonists from many different locations to make the journey to America. Traditions of local self-government also emerged in the different colonies during England's early period of salutary neglect. Although economic opportunity, religious freedom, and self-government came to be colonial traditions embraced by the colonists, not all people came to the English colonies by choice. Africans, brought against their will to America on the Middle Passage, were forced into permanent slave labor arrangements and did not benefit from the emerging successes of colonial society.

The different English colonial regions (Southern, Mid-Atlantic, and New England) developed different societal characteristics during the early colonial period. England faced significant unemployment as well as political and religious turmoil prior to 1660. These factors prompted immigrants to leave England and travel to America for new opportunities. The Southern Colonies tended to attract young English men seeking financial gain and the New England Colonies, with their religious foundations, tended to attract more English families for settlement. Women in the colonies, and in England, were primarily viewed as inferior to men and possessed few rights. The Mid-Atlantic Colonies had greater ethnic and religious diversity than the other regions during the early colonial period due to England's acquisition of the previously settled territory from other European countries (Discussed in SSUSH1d). After 1660, with the Restoration of the English monarchy, England's economy improved. The more stable conditions led to fewer Englishmen immigrating to America. However, other European countries began to experience greater economic and political difficulties, which resulted in heightened Irish, Scottish, and German immigration to the English American colonies.

Education was emphasized differently in the colonial regions. The New England Colonies tended to support the establishment of schools within their townships. The population of New England Colonies was primarily concentrated into towns, making schools more feasible given the close proximity of students. The New England religious foundation also fostered literacy in order to read the Bible. The Southern colonies, with their strong emphasis on large-scale agriculture, were not conducive for formal schools. Fewer towns and cities formed in the Southern Colonies due to landowners being more spread out for farming. There were few locations where a schoolhouse would have been practical. Instead, wealthy planters in the Southern Colonies who wanted to educate their children relied on privately hired tutors or sent their children to boarding schools in England. The Mid-Atlantic colonies emphasized the importance of education in similar fashion to the New England colonies.

Religion in the colonies also varied by region. New England's Puritan roots formed the foundation for all aspects of society in the region. As was true concerning education, the scarcity of towns in the Southern Colonies, made formal churches less practical. The steady growth of the Enlightenment in the eighteenth century threatened religion's influence, whether formal or informal, on colonial society. The Great Awakening was the religious response to the Enlightenment and emphasized more individual relationships with God through the messages of highly engaging revivalist ministers who traveled all thirteen colonies. The religious "awakening" of the early eighteenth century fostered an independence among colonists that would later contribute to the independent political thought of the revolutionary period.

The colonies did develop systems of local self-government during the early colonial period. Most colonies had local assemblies to legislate on local matters while still remaining loyal to the king in

England. Voter eligibility, even where land ownership was required, was much greater in the colonies than in England. Land was scarce and expensive in England, while more abundant and cheaper in the colonies. Thus, a more representative local government in the colonies existed during the early colonial period. The English Crown had limited involvement in local government matters in the colonies as long as the mercantilist demand for resources was being met. This system of salutary neglect continued until after the French and Indian War in 1763, at which time England faced mounting debt and began to seek greater local control over the colonies. Having the long-standing tradition of colonial self-government made the Crown's new, stricter policies and taxes less tolerable.

Resources:

3. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #1 - "Colonization & Settlement, 1585-1763"
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/colonization-and-settlement-1585-1763>
4. **Digital History: Using New Technologies to Enhance Teaching and Learning** is a resource created by the University of Houston's History Department and College of Education. Inquiry learning modules, documents, lessons, maps, cartoons, and video are compiled by historical era for teachers.
<http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/index.cfm>

SSUSH2 – Describe the early English colonial society and investigate the development of its governance.

- a. Describe European cultural diversity including the contributions of different ethnic and religious groups.

Various European cultures came to be represented in England's American colonies. Beginning with the first permanent settlement at Jamestown in 1607, approximately 250,000 Europeans migrated to the colonies by 1700. By the outbreak of the American Revolution, the population of England's colonies in North America was approaching 2.5 million. Most immigrants to the colonies were from England during the early period, but over time immigrants began coming to America from other European countries.

The European ethnic groups living in America during the colonial period included immigrants from Scotland, Ireland, and Germany. Various "push factors" led immigrants from these countries to seek opportunity in England's American colonies. Scottish immigrants had easier access to the colonies after the political union of Scotland and England was formalized in 1707. Most of the Scottish and Irish immigrants to America settled in the mountainous backcountry frontier located west of established colonial settlements. The unique speech patterns and folks songs characteristic of the United States'

Appalachian region can be traced to the Scottish and Irish colonial immigrants who settled there in the decades prior to the Revolutionary War.

German immigrants also began to populate England's American colonies during the early period. Germany was divided into many small rival principalities whose quests for power led to violence. To finance each principality's defense, the common people living there were taxed heavily and often forced into military service. The strict control German princes exerted over their lands left the commoners searching for better financial opportunities and autonomy. William Penn recruited these disgruntled Germans to immigrate to his new colony of Pennsylvania. After coming to America, the German immigrants reported back to their kin in Europe that abundant land, plentiful food, cheap taxes, and no forced military service was the way of life in Pennsylvania. Thus, more Germans arrived in America seeking land and opportunity.

The Mid-Atlantic colonies came into English possession (Discussed in SSUSHd) as already ethnically diverse places. The cultures represented in these colonies included Dutch, Swedish, Finnish, German, Scottish, and French. Because the diversity beyond English culture was so great, the various groups had to work together and tolerate the differences between them. Elements of these various European cultures, from language, style, food, and architecture, came together to eventually create a basis for a uniquely American culture.

Various religious groups also made their way to England's American colonies seeking opportunity for the free practice of their faiths. Puritans firmly established their religious values in the New England colonies of Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth (Discussed in SSUSH1c). Although the Puritans immigrated to the colonies to escape religious persecution, they did not tolerate other religious practices in their own colonies. Maryland was originally established as a colony for Catholics to worship freely and legislated their religious protection through the passage of the colony's Acts of Toleration in 1649. Rhode Island was accepting of all religions including followers of Protestant sects, Catholicism, Judaism, and Quakerism. The Quakers, however, settled primarily in Pennsylvania and were also very tolerant of other faiths.

The diversity of religions, particularly in Rhode Island and Pennsylvania, meant that no one faith held a majority in those colonies. Therefore, no one religion became the established religion in those colonies. The American tradition of separating church and state was born from this religious diversity in the colonies. The foundation for cultural and religious diversity in the United States was set during the early colonial period with the planting of English colonies that became home to a wide array of immigrants from various countries and religious backgrounds.

Resources:

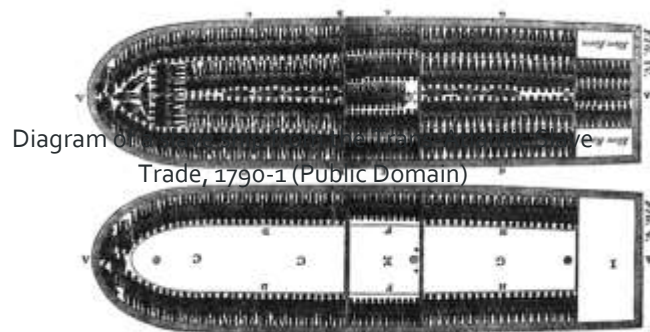
1. The **National Humanities Center** offers a wide variety of essays for teachers on their website pertaining to the ethnic and religious diversity of the American colonies. The title of the online resource collection is "Divining America."
<http://nationalhumanitiescenter.org/tserve/divam.htm>

SSUSH2 – Describe the early English colonial society and investigate the development of its governance.

b. Describe the Middle Passage, the growth of the African population and their contributions, including but not limited to architecture, agriculture, and foodways.

As tobacco farmers and other cash-crop farmers prospered in the colonies, they greatly expanded the size of their farms. Because of the resulting need for workers to plant, grow, and harvest the crops, farmers turned to African slaves to fulfill their growing labor needs. The first Africans arrived in Virginia in 1619. During the colonial period, approximately 250,000 Africans were imported to the colonies. The vast majority of these slaves were concentrated in the agriculturally intensive Southern Colonies, although all of the English colonies allowed and had slaves during the colonial period.

The African slaves who were forced to fill this labor role in the American colonies were brought to North America on crowded and dangerous slave ships along the previously mentioned **Middle Passage** portion of the trans-Atlantic trade routes. The slaves were originally captured through the African slave trade within the African continent and then brought to the West African coast for barter with European slavers. Rum, cloth, weapons, and other manufactured goods from Europe were traded for Africans. Between three and four hundred slaves were packed into cargo holds of slave ships bound for North America. Sickness, fear, and brutality was the common experience for slaves on the Middle Passage. About two of every ten slaves died during the Middle Passage.



A highly impactful multi-media depiction of the chronological progress of the trans-Atlantic slave trade can be found in the interactive clip below. The two-minute video animates the voyages of over 20,000 slave ships catalogued in the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database compiled by Emory University.

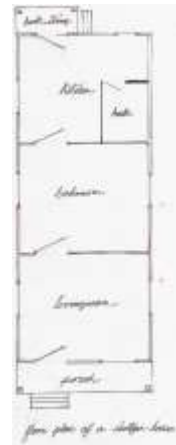
http://www.slate.com/articles/life/the_history_of_american_slavery/2015/06/animated_interactive_of_the_history_of_the_atlantic_slave_trade.html

There was no single African culture. People brought from west Africa as slaves represented a large number of different cultures. In an effort to control the slaves, slave owners attempted to strip away the cultural identity of their slaves and sought to replace it with the culture of the plantation or region to which the slave was brought. However, the physical isolation of slaves from their masters led to the creation of a new blended culture rather than the replacement of one culture over another. What resulted was the creation of a unique African American or Black culture.

Foods, such as okra, watermelon, yams (sweet potatoes), rice, and even grits have been attributed to cultural blending of African and European cultures. The practice of blending different African tribes on a single plantation led to the creation of blended language patterns such as Creole in Louisiana and Gullah in coastal Georgia and the Carolinas. Economically, coastal South Carolina and Georgia owed its prosperity to the introduction of rice that was propagated by West African and West

Indian slaves. Ironically, it was this same rice production that served as a food source for West Indian sugar plantations whose insatiable labor demands expanded slavery in the European colonies.

Architecture is another topic for which African influences can be detected in America's development. Slave labor often built the homes and buildings of their American masters. Over time, traces of Africanism found their way into the styles of buildings being constructed. The "shotgun" style home has been traced to a dwelling style popular in Haiti and even further removed to a style of hut popular among the Yoruba people of western Africa. A shotgun house is characterized as being very narrow and long with a front porch. The simplistic style, with its entrance being on the short side of the home, is different from European styled homes. The homes are one room wide and two to three rooms deep with only doors separating the rooms – no hallway. Archaeologists also suggest that some of the building materials used on Georgia plantations may have African roots. The wattle and daub and tabby material used in early Georgia coastal construction is similar to the woven sticks covered in mud or clay technique of West Africa Ashanti homes.



Shotgun House Plan

Resources:

1. **National Museum of African American History and Culture** contains a wide variety of images, documents, and resources for teachers to use when teaching all aspects of slavery or African American history. Of particular importance to this element is the online exhibition titled "Cultural Expressions." The focus of the exhibition is the ways culture is expressed through the African diaspora.
<https://nmaahc.si.edu/cultural-expressions>
2. **The Smithsonian National Museum of American History** has an online resource titled "Forced Crossings" that details the African slave trade and contains images and documents from the Middle Passage and the slave trade.
http://americanhistory.si.edu/onthewater/exhibition/1_4.html

SSUSH2 – Describe the early English colonial society and investigate the development of its governance.

- c. Describe different methods of colonial self-governance in the period of Salutary Neglect.

The Catholic monarch, James II, took the English throne in 1685 and tried to singlehandedly rule without Parliament. England's Protestant majority was fearful of the new king's unrestricted power. James II also put the North American colonies more tightly under his control by revoking charters and combining the New England colonies with New York and New Jersey to form the Dominion of New England, which was to be governed not by colonial assemblies, but by a governor and council appointed by the King. In 1689, the Glorious Revolution marked the overthrow of James II. He was replaced by the Protestant monarchs, King William and Queen Mary, who signed the English Bill of Rights as a condition of their ascent to power. The Dominion of New England was dissolved by the colonies and they returned to their previous colonial arrangement as news of the Glorious Revolution reached North

America. One outcome of the reestablishment of the colonies was the combination of Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth into one Massachusetts colony.

The colonies re-established their local governments with the transition of English political power at the time of the Glorious Revolution. In 1721, Robert Walpole became the first Prime Minister in England. His approach to the colonies became known as **Salutary Neglect**. Walpole believed that the colonies would become more economically productive if they were not restricted by cumbersome policies that limited their ability to trade, such as the Navigation Acts. From the 1720s until after the French and Indian War in the 1760s, the colonies were less restricted in their ability to build up their own trade networks and govern themselves locally because of the policy of Salutary Neglect. As long as England was receiving the colonial resources they needed to maintain production under the mercantilist arrangement, there would be less oversight of the colonies by the English Crown.

The colonies had always been somewhat independent of English control due to distance limitations, structure of the colonial governments, and the greater proportion of eligible voters in the colonies. The methods of colonial self-government that existed during the period of Salutary Neglect firmly established the tradition of independence that would later lead to revolution between England and her colonies. The political structure of each colony by the time of the Revolutionary War consisted of a governor and an elected legislature. The earliest of the elected legislatures, the **House of Burgesses**, had been established shortly after Jamestown's founding. Colonial legislatures, such as Virginia's, had long traditions of making local policies and were made up of locally elected colonists. Taxes were levied by these colonial representatives and established the tradition of local taxation by locally elected representatives. Many New England colonies had town meetings that met regularly for people to vote directly on public issues.

Voting in the colonies was often restricted to only white males who owned at least some land. Even so, this criteria encompassed a much higher proportion of citizens than other countries - including England. Religious restrictions had even been removed from the New England colonies' voter eligibility by the time of the American Revolution, which further expanded the tradition of local colonial participation in governing.

There was also an expectation that emerged in the colonies that the local legislatures would be responsible for looking out for the interests of all colonists and not just the wealthy. This concept played out dramatically with the events surrounding **Bacon's Rebellion** in Jamestown in the late 1670s. Former indentured servants had worked off their debt but could not afford land in the township itself. Instead, they had to move farther into the frontier and often faced conflicts over land with the area's American Indians. These poor citizens paid taxes and expected the House of Burgesses to provide protections for them, even though they lived further out from the wealthy Jamestown community. Nathanael Bacon led these poor citizens first against the American Indians and then against the Jamestown elite, including the Royal Governor William Berkeley. Bacon's Rebellion, between the poor frontier colonists and Virginia's colonial government, established an expectation in America that the government would work for the good of all citizens – not just the wealthy.

The tradition of English colonial self-government began early with the pledge of majority rule under the Mayflower Compact and the establishment of colonial legislatures. During the period of Salutary Neglect, the role of these local assemblies and town meetings expanded. It was during this time that the English government, following the Glorious Revolution, scaled back their political oversight of the colonies as long as the economic resources were being provided to England. Political autonomy

The American colonies, especially those in New England, had been founded on the idea that government ruled on the basis of a covenant relationship with God and the people (e.g., The Mayflower Compact). The governance structure of the new churches reflected this idea as churches appointed their own ministers and administered their own churches. This sense of independence was soon reinforced by the political ideas of John Locke's social contract and Thomas Paine's emotional appeal for independence.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress' Exhibition "Religion and the Founding of the Republic"** has an excellent overview of the various religious movements of colonial America, including the Great Awakening. Images and documents from the period are featured in the online collection. <https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/religion/rel02.html>

SSUSH3 – Analyze the causes of the American Revolution.

The causes of the American Revolution include a number of issues that divided the colonies from England over the course of many years. Tension rose over taxes levied by a Parliament that lacked colonial representation, increased British military presence in the colonies, restrictions on some colonial governments, and limits on westward expansion after the French and Indian War. Underlying all of these specific issues was a growing belief among the colonists that their rights as Englishmen were being violated. Simultaneously, a unified colonial identity was developing after the French and Indian War that fueled the calls for independence.

Resources:

5. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login. *Historical Era #2 - "The American Revolution, 1763-1783"*
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/american-revolution-1763-1783>
6. **Digital History: Using New Technologies to Enhance Teaching and Learning** is a resource created by the University of Houston's History Department and College of Education. Inquiry learning modules, documents, lessons, maps, cartoons, and video are compiled by historical era for teachers.
<http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/index.cfm>

SSUSH3 – Analyze the causes of the American Revolution.

a. Explain how the French and Indian War and the 1763 Treaty of Paris laid the groundwork for the American Revolution.

Beginning in 1689, Great Britain and France fought one another in a series of wars for control of European and colonial trade. The **French and Indian War** (1754-1763) was the last of a series of wars fought between the countries and their respective allies. The war began in North America as a result of ongoing British-American expansion into the Ohio River Valley, which was also claimed by France. The French persuaded their Indian allies to join them in preventing further settlement in the disputed region west of the Appalachian Mountains. Great Britain eventually won the war. **The 1763 Treaty of Paris** was the negotiated settlement that ended the French and Indian War. Its provisions forced France to turn over control of Canada to Great Britain. France also surrendered its claim to all land east of the Mississippi River, with the exception of the city of New Orleans.



Disputed Territory in the French and Indian War

Given that the American colonists successfully fought alongside the British regular soldiers in the French and Indian War, it seems as though the relationship between them would have been strengthened by the coordinated effort. However, the outcome of the war strained the colonial and British relationship and fueled the calls for independence by the colonists. The colonists felt empowered by their military contributions to the war and also felt disrespected by the restrictions and tax burden placed on them after the 1763 Treaty of Paris was signed. The spoils of victory were not enjoyed by the colonists, who believed their militia groups had contributed greatly to the British military success. As a result, the tension created by the French and Indian War and the 1763 Treaty of Paris laid the groundwork for the American Revolution. The text of the 1763 Treaty of Paris can be accessed through Yale University’s Avalon Project at (http://avalon.law.yale.edu/18th_century/paris763.asp) and the United States Department of State Office of the Historian has a good explanation of the negotiations and provisions of the treaty at (<https://history.state.gov/milestones/1750-1775/treaty-of-paris>).

The end of the French and Indian War brought Great Britain great benefits. The British were now in control of the largest empire in the world and were in a dominant position in Europe. However, over 70 years of fighting various wars had nearly bankrupted the British government. The French and Indian War had more than doubled the British national debt. As a result, those living in the British isles endured heavy taxation, high inflation, and unemployment during this time.

With the French and Indian War over, the American colonists breathed a sigh of relief. European and American Indian threats to the American frontier had ended (or were at least reduced)

and allowed American land speculators to sell land in the Ohio Valley. Furthermore, the end of French, Dutch, and Spanish privateers in the Caribbean meant that colonial merchants could expand their regional trade networks and reap handsome profits by dealing directly with the West Indies, Africa, and other parts of the Americas. As the British government began to insist that the American colonies pay for their security, colonial governments questioned the need for permanent British garrisons.

The British government saw the prosperity of its American colonies as a source of revenue to help pay the war debts. The British government hoped to lower colonial administrative costs by passing the cost on to their colonies and through enforcement of existing tariffs or taxes. To ensure that smuggling would be prosecuted, an extensive customs service was established. The King's prosecutors found it difficult to obtain smuggling convictions in colonial courts and created vice-admiralty courts empowered to identify, try, and convict suspected smugglers. These courts were superior to the colonial courts and did not have a jury, but instead a panel of military officers who served as judges. The American colonists believed that the use of courts without juries represented a violation of English civil rights.

Resources:

1. PBS produced a film entitled, **"The War that Made America"** about the French and Indian War's role in America's path toward revolution. The film's website is an excellent resource for background information and lesson plans for teaching about the impact of the French and Indian War on the relationship between Great Britain and the colonies. There is also a 28-page teacher's guide for effectively using the program in class.
http://www.thewarthatmadeamerica.org/index_21.php
2. **George Washington's Mount Vernon** website offers a wide variety of maps, documents, video, and historian interpretation of George Washington's role in the French and Indian War.
<http://www.mountvernon.org/george-washington/french-indian-war/>

SSUSH3 – Analyze the causes of the American Revolution.

- b. Explain colonial response to the Proclamation of 1763, the Stamp Act, and the Intolerable Acts as seen in the Sons and Daughters of Liberty and the Committees of Correspondence.

Following the French and Indian War, the British began trying to re-establish control over the colonies through policies such as the Proclamation of 1763, the Stamp Act, and the Intolerable Acts. To pay for years of war, Parliament was determined to enforce pre-existing British trade laws that had been only casually enforced, such as the Navigation Acts. Smuggling goods into America had been lucrative for many businessmen in the colonies. The British government was physically removed from her American colonies and lacked an understanding of a new psychology of self-sufficiency and individualism that had developed in the colonies. British actions to re-establish control over the American colonies, after such a long period of Salutary Neglect, set up a series of responses and counter-responses by the American colonials and the British government, which ultimately led to the American Revolution. The Sons and Daughters of Liberty and the Committees of Correspondence led the colonial responses to what they believed were overbearing British policies.

In general, the American colonists reacted to new British laws and policies by either ignoring the law, organizing to inform and plan actions, or take direct action against the British. Several incidents illustrate the response-counter response nature of the struggle between Great Britain and its colonies.

These incidents grew in intensity until the British Army and colonial militia exchanged musket fire on Lexington Green.

American Indians were very concerned about how the outcome of the French and Indian War would impact the land they occupied in the Ohio River Valley, which had been transferred from French to British control under the provisions of the 1763 Treaty of Paris. That same year, the American Indian Chief Pontiac of the Ottawa Nation led a coalition of Native Americans in an attempt to drive the British and American colonial families out of the region. Thousands of British Americans were killed as well as hundreds of British troops. Pontiac's War was concluded with the help of the Iroquois Confederacy and skillful diplomacy. To curtail further American Indian attacks, Parliament passed the **Proclamation of 1763** in an attempt to prevent any more American colonists from settling beyond the Appalachian Mountains. The new law angered colonists and wealthy colonial land agents as they believed they were entitled to the land they had helped to secure through fighting with the British in the French and Indian War. Unable to enforce the law due to the vast amount of land in the region and a shortage of troops to patrol there, the Proclamation of 1763 never really stopped migration into the area. The Americans ignored the law and settled in the Ohio River Valley anyway. However, the division between the British government and her colonies was growing as the spirit of independence was starting to spread.

Shortly after the 1763 Treaty of Paris was negotiated the British government announced that colonies would be taxed to cover the cost of their protection. These taxes included the Sugar Act of 1764. The Sugar Act imposed a tax on the importation of molasses, the key ingredient for making rum. The new law also created Vice-Admiralty courts, which tried suspected smugglers before a military court instead of a civilian court. These new measures angered American colonial importers who chose to ignore the new laws.

The inability of the British government to collect the new tax led to the passage of a more widespread tax, the **Stamp Act** of 1765. The tax was collected on every document or newspaper printed or used in the colonies. Previous taxes had only impacted certain groups, such as molasses importers, but the Stamp Act affected everyone in colonial America. The taxes ranged from one shilling a newspaper to ten pounds for a lawyer's license. The law required that a stamp be affixed to the taxable property to show that the tax had been paid. In addition, the tax was to be paid with hard currency (not colonial paper money) and would be enforced through the Vice-Admiralty courts. Colonial agents warned the British Prime Minister, Lord Grenville, that the passage of the new tax would be met with widespread anger in the colonies. Despite the warning, the Stamp Act was passed by Parliament.

The colonial reaction was swift and widespread. Their central argument against the new tax was that the colonies did not have representation in Parliament. Therefore, taxes imposed by Parliament on the colonies represented a violation of English civil liberties. The Massachusetts colonial Assembly created a **Committee of Correspondence** to efficiently communicate with the other colonies on matters of concern. New York invited the other colonies to send delegates to a meeting and organized the Stamp Act Congress to draft formal petitions of protest to Parliament. In Boston, Samuel Adams organized the **Sons of Liberty** to protest the law. These protests often turned violent. Tax collectors were hung in effigy and their property destroyed. Ships purportedly carrying stamps were denied entry to colonial ports. Perhaps most significantly, New York merchants organized a boycott of British goods. This boycott spread to other colonies and had a huge impact on British importers. The Committee of Correspondence helped to effectively organize the coordinated boycott. The rising tide of violence in the colonies and the economic effects of the boycotts were instrumental in the repeal of the Stamp Act in March 1766. The hated law was largely ignored and barely lasted a year.

A good tool to use with students regarding the Stamp Act and the controversy it caused in the colonies are some of the political cartoons associated with the protests. Two of the more famous cartoons are featured below.



"This is the Place to affix the STAMP."
Library of Congress



"The Repeal – or the funeral procession of Miss Americ-stamp"
Library of Congress

Parliament, under the advice of the Lord Townshend, the Chancellor of the Exchequer (similar to the US Secretary of the Treasury), passed in 1767 a new series of tax laws, expanded the Customs Service, and the number of Admiralty Courts. Colonial organization and protests were renewed. To replace boycotted British cloth, the women of Boston organized the **Daughters of Liberty**. The organization spun yarn into thread, wove cloth on home looms, and was instrumental in maintaining the American boycott of British goods.

Protests and riots in Boston were so ferocious that customs officials demanded and received military protection. However, the presence of the British Army and Navy in Boston only served to

intensify the animosity between the British government and the colonists. As a result of the protests, the Townshend Acts were partially repealed in 1770. However, a tax on tea was left in place by Parliament.

In 1773, Parliament passed the Tea Act. The act was designed to expand the British East India Company's tea monopoly by offering British imported tea at a reduced price in all the British colonies. The colonists believed that Parliament was trying to increase tax revenue by getting the colonists to more readily accept cheap tea. In general, colonial ports turned the tea ships away or refused to handle the British tea. In Boston, the Royal Governor insisted that the tea be kept on board ship until it could be landed. On December 16, 1773, members of the Sons of Liberty boarded the three tea ships and destroyed the cargo. British officials had little tolerance for the destruction of British property. Parliament passed a series of laws designed to punish the American colonies, and especially Massachusetts, for the attack on British ships. The **Intolerable Acts**, as the punishment laws were known in the colonies, were designed to make an example of Massachusetts and hopefully quell the growing resistance to British authority throughout the colonies. There were five parts to the Intolerable Acts, including:

1. Boston Port closed until the value of the destroyed tea was repaid
2. Massachusetts colonial government suspended and placed directly under the control of the royal governor appointed by the king
3. British officials accused of crimes would be tried in England rather than in Massachusetts
4. Renewed the Quartering Act of soldiers in the colonies
5. Quebec Act expanded the border of Quebec into land claimed by other colonies

Instead of forcing Massachusetts into submission, the Intolerable Acts effectively unified the colonies to work as a group against the British government. The experience of Massachusetts could easily be the experience of other colonies. The colonists believed that Parliament had once again acted outside the English Constitution and violated the civil rights of the British citizens living in America.

Resources:

1. The **Digital Public Library** offers a Primary Source Set and Teaching Guide for exploring the Boston Tea Party. The resources are well catalogued and the teaching guide offers detailed plans for implementing political cartoons about the Boston Tea Party in history classes.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/the-boston-tea-party/>
2. The **Massachusetts Historical Society's** website has a collection of sources devoted to the "Coming of the American Revolution, 1764-1776." The primary documents found in this collection are accompanied by detailed explanations of the topic.
<https://www.masshist.org/revolution/topics.php>

SSUSH3 – Analyze the causes of the American Revolution.

c. Explain the importance of Thomas Paine’s *Common Sense* to the movement for independence.

Common Sense was published anonymously by **Thomas Paine** in January 1776. Initially 100,000 copies were printed, and it is generally believed that the short work was either read or heard by almost every American colonist. Paine wrote a clearly worded rationale for independence that the common man could understand. Paine’s argument helped to persuade many colonists who were undecided to support the cause of independence.

The title, *Common Sense*, was intended to make people of the colonies think about the absurdity of a large continent (America) being controlled by a small island (England). He also asked readers to consider why they would remain loyal to a corrupt king whose laws were unreasonable. Prior to *Common Sense*’s publication, most colonists blamed Parliament for their unfavorable situation – not the king. Paine effectively shifted the blame from Parliament to King George III. He also urged reluctant colonists to follow the course of independence through his blunt prose written in the vernacular of the time. A famous line from the fifty-page pamphlet is, “tis time to part.”

Resources:

1. The **Bill of Rights Institute** has the full text of Thomas Paine’s *Common Sense* pamphlet available for download.
<https://sourcebooks.fordham.edu/mod/paine-common.asp>
2. **Harvard University’s Declaration Resources Project** has a comprehensive collection of documents from the time period about *Common Sense* and how it influenced colonists’ perception of the independence debate. The collection contains newspaper advertisements for selling the pamphlet and letters from noteworthy figures such as Benjamin Franklin and Samuel Adams, in which they discuss the contents of *Common Sense*. There is also an impressive collection of documents illuminating how Paine’s pamphlet caught the attention of John and Abigail Adams.
<http://declaration.fas.harvard.edu/blog/dd-common-sense>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

The American Revolution helped to form the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic foundation upon which the United States is based. Ideological reasons for the war's outbreak are emphasized in the Declaration of Independence. John Locke's thoughts regarding natural rights and the Social Contract Theory are used as justification for independence laid out in the document and continue to be cornerstones of American identity. The military efforts of George Washington and the Continental Army against the well established British forces exemplify determination and commitment to the new nation. The American Revolution's emphasis on skilled command and military training remain basic tenets of the modern United States military. Diplomacy was essential in America's revolutionary success. Forging relationships through diplomatic negotiation has been essential in maintaining freedom and democracy throughout the history of the United States. Although the cause of independence was ideologically based on the visionary dream of natural rights, not all social groups who supported the cause benefitted from the victory. Women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks contributed to the war effort in various capacities, even without much hope of gaining rights in the newly created United States.

Resources:

7. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #2 - "The American Revolution, 1763-1783"
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/american-revolution-1763-1783>
8. **Digital History: Using New Technologies to Enhance Teaching and Learning** is a resource created by the University of Houston's History Department and College of Education. Inquiry learning modules, documents, lessons, maps, cartoons, and video are compiled by historical era for teachers.
<http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/index.cfm>
9. **Library of Congress American Memory Timeline – American Revolution, 1763-1783** is an online resource that has various primary documents, maps, and letters from the revolutionary period. The site also features interpretive essays that provide greater context and background information for the documents.
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/presentationsandactivities/presentations/timeline/amrev/>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

a. Investigate the intellectual sources, organization, and argument of the Declaration of Independence including the role of Thomas Jefferson and the Committee of Five.

The Declaration of Independence was the ideological explanation for American independence. Although **Thomas Jefferson** was the principal author of the document, he was one member of the Committee of Five who had been tasked with drafting a statement to represent the Continental Congress delegates' decision to seek independence from Britain.

Richard Henry Lee, a delegate to the Continental Congress from Virginia, proposed in June of 1776 that the colonies should be free and independent. The full Congress voted in favor of the break from British control on July 2, 1776 and formally adopted the Declaration of Independence two days later on July 4, 1776. The document had been under construction since early June.

Tension had escalated in Boston between the Patriots and the British who occupied the city throughout 1776. Frenzied support for Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* pamphlet also helped embolden the American Patriots. By June of 1776, the Continental Congress recognized the critical juncture they were fast approaching and designated five delegates to write a rationale for independence. The **Committee of Five**, as they were known, included Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Robert Livingston of New York, and Roger Sherman of Connecticut. Jefferson was known to be a prolific writer and was asked by the group to write an initial draft of the public statement for independence.

After about two weeks of diligent work, Jefferson presented the draft to some of the other members of the Committee of Five for review. They made only a few minor adjustments and the document was provided to the full Continental Congress on June 28, 1776 for consideration. A few sticking points emerged that caused more revisions to be made to Jefferson's draft. In all, there were eighty-six changes made by the Continental Congress to Jefferson's draft before it was finally adopted on July 4, 1776. The major revisions to the document concerned slavery. Some of the delegates from Southern Colonies refused to sign the document as written by Jefferson because it was critical of slavery. All references to slavery were consequently struck from the document.

Scholarly debate continues today on the origins of the ideas contained in the Declaration of Independence. Most scholars hold that the ideas of John Locke's *Second Treatise of Government* significantly influenced Jefferson's writing. **John Locke** was a British philosopher who believed that all individuals naturally possess certain rights regardless of status. As part of these **natural rights**, Locke proposed that people have the right to choose their own form of government and consequently give it power. The Social Contract Theory, subscribed to by John Locke and other political thinkers, forms the basis of this argument.

The **Social Contract Theory** is the underlying philosophy for justifying colonial independence. In this theory, the relationship between people organized in a political state and their government relies



Jefferson's Draft of the Declaration of Independence (LOC)

on each side's rights and responsibilities. The diagram below shows this relationship. The people give the government its power and in return the government gives the people defense and protection of their natural rights while managing the government. The people have a responsibility in the



arrangement to follow the laws created by the government intended to manage and protect the nation. If people don't follow the laws, the government will restrict their individual rights. If the government, at some point, abuses the power given to it by the people, the people in turn have the right to replace or overthrow the government.

This social contract arrangement is the basis for colonial independence. The colonists believed that King George III's government had violated their social contract and abused its power with

the implementation of unfair taxes, attacks by British forces against colonial citizens, and the restrictions placed on local colonial assemblies. The colonists, in turn, believed they were exercising their right to replace or overthrow the government that had abused the power it had been given.

Locke's key ideas of "natural rights" form the foundation of the social contract theory. He believed that all people possess natural rights that are unconditional, such as a person's life, liberty, and property. A discussion of these rights and their protection is prominently featured in the Declaration of Independence's Preamble.

The Declaration of Independence is organized into three key sections. The first section, the Preamble, calls the attention of the world to the plight of the American colonists. In this section, Jefferson laid out the main ideological reasons why the American colonies had chosen to, and had a right to, break away from the British government. Key ideas included in the Preamble are natural rights, the origin and purposes of government as explained above in the Social Contract Theory, and the reasons why the colonists had elected to rebel against the King and Parliament.

The second section of the Declaration of Independence is a list of grievances or justifications. This section contains 27 separate points of difference the colonists had with King George III and his government. The grievances provide evidence of the social contract violations the government made in its role with the people.

The final section of the document offers a discussion of the Americans' many unsuccessful previous attempts to get relief from Britain. An example of the previous attempts for peace referred to in this section of the Declaration of Independence is the Olive Branch Petition. This was a plea directly to King George III by the colonists' Second Continental Congress in 1775 for negotiation to avoid armed conflict, which was ignored by the king. The section ends with the colonists' determination that the only way for Americans to have their rights restored is to reclaim them by declaring independence from Britain and by controlling their own government. The final signed document was printed for wide distribution throughout the thirteen new and independent states now united in war against Britain.

The Declaration of Independence is a relatively short document that has critical importance to the founding of the United States. Many students have never actually read the contents of the document. An effective activity is to have students read the Declaration of Independence aloud in class-

as was the format by which many colonists were made aware of the actions their Continental Congress had made in 1776 to permanently separate from Great Britain. The document's second section, which lists the grievances colonists had against the British, also lends itself to a good review activity for students. Groups of students can identify each grievance as events they have previously studied, such as the Intolerable Acts, the Stamp Act, and the restrictions placed on colonial legislatures.

Resources:

1. **The National Archives – America's Founding Documents Declaration of Independence** has images of the actual parchment, the text, and scholarly articles explaining the document and process that was used to write it by the Committee of Five.
<https://www.archives.gov/founding-docs/declaration>
2. **The Library of Congress – Primary Documents in American History** has a valuable compilation of resources related to the Declaration of Independence. There is also a timeline showing the progression of events involved in producing the document. Links to the personal papers of George Washington, James Madison, and Thomas Jefferson related to the Declaration of Independence are also included.
<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/DeclarInd.html>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

b. Explain the reason for and significance of the French alliance and other foreign assistance including the diplomacy of Benjamin Franklin and John Adams.

Americans faced the more prepared, better financed, and better equipped British military in the American Revolution. In order for the Americans to supplement their war effort, diplomats worked in Europe to secure help from other countries. Benjamin Franklin and John Adams, who had been key figures in the development of the Patriot cause in the colonies spent the majority of the American Revolution in Europe working to negotiate assistance from France, Spain, and the Netherlands. The French ultimately provided critical military and financial assistance, while the Spain and the Netherlands provided primarily financial assistance to the American cause.

A comparison of the resources held by the British and by the colonies at the time of the Declaration of Independence provides a solid explanation for why Benjamin Franklin and John Adams worked to secure the French alliance and foreign assistance during the Revolutionary War. The population of the thirteen colonies totaled about 2.5 million (of which 500,000 were slaves) and Great Britain's population was about 8 million at the time of the American Revolution. In addition to this smaller pool from which to draw soldiers, not all colonists supported the Patriot cause. The Loyalists made up about 1/3 of the colonial population. Another critical disadvantage that the American forces faced was that the British military was made up of professional soldiers who were trained and supplied far better than the newly created Continental Army. Financially, the Continental Congress struggled to secure resources and equip the Continental Army to carry out the war because the newly created government lacked money to pay for the mounting costs. Under the provisions of the Articles of Confederation, the Continental Congress did not have the power to tax. Requests for voluntary payments from the states to the Continental Congress was their only method to generate revenue. The funds needed to finance the war were never fully provided by the states. Given all of these tremendous

obstacles, it was critical for the Continental Congress to secure alliances and financial assistance from other countries.

France emerged as the greatest ally for the Americans during the Revolutionary War. Great Britain had become the dominant world power after successfully concluding the French and Indian War in 1763. Britain's traditional enemies (France, Spain, and the Netherlands) looked for a way to regain the advantage in world trade. As Britain's American colonies began rebelling, French government officials representing their king, Louis XVI, began negotiating with the Americans. Thomas Jefferson and **Benjamin Franklin** were instrumental in negotiating the Franco-American Treaty in 1778. The alliance essentially turned the tide of the war against Great Britain. French naval attacks in the Caribbean and against British holdings in India forced the Royal Navy to weaken its blockade along the eastern seaboard of the United States. The French also supplied large quantities of muskets, cannons, shot and powder to Washington's forces. Spain and the Netherlands were also Britain's rivals and contributed substantial financial assistance to the American cause.

It was after the colonists won the Battle of Saratoga, New York in 1777 that France was willing to openly support the Americans by entering the Revolutionary War opposed to their rival Great Britain. The naval support that ultimately came from the French was critical in winning the British surrender at the Battle of Yorktown in 1781. Benjamin Franklin had been working in France to secure the alliance since the winter of 1776. He spent much of his time interacting with the upper classes and educated elements of society in order to gain access to the French leadership. Franklin became very popular in France and was known for his folksy appearance such as wearing a fur cap instead of a fashionable wig common among the upper classes.

John Adams was also an American ambassador working in Europe to secure much needed support for the revolutionary cause. Adams spent some time in France with Benjamin Franklin at about the time that the formal alliance had been achieved. It was in the Netherlands that Adams had his greatest diplomatic impact. In April of 1782, when the Treaty of Paris was being negotiated, Adams secured the formal recognition of the United States and a substantial financial loan from the Dutch.

While in Europe, Franklin and Adams were representatives of the United States (along with John Jay and Henry Laurens) in negotiating the Treaty of Paris 1783 that settled the Revolutionary War. The diplomatic successes of both Benjamin Franklin and John Adams helped to secure the French military alliance and critical financial assistance from various European sources. The United States, given the significant limitations they faced in fighting against the more powerful and prepared British force, relied heavily on the support provided to them from Britain's own European rivals.

Resources:

1. **United States Department of State - Office of the Historian "Benjamin Franklin- First American Diplomat, 1776-1785"** includes a very general background of Franklin's role in securing the French alliance during the Revolutionary War.
<https://history.state.gov/milestones/1776-1783/b-franklin>
2. **Library of Congress Exhibition – Benjamin Franklin** is a collection of documents from Benjamin Franklin concerning various aspects of his involvement in the colonial cause for independence. There are documents, letters, cartoons, and broadsides from the period included in the collection of resources related to Benjamin Franklin.
<http://www.loc.gov/exhibits/franklin/index.html>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

c. Analyze George Washington as a military leader, including but not limited to the influence of Baron von Steuben, the Marquis de LaFayette, and the significance of Valley Forge in the creation of a professional military.

George Washington was appointed by the Continental Congress to be the Commander in Chief of the Continental Army in June 1775. Washington had developed an excellent military reputation in the French and Indian War when he led British and Virginian forces out of the ambush that killed the British commander William Braddock.

After his appointment, Washington reorganized the Continental Army, secured additional equipment and supplies, and started a training program to turn inexperienced recruits into a professional military. As a field general, Washington was not the most skilled commander. Despite losing many battles, Washington's strong personality and reputation garnered him the support and respect of American soldiers.

The Revolutionary Armies were composed of two distinct groups – the state militias and the Continental Army. Militias were organized by each state and community and generally provided their own weapons and uniforms. Enlistments were short term and training was poor among the militia groups that Washington had to manage as a supplement to the also struggling Continental Army. The militia groups were notoriously unreliable in battle. Washington once remarked that militia units, "...come in you cannot tell how, go, you cannot tell when; and act, you cannot tell where; consume your provisions, exhaust your stores, and leave you at last in a critical moment." It was for these reasons that Washington had urged the Congress to provide for the creation of a standing army – the Continental Army.

In the newly created Continental Army, enlistments were from one to three years. Pay was meager. Rations were short and the army often had to scavenge to find supplies of food, fuel, and fodder. Disease, brought on by close confinement combined with poor diet and sanitation, was sometimes a bigger danger than the British Army. The most common camp killers were influenza, typhus, typhoid, and dysentery. The new Continental Army, faced with these challenges, limited their deadly effects through the work of dedicated surgeons, capable nurses, a smallpox inoculation program, and camp sanitation regulations.

Washington's skill at maintaining his force under trying conditions is best shown during the winter months of 1777-1778 when the American Army was encamped for the season at **Valley Forge**, Pennsylvania. In the Campaign of 1777, the British had tried to combine their Canadian forces with their forces in the American colonies. If successful, this plan would have split the American colonies north and south along the Hudson River. The British failed to accomplish their goal when they were defeated in central New York at Saratoga. A third British force attacked and successfully captured Philadelphia in September 1777. Washington attempted to re-capture Philadelphia but failed. With winter approaching, Washington withdrew the Continental Army into a winter encampment. The winter weather was harsh and the soldiers lacked adequate supplies. The army remained intact during the trying circumstances thanks to George Washington's strong leadership. The critical success of the winter at Valley Forge proved to be the further development of the army. European soldiers such as the Prussian **Baron von Steuben** and the **Marquis de Lafayette** of France arrived at Valley Forge to assist

Washington in making the winter months in camp productive by training the soldiers to be more effective when fighting resumed the following spring.

Baron Friedrich Wilhelm Augustus von Steuben had been recommended to Benjamin Franklin by the French Minister of War as someone who would be helpful in developing the American army. Once in America, Steuben was especially instrumental in teaching close-order drill critical for the maneuver and fire tactics of eighteenth century warfare. He created a military drill manual that was written in French. George Washington's close aide, Alexander Hamilton, translated the manual into English. Valley Forge essentially became a boot camp to develop the American soldiers into more knowledgeable and trained fighters.

The Marquis de Lafayette also assisted in the professionalization and training of American forces during the winter at Valley Forge. He was a well-connected Frenchman who believed deeply in the American cause and volunteered to serve with Washington and helped to secure French resources. Lafayette worked closely with George Washington and was very successful and brave during many battles of the American Revolution, including Brandywine Creek and Yorktown. The French aristocrat was a critical link between the American military and the French alliance.

George Washington was a successful military commander because he recognized his force's limitations in training and supplies. He forged a path to success based on the resources he had available and utilized the assistance of others supportive of the American cause. The winter at Valley Forge could have easily dissolved the American force as enlistments were coming to an end and desertion was also a great possibility for many soldiers given the trying conditions and limited success the Continental Army had experienced. Washington's great leadership ability is evident in not only convincing soldiers to remain in the military, but to use the winter productively through training and assistance from the Baron von Steuben and the Marquis de Lafayette.

Resources:

1. **George Washington's Mount Vernon** has a detailed collection of documents, essays, and images pertaining to George Washington's service as commander of the Continental Army during the American Revolution.
<http://www.mountvernon.org/george-washington/the-revolutionary-war/>
2. **The National Park Service at Valley Forge** presents a good historical background of the location and the people involved in training the soldiers during the winter of 1777-1778. George Washington, the Baron von Steuben, and the Marquis de Lafayette are documented in the resources provided through the NPS website.
<https://www.nps.gov/vafo/learn/historyculture/index.htm>
3. **George Washington's Mount Vernon** – also features information on both Baron von Steuben and Marquis de Lafayette. The information reveals the important relationship each had with George Washington during the Revolutionary War.
Lafayette - <http://www.mountvernon.org/digital-encyclopedia/article/marquis-de-lafayette/>
Steuben - <http://www.mountvernon.org/digital-encyclopedia/article/baron-von-steuben/>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

d. Investigate the role of geography at the Battles of Trenton, Saratoga, and Yorktown.

George Washington recognized the limitations his forces faced against the British Army and Navy. Most of the engagements between the Continental Army and the British were managed by Washington in such a way as to preserve his forces, prolong the war, and wear down the enemy's will to fight. However, there were three battles in particular- Trenton, Saratoga, and Yorktown- where Washington won decisive victories and each is considered a turning point in the Revolutionary War. Geography played a significant role in each battle. In all three, rivers were essential in the Americans' ability to trap the British and force them to surrender. The high ground occupied by the American forces at Saratoga also contributed to their success over the British in that pivotal battle.

Early in the war, Washington engaged the British in quick, strong strikes and then retreated as a means of overcoming the inadequate training of American forces and to boost morale. This principle is illustrated by Washington's **Crossing of the Delaware** and subsequent **Battle of Trenton** on the night of December 25 and morning of December 26, 1776. The American forces under Washington's command routed the Hessians (German mercenaries hired by the British to fight in the Revolutionary War) in a surprise attack at Trenton, New Jersey. This decisive victory boosted the morale of American forces, which had been defeated in New York earlier that year.



Washington Crossing the Delaware
by Emanuel Leutze (Library of Congress)

Washington and the Continental Army had been forced out of New York during the late summer and fall of 1776. They had been forced to retreat to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware River. Washington used the poor weather



Battle of Trenton
Geography

conditions and geographic challenge of a river crossing to aid him in successfully carrying out the surprise attack at Trenton. Washington carefully planned the secret attack and led approximately 2,400 men across the icy Delaware River on Christmas night 1776. Increasingly poor weather conditions caused the river crossing to take far more time than Washington had planned. The ability to surprise the Hessian mercenaries camped at Trenton relied on the cover of darkness and a swift river crossing. Ultimately, Washington concluded that abandoning the planned attack and retreating back across the river was more dangerous than pushing forward in the early morning hours of December 26th. The attack was a resounding success and of the 1,500 Hessians trapped at Trenton by American forces, only 500 escaped without either being killed or captured. Only two soldiers in the Continental Army were killed and only four were wounded.

The Hessians were caught offguard for a number of reasons. First, the proximity of the river to the Hessian camp at Trenton was thought to provide them with an extra barrier against attack. Second, the Christmas holiday was thought to be an unlikely time for military action. And third, the terrible storm that kicked up on Christmas night caused the Hessians to be even more relaxed in their surveillance, thinking that attack would not be possible in such conditions. The Crossing of the Delaware and subsequent victory at Trenton is considered significant in the war because of the confidence it gave to the American soldiers who had very little success in the preceding months.

The **Battle of Saratoga** is another critical battle from the Revolutionary War in which geography contributed to the American victory. The British plan to defeat the rebellious Americans was to take control of New York, which would drive a wedge between New England and the rest of the colonies. If the colonies were divided, the British believed the Americans would have no choice but to end the war. British commander **General John Burgoyne** was leading his forces south from Canada down Lake Champlain to the Hudson River. British General William Howe was to lead another force toward the north from New York City. The coordinated movements of the British was intended to secure the entire New York region. Howe, instead of trekking north as part of the plan to assist Burgoyne, pursued control of Philadelphia. Burgoyne subsequently was trapped by the Americans at Saratoga, New York and forced to surrender his forces.



Battle of Saratoga

The American commander who faced Burgoyne as the British moved south from Canada was **General Horatio Gates**. The British force was slowed because of the large supply convoy that traveled with Burgoyne. While Burgoyne slowly made his way from Canada toward the south, the Americans were steadily building fortifications on the high ground around Saratoga. Bemis Heights is a ridge that overlooks the Hudson River Valley where Burgoyne's British forces were headed. Having cannon on top of the ridge and fortified walls at the base gave the Americans control of the area.

When Burgoyne's British forces approached the fighting ensued. After a number of weeks of intense fighting, the British were surrounded and Burgoyne was forced to surrender on October 17, 1777. Controlling the high ground at Bemis Heights with fortifications at the Hudson River geographically contributed to the American victory at Saratoga. This victory is considered a turning point in the American Revolution because it signaled to France that the Americans had a chance of winning. The French had been reluctant to openly agree to an alliance with the Americans for fear that victory was not possible. The victory at Saratoga was just what Benjamin Franklin needed in his European negotiations for alliance and support of the American cause.

The American Revolution concluded with the **Battle of Yorktown** in Virginia. Again, this decisive battle was influenced by the geography of the area. After the decisive victory at Saratoga and the resulting French alliance with America, the British adjusted their battle plan. Britain's new plan was to have General Charles Cornwallis move the war to the southern states to try to separate those colonies from revolutionary forces in the north. Cornwallis immediately succeeded in a series of British victories, but the Americans were able to prevent a complete victory in the south. Cornwallis pursued the

Americans into Virginia but was met with heavy resistance. Wishing to maintain communications with Great Britain by sea, General Cornwallis retreated to the coastal town of Yorktown on the Chesapeake Bay. While awaiting the British fleet, his forces were surrounded by the combined French and American armies.



In July, 1781 George Washington began moving his army toward the south from Rhode Island. The French Navy arrived at the Chesapeake Bay to block the British escape by sea. The American forces surrounded the British by land at Yorktown. After three weeks of fighting, the British General Cornwallis surrendered to Washington at Yorktown on October 17, 1781. This victory secured the final end to the American Revolution. The combined effort by the American forces and French Navy were critical. Geography contributed to the overall victory at Yorktown because again, the body of water served as another line of defense. The French Navy was able to cut off the escape route the British would have needed to prolong the war.

Geography played a role in the American Revolutionary War victories at Trenton, Saratoga, and Yorktown. Knowing the land can assist in military strategy. Controlling bodies of water and the high ground proved critical in these particular battles.

Resources:

1. **Library of Congress American Revolution, 1763-1783** features documentation and commentary on the northern front of the American Revolution. The Battles of Trenton and Saratoga are prominently featured and documents from George Washington are included in the resources.
Trenton: <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/presentationsandactivities/presentations/timeline/amrev/north/>
Saratoga: <https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/american-revolution-1763-1783/revolutionary-war-turning-point-1776-1777/>
2. **George Washington's Mount Vernon** has a special feature on the Battles of Trenton, Saratoga, and Yorktown. They include maps, commentary about the battles, and documents.
Trenton- <http://www.mountvernon.org/george-washington/the-revolutionary-war/the-trenton-princeton-campaign/>
Saratoga - <http://www.mountvernon.org/digital-encyclopedia/article/battle-of-saratoga/>
Yorktown - <http://www.mountvernon.org/digital-encyclopedia/article/yorktown-campaign/>

3. **Saratoga National Historical Park** website provides good background information for the battle and offers a virtual tour of the battlefield. A Teacher’s Guide is also included in the curriculum materials.
<https://www.nps.gov/sara/index.htm>
4. **Yorktown National Historical Park** website provides good background information for the battle.
<https://www.nps.gov/york/index.htm>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

e. Examine the roles of women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks in supporting the war effort.

Women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks all played a role in supporting the American Revolutionary War effort. In addition to the efforts of the Daughters of Liberty to find alternative goods to feed and clothe families during the pre-Revolutionary War boycotts, women in America often traveled with the soldiers and sometimes served as spies during the war. Although many American Indians sided with the British in the Revolutionary War, some in New England supported the Patriots. Enslaved and free Blacks also participated in the war, often on the side of the Patriots by enlisting in militia groups. They believed that the fight for American freedom would secure rights for themselves as well.

Military encampments often included large numbers of women. They were known as “camp followers” and would wash, sew, cook, and nurse the wounded and sick in camp. The women followed the soldiers because they were often afraid, hungry, and looking for work. Officers wives also would be encamped with the soldiers from time to time. According to Mount Vernon records, Martha Washington spent 52 of the approximately 103 months of the war with or near George Washington. The number of women travelling with the American soldiers varied depending on the location and whether or not the military was engaged in an active campaign. There is even evidence that a few women, such as Deborah Samson, disguised themselves as men to participate in the fighting. As the questionable legend of “Molly Pitcher” portrays, she had been giving water to the soldiers when her husband collapsed and she picked up his spot in firing the cannon. “Molly Pitcher” may be a characterization of the combined realities of some women in the Revolutionary War including a woman named Margaret Corbin. Samson and Corbin are the only two women to later receive federal pensions for their Revolutionary War service.

Other women served as spies for the Continental Army. The British Army frequently hired local women to clean, cook, and sew for them. This arrangement allowed great access to the British commanders and for eavesdropping on their plans. Some female spies reported directly to Patriot commanders and others sent messages stitched inside button covers or the hems of clothing. Their ability to inconspicuously gather information made them quite valuable to the Patriot cause. There were also Loyalist women who acted as spies among the Patriots and reported back to the British.

American Indians found themselves in a difficult position as the colonists were fighting the British over control of North American lands. Most of the western American Indians sided with the British in an effort to try to prevent further settlement in the region by American colonists- as was the policy of the British Proclamation of 1763. Other American Indian groups in the east were divided over

which side to support. The six tribes of the longstanding Iroquois League were divided. Two tribes, the Oneidas and the Tuscaroras, supported the Patriots in the Revolutionary War. The other four tribes- the Mohawks, Seneca, Cayuga, and Onondaga- sided with the British. The Cherokee tribe in the South also split its loyalty between the Patriot cause and the British. The allegiance of the small numbers of American Indians to the colonists had minimal impact on the outcome of the war. Those who did help to fight on the side of the victorious Americans were dismayed when the negotiations for the Treaty of Paris did not include American Indian representatives and their lands were not protected from colonial settlement.

Enslaved and free Blacks, in many cases, viewed the American Revolution as an opportunity for expanding their own rights with the basis for revolution being a call to protect natural rights. **Crispus Attucks**, a Black man living in Boston, was one of the Americans killed by the British at the Boston Massacre. He was supporting the Patriots in their efforts to challenge the increased British presence and control over the colonial city. Estimates suggest at least 5,000 enslaved and free Blacks fought with the Patriots. However, those who fought with the Continental Army and with the colonial militia groups did not receive their freedom following the conclusion of the Revolutionary War.

Women, American Indians, and enslaved and free Blacks all contributed to the Patriot cause through volunteering to fight and through support of the military forces. Their sacrifices however were not rewarded or recognized in the war's 1783 Treaty of Paris settlement. The groups were also not extended rights by the new government of the United States even though natural rights were a primary focus of the Patriot's Declaration of Independence. While the cause for independence captured the loyalty of many societal groups, not all groups reaped the rewards of victory.

Resources:

1. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** provides some good background essays on the various societal groups who contributed to the Patriot cause yet failed to be given rights following the victory. The historians who wrote these essays are well respected in the field.

Of particular interest is the essay linked below by Holly Mayer of Duquesne University entitled, "Women and Wagoners: Camp Followers in the American War for Independence."

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/war-for-independence/essays/women-and-wagoners-camp-followers-american-war-for-indepe>

Another essay explaining the role of enslaved and free Blacks in the Revolutionary War is the essay linked below by military historian Michael Lee Lanning entitled, "African Americans in the Revolutionary War."

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/war-for-independence/essays/african-americans-revolutionary-war>

SSUSH4 – Analyze the ideological, military, social, and diplomatic aspects of the American Revolution.

f. Explain the significance of the Treaty of Paris, 1783.

The 1783 Treaty of Paris ended the American Revolutionary War. The negotiated settlement is significant because the United States won its independence from Great Britain and gained possession of land stretching to the Mississippi River. The provisions for land boundaries and the considerations for Loyalists are important features of the document.

The United States sent three negotiators to represent the new nation in peace talks held in Paris. John Adams who had been representing the United States in the Netherlands, John Jay who had been representing the United States in Spain, and Benjamin Franklin who had secured the French alliance were the three Americans at the peace talks. After extended discussions beginning in April 1782, a peace agreement was reached in September of 1783. Adams, Jay, and Franklin had secured an exceptionally favorable agreement for the United States.

The provisions of the **1783 Treat of Paris** include:

1. Great Britain recognized its former American colonies as an independent nation.
2. The western boundary of the new United States was to be the Mississippi River.
3. Fishing rights off the coast of Newfoundland were guaranteed to the United States.
4. Pre-war debts owed by Americans to British merchants would be paid.
5. States would be encouraged by the Continental Congress to restore the homes, land and confiscated possessions back to Loyalists.

Great Britain signed separate peace treaties with France and Spain. In these agreements, Spain reclaimed control of Florida and land west of the Mississippi River creating the boundaries of the United States. Britain kept control of Canada. France lost its North American lands but regained some of the lands around the world it had lost to Britain during the earlier wars between the two nations.

The 1783 Treaty of Paris is significant because it emboldened the new United States with significant territorial gains beyond the Appalachian Mountains allowing for expansion. The new United States was set to establish its government and sought to prosper through trade of American goods.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress** offers a Web Guide to the 1783 Treaty of Paris. Links to commentary, letters concerning the treaty from contributors, and exhibitions through digital collections are included in the compilation of resources.
<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/paris.html>
2. **Yale University's Avalon Project** provides the text of the 1783 Treaty of Paris.
http://avalon.law.yale.edu/18th_century/paris.asp

Between the end of the American Revolution and the beginning of the Constitutional Convention, the survival of the United States was in question. The instability was due to the weakness of the new federal government that was created under the Articles of Confederation. Most governmental power under the arrangement was purposely given to the states. Although the Articles of Confederation did successfully administer the new territories of the United States, the glaring weakness of the new federal government framework was prominent in the Shays' Rebellion crisis. The new US Constitution created at the Constitutional Convention was based on compromise between those who favored an expanded role for the federal government and those who favored more limitations. Through the new Constitution's challenging ratification process, compromise was again the path forward as the Bill of Rights was to be added to the document as a protection for the individual rights many Anti-Federalists feared would be lost in the new, stronger federal government.

Resources: *(if appropriate)*

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #4 - "The New Nation- 1783-1815"
<https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/new-nation-1783-1815/overview/>
2. The **National Constitution Center** in Philadelphia promotes citizenship through learning about the Constitution. Their website includes an Interactive Constitution feature and a robust collection of lessons and resources for teachers.
<https://constitutioncenter.org>

SSUSH5 – Investigate specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution.

- a. Examine the strengths of the Articles of Confederation, including but not limited to the Land Ordinance of 1785, Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and their influence on westward migration, slavery, public education, and the addition of new states.

The Articles of Confederation were successful in managing the new territories acquired through the 1783 Treaty of Paris that concluded the American Revolution. The region west of the Appalachians had been settled by French and English traders and was a strategic objective of both the French and Indian War and the American Revolution. The new United States came to possess the land and it was successfully administered under the Articles of Confederation system of government.

Several states claimed portions of the region and reluctantly gave up claim to the lands in exchange for repudiation of their state Revolutionary War debts. Congress hoped to sell the public lands in the region to settle outstanding debt and to finance the operation of the new government. To rectify competing land claims, the Confederation Congress passed the Land Ordinance of 1785.

The **Land Ordinance of 1785** was significant in providing a mechanism for division of the land into six-square-mile rectangular townships. The townships were then subdivided into 36 sections, each measuring one-square-mile or 640 acres. The sections were sold at auction for \$1 per acre, with a

minimum sale being one section in size. Because the minimum sale price was \$640, the primary buyers were land speculators who would then re-sell the land to settlers headed west for opportunity. An important stipulation of the law was that the revenue from the sale of the sixteenth section of land in each township would be reserved for the establishment of public schools. The sale of land through the system established in the Land Ordinance of 1785 was successful in generating revenue for the new United States government that was facing debt from fighting the Revolutionary War.

The land north and west of the Ohio River became the Northwest Territory. It was the first territory created outside the original thirteen states. In 1787 Congress passed the **Northwest Ordinance**. The law established the method by which new territories would be admitted to the United States. The ordinance banned slavery in the Northwest Territory effectively making the Ohio River the boundary between free and slave regions. The region was a lawless region prior to the passage of the 1787 Northwest Ordinance. To establish order in the territory just beginning to be settled, the federal Congress would appoint a governor, a secretary, and three judges to preside over the region.

Becoming a full and equal state to the original thirteen was a progression of steps based on population increases. Once a territory reached a population of 5,000 free male adults, then it could elect its own local assembly. The next step toward joining the United States was to apply for full statehood once the population of the territory reached 60,000 free inhabitants. Ohio was the first state to enter the union under this system.

It is important that US territories had a path to statehood rather than being permanently bound to a "colonial" arrangement with the original thirteen states. There was no special status designated for the original states under the arrangement of the Northwest Ordinance. This law demonstrated to Americans that their new national government intended to encourage westward expansion. The laws of the nation would follow its citizens across the continent. New states would be admitted to the nation as equal members of the Union. The policies of the Land Ordinance of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 not only fostered westward expansion but also took steps to legislate for public education and to limit slavery in the newly added territories.

Resources:

1. The **Library of Congress** presents a Web Guide to the Articles of Confederation on its website. Links are included to documents related to deliberations at the time of the Articles of Confederation construction. There are also letters and documents from some prominent officials of the period contained in the Web Guide.

<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/articles.html>

SSUSH5 – Investigate specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution.

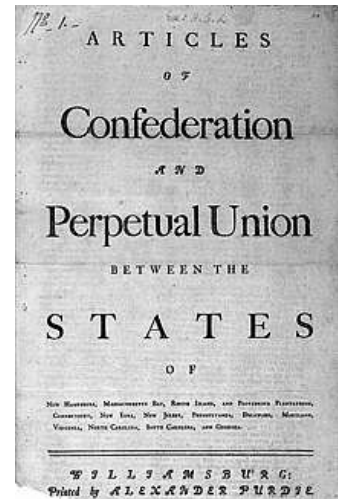
- b. Evaluate how weaknesses in the Articles of Confederation and Daniel Shays' Rebellion led to a call for a stronger central government.

The **Articles of Confederation** were written during the American Revolution and adopted by Congress in 1777. The new government structure reflected Americans' fear of federal power. The Articles gave individual states more power than the national government, which resulted in conflicts among the states that came to threaten the existence of the nation. The political weakness of the United States and its potential for collapse left it vulnerable to attack by foreign countries and convinced

many influential Americans to support a Constitutional Convention. Shays' Rebellion in 1787 was an event that lay bare the shortcomings of the Articles of Confederation. In particular, the absence of an executive branch, the inability of the federal government to mandate taxes, unregulated commerce, and the lack of a national currency were structural weaknesses that crippled the new nation.

The federal government that was established by the Articles of Confederation consisted of simply a Congress. Each state had one vote, regardless of the number of delegates representing each state. Nine of the thirteen state votes were required for laws to be passed by the Congress. However, there was no executive or judicial branch to enforce Congress's laws. This was a serious flaw in the structure of the government. In an effort to avoid any possibility of monarchical rule, the federal system of the Articles of Confederation lacked the ability to compel states to act in a way that would have made the loose confederation of states more of a productive union.

Taxation had been a contentious issue between England and the colonies. Colonists were accustomed to paying taxes levied by their own local assemblies. The British taxes implemented after the French and Indian War were met with stiff resistance due to a lack of colonial representation in Parliament. Under the Articles of Confederation, citizens paid taxes to their own states. The most the confederation government could do to raise revenue was to ask the states for donations. If a state did not comply or did not meet the requested amount, the Articles of Confederation did not empower any federal body to make the states honor the request. Not only was the United States government heavily in debt from the Revolutionary War, but so too were the individual states. As a result, very little money was coming into the federal government. The federal Congress's lack of taxation power was a critical weakness of the Articles of Confederation that left the new nation dangerously close to failure at the outset.



[Articles of Confederation - Library of Congress](#)
(Notice the prominence of the word "STATES")

The states were operating independently of one another and often in direct competition with one another during the early years after the Revolutionary War. The federal government under the Articles of Confederation did not have the power to regulate commerce or establish a national currency. Both of these issues hampered the ability of the new United States to prosper economically since the states were each acting independently.

All of these weaknesses negatively impacted the nation. Changes to correct the structural flaws, however, would not be easy to achieve. Unanimous agreement by the thirteen states was required to amend the Articles of Confederation. With the states acting more as individual entities rather than a true confederation, it was unlikely to get all thirteen to agree on any policy change. After a few years of trying to make the system work, it was becoming increasingly apparent that changes would have to be made if the United States was to last. Political leaders became motivated to finally seek change in the governing structure with the outbreak of **Shays' Rebellion**, which they felt set a dangerous precedent for mob rule.

Daniel Shays led more than a thousand farmers who, like him, were burdened with personal debts caused by the state's economic problems stemming from Revolutionary War debt. Shays and his men tried to seize a federal arsenal in Massachusetts but were turned back by the Massachusetts



["Shays' Mob in Possession of a Courthouse"](#)
by Howard Pyle (Digital Public Library)

Militia. This was just one of many protests that debt-ridden farmers made during this period. Without the power to tax, America's weak government could not repair the national economy.

The weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation, as emphasized by the events surrounding Shays' Rebellion, led prominent figures such as George Washington, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton and others to call for a convention in Philadelphia to address the problem. In May 1787, George Washington was elected president of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, where he and the Founding Fathers created a federalist form of government for the United States. The earlier fears of concentrating too much power into the hands of one individual or central government had given way to fears of the United States' growing vulnerability. Change was indeed needed. The question was how to get thirteen independent states, with varying demographics and goals, to agree to one framework that shifted more power to the federal government.

Resources:

1. **Digital Public Library of America** has a Primary Source Set and Teaching Guide for exploring Shays' Rebellion. The materials include maps, documents, and *Harpers* magazine articles from the period concerning Shays' Rebellion. The Teaching Guide provides thought provoking questions to lead students in analyzing the documents to determine how the actions and motives of Daniel Shays' followers impacted the creation of the United States Constitution.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/shays-rebellion/>

SSUSH5 – Investigate specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution.

- c. Explain the key features of the Constitution, including the Great Compromise, limited government, and the Three-Fifths Compromise.

The new United States Constitution was written by state delegates who met in Philadelphia from May through September of 1787 at the Constitutional Convention. The original purpose of the convention was to revise the flawed Articles of Confederation but soon the decision was made to create a new government structure. The proceedings were kept private among the delegates until the details had been worked out and a final draft was ready to be sent to the states for ratification. The group of

fifty-five delegates chose George Washington to preside over the convention. Throughout the summer of 1787, the delegates debated contending plans for the new government framework that pitted groups of states against one another. The compromises that were negotiated during the Constitutional Convention became the basis for the United States Constitution.

Despite the fact that most delegates to the Constitutional Convention believed the government designed by the Articles of Confederation had to be replaced, many still feared a strong central government. To reassure people that the new government would not be too powerful, the framers of the Constitution created a **limited government** with divided powers. The framers were greatly influenced by the ideas of the framed French political thinker Charles de Montesquieu. Powers were divided in two ways within the new government. First, power was divided between national and state governments. Second, power in the federal government was shared between three branches. The power of the executive branch was weakened because it was shared with the legislative and judicial branches. For example, the legislature can override a presidential veto of a bill, and the Supreme Court can rule that a bill signed by the president is unconstitutional. This safeguard against an abuse of power gives each branch of government a way to check and balance the power of the other branches. Even though the delegates uniformly believed in the limited government approach to creating the new government structure, there were significant issues that divided them when deliberating the details.

One great issue facing the delegates to the Constitutional Convention was how to apportion representation in the new government's legislature. Under the Articles of Confederation, each state had one vote, which put each state on equal footing regardless of population. States with large populations wanted more influence in the government and supported James Madison's proposal known as the Virginia Plan. Under Madison's proposed government plan, representation in the nation's legislature would be proportional to each state's population. Thus, states like Virginia would have greater representation and voting power in the federal legislature. Virginia's population in 1797 was the largest of any state with approximately 692,000. The next closest state in terms of population was Pennsylvania with approximately 494,000. Virginia, and other large states, believed it was appropriate for them to have a stronger voice in making policy than a small state like Delaware, with a population of only 59,000 people.

States with smaller populations were reluctant to abandon the equality they had with larger states under the structure of the Articles of Confederation. To counter Madison's Virginia Plan, the small states supported the New Jersey Plan that featured a legislative branch in which all states were equally represented. Essentially, the New Jersey Plan would have maintained the government structure from the Articles of Confederation but expanded the powers Congress would have over the states. The result of the two proposals was a divided Constitutional Convention in which the large states and small states both vied for legislative power.

Compromise was essential for the Constitutional Convention to succeed in satisfying the contending viewpoints on the framework for a new government. Delegates to the Constitutional Convention settled the issue of representation in Congress by approving the **Great Compromise**. This compromise helped "save" the Constitution by settling the dispute between states with large populations and states with small populations. The compromise called for the creation of a legislature with two chambers, a bicameral legislature. There would be a House of Representatives in one chamber, with representation based on population. The second chamber would be a Senate, with equal representation for all states. Proposed legislation had to achieve a majority vote by both chambers of the legislature before being passed on to the newly created executive branch to be signed into law.

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

The deliberations and negotiations concerning the key issues of representation, limited government, and slavery lasted through the summer of 1787. Thirty-nine of the fifty-five delegates signed the final draft of the new United States Constitution on September 17, 1787. The proposed Constitution was then sent to each state for ratification at state conventions.

Resources:

1. **The Ashbrook Center** has compiled resources related to the Constitutional Convention. In addition to an overview of the convention's proceedings, there are documents related to delegate attendance, correspondence, and committee assignments. There is a section devoted to teacher resources and plans for teaching about the Constitutional Convention. Delegate biographies are also included that give better insight on why certain state representatives took particular sides on the issues being debated.

<http://teachingamericanhistory.org/convention/>

SSUSH5 – Investigate specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution.

d. Evaluate the major arguments of the Anti-Federalists and Federalists during the debate on ratification of the Constitution, *The Federalist Papers*, and the roles of Alexander Hamilton and James Madison.

Writing the Constitution was just the first step in creating the new government. Before the Constitution could take effect, the states had to accept, or ratify, the document. As soon as the contents of the Constitution were published, a group of influential people spoke out against it. These people came to be known as the Anti-Federalists. Another group, known as the Federalists, promoted ratification of the document as it had been drafted at the Constitutional Convention. The two groups led the debate over the ratification process, each with sound arguments to support their viewpoints.

The **Anti-Federalists** believed the national government created by the Constitution would be too powerful and would eliminate the power of the states. This fear harkens back to the threats of despotism the patriots fought to eliminate during the Revolutionary War period. Anti-Federalists also argued that the Constitution did not describe the rights guaranteed to the states and to each citizen. Patrick Henry and George Mason were prominent Anti-Federalists.

The **Federalists** did not agree that citizens were left vulnerable by the new Constitution. Instead, Federalists argued that listing within the document specific rights guaranteed to citizens would in effect LIMIT the rights of citizens to only those listed. They believed the government created by the

Constitution was designed to protect citizens from the concentration and abuse of power at the federal level through the limited government structure they painstakingly created at the Constitutional Convention. Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, the man credited with designing the basic foundation of the new Constitution, were leading Federalists.

Each state held its own ratification convention where these diverging arguments were debated. Nine states were needed to secure the Constitution as the new framework for the United States' government. In some cases the state conventions argued the delegates of the Constitution Convention had overstepped their authority when they did not simply revise the Articles of Confederation. Other conventions quickly ratified the new Constitution with the belief that a stronger federal government would save the nation from succumbing to the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation. Five states, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, and Connecticut, ratified the Constitution very quickly.

Virginia and New York were quite divided over whether to ratify the Constitution and critical debate ensued. To counter the Anti-Federalist efforts, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay wrote a series of 85 articles over many months that supported ratification of the Constitution and explained the intent behind its major provisions. These articles, written by the leading Federalists under the pseudonym "Publius," were known as ***The Federalist Papers***. The essays laid out a series of reasoned arguments designed originally to persuade the people of New York that the structure of the new Constitution actually protected and strengthened the United States. Key to these arguments was the use of the Constitution itself to illustrate how the Anti-Federalists had nothing to fear.

Introducing some excerpts from *The Federalist Papers* to students as examples of the key arguments that were debated during the ratification process might be helpful for explanation of the topic but are not required. In *Federalist 6-9*, the writers pointed out that the factionalism of the Confederation period had weakened the Union. *Federalist 10* and *39* presented the argument for a Republican form of government. *Federalist 47-51* used Montesquieu's writings to support the idea of a separation of powers protected through a series of checks and balances that would prevent one branch of government from becoming too powerful.

The continued debate between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists threatened to derail ratification of the Constitution. To overcome the Anti-Federalist argument that the Constitution failed to include a statement of state rights and individual rights, the Federalists promised to support a Bill of Rights upon ratification of the Constitution. James Madison wrote the proposed Bill of Rights that would be added to the Constitution as amendments once the Anti-Federalists supported ratification. The negotiation was successful and the ratification process was completed. *The Federalist Papers*, the promise of the Bill of Rights, and the efforts of Federalists convinced a majority of states to ratify the Constitution by 1791.

Resources:

1. **The Ashbrook Center** has compiled resources for investigating the Federalist and Anti-Federalist debate over ratification of the Constitution. In addition to a chronology of the ratification process, the Ashbrook Center includes biographies and related documents to help students better understand the issues at stake on both sides of the debate.
<http://teachingamericanhistory.org/fed-antifed/>

2. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** also has a featured exhibition on their website that compares Federalists and Anti-Federalists. In addition to documents, commentary, and charts comparing the two groups, there is an excellent four minute video by historian Carol Berkin explaining the ratification debate.

SSUSH5 – Investigate specific events and key ideas that brought about the adoption and implementation of the United States Constitution.

- e. Explain how objections to the ratification of the Constitution were addressed in the Bill of Rights.

One of the principle reasons that the American colonists revolted against the British government was the colonists' belief that Parliament had abridged colonial rights as guaranteed to them under the English Bill of Rights. When the Constitution was drafted, the Anti-Federalists felt that a strong central government could also infringe upon civil liberties. The Anti-Federalists would not ratify the new Constitution without the inclusion of a bill to protect citizen rights.

The Federalists indicated that they would support the addition of a Bill of Rights as one of the first orders of business in the new government if the Anti-Federalists would ratify the Constitution in its current form. The deal resolved the impasse and the Constitution was ratified by the required nine states upon New Hampshire's vote on June 21, 1788, thus putting the new United States Constitution into effect. The remaining states soon followed.

As was pledged during the ratification process, James Madison introduced a proposal to the new federal Congress for a Bill of Rights in June 1789. The proposal was approved separately by both houses of Congress by September 1789 and ratified by the states by April 1792. The negotiation between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists had succeeded in getting the Constitution ratified and the Bill of Rights was added as promised.

An examination of the Bill of Rights should emphasize that the first nine rights deal with key individual protections. These rights include the right of free expression, assembly, protections against self-incrimination, and the right to a trial by a civilian jury (as opposed to the hated Admiralty Courts). To protect these individual rights, Madison limited the power of the federal government in the Tenth Amendment by reserving any un-enumerated rights to the states. The rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights remedied the objections Anti-Federalists had to the original Constitution, which they feared did not protect citizens from the potential abuse of power by the federal government.

Resources:

1. **The Bill of Rights Institute** offers teachers detailed lesson plans and resources for teaching about the first ten amendments to the Constitution. There are documents, lessons, and commentary about the content of the amendments and the process used to add them to the Constitution.
<https://www.billofrightsinstitute.org/primary-sources/bill-of-rights>
2. **iCivics** is a good resource for teachers to use when teaching about the Bill of Rights. Interactive lessons are offered that include documents and situational experiences for students to consider how the rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights would apply.
<https://www.icivics.org/teachers/lesson-plans/youve-got-rights>

SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.

The first five presidents of the United States faced significant challenges as the new nation dealt with economic strife, international conflict, emerging political factions, territorial expansion, and new divisions of power. Each facet of the new national government and the federal relationship with the states was being tested as the wide array of issues emerged. The leadership of George Washington, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe addressed the various uncharted challenges with resolute action. Their policies and decisions were not always embraced by all Americans or even by one another. Different political ideologies emerged and political parties formed in the United States. Each president faced opposition in the decisions they made but still laid the foundation for the new nation not only to survive but to increasingly emerge as an important force in world affairs.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #4 - "The New Nation- 1783-1815"
<https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/new-nation-1783-1815/overview/>
2. The **University of Virginia's Miller Center** presents each American president through robust documentation. The website highlights each president's administration, major events, and key primary documents. There is a specific link to teaching resources for each president.
<https://millercenter.org/president>

SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.

- a. Examine the presidency of Washington, including the precedents he set.

George Washington, the most influential and popular figure of the time, was elected the first President of the United States. There was no clear understanding of how the office of the president would operate. The Constitution created the office, but there was not really a guideline for conducting the executive branch of the government. George Washington was challenged to chart the course for himself and future presidents. He often remarked, "I walk on untrodden ground." During his two terms in office, George Washington set many precedents for the position that remain accepted procedure. Washington's leadership and understanding of the critical role he played in shaping the future of the United States created the foundation for success in the new republic.

A **precedent** is an action that sets a basis for similar situations as they arise in the future. George Washington established important patterns, or precedents, for future presidents to follow. Some of the critical precedents Washington established for the presidency include forming a cabinet, using the modest title of "Mr. President," establishing the constitutional authority to enforce laws, and retiring after two terms in office.

One key development associated with Washington was the creation of the cabinet system. Washington called on Thomas Jefferson to be his Secretary of State and Alexander Hamilton to be his Secretary of the Treasury. For all of the new president's experience in leading the military and participating in the various Continental Congresses and Constitutional Convention, Washington understood that others might have more expertise in some critical areas related to government policy. As a result, Washington created the cabinet system to surround himself with experts in various fields in order to better craft critical decisions in the best interest of the country. The appointment of Jefferson to Secretary of State is a prime example of this approach. Thomas Jefferson had spent the majority of the Revolutionary War period in Europe negotiating with world leaders for an alliance to help the Patriot cause. He was fluent in speaking and/or reading six different languages. Washington was a great military leader but did not possess Jefferson's international experience. Some leaders might have felt threatened by giving positions of authority to other highly acclaimed individuals. Washington, however, understood the importance of making the best possible decisions for the new United States, and viewed the other leaders of his cabinet as an asset and not a threat to his own power.

The cabinet is a precedent that has been maintained even through today's modern presidencies. Today, the President's cabinet is traditionally made up of the Vice President and the heads of the fifteen different executive departments. There may be other key advisors to the President who function in a cabinet role. During George Washington's presidency, the cabinet was made up of four individuals. Washington's cabinet members did not always agree on the advice being given to the president. Heated arguments erupted between Hamilton and Jefferson in cabinet meetings over the expanding power of the federal government and what side the United States should take in the war that erupted between France and Great Britain. The challenging debates within Washington's private cabinet meetings helped him to formulate the policy direction for issues critical to the development of the United States. Not all precedents set by Washington were as policy driven as establishing the cabinet.

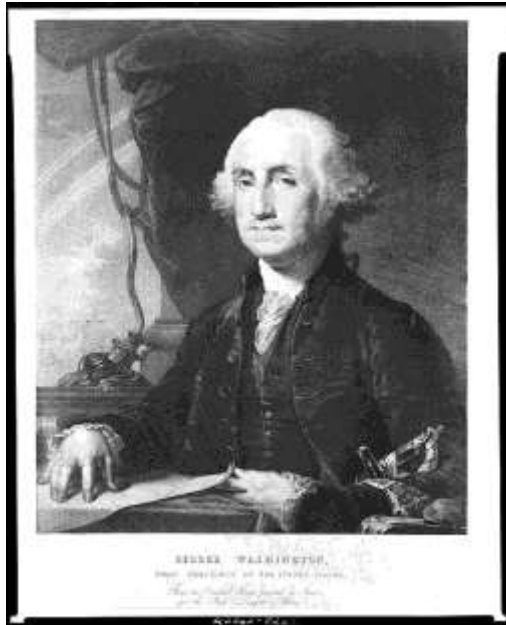
The proper title for addressing the new President of the United States was not established by the Constitution. Much discussion and debate centered on this seemingly trivial issue. Some believed the office needed to project a proper level of reverence and dignity. Others, including George Washington, believed a more simplistic title reflected the true republican nature of the new government. There was great care taken to distinguish the office of President from resembling anything similar to a monarchy. George Washington emphasized this standard when the precedent was set during his term of office for addressing the chief executive as simply, "Mr. President." There would be no lofty title of "majesty" or "excellency" or "exalted."

During the early years of George Washington's presidency, considerable tension existed between the United States, France, and Great Britain. The two European powers were once again at war and George Washington favored non-intervention to avoid siding with France against Great Britain. The United States persuaded Britain to forgive many pre-Revolutionary debts and to drop certain restrictions on US trade to the colonies Britain still held in the Americas. This ushered in an era of booming trade with Britain. Washington's new government encouraged Congress to pass taxes on liquor to help pay the states' debt from the Revolutionary War. The tax hit the small whiskey-makers in western settlements particularly hard because they made liquor using excess crops of grain in order to make it easier to transport. They even used whiskey as a medium of exchange. The Whiskey Rebellion resulted in Western Pennsylvania when armed violence broke out as farmers frightened and attacked federal tax collectors. George Washington led a large militia force into the western counties and put

down the rebellion. Washington's response set a critical precedent for presidential authority to enforce the law.

An important precedent George Washington set at the end of his second term as President of the United States was to not seek a third term. There is no provision in the original Constitution limiting a President to two terms in office. It was not until the 22nd Amendment to the Constitution was ratified in 1951 that the President became strictly limited to two terms as chief executive. The precedent Washington set for this voluntary limit was followed by every president until Franklin Roosevelt was elected four times in the 1930s-1940s.

George Washington, as President of the United States, was very popular among all classes of people in all regions of the country. This popularity would have likely given him another victory in the election of 1796 – if he had sought the office. Instead of running for a third term, Washington chose to step away from national politics and retire to his home at Mount Vernon in Virginia. His reasoning included a personal desire for retirement. He also wanted to demonstrate to the world that the transfer



of power could be achieved peacefully under the United States' new form of government. George Washington wanted to emphasize that he was not a king and that the republican system was effective. The voluntary two term precedent set by Washington lasted for many years.

There were a few other important precedents and policy perspectives George Washington felt very strongly about that did not survive beyond his administration. Washington was very concerned about emerging political factions in the United States during the early years of the republic. He also strongly opposed tying the United States to other countries through formal alliances. Both of these issues were addressed by Washington in his famous Farewell Address to the nation as he was leaving office. In the speech, Washington warned the nation would be in jeopardy if political parties formed. He warned political parties would put "a small but artful and enterprising

minority...in the place of the delegated will of the nation." Concerning the involvement of the United States with other nations, Washington encouraged commercial trade relationships but wanted to maintain "as little political connection as possible." The political parties Washington feared formalized right after his presidency ended and the international entanglements he warned against also emerged over time. These were issues in which Washington unsuccessfully sought to establish precedent.

Political parties had their origin in the differences of opinion between Washington's Secretary of State, Thomas Jefferson, and Secretary of Treasury, Alexander Hamilton. Both felt very differently about the organization of the new nation and how the nation should be run, including the constitutionality of a national bank. Hamilton and his political supporters later became known as Federalists. They wanted to expand the power of the government to stabilize the nation and its economy. Jefferson's supporters came to be known as the Democratic-Republicans and believed that the national government must limit its power to only those areas described by the Constitution. Within the foundations of these two groups is the two-party system that began to control United States politics after Washington's presidency.

Washington's warning against parties was not heeded and when his retirement was announced, Hamilton, Jefferson, and their supporters attacked one another and competed to replace him.

George Washington's presidency was challenging in that he was creating the office of the chief executive while he governed. The leadership demonstrated by the first President led to his popularity that spanned the nation and crossed the political divisions that were beginning to emerge. George Washington was a leader who understood the importance of the precedents he was setting in order that the new republic endure. The voluntary retirement of George Washington after two terms as President was a sharp contrast to the traditional monarchical rule common in Europe. The establishment of this peaceful transfer of power is an enduring precedent among the many that George Washington set as the United States' first chief executive.

Resources:

1. **George Washington's Mount Vernon** offers teachers an immense amount of material related to George Washington. There is a section of the website specifically devoted to his presidency. It contains timelines, primary documents, videos and lessons for classroom implementation.
<http://www.mountvernon.org/george-washington/>

SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.

- b. Explain the presidency of John Adams including the Sedition Act and its influence on the election of 1800.

George Washington's voluntary retirement from the presidency after serving two terms in office left the nation divided over who should be elected the second President of the United States. The election of 1796 was a bitter contest between John Adams, a Federalist, and Thomas Jefferson, a Democratic-Republican. The political parties George Washington had warned against were driving the election to determine his successor. Adams won by only a 71-68 margin in the Electoral College. George Washington's elections in 1789 and 1792 were both unanimous. Under the provisions of the Constitution as it was originally written, the candidate who received the highest number of votes (over 50%) in the Electoral College would be the President and the candidate with the second highest number of votes would serve as the Vice President. This format quickly presented problems in the 1796 election. The Federalist John Adams became the President and the leading Democratic-Republican, Thomas Jefferson, became the Vice President. The difficulties presented by this arrangement became apparent very quickly. Adams' victory by such a close vote indicates the division that had emerged between the political ideologies of the Federalists and Democratic-Republicans. Adams only served one term in office and he faced significant challenges during his presidency.

Entering the presidency, John Adams had already amassed an impressive record of government experience. He had supported the Patriot cause in Boston leading up to the Revolutionary War. He participated in the Continental Congress and was part of the Committee of Five tasked with drafting the Declaration of Independence. During the Revolutionary War, John Adams traveled Europe to help secure support for the new nation. He also helped to negotiate the Treaty of Paris in 1783 that ended the war and remained in Europe to help secure trade deals for the United States. After the new Constitution was ratified, John Adams was elected to serve as the country's first Vice President under

George Washington. Given this vast political and international experience, Adams was well-qualified for his new position as President of the United States.

Like Washington, John Adams set precedents that influenced future presidents as well as the course of American history. However, his administration was plagued by conflicts with France and Great Britain that crippled the nation's economy. The financial difficulties and international conflict led Democratic-Republicans, including Vice President Thomas Jefferson, to vehemently criticize John Adams.

To subdue the Democratic-Republican opposition, the Federalist controlled Congress and Federalist President passed the **Alien and Sedition Acts**. These laws increased citizenship requirements so that Jefferson, and the Democratic-Republicans, could not receive support from the immigrant community. The citizenship requirement for the naturalization process was extended from five to fourteen years. The law also attempted to stop any criticism of the Federalists by limiting free speech and press rights. The "Alien" provision of the policy gave the executive branch the power to deport any immigrant aliens subjectively deemed as dangerous. The "Sedition" policy made it a crime for United States citizens to conspire against legal measures passed by the government, interfere with the business of government officials, or to promote insurrection. Of greater impact was the provision in the law that made it a crime to write, publish, or speak anything of "a false, scandalous and malicious nature" about the government or elected officials. Democratic-Republicans, with their propaganda filled newspapers and pamphlets, were the target of these laws.

Thomas Jefferson and fellow Democratic-Republican James Madison reacted to the Alien and Sedition Acts. They argued in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions that states could refuse to enforce federal laws they opposed. Both states passed laws in their state level legislatures in 1798 condemning the Alien and Sedition Acts as violating constitutional rights. Virginia and Kentucky claimed the Constitution itself was an agreement among states and therefore the states should assess whether the laws passed at the national level had overstepped their boundaries. This was the beginning of the states' rights concept.

The country's growing economic problems, increasing taxes, and unpopular Alien and Sedition Acts hurt John Adams' chances of re-election in 1800. The election was heated and the political rivalry between the Federalists and Democratic-Republicans intensified. The Federalists portrayed the Democratic-Republicans as too sympathetic to the French Revolution and suggested that power in their hands could drag the United States into war. The Democratic-Republicans emphasized the danger Federalists posed to individual liberties as Adams secured more power at the national level. The campaign was divisive and not even the Federalist Party was unified. Hamilton's followers questioned Adams' resolve against France and fractured their own Federalist Party.

The results of the **Election of 1800** gave power in the executive and legislative branches to the Democratic-Republican Party. There was, however, a snag in the Electoral College process. Thomas Jefferson tied with his Democratic-Republican partner for the Vice Presidency, Aaron Burr. Each man had 73 Electoral College votes, thus throwing the election to the House of Representatives. This was the procedure outlined by the Constitution in the case of an Electoral College tie. The House of Representative was controlled by the Federalist Party at the time of the election and was given the responsibility of deciding the election. Their choice was between two Democratic-Republicans, Thomas Jefferson or Aaron Burr.

Alexander Hamilton was still a very influential Federalist and when the House of Representatives was not able to secure a decisive vote after thirty-five ballots, the party turned to him for direction.

Although both choices were Democratic-Republican candidates, Hamilton much preferred Thomas Jefferson over Aaron Burr. Hamilton and Burr were both from New York and had deep distaste for one another. Hamilton believed Jefferson to have more character than Burr and would be more suitable for the office of President based on his personal reputation. The Federalist legislators in the House of Representatives followed Hamilton's lead and voted for Jefferson instead of Burr.

The Election of 1800 was largely based on the differing political ideologies of the two parties. John Adams had lost the support of many Americans with the Alien and Sedition Acts, which the Democratic-Republicans portrayed as a threat to civil liberties. As more people began to support Thomas Jefferson's party and the Federalists began to fracture from within, the Election of 1800 transferred the federal government's power from one party to another. The nation transitioned from the Federalist's more centralized government approach to a more de-centralized government under the Democratic-Republicans, with the states having more power. The question, however, was whether Thomas Jefferson would be able to shift power back to the states and the American people once he took office.

John Adams' one term as president was challenging. In addition to following the highly revered George Washington, he was faced with mounting opposition from the Democratic-Republicans. Adams' approach to controlling his rivals through the Alien and Sedition Acts cost him even more support as some Americans feared their individual rights were being restricted. Although not specifically part of this SSUSH6 element, teachers might choose to investigate John Adams' foreign policy further. He faced difficult negotiations with the French over their harassment of US ships. The resulting XYZ Affair is another key event from John Adams' presidency that impacted his political career and the outcome of the Election of 1800.

Resources:

1. **Massachusetts Historical Society Adams Family Resources** includes a collection of papers from John and Abigail Adams and their family that spans 1639-1889. There are also good teacher resources and lessons available on the site.
<http://www.masshist.org/adams/>
2. **The National Park Service's Adams National Historic Park** in Massachusetts includes biographies of the family members and insight into John Adams' background before he became President of the United States.
<https://www.nps.gov/adam/index.htm>

SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.

c. Explore Jefferson’s expansion of presidential power including the purchase and exploration of the Louisiana Territory.

Thomas Jefferson led the nation's Democratic-Republican Party and was a vocal critic of the Federalists' push for a stronger central government at the expense of the states. Once Jefferson was elected President in the contentious election of 1800, he was responsible for defending and leading the nation toward prosperity. Although his political philosophy leaned toward a de-centralized federal government, he actually expanded the power of the presidency during his two terms in office.



Thomas Jefferson

Jefferson was the first President to take the oath of office in the new national capital in Washington, DC. He tried to set a simplistic tone for his presidency by having a more informal inauguration without much fanfare. Jefferson did highlight the need for the country’s political divisions to heal and for both political parties to move forward. A famous line from Jefferson’s first inaugural speech is, “We are all Republicans – we are all Federalists.” Jefferson served two terms as President of the United States, during which he dealt with many domestic and foreign policy issues.

An area of conflict between the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans was how to appropriately interpret the Constitution. Democratic-Republicans, like Thomas Jefferson, believed in strict construction of the Constitution. Supporters of strict construction believe that the Constitution must be interpreted by the literal content of the document. Only powers explicitly listed in the Constitution are allowed to be claimed by the federal government. This narrow interpretation of the Constitution restricts the power of the federal government and preserves more power for the states. In contrast, Federalists supported loose construction of the Constitution. This approach to constitutional interpretation claims that there are implied powers granted to the federal government in the Constitution. These powers may not be explicitly listed but are still granted to the federal government through the “elastic clause” in Article 1 of the Constitution. The clause grants Congress the power to pass all laws which shall be “necessary and proper” for carrying out the business of the government. Federalists argued that this vague wording purposely left implied powers to the government in the event of unforeseen circumstances. The Democratic-Republicans opposed such unrestricted power. While Jefferson ideologically was a strong advocate of strict construction, his actions as president, in some ways, practiced loose construction.

The purchase of the Louisiana territory from France is an example of Thomas Jefferson’s expansion of presidential power through loose construction- even though he claimed to be a strict constructionist. Louisiana was originally a part of New France. However, the region had been subject to much transition and had changed hands several times. At the time of Jefferson’s election, Louisiana was ruled by Spain but was home to many American merchants and farmers. In 1800, the territory changed hands again when the French general, Napoleon Bonaparte, retrieved Louisiana from Spain. New Orleans was the key port in the region and was an important outlet of American farm goods produced in the Ohio River Valley. President Jefferson sent Robert Livingston and James Monroe to France to inquire about the purchase of New Orleans for the United States in order to secure a permanent port on the Mississippi River. Napoleon, seeing an opportunity to finance his ongoing conflicts in Europe and a

way to keep the British from expanding in North America, agreed to sell the entire region, not just the port at New Orleans, to the United States for \$15 million. Livingston and Monroe had been prepared to pay up to \$10 million for just New Orleans. The **Louisiana Purchase** doubled the size of the United



Territory Acquired Through the Louisiana Purchase is Shaded Green.

States. Through this deal, lands critical for future expansion were acquired and the United States had secured the port at New Orleans to export American goods abroad.

Nowhere in the Constitution is the President given the power to purchase land from another country. Jefferson entered the presidency as a strict constructionist, but his purchase of Louisiana was an action beyond the provisions of the Constitution. The Louisiana Purchase is an example of how Thomas Jefferson expanded the power of the presidency as the Constitution makes no provision for this type of presidential action.

With the acquisition of approximately 875,000 square miles of new land, gathering information about the region and the opportunities it might offer to Americans was important to Thomas Jefferson. More settlers were moving to the Ohio River Valley in the Northwest Territory by 1800. Jefferson had sensed that the destiny of the nation was tied to the Mississippi River Valley. Jefferson worried that as more people moved to these isolated areas, the challenges of communicating and trading with the east coast could prompt the areas in the west to secede from the United States.

No one was exactly sure what lay between St. Louis and the Pacific Ocean. Jefferson sent **Meriwether Lewis and William Clark** on a government-funded exploration of Louisiana and the western lands all the way to the Pacific Ocean. On their 16-month journey, Lewis and Clark charted the trails west, mapped rivers and mountain ranges, wrote descriptions and collected samples of unfamiliar animals and plants, and recorded facts and figures about the various American Indian tribes and customs west of the Mississippi River. Most significantly, Lewis and Clark reached the Pacific Ocean and established a legal claim to the Oregon territory along the Columbia River. This claim allowed for the future expansion of the United States to the Pacific Ocean. The Lewis and Clark expedition and subsequent claim to the Oregon territory were not presidential powers listed in the Constitution. This is another example of the strict constructionist President’s actions falling in line with the loose constructionist ideology.

Thomas Jefferson’s presidency included many more significant events that are not specifically included in this SSUSH6 element but could be good topics for students to investigate. In particular, the *Marbury v. Madison* Supreme Court decision was issued during Jefferson’s tenure. This ruling was critical in shifting power from the states to the federal judicial branch regarding the interpretation of laws. Jefferson, who had supported the states’ right to nullify a federal law through the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, was opposed to this shift in power. Another topic that could be introduced concerning Jefferson’s presidency would be his use of the military to stop the Barbary Pirates in North Africa from extorting payments from US ships as they passed through the Mediterranean Sea.

Jefferson was also faced with mounting international pressure as France and Great Britain were once again at war. American ships and sailors were being harassed by both warring nations as the US sought to boost trade with Europe. The issue of the impressment of US merchant sailors weighed heavily on Jefferson who wanted to avoid war. His implementation of an embargo was an attempt to put economic pressure on the British in order to force them to not interfere with American ships or sailors. Having students investigate Jefferson's foreign policy efforts to deal with the growing conflict with Britain will help them to better understand the causes of the War of 1812 that breaks out during James Madison's administration.

Resources:

1. **Thomas Jefferson's Monticello** includes information about Jefferson's presidency and his other roles as diplomat, inventor, and member of the Continental Congress. There are teacher resources that include lesson plans, background information, and documents related to Thomas Jefferson.
<http://home.monticello.org/>
2. **Library of Congress – Rivers, Edens, and Empires** is an online exhibition that details Lewis and Clark's expedition. There are videos, documents, and artifacts from their journey to the Pacific Ocean.
<https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/lewisandclark/>

SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.

d. Explain James Madison's presidency in relation to the War of 1812 and the war's significance in the development of a national identity.

James Madison had many roles in the development of the United States. He was the principal author of the United States Constitution and contributed essays to the *Federalist Papers* supporting ratification. Madison also served as Thomas Jefferson's Secretary of State. When Madison was elected, foreign policy and the mounting tension with Great Britain were critical issues that required his attention. The challenge he faced was how to avoid another costly war with Great Britain but still increase the United States' economic growth through international trade.

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

Madison cited four reasons for the United States' declaration of war against Great Britain. First, Americans objected to restrictions Britain was enforcing to prevent neutral American merchants from trading with the French. Second, Americans were outraged by the British policy of impressment. Under this policy, thousands of American sailors were forced against their will to serve in the British navy after their merchant ships were captured at sea. Third, the British refused to turn over fortifications along the Great Lakes as required by the 1783 Treaty of Paris. Americans suspected the British were using

these British-held sites to give support to American Indians as they continued to fight to keep Americans from settling lands west of the Appalachian Mountains. The fourth reason Madison gave for declaring war was that Americans wished to drive the British out of North America altogether by conquering Canada while the British army was fighting the French in Europe.

The war declaration came at a time when the young United States was not financially or militarily prepared to fight. The Democratic-Republicans had scaled back the federal government and its budget, which meant the military had also been reduced during the Jefferson administration. At the time of the war declaration in 1812, the United States army was made up of only about 3,000 soldiers who were not equipped or trained to fight effectively in battle. The American navy was in a little better condition than the army and had some small initial successes at the beginning of the War of 1812.

There were essentially three fronts to the war, which lasted until early 1815. There was a naval conflict in the Atlantic and Chesapeake Bay off the coast of Virginia. Another important theater of war was on the United States' northern border with Canada. The final area of fighting was in the south and ended with the Battle of New Orleans. Although there were very few military successes throughout the course of the war, the United States did not lose any territory to the British and America's army and navy gained respect because they had stood up to Europe's most powerful nation. The outcome of the War of 1812 also ended all hopes American Indians had of driving the Americans out of the Ohio Valley.

There were two notable victories for the American forces. The Battle at Fort McHenry in Baltimore was the subject of Francis Scott Key's poem, the Star Spangled Banner, which was later set to music and became the national anthem. The most decisive American victory in the War of 1812 actually came after the Treaty of Ghent had been signed to end the war. The delayed communication across the Atlantic Ocean meant that no one in North America knew that the war was over. The Treaty of Ghent was signed on December 24, 1814 and the Battle of New Orleans began on January 8, 1815. General Andrew Jackson led the American forces. The battle was an overwhelming victory for the United States and made General Jackson a national hero. The British suffered a devastating casualty count of over 2,400 compared to American casualties of approximately 300. The victory in the Battle of New Orleans created the illusion that the United States won the War of 1812 outright even though the conflict actually ended with a negotiated settlement prior to General Jackson's great success on the battlefield.

Some long-term effects of the War of 1812 include a change in the political dynamics of the United States and the emergence of a new national identity. Politically, the war marked the end of the Federalist Party because they had failed to support the call to a popular war. The Federalists were highly concerned that war with Great Britain would be unwise because of the danger it would pose to United States' trade exports. Instead of hurting the economy, the war served to stimulate America's economic growth. Due to the British blockade of America's coast, manufacturing began to quickly develop in the United States. The war also ended any further military hostility between the United States and Great Britain.

A new American identity also developed as a result of the War of 1812. Americans had fought the British twice and were still an independent nation. A belief began to emerge in North America, as well as Europe, that the United States was not an experiment in self-government that would eventually be subsumed by Britain or some other European power. Instead, the United States was a nation that had transitioned from a young and vulnerable situation to one of strength and viability. While the Treaty of Ghent was a negotiated settlement and not truly a victory for the United States, the War of 1812 still boosted the confidence of Americans and set the stage for significant territorial and economic

growth. James Madison faced the challenge of war with Britain and emerged with bright prospects for the future.

Resources:

1. The **Library of Congress Web Guide** for James Madison includes links to the Madison papers, information about Dolley Madison, and Madison's Montpelier.
<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/presidents/madison/external.html>
2. **James Madison's Montpelier** has information concerning James Madison's background, the Constitution, and his views on various constitutional issues.
<http://www.montpelier.org>
3. **PBS - The War of 1812** is a video production that provides excellent information on the background of the war, the military campaigns of the war, and the outcome of the war. PBS offers a wide variety of classroom resources and video clips to use with students.
<https://gpb.pbslearningmedia.org/collection/the-war-of-1812/>

SSUSH6 – Analyze the challenges faced by the first five presidents and how they responded.

- e. Explain James Monroe's presidency in relation to the Monroe Doctrine.

James Monroe had served as James Madison's Secretary of State and easily won the Presidential Election of 1816. The old Federalist vs Democratic-Republican rivalry had dwindled after the War of 1812. There was great unification among a majority of Americans around the Democratic-Republicans and the nation was prospering economically. Thus, the period is often referred to as the Era of Good Feelings. During James Monroe's presidency, the United States' foreign policy approach was clearly defined and remained the guide for future presidents over the course of many decades.

Following the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Spain's colonial holdings gained their independence. When a possible Franco-Spanish alliance appeared imminent in 1823, President James Monroe warned the nations of Europe not to meddle in the politics of North and South America. When a group of European countries planned to help one another capture colonies in the western hemisphere that had recently gained independence, Monroe announced that the United States would prevent European nations from interfering with independent American countries. This became known as the **Monroe Doctrine**. Further, Monroe said the United States would remain neutral in wars between European nations and would not interfere in their American colonies. In summary, the Monroe Doctrine defined a key aspect of United States foreign policy.

Resources:

1. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** features the Monroe Doctrine in their resources. In addition to commentary about the Monroe Doctrine, the full text document, and an excerpt of key portions of the document, the resources include discussion questions that can be used with students as they analyze the importance of the policy.
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/age-jackson/resources/monroe-doctrine-1823>

SSUSH7 – Investigate political, economic, and social developments during the Age of Jackson.

The War of 1812 marked the beginning of America’s transition from an agrarian nation to an industrial power. Stymied by on-going war and blockades between France and her enemies in the first years of the 19th century, Americans began developing their own means of industrial production that were not dependent on European exports. The Age of Jackson is a period of change that encompasses not just the presidency of Andrew Jackson, but also the significant political, economic, and social developments that occurred prior to the Civil War. The prosperity of the time allowed Americans to reflect on social problems and to seek reforms that took hold in some regions more easily than in others.

SSUSH7 – Investigate political, economic, and social developments during the Age of Jackson.

a. Explain Jacksonian Democracy, including expanding suffrage, the Nullification Crisis and states’ rights, and the Indian Removal Act.

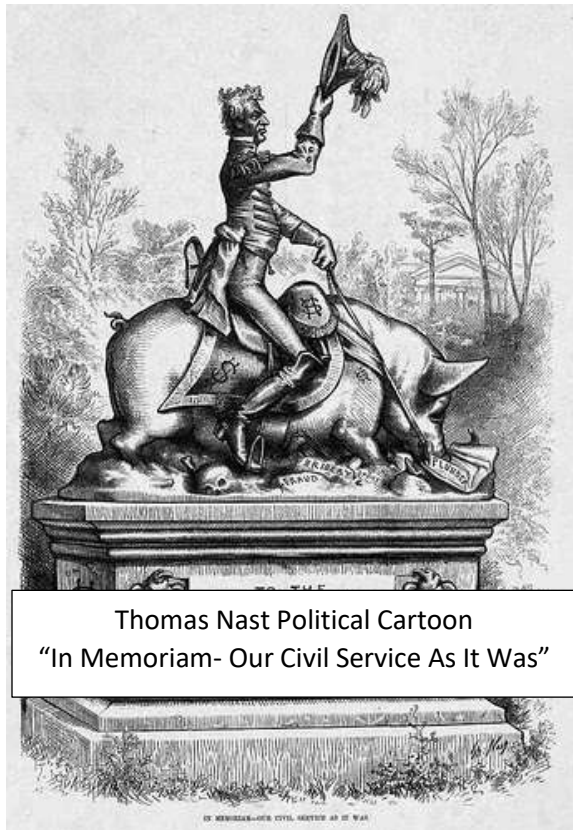
Andrew Jackson emerged from the War of 1812 as a very popular war hero. He soon entered the political arena and questioned the existing framework for democracy. Jackson challenged the Democratic-Republicans and their expanding power. He believed that the party’s original mission to restrict the power of the federal government and preserve the rights of states and individuals was being lost in the country’s growth. Instead of supporting individuals, states, and agricultural pursuits, Jackson believed the Democratic-Republicans were becoming more centered on industrial progress, expanding federal power, and the upper-class. The aggressive challenge Jackson lodged against the Democratic-Republicans ended the Era of Good Feelings’ national unity and returned the country to a two-party-system.

Jackson and his supporters shared a political philosophy later referred to as **Jacksonian Democracy**. It sought a stronger presidency and executive branch, and a weaker Congress. Out of respect for the common man, it also sought to broaden public participation in government, so it expanded voting rights to include all adult white males, not just landowners. The implementation of **universal male suffrage** by state legislatures dramatically increased the number of voters in the United States. The number of voters in the presidential election of 1824 was approximately 350,000. With the push by Jackson and his supporters for the expansion of voter eligibility, 2.4 million Americans participated in the 1840 presidential election. Most of the new voters were from the lower classes, which had previously been restricted from voting due to property requirements. These common men tended to support Andrew Jackson and their movement coalesced into a new political party – the Democratic Party. The old Democratic-Republican Party also transitioned at about the same time into the Whig Party. The Whig Party tended to favor industrial expansion and was supported primarily by the upper-classes. The United States was once again divided between two strong political parties with very different perspectives and goals for governing.

Another principle of Jacksonian Democracy was that politicians should be allowed to appoint their followers to government jobs as a way of limiting the power of elite groups. This process became known as the spoils system. Jackson believed that the President had to make sure the executive branch employees were carrying out the business of the government according to the plans of the party in power. Therefore, he believed these government jobs, of necessity, should be held only by people who had demonstrated their loyalty to the party by working in campaigns. The new spoils system he implemented sometimes led to corruption and unqualified workers in government positions.

Jacksonian Democracy also favored limiting the power of the federal government in favor of expanded state power. This issue of states' rights was a very divisive issue during the early 19th century. The idea of states' rights revolved around who held the supreme power of government – states or the federal government. The root of the argument became fixed in the Constitutional debates between the

Federalists and the Anti-Federalists during the ratification process. The issue re-emerged in 1798 with the passage of the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, which opposed the legality of the Alien and Sedition Acts.



Thomas Nast Political Cartoon
“In Memoriam- Our Civil Service As It Was”

The issue of whether states could nullify federal law nearly split the United States. Congress had passed the Tariffs of 1828 and 1832 to protect American manufacturers from competition with cheap British imported goods. Southerners believed that the tariff was purposely passed to hurt southern plantation owners and would only benefit northern industrialists. In response, South Carolina legislators nullified the tariff. Andrew Jackson's Vice President, John C. Calhoun, argued with the President about the right of states to nullify (cancel) federal laws they opposed. Calhoun, a South Carolinian, resigned from the vice presidency to lead the efforts of the southern states in the crisis. He even went so far as to suggest South Carolina's secession from the Union. Calhoun's loyalty to the interests of the southern region/section of the United States, rather than to the United States

as a whole, made clear how divided the nation had become. The **Nullification Crisis** was resolved when a compromise tariff was passed and Jackson's Congressional supporters authorized the President to use the army and navy to enforce federal law. South Carolina then backed down from its secessionist threats. The Jacksonian Democracy that purported to uphold states' rights placed a limit on the approach when it threatened the Union as a whole.

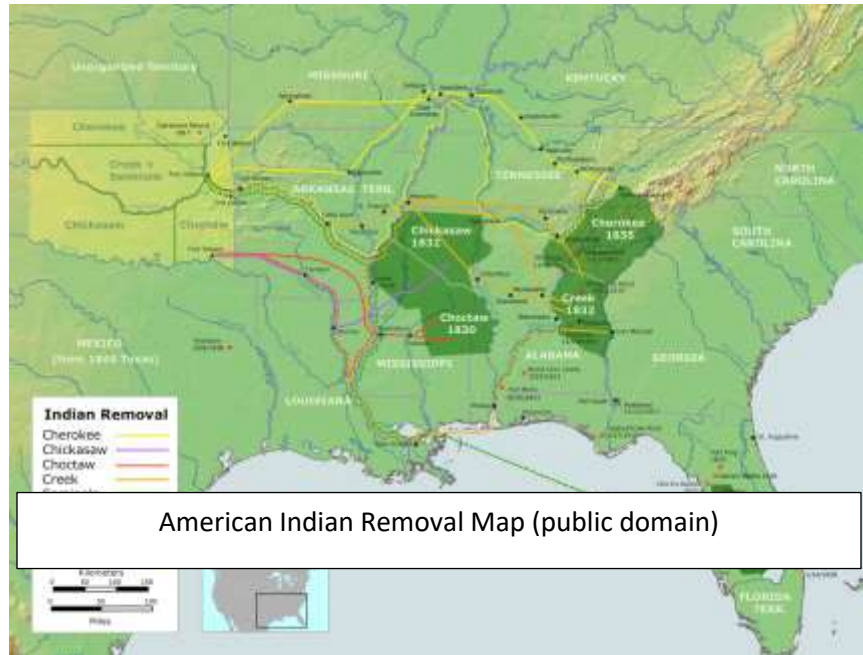
The Nullification Crisis had a profound effect on North-South relations. Calhoun continued to vocally support the issue of states' rights and began to build a coalition of southerners who would not back down from the threat of force in the future. Slave owners began to wonder what would happen if the Federal government decided to end slavery by law.

Andrew Jackson’s democratic philosophy and appeal to the common man did not encompass American Indians. During his military career, Jackson was known for his attacks on the Seminole and Creek tribes in the southern United States and northern Florida during the War of 1812. Once Jackson was elected President, he worked to expand the land available for white settlement. To achieve this, Jackson signed the **Indian Removal Act** in 1830, which forced thousands of American Indians to leave their homelands and re-settle west of the Mississippi River. The American Indians would be given land in the west in exchange for the lands they held in the east.

While most tribes resented the policy, they reluctantly complied. However, a few tribes, such as the Cherokee Nation in Georgia, refused to give up their land to the state. Georgia had passed a statute that abolished the Cherokee government and laws in the eyes of the state. The state was planning to use this provision to take control of Cherokee lands that had been granted to them by a 1791 treaty with the United States government. The issue in Georgia was highly charged since gold had been discovered in the northern part of the state. The Georgia lands where white settlers flocked in the gold rush of the 1830s was mostly held by Cherokee Indians. The Cherokee filed suit to challenge the loss of their land. The case was heard by the United States Supreme Court and Chief Justice John Marshall issued the ruling for *Worcester v. Georgia*. In this 1832 decision, Marshall sided with the Cherokee Indians and said that the state of Georgia had no authority to legislate against the tribe.

After the Supreme Court issued the ruling, President Andrew Jackson openly challenged John Marshall and the decision. Jackson stated, “John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it!” In 1835, the Georgia Cherokee reluctantly surrendered their lands. Over the next few years, the Cherokee’s were forced to travel to the west over what became known as the Trail of Tears. The forced removal was difficult and thousands of American Indians died along the way due to starvation, disease, and exhaustion.

Jacksonian Democracy is a term that refers to more than the eight years Andrew Jackson served as President. It is more of a general term that encompasses the formation of the Democratic Party, the Jackson Presidency, and also the broad political reforms that extended political participation to the common man over the course of the 1830s through the 1850s. Not all groups were included in the Jacksonian Democracy movement. Although universal male suffrage was achieved through the promotion of Jacksonian Democracy, American Indians, enslaved and free Blacks, and women did not benefit from the egalitarian values the term suggests.



American Indian Removal Map (public domain)

Jacksonian Democracy is a term that refers to more than the eight years Andrew Jackson served as President. It is more of a general term that encompasses the formation of the Democratic Party, the Jackson Presidency, and also the broad political reforms that extended political participation to the common man over the course of the 1830s through the 1850s. Not all groups were included in the Jacksonian Democracy movement. Although universal male suffrage was achieved through the promotion of Jacksonian Democracy, American Indians, enslaved and free Blacks, and women did not benefit from the egalitarian values the term suggests.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library of America** has compiled resources related to the Jacksonian Democracy. In addition to the primary sources included in the online collection, there is a Teacher's Guide with good lessons and classroom implementation strategies.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/jacksonian-democracy/>
2. **Library of Congress – Andrew Jackson Papers** is a digital collection of important documents from Andrew Jackson. In addition to the documents there is a collection of teaching resources on the site.
<https://www.loc.gov/collections/andrew-jackson-papers/about-this-collection/>

SSUSH7 – Investigate political, economic, and social developments during the Age of Jackson.

b. Explain how the North, South, and West were linked through industrial and economic expansion including Henry Clay and the American System.

Industrialization expanded in the United States following the War of 1812 and really picked up momentum in the 1830s. The emphasis on building American manufactures was one of the points of conflict between the Whig Party, led by Henry Clay, and the Jacksonian Democrats. Clay and the Whigs believed very strongly that the federal government should be involved in funding progress through infrastructure projects and investing in the development of industry. As industrialization expanded, each region of the United States was impacted. The North, South, and West were increasingly linked together through advances in transportation and the industrial process.

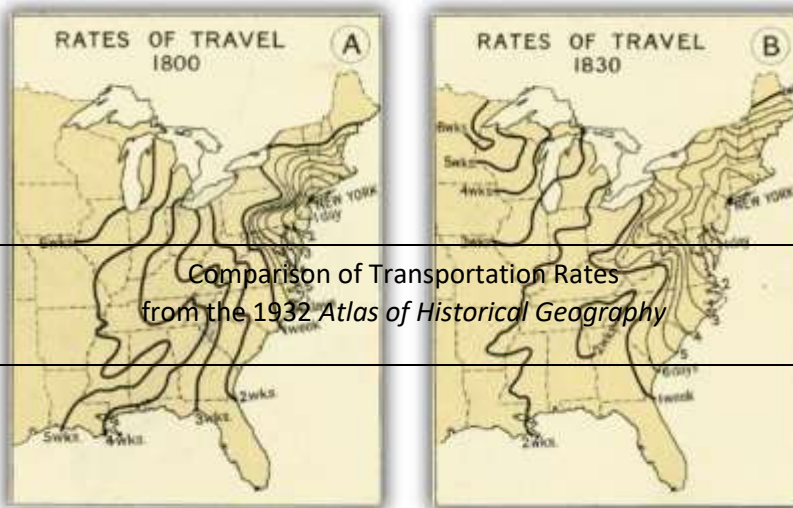
The era known as the Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 18th century when the country began the transformation from purely agrarian to a modern industrial and commercial economy. Soon hand-made and home-made goods were replaced by machine made and factory made goods and power driven machines operated by semi-skilled or unskilled workers. The Industrial Revolution made its way to the United States in 1793 with the completion of Samuel Slater's water powered textile mill in Rhode Island. Real impetus for the change to an industrialized economy came in the first decade of the 19th century as the Napoleonic Wars interfered with America's exports to European markets and its imports from Great Britain. Americans sought ways to improve the national economy.

As in England, the success of the **Industrial Revolution** was aided by four factors. First, transportation was expanded. Second, a power source was effectively harnessed (water power and, shortly thereafter, steam power). Third, improvements were made to industrial processes to accelerate production. Lastly, the government helped protect fledgling American manufactures by passing protective tariffs. Henry Clay and the Whigs supported the idea of economic nationalism in which the federal government would support these factors in developing a robust industrial network in the United States. The approach sought to boost the nation's overall economic success rather than each region of the country operating somewhat independently of the others. The nation had abundant resources available in the south, the ability to harness waterpower from swift rivers to operate factories in the north, a growing immigrant population to labor in the factories, and new methods of transportation to connect the farms, factories, and markets across all regions.

Connecting the vast distances between raw material cultivation, factory, and market was a challenge that had to be overcome if industrial and economic expansion was to develop. Private companies had been building the young nation's roads since the 1790s. These roads were often turnpikes, or toll roads, which travelers paid a fee to use. In turn, these fees were used to pay for upkeep of the new roads. When roads could not be built, barges were used on rivers to carry people and goods - as long as the rivers flowed in the same direction that settlers and merchants wanted to travel. Soon a new invention, the steamboat, enabled people to buy tickets from private companies that operated the boats to travel upstream as easily as downstream. In the wilderness, where rivers did not run and roads could not be built, government leaders joined businesspeople to build canals - artificial rivers. These shallow waterways were for barges, not steamboats, and had pathways alongside on which horses or mules pulled the barges.

The most famous canal built in this era was the Erie Canal, which stretches 363 miles and connects the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. It opened in 1825 after eight years of construction. The Erie Canal served as a turnpike for large cargo carrying barges where a road could not be easily built. Transportation costs for goods were lowered because of the canal's more efficient transportation. This not only opened up western New York and regions further west to increased settlement, but also helped unite new regions with the Atlantic states. The effect of the Erie Canal on this country was stunning. Cargo that cost \$100 per ton and took two weeks to haul by road could be moved on the Erie Canal at \$10 per ton in three and a half days.

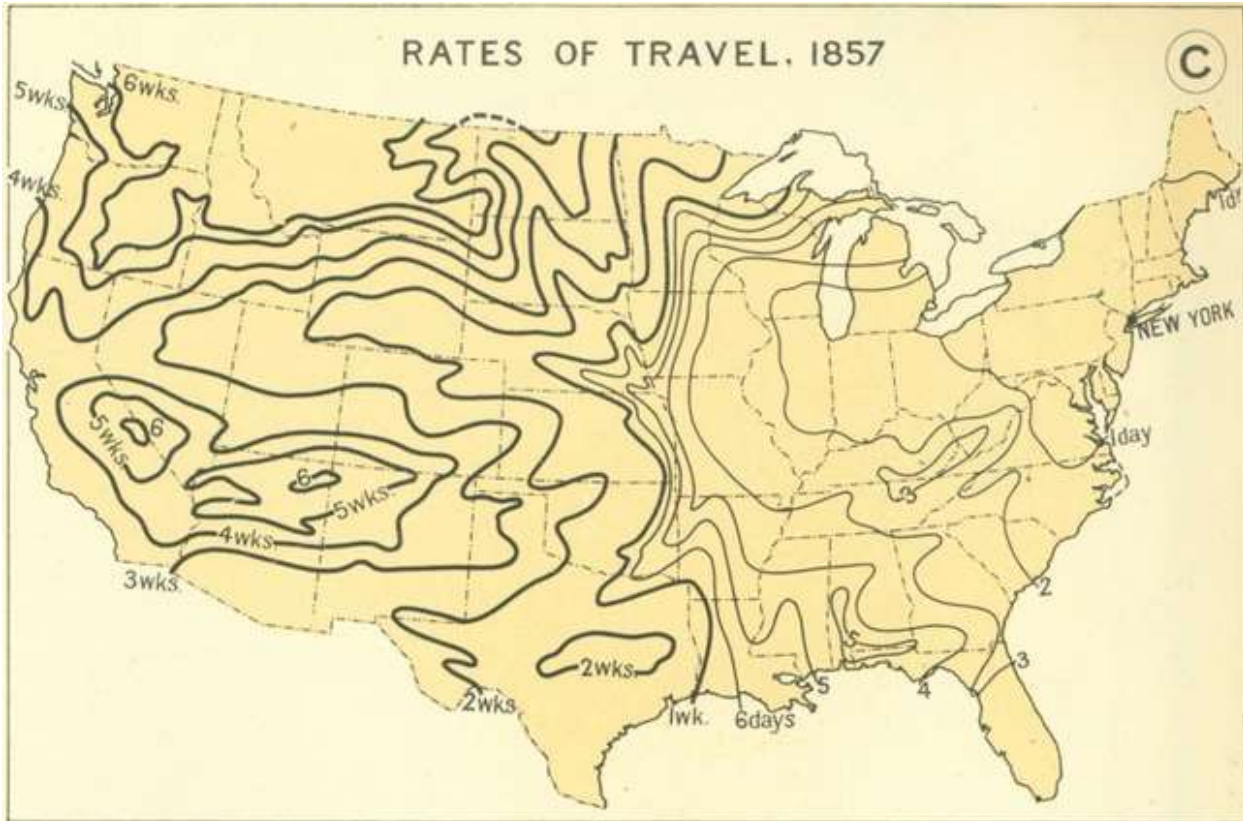
By the 1830s, an even more rapid mode of transportation was set to further expand commercial



Comparison of Transportation Rates
from the 1932 *Atlas of Historical Geography*

production and the economy. Railroads were less costly, time consuming, and labor intensive to build than canals. By 1850, there were 9,000 miles of railroad track crossing the United States and further cut transportation time. The result of transportation advancements was a more interconnected

nation that could more efficiently industrialize and grow a national economy.



Comparison of Transportation Rates from the 1932 *Atlas of Historical Geography*

With improved transportation methods rapidly changing the United States, **Henry Clay** became more involved in promoting the nation's economic growth. Clay was a Kentucky politician, founder of the Whig Party, and rival of Andrew Jackson. He supported industrialization and believed that the federal government needed to take strong action to ensure the economic growth of the United States. The American System was Henry Clay's plan for expanding production in the United States.

There were three components to the **American System**. First, Clay encouraged the Congress to pass protective tariffs that would make imported goods more expensive than similar products manufactured in new American factories. The second key feature of American System was federal funding for internal improvements to the infrastructure of the United States. Rather than states or private businesses being the primary contractors for roads, canals, or railroads, the federal government would fund the large scale transportation projects that would connect far reaching points instead of being limited to state boundaries. The third component of the American System that Henry Clay believed was the key to the entire process for industrial and economic expansion was the re-establishment of a National Bank to issue a national currency and serve as a depository for federal funds. The first Bank of the United States was established during George Washington's presidency and was the creation of Alexander Hamilton. It had expired in 1811 while the Democratic-Republicans were in power. Whigs, such as Henry Clay, believed it was essential to bring back a National Bank in order to fund internal improvement projects, stabilize the economy, and support new industrial pursuits. The Jacksonian Democrats opposed the idea of a National Bank because they believed it supported the upper class industrialists at the expense of the small farmer.

The North, South, and West were physically linked through the improved transportation developments of the early 19th century. The regions were also linked through the expansion of industrial pursuits. Most factories were located in the North due to the swift flowing rivers that generated power and the large immigrant populations who supplied cheap, unskilled labor in the factories. The American South and West supplied the raw materials needed to manufacture finished products. Goods were transported by road, canal, or rail as a result of the widespread internal improvements to the infrastructure made by the state and the federal governments. Henry Clay was an immensely important figure in the progress of American industrialization and economic nationalism.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress** Web Guide to Henry Clay is a compilation of resources pertaining to Henry Clay. Links are included to digital collections, newspapers, manuscripts, and exhibitions pertaining to the various issues Henry Clay was involved in during his time in public office. <https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/clay/>

SSUSH7 – Investigate political, economic, and social developments during the Age of Jackson.

- c. Explain the influence of the Second Great Awakening on social reform movements, including temperance, public education, and women’s efforts to gain suffrage.

In the 1820s, a **Second Great Awakening** arose in the United States. The Jacksonian Democracy's emphasis on the common man bolstered the religious revival that swept the nation. Revivalist ministers preached sermons that appealed to all classes and spread a message of salvation for all. One of the effects of the Second Great Awakening was a desire by Christians to attack perceived social ills in 19th century America. Temperance, public education, and women's efforts to gain suffrage were all areas of reform that emerged from the religious focus of the period.

The stress of an industrial environment, poor quality water, and cheapness of liquor all contributed to an increase in alcohol consumption during the early 19th century. The temperance movement grew out of a desire to protect women and children from abuse and general poverty associated with the workingman spending his pay on drink. They used moral arguments to target the dangers of alcohol. The temperance movement originally attempted to get people to drink less (temper their drinking) but quickly moved to pledges of abstaining from drinking. In the beginning of the period there were many temperance societies, but around 1835 most merged into the American Temperance Society. The movement was successful in reducing the amount of alcohol consumed but fell short of gaining a total ban on drinking in the United States.



The Drunkards Progress: From the First Glass to the Grave
(1846) public domain

Public education was another area of reform that Second Great Awakening religious followers supported. Until the 1840s, there was little **public education**. Only the wealthy educated their children. Reformers believed that in order for democracy to be effective an educated population would be needed. Reformers wanted to teach civic responsibility and morality. Horace Mann of Massachusetts, along with Henry Bernard of Connecticut, began the Common School Movement. The Common School Movement hoped to create good citizens, unite society and prevent crime and poverty. Mann advocated a free public education, financed by local funds and administered by a local school board and superintendent. This model is essentially the one used in America today.

As industrialization progressed in the United States, men and women were beginning to redefine their roles in the family and society. Some women from middle and upper class families had more leisure time, which allowed them to become more involved in the religious and reform movements of the period.

Women in the early 1800s were legally and socially inferior to men. Women could not vote and, if married, could not own property or retain their own earnings. Women were leaders in the reform movements, such as the temperance and abolitionist movements. However, in the 1840s, a number of prominent women activists were denied access to the London World Anti-Slavery Convention because of their gender. These women, including Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, and the Grimke Sisters (Angelina and Sarah) became outspoken advocates for **women's equality**. With the advent of universal male suffrage, women began to hope that suffrage would be extended to them.

To push forward their ideas, Stanton and Mott organized a meeting "to discuss the social, civil, and religious condition and rights of woman." The conference was held in Seneca Falls, New York on July 19-20, 1848. The meeting was attended by 300 people- including 40 men. Curiously, none of the women felt that they should preside over the meeting, so Mott's husband initially led the conference. Stanton drafted the Declaration of Sentiments, modeling her work after the Declaration of Independence. Stanton's Declaration called for an end to the unequal treatment of women. It is beneficial for students to analyze the Declaration of Independence and the Declaration of Sentiments together. Emphasis should be placed on format and why Stanton purposely chose to model her work after the document that gave America its freedom and independence from Britain.

In addition, Stanton drafted eleven other resolutions dealing with women's equality. Her ninth resolution, which called for women to have the right to vote, nearly failed. However, Frederick Douglass gave a speech, which persuaded the delegates to vote for the proposal. One hundred men and women signed the Declaration of Sentiments. The Seneca Falls Conference marked the beginning of the Women's Rights Movement.

Resources:

1. The **National Women's History Museum** includes a variety of resources on their website. There are primary documents, biographies, lesson plans, and a timeline of women's history. <https://www.nwhm.org/education-resources/history/woman-suffrage-timeline>
2. **Boot Cotton Mills** of Lowell, Massachusetts – "Building America's Industrial Revolution" has links to resources related to the development of the factory system in the early 1800s. Featured resources included the Lowell Mill, Slater's Mill, and Labor history. <https://www.nps.gov/articles/building-america-s-industrial-revolution-the-boott-cotton-mills-of-lowell-massachusetts-teaching-with-historic-places.htm>

SSUSH7 – Investigate political, economic, and social developments during the Age of Jackson.

d. Explain how the significance of slavery grew in American politics including slave rebellions and the rise of abolitionism.

The issue of slavery has been present in American politics since the nation's inception. Slavery was an issue when Jefferson drafted the Declaration of Independence. The delegates to the Constitutional Convention created a series of compromises addressing slavery to placate Southerners at Philadelphia. Jefferson and Washington spoke out against slavery and freed their own slaves upon death. Both historical figures have been scrutinized for the contradiction of owning slaves while speaking out against the practice. Slavery was prohibited in the Northwest Territories by federal law so that slave holding was confined to those states south of the Mason-Dixon Line.

Prior to the cotton gin, slavery was nearly dead in the Upper South, awaiting its final benediction by state legislatures, and was dying a slow death in the Lower South. The cotton gin and westward expansion revived slavery. Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1793. It is a machine that rapidly removes cotton plant seeds from the valuable cotton fiber used to make thread and fabric. By producing more cotton in a day than any person could clean by hand, the gin reduced the cost of

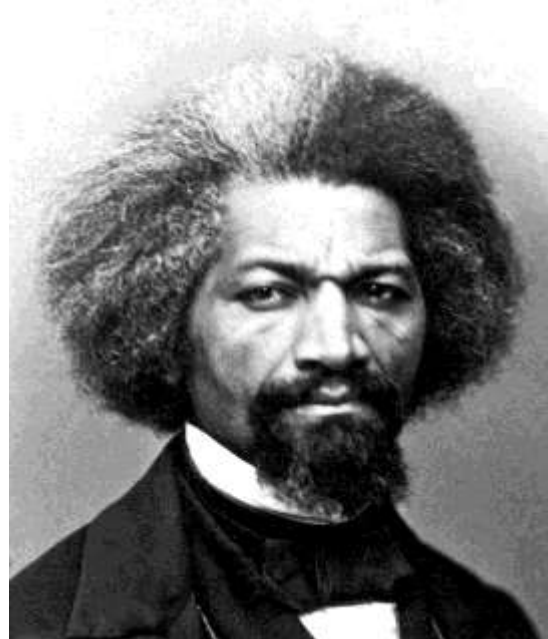
processing cotton and greatly raised the profit from growing it. To further cut costs and raise profits, unskilled slaves were often put to work running the cotton gins in southern states.

Politicians in the first third of the 1800s sought to maintain “a perfect equilibrium” on the issue of slavery in several ways. First, by maintaining an equal number of slave and free states. The second way to maintain peace was to prevent slavery from becoming a divisive issue through the passage of the “gag” rule, which prevented the discussion of slavery in the House of Representatives from 1836-1844. Third, division over slavery was minimized by continuing the process of working out compromises on the issue in the 1850s. However, as the mid-western and northern states continued to grow in economic power and population (political representation), slavery became increasingly entangled in every political issue facing the nation, such as nullification, states’ rights, and the admission of new territories as states.

Party politics were also affected by slavery. The two-party political system re-emerged in the early 1830s with the birth of the Whig Party. The party was short-lived as the issue of slavery fatally split the party by the end of the 1850s. New parties that were far more vocal on abolition, such as the Liberty Party and the Free-Soil Party, formed in the 1850s. These parties caused great fear among southerners who felt increasingly besieged, but by 1860 nearly all of these minor parties had self-destructed.

Abolition movements existed in America since the colonial period when the Quakers led the effort to end slavery. Their popularity waned after the American Revolution but were renewed in the 1830s as part of the Second Great Awakening reform movements. Three groups of abolitionists emerged during this period. One group, the American Colonization Society (1818) called for the emancipation and transportation of freed slaves back to Africa to be settled in the new colony of Liberia. The second group, the American Anti-Slavery Society (1833), was led by William Lloyd Garrison and called for immediate emancipation by any means necessary. A moderate group, the Liberty Party, pledged to end slavery through legal and political means.

Some of the most notable abolitionists were William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass, and the Grimke Sisters. Garrison was the leading voice for many reform movements and abolition was a particularly important cause to him. He was the founder and editor of the *Liberator* newspaper, the leading abolitionist newspaper known for graphic stories of the bad treatment slaves endured. Frederick Douglass was a former slave who worked for Garrison in the abolitionist movement. Douglass traveled widely giving eloquent speeches and publishing his own autobiography and an antislavery newspaper – *The North Star*. Douglass is considered by many to be the most influential former slave or free Black in the abolitionist movement. Sarah and Angelina Grimke were white southern women who lectured publicly throughout the northern states about the evils of slavery they had witnessed growing up on a plantation.



Frederick Douglass

The abolition campaign included both men and women; Northerners and some Southerners. For the first time, Blacks began to play a significant role in the movement. Instead of a gradualist approach, the new abolitionists advocated for immediate emancipation without compensation for slave owners. Abolition became a divisive issue as the southern states reacted against growing hostility in the North toward slavery.

Slave rebellions also began to occur and caused slave owners to implement even more harsh restrictions on slaves. The Black preacher, Nat Turner, believed his mission on Earth was to free his people from slavery. Seeing an 1831 solar eclipse as a message from God, he led a slave rebellion on four Virginia plantations. Approximately 60 whites were killed before Turner and his followers were captured, tried, and executed. Fear and anger over the murder of primarily white women and children led to many innocent Blacks becoming victims of mob violence. Virginia, a state that had been considering a ban on slavery, instead passed a series of laws to strengthen the institution of slavery. Other southern states quickly passed laws that emulated Virginia's revised slave codes to reflect more strict control.

Resources:

1. **PBS – Slavery and the Making of America** offers a variety of resources for teaching about slavery and abolition. There are documents, video, and slave narrative accounts from the WPA. <http://www.pbs.org/wnet/slavery/resources/index.html>
2. **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History– Facts About Slavery and the Slave Trade** – This online feature includes commentary about slavery, images of slave ships, and also includes a video clip explaining how slavery began in America. <https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/slavery-and-anti-slavery/resources/facts-about-slave-trade-and-slavery>

SSUSH8 – Explore the relationship between slavery, growing north-south divisions, and westward expansion that led to the outbreak of the Civil War.

In the decades before the Civil War, three distinct regions developed in the United States: the North, the South, and the West. Sharp divisions emerged between the economies and culture of the North and South. In the West, settlers from both the North and South merged to create a distinct way of life. The expansion into the West was not without conflict- both political and physical. These cultural and economic clashes ultimately led to the outbreak of Civil War in the United States.

SSUSH8 – Explore the relationship between slavery, growing north-south divisions, and westward expansion that led to the outbreak of the Civil War.

a. Explain the impact of the Missouri Compromise on the admission of states from the Louisiana Territory.

The Louisiana Territory encompassed a wide swath of land in the middle of the North American continent. Thomas Jefferson purchased the land from France in 1803. By mid-century, the population in portions of the territory had increased dramatically and their next step was to apply for statehood through the United States Congress. Missouri was one such territory, primed for acceptance as a full and equal state. At the time of its application, however, there was already a balanced number of free and slave states. The sectional divisions of the nation were demonstrated in the hard fought negotiations over whether Missouri would enter the Union as a slave or free state.

The admission of Missouri as a new state is an excellent illustration of how Congress sought to maintain a “perfect equilibrium” between the number of free and slave states. In 1819, right before Missouri applied for admission to the United States, there were 11 free states and 11 slave states. The balance was politically important. The North had a larger population, which gave that region an advantage through the proportional representation of the House of Representatives. The Senate, however, was evenly balanced between free and slave states because each state had equal representation in that chamber. For a bill to become a law, it had to be passed by both bodies of the legislature. Therefore, the balanced Senate prevented either region of the country from mandating policy concerning the contentious slavery issue.

Slavery was already a common practice in the Missouri territory that was applying to become a state, which concerned the Northern Senators. If Missouri came into the United States as a slave state, it would tip the balance of the Senate in favor of the South. Another issue that concerned the North about Missouri's application for statehood was the fact that it was the first territory from the region of the Louisiana Purchase that was prepared to enter the Union as a state. Missouri's slave status would set a precedent for future states forming from that area. The South also worried about attempts by Northern Senators to limit slavery within the new state. Debate over Missouri's admission was heated in the Congress and lasted for months.



Map of the United States
Following the Missouri Compromise 1820

Henry Clay, a leading Congressman from Kentucky, is credited with putting together a compromise that resolved the issue. A key component of his plan hinged on the fact that Maine had also petitioned the Senate for admission to the Union. Maine had previously been part of Massachusetts and was slated to become a separate state. Clay's Missouri Compromise included the following provisions. First, Maine and Missouri would both enter the Union. Maine would enter as a free state and Missouri would enter as a slave state, thus preserving the balance in the Senate. Second, the rest of the Louisiana Territory would be subject to a geographic division at the 36°, 30" line of latitude (Missouri's southern border). Slavery would be prohibited north of the line, except in Missouri. Slavery would remain untouched south of the line. The Missouri Compromise passed both bodies of Congress and James Monroe signed it into law in March 1820. The seeds of sectionalism were beginning to sprout.

Resources:

1. The Library of Congress website contains a featured Web Guide devoted to the Missouri Compromise. There are documents pertaining to the legislative debate and maps of the region. <https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/Missouri.html>

SSUSH8 – Explore the relationship between slavery, growing north-south divisions, and westward expansion that led to the outbreak of the Civil War.

b. Examine James K. Polk’s presidency in the fulfillment of Manifest Destiny including the Texas annexation and Oregon.

James K. Polk became the eleventh President of the United States after winning a close election in 1844. Once in office, Polk added to the nation's western lands by annexing Texas and part of Oregon. Many Americans believed that expansion across the continent was the destiny of the United States. Others worried that the bold acquisition of land would lead to war. The actions of James K. Polk during his presidency did both- he added territory to the United States and fought a war with Mexico over expansion.

Americans have always looked westward. As the coastal plains filled, colonists arriving from Europe sought unclaimed land in the backcountry of each colony. After the French and Indian War, settlers crossed the Appalachians and entered the Tennessee and Ohio River Basins. After the American Revolution, settlers began to fill the Ohio Valley and moved out into western Georgia and Alabama. The Louisiana Purchase in 1803 doubled the size of America's land holdings and brought new opportunities to move westward into the Mississippi River Valley. Florida, the last piece of foreign held territory in the east was acquired in 1819 from Spain. By 1850, Americans had settled California, Oregon, and Washington on the Pacific coast. The process of settlement took 150 years to reach the Appalachians, 50 years to reach the Mississippi River and another 30 years to settle the Pacific states. In 230 years, Americans had come to dominate the continent. Americans believed such rapid expansion must have been a result of divine favor referred to as Manifest Destiny.

Manifest Destiny was a phrase coined to describe the belief that America was to expand and settle the entire continent of North America. The phrase originated in 1845 when John L. O'Sullivan, a

newspaper editor, wrote that it was America's "Manifest destiny to overspread the continent allotted by Providence for the free development of our yearly multiplying millions."

The center of population growth in the years after the War of 1812 was in the future states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and northern Kentucky. In this region three factors encouraged families in the eastern states to move into the Midwest. First, American Indians were removed from the region. Second, land speculators acquired large tracts of land and were eager to sell. Third, as the national infrastructure moved westward it was easier to migrate west. Although interest rates on land were high, so were grain prices throughout the 1830s and



American Progress by John Gast depicts the concept of Manifest Destiny

1840s. Fertile soil and the development of better plows and harvesters allowed farmers to produce large crop yields, which increased the allure of westward expansion.

Westward expansion was a pivotal issue in the 1844 Presidential election. Texas was not a state at the time and was a region heavily entrenched in slavery. Many Northerners were opposed to the annexation of Texas due to the slavery issue and its political implications. The Democratic Party struggled with the issue and was divided over which candidate to nominate to be their party's representative in the election. Former President Martin Van Buren of New York was opposed to annexation. The Southern members of the Democratic Party supported John C. Calhoun of South Carolina for the nomination. Calhoun was in favor of slavery and the immediate annexation of Texas. The nominating convention was at an impasse between the two Democrats until the Party finally nominated **James K. Polk** from Tennessee. He was a true expansionist who believed in Manifest Destiny and wanted to annex Texas and take claim of Oregon and California. His campaign slogan, "Fifty-four Forty or Fight!" was a reference to the latitudinal boundary between the Oregon Territory and Russian held Alaska. Polk's opponent in the election was the famous Whig candidate, Henry Clay of Kentucky. Clay's position on annexation of Texas was uncertain, as he preferred to promote his American System agenda of internal improvements rather than weigh in on the expansion issue. As a result, the New York wing of the Whig Party abandoned Clay and instead supported the anti-slavery Liberty Party in the election. The 36 New York Electoral College votes proved decisive in James K. Polk's 170-105 victory.

The Democratic victory in 1844 was thought to be a signal from the public that annexation of Texas was the desire of the people. **Texas** was annexed and when Polk took office it was up to him to deal with Mexico's reaction to the American claim to land they viewed as their own. Polk also faced a decision about how to fulfill the campaign promise of acquiring Oregon that was also claimed by Great



Oregon Territory Negotiation

Britain. Since 1818, Great Britain and the United States had essentially shared claim to **Oregon** through a treaty that was signed between the two nations calling for joint occupation. It was likely that Polk would have to fight Mexico to resolve the southern border dispute in Texas and also fight Great Britain to secure claim to the Oregon territory. Fighting Great Britain for a third time was the least appealing option. Mexico had recently won its independence from Spain in 1821 after hundreds of years of occupation. Given Mexico's new status and uncertain leadership, Britain would be the less desirable opponent in a conflict over expansion.

Polk ultimately negotiated with Great Britain concerning Oregon in an attempt to avoid armed conflict over the region. Instead of acquiring the entire Oregon territory to the 54° 40" line, a compromise was reached. The Oregon territory would be divided and the northern section would remain in Great Britain's possession and the southern section would be annexed by the United States. The Senate ratified the Oregon Treaty in 1846, the same year the United States went to war with Mexico over Texas. Polk had fulfilled the Manifest Destiny of the United States to span the North American continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific coastlines.

Resources:

1. The **University of Virginia's Miller Center** offers a comprehensive collection of materials related to James K. Polk. There are documents, biographies, speeches, and historian commentary on Polk's life and presidency.
<https://millercenter.org/president/polk>

SSUSH8 – Explore the relationship between slavery, growing north-south divisions, and westward expansion that led to the outbreak of the Civil War.

c. Analyze the impact of the Mexican War on growing sectionalism.

The United States, under the leadership of President James K. Polk, took Texas into the Union in 1845. As a result, war broke out between the United States and Mexico over differing frontier claims in Texas. The war proved to be swift and decisive as Mexico lost not only their land claim in Texas, but also all of California and New Mexico to the United States. The victory in the Mexican War soon pitted the North and South against one another as the United States wrestled with the slavery issue in the newly acquired lands. Sectionalism became even more bitter and the United States was quickly headed down a path towards Civil War.

The **Mexican War** began after the United States annexed Texas and insisted that the new border with Mexico was the Rio Grande River. Mexico, however, insisted that the border was the Nueces River (150 miles north of the Rio Grande). In addition, Mexico believed that the United States had set its sights on the Mexican territories of New Mexico and California. The United States had twice attempted to purchase the territories from Mexico. When President Polk sent American soldiers under the command of General Zachary Taylor south of the Nueces River to the banks of the Rio Grande River, the Mexican Army attacked Taylor's cavalry patrols. The incident was portrayed differently in each country. The Mexican version emphasized Taylor as having invaded Mexican land south of the Nueces River. The American version emphasized Mexico's army as having invaded American land north of the Rio Grande River.



Disputed boundary between Mexico and Texas

Polk used the incident to justify war in his message to Congress on May 11, 1846. The Declaration of War was overwhelmingly approved two days later. As the war developed, the United States attacked on two fronts. First, US forces occupied California. Second, a large American force invaded Mexico from Texas. Mexican forces were defeated and the United States occupied much of northern Mexico. As General Taylor's northern force advanced south, a second force landed at Vera Cruz led by General Winfield Scott. Scott's forces advanced overland from the coast, attacked, and ultimately captured Mexico City on August 7, 1846.

As the war was coming to a quick conclusion, Nicholas Trist was sent by President Polk to represent the United States in meetings with the Mexican government to end the war. Trist found the political situation in Mexico chaotic and worked out a peace treaty with members of the Mexican

government other than the President Santa Anna. The Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo was negotiated and signed in early 1848.

The provisions of the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo included:

1. The Rio Grande River would be the recognized border between the United States and Mexico.
2. Mexico ceded the territories of California and New Mexico (eventually becoming all or parts of seven states). The area became known as the Mexican Cession.
3. The United States paid \$15 million to the Mexican government and assumed the claims of American citizens against the Mexican government.

When the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo was introduced in the United States for ratification, it was immediately caught up in the **sectional** tension between pro-slavery and anti-slavery factions. Pennsylvania Representative David Wilmot introduced legislation in the House of Representatives that boldly declared "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist" in lands won in the Mexican War. Wilmot and other Northern representatives had grown tired of President Polk and his allies' continual block of internal improvement bills in the House and were worried that the extension of slavery into California would harm free labor. The Wilmot Proviso passed through the House, where northern states held the majority. However, the Proviso failed in the Senate, where the division between free and slave states was equal. The issue of whether to allow or prohibit slavery in new states remained unresolved and sectionalism was growing more intense. The political differences between the northern and southern sections of the country over slavery in the territories were an introduction to the violent acts that would soon lead to full-scale war.

Resources:

1. **The National Archives** features a digital collection of military resources pertaining to the Mexican War. In addition to the primary documents related to the war, there is a link to a "Teaching With Documents" lesson on the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo to use with students. <https://www.archives.gov/research/alic/reference/military/mexican-war.html>
2. **PBS - US-Mexican War** offers links to documents, maps, posters, and video clips pertaining to the Mexican War. http://www.pbs.org/kera/usmexicanwar/resources/primary_sources.html

SSUSH8 – Explore the relationship between slavery, growing north-south divisions, and westward expansion that led to the outbreak of the Civil War.

d. Explain how the Compromise of 1850 arose out of territorial expansion and population growth.

The Compromise of 1850 was four years in the making. Northern Whigs and Southern Democrats engaged in heated attacks on one another over the status of slavery in the Mexican Cession. Then the discovery of gold in California in 1848 rapidly increased the population of the territory past the 100,000 citizens necessary for statehood. As a part of their plan of statehood, Californians drew up a state constitution that outlawed slavery in the proposed state.

Southern politicians objected to California's admission as a free state on two points. First, Southerners argued that the exclusion of slavery in the territory violated the Missouri Compromise (the compromise line would split the state). Second, Northerners already controlled the House of Representatives and Southerners feared the admission of California would upset the balance of free and slave states in the Senate. Northern and Southern representatives argued bitterly over California.

Henry Clay, who diffused tensions previously with the Missouri Compromise in 1820 and a compromise tariff in 1833, finally presented a plan that he hoped would solve this heated impasse. Clay became known as the "Great Compromiser" due to his pivotal role in negotiating resolutions to challenging political issues. Concerning the present debate over California's admission to the Union, tension was continuing to escalate between the North and the South. Debates between John C. Calhoun, representing the Southern position, and Daniel Webster, representing the Northern position, raged over the bill. Numerous votes were taken, but the extremists on both sides prevented passage of the bill. Clay and Calhoun both left the Senate too ill to continue, as they were quite advanced in age.

In Clay and Calhoun's absence, Senator Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts worked to split the proposal into separate bills so that Congressmen could vote on each separately. The five bills then moved through the Congress individually and were ultimately passed. Collectively, the five laws were known as the Compromise of 1850. The provisions of the compromise included:

1. The state of New Mexico would be established by carving its borders from the state of Texas.
2. New Mexico's voters would determine whether the state would permit or prohibit slavery.
3. California would be admitted as a free state.
4. All citizens of the United States, regardless of region, would be required to apprehend runaway slaves and return them to their owners. Those who failed to do so would be fined or imprisoned.
5. The slave trade would be abolished in the District of Columbia, but the practice of slavery would be allowed to continue there.

Despite the Compromise of 1850's passage, sectional tension over slavery was eased for only a short time. The expansion of US territory to the Pacific Ocean had happened quickly and was viewed by many to be the country's Manifest Destiny. As populations of western areas grew to the level of statehood, the issue of slavery had to be negotiated through compromise due to the intense sectionalism of the period.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress** has a Web Guide for the Compromise of 1850. The compilation of resources includes primary documents from the Congressional debates and newspaper reports from various regions of the country concerning the negotiations.
<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/Compromise1850.html>

SSUSH8 – Explore the relationship between slavery, growing north-south divisions, and westward expansion that led to the outbreak of the Civil War.

e. Evaluate the Kansas-Nebraska Act, the failure of popular sovereignty, *Scott v. Sanford*, John Brown's Raid on Harper's Ferry, and the election of 1860 as events leading to the Civil War.

Four issues in the last years of the 1850s further polarized the nation over the issue of slavery and pushed the North and South toward open conflict in the Civil War. The issues were each political in nature and some involved increasing violence. The Kansas-Nebraska Act was an unsuccessful attempt to use popular sovereignty as a solution to the slavery question. The Supreme Court, in *Scott v. Sanford*, effectively overturned the Missouri Compromise. John Brown's Raid on Harper's Ferry marked an escalation of violence over the slavery issue. These events represent mounting sectional division. The trigger event that prompted the outbreak of the Civil War was Abraham Lincoln's Republican victory in the 1860 Presidential election. No one event is responsible for the Civil War, instead the cumulative effect of many events led to the conflict.

The rich farmlands west of Missouri beckoned families and investors. In 1852 and 1853, Congress considered creating the territories of Kansas and Nebraska for settlement. The legislation caught the attention of Southern Congressmen who refused to consider the creation of the new territories unless the provision was made for Southerners to bring slaves into the region. Northern representatives argued that the expansion of slavery into the new territories was a violation of the Missouri Compromise, as the land was above the provision line set in 1820 to divide slave and free states.

In 1854, Congress again took up the issue of slavery in proposed states and territories. Stephen A. Douglas included a provision using **popular sovereignty** (rule by the people), which would allow the citizens of the territory to decide whether or not slavery would be allowed. Southerners hoped that by allowing the people to decide the issue that more slave states could be added. After a great deal of rancorous debate in both Houses, the bill was approved and became known as the **Kansas-Nebraska Act**.

The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act had several effects. First, the law virtually repealed the Missouri Compromise of 1820 and the Compromise of 1850. Settlers in all new territories would have the right to decide for themselves whether their new home would be a free or slave state. The previous compromises that established policy concerning where free and slave states would form in future territories were dismissed by the more democratic sounding approach of popular sovereignty.

The Kansas-Nebraska Act's second effect was that pro- and antislavery groups both hurried into Kansas in an attempt to create voting majorities there. Antislavery abolitionists came from eastern

states; proslavery settlers came mainly from neighboring Missouri. Some of these proslavery supporters settled in Kansas, but many more stayed there only long enough to vote for slavery and then returned home to Missouri. Proslavery voters elected a legislature ready to make Kansas a slave state. Abolitionists then elected a rival Kansas government, wrote an antislavery constitution, established a different capital city, and raised an army. Proslavery Kansans reacted by raising their own army. Violence between the two sides created warlike conditions that led to the territory being referred to as "Bleeding Kansas." Popular sovereignty had failed.

The third effect of the Kansas-Nebraska Act was that it split existing political parties into regional factions and gave rise to the new Republican Party. The new party developed after President Pierce signed the Kansas-Nebraska Act into law. The common cause that attracted supporters to the Republican Party was opposition to slavery. The groups that came together to make the new party included members of the Free-Soil Party, whose main platform opposed the expansion of slavery. Disgruntled followers of the existing political parties, the antislavery Whigs and antislavery Democrats, joined the Free-Soilers in creating the new Republican Party. President Pierce's inability to control the violence in Kansas led to his defeat in the election of 1856. The Republicans were gaining momentum. So too was Abraham Lincoln, who was soon to be the Republican Party's star candidate.

Another event that led the country toward Civil War was the Supreme Court ruling in **Scott v. Sanford**. Often referred to as the Dred Scott decision, the 1857 ruling settled a lawsuit in which a slave named Dred Scott claimed he should be a free man. Scott had lived with his master in slave states and in free states and believed he had been held illegally in the free states. The Supreme Court rejected Scott's claim, ruling that no enslaved or free Black could be a citizen of the United States. The Court said Congress could not prohibit slavery in federal territories. Thus, the Court found that popular sovereignty and the Missouri Compromise of 1820 were unconstitutional.

The Dred Scott decision gave slavery the protection of the United States Constitution. In essence, nothing short of a constitutional amendment could end slavery - an event not likely to occur. Proslavery Americans welcomed the Court's ruling as proof they had been right during their long struggle against abolitionists. In contrast, abolitionists convinced many state legislatures to declare the Dred Scott decision not binding within their state borders. The new Republican Party said that if its candidate were elected President in 1860, he would appoint a new Supreme Court that would reverse the Dred Scott ruling.

Violence over slavery escalated as the political maneuvering on the subject was not producing a lasting policy. **John Brown's Raid** is another event that led to the Civil War. John Brown, an ardent abolitionist, decided to fight slavery with violence and killing. In 1856, believing he was chosen by God to end slavery, Brown commanded family members and other abolitionists to attack proslavery settlers in Kansas killing five men. Leaving Kansas, Brown decided to begin a slave war in the east by seizing arms and munitions and leading slaves in rebellion.

In 1859, John Brown led a group of White and Black men in a raid on the federal armory at Harper's Ferry, Virginia (in modern-day West Virginia) in hopes of arming slaves for a rebellion. The raid failed and US Marines, led by Colonel Robert E. Lee, captured Brown. Eventually, Brown was convicted of treason against the state of Virginia and executed by hanging.

At first, many Northerners and Southerners were horrified by Brown's actions. Eventually, many Northerners came to respect what Brown had done, viewing him as a martyr for the abolitionist movement. Southerners were angered. Many in the South viewed Brown as a terrorist killer, a man

3. **Library of Congress** Web Guide for the Election of 1860 includes images, broadsides, election records, and digital exhibitions related to the election and its critical implications for the Civil War.

<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/elections/election1860.html>

SSUSH9 – Evaluate key events, issues, and individuals related to the Civil War.

The Civil War was one of the defining events in the history of the United States. More Americans were killed in the Civil War than in any other war. The war evoked passionate determination on both sides, which resulted in a protracted war with a level of destruction not seen before. Both Union and Confederate supporters thought the war would be brief and that their side would win decisively. Instead, the Civil War lasted four years, caused over one million casualties, over 600,000 deaths, and drained the economies of both the North and the South. Evaluating the important events, issues, and individuals involved in the Civil War can help to understand why this particular war lasted longer than anyone anticipated and brought about significant social, political, and economic changes for the nation as a whole.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #6 - "Civil War and Reconstruction- 1861-1877"
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/civil-war-and-reconstruction-1861-1877>
2. **PBS The Civil War** is the website companion to the acclaimed Ken Burns documentary. This website has high quality maps, documents, biographies, video clips, and lesson plans for teachers to use in classrooms.
<http://www.pbs.org/kenburns/civil-war/>

SSUSH9 – Evaluate key events, issues, and individuals related to the Civil War.

- a. Explain the importance of the growing economic disparity between the North and the South through an examination of population, functioning railroads, and industrial output.

The North and South were vastly different regions in terms of their physical and economic resources at the time of the Civil War. Fighting the Civil War challenged both sides to field, equip, and maintain a military for the duration of the lengthy and costly war. The North had a better resume at the outset for conducting the war. There was a larger population in the North from which to draw soldiers, a more extensive transportation system to move resources, and much greater industrial output to equip soldiers to fight. The South was decidedly at a disadvantage in each of these categories. It would seem from the data that the war would be a swift and decisive victory for the North. The war was ultimately a

Union victory, but it was hard fought and lengthy. The South made up for its shortcomings through strong military leadership that relied on efficiency and strategy to prolong the war.

The disparity between the North and the South had been many decades in the making. With the advent of the Industrial Revolution, the two regions developed differently. The North evolved into a more industrial economy with larger cities and a larger immigrant population to work in the factories for cheap wages. The North's wealth from industrial production was growing substantially by the mid-19th century. The South remained largely agricultural. Cotton was King, as the demand for Southern grown cotton was in high demand by Northern textile factories and other world markets. However, most farmers in the South were small-scale farmers and only a small percentage engaged in the large plantation operations that produced the greatest wealth.

Northern wealth from industrial production accumulated in cash assets. Southern wealth was often tied up in land and slave investments. Therefore, when the Civil War began, the North was better able to fund the military operation based on more available cash, the sale of government bonds, and taxation. The South struggled to finance the war and tried desperately, but without success, to secure a foreign alliance to supplement the Confederate operation. The Union blockade of the Southern coastline limited the ability of the South to export cotton during the war, which further hurt Confederate finances. The South printed large quantities of paper money to fund the war, with dangerous inflationary consequences. The factors of population, infrastructure, and industrial production reflect a wide gap between the North and South at the time of the Civil War. In each area, the North was in a favorable position to fight the war.

The table below reflects data concerning the economic disparity between the North and South.

	Northern Economy	Southern Economy
Foundation	Industry and Trade	Agriculture
Manufacturing Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 92% of US Industrial Output • Abundant resources to produce weapons, military supplies, and equipment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8% of US Industrial Output • Minimal resources to produce weapons • Soldiers often fought with their personal equipment
Food Production	Over twice as much food production compared to the South	Limited food production due to vast cotton cultivation
Employment and Property Ownership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many citizens owned no property and worked for someone else • Even in large-scale farming regions, machines reduced the need for agricultural workers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Southern economy depended on the production of cash crops (cotton, rice, corn, and tobacco) • Required human labor and depended on slavery • Most farmers were small farmers and owned no slaves
Population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 71% of US population • Of the population in the North, 99% was free and 1% slave • Large enough to assemble an army capable of defending the North 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 29% of US population • Of the population in the South, 67% free and 33% slave • Too few free men to assemble an army capable of defending the Confederacy
Railroads	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 71% of US railroad network • Efficient rail transport system • Able to transport troops, supplies, and food 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 29% of US railroad network • Inefficient rail transport system • Poor capacity to transport troops, supplies, and food
Exports and Views on Tariff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 34% of US exports • Favored high tariffs on imported goods to protect Northern industries and workers' jobs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 66% of US exports (however, this cotton export was cut off by Union blockade during the war) • Favored low (or no) tariffs on imported goods to keep the prices of manufactured goods more affordable

Resources:

1. **National Park Service** offers a full comparison of the Union and Confederate "Industry and Economy During the Civil War." The document compares the Union's advantages in manpower, factories, and railroads during the Civil War.

<https://www.nps.gov/articles/industry-and-economy-during-the-civil-war.htm>

SSUSH9 – Evaluate key events, issues, and individuals related to the Civil War.

b. Discuss Lincoln’s purpose in using emergency powers to suspend habeas corpus, issuing the Emancipation Proclamation, and delivering the Gettysburg and Second Inaugural Addresses.

President Abraham Lincoln was elected President in 1860. The immediate reaction by the states of the Deep South was secession. The eleven states that eventually formed the Confederate States of America (the "Confederacy") viewed themselves as a separate nation. Over the course of the Civil War, President Lincoln repeatedly demonstrated and spoke about his primary objective and purpose in the war, which was preserving the Union.

In Lincoln's first inaugural address, he tried to conciliate Southerners by saying that he was not going to abolish slavery and that he only wanted to preserve the Union. He went on to urge Southerners to abandon the idea of secession and rejoin the United States. President Lincoln believed preservation of the United States (the "Union") was the most important task for any President. He did not believe the southern states had the right to secede from the Union and thought they were merely rebelling against the government.

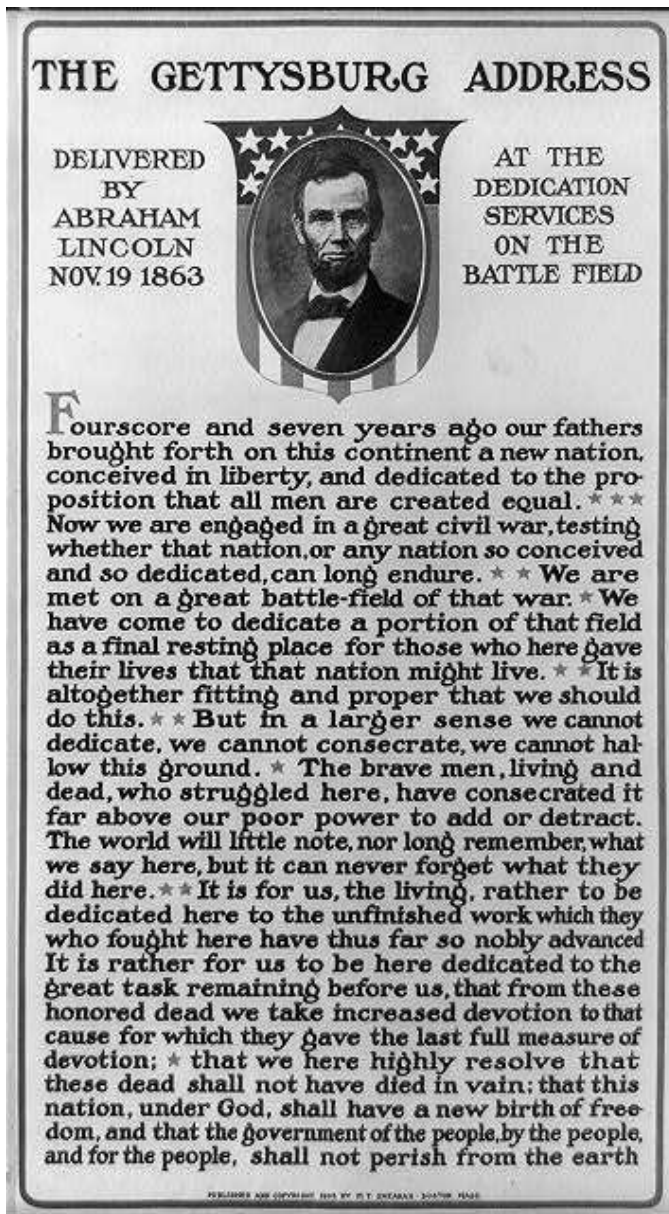
As a result, Lincoln never considered the Confederacy a separate country. Confederate forces attacked the Fort Sumter, South Carolina United States Army fortification in April 1861, which marked the beginning of the long-feared Civil War. When Lincoln called for a large volunteer army to preserve the Union, more states - Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee - seceded to join the Confederacy. Although Lincoln often stated that he wished only to restrict the spread of slavery, not to abolish it, he did over the course of the war come to embrace the idea of ending slavery in the United States.

Lincoln's desire to preserve the Union can also be seen in his speech at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. The occasion was the dedication of a military cemetery at the Gettysburg battlefield in November 1863, just four months after 51,000 Union and Confederate soldiers were killed there in

battle. When Lincoln rose to speak, starting with his famous words "Four score and seven years ago...", he spoke for just two minutes. Lincoln thought the speech was a failure because of the poor crowd response. It was not until the next day, when the **Gettysburg Address** was widely published by Northern newspapers, that Lincoln's words caught the imagination of the North. Lincoln's call to continue on with the fight for the fallen and to help preserve "...government of the people, by the people, and for the people..." helped to raise the spirits of Northerners who had grown weary of the war and were dismayed by Confederate victories over the larger Union armies. Lincoln did not support giving up the fight, which would have dissolved the Union created by the Patriots "four score and seven years" before.

President Lincoln was reelected in 1864. His **Second Inaugural Address** is another example of a speech where his determination to preserve the union of states is evident. When the Second Inaugural was given, Union victory over the Confederacy was eminent and Americans foresaw an end to slavery. Instead of boasting about the victory, Lincoln expressed sorrow that the states had not been able to resolve their differences peacefully. However, he clearly stated that slavery was such an evil that the North was right to have gone to war over the issue. Nevertheless, he urged

Americans not to seek revenge on slaveholders, their supporters, or the Confederate military. Instead, he urged reconstruction of the South in a spirit of "malice toward none; with charity for all." Lincoln formed what would become the popular memory of why the war was necessary. He said it had been fought to preserve the Union as an indivisible nation of citizens who would no longer profit from "wringing their bread from the sweat of other men's faces" - from taking their earnings from the labor of slaves.



Although Lincoln's objective was to preserve the United States, he also became more intent on ending slavery through the course of the war. In 1862, after the bloody battle at Antietam, Lincoln used executive powers to issue the **Emancipation Proclamation**. The policy emancipated (freed) all slaves held in the states engaged in rebellion. Lincoln did not expect Confederate slaveholders to free their slaves, but he thought news of the proclamation would reach southern slaves and encourage them to flee to the North. Lincoln believed one reason southern Whites were free to join the Confederate Army was because slaves were doing their work at home on southern farms. Encouraging slaves to flee to the North would hurt the Southern war effort.



"Reading the Emancipation Proclamation" appeared in an 1864 Connecticut pamphlet.

Although the Emancipation Proclamation did not free slaves held in the North or in the Border States, free Blacks living in Union states warmly welcomed Lincoln's statement. The proclamation enlarged the purpose of the Civil War to include abolishing slavery and also opened the way for Blacks to join the Union Army.

Not all Northerners supported President Lincoln's efforts to preserve the Union. Some were Confederate sympathizers (just as some Southerners were Union sympathizers). Throughout the war, in some states Lincoln suspended the constitutional right of *habeas corpus* - the legal rule that anyone imprisoned must be taken before a judge to determine if the prisoner is being legally held in custody. The Constitution allows a President to suspend habeas corpus during a national emergency. Lincoln used his emergency powers to legalize the holding of Confederate sympathizers without trial and without a judge to agree they were legally imprisoned. Over 13,000 Confederate sympathizers were arrested in the North. After the war, Lincoln's actions were partially repudiated by the Supreme Court decision *Ex parte Milligan*, 1866, which upheld the suspension of habeas corpus in times of national crisis. Lincoln's purpose in suspending habeas corpus was to help ensure victory in the war - even if it meant restricting individual liberties- and ultimately preserve the Union as he had stated many times.

Resources:

1. **Library of Congress American Memory** - "Mr. Lincoln's Virtual Library" is a collection of Abraham Lincoln's papers, broadsides, images, music, and online exhibitions related to Abraham Lincoln.
<https://memory.loc.gov/ammem/alhtml/alrel.html>

SSUSH9 – Evaluate key events, issues, and individuals related to the Civil War.

c. Examine the influences of Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson, William T. Sherman, and Jefferson Davis.

The Civil War was conducted through the leadership of some very successful military and political leaders. At the time of the war's opening shots, the Confederacy had the advantage in terms of military leadership. Commanders from both sides were very familiar with one another, as many had trained together at the West Point Military Academy or served together in the Mexican War.



Confederate Gen.
Robert E. Lee

Lincoln was frustrated early in the war by his Union commanders' inability to end the fighting quickly. Grant and Sherman finally emerged as the type of aggressive commanders Lincoln had been looking to promote. The Confederate commander, **General Robert E. Lee**, was thought to be one of the most capable military men in the United States. He was even offered a top position in the United States Army when the Civil War broke out. However, Lee resigned when his home state of Virginia seceded and joined the Confederacy. Lee's influence on the war was one of strong military leadership. Given all of the disadvantages the Confederacy faced going into the conflict, Lee was able to efficiently craft a military strategy that withstood larger Union armies and often a lack of supplies.

General Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson was considered a brilliant military tactician and was a great commander for Robert E. Lee's Confederate Army. He led his forces to victory at both battles of Bull Run. Like Lee, he was very skilled in the field through maneuvering his forces against often larger and better-equipped opponents. Jackson was shot at the Battle of Chancellorsville in 1863 and died a few days later. His death was a tremendous loss to General Lee and the Confederate Army.

General Ulysses S. Grant was promoted to full command of the Union Army in March 1864. He had demonstrated his skill and aggressive approach in battle through the difficult campaigns in the West. One of his greatest successes that earned him the promotion was at the siege of Vicksburg. His hard fought victory to control the Mississippi River achieved one of the main military objectives of the Union's Anaconda Plan. The Union wanted to split the Confederacy to restrict its ability to mobilize forces. Grant's victory at Vicksburg achieved that goal. Robert E. Lee ultimately surrendered to General Grant at Appomattox Courthouse in Virginia on April 9, 1865 to end the war.



Union General Ulysses S. Grant

Just as Ulysses S. Grant had been noticed for his aggressive military success, so too was General **William T. Sherman**. Grant and Sherman had fought together in the western campaigns at Shiloh and Vicksburg. When Grant was given full command of the Union Army, Sherman was also promoted to lead the forces in the West. Sherman is noted for capturing the key Confederate city of Atlanta and subsequently leading the Union March to the Sea through Georgia. Sherman's influence on the outcome of the war was to wear down the Confederate will to fight through the widespread destruction of property on his march through Georgia and the Carolinas.

Jefferson Davis was not a military commander in the field but was President of the Confederate States of America. Davis did possess a military background, having graduated from West Point. He was also a well-respected United States Senator from Mississippi before the Civil War began. Davis was not able to secure for the Confederacy a diplomatic alliance with European countries. He was also at odds with many of the Confederate state governors regarding his war plans that strained the already scarce resources of the South. Davis's counterpart Abraham Lincoln proved to be a more capable political leader during the Civil War.

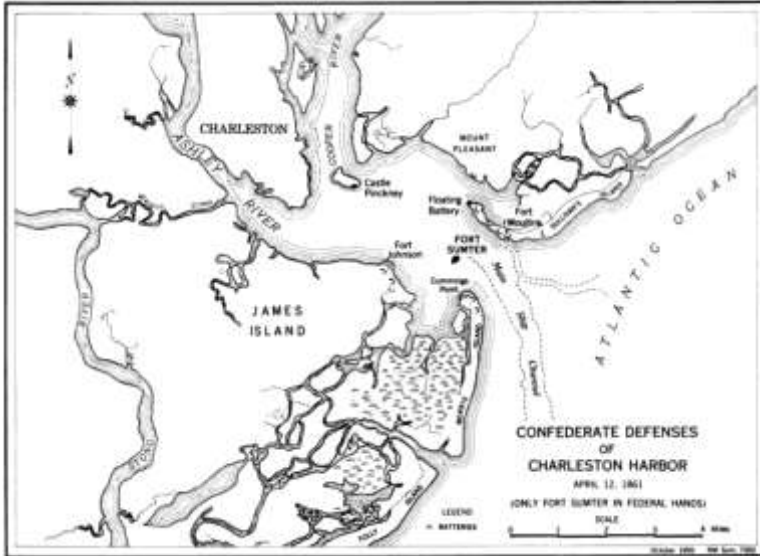
Resources:

1. **The Civil War 150** website was created in a team effort by the Library of America and the Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History. The site contains multimedia, downloadable readers, and documents related to all aspects of the Civil War. The leaders emphasized in this element of SSUSH9 are well documented in the Civil War 150 site.
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/programs-and-events/civil-war-150>
2. **The National Park Service Ulysses S. Grant Historic Site** has specific information related to Ulysses S. Grant and his wife Julia.
<https://www.nps.gov/ulsg/index.htm>
3. **Stratford Hall** is the home of Robert E. Lee. The website contains a complete biography and access to research collections related to Robert E. Lee.
<https://www.stratfordhall.org/>

SSUSH9 – Evaluate key events, issues, and individuals related to the Civil War.

d. Explain the importance of Fort Sumter, Antietam, Vicksburg, Gettysburg, and Atlanta, as well as the impact of geography on these battles.

Civil War historians acknowledge that 50 major battles and 5000 minor battles were fought in the Civil War between 1861 and 1865. There were also countless skirmishes throughout the course of the war. Land battles were fought mostly in states east of the Mississippi River and south of the Ohio River. Sea battles were fought along the Atlantic coast and in the Gulf of Mexico. There were also major river battles fought on the Mississippi River. The battles listed in this element are representative of key strategies and moments in the Civil War.

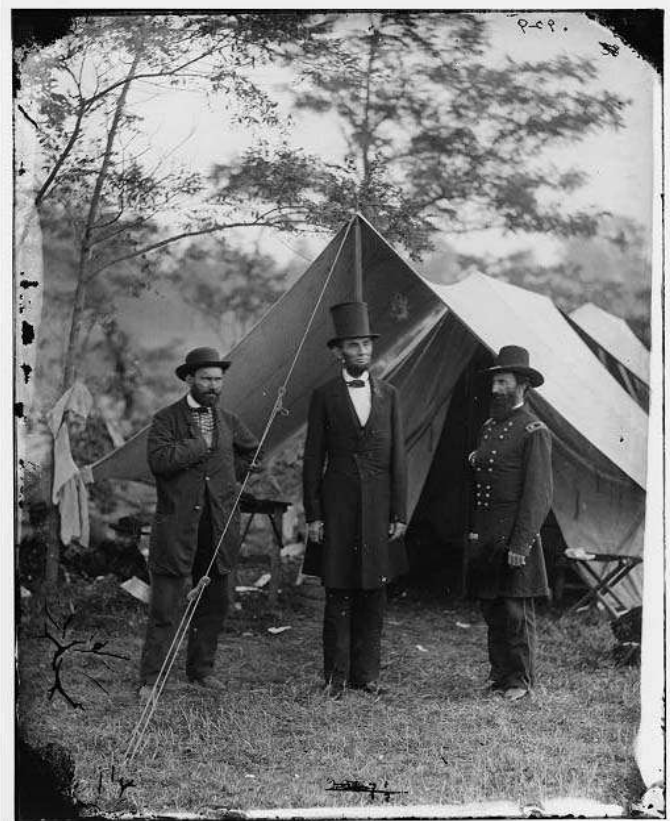


Battle of Fort Sumter (National Park Service)

The **Battle of Fort Sumter** was fought in April 1861. Guarding the mouth of Charleston Harbor, Fort Sumter was one of the last forts within the seceding states that still remained under federal control. Because the South controlled the harbor, Fort Sumter was cut off from Union supplies and reinforcements. Lincoln had just taken office a few months earlier and the fort was quickly running out of food and supplies. The new President contacted the South Carolina leadership to alert them that the United States would be sending food - and only food - to the Union fortification isolated within Confederate territory. Thus, a critical juncture was reached. Either the Confederates would allow the fort to remain under Union control or begin the fight.

Confederate forces staged a 24-hour bombardment against the fort and, by attacking federal property, committed an act of open rebellion. To uphold the Constitution, President Lincoln believed he had no choice but to call for troops to respond against the Confederacy. As a direct result, the Civil War began. The Confederates won the battle at Fort Sumter after two days of relentless bombing from the Charleston shoreline. Not only did this battle begin the war, but it also prompted the states of the Upper South to join the Confederacy. Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas seceded within weeks of the Confederate victory at Fort Sumter.

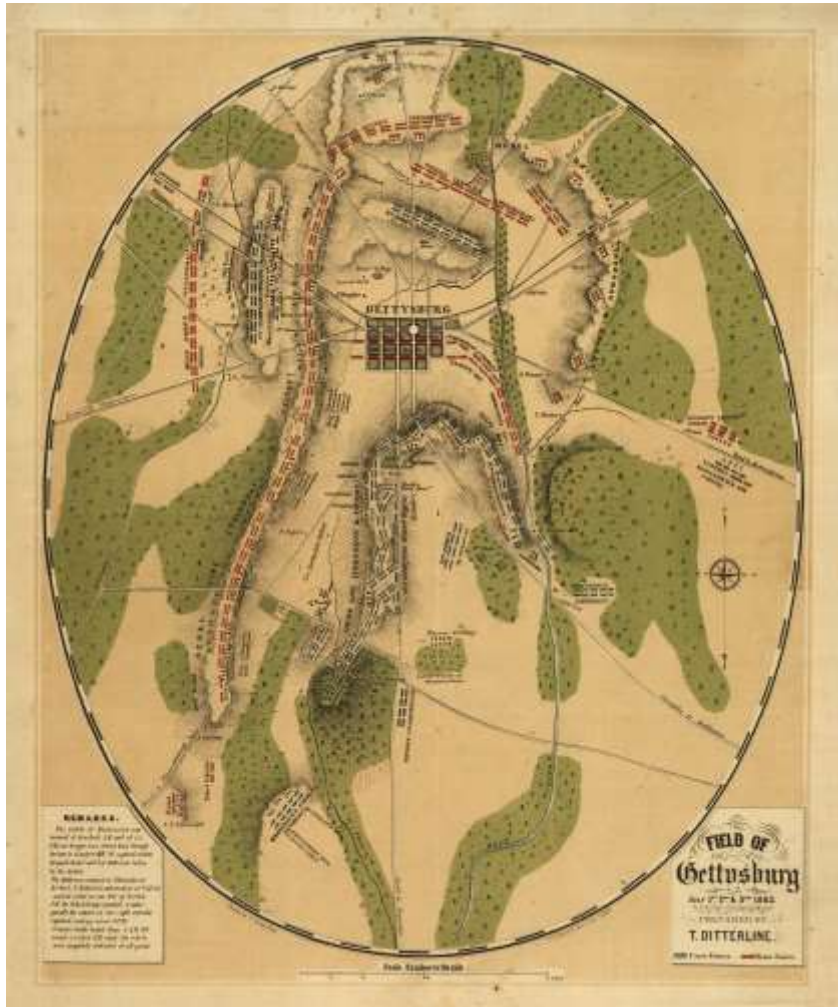
The **Battle of Antietam** was fought in September 1862. Confederate General Robert E. Lee marched his forces to Antietam Creek, Maryland, where he fought the war's first major battle on Union soil. Maryland was a Border State, which meant that it was a state that allowed slavery but remained loyal to the Union. The state was geographically important as a Border State. The Confederate forces believed if the war pushed into Maryland, the state would join the Confederacy. The Confederacy also hoped that a victory in a



President Lincoln Paying Respects at Antietam, 1862

Union state would encourage European nations to join in a desperately needed alliance with the South.

The outcome at Antietam was not what the Confederates had anticipated. There was not a significant Confederate following in Maryland to supplement the attack. It was instead the deadliest one-day battle in American history, with over 26,000 casualties. It was also shocking in that neither side, secured a victory. As Lee withdrew to the South, Union forces might have been able to end the entire war by pursuing the Confederates. However, the Union did not follow Lee, even though they outnumbered the Confederate forces two-to-one. The significance of the Battle of Antietam was that Lee's failure to win encouraged Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation.



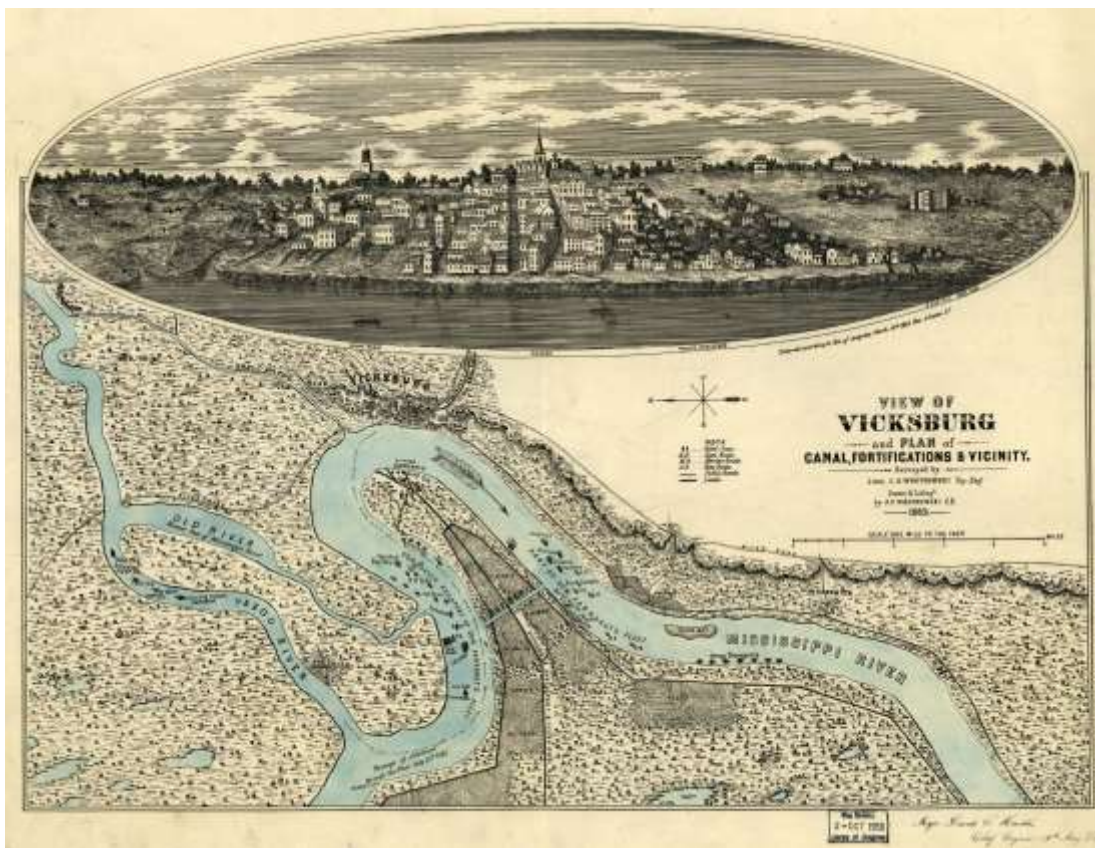
Field Map of the Battle at Gettysburg, July 1863

The **Battle of Gettysburg** was fought in July 1863. Confederate General Robert E. Lee hoped once again that an invasion of Union territory would significantly weaken Northern support for the war effort. Lee's army was met by Union troops at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. Approximately 51,000 soldiers were killed during the three-day battle. It was the deadliest battle of the American Civil War. Geography played a key role in the outcome of this particular battle. The small town of Gettysburg is surrounded by steep hills and rugged terrain. Once the Union Forces secured the high ground, it was difficult for the Confederates to overpower the enemy due to their fortified location. After three deadly days of fighting, the Confederates retreated in defeat.

Gettysburg marked the beginning of the end for the Confederate forces in the east. Lee gave up any further attempts to invade the Union territory. Four months later, Lincoln delivered his Gettysburg Address at the dedication of the Gettysburg National Cemetery. The geographic position of Gettysburg, being in the northern state of Pennsylvania and having a rugged topography, were key components of the battle there.

The **Battle of Vicksburg** was fought over a span of two months from May through July 1863. Union General Ulysses S. Grant laid siege to Vicksburg, Mississippi because whoever controlled the high ground there in the bend of the Mississippi River would control traffic on the whole river. Grant, aided by naval actions along the mouth of the Mississippi River during the seven-week siege, achieved one of the Union's major strategic goals in the west. Because the Union now controlled the Mississippi River, Confederate troops and supplies from Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas were cut off from the East.

This Union victory, coupled with the Union victory at Gettysburg, was the turning point of the war. The geographic significance of the Battle of Vicksburg is the proximity of the town to the logistically critical Mississippi River. The side that controlled the river had an incredible advantage in terms of transporting goods and soldiers. The Confederate loss of Vicksburg also meant they lost control of the Mississippi River and the ability to maneuver their forces and supplies efficiently.



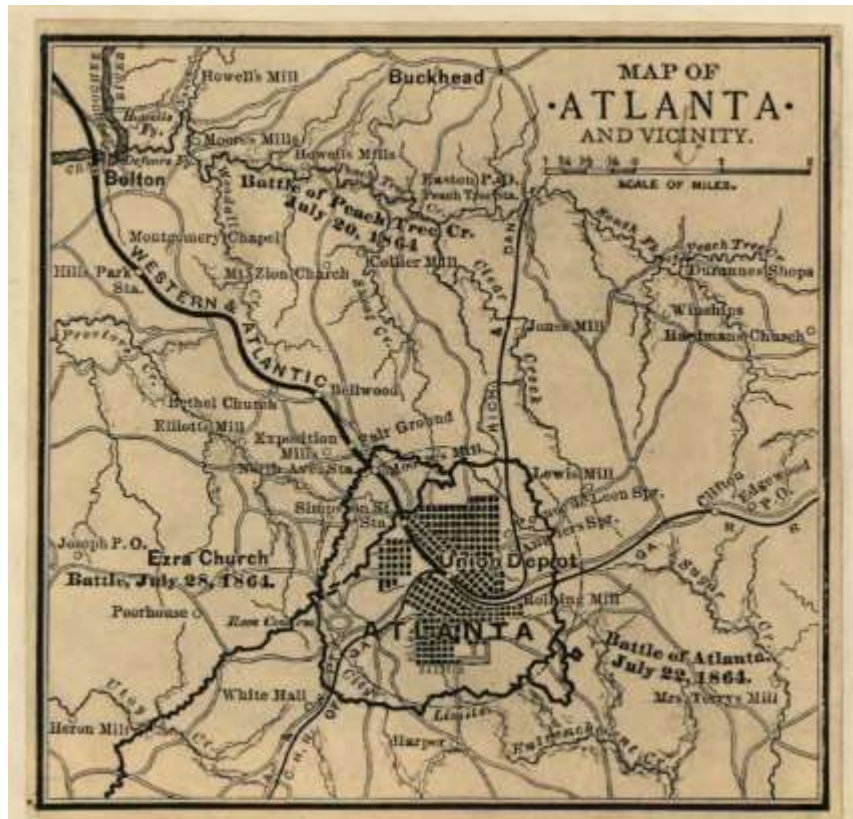
Vicksburg's geographic location at the sharp bend of the Mississippi River is what made it such a strategic location during the Civil War. The army that controlled the city also controlled the boat traffic on the river.



Sherman oversees Atlanta

The **Battle of Atlanta** was fought from July through September 1864. Union General William Tecumseh Sherman besieged Atlanta, Georgia for six weeks before capturing the vitally important center of Confederate manufacturing and railway traffic. Geography made Atlanta a key location for the Confederate operation. The city had emerged as a transportation hub due to its location below the Appalachian Mountains and above the coastal plain. Atlanta, at the time of the Civil War, was one of the few locations in the South that had a significant concentration of railroad lines and industry.

Sherman's goal was to disrupt the Confederacy's capacity to resupply its troops throughout the South. Therefore, Atlanta was his prime target. Union troops burned Atlanta to the ground, then marched across Georgia to the Atlantic Ocean, and on through the Carolinas. During the March to the Sea, Sherman and his men destroyed the railways, roads, and bridges along the path. The Union force also destroyed the crops and livestock they did not harvest and butcher for their own nourishment. One result of this campaign that devastated the South was that the Confederates recognized that they would lose the war and the North recognized that it would win. Lincoln easily won reelection in 1864 against a candidate who wanted a truce with the Confederacy instead of pursuing the victory that was close at hand.



Map of Atlanta
Showing the Various Railroad Lines Converging at the Depot in Atlanta.

Resources:

1. **National Park Service Fort Sumter** has information about the battle that began the Civil War. Included on the website are photos and videos of rangers discussing the various elements of the fort and the battle.
<https://www.nps.gov/fosu/index.htm>
2. **National Park Service Antietam** has information about the key battle fought in Maryland. Information includes a timeline, background information, maps, video clips, and images from the Antietam battlefield.
<https://www.nps.gov/anti/index.htm>
3. **National Park Service Gettysburg** includes video tours, images, and detailed information concerning the battle that was fought there and the Gettysburg Address delivered by Abraham Lincoln at the cemetery site.
<https://www.nps.gov/gett/index.htm>
4. **National Park Service Vicksburg** has lesson plans, videos, and detailed information about the month long siege of Vicksburg. Included is detailed information about Vicksburg's pivotal location on the Mississippi River
<https://www.nps.gov/vick/index.htm>
5. **Atlanta History Center and the Atlanta Journal Constitution Newspaper** teamed up to create a website devoted to the Battle of Atlanta. The site offers a thorough collection of resources pertaining to the city as it existed during the Civil War and General Sherman's occupation.
<http://battleofatlanta.myajc.com>

SSUSH10 – Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction.

Reconstruction, 1865-1877, involved the rebuilding of the South after the Civil War and readmitting the Confederate states to the Union. It is important to consider three ways the South was rebuilt - legally (through Congressional mandate), politically (with the arrival of the Republican Party and the weakening of the Democratic Party), and the social changes brought about with the attempt to blend freedmen into Southern society. Southerners resisted these attempts to change the political and social structure of the South. This resistance gave rise to secret societies, which used violence and intimidation to break the political will of Blacks and their White sympathizers. Ultimately, the reconstruction of the South was brought to an end by economic necessity and the lack of political will of Northern politicians to continue the democratic experiment in the South.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #6 - "Civil War and Reconstruction- 1861-1877"
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/civil-war-and-reconstruction-1861-1877>
2. **University of Houston Digital History** - contains a theme for Reconstruction. This is a comprehensive site with an overview, digital media, video links, biographies, documents, lesson plans, and quizzes.
<http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/era.cfm?eraID=8&smtID=1>

SSUSH10 – Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction.

- a. Compare and contrast Presidential Reconstruction with Congressional Reconstruction, including the significance of Lincoln's assassination and Johnson's impeachment.

The end of the Civil War brought with it the monumental task of physically, politically, economically, and socially repairing the United States. Questions existed over how to most efficiently and effectively make this happen. There were two different approaches to Reconstruction. Presidential Reconstruction was the approach that promoted more leniency towards the South regarding plans for readmission to the Union. Congressional Reconstruction blamed the South and wanted retribution for causing the Civil War. Their approach required much more submission from the South as a condition for readmission to the Union. Both Presidential and Congressional Reconstruction plans recognized the importance of rebuilding all aspects of the nation. Where they differed was in the details for implementation.

Reconstruction became a conflict between the Radical Republicans and Presidents Lincoln and Johnson, who proposed more moderate requirements for the former Confederate states. The Radical Republicans wanted to severely punish the South for the Civil War. Lincoln and the moderates wanted to bring the South into the Union quickly. The process of rebuilding the South began before the war

ended. **Presidential Reconstruction** refers to when Lincoln proposed the *Ten Percent Plan* in 1863. This plan called on Southern states to complete three tasks in order to restore their status in the United States. First, they had to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment, which abolished slavery. Second, states had to repudiate secession. Third, when ten percent of the voters from 1860 had taken an oath of allegiance to the United States, that southern state would be restored to the Union.

Radical Republicans objected to Lincoln's plan saying the plan was too lenient and did not go far enough to protect the rights of the newly freed slaves. In response, they proposed the Wade-Davis Bill. In addition to ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment, the proposed law would have required 50% of the voters of a southern state to swear their loyalty to the United States. Southern supporters believed that this was an impossible task designed to keep the South dominated by Northern political interests. Lincoln vetoed the Wade Davis Bill. Before Lincoln could reintroduce his plan he was assassinated.

Lincoln was shot and killed on April 14, 1865, just a few days after Robert E. Lee had surrendered at Appomattox. The **assassination** took place at Ford's Theater in Washington, where Lincoln and his wife were attending a play. John Wilkes Booth was an actor who supported the Confederacy and shot the President in anger over the Southern loss in the Civil War. Lincoln was a skilled politician who was poised to negotiate a flexible solution to the Reconstruction issue. His assassination resulted in more turmoil and political wrangling. The chaos was in part due to the new President set to fill Lincoln's untimely loss – Andrew Johnson.

Andrew Johnson had been chosen by Abraham Lincoln to be Vice President for his second term in office. Johnson was a Democrat from Tennessee, who remained loyal to the Union during the Civil War even though he was a supporter of slavery. His loyalty to the Union was about bringing down the wealthy plantation owners. Johnson believed these aristocrats restricted the small farmers' ability to make money. Johnson was added to Lincoln's 1864 Presidential ticket because he was a Democrat from the South and would be a symbol of goodwill as the Civil War was coming to a close. Lincoln wanted to send a message of reconciliation.

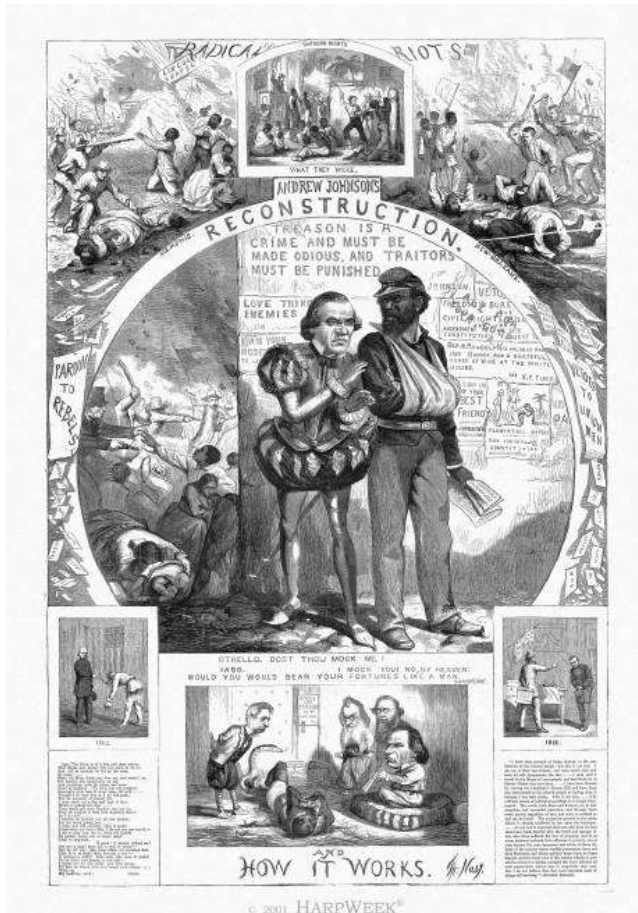


Lincoln's Assassination at Ford's Theater
by John Wilkes Booth

After the assassination of Lincoln, the Reconstruction task fell to the new President. Andrew Johnson's plan for Reconstruction was actually similar to Lincoln's. The new President sought to rapidly

integrate Southern states back into the Union by appointing governors who would make the required political changes. There was significant opposition to this approach by Radical Republican members of Congress who wanted the South to be dealt with more harshly. The Congressional election of 1866 returned a Radical Republican majority to Congress. The group began pushing forward bills that favored their position and Johnson vetoed each one. Congress and Johnson were at odds with one another. The political struggle quickly escalated to a level not previously tested.

In addition to vetoing Republican legislation that came to the White House for Johnson's signature, the President was also firing many Republicans from the executive offices they had held under Lincoln's administration. To preserve the Republican influence in the executive branch, Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act over Johnson's veto in 1867. This law required Senate approval before the President could remove a federal official or



Johnson's Presidential Reconstruction Plan Cartoon by Thomas Nast.

military commander from a position in the government. Johnson ignored the law and fired Republican Secretary of War Edwin Stanton from his post. Congress responded by **impeaching Johnson** for breaking a federal law, but ultimately failed to remove him from office by one vote. The impeachment hearings lasted months and sidetracked the more important Reconstruction efforts of the government. Because the Congress had a Radical Republican majority, they were able to overturn any veto Johnson issued on proposed legislation. Rather than remove the President, the Radical Republicans simply waited out his term in office. This arrangement ushered in what is known as **Congressional Reconstruction**.

The First Reconstruction Act, which was passed over Johnson's veto in 1867, divided the South into five military districts that were administered by military governors. The law turned the clock back on any Reconstruction measures passed by Southern states. To be readmitted to the Union, the Southern states were required to guarantee former male slaves and free Blacks suffrage. The states were also required to hold open elections for both White and Black representatives to the state constitutional convention. The purpose of the state constitutional conventions was to create new state

constitutions that recognized the three Reconstruction amendments to the United States Constitution - the 13th, 14th, & 15th amendments.

By 1870, all the former Confederate states had been re-admitted to the Union. Federal troops remained in the South to enforce the provisions of Reconstruction and to protect former slaves from mob violence. The Reconstruction process was contentious. Both Presidential and Congressional Reconstruction plans were intended to repair the badly fractured nation - politically, physically, and socially. However, the plans differed on how harshly the South should be treated. Presidents Lincoln and Johnson favored a more lenient approach. The Radical Republicans of the Congress wanted harsh punishment against the South for causing the war.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** has a good collection of information regarding the various Reconstruction plans. In addition to the background information, there are video clips featuring historians.
<http://www.history.com/topics/american-civil-war/reconstruction>

SSUSH10 – Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction.

- b. Investigate the efforts of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands (the Freedmen’s Bureau) to support poor whites, former slaves, and American Indians.

In March 1865, Congress created the **Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands** in order to ease freed slaves' transition from enslavement to freedom. The Bureau is often referred to simply as the Freedmen's Bureau. In addition to supporting former slaves in beginning their new lives, the Bureau was also intended to help the vast numbers of homeless Whites who had been displaced or

lost their property during the war. The federal government was operating as a relief agency tasked with overseeing the social welfare of the nation's citizens.



The Freedmen’s Bureau

In addition to assisting with basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter, and medical assistance, the Freedmen's Bureau was also responsible for introducing a system of free labor, overseeing approximately 3,000 schools for freed persons, settling disputes and enforcing contracts between the typically White landowners and their Black labor force, and securing justice for Blacks in state courts. The Bureau also worked to reunite families and legalize the marriages of former slaves.

One of the greatest areas of success attributed to the Freedmen's Bureau is the basic education it provided to approximately 200,000 Blacks. During slavery, it was illegal in most Southern states to teach slaves to read and write. White Southerners were worried that literate slaves would be better able to communicate to plan rebellion or to read newspapers reporting on the abolitionist efforts. Once the Civil War was over, it was essential that former slaves develop basic reading and math skills in order to not be taken advantage of when negotiating work contracts with White landowners.

While the Freedmen's Bureau did help some former slaves acquire land unclaimed by its pre-war owners, Congress did not grant land or the absolute right to own land to all freed slaves. Such land grants would have

provided Blacks some level of economic independence. Without it, and with few skills outside of farming, the newly freed slaves had few options other than entering the sharecropping, crop lien, or tenant farming system, where they often ended up working for former slaveholders in conditions very similar to slavery.

Most of those people helped by the Freedmen's Bureau were Black. However, some White Southerners also received ration assistance for food and clothing. There is also some evidence in the detailed records kept by the Freedmen's Bureau that some American Indians drew rations from the agency. The records document some Cherokee and Creek tribal members on the ration rolls.

As in the case of land grants, the Bureau lacked any enforcement authority on its own and lost its remaining ability to carry out its mission when Federal troops were withdrawn from the South. The lack of adequate funding restricted the number of agents working in the South. A Freedmen's Bureau agent was often the only Northern government representative in a former Confederate community. The agent was often harassed and threatened. Most White Southerners refused to support the Bureau's objectives and Northern politicians neglected to give it financial support, thus causing its demise. The Freedmen's Bureau ceased operation in 1872.

Resources:

1. **The National Archives** has a large collection of records from the Freedmen's Bureau. The site includes a background description of the agency and access to the records. Many of the records are on microfilm but there is a link on the page to other Bureau resources.
<https://www.archives.gov/research/african-americans/freedmens-bureau>



James' Plantation School, North Carolina – Oct. 1868

SSUSH10 – Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction.

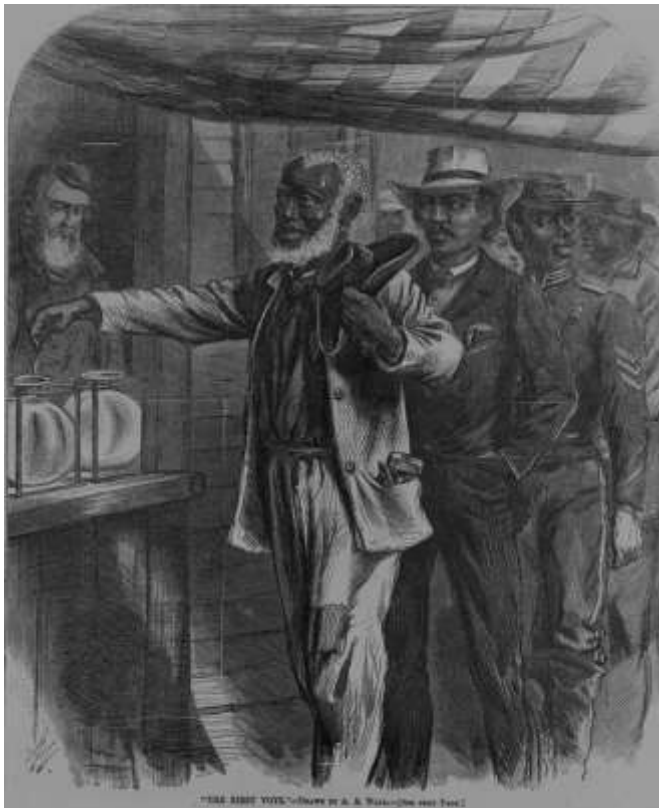
c. Describe the significance of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth amendments.

The Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth amendments are collectively referred to as the Reconstruction Amendments. They effectively ended slavery, extended citizenship, and allowed voting rights for former (male) slaves. These amendments are significant because they establish a federal mandate concerning the end of slavery in the United States. Even with these amendments to the United States Constitution, many states in the South passed Black Codes, or Jim Crow Laws, that restricted Blacks and denied them true equality.

The **Thirteenth Amendment** was adopted in 1865 and is very direct concerning the end of slavery in the United States. The amendment reads, "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for a crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction." Because the amendment ended slavery, it made null the provisions for slavery within the original Constitution. The overturned policies included a fugitive slave clause requiring runaway slaves to be returned to their owners and the 3/5 Compromise concerning the count of slaves as part of a state's population for representation in the Congress.

The **Fourteenth Amendment** was adopted in 1868 and is a little more complex than the Thirteenth amendment, which banned slavery. There are two main provisions in the amendment. First, it declares that all people born or naturalized to the United States are citizens. As a Reconstruction

Amendment, this provision meant that former slaves were indeed citizens of the United States. The second provision of the Fourteenth Amendment requires that states protect the rights of all United States citizens. States are expected to provide "equal protection of the laws" and "due process of law." This particular amendment is still often used by civil rights activists to defend against discrimination.



"The First Vote"

The **Fifteenth Amendment** was adopted in 1869. The text of this amendment is also very brief. The amendment reads, "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The second section adds, "The Congress shall have the power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation." The Fifteenth Amendment did little to limit the effects of poll taxes, the grandfather clause, and literacy tests implemented in Southern states to block Blacks from voting after Reconstruction ended.

It was not until the 1950s and 1960s that Black Codes were struck down by Supreme Court rulings and Congressional legislation. An example of legislation that struck down discriminatory state policies was the Voting Rights Act of 1965 passed by the United States Congress.

The Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments are together known as the Reconstruction amendments. They were intended to establish policy at the national level regarding the end of slavery and the process for ensuring a protection of rights for former slaves. Even with the power of these amendments, the Black population of the United States did not experience true equality until almost 100 years later with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the *Brown v. Board of Education* Supreme Court ruling in 1954.

Resources:

1. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** features an essay on the Reconstruction amendments entitled “The Reconstruction Amendments: Official Documents as Social History.” The essay, by noted historian Eric Foner, does a good job of explaining the amendments in the context of how they affected history.
https://faculty.uml.edu/sgallagher/Reconstruction_Amendments.pdf

SSUSH10 – Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction.

d. Explain the Black Codes, the Ku Klux Klan, and other forms of resistance to racial equality during Reconstruction.

In the South, resistance to Reconstruction took several forms. Many White southern citizens refused to participate politically in opposition to the outcome of the Civil War. Southern states passed harsh laws that restricted the economic and political rights of freedmen. Racial equality was not fully achieved during Reconstruction.

Black Codes were enacted by many Southern states immediately after the Civil War. These state level laws were designed to regulate relations between White Southerners and newly freed slaves. While recognizing some rights, such as legalized marriage, ownership of property, and limited access to the courts, Black Codes denied Blacks the rights to testify against Whites, to serve on juries or in state militias, to vote, and to express legal concern publicly. Also the Codes were an attempt by plantation owners to secure the labor supply lost as a result of the Thirteenth Amendment by requiring all Blacks to provide proof of employment or be forced to work for White land owners. Black Codes enraged Northern Congressmen and the public who saw the laws as a re-introduction of slavery.

The **Ku Klux Klan** was founded in 1866. It was originally a Confederate veterans’ club but quickly became an organization closely associated with the worst forms of violence and intimidation. Initially, the Klan tried to scare Blacks into compliance and keep them from voting. When this method did not work Klan members attacked Northern Whites who came South. The racist organization



“The Union As It Was” by
Thomas Nast - 1874

also targeted Southern Whites who tried to support Reconstruction, and Blacks who were educated and participated in community affairs. Eventually, anyone who Klan members disliked could be attacked, beaten, or brutally murdered, often in front of family members.

Resistance to the Klan was difficult due to a lack of weapons among Blacks and control of the court system by the KKK sympathizers. Some states, notably Arkansas, Tennessee, and Texas successfully broke up the Klan with special police forces. Eventually, the Federal government used the Enforcement Acts to break up Klan activities. By 1872, Klan violence had greatly lessened as some Southern leaders urged the Klan to step down because federal troops would stay in the South as long as Blacks needed protection from society. The Ku Klux Klan re-emerged in earnest after Reconstruction ended and the federal soldiers were no longer in the South to provide protection.

Resources:

1. **PBS Learning** has a featured exhibition entitled “The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow.” This online resource includes information about the founding of the Ku Klux Klan, people involved in the resistance effort, video, and print images related to the efforts of White Southerners to restrict racial equality after the Civil War.
<http://www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/stories.html>

SSUSH10 – Identify legal, political, and social dimensions of Reconstruction.

- e. Analyze how the Presidential Election of 1876 marked the end of Reconstruction.

The period of Reconstruction has a definite beginning and a definite end. The efforts of the Federal government to direct the rebuilding of the physical, social, and economic features of the United States began at the conclusion of the Civil War and ended with Rutherford B. Hayes’ election to the Presidency in 1876. Without federal government oversight, racial equality was not protected in the South. Political and economic factors contributed to the federal government’s abandonment of Reconstruction.

By the mid-1870s, there had been a change in state level politics in the South. The White Southerners who had refrained from voting and participating in government began to reclaim their position of dominance in state level politics. Until this point, Black Republicans had held many elected positions in Southern state legislatures following the Civil War. The Reconstruction amendments had guaranteed citizenship and voting rights for former slaves. The federal government’s military occupation of the South during the period of Reconstruction between 1865 and 1877 had helped to guarantee the safety of Blacks and allowed them to safely vote in many states. The result was the election of approximately 2,000 Black candidates to state, local, and even United State Senate positions. In fact, South Carolina’s majority slave population before the Civil War meant that the former slaves who exercised the right to vote in the state after the war held tremendous power. This was especially true since White voters across the South were refusing to participate in elections as a form of protest over their loss in the Civil War. The political power of Black Republicans in the South was brief and came to an end with the 1877 end of Reconstruction.

In the **Presidential election of 1876**, the Democrats nominated Samuel J. Tilden and the Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes to be their candidates. The campaign was a bitter one.

Tilden won the popular vote by 260,000 votes, but failed to carry a majority of the Electoral College votes. The Electoral votes in four states (Florida, Louisiana, Oregon, and South Carolina) were disputed. A special federal commission was appointed to sort out the Electoral College dispute. The commission awarded the Republican, Hayes, the election along straight party lines. Democrats in Congress threatened to filibuster the vote count.

To stem the crisis, Hayes met with Democratic members of the House of Representatives and worked out the **Compromise of 1877**. In exchange for Democrats' support, Hayes agreed to support



“A Truce Not a Compromise”
by Thomas Nast - 1877

internal improvements for the South, appoint a Southerner to the Cabinet, and withdraw federal troops from the South. A key factor in the North's willingness to abandon Reconstruction efforts was the economy. The nation was faced with an economic downturn in the 1870s and the Reconstruction expenses put a significant strain on the federal government. The North viewed themselves as solely financing the military occupation and relief programs such as the Freedmen's Bureau. Ending Reconstruction was a way to cut expenses.

Shortly after his inauguration in March of 1877, President Hayes ordered the removal of federal troops from the South. Republican dominated state governments collapsed across the South and Blacks were slowly disenfranchised by state laws. Reconstruction had ended.

Resources:

1. **Rutherford B. Hayes Presidential Library and Museum** includes significant resources to support study of the Election of 1876 and subsequent Compromise of 1877. Maps of election results, photos, and speeches are included in the collection.
<http://www.rbhayes.org/hayes/disputed-election-of-1876/>

SSUSH11 – Examine connections between the rise of big business, the growth of labor unions, and technological innovations.

The modern United States was influenced by the growth of big business, the rise of labor unions, and advances in technological innovation. By the early 20th century, the American industrial economy had outstripped that of European competitors. Entrepreneurs, including Andrew Carnegie and J.D. Rockefeller, built vast corporations that changed the business landscape. By forming trusts and monopolies, big businesses were able to control production and prices in the market. Production and industries were also supplemented by new technologies that allowed for instant communication and twenty-four hour factory operation. With greater factory production demands came greater demands on workers. Large immigrant populations arriving in the United States during the period filled the labor force. These immigrants were poor and willing to work for low wages. They also outnumbered the jobs available. As a result, business owners had the upper hand and often took advantage of workers. Labor unions emerged in the United States to address the nation's growing labor concerns. The period of economic growth in the United States also brought with it challenges to balance big business and labor.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #7 - "Rise of Industrial America, 1877-1900"
<http://ap.gilderlehrman.org/period/7>

SSUSH11 – Examine connections between the rise of big business, the growth of labor unions, and technological innovations.

- a. Explain the effects of railroads on other industries including steel and oil.

A period of technological growth emerged after the Civil War and transformed American society with wide ranging new innovation. However, it was the railroad industry that impacted the economy like no other. Railroad construction dramatically increased after the Civil War. In fact, the United States went from having 35,000 miles of track in 1865 to over 193,000 miles of track by 1900. **Railroads** connected vast regions of the United States and allowed for the efficient transport of goods. The geographic connections railroads allowed created a national market. No longer were goods and products regional. Instead mass production and distribution of items created larger corporations and enormous profits.

The **steel industry** made possible the expansion of railroads given that the tracks are made of steel. The railroad companies were the biggest customers of the steel industry because thousands of miles of steel track were laid to connect all areas of the United States. To supply their biggest customers, steel producers developed cheap, efficient methods for the mass production of steel rails.

These low-cost methods enabled more industries, beyond just railroads, to afford the steel companies' products. Large steel corporations, such as Carnegie Steel, produced more steel than any other company in the world.

Oil production in the late 19th century was also linked to the growing railroad industry of the period. Drilling for oil in remote areas meant that the product had to be transported east for consumption as a fuel supply. The railroads made the transport possible from pipelines to the market. Oil companies, such as Standard Oil, and railroads that transported the oil both made vast fortunes during the period.

Other industries were also impacted by the expansion of railroads. Consider, for example, the Pullman Sleeping Car, which was developed for the comfort of long distance travelers. These cars needed glass for windows, cloth for seats, wood for the car construction, bedding for the sleepers, and a myriad of other small fittings to hold the entire car together. To increase train safety, signal systems were developed, better braking systems were invented, and the national time zones were created out of necessity. All of these components were driven by production to support the railroad industry.

The railroads, as the single largest business in the United States in the late 19th century, also changed the way businesses were organized. Significant capital investment was needed to create and maintain a nation-wide business. This capital was acquired through both public (i.e. government) subsidies to railroads and from private business investments. Large professionally trained managerial staffs were needed to keep up with passengers, cargo, and equipment. It became necessary for new means of accounting to track the large quantities needed for railroads to be efficient, cost effective, and profitable. Internal organization led in turn to the consolidation of many railroads. This was especially true as economic panic caused less profitable lines to collapse and be absorbed by larger more profitable firms.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress** has an online American Memory Timeline featuring "Railroads in the Late 19th Century." Included on the site are links to documents and a background essay. <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/presentationsandactivities/presentations/timeline/riseind/railroad/>

SSUSH11 – Examine connections between the rise of big business, the growth of labor unions, and technological innovations.

b. Examine the significance of John D. Rockefeller and Andrew Carnegie in the rise of trusts and monopolies.

The period after the Civil War was a time when businesses sought to maximize their profits by combining competing corporations into a single entity. These large consolidated companies were able to control prices, production, and sales and also able to establish a monopoly. There are several individuals from this era who are known for the monopolies they created. These include John D. Rockefeller (Standard Oil) and Andrew Carnegie (Carnegie Steel). Others of the period, who are not specifically included in this SSUSH11 element but could be used as other examples, include Cornelius Vanderbilt (Railroads), Jay Gould (Railroads), and J.P. Morgan (banking and finance).

John D. Rockefeller was known for his economy, precision, and foresight in creating one of America's landmark corporations - Standard Oil. After obtaining a degree in business, Rockefeller started out as a bookkeeper and clerk in a wholesale grain and produce business in Cleveland, Ohio in 1855. His diligence and hard work won him great admiration. His idea of thrift gave him the capital to start his own wholesale grain business in the early 1860s. However, Rockefeller soon realized that the growth of agriculture in the upper Mississippi Valley would eclipse Cleveland's role in grain sales and foresaw Cleveland's location could serve as a clearinghouse for raw materials.

The newest commodity gaining popularity and usage was oil. In 1863, Rockefeller entered the oil refining business. Oil had been discovered in Pennsylvania in 1859. In order for the oil to be used, it needed to be refined into a distilled spirit - kerosene. Rockefeller began by developing a business that transported petroleum products. Rockefeller sought to cut his costs by creating his own barrel-making factory. He also cut costs by buying forestland for the wood to make the barrels and horses and wagons to transport the petroleum products to market. His practice is what is known today as vertical integration. This creates a business that consists of all elements of production from raw material to sale of the finished product. As a result, profits can be maximized by cutting costs of production.



"Next!" by Udo Keppler, 1904

In 1870, Rockefeller created Standard Oil. Rockefeller began to buy up inefficient refineries and closed those that were too expensive to renovate and improved those that showed promise. When railroads proved inefficient for his needs, he built a pipeline from the oil field to the refinery. By 1879, Rockefeller and Standard Oil controlled 90% of the refining capacity in the United States. In 1882,

Rockefeller combined his many companies into the Standard Oil Trust. The trust enabled Standard Oil to monopolize all aspects of the oil industry from production to marketing. With a **monopoly or trust**, the competition has been eliminated in the market. No competition means a business owner can set any price they want for the goods they are selling. A monopoly or trust is good for the business owner but harmful to consumers who pay higher prices.

Another successful big business owner of the late 19th century was **Andrew Carnegie**. As a boy, his family immigrated to the United States from Scotland. The family worked hard to barely scrape by as they settled in Pennsylvania. Andrew began working in a textile mill at age thirteen. He later began working in the railroad industry and progressed through the ranks to superintendent of the Pennsylvania Railroad. With good investments, his wealth began to build. By the 1860s, Carnegie had moved to the ironworks industry.

The Carnegie Steel Company used the latest technology of the Bessemer process to forge steel more efficiently. The increased production of steel and the use of vertical integration allowed Andrew Carnegie to amass the first billion-dollar company. Carnegie's use of vertical integration is similar to that of J.D. Rockefeller. He controlled the entire production process from resource to finished product, which included mining the raw materials, industrial production of steel, and transportation for both resources and finished products.



"Our 'infant' industries --
Why can't they be content with the half they make honestly?"
by Udo Keppler, 1900

A feature that distinguishes Andrew Carnegie from other big business entrepreneurs is the level of philanthropy he supported with his wealth. The others certainly contributed huge sums to charity but it was Andrew Carnegie that made a mark with his investments in society. He was devoted to educational opportunities for the masses - not just the wealthy. To this end, Carnegie funded over 3,000 libraries across the United States. In addition, he gave millions of dollars to finance higher education universities in the United States and in Scotland. At the time of his death, Carnegie had given over \$350 million to charitable causes. The value of his charitable donations today would be in the billions of dollars.

The rise of both J.D. Rockefeller and Andrew Carnegie as powerful and wealthy entrepreneurs is attributed to their skillful and shrewd business dealings. They were able to successfully maximize their

profits by cutting costs in production through the practice of vertical integration. They also limited their competition by forming monopolies. The monopolies they created in the oil and steel industries allowed them to control the prices of their goods; thus keeping them as high as possible. There was limited competition in the market to undercut their prices. The fortunes they amassed were often at the expense of small business owners and consumers. While society benefitted from their charitable investments, many people were also hurt by their business methods.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** has a comprehensive mini-series entitled "The Men Who Built America." The documentary is highly engaging for students and there are episodes devoted to the rise of Carnegie and Rockefeller. The link below is to a PDF document created by the History Channel to guide teachers in using the documentary effectively with students.
<https://images.history.com/images/media/pdf/Men%20Who%20Built%20America.pdf>

SSUSH11 – Examine connections between the rise of big business, the growth of labor unions, and technological innovations.

- c. Examine the influence of key inventions on U.S. infrastructure, including but not limited to the telegraph, telephone, and electric light bulb.

The infrastructure of the United States was changed over time by various inventions. Some of the most important inventions were influenced by the conduction of electric current that was realized in the 1830s. Transmitting electric current enabled instant communication by way of telegraph transmission and later the telephone. In the 1870s, Thomas Edison changed American businesses and homes with the invention of the electric light bulb. The effects of technological advances forever changed how people lived and worked.

The changes in communication, as well as the expansion of railroads, helped to better connect the quickly expanding West with the industrializing East. The transfer of information, resources, and marketable goods connected all regions of the United States. **Telegraph** communication was the first nationwide information transmitter. Samuel Morse invented the technology in 1832. The telegraph machine received coded messages across electric wires connecting long distances. Morse Code is the system of dots and dashes that correspond to letters of the alphabet. Telegraph operators decoded the messages sent instantaneously across the telegraph wires. With the development of telegraph technology, business could be more efficiently conducted between industrial centers in the East and their sources for raw materials in the South and West. The Civil War was the first war conducted with the use of widespread telegraph connectivity. Abraham Lincoln and his Secretary of War Edwin Stanton received almost daily updates at the Washington DC telegraph office from various fighting fronts and were able to coordinate the entire war based on real time information from the field.

In 1876, Alexander Graham Bell further expanded on the telegraph's capability for instant communication. He invented the **telephone**, which allowed for voice - to - voice communication over electric wires. As was true for the telegraph, the telephone impacted the United States by allowing

instant communication. With the invention of the telephone, conversations were more efficient and true discussion between individuals in distant locations was made possible.

Thomas Edison was one of the most famous and successful American inventors. He invented a wide variety of technologies and held over 1,000 patents. Edison established the concept of industrial research, which allowed him to develop and expand his wide-ranging ideas. He founded a research laboratory in Menlo Park, New Jersey that was staffed by engineers and technicians under his direction.

One of Edison's most revolutionary inventions was the **electric light bulb**. Not only did this development allow factories to be lit and operate twenty-four hours a day, but the light bulb also illuminated buildings, streets, and neighborhoods across the United States. The light bulb was developed in the 1870s and quickly replaced the more dangerous and expensive lamp oils that burned for illumination.

With greater technological innovation, such as the telegraph, telephone, and electric light bulb came greater connectivity and productivity for the development of industry in the United States. The late nineteenth century was a time of great change in the way people lived and conducted business in part because of these inventions. Communities invested in the technology that in turn cut costs to individuals. The United States became a contending industrial producer during the same period in part because of the efficient production of products and ease of communication for business across great distances.

Resources:

1. **Thomas Edison's Menlo Park Museum** includes background information on Edison's research laboratory and resources for teachers.
<http://www.menloparkmuseum.org>

SSUSH11 – Examine connections between the rise of big business, the growth of labor unions, and technological innovations.

d. Describe Ellis and Angel Islands, the change in immigrants' origins and their influence on the economy, politics, and culture of the United States.

The last quarter of the nineteenth century was marked by a great deal of turmoil in Europe. Low wages, unemployment, disease, forced military conscription, and religious persecution inspired immigrants to flee their homelands and immigrate to the United States. These groups formed the bulk of the "new immigration" coming to America. Chinese immigrants also came to America and settled in California. Immigrants who entered the United States were processed at Ellis Island in New York and Angel Island in California. Each facility conducted the screening of immigrants in vastly different ways. The immigrants who did gain entry into the United States influenced the nation's economy, politics, and culture.

Prior to the 1880s, the majority of immigrants to the United States came from northern and western Europe. During the colonial period immigrants were overwhelmingly English, with smaller

groups of Scots, Germans, and French settling in America. In the decades after the American Revolution, large groups of Irish and German immigrants arrived. After the Civil War, more Eastern and Southern Europeans immigrated to America. Between 1880 and 1920, over 20 million immigrants entered the United States.

These latest newcomers greatly affected the social as well as the economic and political landscape. Because poverty and political instability were common in their home countries, the new immigrants were likely to be poor. Often they were Jewish or Catholic and spoke no English. Poverty prevented many from buying farmland, so most worked as unskilled laborers and mostly lived in northern cities. Whether Asian on the west coast or European on the east coast, these new immigrants tended to settle in areas populated by people from their same country. They formed neighborhoods where immigrants spoke the same languages and worshipped in the same ways. The new immigrants did not appear to blend into American society in the way earlier immigrants had.



There were 21 immigrant-processing centers. The two most famous were Ellis Island in New York and Angel Island in California. **Ellis Island Immigrant Station** located in New York Harbor was opened in 1892. By 1924, the station had processed 12 million immigrants. By some estimates, 40% of all Americans today can trace their port of entry back to Ellis Island. Upon arrival in New York Harbor, immigrants were transported from their ships by barges to the immigrant-processing center.

Arrivals to Ellis Island were asked 29 questions including name, occupation, and the amount of money carried. The inspection process lasted from three to seven hours. As more restrictive laws were passed in the 1890s, more rigorous provision for entry was required. About 2% of the immigrants seeking entry were denied admission to the United States and sent back to their country of origin. Some of the reasons for denied access were chronic and contagious disease, criminal background or insanity.

Angel Island Immigrant Station was quite different from Ellis Island. Approximately 1 million Asian immigrants were processed at Angel Island between 1910 and 1940. There was strong resistance to Chinese immigrants in the late 1800s, which resulted in the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882. Chinese immigrants had been hired as workers to complete construction of the Transcontinental Railroad in the 1860s. They were discriminated against and taken advantage of by railroad companies. The Chinese workers were paid half of what European workers earned and were required to do the most dangerous jobs of blasting and laying rail ties over the treacherous terrain of the high Sierra Mountains. Once the railroad was complete, the hostility toward Chinese immigrants escalated.

As a result of this open discrimination and Nativist opposition, Chinese immigrants wanting entry into the United States spent weeks, months, and sometimes years on Angel Island awaiting approval for entry into the United States. Approximately 18% of immigrants to Angel Island were rejected, of which the vast majority were from China. The interrogation process at Angel Island was

much more lengthy and specific than at Ellis Island. Immigrants had to have American witnesses or family members come to Angel Island to vouch for the accuracy of their answers.

The impact of immigrants on American society was significant. Over-crowded cities led to increased problems with crime and disease. Increased demand for agricultural and industrial goods spurred economic growth. Low-wage labor was available to work in the growing American industrial economy. New cultural items such as Italian opera, Polish polkas, Russian literature, kindergarten, and new foods, such as spaghetti, frankfurters and hamburgers, became a part of the American culture and diet. Nativists viewed the fast-growing immigrant population as dangerous to the American political system. Poll taxes and literacy tests were used to restrict immigrants from voting in ways similar to those used to restrict Blacks from voting in many Southern states.

The United States is a nation of immigrants. The number of immigrants coming to the United States for opportunity increased during the last decades of the nineteenth century. The immigrants arriving at that time were also from different areas of Europe and Asian than had previously been common. Although there was bitter resistance to these immigrants, there were many positive contributions to the economy and social makeup of the United States.

Resources:

1. **The National Park Service Ellis Island** website contains background information on the facility as well as collections of documents and data about immigrant arrivals. There are resources for teachers included as well.
<https://www.nps.gov/elis/index.htm>
2. **The California State Park Angel Island** website contains background information on the immigration station as well as the island itself.
https://www.parks.ca.gov/?page_id=1309

SSUSH11 – Examine connections between the rise of big business, the growth of labor unions, and technological innovations.

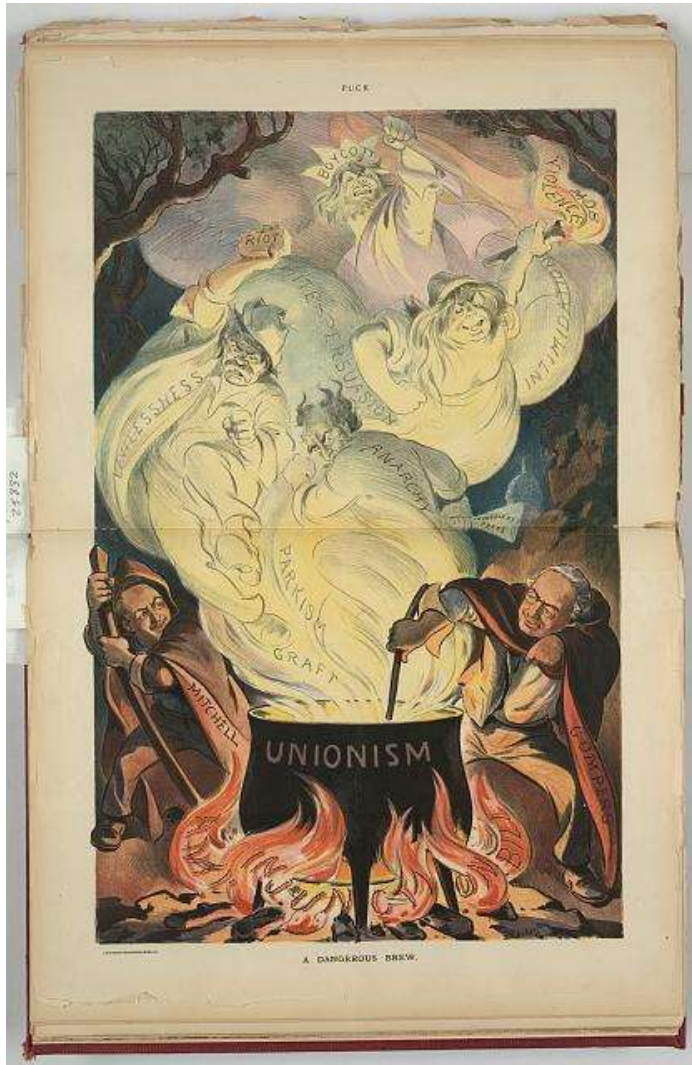
e. Discuss the origins, growth, influence, and tactics of labor unions including the American Federation of Labor.

Unskilled laborers were subject to low wages, long workdays, no vacations, and unsafe workplaces. Because individual workers had little power to change the way an employer ran a business, workers banded together in labor unions to demand better pay and working conditions. There was strength in numbers. Over time, labor unions grew significantly and influenced business operation. Union strategies included strikes, protest, and political influence. The American Federation of Labor is an example of one of the early labor unions in the United States that wielded significant power.

Originally, **labor unions** were organized for either skilled or unskilled workers. Each group had its own union. The unions relied on collective bargaining to obtain their demands. However, when employers refused to bargain, unions used direct action (i.e., labor strikes) to obtain concessions. The earliest national labor union to use these methods was the Knights of Labor, which was founded in 1869. Members of the union were both skilled and unskilled workers. While initially effective, the union lost

influence and power after the organization failed to win concession in the Missouri Pacific Railroad Strike and suffered distrust from the Haymarket Affair in 1886. Furthermore, skilled workers were reluctant to support lower paid unskilled workers when the latter went out on strike.

Samuel Gompers, a Jewish immigrant from England who came to the United States in 1863, was a cigar maker by trade. In 1886, he helped create the **American Federation of Labor**, often referred to as the AFL. He was president of the union from 1886-1924. His union accepted only skilled workers. The AFL was also designed in such a way that workers were organized by craft rather than by geography, which had been the method used by the Knights of Labor.



"A Dangerous Brew" by S.D. Ehrhart, 1904

Gompers did not see capitalism as the enemy, as had radical members of the Knights of Labor. He also urged union members to work with owners for higher pay and better working conditions. The American Federation of Labor was not trying to reform the universal economic system; rather it promoted practical goals that would impact the daily lives of individual workers. Even though Gompers supported negotiation between workers and owners, he was not above using work stoppages (labor strikes) to obtain what was desired.

Gompers' tactics proved to be very effective until the Great Depression. The AFL was successful due to its sheer numbers - over one million members by 1901 and four million members at its height of power. The development of labor unions of the United States, including the AFL and others, brought more awareness to the growing division between business management and workers. The conflict between the two groups sometimes turned violent, as was the case at the Haymarket protest and the Homestead Steel Factory strike. The labor unions did bring about a much greater awareness of the need for better unity between all employee levels in a

business.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** provides background information on the labor movement in the United States. Discussion of the rise of labor unions is included in the material. In addition to a background essay, there are video clips that can be used with students.
<http://www.history.com/topics/labor>

SSUSH12 – Evaluate how westward expansion impacted the Plains Indians and fulfilled Manifest Destiny.

As eastern regions of the United States became more industrialized after the Civil War, people seeking rural livelihoods moved farther and farther west. In turn, American Indians had to compete with these newcomers for land. A series of brutal wars ensued as various Plains Indian tribes attacked settlers, wagon trains, and the Army in an effort to protect their lands. While the American population of settlers spanned the continent and fulfilled the Manifest Destiny of Americans to control the lands between and including both coastlines, the American Indians suffered grave consequences.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Under the link to this particular era is a section devoted to the development of the West. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #7 - "Rise of Industrial America, 1877-1900"
<http://ap.gilderlehrman.org/period/7>

SSUSH12 – Evaluate how westward expansion impacted the Plains Indians and fulfilled Manifest Destiny.

- a. Examine the construction of the transcontinental railroad including the use of immigrant labor.

The construction of the Transcontinental Railroad would not have been possible had a large supply of immigrant labor not been available. Other critical components of the railroad's construction include public investment through land grants and guaranteed construction costs. The federal government granted vast areas of western land to railroad owners. Railroad right-of-ways were 10 miles wide, plus 400 feet so the railroads could sell the land to help finance the cost of construction.

Generally, Irish and German laborers constructed the rail route from east to west. The owners of the Central Pacific Railroad, who were building the line from California initially brought European immigrants from the east but had trouble keeping them working due to the proximity and lure of the gold fields. As replacements, the owners hired available Chinese labor in California and then brought in



Driving the Last Spike Ceremony - Promontory Summit, Utah (May 10, 1869)

additional Chinese labor to complete the task. Chinese workers were paid approximately \$28-\$35 per month (compared to \$50 European workers earned) to do the very dangerous work of blasting and laying ties over the treacherous terrain of the high Sierras. The work was very dangerous and many Chinese laborers died in the explosive blasts they ignited to cut the solid rock roadbed. Many others died under landslides and heavy snowfalls before the Transcontinental Railroad was completed.

The completion of the Transcontinental Railroad connected the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. Workers drove the final spike at Promontory Point in the Utah territory in 1869 to open the railroad. The ability to transport people and goods across the nation with the efficient speed of the railroad opened the West to greater population migration. Manifest Destiny was furthered by the connection of the West by rail.

Resources:

1. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute** features an essay and resources on “The Joining of the Rails: The Transcontinental Railroad.” There are essays, images, documents, and teacher resources compiled on the site.

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-now/2014-01/joining-rails-transcontinental-railroad>

SSUSH12 – Evaluate how westward expansion impacted the Plains Indians and fulfilled Manifest Destiny.

- b. Evaluate how the growth of the western population and innovations in farming and ranching impacted Plains Indians.

The railroad companies contributed to the development of the West by selling low-cost parcels of their western land for farming. Settlers, lured by the Homestead Act of 1862, traveled west on the trains to farm the fertile soil. Western farmers used the trains to ship their grain east and cattle ranchers shipped their steer to eastern butchers. Both farmers and ranchers sold their goods to people who could not easily be reached without railroads. The railroads earned money by transporting settlers west and goods east. As settlers began to populate the west in growing numbers, they brought with them new farming and ranching techniques.

Ranching in the West had been based on the open-range system prior to the 1880s. Cattle were branded with the symbol of their owner’s ranch.



Round Up Scene - 1887

Property was not enclosed by costly fencing, which meant the branded cattle roamed freely. Cowboys were hired by ranch owners each spring to go on extensive round-ups to collect the cattle belonging to that owner. The round-up could cover hundreds of miles given the open-range. The cowboys would then “drive” the cattle to the closest railroad line, which could also be hundreds of miles away and take weeks or even months to complete. The work of the cowboys was difficult and often lonely.

During the late 1880s, the open-range system declined with the development of barbed wire fencing. The new fencing material made it incredibly cheap and easy to enclose even the largest of ranches. The work of cowboys changed as cattle round-ups and drives took on new characteristics centered within the newly enclosed ranches. Plains Indians were impacted by the change in ranching. Many of the nomadic tribes became restricted in their ability to roam freely when land was roped off by barbed wire fencing. Conflict over land claims also escalated as ranchers began to claim larger tracts of land that were also inhabited by American Indians.

Farming in the West was also transformed after the Civil War as more settlers moved to the region. Life was hard for the homesteaders who worked to make a life for their families. New plows were introduced that could tackle the tough sod of the West. With the increased plowing and more scientific methods of farming, the West was a more desirable location for settlers to make a new start. The increased plowing and farming coupled with drought led to environmental challenges that became significant issues in the early twentieth century.

American Indians in the region were impacted by the increased population and farming because once again their land was being claimed by White settlers. The ability of Plains Indians to migrate with the buffalo herd was limited as more farmers sectioned off their land with barbed wire and changed the landscape with their farming methods.

Resources:

1. **The University of Nebraska- Lincoln** hosts an Encyclopedia of the Great Plains, which contains information of cattle ranching, farming, cowboys, and American Indians in the West during the 1800s. There are images as well as essays containing background information on this site. <http://plainshumanities.unl.edu/encyclopedia/doc/egp.ag.019>

SSUSH12 – Evaluate how westward expansion impacted the Plains Indians and fulfilled Manifest Destiny.

- c. Explain the Plains Indians’ resistance to western expansion of the United States and the consequences of their resistance.

In 1868, the United States government reached an agreement with many of the Plains Indian tribes when they signed the Fort Laramie Treaty. The provisions stated that in exchange for receiving land set aside for them in the Black Hills of the Dakotas, the Plains nations agreed to not harass or threaten western settlers. The treaty was not very effective after gold was discovered in the Black Hills in 1875. Settlers flooded the area searching for gold in violation of the treaty and warfare broke out.

The Great Sioux War of 1876-1877 culminated in the Battle of the Little Big Horn that resulted in the deaths of most of the United States' Seventh Cavalry Unit. Even though the Plains Indians won the battle, they still faced insurmountable challenges with the superior numbers and organization of the U.S. Army. The United States government challenged the American Indians by targeting the buffalo and wiping out the Plains tribes' main food supply. While some American Indian bands escaped to Canada, most of the surviving Plains tribes were forced to live on reservations.



Sitting Bull

One of the great American Indian leaders of the period was the Lakota leader, Sitting Bull (Tatanka-lyotanka). He became a noted warrior as a result of the fighting between the United States and the Lakota in 1863. After continued incursions into Lakota Territory in 1876, Sitting Bull led the coalition of Plains tribes against the U.S. Army. The resulting conflict was the Battle of the Little Big Horn. Afterward, a large force of U.S. Army troops relentlessly pursued the Plains bands subduing some groups but Sitting Bull led his people into Canada. After five years in exile and unable to feed his people, Sitting Bull returned to the United States and finally agreed to settle on a reservation.

About ten years later, Sitting Bull's tribe was urged to join the new Ghost Dance religious movement that was sweeping through the Plains tribes. The American Indians believed their ceremony would reestablish their ancestral lands and repopulate the buffalo herd, thus restoring the Sioux's lost greatness. As some of Sitting Bull's followers were ordered to be brought back to the reservation, a confrontation with elements of the Seventh Cavalry ensued.

As the soldiers began to confiscate weapons from the Sioux, a shot was fired. Some of Sitting Bull's followers may have been convinced that their Ghost shirts would protect them as they resisted the soldiers. This tragic gun battle at Wounded Knee ended in the deaths of over 300 Sioux, including women and children. This was the last major conflict between American Indians and the U.S. Army and signaled the end of resistance to white settlers' westward expansion.

Resources:

1. **The Smithsonian National Museum of American History** offers a collection of artifacts and images to supplement background information regarding the Plains Indian Wars in the West. Featured topics include the Battle of Little Big Horn and the Buffalo Soldiers who fought with the American forces.
<https://amhistory.si.edu/militaryhistory/printable/section.asp?id=6>

SSUSH13 – Evaluate efforts to reform American society and politics in the Progressive Era.

The perceived excesses of business and industry coupled with growing social concerns inspired reformers to make important improvements in America’s political and social environment. These reformers were known as Progressives. The Progressive Era marks the second definitive era of social and political reform, comparable to the reform movements of the 1840s. Progressive reforms strengthened American democracy in ways carried forward into present times. Sadly, these reforms did not extend to all parts of American society as Blacks found themselves left out of reform efforts.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #8 - Progressive Era to New Era, 1900-1929
<http://ap.gilderlehrman.org/period/8>

SSUSH13 – Evaluate efforts to reform American society and politics in the Progressive Era.

- a. Describe the influence of muckrakers on affecting change by bringing attention to social problems.

The term “**muckraker**” originated from a speech given by President Theodore Roosevelt in which he praised journalists for their role in uncovering corruption and problems often hidden from society. Through their writing in well-circulated newspapers and books that were published during the time period, an awareness of underlying societal problems drove demands for reform from the public and government officials.

One book, in particular, had a significant impact on the meat processing industry. *The Jungle* (1906) was intended to expose the dangerous working conditions faced by immigrant workers. Instead, the book is remembered for exposing the unclean procedures common in the Chicago meatpacking industry. In 1904, Upton Sinclair was sent by a socialist magazine to work undercover in the Chicago meatpacking industry. In his undercover research, Sinclair learned about all aspects of meat processing and about the lives of the immigrant workers who made up the labor force. It took Sinclair two years to publish his novel because of its horrific subject matter. The novel was an instant success.

Just as *Uncle Tom’s Cabin* brought the issue of abolition into middle class homes of the 1850s, Sinclair’s novel had a similar effect in rousing the middle class in calling for action against unsafe food packaging and preparation. Popular history has President Theodore Roosevelt reading the novel at breakfast and resolving to take action against the practices described by the novelist. *The Jungle* served as an impetus for passage of laws to regulate the meatpacking industry.

The role of the government was expanded by the Progressive's efforts to protect the United States population and to require regulation of business practices. As a result of the public outcry created by *The Jungle*, the United States government passed the Meat Inspection Act. The new law set

cleanliness standards that had to be followed by meat processing facilities. A new federal agency, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), was also established to monitor facilities for their compliance with the regulations. The reform was prompted by the uproar created by Upton Sinclair's book.

Ida Tarbell was another famous muckraker, whose writing led to reform. Between 1902 and 1904, Tarbell wrote a series of magazine articles exposing Standard Oil's unfair business practices. There were 19 installments of "The History of the Standard Oil Company" and marked the beginning of investigative journalism.

Spurred by her father's business loss at the hands of J.D. Rockefeller, Tarbell's methods became a model for other investigative journalists. She researched Standard Oil for two years by examining public records, newspaper coverage, and interviewing former company executives in order to piece together how Rockefeller was able to create the company. The articles told how Rockefeller used his business methods to destroy independent oilmen in Pennsylvania in order to create an oil monopoly. Tarbell concluded her series by examining Rockefeller's character, which she described as "money-

mad." She also claimed that Rockefeller had created a national life that was far meaner, poorer, and uglier than had existed prior to his creation of Standard Oil. Tarbell's series was well received because she was not critical of capitalism. Instead, she focused her criticism on the unethical practices of Rockefeller and his associates in building Standard Oil.



From Jacob Riis -
How the Other Half Lives

Another important muckraker of the Progressive Era was Jacob Riis. He was a New York photojournalist who documented the living conditions of the urban poor. His work, *How the Other Half Lives* (1890), exposed the unhealthy tenement housing that workers and families were forced to live in, as well as the unsanitary conditions of slum streets. Riis's work led to the institution of municipal housing codes calling for the re-design of urban housing and the creation of sanitation departments that removed garbage and dead animals from the city streets. In addition, large

urban centers began providing sewer and water services in order to lessen the chances of typhoid and cholera outbreaks in cities.

Ida Tarbell, Upton Sinclair, Jacob Riis, and other muckrakers highlighted issues that led to the growing belief that the government should intervene in corrupt businesses and legislate to protect society from harm. Through the words and photographs of muckrakers, the public became more acutely aware of underlying problems that needed to be addressed.

Resources:

1. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute** features an essay on Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*. The essay provides good background information on the time period, the book, and reform efforts.

<https://gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/politics-reform/essays/jungle-and-progressive-era>

SSUSH13 – Evaluate efforts to reform American society and politics in the Progressive Era.

b. Examine and explain the roles of women in reform movements.

By the last quarter of the 19th century, many middle class women had received considerable education. Even with newfound educational independence, society still viewed women as nurturers and agents of stability. Women used this influence and their educational attainment to advocate for social change. These reforms included a re-born temperance movement, women's suffrage, sanitation, educational reforms, and attacks on racism.

Women such as Jane Addams, played a huge role in improving the lives of the urban poor, especially immigrant women and children who were forced by circumstances to work and live in dangerous and unhealthy conditions. Addams was the founder of the Settlement House Movement in the United States. The Settlement House Movement began in urban England as a way of helping the poor by securing donations from the wealthy in an effort to improve the lives of the destitute. Jane Addams decided to create a similar settlement house in Chicago after visiting Toynbee House in London, England.

Jane Addams founded Hull House in 1889 in an immigrant community for the purpose of providing educational opportunities for immigrants, especially immigrant women. By 1893, Hull House was serving 2,000 clients. Addams was also gradually drawn into advocating for legislative reforms at the municipal, state, and federal levels. The issues she addressed included child labor, healthcare, and immigration. Later, Addams became actively involved in women's suffrage and was a charter member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.

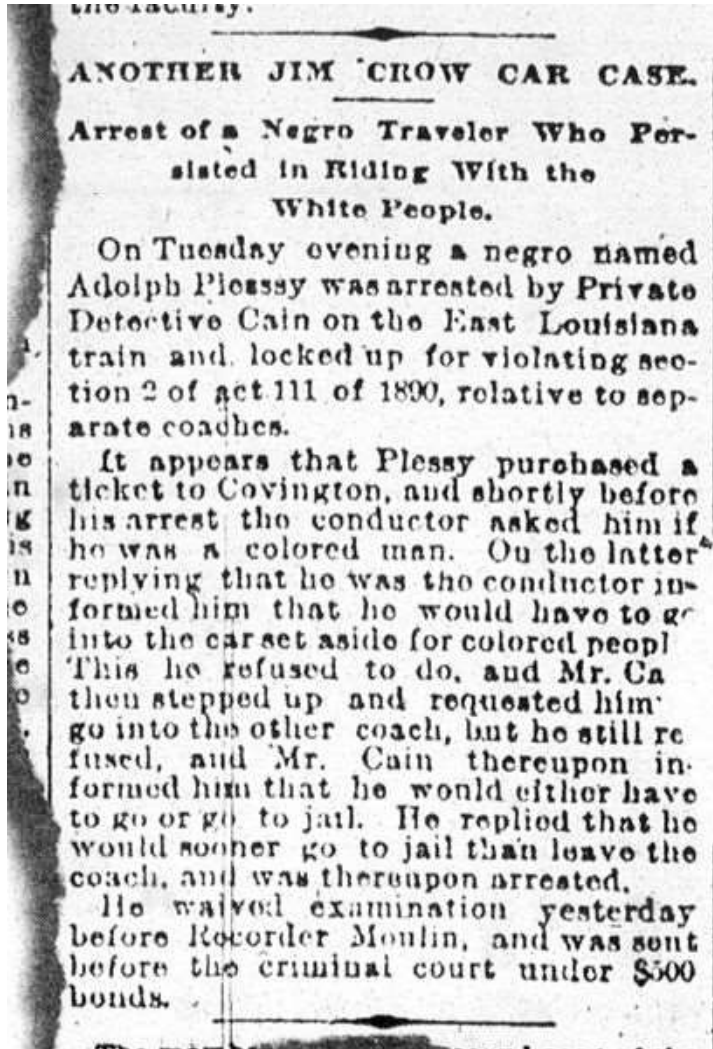
Resources:

1. **University of Chicago's Hull House Museum** provides a wide range of resources on their website. There is background information on both Jane Addams and the Hull House. There are documents and teacher resources also available.
<http://www.hullhousemuseum.org>

SSUSH13 – Evaluate efforts to reform American society and politics in the Progressive Era.

c. Connect the decision of *Plessy v. Ferguson* to the expansion of Jim Crow laws and the formation of the NAACP.

Following the end of Reconstruction, White Democrats regained power in Southern legislatures. Beginning in 1876, ten of the eleven former Confederate states had created a legal framework for separating Whites and Blacks known as "**Jim Crow laws**." The initial purpose of Jim Crow laws was to prevent Blacks from participating in the political process, which included voting, serving in office, and



New Orleans *Daily Picayune*- June 9, 1892

participating in jury trials. Gradually, Jim Crow laws were extended to include public education, transportation, and other public facilities. There were separate water fountains, waiting rooms, and restrooms for Whites and Blacks. The laws were supposed to provide "separate but equal" facilities. However, the facilities for Blacks were separate and inferior. Jim Crow laws were initially created by states but during the Woodrow Wilson administration, Jim Crow was extended to the federal government.

In 1890, Louisiana passed a Jim Crow law that required separate facilities on railroads. Concerned citizens, of all races, were determined to challenge the legality of the new law. The opportunity came in 1892 when Homer Plessy decided to challenge the law. Plessy was 1/8 Black, which met the period's prevailing legal definition of the race although he could visually pass for White. He was arrested for refusing the leave a Whites only railroad car. Plessy's case wound its way through the judicial system to the Supreme Court. In 1896, the Supreme Court ruled in *Plessy v. Ferguson* that "separate but equal" was

indeed constitutional. Racial discrimination was thus legal according to the federal government and the ruling upheld the state level Jim Crow segregation provisions.

Widespread violence, including lynching, against Blacks led to the formation of the **National Association for the Advancement of Colored People** (NAACP) in 1909. Created by a group of White supporters and W.E.B. DuBois, the NAACP's stated goals was to secure for all people the rights

guaranteed in the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments to the United States Constitution. The organization quickly began to challenge Jim Crow laws and lynching through the courts. Success in an Oklahoma case enhanced the organization's reputation and foreshadowed the success the NAACP would have in ending public school segregation in 1954.

The Supreme Court ruling in *Plessy v. Ferguson* affirmed the state level segregation of Jim Crow laws. Legal segregation would be the standard from 1896 until the Supreme Court ruled differently in the 1954 case, *Brown v. Board of Education*. Conditions got worse, especially in the South, for Blacks seeking safety, social equality, and fair hiring practices. As a result of the even more strained race relations, W.E.B. DuBois created the NAACP to lead other legal challenges to segregation, which was being propped up by the *Plessy* decision.

Resources:

1. **Street Law, Inc. and the Supreme Court Historical Society** provide excellent materials for classroom use and research related to the *Plessy v. Ferguson* case. Included is case background, teacher resources, and details about the ruling.
http://landmarkcases.org/en/landmark/cases/plessy_v_ferguson
2. **National Association for the Advancement of Colored People** includes a historical record of the organization's founding on the website.
<https://www.naacp.org/nations-premier-civil-rights-organization/>

SSUSH13 – Evaluate efforts to reform American society and politics in the Progressive Era.

d. Describe Progressive legislative actions including empowerment of the voter, labor laws, and the conservation movement.

In the early 20th century, Progressivism emerged as a movement to improve American democracy, to achieve social and economic justice, and to correct the evils of industrialization and urbanization. The Progressive Movement was generally made up of the educated middle class who saw reform as a civic duty. Politically, the Progressives planned to attack graft, the political machine, and the influence of big business in government. The Progressive Movement also planned to create new political procedures that would enable greater political participation. To attack poverty, the Progressives planned to lobby for greater governmental regulations to **empower voters** and to protect consumers, workers, and the environment.

There were a number of political reforms attributed to the Progressive Movement. Some were aimed at the federal level and some were focused on local and state reform. Federal political reforms of the Progressive Era included the passage of the Seventeenth Amendment to the United States Constitution. This amendment provides for the direct election of United States Senators. The change instituted with the Seventeenth Amendment ended the state legislative cronyism previously responsible for the appointment of Senators. With the change, more political power was given directly to the voters.

Voters were also afforded more political power at the local and state levels during the Progressive Era. The policies passed included the initiative/referendum and recall votes.

Initiative/referendum allows voters to suggest and approve laws directly without the statute having to go through the state legislature. The people vote on an issue directly rather than representatives voting on the issue in the state legislature. The recall vote provision allows voters to remove politicians from office who are unsatisfactory, without having to wait for the person's term in office to end. In each of these new political reforms, more power is given directly to the people.

Workers were also empowered by Progressive reform with the passage of new **labor laws** that restricted the power of business owners. For example, new child labor laws set a minimum age for employment and restricted the types of jobs children could hold. Laws were also created to protect women in the workplace by setting a minimum wage and maximum work hours. Business owners were also required under new Progressive reform laws to complete work site inspections to ensure health, safety, and sanitation. Worker's compensation laws were also passed that required financial assistance for workers injured on the job.

Another key area of Progressive reform was the **conservation movement**, which began in the 1870s. There were three schools of conservation thought at the time. First, business supported a laissez-faire approach believing that business should be allowed to do as they wished with public lands. Second, there was the Environmentalist approach led by John Muir. The Environmentalists believed that nature was sacred and humans were the intruders. They also believed that humans should make a minimal impact on nature and that preservation of the environment in its undisturbed form was most desirable. Theodore Roosevelt and his mentor, Gifford Pinchot, supported the Conservationist approach. They believed that nature could be used responsibly but it should also be protected.

Theodore Roosevelt was a life-long naturalist, who majored in Natural History at Harvard. He was also an avid hunter. Roosevelt saw the continued despoliation of land for timbering and mining would result in the loss of key habitats needed for hunting and future economic development. Throughout his presidency, Roosevelt increased national reserves of forests, mineral lands, and hydropower sites. During his tenure in office, Roosevelt created the National Forest Service, five new national parks, 18 new U.S. national monuments, 51 bird reserves, four game preserves, and 150 national forests. This emphasis on conservation also encouraged states to follow the lead of the national government.

Legislative action during the Progressive Era took many forms. Voters, workers, and environmental conservationists were all empowered by laws that were passed.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress** features an online exhibition on "Conservation in the Progressive Era." There are documents and background information about the policies and reforms created during the period of reform.
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/presentationsandactivities/presentations/timeline/progress/conserve/>



Theodore Roosevelt and His Distinguished Party Before the "Grizzly Giant" Big Trees of California - 1903

SSUSH14 – Explain America’s evolving relationship with the world at the turn of the twentieth century.

As the 20th century approached, the United States entered the world stage as an influence at least equal to such traditional powers as Britain and France. Quickly, the United States emerged from the Spanish-American War as a great world power. The victory in the war with Spain made the United States an empire with new territorial acquisitions in the Asian Pacific. Questions swirled in the United States about the appropriateness of American imperialism. The United States also extended its authority in Latin America with the construction of the Panama Canal and an updated statement of US influence in the region.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a specific component to this particular link directly related to imperialism. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era # 7 - The Rise of Industrial America, 1877-1900
<http://ap.gilderlehrman.org/period/7>

SSUSH14 – Explain America’s evolving relationship with the world at the turn of the twentieth century.

- a. Describe how the Spanish-American War, war in the Philippines, and territorial expansion led to the debate over American imperialism.

As the United States industrialized, businessmen began to look overseas for additional markets, sources of raw materials for future developments, and potential investment. As a young nation, many Americans felt that the United States should emulate the European nations with their colonies in Africa and Asia. Many also believed the United States should build up its Naval capacity to protect national interests. In an effort to obtain overseas markets and spread democracy, these expansionists wanted the United States to establish territories overseas before the European nations acquired any additional colonies. The first overseas opportunity for the United States came with the acquisition of Alaska from Russia in 1867. Closer to home, the United States began to pursue interests in the Caribbean, which ultimately led the nation into a war against Spain.

The United States had long had an interest in Cuba. Throughout the 19th century, the Cubans had tried to overthrow Spanish rule but had been met with defeat each time. In 1895, a new revolution broke out. Spain responded with great force and brutality. Angered over the harsh treatment of the Cubans and fearful of losses to millions of American investments in Cuba, many Americans demanded action against Spain. The United States responded by sending the battleship *Maine* to the shores of Cuba. On February 15, 1898, the battleship exploded and sank in Havana Harbor. The incident killed 250 officers and men on the ship. Newspapers in the United States demanded military action against what was perceived as an act of war. President McKinley was reluctant to declare war on Spain without clear evidence of Spanish involvement in the *Maine’s* destruction. A leading newspaper then published

a letter stolen from the Havana post office. The Spanish minister to the United States, Enrique DeLome, wrote the letter. The “DeLome Letter” criticized President McKinley and angered many Americans, who began to clamor for war. War was ultimately declared against Spain.

The initial phases of the **Spanish-American War** actually began in the Pacific, rather than in Cuba. Since 1882, the United States Navy had undergone a modernization campaign that resulted in the creation of a two-ocean fleet. Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Theodore Roosevelt, positioned ships near the Philippines prior to the declaration of war. When war was declared, Roosevelt ordered the Navy to immediately proceed to the Philippines. The U.S. Navy surprised the anchored Spanish ships and destroyed them. After the naval operation, the United States moved quickly to bring land forces to the Philippines.

The United States Army was not prepared for an overseas war. Numbering only 28,000 men, the Army was mainly composed of veterans of the Plains Indian War. Between the April 25th declaration of war and early summer, the Army grew to 220,000 men. The new soldiers had to be quickly trained, clothed, armed, and transported to Cuba. While the army prepared, the U.S. Navy blockaded the Cuban coast, trapping Spain’s Atlantic Fleet. The U.S. Army landed in Cuba and began its advance. However, Spanish forces were better armed and had more combat experience than the Americans. As a result, the American advance slowed to a crawl allowing the Spanish to create a fortified line in the hills around Santiago, Cuba. Due to the determined efforts of the U.S. Army, including four regiments of Black troops and Theodore Roosevelt’s all-volunteer unit known as “The Rough Riders,” the Americans forced the Spanish to retreat. The Spanish fleet sailed out into the waiting guns of the American fleet and was destroyed. Meanwhile, other American units captured Puerto Rico.



Theodore Roosevelt Leads the Rough Riders

The 1898 Treaty of Paris ended the war. Under the provisions, Spain agreed to grant Cuba independence. The Caribbean island of Puerto Rico and the Pacific island of Guam were ceded to the United States. The final provision granted the United States acquisition of the Philippines for a token \$20 million. Debate quickly began over the United States’ new empire. How should it be governed and does the concept of American imperialism match with the basic founding principles of the United States?

Prior to the United States' entry into the war, Spain had refused to grant independence to Philippine rebels, who were fighting the European nation in a revolutionary war. The U.S. Navy quickly defeated the Spanish navy and questions immediately began about what to do with the Philippines. Americans debated whether the United States should expand its territory to include the Philippines or respect Filipino independence. The United States decided to

administer the islands as a territory because officials were afraid a free and independent Philippines would be a weak nation vulnerable to foreign take over.

Angered by the United States' decision, Filipino freedom fighters under the leadership of Emilio Aguinaldo continued their fight. This time, the fight was against the United States in what is known as the **Philippine-American War**. By 1902, the guerrilla forces were defeated and the United States began administration of the islands, gradually releasing control until final independence of the Philippines occurred in 1946.

The United States Congress had debated and rejected the annexation of Hawaii many times since 1893, when a group of American businessmen led a rebellion against the Hawaiian monarch and petitioned to become part of the United States. The prize naval base at Pearl Harbor had been leased by the United States for decades and it proved to be crucial to naval operations in the Pacific during the Spanish-American War. As a result, Congress considered the value of this resource and annexation of Hawaii was approved in 1898.

The **acquisition of the new territories** of Hawaii, the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico prompted an intense **debate over American expansionism**. Several prominent Americans including Williams Jennings Bryan, Mark Twain, and Andrew Carnegie founded the American Anti-Imperialist League. The League opposed the annexation of the Philippines on grounds that it was the antithesis of America's founding principles. The League launched a series of court challenges regarding the right of the United States to rule areas outside of the continental United States. Others believed that the expansion of the United States beyond its North American boundaries was important for trade, diplomatic power, and national defense. Ultimately, the court rulings created a stratification of territories in which some could, at some future date, become states (e.g., Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska) and some would not (e.g., Philippines).

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library of America** offers a primary source document set and teaching guide entitled "American Imperialism: The Spanish-American War." The documents and teaching resources are ready to use in the classroom and provide good inquiry exploration of the topic.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/american-imperialism-the-spanish-american-war/>
2. **The Library of Congress** offers a primary source set entitled, "Spanish –American War: The United States Becomes a World Power." Included in the set are teaching resources, documents, images, and lesson plans for classroom implementation.
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/primarysourcesets/spanish-american-war/>

SSUSH14 – Explain America’s evolving relationship with the world at the turn of the twentieth century.

b. Examine U.S. involvement in Latin America, as reflected by the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine and the creation of the Panama Canal.

Following the end of the Spanish-American War, the United States was in an excellent position to take advantage of markets throughout Latin America. The centerpiece of this development was the construction of a trans-oceanic canal between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, known as the **Panama Canal**. There were three basic reasons for a canal. First, the United States needed to shorten the sailing time between the east and west coast. Second, national defense officials needed to facilitate faster movement of U.S. naval assets from one ocean to another. The final reason was that the United States needed to protect its new holdings in the Pacific.

Earlier attempts to build a canal in Central America by both French and U.S. companies had been failures. In 1903, following diplomatic maneuvering by the United States, the construction of the Panama Canal was attempted again. The United States had to overcome difficult terrain and tropical illnesses to build the canal. The effort was a success and the Panama Canal opened to Naval ships in 1914.

To protect the canal and U.S. regional interests, Theodore Roosevelt issued what became known as the **Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine** (usually shortened to the Roosevelt Corollary). In 1902 Venezuela was threatened with invasion by Great Britain and Germany over the nation’s inability to pay back loans to the banks of each respective nation. Roosevelt, fearing European encroachment in Latin America, reminded the Europeans that the U.S. held to the Monroe Doctrine of 1823. In 1904, Roosevelt stated that the Europeans were not welcome in the region and the U.S. would oversee the collection of any national debts owed by Latin American nations to Europeans. In essence, the U.S. would intervene in Latin American countries to prevent their takeover by any other nation.

The Roosevelt Corollary became a key component of Roosevelt’s “Big Stick” policy. President Roosevelt based his foreign policy on the idea of “Speak softly and carry a big stick; you will go far.” Roosevelt believed that negotiations



"The Big Stick in the Caribbean Sea" - 1904

(speak softly) were key to any relationships. But, if negotiations were not fruitful, then the United States would use its military to enforce order (big stick).

Invoking the Corollary, the United States intervened in the Dominican Republic in 1904, Nicaragua in 1912, and Haiti in 1915. The policy pleased businessmen in the United States and Great Britain. However, the Roosevelt Corollary angered Latin Americans who felt that the United States did not have the right to intervene in their affairs.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** offers comprehensive coverage of the Panama Canal. There are video clips about the history and engineering of the canal. The background essays also provide teachers with good information about the role of the United States in Latin America concerning the construction of the canal.

<http://www.history.com/topics/panama-canal>

SSUSH15 – Analyze the origins and impact of U.S. involvement in World War I.

Though reluctant to get involved in the conflict, the United States was drawn into World War I through a series of events. Traditionally, United States history lessons have focused on the military aspect of the war. Elements for this standard focus on three areas – factors that led the United States into the war, how the war affected the home front, and President Wilson’s role in the peace treaty.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of World War I. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.

Historical Era #8 - Progressive Era to New Era, 1900-1929

<http://ap.gilderlehrman.org/period/8>

2. **PBS American Experience** has a featured film entitled, *The Great War*. The website includes video clips and transcripts of the film, which covers all aspects of World War I.

<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/films/great-war/>

SSUSH15 – Analyze the origins and impact of U.S. involvement in World War I.

a. Describe the movement from U.S. neutrality to engagement in World War I, including unrestricted submarine warfare and the Zimmerman Telegram.

In August 1914, war broke out in Europe with Austria-Hungary and Germany on one side and France, Great Britain, and Russia on the other side. The intense fighting soon spread beyond the fields, forests, and hillsides of Europe to include the seas around Western Europe and out into the eastern Atlantic. In the United States, tensions ran high, especially as newspapers reported on the destruction and loss of life in Belgium, a neutral country. Americans, who in large part came from the nations at war, tended to support their native lands. President Woodrow Wilson was worried that supporters of each side would drag the United States into the war. Furthermore, Wilson worried that violence might occur in the United States between Americans supporting one side or the other. To calm the potential for violence, Wilson went before Congress on August 19, 1914 to ask for a **declaration of neutrality**, stating that, “The United States must be neutral in fact, as well as in name....”

Even with the Congressional declaration of neutrality, the actions of the United States tended to favor the Allies (i.e., the British and the French). The United States was in a recession in 1914. American businessmen and farmers saw the war as a business opportunity. The United States was eager to trade throughout Europe, but the British had established a blockade not only against German ports but

neutral ports as well. Bethlehem Steel was soon sending munitions to England, while the Morgan Bank provided loans that were used by the French and British to pay for war goods. By 1917, American loans to the Allies soared to \$2.25 billion; loans to Germany stood at a paltry \$27 million.



Enlistment Poster (1917)

Germany also relied heavily on imported foodstuffs to feed its population and chemicals for its industries. The British Royal Navy outnumbered the German Imperial Fleet and was able to place an effective blockade on Germany’s Baltic Sea ports, as well as neutral ports in northwest Europe. By early 1915, Germany decided to expand submarine attacks from strictly Allied warships to also include any commercial ships belonging to both belligerent and neutral nations. This action began what is known as **unrestricted submarine warfare**. America's neutrality was in jeopardy.

German submarines were very effective, sinking an average of two ships each day in the first quarter of 1915. To counter German successes, the British admiralty ordered British cargo ships to fly a neutral flag. The British sometimes loaded critical materials

aboard fast liners and other passenger ships, believing the Germans would not dare sink a passenger ship. German commanders ignored the ruse and sank all shipping vessels. In March 1915, the first

American was killed off the British coast. The United States reacted with outrage. Attacks on ships carrying Americans increased until May 1915, when the British liner *Lusitania* was sunk off the Irish coast. There were 128 Americans on board the *Lusitania* and all were killed. President Wilson reacted by issuing a series of notes to Germany warning against further attacks on American shipping. Germany acquiesced but then on August 19, 1915 the *Arabic* was sunk, killing three Americans. The Germans feared that the United States would declare war and ordered submarine commanders to cease attacks on passenger liners.

The year 1916 proved critical for both the Allies and Germany, who suffered heavy casualties in a series of failed offensives. The German High Command decided to renew unrestricted warfare to force the British to sue for peace. The Germans believed that they would have six months to complete operations before the United States would declare war. President Wilson was re-elected in 1916 on a peace platform and offered to mediate peace talks between the warring nations the next year.

Unrestricted submarine warfare was renewed in February 1917. Anticipating reaction by the United States, the German government instructed its ambassador to the United States to approach the Mexican government and ask them to join Germany in a war against the United States. The telegram was sent by Germany's foreign minister, Arthur Zimmerman, and was not favorably received by the Mexican government. The secret communication was intercepted by British intelligence and given to President Wilson. American neutrality was no longer prudent. The security of the United States was being threatened.

In February 1917, President Wilson responded to German attacks and threats by severing diplomatic relations with Germany. Public opinion in the United States was split over whether to get involved in the European war. Some groups favored continuing the neutrality policy. Some groups favored war and loyalty was divided between both sides. However, when the **Zimmerman Telegram** was published in the newspapers, American public opinion swelled to support war against Germany. The President reluctantly knew after this point, war with Germany was inevitable. Despite his reticence, Wilson went before Congress on April 2 to ask for a declaration of war, which was granted.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** has a featured document set for World War I entitled, "World War I: America Heads to War." The document set contains images, documents, and a teachers' guide for presenting the topic to students.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/world-war-i-america-heads-to-war>

SSUSH15 – Analyze the origins and impact of U.S. involvement in World War I.

b. Explain the domestic impact of World War I, including the origins of the Great Migration, the Espionage Act, and socialist Eugene Debs.

World War I impacted Americans in a number of ways. The war increased the power of the Federal government and changed the demography of the United States. America **was impacted economically, politically, and socially** by the nation’s involvement in World War I.

The Wilson administration moved to centrally organize the United States’ economy during World War I with the creation of a series of wartime boards. These boards oversaw production in factories, mediated labor disputes, and improved railroad operations. The private businesses were managed more closely by the government during the war in order to ensure domestic production met the military needs. To finance the war, the United States borrowed from the American people by selling Liberty Bonds. These bonds accounted for two-thirds of the war’s cost. In addition to borrowing, the United States also increased income and excise taxes.

President Wilson was correct in his assessment of the American people when he said every man would pay a penalty for non-conformity. In June 1917, at the request of the Wilson administration, Congress passed the **Espionage Act**. The law provided penalties for spying, sabotage, and obstructing the war effort. The law also banned the use of the United States Mail to send anti-war materials. On June 30, 1918 **Eugene Debs** was arrested after making a series of speeches against the war urging American men not to fight. He was a prominent Socialist, four-time candidate for the presidency, and union leader. The courts convicted Debs under the Espionage Act and sentenced him to 10 years in prison. He was also permanently disenfranchised. The Supreme Court later upheld Debs’ conviction after a series of appeals. President Harding commuted Debs’ sentence after he served three years in federal prison. During his time in prison, Debs continued his bid as a Socialist candidate for the White House.

Another impact World War I had on the United States was the shift in population demographics. The migration of Blacks from the South to the North actually began before World War I, as families sought to escape sharecropping and Jim Crow violence. However, the trend accelerated during the war years and was known as the **Great Migration**. One factor that prompted the population shift was that defense manufacturing jobs became available in the North as soldiers were drafted to serve in the war. Prior to the war, northern factory owners preferred immigrant workers. They typically only used Blacks as strike-breakers. The war temporarily ended immigration and opened new opportunities for Blacks. During the period, 1.5 million Blacks from the South moved to Northern cities. During the 1910s and 1920s, Chicago’s Black population grew by 148 percent; Cleveland’s by 307 percent; Detroit’s by 611 percent.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** has a featured document set for the Great Migration. There are images, documents, and a Teachers’ Guide for teaching the topic.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/the-great-migration/>

SSUSH15 – Analyze the origins and impact of U.S. involvement in World War I.

c. Explain Wilson’s Fourteen Points and the debate over U.S. entry into the League of Nations.

In January 1918, President Wilson spoke to Congress about the war aims of the nation. His plan ultimately became known as the **Fourteen Points** and was designed to create a lasting peace in the world. Once negotiations for the Treaty of Versailles were completed in June 1919, the United States was divided over whether to join the League of Nations - a vital component of the Treaty.

Wilson’s Fourteen Points became a guide for the negotiations at Versailles to secure peace after World War I. Some of Wilson's suggestions were accepted, some modified, and some rejected by the countries represented at the peace conference. The Points included the following:

1. Open diplomacy (no more secret treaties)
2. Freedom of the seas
3. End international trade barriers
4. Reduce armaments
5. Impartial dealings with colonies and their natives
- 6-13. Group of points dealing with the right of self-determination for the people of eastern and central Europe
14. Create an international organization, the League of Nations, to help keep the peace.

The full text of President Wilson’s Fourteen Points can be accessed through Yale University’s Avalon Project using the link below.

http://avalon.law.yale.edu/20th_century/wilson14.asp

During the postwar treaty negotiations, Wilson worked hard to get as many of his Fourteen Points as possible included in the treaty. The Fourteenth Point, which proposed a **League of Nations**, was one that President Wilson was particularly committed to securing for world peace. After much negotiation, the League of Nations was included in the final provisions of the Treaty of Versailles. The treaty drafted at Versailles had to be ratified by the United States Senate as the final step for implementation in the United States.

Although Wilson believed strongly in the League of Nations, there was significant opposition to the concept among many Americans. Public opposition to the League of Nations ultimately led the Senate to vote against ratification of the treaty. Isolationists in the Senate believed that by joining the League of Nations, the United States would be obligated to get involved in future European conflicts.

One of the most vocal critics of the League was Senator Henry Cabot Lodge. Lodge was a Republican and Wilson was a Democrat. They held different ideas about the role the United States should take in world affairs. Lodge was a powerful and respected Senator who served as his party's majority leader and was on the Senate Foreign Relations Committee. Lodge, and others from his party, believed that he should have been involved in the treaty's negotiations.



THE GAP IN THE BRIDGE.

Punch Magazine of London
(December 1919)

Although Wilson traveled across the United States to try and gain public support for the treaty's ratification, it was eventually rejected in the Senate. The League of Nations was created and made up of primarily European nations, but the United States never joined.

Resources:

1. **The State Department of the United States Office of the Historian** has a comprehensive overview of the negotiations that led to the Treaty of Versailles that ended World War I. There is a background essay and links to documents related to the topic.
<https://history.state.gov/milestones/1914-1920/league>

SSUSH16 – Investigate how political, economic, and cultural developments after WWI led to a shared national identity.

Following World War I, the United States began to form an even stronger national identity. The effects of communism's rise led to strong efforts to defend the United States from its spread. The regional divide that characterized much of the nineteenth century gave way to a more national approach to politics, economics, and culture. Additionally, the dramatic influence of mass media led to nationwide advertising campaigns that targeted consumers in all parts of the United States- not just in one area. Out of these conditions in the 1920s came a more solidified national identity, in which the United States defended democracy and capitalism and mass consumerism influenced culture across the nation. Even though there was much prosperity and unity in the United States after World War I, there were also significant identity and equality struggles still challenging women and Blacks. These groups emerged from the 1920s with greater political and cultural significance.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of the 1920s. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #8 - Progressive Era to New Era, 1900-1929
<http://ap.gilderlehrman.org/period/8>

SSUSH16 – Investigate how political, economic, and cultural developments after WWI led to a shared national identity.

- a. Explain how fears of rising communism and socialism in the United States led to the Red Scare and immigrant restriction.

The German philosopher Karl Marx developed a new theory in the mid-nineteenth century that combined history and economics. Marx held that history was composed of a series of revolutions in which those who were oppressed overthrew their oppressors and established new political and economic forms. Marx also said that those in power, who ultimately became oppressors themselves, gradually corrupted these new systems. He held that the final revolution would be between the capitalists and the workers. According to Marx, the workers would eventually tire of being oppressed through low wages and poor working conditions and violently overthrow the capitalist economic system. This workers' revolution, he believed, would usher in a new time period. Out of the revolution would come the creation of a dictatorship in which workers would share the means of production and distribution. Marx's theory became known as a more extreme form of **socialism**, which is known as **communism**.

The idea of a worker controlled economic system appealed to industrial workers worldwide. In 1901, the Socialist Party of America was created. Elements of socialist theory also infiltrated American labor unions, especially the Industrial Workers of the World (I.W.W). With the exception of the

elections of 1912 and 1920, the Socialist Party in the United States was a weak third party. In 1917, communist revolutionaries known as Bolsheviks overthrew the czar in Russia. The new Bolshevik authority established the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and was led by Vladimir Lenin. Lenin called for a worldwide revolution to destroy capitalism. America thus became a pivotal target for communist infiltration.

Unable to engage in direct action during World War I, labor unions began to strike for higher wages after the war. These strikes, thought by many to be led by communists, became increasingly more violent. The fear of the spread of communism in the United States was heightened by Karl Marx's prediction of a worker revolution. Were the labor union strikes part of Lenin's mission in the United States? Many saw capitalism and democracy as being in danger from communist threats. The wave of fear and action to protect the United States from such ideological crisis became known as the **Red Scare**. For the most part, Americans were unified to protect the nation's identity as a democratic and capitalist country from communism.

The perceived danger was further exacerbated by a series of bombings sponsored by a group of Italian anarchists. The attacks were carried out against public buildings and officials. Terrorists twice attacked United States Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer. These incidents, coupled with the violent labor strikes, led the United States Justice Department and the FBI to stage a series of raids against suspected anarchists and communists. Hundreds were arrested across the nation. However, civil libertarians claimed the Palmer Raids lacked legal standing and targeted people's beliefs rather than their actions. Most of those arrested were later released but 556 people were deported as a result of the Palmer Raids. The Red Scare ended when a purported May Day plot to overthrow the government never took place and Palmer's actions were censured for violating civil liberties.



From *Memphis Commercial Appeal*,
1919

The Red Scare was also a factor that led to new **restrictions on immigration**. Other factors included two ideas that grew particularly strong during the post-World War I era of the 1920s. One of the ideas was that people born in the United States were superior to immigrants. The other was that America should keep its traditional culture intact. Anti-immigrant, anti-Jewish, and anti-Catholic sentiments contributed to the popularity of a revived Ku Klux Klan, not just in the South but also throughout the nation. By 1924, this conservative reaction against immigrants resulted in the passage of the National Origins Acts. The main provision of the laws was to establish the Quota System, which set limits on the number of immigrants who could enter the United States from each country.

The Red Scare was perceived by many to be a threat to the foundations of the United States. Although sometimes overstepping individual civil liberties, there were strong efforts after World War I to protect and enhance the national identity of the United States.

Resources:

1. **The Stanford History Education Group** presents high quality lessons based on primary documents. The link below contains a lesson specifically related to the Palmer Raids and their causes. It is a good lesson linking the spread of communism and the U.S. reaction. Full access to the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
<https://sheg.stanford.edu/palmer-raids>

SSUSH16 – Investigate how political, economic, and cultural developments after WWI led to a shared national identity.

- b. Describe the effects of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Amendments.

Social changes during World War I led to two constitutional amendments. An undercurrent related to the growing national identity of the period can be found in the passage of Eighteenth and Nineteenth Amendments. The **Eighteenth Amendment's** ban on alcohol is related to pronounced anti-German sentiment during World War I. The **Nineteenth Amendment's** enfranchisement of women brought with it a greater role for women in shaping the nation's identity.

Americans' anti-German efforts during World War I led to a campaign to outlaw beer and other alcoholic beverages. This effort was well suited to the Progressive Era's opposition to saloons. It became patriotic during the war to abstain from alcohol, not only to preserve grain for the troops and our allies but also as a symbol of resistance to beer's German connection. Congress passed the Eighteenth Amendment in 1917 and it was ratified in 1919. The provisions of the amendment prohibited the manufacture, sale, and transportation of intoxicating liquors.

The effect of the Eighteenth Amendment was not completely positive. Organized crime and smuggling alcohol brought tremendous profits to those willing to break the law for financial gain. Speakeasies and bootleggers profited from the banning of alcohol. In the 1930s the Twenty-First Amendment that made alcohol legal again was ratified. The Twenty-First Amendment repeals, or cancels out, the Eighteenth Amendment. One reason the government was keen on making alcohol legal again was to levy taxes on it during the financial difficulties of the Great Depression.

The Nineteenth Amendment gave women the right to vote. The women's movement had been actively working toward this goal since the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848. Ratification of the amendment in 1920 was fueled by the country's gratitude for women's economic contribution during World War I. Women had filled jobs in factories after men volunteered and were drafted into military service. The suffrage movement had worked for decades to petition Congress to pass this legislation. Tactics used by suffragettes included demonstrating in front of the White House and driving cross-country motorcades to promote the cause.



Map from the Norman B. Leventhal Map Center at the Boston Public Library

Eventually, President Wilson supported the women's right to vote, expecting that in return they would support his League of Nations.

The effect of the Nineteenth Amendment was greater equality and independence for women. Gender roles began to change during the 1920s after the ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment. While the amendment itself, is not solely responsible for the cultural changes, the greater political autonomy of women certainly emboldened their social autonomy. Women began to challenge the moral taboos of the Victorian era through their dress, activities, and attitudes.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** provides good information on the Eighteenth and Twenty-first Amendments related to alcohol. The site contains background information and video clips related to the amendments themselves and the resulting organized crime.
<http://www.history.com/topics/18th-and-21st-amendments>
2. **The History Channel** also provides good information on the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which gave women the right to vote. The site contains background information on the women's movement and the eventual ratification of the amendment. Video clips are also provided to help supplement instruction related to the passage of the amendment.
<http://www.history.com/topics/womens-history/19th-amendment>

SSUSH16 – Investigate how political, economic, and cultural developments after WWI led to a shared national identity.

c. Examine how mass production and advertising led to increasing consumerism, including Henry Ford and the automobile.

The 1920s was a time of increased consumer buying. People were purchasing new automobiles and household appliances through various means of financing. The new mode of individual transportation changed society by making the population more mobile and able to live greater distances from their jobs. **Advertising** of cars and new household appliances was largely through nationwide campaigns on the radio, in magazines, and at the movies. People began to see themselves as "needing" certain items of convenience rather than simply "wanting" them.

Henry Ford was the developer of the first **mass produced automobile** - the Model T. While the idea of mass production was not new, Ford used an improved continuous assembly line to quickly build automobiles. Ford constructed his manufacturing facilities so that all the elements of production (foundries, machine shops, assembly lines) were all in one location. He was also able to speed up production and drive down costs of automobiles by standardizing parts, focusing on specialization of labor, and through careful management. At its introduction in the market, Ford's Model T cost \$950. Within ten years, the same model cost \$280 due to improved production methods.

The automobile led to huge social changes in America. People began moving to the suburbs because of their widespread ownership of cars. There was also a new need for improved roads and highways. Travel was more independent and vacations for pleasure became popular. As a result new businesses were needed such as gas stations, motels, and roadside restaurants.



1925 Advertisement
from the Collections of the Henry Ford.

Resources:

1. **The Henry Ford Museum** offers a broad collection of images, educational materials, and research aids. Teachers can use the information for teaching about the impact of automobiles on society.
<https://www.thehenryford.org>

SSUSH16 – Investigate how political, economic, and cultural developments after WWI led to a shared national identity.

d. Describe the impact of radio and movies as a unifying force in the national culture.

The period after World War I marked the beginning of mass media, especially commercial radio and movies. Although hobby radio had existed since the early years of the Twentieth Century, the development of the vacuum tube, a type of amplifier, in the mid-1920s accelerated the development of commercial radio.

The first **radio** broadcasts were used to relate the election results of the 1920 Presidential Election. By 1925, there were 600 radio stations across the United States. By 1923, nearly three million Americans had radios. Music, stories, sporting events, and news were soon being broadcast nationwide. A stronger national, rather than regional, identity emerged in the United States.

Radio helped to create a common cultural experience for thousands of Americans. Advertisers were quick to realize the marketing potential of radio. They began using radio to mass market the multitude of consumer goods that were developed in the period, such as washing machines, electric toasters, and laundry soap. Products and brands were becoming more widespread due to the vast market radio offered.

Movies had a similar beginning. The first movies were silent films but by the late 1920s, the first movies with sound were available to audiences. During this era, the movies became big business as studios churned out an average of 800 feature films annually. Conservatives of the time often disapproved of what they viewed as movies' immoral influences. However, the popularity of movies was so widespread that the conservative moral opposition was unable to challenge the entertainment's growing influence on American culture. Radio and movies were a unifying force on **national culture** because the styles actors and actresses wore, activities they were engaged in, and products they were using was all being watched and listened to by Americans from all parts of the country simultaneously.

Resources:

1. **The Independence Hall Association** presents a section on the influence of radio and advertising on mass culture. This is a portion of the organization's online textbook content. In addition to background information, there are also links to other sources that may be of value on the topic. <http://www.ushistory.org/us/46g.asp>

SSUSH16 – Investigate how political, economic, and cultural developments after WWI led to a shared national identity.

e. Describe the emergence of modern forms of cultural expression including the origins of jazz and the Harlem Renaissance.

The 1920s marked a distinct break from the Victorian culture of the previous century. In the visual arts, the **Modernist Movement** began during the period. European modern artists, whose work was first exhibited in 1913, influenced American artists. These works were impressionistic, abstract,

geometric, and represented a break from the schools of romanticism and realism. The era also marked the beginning of the art deco movement. In this new form, artists began to create artistically styled furnishings using modern materials such as aluminum, plastics, and glass. In architecture, the trend of building skyscrapers accelerated.

Literature in the modern era was noted for its themes of alienation and disillusionment. Writers rebelled against traditional constraints and incorporated themes deemed immoral by the previous generation. Most notable were the writers that came out of the Harlem Renaissance.

The **Harlem Renaissance** marked the first significant artistic movement coming out of Black culture. Centered in the Harlem borough of New York City, the movement produced notable works of literature, music, dance, and visual art. Writers included W.E.B. DuBois and Langston Hughes. Hughes' poetry used the rhythms of Black music, particularly blues and jazz. This allowed Hughes to experiment with a very rhythmic free verse. Harlem's Cotton Club was an important location, where White



"Getting Religion" by Archibald Motley

audiences were exposed to ideas of the Harlem Renaissance - including Jazz.

Performing arts expanded with the advent of radio and movies. As income rose during the period, families had more money available to spend on entertainment. Radio stations needed to fill airtime by broadcasting the latest music to listeners. Jazz was a genre that benefitted from this demand for music.

Although **Jazz** was not born out of the Harlem Renaissance, it was the first true American music. The musical form was so influential that the era of the 1920s is often referred to as the Jazz Age. Born in the Deep South, Jazz was thought to have originated from the musical traditions brought by slaves from West Africa combined with western

musical instruments and techniques. Jazz, as a musical style, is easy to recognize but hard to define. Jazz has elements of different genres of music but is most noted for its improvisations. By the 1920s, there were several different types of Jazz, including Dixieland that originated in New Orleans. Famous Jazz musicians included Louis Armstrong and Duke Ellington. Jazz also influenced composers such as Cole Porter and the Gershwin Brothers who composed *Rhapsody in Blue* and the Jazz opera *Porgy and Bess*.

Resources:

1. **The Library of Congress** offers a guide to the Harlem Renaissance. Included on the site are links to online exhibitions, images, teacher resources, and documents pertaining to the Harlem Renaissance.

<https://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/harlem/harlem.html>

SSUSH17 – Analyze the causes and consequences of the Great Depression.

Though the United States' economy appeared to be prosperous during the 1920s, the conditions that led to the Great Depression of the 1930s actually emerged during the previous decade. There is not one specific cause of the Great Depression, but rather a number of contributing factors. The beginning of the Great Depression is often pinpointed as the Stock Market Crash of October 1929. This event triggered the various contributing factors into a downward spiraling economy that left many Americans unemployed and suffering in desperate poverty.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of the Great Depression. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #9 - Great Depression and WWII, 1929-1945
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/great-depression-and-world-war-ii-1929-1945>

SSUSH17 – Analyze the causes and consequences of the Great Depression.

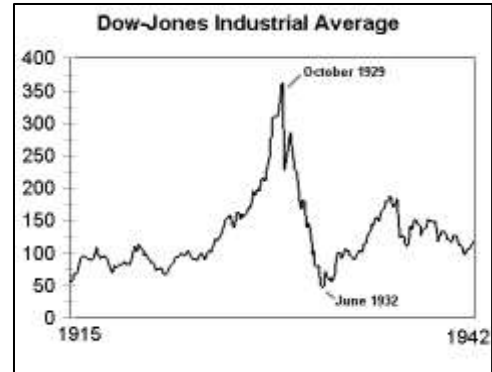
a. Describe the causes, including overproduction, underconsumption, and stock market speculation that led to the stock market crash of 1929 and the Great Depression.

While many European nations suffered a post-World War I recession, the United States did not. American businesses, farms, and banks profited greatly during World War I by selling products to European markets. However, by 1929, the economic boom for the United States was over and the Great Depression began. There are numerous causes that together led to the severity of the Great Depression.

The causes of the Great Depression were:

1. Industrial **overproduction**- Industries increased their productive capacity to produce and sell more goods. As a result, a supply surplus was created. This problem became exacerbated by Europe's struggling post-war market. The European countries could not buy as much American made product due to their own financial difficulties. The United States had more goods than consumers.
2. Consumer overspending - With cash to spend after the war, Americans went on a spending spree. The development of the national consumer market in the United States and the advent of consumer credit further encouraged spending. After the Stock Market collapse in October 1929, consumers quit spending except for absolute necessities creating a surplus of goods in the market place. This caused **Under-consumption**, which deepened the economic slowdown.

3. "Get rich quick" attitudes - Investors sought to maximize their wealth through speculation in real estate and the stock market. To obtain capital for expansion, companies began to offer more shares of stock for sale. Seeing growing demand for stock translate into growing value of stock shares, speculators began to buy and sell stocks quickly to profit from the rising market. Buyers were allowed to borrow money to purchase stocks with as little as 10% down. The gamble for buyers paid off as long as stock prices continued to rise. When the prices fell, these stock buyers were in debt to their stockbrokers with no way to pay off what they owed. Eventually, the speculators began to sell off stock to make profits and touched off a run on selling. The large numbers of stocks sold at the same time led to the **Stock Market Crash** of October 1929.



Stock Market Crash, 1929
(from the Econreview)

4. Disparity in Wealth- While many Americans prospered during the 1920s, some economic sectors did not. Farmers lost income throughout the 1920s because European markets stopped buying American farm goods. Coal mining suffered as oil began to replace coal as a fuel. In general, workers' wages failed to keep pace with prices during the period. As a result, an unequal distribution of wealth developed. The richest 1% of the American population owned approximately 40% of the country's wealth.
5. Banking Panic- As unemployment increased, depositors began to withdraw more and more of their savings from their bank. Lacking sufficient reserves, banks were forced to call in loans, which in turn touched off a wave of bankruptcies. Unable to collect outstanding loans, banks began to fail. In all, 9,000 banks failed during the 1930s. Many people lost their life savings. The bank failures led to a demand for more cash in the economy, which contradicted the Federal Reserve policy of the era. The shortage of cash in circulation worsened the effects of the economic downturn.

With all of these factors in play simultaneously, the Great Depression began and continued to get worse. A capitalist system naturally has dips in the economic cycle. However, the events of the 1920s (overproduction, under-consumption, and the Stock Market Crash) made the crisis far more severe than a normally occurring downturn.

Resources:

1. **The Federal Reserve Bank** offers a number of good lessons related to the causes of the Great Depression. Each lesson relates the economic concepts to the study of historical content.
<https://www.stlouisfed.org/the-great-depression/curriculum/lesson-plans>

SSUSH17 – Analyze the causes and consequences of the Great Depression.

b. Explain factors (include over-farming and climate) that led to the Dust Bowl and the resulting movement and migration west.

The Dust Bowl is a symbol of overproduction and was a contributing factor to the economic decline of the 1930s. The Dust Bowl originated in the southern plains of the United States. Farmers first arrived in the region at the end of the Nineteenth Century. The Homestead Act and the region's rich soil drew them west at that time. Farmers in the region talked of the rich, fertile soil and were soon producing high yield crops of wheat, corn, cotton, and livestock. However, unknown to the farmers, the Great Plains region experiences regular wet and dry weather cycles.

The southern Plains were in a wet period when farmers first arrived. Spurred on by the soil's fertility and strong demand for grain during World War I, farmers planted thousands of acres of marginal land in crops. Beginning in 1931, the region entered into a dry cycle. The drought was the worst in



Stratford, Texas - 1935
(from the NOAA's National Weather Service
George Marsh Album)

United States history, covering more than 75% of the country and severely affecting 27 states.

Year after year, farmers continued to plant wheat and cotton despite the failure of crops. Deep plowing killed the prairie grasses that held together the topsoil. Winds soon began blowing the dry topsoil away. Dust clouds formed that were thousands of feet high and miles wide. The dust storms and drought lasted nearly ten years.

Although two-thirds of families remained in the region, a large group of sharecroppers and tenant farmers left the farms of Oklahoma, Texas, and eastern Colorado and settled in the central California

farming region. Without money, many became migrant farm workers who worked the vegetable, fruit, and cotton harvests of the west coast. The migrants became known as "Okies" and were the subject of John Steinbeck's popular book, *The Grapes of Wrath*. The Dust Bowl eventually ended in 1938, when rains returned and the Soil Conservation Act was passed encouraging better plowing methods in the region.

Resources:

1. **PBS and Ken Burns** created a documentary on the Dust Bowl. The website for the film offers a wide variety of materials including background information, images, lesson plans, and video clips.
<http://www.pbs.org/kenburns/dustbowl/>

SSUSH17 – Analyze the causes and consequences of the Great Depression.

c. Explain the social and political impact of widespread unemployment that resulted in developments such as Hoovervilles.

By 1933, twenty-five percent of the labor force was unemployed in the United States and millions more could only find part time jobs. In 1932, *Fortune Magazine* reported that 34 million people belonged to families with no regular, full-time wage earner. There were two million homeless people migrating around the country. Women and minorities were especially hard hit. Women, many of whom were single parents, were often fired because many businesses felt jobs should go to men first. Blacks were often the first laid-off only to be replaced by White workers. Children were often malnourished.

While there were some public assistance programs and private charities, they were quickly overwhelmed by the sheer numbers of those who needed assistance. Men abandoned their families to



Hooverville -
Manhattan, NY (1935)

search for work and, when they were unable to find a job, did not return home out of shame. Some teenagers were asked to leave home and find a job to support themselves when their families were increasingly unable to do so. Homeless families, lacking shelter, used cardboard and packing crates to create encampments called Hoovervilles. The name was meant to cast criticism on President Hoover and his handling of the economic crisis.

While in office, Herbert Hoover attempted to diminish the impact of the Great Depression by creating work relief programs that included the construction of the Golden Gate Bridge and the Boulder (later Hoover) Dam. He attempted to

slow home foreclosures by asking the Federal government to guarantee home loans. However, his programs appeared to the public as too little, too late. He had been reluctant to involve the government early in the economic crisis. It was not until the situation was severe that he began to act and at that point his efforts had minimal impact.

In 1932, Hoover ran for re-election. The Democratic candidate for President was Franklin D. Roosevelt, who publicly blamed Hoover for the Great Depression. Hoover lost the election by a very wide margin, obtaining only 39.7% of the popular vote compared to Roosevelt's 57.4%.

Resources:

1. **The Herbert Hoover Presidential Library** offers information regarding the President's approach to the Great Depression. Included on the site is background information, documents, and images.
<https://hoover.archives.gov/exhibits/great-depression>
2. **The History Channel** provides information, images, and video clips describing conditions in Hoovervilles and their development.
<http://www.history.com/topics/hoovervilles>

SSUSH17 – Analyze the causes and consequences of the Great Depression.

In the first presidential election during the Great Depression, American voters rejected Herbert Hoover and voted in the Democratic candidate Franklin D. Roosevelt. The new President used the name "New Deal" to refer to his series of government-funded programs to end the Depression. Roosevelt promised these programs would help different segments of the economy recover by addressing specific needs and weaknesses. The New Deal did create jobs for the unemployed and provide relief to people struggling during the economic crisis. However, Roosevelt's programs did not end the Great Depression. The outbreak of World War II and the production demand the war brought with it ended the Great Depression. Roosevelt's New Deal provided relief and stalled the downward economic spiral the country faced under Hoover's limited federal response to the economic crisis. Some New Deal programs were more successful than others and some groups in the United States benefitted more than others from Roosevelt's efforts.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** features a document set and Teaching Guide for the New Deal. Included with the lesson plans are documents, images, and background essays to help students evaluate the New Deal programs.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/the-new-deal>

SSUSH18 – Evaluate Franklin D. Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the Great Depression and compare how governmental programs aided those in need.

- a. Describe Roosevelt’s attempts at relief, recovery, and reform reflected in various New Deal programs.

When Franklin Roosevelt took his oath of office in March 1932, the nation was in grave crisis. Five thousand banks had closed. Unemployment hovered at twenty-five percent. Corporate profits had fallen to ninety percent and farm commodity prices had fallen sixty percent. Two million Americans were homeless. As a result of these issues and President Hoover's reluctance to appropriate Federal assistance, the American public had lost confidence in its government. Roosevelt's plan was to immediately provide relief to those struggling the most, recovery for the economic systems damaged by the economic crisis, and reform so that there would not be another Great Depression. His program of relief, reform, and recovery was known as the New Deal.

Roosevelt's first one hundred days in office was a declaration of war on the Great Depression. The new president immediately signed an executive order closing all banks in the United States temporarily until their solvency could be determined. He also called Congress into special session and sent the legislative body a series of bills designed to address the nation's problems. Collectively, these bills became known as the New Deal.

While specific New Deal Programs are not included in this SSUSH18 element, it is important for students to investigate some particular examples of the relief, recovery, and reform efforts Roosevelt



"New Deal Remedies" by Johnston, 1933

implemented. Some of the relief measures teachers might want to introduce include the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) that granted federal money to state and local governments for operating soup kitchens and meeting the basic needs of the homeless. There were also a number of agencies created during the first few months of Roosevelt's administration that were intended to put people to work on government funded projects. Examples of the First New Deal's work agencies include the Public Works Administration (PWA) that provided money to states for the construction of roads, bridges, and dams. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) hired young men to work on land projects.

Another large program funded by the Federal government was the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA), which hired thousands of

workers in the very rural Tennessee Valley to build dams, power plants, and work to control flooding and erosion.

Other significant features of the New Deal were intended to help the financial systems recover from the Great Depression. The Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) was created to shore up public confidence in the banking system. The FDIC provided insurance on individual bank accounts with deposits up to \$5000. Farmers were granted subsidies through the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA), which would help recover crop prices by cutting production.

One major area of reform dealt with the Stock Market. The Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) was created to regulate the Stock Market. The intent was to prevent another stock market crash by limiting the types of stock speculation that could be transacted.

All of these programs and organizations created significant government involvement in the economic system of the United States. This was quite a departure from the long history of the nation, which had typically followed a laissez-faire approach (other than the trust busting of the Progressives). In evaluating the programs of the New Deal, one has to consider both the immediate and long-term effects. In the short term, programs such as the CCC, PWA, and TVA put thousands of unemployed Americans back to work. However, much of the work available was hard, physical labor that benefitted young men and did not help some groups such as women or the elderly. The emergency banking measures and the creation of the FDIC helped to restore public confidence in America's financial institutions. The long term implications of these programs was not fully realized since America's involvement in World War II lifted the nation out of the economic crisis with the unprecedented production demands that benefitted businesses and ended unemployment.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** features the New Deal in an online exhibition that includes background information, links to documents, and video clips.
<http://www.history.com/topics/new-deal>

SSUSH18 – Evaluate Franklin D. Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the Great Depression and compare how governmental programs aided those in need.

b. Explain the passage of the Social Security Act as a part of the second New Deal.

Entering his second term as President, Roosevelt believed a Second New Deal was needed. He believed more needed to be done to address the needs of groups who did not directly benefit from the First New Deal. One such group was the nation's senior citizens. Most seniors did not have pensions and those who did saw them wiped out as a result of the Great Depression. The agencies of the First New Deal did not offer the elderly opportunities for work.

Roosevelt signed into law the Social Security Act in 1935. The new law provided for old-age pensions, unemployment insurance, and aid to the disabled. The first version of Social Security excluded many groups including agricultural workers, teachers, domestic help, and children. As a result, the act excluded many Blacks and women. These concerns were addressed in subsequent amendments to the Social Security Act. The program is still in effect today.



Social Security Advertisement, 1935

Resources:

1. **The Social Security Administration** is still in operation today. Their website provides background of the program's history and adjustments.
<https://www.ssa.gov/history/briefhistory3.html>

SSUSH18 – Evaluate Franklin D. Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the Great Depression and compare how governmental programs aided those in need.

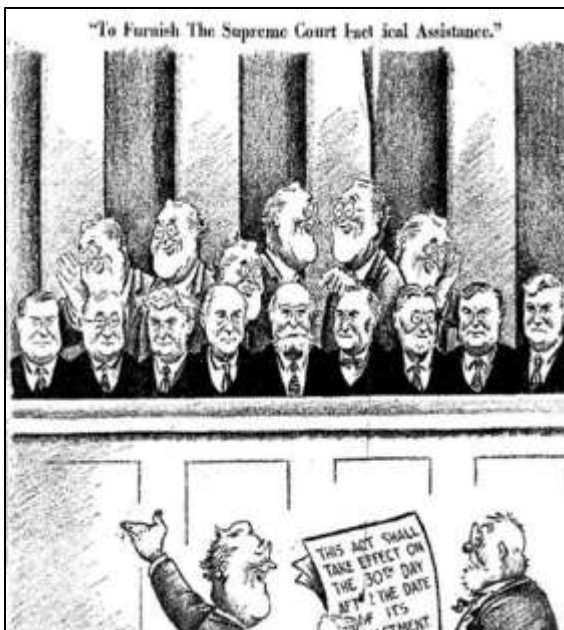
c. Analyze political challenges to Roosevelt’s leadership and New Deal programs.

During his twelve-year presidency, Franklin Roosevelt faced many challenges to his leadership and had many critics. Opponents of the New Deal came from all parts of the political spectrum. Some conservatives thought he had made the government too large and too powerful. These conservatives also felt some aspects of the New Deal did not respect the rights of individuals and property. However, some liberals thought Roosevelt had not gone far enough to socialize the economy and eliminate inequality in the United States.

Perhaps Roosevelt's biggest critic was Senator Huey P. Long of Louisiana. Long was planning to challenge Roosevelt for the presidency in 1936 until he was shot and killed by an assassin the year before the election. Senator Long was one of those critics who believed the New Deal had not gone far enough in its efforts to help society. Instead of the New Deal, Long proposed what he called the "Share Our Wealth" program. The plan would guarantee a household income for each family in the United States, which would be paid for by high taxes on the wealthiest Americans. Long in effect was planning to take from the rich to give to the poor.

In addition to the New Deal challenges issued by Huey Long and others, the Supreme Court declared two pieces of the First New Deal unconstitutional in 1936. One was the National Industrial Recovery Act, which attempted to guarantee fair wages and hours for workers. The other was the Agricultural Adjustment Act, which was going to grant farmers subsidies to cut their production in an

effort to stabilize crop prices. The Court struck down these two programs because they were perceived as Federal overreach into the operations of private businesses.



Court Packing Cartoon
Life Magazine (Feb. 1937)

Roosevelt grew increasingly frustrated with the Supreme Court, which was composed of nine men, all over 60 years old and conservative. He felt the Court was "thwarting the will of the nation." Roosevelt informed his cabinet at a special meeting that he would send a message to Congress proposing the reorganization of the federal judiciary system. The plan was ostensibly designed to "improve the efficiency of the entire system" by adding judges to all levels of the federal courts and adopting procedures to expedite the appeals process. The actual intent of the plan was obvious. By adding a judge to the Supreme Court for every justice who refused to retire after the age of 70, Roosevelt could appoint enough justices to uphold his New Deal programs.

Franklin Roosevelt was criticized for wanting to "pack the court." His opponents believed he was attacking the independence of the judiciary and subverting

the Constitution. Many of Roosevelt's longtime supporters deserted him on this controversial proposal. The opposition Roosevelt received to this proposal began to sour the nation on the New Deal.

Resources:

1. **The Gilder Lehrman Institute** features a historical essay entitled, "FDR's Court Packing Plan: A Study in Irony." The essay gives background information and presents arguments for and against the plan. There is also analysis of why Roosevelt took this approach.
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/new-deal/essays/fdr's-court-packing-plan-study-irony>

SSUSH18 – Evaluate Franklin D. Roosevelt’s New Deal as a response to the Great Depression and compare how governmental programs aided those in need.

d. Examine how Eleanor Roosevelt changed the role of the First Lady including development of New Deal programs to aid those in need.

President Roosevelt's wife, Eleanor, was very influential in her own right. She was the first president's wife to testify before a Congressional committee, the first to hold press conferences, to speak before a national party convention, to write a syndicated newspaper column, to be a radio commentator, and to earn money as a lecturer.

Eleanor Roosevelt was interested in humanitarian causes and social progress. She was very vocal about these issues with her husband during his time in the White House and urged him to create reforms to help minorities and the poor. Eleanor traveled all over the United States to observe social conditions so she could keep the president informed as to the state of the nation. President Roosevelt referred to Eleanor as "his legs," since his mobility was severely limited by the crippling effects of polio.



Eleanor Roosevelt speech at Chicago World's Fair (1933)
Photo From Franklin Roosevelt Library

As a vocal advocate for both women and Blacks, Eleanor Roosevelt was instrumental in ending discriminatory practices associated with New Deal legislation. As a supporter of women's activism, she was also instrumental in convincing President Roosevelt to appoint more women to government positions. Following World War II, Eleanor Roosevelt became known as "First Lady of the World" due to her service with the United Nations. Some

historians credit Eleanor's actions with changing Black voters from supporting Republican candidates to supporting Democrats. She is also credited with changing the role of First Ladies from that of passive spouses to women who use their position of influence to address societal issues. Eleanor Roosevelt took action as a First Lady and that tradition has continued.

Resources:

1. **The National First Ladies Library** presents a comprehensive biography of Eleanor Roosevelt. There is extensive coverage of her childhood and life as a First Lady. Photographs and links to other sources of information are included.
<http://firstladieslibrary.org/biographies/firstladies.aspx?biography=33>

SSUSH19 – Examine the origins, major developments, and the domestic impact of World War II, including the growth of the federal government.

World War II was the culminating event in the United States' path to becoming a world superpower. The United States was reluctant to become involved in the European war when the fighting began. However, America responded with full commitment to the Allied cause after Hawaii was attacked. The military contributions and wartime production of the United States led to an Allied victory. Responding to the country's need to fight in the war led to growth of the federal government.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of World War II. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.
Historical Era #9 - Great Depression and WWII, 1929-1945
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/great-depression-and-world-war-ii-1929-1945>

SSUSH19 – Examine the origins, major developments, and the domestic impact of World War II, including the growth of the federal government.

- a. Investigate the origins of U.S. involvement in the war including Lend-lease and the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

The United States was cautious in its initial involvement in World War II. The events in Europe threatened American allies and trade. Danger was spreading through Europe in the 1930s with the rise of dictators, who desired to expand their influence by taking over vast areas. Many Americans were reluctant to get involved in this European conflict after the events of World War I. It was not until Japan attacked the United States at Pearl Harbor that there was unified support for America's entry into the war.

Part of the public reluctance to get involved in the war resulted from a mid-1930s Congressional investigation, which indicated banking and munitions interests helped push the United States to enter World War I for their own financial gain. This evidence led Congress to pass a series of neutrality laws that made it illegal to sell arms or make loans to nations at war. The fourth of these acts was passed in 1939 as a recognition of the increasing threat Nazi power posed to Western European democracies. The 1939 Neutrality Act permitted the sale of any materials, including arms, to nations at war on a “cash and carry” basis. This was a way for the United States to help restrict the spread of Nazi influence while at the same time remaining neutral. The cash and carry



Dr. Seuss Cartoon - 1941

provision meant that buyers would have to pay cash and send their own ships to American ports to pick up the supplies they were purchasing from the United States. The British and the French were the only countries financially in a position to meet the criteria of the cash and carry Policy. This arrangement kept American ships from being sunk by the German submarines patrolling the Atlantic Ocean.

The Roosevelt administration opposed the proposals because he believed that the laws might restrict the United States if Europe or China needed help in the future. However, the president had no choice but to sign the Neutrality Acts into law because he needed to insure that Congress would pass the remaining parts of his New Deal legislation. Even though the United States was declaring neutrality in World War II, the nation was still supporting the Allied Powers through the transfer of goods.



Dr. Seuss Cartoon - 1941

The cash and carry provision lasted until early 1941. By that time, Great Britain was strained financially to meet the criteria for the cash and carry policy. Nine months before Pearl Harbor, Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act, which created a pathway for American goods to still support the British war effort even though they were short on cash. Under the new provisions of Lend-Lease, the United States could lend military equipment and supplies to any nation the president said was vital to the defense of the United States. Roosevelt approved \$1 billion in Lend-Lease aid to Great Britain in October 1941. When the United States entered World War II, \$50 billion worth of equipment and supplies had already been sent to Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and China. These nations became allies of the United States after the attack at Pearl Harbor led to the American declaration of war.

The December 7, 1941 attack on the United States at Pearl Harbor evolved from Japan's desire to conquer all of Asia for its own use. Japan was, and still is, a resource-poor nation. In order to keep its industries going and to feed its people, the Japanese government began a policy of expansion in the 1890s. Japan's military targeted the weaker nations of China and Korea and captured territory from both nations. The United States was angered by Japan's aggression in China. Under U.S. policy, all nations should be able to trade freely in China and respect their territorial integrity. Japan invaded

Manchuria in 1931 and engaged China in a full-scale war in 1937. China was quickly conquered, except for the southwestern provinces.

The neutrality laws of the early 1930s prevented the United States from giving aid to the Chinese. However, the passage of the Lend-Lease Law in 1939, allowed the United States to lend money to the Chinese war effort. In 1940, Germany conquered France and the Netherlands and threatened Great Britain. The conquered nations also had rich colonial holdings in Asia. Japan sensed these colonies would be easy to acquire and positioned its military to conquer the entire region. In September 1940, the Japanese occupied French Indochina threatening British Malaysia, the Dutch East Indies, and the American Philippines. The United States immediately placed an embargo on airplane parts and aviation fuel. The United States also re-positioned the Pacific fleet from San Diego to the Hawaiian Islands. In July 1941, the United States placed a total financial and oil embargo on Japan.

The Japanese felt they were being directly threatened by the United States and began to plan operations for the take over of the East Indies, Malay Peninsula, and the Philippines. To prevent any counter-attack, the Japanese military felt it was necessary to destroy the American Pacific fleet. On the morning of December 7, 1941, the Japanese navy launched a surprise attack on the United States Navy base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Over 2,400 Americans were killed and 1,178 more were wounded, 19 ships were damaged, and over 300 aircraft were destroyed. The Japanese attack brought the United States officially into World War II.



Pearl Harbor – December 7, 1941

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** features information about the Pearl Harbor attack. The site contains background information, video clips, and images for teachers to use with students.
<http://www.history.com/topics/world-war-ii/pearl-harbor>

SSUSH19 – Examine the origins, major developments, and the domestic impact of World War II, including the growth of the federal government.

b. Examine the Pacific Theater including the difficulties the U.S. faced in delivering weapons, food, and medical supplies to troops, the Battle of Midway, Manhattan Project and the dropping of the atomic bombs.

The United States entered World War II after the attack at Pearl Harbor. There were two theaters of war. American forces fought in both the Pacific and in Europe. Fighting in the Pacific Theater presented some extra strategic difficulties and ultimately led to the use of atomic weapons to end the war.

The distance across the Pacific was three times the distance from New York to Great Britain. It could take up to five months for supplies to get from California to Australia. The decision to prioritize the war in Europe sent the best and greatest amount of equipment to Europe. This allocation of resources meant that forces in the Pacific faced outdated equipment and shortages until the United States' industrial capacity could catch up with demand. Additionally, there was little or no infrastructure to transport and store supplies in the Pacific once they arrived in the theater. Finally, the climate of the Pacific region was difficult to manage and caused food supplies to spoil. These conditions led to the Allied policy of Island Hopping across islands that served as landing strips. These locations allowed air-bombardments of Japanese fortifications. The Pacific Theater presented unique challenges for the United States in delivering food, weapons, and medical supplies to troops in the region during World War II.

Headway was made in the Pacific six months after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. The United States won a sea battle against the Japanese Navy that was a turning point in World War II. The Japanese tried to trap and sink America's aircraft carriers near Midway Island, which was an American refueling station for ships and airplanes. The United States had gained intelligence information that the attack was coming and lured the Japanese into the waiting American forces. In the Battle at Midway, the United States destroyed four Japanese aircraft carriers while losing only one American carrier. The American victory at Midway is regarded as the most important naval engagement of the Pacific campaign. The success was also a huge morale boost for the United States. The Japanese never recovered from this defeat, which enabled the United States to gain control of other strategic Pacific Islands.

Eventually, the Island Hopping campaign in the Pacific led President Truman to a critical juncture. President Roosevelt had died in early 1945 and Harry Truman was the new President responsible for making the decisions regarding the conduct of the war. Should the United States use a new atomic weapon or would a military invasion of Japan's mainland be necessary to achieve victory in the Pacific? The development of the atomic weapon had been a tightly held secret and would certainly cause significant damage if used in battle.

The Manhattan Project was a code name for a secret research and development program whose goal was to build an atomic weapon during World War II. European scientists who fled Germany in the early 1930s, including Albert Einstein, feared that German physicists were developing an atomic weapon for Hitler. The scientists urged Roosevelt and Churchill to create a similar program. United States General Leslie Groves led the development of numerous research labs, where three atomic weapons were ultimately created. One of the research labs was the Los Alamos facility in New Mexico.

The Los Alamos facility was the location of the first atomic weapon test. Plans for an Allied invasion of Japan were underway and estimates suggested there could be as many as one million Allied casualties. The successful atomic weapon test led to the creation of two working bombs that were subsequently used against the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in a successful bid to convince the



Explosion of Atomic Bomb at
Nagasaki, Japan – August 1945

Japanese to surrender. The use of the bombs eliminated the need for an invasion of the Japanese mainland- thus saving countless American lives. The military's use of these atomic bombs led to two important developments. First, the surrender of the Japanese government was secured, which ended World War II. Second, the development of the atomic bomb spurred a new, more dangerous arms race between the Soviet Union and the United States.

The creation of government sponsored and financed research-and-development labs became a model for future weapons development programs. These programs were led by military officers and used research scientists to produce technology necessary for national defense. Similar research-and-development models were used by civilian corporations for creating goods that could be used by the government and civilians. The mass production of isotopes led to the development of nuclear medicine and the use of atomic energy for electrical power.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** features a primary document set and teaching guide entitled, "The Atomic Bomb and the Nuclear Age." There are documents, images, video, and lesson plans available for classroom use on the site.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/the-atomic-bomb-and-the-nuclear-age/>

SSUSH19 – Examine the origins, major developments, and the domestic impact of World War II, including the growth of the federal government.

c. Examine the European Theater including difficulties the U.S. faced in delivering weapons, food, and medical supplies to troops, D-Day, and the Fall of Berlin.

In addition to fighting in the Pacific Theater, the United States was also engaged in the European Theater of World War II. The United States was the prime supplier of war material to the Allies. To supply the European allies, it was necessary to cross the Atlantic Ocean. It took between ten and fifteen days for a convoy to cross the Atlantic. Along the way, Allied shipping had to fight German submarines and aircraft. The American ships and their cargo was needed to feed and supply the Allied soldiers and



General Dwight Eisenhower speaking to D-Day troops-
“Full victory – nothing else.”

the British civilian population. Initially, the British Isles served as a supply depot while the Allies built up their forces to invade the continent. After landing troops on the coast of France and Italy, supplies followed the forces inland using the existing road networks. However, the farther the Allied forces moved from the coast, the longer it took to get supplies to the front lines. Gasoline was a particular problem for Allied forces that relied heavily on mobile warfare. In fact, the Allied advance stalled in November 1944 because the armor units ran short of fuel. Lend-leased goods were shipped to the Soviet Union through the German submarine defenses around the Scandinavian Peninsula and around Africa to the Persian Gulf and through Iran.

One of the most significant events in the European Theater of World War II was the Allied invasion of Normandy, France, which is often referred to as D-Day. This victory began the Allied advance to reclaim Europe. D-Day was the code name for the first day of Operation Overlord, the Allied invasion of Nazi-occupied France. It remains the largest seaborne invasion in history, with over 156,000 men crossing the English Channel in 6,939 vessels. When the Allies landed at Normandy, the German troops occupying the heavily fortified French coast were unprepared. They had been tricked by the Allies into thinking that the Allies would attack France in a different location. Although the Allies met heavy resistance, the invasion went almost exactly according to plan. As a result of the operation's success, American and British forces were able to maintain a permanent beachhead in mainland Europe to resupply their forces and push east to Germany. The geographic advantage gained by the invasion marked the beginning of victory for the Allies in Europe.

The Battle of Berlin was one of the final battles of the European Theater during World War II. Two Soviet army groups attacked Berlin from the east and south, while a third attacked German forces north of Berlin. The Soviets lost 81,116 men taking the city, while the Germans lost 458,080 trying to defend it. The battle was one of the bloodiest in history. Adolf Hitler was in Berlin during the battle and

before it ended with Soviet occupation, he and many of his followers committed suicide. The city's defenders surrendered on May 2, 1945, but fighting continued outside the city until the formal German surrender, known as V-E Day, ended the war on May 8, 1945.

Resources:

1. **The National World War II Museum** presents wide-ranging information on the D-Day invasion. There are images, lessons, and background information for teachers to use with the study of D-Day.
<http://www.nationalww2museum.org/learn/education/for-students/research-starters/d-day.html>

SSUSH19 – Examine the origins, major developments, and the domestic impact of World War II, including the growth of the federal government.

d. Investigate the domestic impact of the war including war mobilization, as indicated by rationing, wartime conversion, and the role of women and African Americans or Blacks.

When the United States fully and officially engaged in World War II, the nation went into a total war effort. To orchestrate the conversion of privately owned manufacturing companies to supply the United States' war effort, the Roosevelt administration created the War Production Board. The War Production Board's responsibility was to regulate the production and allocation of materials and fuel. The board stopped the production of non-essential goods, such as automobiles, and imposed a rationing system for gasoline and rubber. Civilian industrial plants soon began producing war goods in great quantities. Plants that produced silk ribbons instead produced parachutes, typewriter plants produced machine guns. Ford, General Motors, and other automobile manufacturers produced great numbers of airplanes, tanks, trucks, and artillery pieces. One of the most remarkable feats was the creation of the Liberty Ship by Kaiser Aluminum. These ships were created in an assembly line fashion such that eventually a single cargo ship could be produced in just 42 days.



Poster from the Office of War Information - 1942

Food rationing began in 1942. Items such as sugar, meat, butter, canned vegetables and fruits all required coupons (also known as rationing stamps). Allotments were based on family size. Families that were able, planted Victory Gardens to supplement their diets. Rationing of gasoline, sugar, and tires led to some black market deals, although most Americans bore the hardships with a good spirit. Consumers knew everyone was in the same position and the goods they gave up were destined for servicemen and women overseas.

At the outbreak of the war, women who already had jobs found that the choices of occupation and the rate of pay suddenly changed for the better. Women served in many different capacities during the course of World War II. Some women served in the military. There were 216,000 women who volunteered for service in the various branches of the Armed Services. In order to meet the demand for labor, the United States government began a campaign to lure women into the workforce. The government created a fictional ideal woman known as "Rosie the Riveter" to appeal to women's patriotism. Women worked in many different areas including munitions, aircraft plants, shipyards, and in more traditional positions as clerks and secretaries. By the war's end, 18 million women had entered the work force.

Black workers, despite receiving training in government approved programs, were denied access to defense jobs. Many employers refused to hire Black workers. They believed that Blacks could not be trained for complex mechanics jobs or for aircraft construction. A. Philip Randolph, a Black labor organizer, had created the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters to fight discrimination in 1925. Randolph and other Black leaders met with President Roosevelt in September 1940. They presented the President with a memorandum urging his administration to take action to desegregate the armed forces and to end discriminatory hiring practices in industries with government contracts. The administration declined the request.

Resources:

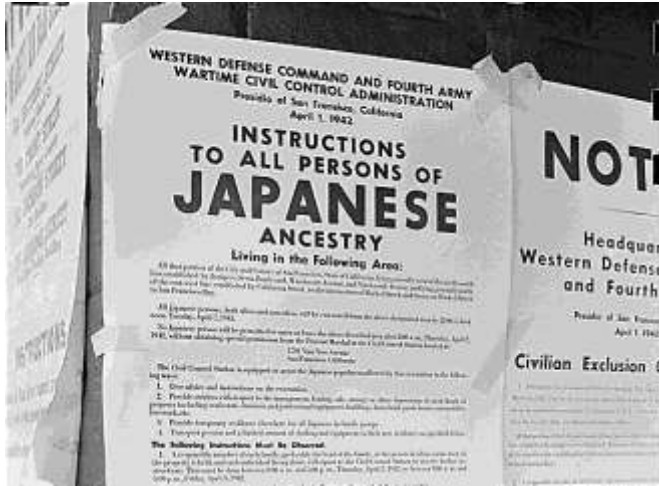
1. **The Digital Public Library** features a document set and teaching guide entitled "World War II: Women on the Homefront." The site includes images, video clips, background information, and a teaching guide.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/world-war-ii-women-on-the-home-front#tabs>

SSUSH19 – Examine the origins, major developments, and the domestic impact of World War II, including the growth of the federal government.

e. Examine Roosevelt's use of executive powers including the integration of defense industries and the internment of Japanese-Americans.

President Roosevelt used Executive Orders during World War II to quickly implement measures that might have stalled in the legislature. Two such areas where he mandated policy outside of the typical legislative process was in integrating the defense industry and the internment of Japanese-Americans after the Pearl Harbor attack.

A. Philip Randolph began the March on Washington movement in January 1941 as a grass-roots movement aimed at forcing the Roosevelt administration to act on discriminatory practices. The media began reporting that 100,000 people were planning to march on Washington in the upcoming July event. Roosevelt feared a race riot might occur in segregated Washington D.C. if the march took place. Roosevelt also worried any violence would give a potential propaganda victory to Adolf Hitler. After meeting with Randolph and the head of the NAACP, Roosevelt issued an executive order prohibiting discrimination on government contracted jobs.



Exclusion Order - April 1942

Another issue that prompted Roosevelt to issue an executive order related to immigrants. The United States worried that its large immigrant population of Italians, Germans, and Japanese would pose a security risk in the event of war with the Axis Powers. In 1939, at the request of President Roosevelt, the Justice Department developed a list of enemy aliens that included potentially dangerous American citizens and former citizens of Germany, Italy, and Japan who might be potential spies or saboteurs. Enemy aliens were required to register with the government in 1940. When the war broke out in 1941, suspects on the Enemy Alien List were arrested.

However, very few were held in jail. Most were later released and required to move away from defense facilities and industrial production centers.

A second group of suspects included Italian-Americans, German-Americans, and Japanese-Americans. There were simply too many Italian-Americans and German-Americans to intern. Many Americans believed that the disaster at Pearl Harbor was the result of collusion between Japanese-Americans living in California and the Japanese military. Therefore, there was more widespread support for the harsh treatment of these immigrants. The west coast was designated a security zone and all potential enemies were to be removed from the region. Eventually 110,000 Japanese-Americans were removed from California, Oregon, and Washington under Executive Order 9066. Whole families were shipped off to the high desert regions of the American west. Many lost their homes, businesses, and farms.

The content in this element lends itself to greater inquiry regarding civil liberties and national security. The events surrounding Japanese Internment can be examined through the lens of the 1917 Supreme Court ruling in *Schenck v. United States*, which upheld the ability of the government to restrict individual rights in an effort to protect national security. While this is not a required activity for this element of SSUSH19, it does help students examine the various social issues related to wartime.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** features a document and teaching guide related to Japanese Internment during World War II. Included on the site are documents, images, and a teaching guide for use in classrooms.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/japanese-american-internment-during-world-war-ii>

SSUSH20 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Truman and Eisenhower administrations.

Following World War II, the United States became a world power. The period was known as the Cold War, which was a struggle for political supremacy between the western democratic nations (mainly the United States) and the communist Soviet Union. Presidents Truman and Eisenhower established international and domestic policies that departed from the traditional isolationist worldview and segregated national perspectives. The technological advances that emerged during the Cold War era further escalated the competition between the United States and the Soviet Union as the space race and nuclear weapon development programs worked feverishly to better the opponent.

Truman and Eisenhower led the nation at the beginning of the Cold War. The Cold War began when the United States and the other Allies divided Germany into four occupation zones following World War II. Rivalries for influence over the German territories led to disagreements during the occupation of Germany by the French, British, Russians, and Americans. Over four decades, competition between the United States and the Soviet Union involved many other countries aligning with one of the two superpowers.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of post-war politics and the Cold War. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.

Historical Era #10- 1945 to the Present

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/1945-present>

SSUSH20 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Truman and Eisenhower administrations.

- a. Analyze the international policies and actions developed as a response to the Cold War including containment, the Marshall Plan, the Truman Doctrine, and the Korean War.

The Soviet Union controlled the eastern half of Europe after World War II and, despite promises, showed no desire to allow free elections in the area that they controlled. In fact, the Soviets had not withdrawn their military forces back to their own frontiers. These implicit threats of force by the Soviet Union led to a state of tension between the United States and the Soviet Union that became known as the Cold War, which lasted from 1945 through 1991.

The Cold War ushered in a new approach to foreign affairs by the United States. Until the Truman administration, the nation had followed the precedent and recommendation of George Washington to not get involved in entangling alliances. U.S. involvement in wars had, for the most part, been a reluctant last resort. The United States did not take a leadership role in foreign affairs until after

World War II. President Truman recognized America's new responsibility to use its vast resources to combat the spread of communism, which would in turn provide greater security for the United States.

Europe was in ruins following World War II. Millions of homes had been destroyed. Factories lay bare to the sky and bombs or fire had destroyed machinery. Rail and road networks were blocked by destroyed bridges and viaducts. The specter of famine stalked much of Europe because of shortages of labor, seed, and farm machinery. The traditional European powers were physically, financially, and emotionally unable to reconstruct the continent.

The Truman Doctrine was a new United States foreign policy approach. It was an expression of the United States' belief that communism would infiltrate those areas of Europe that were left weakened by the effects of World War II. In 1946, a civil war broke out in Greece between the democratically elected government and a communist-backed insurgent movement. The British government, that had traditionally supported and protected the Greeks, informed the United States that they were no longer able to assist the Greeks in resisting the communist attempt to take over the nation. Truman then issued a warning to the Soviets that the United States was prepared to use any means necessary to contain communism. Funds were promised to Greece and Turkey to assist in resisting communist take-overs.

Truman's policy of **containment** became the United State's key foreign policy approach until the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991. While the policy was at first applied to Europe, it was later extended to the Middle East, Asia, Latin America, and Africa. By pledging to protect the world from communist expansionism, the United States in effect became the world's protector from aggression. As a part of the Truman Doctrine, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was created to provide for the mutual defense of Western Europe amid fears of the newly atomic armed USSR. NATO-like treaties were also created with Asia and Pacific nations. This meant an expansion of America's military, economic, and diplomatic presence to all areas of the world.

Truman's Secretary of State, George C. Marshall, proposed a European Recovery Program (later known as the Marshall Plan) to combat the negative economic impacts of World War II in Europe. The



Marshall Plan Aid to Europe

plan had two major aims. First, the **Marshall Plan** aimed to prevent the spread of communism in Western Europe. The second aim was to stabilize the international political order in a way that was favorable for the development of political democracy and free-market economies. Over the Marshall Plan's four-year existence, Congress appropriated \$13.3 billion for European recovery. The money aided 22 European nations in their economic recovery by providing much needed capital and assisted American businesses by opening up European markets to American goods. The Eastern European nations were prevented from receiving Marshall Plan money from the United States because they were satellite states of the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union did not want American financial influence threatening their control over Eastern Europe. The Marshall Plan's

relatively small injection of capital helped to stabilize European politics and enable Western European nations to resist communist infiltration.

The Truman Doctrine of containment was a success in Western Europe, but was not as effective when applied to Asia in the late 1940s. China was embroiled in an on-again, off-again civil war. The war was between the U.S.-backed Nationalist forces and the Soviet-backed Communist forces. Chiang Kai-shek led the Nationalists and Mao Zedong led the Communists in China. In 1949, the Chinese civil war ended in a communist victory. The United States' support of the Nationalists earned the enmity of the Chinese communists, who then controlled the country. The creation of a communist state in Asia also altered the balance of power in the region. U.S. strategists believed that the communist Chinese and the Soviet Union would form a single monolithic communist state, which would threaten the remaining democratic states in Asia.

After World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union agreed to administer the formerly Japanese ruled Korean peninsula under a joint-trusteeship. However, the leaders of the two dominant Korean political parties, the right-wing (U.S. backed) party led by Syngman Rhee and the left-wing (Soviet backed) party led by Kim Il-sung, objected to the trusteeship. Each leader quickly organized his own country with the objective of re-unifying Korea under the image of either democracy or communism. When the United States publically announced that South Korea was not in the defensive sphere of the United States, Kim Il-sung (with Soviet blessing) launched a war to re-unify South and North Korea in June of 1950.

The fear of a total communist takeover of Asia seemed to be confirmed when North Korea invaded democratic South Korea to begin the **Korean War**. President Truman and the United Nations extended the policy of containment to Korea. They launched a defense of South Korea. After three years of fighting, the United States and the United Nations forces stabilized the Korean frontier along the 38th Parallel (the original border before the fighting started). No peace treaty has been signed and the armistice is still in place. Hostilities between the two states continue today.

The Cold War brought a new approach to foreign policy. Instead of isolating itself, the United States began to take the lead in containing the spread of communism. The Truman Doctrine became the framework for America's role in international affairs for decades after World War II.

Resources:

1. **The Truman Library** offers a lesson plan that compares the Truman Doctrine with the Monroe Doctrine and the Eisenhower Doctrine. This is a good activity for students to develop a deeper understanding of the various approaches to foreign policy.

<https://www.trumanlibrary.gov/education/lesson-plans/harry-truman-and-truman-doctrine>

SSUSH20 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Truman and Eisenhower administrations.

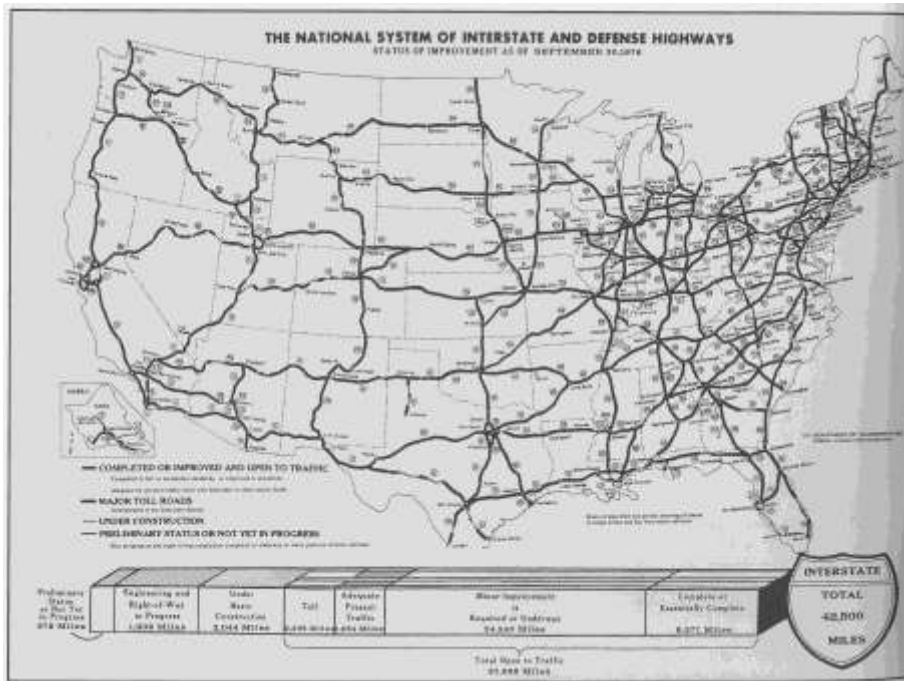
b. Connect major domestic issues to their social effects including the G.I. Bill, Truman's integration policies, McCarthyism, the National Interstate and Defense Highways Act, and *Brown v. Board of Education*.

Once World War II ended and the Cold War period began, the United States also had domestic issues that needed to be addressed. The containment policy to stop the spread of communism was taken to the extreme within the United States. The nation also needed to address the needs of soldiers returning home and re-entering the workforce. How could the country ensure that widespread unemployment did not cripple the nation once the war production demands of World War II were no longer driving manufacturing? Segregation was another domestic issue that did not fit with the post-

war emphasis on preserving freedoms for people around the world. These key issues had significant effects on social change in the United States following World War II.

The **G.I. Bill of Rights** was passed by Congress to protect and reward returning servicemen. The provisions included giving low interest loans for homes and starting new businesses to former soldiers. Financial grants were also given to the returning soldiers who wanted to attend college. The stimulus of money into housing caused a housing boom characterized by the development of the first suburban housing developments, such as Levittown, New York. The financial investment in returning soldiers stemmed a potential post-war unemployment crisis. Instead, consumer spending expanded as new furniture, appliances, and other household goods were needed. Increased consumer demand became the driving force in the post-war economy and the G.I. Bill helped to foster the surge.

President Eisenhower also wanted to further secure the United States from any future attacks. A prime example of how this domestic issue had a social effect was the government-sponsored creation of infrastructure through the **National Interstate and Defense Highways Act**, which was passed in 1956. The original purpose of the Act, as envisioned by President Eisenhower, was to create a system of highways for strategic transportation of troops and supplies. As the United States' population grew, the old two lane system of roads connecting communities was proving inadequate. New, wider, more direct routes built across the United States served to link population centers across the nation. As a result, the Interstate Highway Act not only shored up the nation's ability to move military defenses more efficiently, but it also forever changed population patterns and allowed for the growth of suburbia.



Interstate Highway System - Status of Completion as of 1976

The fear of communism's infiltration of the United States was another domestic issue that had a significant effect on post-war society. Senator Joseph McCarthy, a Republican from Wisconsin, was looking for an issue to focus on in his re-election campaign. He embraced the post-World War II fear of communism. McCarthy accused the Truman administration of being "soft on communism" and of losing China to the communists. McCarthy further claimed that communist sympathizers had infiltrated the United States' Department of State. He went on to claim that these traitors were shaping U.S. foreign policy to favor the Soviet Union. Subsequent Senate hearings did not prove McCarthy's charges. In

1953, after Republican Dwight Eisenhower took office, McCarthy launched a wide-ranging series of investigations as the Chairman of the Internal Security Committee. Between April and June 1954, the McCarthy hearings were broadcast to a national audience, which the Senator hoped would propel his national political career. Instead, the hearings destroyed his career. McCarthy made accusations of disloyalty, subversion, and treason without proper regard for evidence. He belittled witnesses and constantly interrupted them to make points of order. "**McCarthyism**" became a derogatory term for baseless accusations that was popularized by the Senator's overbearing performance.

Another important domestic issue that had a tremendous social impact in the late 1940s and 1950s was segregation. In July 1948, President Harry **Truman signed an executive order ending the segregation of the armed forces**. Prior to that time period, Black and White soldiers served in separate units. Integration of the Black units with White units did not fully take place until the Korean War in the 1950s. In general, there were three reasons why integration took place. First, there was a growing recognition that segregation undercut the United States' moral stature during the Cold War. Second, there was a need to reduce racial tension within the military. And third, there were significant manpower needs produced by the Korean War. Later studies commissioned by the military found that both Blacks and Whites benefitted from integration. Significantly, integration helped to break down stereotypes so that, as the Civil Rights Movement intensified in the mid-1950s, there was a broad spectrum of Americans who had developed relationships with other races.

The integration of federally contracted jobs and the federal civil service was an evolutionary process. First, in response to pressure from A. Philip Randolph, President Roosevelt issued an executive order in 1941 ending discrimination on jobs that were federally contracted. This measure opened minority employment in defense plants. Next, President Truman banned racial discrimination in the hiring of federal employees and ended segregation in the armed forces in 1948. President Eisenhower issued an executive order that required enforcement of non-discrimination in federal jobs. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 finally barred discrimination in any job and reinforced powers of the Civil Rights Commission to enforce non-discrimination laws.

The evolution of integration was boosted by the ***Brown v. Board of Education*** decision. The Supreme Court had ruled in the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision that "separate but equal" was the law of the land concerning segregation. In practice this meant that many states had created two systems of public accommodations - one White only, one Black only. In 1951, a Topeka, Kansas parent challenged segregation by suing his local school board. His daughter had to attend the Black elementary school that required her to walk a mile, even though the closest elementary school (White only) was only seven blocks away. The NAACP took on the case but lost on the *Plessy* precedent. The case was appealed to the Supreme Court. In 1954, the Supreme Court unanimously ruled, "...in the field of public education, the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal."

The Supreme Court ordered that public education be de-segregated, but no timeline was issued and school systems were slow to comply. In response to the *Brown* decision, Southern states organized the "Massive Resistance" movement, which shut down state education systems rather than integrate the schools. A notable example of this type of action occurred in Little Rock, Arkansas in 1957 when Governor Orval Faubus attempted to use the National Guard to block integration of Central High School. President Eisenhower responded by federalizing the Guard and moving units of the 101st Airborne into Little Rock to enforce the law. Faubus countered by closing Little Rock's schools for a year.

Resources:

1. **The Smithsonian National Museum of American History** offers a compilation of lesson plans related to teaching about the *Brown v. Board of Education* case. Primary documents and photographs are key components of the lessons.

<http://americanhistory.si.edu/brown/resources/teachers-guide.html>

SSUSH20 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Truman and Eisenhower administrations.

c. Examine the influence of Sputnik on U.S. technological innovations and education.

On October 4, 1957, the Soviet Union launched the first man-made earth satellite - **Sputnik I**. Sputnik I was not an unexpected development. United States intelligence had photographed the launch site using spy planes. However, the public and political outcry in America regarding the Soviet success over the United States led to several developments including the following:

1. dramatic increase in funding for **science and math education**
2. creation of a national space program - National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)
3. inspired a generation of engineers and scientists to develop new technology, which in turn led to the eventual development of the Internet
4. contributed to the perception of a "missile gap" between the United States and the Soviet Union. The fear was that the Soviets could use sudden (perceived) superiority in missile technology to launch an attack on the U.S. and its allies.
5. Although he did not create the Cold War, President Eisenhower devised policies to counter the perceived Soviet military threat. His "domino theory" led to American intervention in Vietnam. His "massive retaliation" stance proclaimed that the United States would answer any military attack with all out military and atomic capacity.

Resources:

1. **NASA** has compiled links to various resources pertaining to Sputnik and the technological outcomes it fostered. There are good resources on the Sputnik 60th Anniversary page.

<https://www.nasa.gov/specials/60th/sputnik/>

SSUSH21 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations.

The 1960s ushered in a time period of escalating international and domestic tensions. The Cold War was becoming more complex as the United States worked to contain Communism around the world, including highly charged incidents in the Caribbean and Southeast Asia. Simultaneously, the United States was faced with internal racial strife. Both the Kennedy and Johnson administrations implemented foreign and domestic policies that had significant influences on the events of the 1960s including war, technology, and social change.

Resources:

2. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included as part of this Historical Era devoted to the study of post-war politics and the Cold War. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information to help teachers better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.

Historical Era #10- 1945 to the Present

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/1945-present>

SSUSH21 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations.

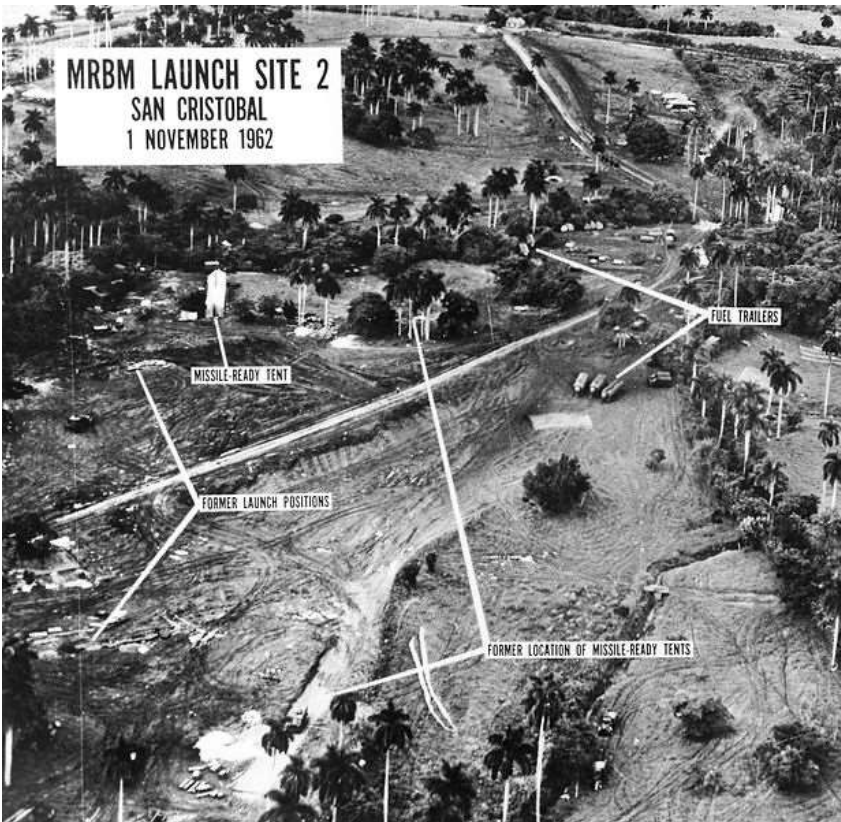
- a. Analyze the international policies and actions taken as a response to the Cold War including U.S. involvement in Cuba and the escalation of the war in Vietnam as a result of the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution.

The United States continued to be guided in its approach to foreign affairs by the Truman Doctrine, which emphasized the importance of containing communism. The 1960s was a time when the Cold War escalated to what could have potentially become direct military action between the United States and the Soviet Union. Both nations were equipped with massive nuclear capability that threatened the safety of the entire world. The period was tense, dangerous, and became internally divisive as Americans disagreed with each other about the merits of military involvement in distant locations.

Cuba was a major exporter of sugar to the United States and received special incentives from the U.S. government. Cuba, being a Caribbean island just 90 miles off the coast of Florida, was also a major tourist destination for Americans. In 1952, General Fulgencio Batista overthrew the elected government of Cuba and established a military dictatorship. He allied himself with leading multi-national businesses and mafia controlled hotels, casinos, and brothels. Batista exacted huge bribes for allowing these businesses to continue as usual in Cuba. In 1953, the 26th of July Movement led by Fidel and Raul Castro attempted to overthrow the Batista government. The movement's stated goal was to restore democracy in Cuba. The coup attempt failed. In 1955, the Castro brothers were exiled from Cuba. In 1956, the brothers returned with a group of guerilla soldiers. After a couple of years of intense fighting, they were able to overthrow the Batista government in 1958. Upon gaining control of Cuba,

Fidel Castro named himself president for life. Castro's plans to nationalize foreign businesses and land reform policies alienated American businessmen and Cuba's wealthy citizens. The United States responded by applying economic sanctions against Cuba.

The United States began planning for the overthrow of Fidel Castro after realizing that Cuba's new leader had become a Communist. Unwilling to be seen as directly involved in the overthrow of a populist government such as Castro's, the United States used the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) to train and carry out a coup against the Castro government. The plan was to land along the Bay of Pigs and use U.S. supplied aircraft to support the landing. On April 5, 1961, Cuban exiles landed but were crushed by the Cuban Army and Air Force. The newly elected Kennedy administration refused to use U.S. air support to cover the invasion forces. Captured exiles revealed the U.S. backing and Castro went to the Soviet Union for military and economic support. The Soviet Union saw Castro's gesture as a way to expand the Cold War into the western hemisphere and to throw U.S. strategic planners off their game.



US Military Reconnaissance Image of Missile Sites in San Cristobal, Cuba (November 1962)

The relationship between the United States and Cuba was further strained in 1962, when Castro allowed the installation of medium-range nuclear missiles on Cuba. The Soviet government was worried that U.S. nuclear weapons held a tactical and strategic edge over their own stockpile. The Soviet government decided to place nuclear missiles on Cuba in order to shorten the time that Soviet missiles would have to reach targets in the U.S. These missiles would have placed most of the United States, Canada, and Latin America within the range of attack. Castro saw the placement of Soviet missile batteries and their supporting troops as a way of preventing future

interference in Cuban affairs by the United States.

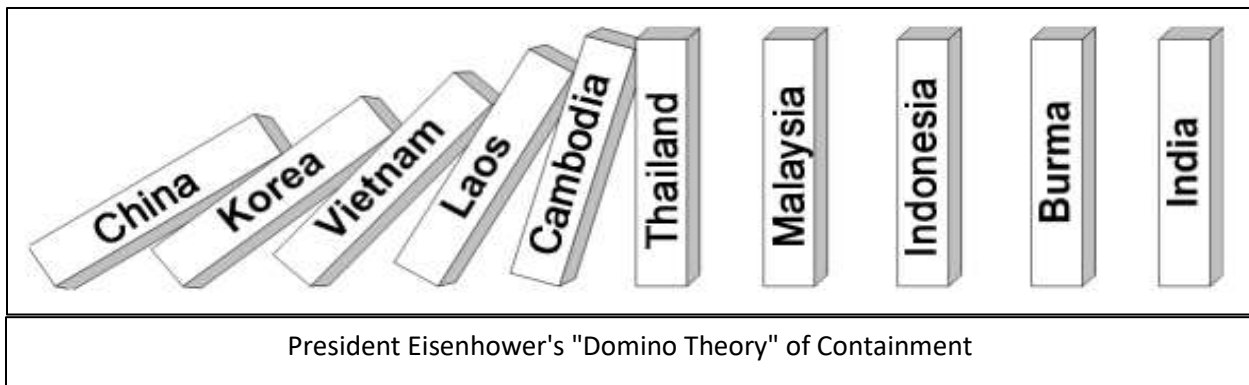
When the missiles were discovered, the Kennedy administration ordered a naval blockade on Cuba rather than a direct military strike on the missiles. The President feared that such an attack would escalate into an all-out war with the Soviets. As nuclear warheads made their way to Cuba on Soviet ships, the Soviet Union agreed to withdraw its missiles from Cuba if the United States would secretly withdraw its missiles from Turkey and pledge not to invade Cuba. Both sides agreed and the crisis was

concluded after 13-days of uncertainty. Kennedy emerged from the crisis with renewed public confidence after the missteps of the Bay of Pigs had hurt his approval ratings the year before.

Another dramatic escalation in Cold War tension emerged in Southeast Asia. **Vietnam** became the site of a long struggle between communist and non-communist forces, each aided by their respective ideological superpower. Vietnam had been a colony of France during the late 19th century. The Japanese seized the region during World War II. In response to the takeover, the Vietnamese people organized a resistance movement, known as the Vietminh. They warred against both the Japanese and French. The organization was dominated by the communist party and led by Ho Chi Minh.

When World War II ended, the French assumed they would regain control of the region. The Vietminh resisted the takeover and defeated the French in 1954. The United Nations attempted to broker the creation of new nations in what had been French Indochina. The nations of Cambodia and Laos were created. However, the people of southern Vietnam did not want to be ruled from Hanoi in the north and did not wish to be communist. The United Nations divided the nation at the 17th parallel and planned for an election that was to be held two years later to decide the unification of north and south. The South Vietnamese government rejected an all-Vietnam election because a communist-backed guerilla movement, the Vietcong, had begun a terror campaign in the south. The Vietcong targeted village chiefs, schoolteachers, and government officials.

South Vietnam requested and received U.S. military support in the form of training for its armed forces. The United States believed a communist takeover of South Vietnam would lead to further expansion of communism in Asia. President Eisenhower invoked the image of a row of falling dominoes, thereby creating the Domino Theory. In keeping with the U.S. policy of containment, the United States began its involvement in Southeast Asia. The United States increased aid, but remained largely in an advisory role under President John Kennedy. But, the United States assisted in a 1963 coup against the perceived weak South Vietnamese government. In the ensuing chaos that followed the coup, communist forces were able to strengthen their hold over South Vietnam.

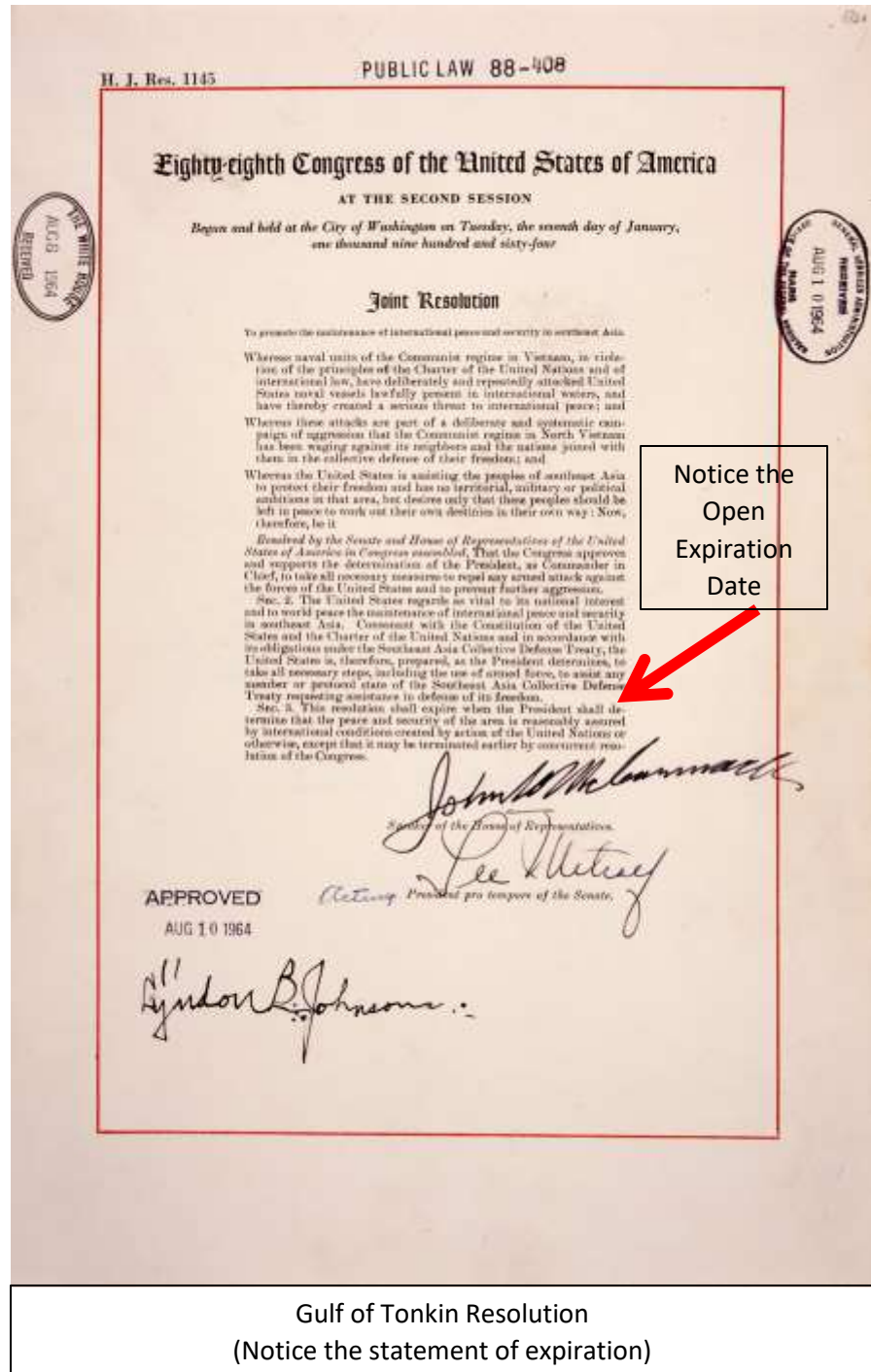


United States naval units in the Gulf of Tonkin supported the South Vietnamese Marine and Naval units as they staged a series of raids into North Vietnam. On August 2, 1964, North Vietnamese naval vessels were accused of attacking the United States Navy destroyers *Maddox* and *Turner Joy*. President Johnson responded by ordering an air attack on North Vietnamese naval bases. Prior to the U.S. attack, Johnson requested and received Congress's approval.

Congress issued the **Gulf of Tonkin Resolution**, which gave the President authorization to conduct military operations in Southeast Asia without a formal declaration of war. Meanwhile, the Vietcong intensified their effort and decisively defeated larger South Vietnamese forces twice in 1964-1965. President Johnson made a marked change in U.S. policy by placing ground troops into combat in South Vietnam. The United States sent troops to Vietnam to protect its bases. This increase in troop strength gradually grew to more than 500,000 men by 1968. The growth of U.S. military influence in the region led the communist strongholds of the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China to give North Vietnam military aid.

The United States took action in both Cuba and Vietnam to contain communism. The situation in Cuba could have easily escalated to direct conflict between the Soviet Union and the United States but

was averted when the Soviets backed down. The world was on the brink of yet another war, but the issue was resolved at the last minute. In Vietnam, the United States was gradually increasing its



Gulf of Tonkin Resolution
(Notice the statement of expiration)

involvement in the region to contain communism. What began as military aid to the South Vietnamese, gave way to military training and eventually American forces engaged in combat with the communist fighters in the region. Both presidents Kennedy and Johnson made their foreign policy decisions based on what they believed would be important for protecting the United States and stopping the spread of communism.

Resources:

1. **The Choices Program of Brown University** offers a lesson that analyzes leadership in the Cuban Missile Crisis. Primary documents are used for students to assess the handling of the situation.
<https://www.choices.edu/teaching-news-lesson/brink-nuclear-war-leadership-cuban-missile-crisis/>
2. **The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG)** offers a lesson on the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution. It relies on primary documents for students to assess the actions taken by the United States in escalating the military operation in Vietnam. The Stanford History Education Group requires teachers to obtain a free login to gain full access to the materials.
<https://sheg.stanford.edu/gulf-tonkin-resolution>

SSUSH21 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations.

b. Connect major domestic issues to their social effects including the passage of civil rights legislation and Johnson’s Great Society, following the assassination of John F. Kennedy.

Race relations and poverty in the United States were major issues in the 1960s. The Civil Rights Movement was gaining momentum in an effort to speed up integration, as ruled on by the Supreme Court in the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* case. President John Kennedy supported Civil Rights



President Kennedy in Dallas
Moments Before Assassination

legislation but it was being blocked in the Congress by Southern opposition. As a Democrat, Kennedy even faced opposition by many of his own Southern party members. Kennedy's assassination in 1963 had a significant effect on his domestic policy agenda, which became the responsibility of the new president Lyndon Johnson.

President John F. Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas on November 22, 1963. Kennedy was in Dallas for a political rally, as he was running for re-election the following year. The Kennedy-Johnson ticket needed to shore up the Democratic support that was waning in Texas. The **assassination** took place as Kennedy and his wife, Jacqueline, were riding in a convertible limousine waving to the spectators who lined the streets in

Dallas. Lee Harvey Oswald was the lone assassin who shot and killed the president along the motorcade route. Vice President Lyndon Johnson was from Texas and was in Dallas at the time of the shooting. He was sworn in as the new President aboard Air Force One, as it flew back to Washington D.C. carrying Kennedy's body.

Kennedy's death had a profound impact on the nation. The assassination gave the new President, Lyndon Johnson, the political capital to force his domestic legislative package through Congress. The Civil Rights legislation that Kennedy supported but had not been able to get passed in the Congress was pushed through in 1964. Johnson depicted passage of the proposed Civil Rights law as being one of the best ways to honor the dead president's legacy. Congress responded to the call to action and passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which outlawed segregation in American schools and other public places. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 was also passed, which launched President Johnson's War on Poverty.

The **Civil Rights Act of 1964** outlawed major forms of discrimination against Blacks and women. The law ended unequal application of voter registration requirements and the racial segregation of schools, places of work, and facilities that served the general public ("public accommodations"). The Supreme Court upheld the law when it was tested in the courts. Later, the law's provisions were extended to include private work facilities and wage discrimination against women.



The **Voting Rights Act of 1965** was passed the year after Congress moved on the issue of Civil Rights. This federal law made it illegal for Black voters to be disenfranchised through unfair voter registration criteria. It ended the practice of using literacy tests as a qualification to vote and mandated federal oversight of elections in the Southern states.

President Johnson launched his Great Society program as a way of attacking the endemic problem of poverty in the United States. He believed that the United States' post-World War II prosperity could be harnessed to solve key quality of life issues. Johnson's Great Society programs involved the following:

President Johnson Meets Martin Luther King, Jr.
at the Signing of the Voting Rights Act of 1965

1. War on Poverty - forty programs intended to eliminate poverty by improving living conditions and enabling people to end the cycle of poverty.
2. Education - sixty separate bills provided for new and better-equipped classrooms, minority scholarships, and low-interest student loans.
3. Medicare- guaranteed health care to every American over 65 years of age.
4. Medicaid - provided health care assistance to the poor.
5. Environment- introduced measures to reclaim clean air and drinking water.

6. National Endowment for the Arts and the Humanities - created with the philosophy that artists, performers, and writers were a priceless part of the United States identity and deserved support.
7. Job Corps - provided job training for young men and women.
8. Head Start - program for four and five year olds from disadvantaged families that gave them a chance to start school on an even basis with other children.

Resources:

1. **The National Archives Teaching With Documents** collection features the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The site includes comprehensive background essays, documents, lesson activities, standard correlations, and worksheets for document analysis.
<https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/civil-rights-act>

SSUSH21 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations.

c. Describe the impact of television on American culture including the presidential debates (Kennedy/Nixon, 1960), news coverage of the Civil Rights Movement, the moon landing, and the war in Vietnam.

Although television predates World War II, it was not commercially feasible until after the production demands of the war subsided. Prior to World War II, radio and print were the dominant media by which news, entertainment, and marketing was delivered. By the late 1950s, **television** had replaced radio. The growth of television was dramatic. From 1939 to 1941, only an estimated 7,000 television sets had been purchased. By 1959, the number of television sets had grown to 67 million. Television had the same effect that radio had on the previous generation. Many Americans watched the same entertainment and news programming regardless of their location, which created a common national culture. Television news coverage impacted political and social events. Four events illustrate how television impacted modern American politics and social culture in the 1960s. The television coverage of the **Presidential debate** between candidates Kennedy and Nixon in 1960, the events of the Civil Rights Movement, reporting from the combat zones of Vietnam, and the moon landing were transformative.

Prior to 1960, Presidential campaigns were limited by time and distance. Candidates tended to go from campaign stop to campaign stop by rail or air. Mass audiences were reached via radio. In the 1960 Presidential campaign between the Republican Richard Nixon and the Democrat John F. Kennedy, four nationally televised debates were held. While the substance of both campaigns was very similar, the candidates were not. Physically, the men were very different. Kennedy was tanned, clean-cut, and physically fit. Nixon was not particularly handsome, prone to excessive sweating, had a perpetual five o'clock shadow, and looked weak after a recent illness. The first debate was broadcast on September 26, 1960. Television accentuated every bit of each candidate's physicality. According to ratings and polls, 74 million viewers watched and most deemed Kennedy to have been the debate's winner. Overnight, the Kennedy campaign picked up momentum as his appearance came across far more favorably than Nixon's. In contrast, voters who had listened to the debate over the radio reported that they felt Nixon had come across as the more experienced and knowledgeable of the two candidates. Television proved that image matters.

The events of the **Civil Rights Movement** were also captured on video for people to see for themselves on television. Nightly news programs provided a regular reminder of the on-going struggle for civil rights in the South. Civil rights leaders used media coverage to illuminate their issues. News footage of attack dogs biting demonstrators or fire hoses blasting children made for dramatic images and caused many viewers to question the equity of segregation laws. One of the most dramatic events broadcast was the Alabama State Patrol's attack of the Selma Marchers, which was shown right before a television drama on the Nuremberg War Crimes Trial. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s "I Have a Dream" speech was broadcast live to a nation-wide audience in 1963, bringing more awareness to the social issue of segregation that had yet to be resolved.

Americans were also fascinated by the ingenuity of the space program, which was soon able to send a **man to the moon**. The lunar module carrying Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin landed on the moon July 20, 1969. The television broadcast showed the astronauts planting an American flag on the moon. The space race between the United States and the Soviet Union was symbolically complete with the planting of the American flag in space. The space race was yet another area where television had an impact on the public.

Television news reporters were also imbedded with troops in **Vietnam**. They broadcast nightly from combat zones and involved Americans in what became known as the first "living room war." People were watching the events unfold in Vietnam and also watching the protest movements in the United States on television. It was difficult for the government to convince Americans that victory in the war was eminent when they were seeing otherwise on the nightly news. Television proved it could sway public opinion through the images of the Civil Rights Movement and the Vietnam War.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** offers a Document Set and Teaching Guide entitled "The Impact of Television on News Media." Documents include print images, audio recordings, and video to help students grasp the impact of television of significant news issues.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/the-impact-of-television-on-news-media>

SSUSH21 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations.

d. Investigate the growth, influence, and tactics of civil rights groups, Martin Luther King, Jr., the Letter from Birmingham Jail, the I Have a Dream Speech, and Cesar Chavez.

The 1960s was a decade of great social change. The Civil Rights Movement became more influential and was mainly focused on advocating for rights that had long been denied to Blacks. There were other groups that formed during the same time period that focused on Latino rights. The tactics used by the various movements were intended to draw attention to their cause and peacefully demonstrate to spread the message of equal rights.

There were various **Civil Rights organizations** that were born in the 1960s and gained notoriety for their success. The Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) grew out of the 1955 Montgomery Bus Boycott. After achieving success and forcing an end to discriminatory practices in Montgomery, other groups followed the same methodology to end segregation on municipal bus lines.



Martin Luther King, Jr. in front of SCLC Headquarters in Atlanta

In order to better coordinate actions, a meeting was held in Atlanta in January 1957 to form what became the SCLC. The group, led by Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., had as its goal to carry out non-violent crusades against the evils of second-class citizenship.

SCLC members tended to be from large urban areas, where there was a strong, wealthy Black middle class. The growing reputation of Dr. King helped to draw a large number of northern elites to the Civil Rights cause. The SCLC used several different tactics to fight segregation. They filed class-action lawsuits against state and local governments for failing to end segregation and used non-violent civil disobedience actions such as sit-ins, kneel-ins, and wade-ins. They also sponsored boycotts, mass rallies, and marches. Another important component of the SCLC agenda was to affect change in local politics by helping Blacks register to vote.

Another group that had a great impact on the Civil Rights Movement was the Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). SNCC (pronounced SNICK) grew out of an impromptu sit-in protest in Greensboro, North Carolina. A group of Black students worked to integrate lunch counters by staging sit-ins in which they seated themselves in the White-only dining sections. SNCC sought to create an organized movement composed primarily of students who would systematically challenge the legality of segregationist laws in the South. Members of the student group organized sit-ins across the South. They also arranged the Freedom Rides in 1961 to test the new federal laws that outlawed discrimination on interstate bus lines. SNCC was also heavily involved in organizing both the March on Washington in 1963 and the 1964 "Freedom Summer," which was a voter registration drive in Mississippi and Alabama. After the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965, SNCC began protesting the Vietnam War. In 1964, the organization split after some members began to push the Black Power Movement and question the effectiveness of non-violence. SNCC dropped "non-violence" from its name and became known as the Student National Coordinating Committee. The organization lost most of its influence by 1970.

Martin Luther King, Jr. grew to be a very influential leader of the Civil Rights Movement. He was a minister at the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery and emerged as a leader through organizing the bus boycotts. Over the course of the growing Civil Rights Movement and the founding of the SCLC, Martin Luther King set the tone and example for non-violent protest. In April 1963, Dr. King led sit-ins to protest the segregation of Birmingham, Alabama. The police arrested him for violating a city ordinance that banned sit-ins. While in jail, King read an appeal by a number of Alabama clergy urging him to end the protest and to allow time to take its course in ending segregation in the state. King's response to the clergy ultimately became a key document in the Civil Rights Movement. King's **letter from the Birmingham jail** was a defense of the non-violent methods being used to attack racism. King also criticized the clergy for urging patience in light of continued violence by stating, "For years now I have heard the world 'Wait!' It rings in the ear of every Negro with piercing familiarity. This 'Wait' has almost always meant 'Never.' We must come to see, with one of our distinguished jurists, that 'justice too long delayed is justice denied.'"

One of the most famous statements by Martin Luther King, Jr. was his speech given in 1963 at the March on Washington. In the summer of 1963, the leaders of the Civil Rights Movement decided to replicate A. Philip Randolph's planned 1941 March on Washington. The 1941 March had been called off after Roosevelt granted concessions in federal hiring of Blacks. This time, various civil rights organizations were marching in support of Kennedy's proposed civil rights legislation that was being debated in Congress. The March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom was held on August 28, 1963. It was the largest demonstration for civil rights in U.S. history. Various civil rights organizations and their leaders spoke before the Lincoln Memorial, including Martin Luther King, Jr. King's seventeen-minute speech, *I Have a Dream*, was in part written remarks, but at the end of the speech, King expanded his remarks. It was these extemporaneous remarks that have become perhaps one of the most famous pieces of American oratory in U.S. history. The speech called forth an ideal in which racism and bigotry would end and all races could live in harmony with one another. The 1963 March and speech helped to garner support for Kennedy's civil rights proposals.

The 1960s was also a time of greater organization to protest against Latino discrimination. The United Farm Workers (UFW) organized farm laborers in California. The UFW represented a largely Hispanic group in pressing for higher wages and better work conditions. It sought to gain concessions by using the non-violent tactics of the Civil Rights Movement. One of the primary leaders of the UFW was **Cesar Chavez**. He was the son of a poor, Mexican-American agricultural laborer. Determined to better the lives of his family and other Hispanic workers, Chavez began work as a community organizer. Chavez founded the first agricultural labor union in California, the National Farm Worker's Association. Chavez's primary tactic was to politically organize a community in order to influence elections. He later helped to create the UFW, which was based around local California farm communities. The first notable success for the UFW was the Delano Table Grape strike, which forced grape growers to end discriminatory contracts. The UFW used consumer boycotts as a way of forcing producers to accede to workers' demands. Chavez also used water-only fasts as a weapon to obtain fair contracts for lettuce, vegetable, and fruit pickers and other agricultural workers.

All of the Civil Rights Movement organizations grew from the publicity they received for their non-violent protests. The SCLC and SNCC organizations focused on ending segregation. Martin Luther King, Jr. emerged as a leader in the non-violent form of protest. Other minority groups, such as the UFW, borrowed the tactics of the Civil Rights Movement in their own protests.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Library of Georgia** offers a Civil Rights Digital Library. There are vast resources compiled in this portal pertaining to the Civil Rights Movement. Included is a section devoted to teacher resources.
<http://crdl.usg.edu>

SSUSH21 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations.

e. Describe the social and political turmoil of 1968 including the reactions to assassinations of Martin Luther King, Jr., and Robert F. Kennedy, the Tet Offensive, and the presidential election.

The cultural and political landscape of the 1960s seemed to come to a head in **1968**. In addition to continued protests over the Vietnam War, there were assassinations that changed the political and social landscape, and a presidential election that was thrown into chaos.

The year 1968 began with the **Tet Offensive** in the Vietnam War. United States forces were unable to totally destroy communist forces in South Vietnam and communist forces lacked the ability to



drive out the Americans. However, the United States commander, General William Westmoreland, was under the impression that the communist forces were on the verge of collapse as his publication of enemy body counts indicated. He urged Congress to authorize an additional 200,000 men to finish off the North Vietnamese Army and Vietcong once and for all.

The communist forces were not on the verge of defeat. They had instead withdrawn to their sanctuaries in Cambodia and Laos to rebuild and train. The North Vietnamese forces staged a massive offensive into the south in order to shatter the morale of the United States' and South Vietnamese units. The Tet Offensive, as it was called, occurred during the traditional lunar New Year festival. One hundred South Vietnamese cities were attacked simultaneously. Although initially caught off guard, the ARVN (Army of the Republic of Vietnam) forces and U.S. forces rallied to counter-attack and inflict severe casualties on the Vietcong. Televised scenes of heavy street fighting in Saigon and Hue played out against Westmoreland's earlier report that the North Vietnamese Army and Vietcong were finished as a fighting force. The January Tet Offensive started 1968 in turmoil. The war, which the United States government said was nearing victory, was not close to ending as evidenced by the extreme force

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Americans Watched Footage of the Tet Offensive in 1968. The credibility gap grew between what television reporting showed and the government's optimism that victory was near.

The presidential election of 1968 was thrown into chaos with President Johnson's surprise March 31st announcement that he would not seek nor accept the Democratic Party's

nomination for a second term. **The election** was thus wide open less than nine months before the President was to be chosen on Election Day. The Democratic Party was divided over whom their candidate would be to challenge the Republican, Richard Nixon. Over the course of the spring of 1968, Robert Kennedy was picking up momentum within the Democratic Party. Two events further shook the nation.

Both Martin Luther King, Jr. and Robert Kennedy were assassinated within a few months of one another. **Martin Luther King, Jr. was shot** and killed on April 4, 1968 in Memphis, Tennessee. James Earl Ray was the shooter who held highly racist convictions. Dr. King's death was marked by riots in

several cities despite the call for a non-violent response to his death by leaders of the Civil Rights Movement. His death further fragmented the Movement as the more aggressive Black Power effort began to take hold.

On June 5, 1968, **Robert Kennedy was assassinated** at a victory celebration in California on the night that he won that state's Democratic Party primary election. Sirhan Sirhan, a Palestinian immigrant who was angry over Kennedy's support of Israel, was responsible for shooting and killing the presidential candidate in the hotel immediately after he left the stage from giving his victory speech. It is thought that Kennedy's popularity and growing electoral strength may have resulted in his nomination for the Presidency had he not been killed.

Again, the 1968 Presidential Election was wrought with turmoil. The Democratic Party arrived in Chicago for their nominating convention without a clear frontrunner. The protest groups were in full force outside the convention hall and the city of Chicago struggled to maintain control. Various anti-war groups managed to become the main focus of media attention as the convention began. Chicago Mayor, Richard J. Daley, was a strong advocate of law and order. He used police and National Guard units to violently suppress groups who were attempting to disrupt the Democratic Convention. The confrontations between the police and demonstrators were broadcast live on national television. Demonstrators believed they would receive greater national support by inciting the police to action. However, the opposite reaction occurred. Most Americans, as they watched from home on television, were appalled by the protestors' challenges to policemen. The melee between police and protestors was portrayed differently based on who was recounting the event. The protestors blamed the police and the police blamed the protestors for the hostility.



The frenzied violence of the Democratic Convention played into the Republican campaign message. Richard Nixon claimed that he represented the "silent majority" of socially conservative Americans who had grown tired of the liberal excesses and violence of the 1960s. He won the election in November, beating out the Democratic nominee Hubert Humphrey. The complex social and political issues of 1968 resulted in a transition for the Civil Rights Movement and the conservative Republican Party claiming the White House.

Nixon Campaigning to win the
1968 Presidential Election

SSUSH22 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social change during the Nixon, Ford, and Carter administrations.

The Nixon, Ford, and Carter administrations spanned the 1970s. The country was recovering from the challenges of the Vietnam War. There was a new emphasis on women's equality and environmental issues in the 1970s. Politically, the Nixon administration was rocked by scandal. Internationally, the United States was working to broker peace in the Middle East but also entangled in a dangerous hostage situation.

Resources:

1. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of the 1970s. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.

Historical Era #10- 1945 to the Present

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/1945-present>

SSUSH22 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social change during the Nixon, Ford, and Carter administrations.

a. Analyze the international policies and actions taken as a response to the Cold War including the opening of and establishment of diplomatic relations with China, the end of U.S. involvement in Vietnam, the War Powers Act, the Camp David Accords, and Carter's response to the 1979 Iranian Revolution and hostage crisis.

The Cold War conflicts in Korea and Vietnam during the 1950s and 1960s gave way to efforts for deescalating the tension with world rivals. Nixon's two terms as President were marked by tremendous highs and lows. Nixon won the election in 1968 based on promises to end the war in Vietnam and to restore law and order in the United States. His efforts to secure more peaceful diplomacy with China and the Soviet Union helped to win him a second term as President. However, shortly after he was reelected in 1972, the Nixon administration fell amid domestic controversy surrounding the Watergate scandal. Under the Carter administration, the emphasis in world affairs began to shift to the Middle East.

The anti-war movement regained some support following Nixon's escalation of the Vietnam War in 1970. Instead of ending the war as he promised in the 1968 Presidential campaign, it seemed as though the war was actually expanding. President Nixon invaded Cambodia in 1970, which touched off widespread protests. One such protest was at Kent State University in Ohio. Four students were killed and several other students were wounded by the Ohio National Guard. The Vietnam anti-war movement was a key factor in the United States' decision to **withdraw from Southeast Asia**.

Nixon's foreign policy goal was to establish cordial relations with the world's leading nations. The major sticking point that stalled improved relations with these other countries was the Vietnam War. In an effort to end the fighting in Vietnam, Nixon worked at **normalizing relations with the**

People's Republic of China. Initially, China ignored the United States' overtures, but continued conflict between the Soviet Union and China over their shared frontier led the Chinese to secretly approach the Nixon administration.



President Richard Nixon and Pat Nixon at the Great Wall of China (February 1972)

In February 1972, Nixon, National Security Advisor Henry Kissinger, key advisors, and the Nixon family visited China in a well-publicized trip. Nixon and Kissinger met with Communist Party Chairman Mao Zedong and China's Premier Zhou Enlai. The United States agreed to a One China policy, which meant that Taiwan was part of China and not a separate entity. The United States would assist in seeking a peaceful solution to the China-Taiwan issue. In addition to opening China up for future business relations, Nixon's visit led the Soviet Union to abandon support for North Vietnam. The Soviets also agreed to negotiate a new nuclear disarmament treaty. North Vietnam, having lost the support of both the Soviet Union and China, concluded a peace treaty with the United States in early 1973.

One key action taken in the United States following the Vietnam War was to redistribute power concerning military action among the federal branches of government. The President had been given immense unilateral power through the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution to take any measures he deemed necessary to protect the United States. The Congress had been powerless through much of the Vietnam War to adjust the level of troop commitment to the region because of the Gulf of Tonkin's unlimited provisions. Once the war was over, the Congress passed the **War Powers Act** in 1973. The provisions of the new policy require the Congress to authorize troop commitments within a certain time frame. The measure redistributed power to conduct military operations between the executive and legislative branches.

Nixon resigned from office amid the Watergate scandal (discussed in SSUSH22b) and was replaced by Gerald Ford. Ford continued Nixon's foreign policy objectives. He continued to improve relations with both China and the Soviet Union. He began a re-assessment of U.S.-Israeli relations following the breakdown of Israeli-Egyptian peace talks. Ford also was in office when the South Vietnamese government collapsed. The communist North Vietnamese successfully took over South Vietnam in 1975, only a few years after the peace terms had been negotiated. Thus, the efforts of the United States to stop the spread of communism were unsuccessful in protecting South Vietnam from takeover. Ford was not re-elected.

In 1976, James (Jimmy) Earl Carter was elected President. Carter based his foreign policy on human rights. In 1978, Carter brokered a deal known as the **Camp David Accords** to end the Israeli-Egyptian conflict. Egyptian President Anwar Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin ultimately signed a peace treaty. The two adversaries had been at the Presidential retreat known as Camp David in Maryland for almost two weeks of negotiations led by President Carter. In the resulting treaty, Israel agreed to withdraw from the Sinai Peninsula and Egypt agreed to recognize the legitimacy of Israel.



Camp David Accords Signing Ceremony
(September 1978)

While the Camp David Accords were viewed by many to be a diplomatic success in setting the Middle East on a path toward peace, Carter's administration was rocked by other challenges in the region. The United States supported the authoritarian regime of the Shah of Iran. This led to a break in U.S.-Iranian relations. Islamic fundamentalists overthrew the **Iranian government in a 1979 revolution**. The revolt marked the beginning of a new era in the region. The fundamentalists hated the United States for its support of Israel and for what was perceived as a corruption of the Islamic World by western ideology.

At this time, Iranian-backed terrorist groups increasingly targeted the United States and U.S. interests abroad for terrorist attacks. As a part of the revolution, the Iranians seized control of the U.S. Embassy in Tehran, Iran in November 1979. The **embassy staff was held hostage** until January 1981. After negotiations failed to obtain the hostages' release, a rescue attempt was made, but it also failed. The failure of President Carter to obtain the release of the hostages in Iran was a major reason for Carter's re-election loss in 1980.

Resources:

1. **The Jimmy Carter Educational Resources** offers background and lesson plans for teaching about the Camp David Accords.
<https://jimmycarter.info/2016/03/22/a-pathway-to-peace-jimmy-carter-and-the-camp-david-accords/>

SSUSH22 – Analyze U.S. international and domestic policies including their influences on technological advancements and social changes during the Nixon, Ford, and Carter administrations.

b. Connect major domestic issues to their social effects including the creation of the Environmental Protection Agency, the emergence of the National Organization for Women, Nixon's resignation due to the Watergate scandal, and his pardon by Ford.

Domestic policy in the United States during the 1970s addressed issues including pollution and women's rights. The executive branch was also embroiled in the Watergate scandal that resulted in the resignation of President Nixon. The abuse of power exposed during the investigation led to significant mistrust of the government by the American public.

The modern environmental movement gained momentum during the 1970s as a result of two events. The earlier publication of *Silent Spring* by Rachel Carson grabbed the attention of Americans who became concerned about pollutants and the harm they were doing to the environment. Rachel Carson was an ecologist and naturalist. She wrote on nature for the United States government during the Great Depression. Concerned over the effects of the widespread use of synthetic pesticides during World War II, she wrote *Silent Spring*. Her simple examples helped readers to understand how all life was interrelated. Her study prompted local communities to monitor the effects of spraying or dusting for harmful insects. Her work was also instrumental in founding the modern environmental and subsequent government actions to protect the environment.

The second event, which prompted greater public awareness of the nation and world's environmental issues, was the creation of Earth Day in 1970. Senator Gaylord Nelson of Wisconsin, who wanted to start an environmental movement similar to the on-going anti-war movement, created the Earth Day movement. Twenty million Americans took to parks, streets, and auditoriums across the United States to rally for a healthy, sustainable environment on April 22, 1970.

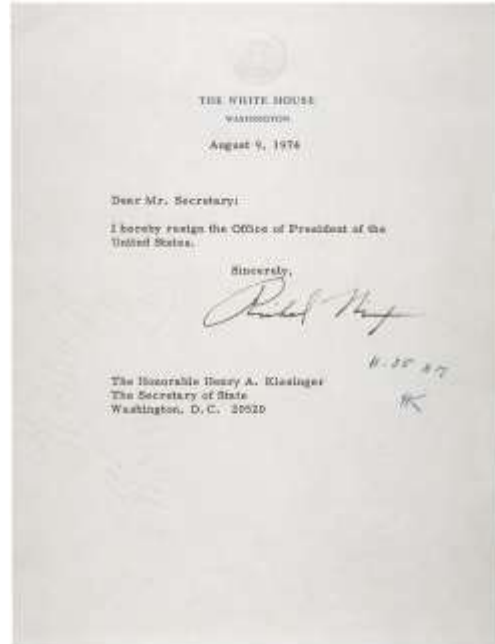
The massive support for environmentalism brought on by the publication of *Silent Spring* and the development of Earth Day led to the creation of the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and the passage of the Clean Air, Clean Water, and Endangered Species Acts. The EPA was the executive branch agency responsible for monitoring the environment, pollutants emitted by industrial facilities, and enforcing the laws passed by Congress to protect the environment.

Another issue that gained attention during the modern era was the Women's Movement. Although women acquired suffrage in 1920, there was still disparity between men and women in terms of economic and social equality. The passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1964 included Title VII, which forbade the discrimination of women and formed the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to enforce the provisions of Title VII. However, when the EEOC allowed continued gender-segregated job postings, Betty Friedan (feminist author) and Dr. Pauli Murray (Yale University law professor) decided to organize a women's rights movement similar to the other civil rights movements. The new effort was devoted strictly to women's causes. Friedan and Murray, along with 300 other men and women, created the National Organization of Women (NOW) in October 1966.

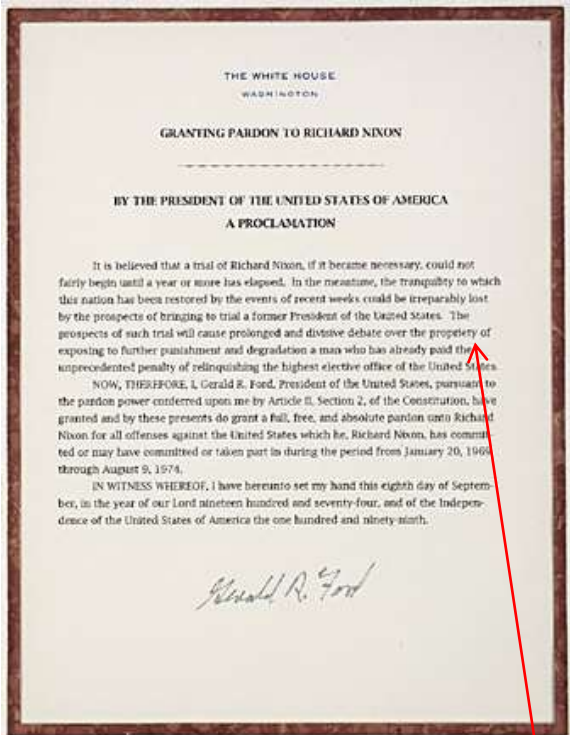
According to NOW's 1966 Statement of Purpose, the organization's goal was "to bring women into full participation in the mainstream of American society now, exercising all the privileges and responsibilities thereof in truly equal partnership with men." The following year, NOW set as its national goals the promotion of the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), the repeal of all abortion laws, and the creation of publicly funded child care. Further goals included the ending of sexual discrimination in the areas of hiring, promotion, and wages.

The United States experienced significant change during the 1960s and 1970s related to domestic and foreign policy. Another issue facing Americans was the declining level of trust they had for their government. The skepticism began with the Vietnam War and the government's messages of imminent victory that did not mesh with the images and reporting on the nightly television news. Another key contributor to the public's mistrust of the government was the Watergate scandal that led to President Nixon's resignation in 1974.

Richard Nixon was reelected to a second term as president in 1972. Over the course of the next few years information began to slowly come to light that illegal activity was emanating from the highest levels of government. The Nixon re-election campaign took illegal campaign contributions from corporations who had in turn sought special favors from the President. An even bigger scandal emerged when evidence came out that Richard Nixon authorized (or at least knew about) the burglary of the offices of the Democratic National Headquarters in the Washington D.C. Watergate Complex. The burglars were trying to find out Democratic campaign strategies and to leave eavesdropping equipment in the office. The Nixon White House tried to cover-up its involvement and obstructed the Congressional investigation. When Nixon's level of involvement in the situation became apparent through investigative news reporting, the House of Representatives began to draw up articles of impeachment against the President. Based upon the opinions of both the House and Senate, Congressional Republican leaders informed the President that he would be convicted during an impeachment trial. As a result, Nixon resigned from office on August 9, 1974 to avoid being the first President removed from office.



President Nixon Resignation Letter (August 1974)



President Ford's Pardon of Richard Nixon (Notice His Reasoning and Explanation)

Upon Nixon's resignation, his Vice President was sworn in as the new President to finish out the term. Gerald Ford was the new President. He was a well-respected thirteen term Congressman from Michigan and had replaced Spiro Agnew as Vice President when Agnew had been forced to resign over tax evasion charges.

The on-going issues surrounding the Watergate scandal maintained their hold on the government once Ford became President. Rather than continue to drag out the criminal portion of Watergate, Ford pardoned former President Nixon of any federal criminal wrong-doing. Despite harsh criticism of his action, Ford believed that it was time to put what he described as the national nightmare behind the country and focus on the issues at hand.

The Watergate scandal had a number of implications. Most significantly, there was increased cynicism and distrust of the government, which led to fewer Americans voting in elections and fewer candidates seeking office. The two-

party system was also weakened, as the reputation of the Republican Party was damaged. The Democratic nominee for President in 1976, Jimmy Carter, campaigned as an outsider who would bring integrity and transparency to the office. He won a convincing victory. A few positive outcomes came from the Watergate crisis. The media was credited with doggedly working to expose the problems of the President. The Constitutional protection afforded to the media allowed the press to do their job as gatherers and disseminators of information, even as it was revealed that threats and intimidation were leveled at them. Another positive outcome was that the crisis demonstrated the effectiveness of the United States' democratic system, especially the success of checks and balances.

Resources:

1. **The National Archives** offers a comprehensive collection of documents and interpretation of the Watergate scandal. The collection includes images, recordings, teaching activities, and worksheets to help students analyze the documents.

<https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/watergate-constitution>

SSUSH23 – Assess the political, economic, and technological changes during the Reagan, Bush, Sr., Clinton, Bush, and Obama administrations.

The presidencies of Reagan, George H.W. Bush, Clinton, George W. Bush, and Obama included some important events and issues related to political, economic, and technological change. The Cold War came to an end only to be followed soon thereafter with fighting in the Middle East. The economy of the United States experienced significant growth and foreign trade was the focus of new policy in the 1990s. Personal computing and communication technology emerged as areas of extreme growth in the new millennium. Following the contested election of 2000, the nation was gripped by the tragedy of the 9/11 attacks. The War on Terror has been an ongoing result of the international effort to end terrorist activities in their networks. Each President experienced success and challenge during his time in office.

Resources:

3. The **Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History** is a resource that provides teachers with lesson plans, primary documents, secondary source essays, and multimedia specific to each historical era. There is a separate section included for this Historical Era devoted to the study of the Age of Reagan and the new millennium. Gilder Lehrman resources include ready-to-use classroom materials and quality background information for teachers to better understand the deeper contexts of American history topics. Full access to the materials requires the teacher to obtain a free login.

Historical Era #10- 1945 to the Present

<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/1945-present>

SSUSH23 – Assess the political, economic, and technological changes during the Reagan, Bush, Sr., Clinton, Bush, and Obama administrations.

a. Analyze challenges by recent presidents including the collapse of the Soviet Union, Clinton's impeachment, the attacks of September 11, 2001, and the war against terrorism.

The modern Presidencies of Reagan, George H.W. Bush, Clinton, George W. Bush, and Obama all dealt with challenges. Some challenges were more significant than others. The Reagan years in the White House began with the continuation of the Cold War division of international power and influence between the United States and the Soviet Union. The nuclear weapon capability of both sides was massive. Over the course of Reagan's two terms in office, the Cold War ended with the collapse of the Soviet Union. The events leading up to the collapse were rapid and surprising.

The Soviet Union built up its military arsenal in the late 1970s and early 1980s but the United States still maintained a qualitative edge. President Reagan began modernizing U.S. forces and contemplating a new anti-ballistic missile shield called the Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI), which was sometimes referred to as "Star Wars." The Soviets could not respond to this modernization because the cost was beyond their resources. The Soviet Union's economy was in great decline after years of failure in agricultural and industrial production. Reagan put further pressure on his Cold War rivals by persuading the Saudi Arabians to lower the price of crude oil, thereby undercutting the Soviet Union's chief source of revenue - oil exports. The Soviet President, Mikhail Gorbachev, decided to begin a policy of Perestroika (economic rebuilding) and Glasnost (political reform).



"Gorbachev Beholds a Crushed Hammer and Sickle" by Edmund Valtman (1991)

President Gorbachev set up policies allowing free speech, free press, and other reforms. The changes put the Soviet Union on a path to democratic government. President Reagan played on these changes and began open dialogue with Gorbachev. The more cooperative relationship between the Cold War rivals resulted in a nuclear arms agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union. Gorbachev's reforms led to a **collapse of the Soviet Union** through a reduction in the Kremlin's control over the various states that comprised the Soviet Union. The Eastern European nations, which had been satellite states of the Soviet Union since the close of World War II, also rebelled against their oppressor and established their own democratic states. By 1989, the Cold

War was over. The effort of President Reagan to foster the relationship with Gorbachev helped to end the Cold War and was a highlight of his presidency.

After Ronald Reagan served two terms as President, his Vice President George H.W. Bush was elected in 1988. He served one term, which included a costly economic downturn and the successful use of military resources in the 1991 Gulf War against Saddam Hussein in Iraq. President George H.W. Bush lost his reelection bid to the Democratic Candidate, Bill Clinton, in 1992.

In October 2001, Bush took another step in his response to the September 11th attack. He authorized Operation Enduring Freedom, which was an invasion of Afghanistan by the United States military and allied forces. Afghanistan's Taliban government was harboring the al-Qaeda leadership. The allied forces quickly defeated the Taliban government and destroyed the al-Qaeda network in Afghanistan; however, al-Qaeda's leader Osama bin Laden escaped.

The invasion of Afghanistan was part of President Bush's larger **War on Terrorism**, for which he built an international coalition to fight the al-Qaeda network and other terrorist groups responsible for the attack on the United States. In March 2003, American and British troops invaded Iraq in Operation Iraqi Freedom. Iraq's president, Saddam Hussein, went into hiding while U.S. forces searched for weapons of mass destruction. Bush feared Hussein had the weapons and could supply them to terrorists for use against the United States. No weapons of mass destruction were found during the operation. However, Hussein was captured, convicted of crimes against humanity, and executed in 2006. Bush's presidency was challenging from the beginning. He had the support of most Americans immediately following the September 11, 2001 attacks but lost some support when no weapons of mass destruction were found in Iraq.

Resources:

1. **The Digital Public Library** offers a Primary Source Set and Teaching Guide entitled, "Attacks on American Soil: Pearl Harbor and September 11." The documents include political cartoons, images from 9/11, and audio files.
<https://dp.la/primary-source-sets/sets/attacks-on-american-soil-pearl-harbor-and-september-11>
2. **The University of Virginia's Miller Center** provides outstanding material for each president. The site includes background essays, speeches, images, and video pertaining to all aspects of each man's life and presidency.
Reagan- <https://millercenter.org/president/reagan>
George H.W. Bush - <https://millercenter.org/president/bush>
Clinton - <https://millercenter.org/president/clinton>
George W. Bush - <https://millercenter.org/president/gwbush>

SSUSH23 – Assess the political, economic, and technological changes during the Reagan, Bush, Sr., Clinton, Bush, and Obama administrations.

b. Examine economic policies of recent presidents including Reaganomics.

The economy of the United States has experienced highs and lows during recent presidential administrations. To address the 1970s stagnant economy, President Reagan instituted what became known as Reaganomics. The economy grew during the Reagan years of the 1980s but the growth came with large federal budget deficits. The later economic challenges that George H.W. Bush experienced during his term in office were taken on by President Clinton in his 1990s effort to end the budget deficit through tax cuts and reduced federal spending. During the War on Terror, President George W. Bush increased spending in the wake of the September 11th attacks. President Obama entered office with

the economic recession of the early 2000s. His economic policy included a stimulus package to increase jobs and economic growth. Overall, the modern Presidents experienced significant economic growth and decline. Each approached economic policy differently.

In 1980, Ronald Reagan was elected President by campaigning against what was cast as a weak



President Reagan Explaining His Tax Plan to the American People (1981)

and ineffective Carter presidency. Reagan pledged to restore the United States' economy and prestige at home and abroad. One basic principle of his domestic policy was the belief in supply-side economics, often referred to as **Reaganomics**. President Reagan held that if Americans had more money to spend, then the economy would improve. There were four key components to Reaganomics.

1. Reduce government spending
2. Reduce income tax and capital gains tax
3. Reduce government regulation
4. Control the money supply to reduce inflation

In general, the United States experienced a sustained period of economic growth during the period. However, federal deficits also increased dramatically, which led to economic problems in the 1990s.

Resources:

1. **The University of Virginia's Miller Center** offers a comprehensive view of President Ronald Reagan. Included is a detailed explanation of Reaganomics.
<https://millercenter.org/president/reagan>

SSUSH23 – Assess the political, economic, and technological changes during the Reagan, Bush, Sr., Clinton, Bush, and Obama administrations.

c. Examine the influence of technological changes on society including the personal computer, the Internet, and social media.

Technology in the late Twentieth Century dramatically changed society. The efficiency of new technological innovations led to greater productivity in business, industrial, and personal sectors. Communication was revolutionized as new platforms took hold at the start of the new millennium.

Scholars at the University of Pennsylvania designed the first computer in 1946. Their device was known as ENIAC (Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer). While it was the first step into the new technological age, it was not practical for widespread consumer use. ENIAC was enormous and had a limited capacity for output. The next step was to reduce the size of the computer's hardware in order to make the technology viable for business and eventually **personal use**. That development came about in 1971 with the invention of the microprocessor. The power of ENIAC was thus harnessed and contained in a silicon chip the size of a postage stamp. The capability of computers was growing very quickly with computation and word processing functions. Technology innovators were also improving the speed at which computers were able to process data.

As computer technology improved, a vast new world of instant, global communication arose. During the 1980s and 1990s, Internet was developed as a conglomeration of computer networks from around the world. Personal computers became popular as the Internet became more accessible to individuals. No longer was computer technology used solely in business and manufacturing settings. Home computers became more affordable and practical in their capability for individual use.

A new platform for communication emerged from the development of the **Internet**. The term Email is short for electronic mail. In the mid-1990s, the use of Email started to become a popular mode for sending messages instantly over the Internet. No longer did commercial companies or individuals have to wait for written documents, messages, or information to be physically transported. Instead, Email is an immediate method of information transfer. Email changed the way business communication is conducted and the way individuals often communicate.

Social Media is another recent technological phenomenon in which individuals share information in online communities. Popular social media platforms include Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat. Individuals create accounts and share or post messages, photos, and videos to the online community they create. The popularity of social media has dramatically increased in the first few decades of the Twenty-first Century. Social media is becoming a source for news and instant information sharing. While popular, there are growing concerns about the credibility and reliability of some information disseminated through social media. Cyber bullying is another problem that has resulted from the advent of social media.

Technological changes in the Twenty-first Century have been dramatic. Businesses and individuals rely heavily on computers, the Internet, and social media for communication and productivity. While innovation has increased global connectivity and efficiency, there have been some negative consequences that came along with the new technology. Privacy, trustworthiness of information being presented, and cyber security risks are all challenges that must be addressed as technology continues to evolve.

Resources:

1. **The History Channel** offers a comprehensive overview of the development of the Internet. Included is a background essay and video clips related to the rise of Internet technology. <http://www.history.com/topics/inventions/invention-of-the-internet>

SSUSH23 – Assess the political, economic, and technological changes during the Reagan, Bush, Sr., Clinton, Bush, and Obama administrations.

d. Examine the historic nature of the presidential election of 2008.

The candidates in the **Presidential Election of 2008** campaigned on the issues of the lagging economy and the war to fight terrorism. Trillions of dollars had been spent on the war in Iraq, the economy was weakening, and unemployment was on the rise. It was a politically charged campaign that led to the **historic outcome** of the election in which the first person of color was elected to be President of the United States.

Many Americans and journalists thought Hillary Clinton would be the Democratic nominee for the 2008 Presidential Election. Instead the Democratic Party nominated Barack Obama. His platform of "Hope and Change," delivered with skilled oratory, captured the attention of his party and many Americans. Obama was relatively new to national politics having only served one term as a Senator from Illinois. Barack Obama was a 47 year old, Harvard educated lawyer when he was elected President. He was the biracial son of a White woman from Kansas and a Black man from Kenya.



President Barack Obama Inauguration - January 2009

Obama's Republican opponent in the 2008 Presidential Election was Senator John McCain of Arizona. In contrast to Obama's youth and lack of national political experience, McCain was a veteran on both counts. He was 72 years old during the campaign in 2008, had served in the United States Congress for 25 years, and was a Vietnam War veteran who was shot down and captured as a Prisoner of War. The campaign between McCain and Obama was hard fought. Ultimately, Obama won with an Electoral College victory of 365-173.

Barack Obama was reelected in 2012 over the Republican nominee, Mitt Romney. Obama served two terms as President. Some of the major outcomes of his presidency were the controversial passage of Healthcare Reform (Obamacare) in 2010. His foreign policy effort was highlighted by the elimination of Osama bin Laden, who was America's prime target in the War on Terror after the September 11th attack. A Navy SEAL team killed bin Laden on May 11, 2011. Throughout Obama's historic presidency there was a growing conservative movement that opposed the efforts of the President and the Democratic Party. The result was a deep political divide in the United States that pitted Democrats and Republicans in bitter state and national elections.

Resources:

1. **The University of Virginia's Miller Center** offers a comprehensive overview of Barack Obama's background and his presidency. Included is a background essay, documents pertaining to his presidency, and video discussions of his policy.
<https://millercenter.org/president/obama>